Translanguaging as pedagogy in a Chinese complementary school in the UK

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Abstract

This study investigates language teachers' translanguaging practices in three Mandarin classes of a Chinese complementary school in the UK. It draws on the ideas of translanguaging as individuals' deployment of their full linguistic repertoires, translanguaging as multimodal system, translanguaging as bilingual pedagogy, translanguaging as the embodiment of users' sociocultural background, and examines current critical perspectives on translanguaging. The study explores the actual translingual practices deployed by class teachers in language classrooms and the factors that influence those practices. In the 2016/17 academic year, I conducted an eight-month ethnographic fieldwork study, collecting qualitative data in three phases: classroom observation, classroom audio recording and interviews with class teachers. This study has five main findings: (1) translanguaging is widely, efficiently and inevitably deployed in language classrooms of the Chinese complementary school, for the purposes of teaching Chinese language knowledge (characters, Pinyin and unique expressions), differentiating students with varying Chinese language abilities, and giving general instruction within teaching practices; (2) translanguaging facilitates class teachers' other teaching practices (i.e. scaffolding, drills and translation); (3) class teachers make meaning by drawing upon their own and their learners' wide range of semiotic resources, for example, embodied gestures, pictures, signs, mime and so on; (4) the use of translanguaging is influenced by teachers' teaching content, their understanding of learners, and students' responses in class; (5) the focus of teaching content in language education where societally named languages have to be treated separately challenges an orientation towards the translanguaging concept that describes individuals' flexible use of their linguistic repertoire in language teaching contexts. Findings show that this tension might vary from class to class and teacher to teacher. The study concludes that translanguaging practice permeates into day-to-day language teaching practices in Chinese complementary schools. Compared to multililingual contexts, translanguaging is deployed critically by class teachers in language educational context.

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List of Abbreviations

CCS	Chinese Complementary School
HLC	Higher Level Class
HLCT	Higher Level Class Teacher
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
LLC	Lower Level Class
LLCT	Lower Level Class Teacher
MLC	Middle Level Class
MLCT	Middle Level Class Teacher
MT	Mother Tongue
OLAT	One Language at a Time
OLON	One Language Only
TCSOL	Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Language
TL	Target Language
UK	United Kingdom
UKFCS	United Kingdom Federation of Chinese schools
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development
FLP	Family Language Policy

Chapter 1 Introduction

Introduction

This thesis is an examination of the theory and practice of translanguaging. Building on critical analysis of translanguaging as pedagogy, it interprets Chinese language teachers' language use in a Chinese complementary school in the United Kingdom. I examine teachers' language practice and investigate their reflection on the practice through a translanguaging lens. Despite the fact that Chinese complementary schools have been established and developed in many countries; and the flexible use of teachers' and students' communicative repertoires show great research value of those schools, few studies focus on classroom interactions in this context. This study, by examining the use of more than one societally named language and its influence on teachers and learners, aims to raise people's attention to the language practice that takes place in these educational institutions. Furthermore, through the lens of translanguaging, it legitimises class teachers' flexible use of language and describes some other semiotic resources that teachers deploy to make meaning in bilingual classrooms. The findings of my study are significant in terms of educational practices and the current critical debates about translanguaging.

This study primarily focuses on the actual use of language and other semiotic resources as translanguaging practice. In addition, it also looks at the factors that influence teachers' translanguaging practice. In order to probe into the Chinese complementary school classroom interactions which are complicated in respect of language and culture, I adopted the ethnographic approach as the guiding methodological theory to conduct my study. Through analysing the audio recording classroom data that collected in three different level classes for eight months and the interview data with class teachers, this thesis provides a panoramic view of Chinese language teaching in the Chinese complementary school, in association with classroom language, class teachers' beliefs about language teaching; and their reflection upon their teaching practice.

Chapter one introduces relevant background information. I begin with a description of the research context, including the establishment and development of complementary schools in British society. I then introduce the rationale for doing this study. Section 1.3 is about a note on terminology that

briefly clarifies some key words that will be mentioned later on in this thesis. Finally, I outline the structure of the thesis.

1.1 The context of the study

This section describes the context of my study from different perspectives. First, I look at the linguistic and cultural diversity in the United Kingdom, British government's responses to language diversity; and the establishment of complementary schools in the UK. I then outline the development of Chinese complementary schools in the UK throughout the past fifty years. Lastly, I narrow it down to focus on the Chinese complementary school in my study.

1.1.1 Linguistic and cultural diversity in the UK

The latest Migration Statistics Quarterly Report: May 2019 released by the Office for National Statistics shows that in the year ending December 2018, long-term estimated immigration to the UK is 602,000. Those immigrants and their descendants come from countries with different languages and cultural backgrounds all over the world. They contribute to a multilingual and multicultural British society, which is described as *superdiverse* by Steven Vertovec (2007). It refers to the complexity and diversity across multiple dimensions which migration and globalisation entail. As mentioned in Blackledge and Creese (2010), despite the fact that there are more than 300 languages and varieties being spoken in England, the use of minority languages has frequently been viewed as problematic (p.5). In terms of the issues of immigrant children's language and education, the language learning needs of migrant children have been recognised in the report *English for Immigrants* (DES, 1963); but it was not until the Bullock Report *A Language for Life* (DES, 1975) that their culture and identity were recognised (Conteh et al., 2007, pp.2-3). Despite this, the protection and legitimisation of minority languages and cultures remain an issue to be resolved in the UK.

With the growing number of immigrants and their descendants, the origin of complementary schools can be dated back to late 1960s (Li, 2006). Due to Afro-Caribbean parents' dissatisfaction of the education system in mainstream schools, they started the first group of complementary schools (Li, 2006, pp.76-7). This is followed by the Muslim communities of South Asian and African origins in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Li, 2006, p.77). Meanwhile, other immigrant

communities like the Chinese, the Turkish, and the Greek communities set up their complementary schools for their British-born generations in order to "maintain their linguistic and cultural heritage" (Li, 2006, p.78). However, despite the establishment of complementary schools, there is a lack of support from the local education authorities (Hall et al., 2002).

The purposes of complementary schools are broadly divided into two categories: supplementing mainstream education and educating pupils about their cultural origins, history, language and so on (Francis et al., 2009, p.520). The first purpose has undergone a noticeable change. As discussed, in 1960s complementary schools were established out of parents' dissatisfaction of mainstream schooling. Recently, more parents send their children to complementary schools for the purpose of learning minority languages which are not being taught in mainstream schools. There are also some parents who want their children to complete GCSE or GCE Advanced Level exams in minority languages such as Arabic, Cantonese, Gujarati, Mandarin, Polish, Turkish, Urdu, and so on. Therefore, in addition to the focus of literacy in ethnic languages and the maintenance of the minority culture and language, complementary schools also make up an essential part of many young people's education (Szczepek Reed et al., 2019; Wang, 2014). Studies on complementary schools in the UK have examined the purpose and development of complementary schools (Li, 2006), interaction that takes place in Gujarati complementary school (Creese et al., 2006; Creese and Blackledge, 2010; Creese and Blackledge, 2011) and Chinese complementary school (Creese and Blackledge, 2010; Creese and Blackledge, 2011; Li and Wu, 2009; Li and Zhu, 2014; Wang, 2014); and identity construction in Chinese complementary school (Francis et al., 2009) and Arabic complementary school (Szczepek Reed et al., 2019).

1.1.2 Chinese complementary schools in the UK

In the third wave of the complementary schools movement, Chinese complementary schools have been set up since the 1970s (Li, 1993). In 2016, a survey was carried out by the UK Federation of Chinese Schools (UKFCS) (unpublished), which involves 46 Chinese complementary schools in different cities in the UK. Among these schools, 65% have been established for more than 20 years, 28% between 11 to 20 years and the remaining 7% established in the last 10 years. In addition, the survey report shows that "the vast majority of

schools are established as independent organisations, with 28% affiliated with the local Chinese Community Associations" (p.1).

In more recent studies, a noticeable change is pointed out about the increasing number of Mandarin class and the shrinking of Cantonese class (Li and Zhu, 2014; Wang, 2014). This change is influenced by the composition of the Chinese immigrants in the UK. When Chinese complementary schools were first established, since most Chinese ethnic immigrants come from Cantonese-, Hokkien- and Hakka-speaking provinces of mainland China, the language that was taught in Chinese complementary schools was mainly Cantonese (Li and Zhu, 2014, p.120). With the increasing of British Chinese immigrants who come from other Mandarin-speaking parts of China, the number of students who enrol Mandarin class is expanding gradually. There are significant differences in the number of students learning Mandarin and Cantonese. This can be analysed by comparing data from schools that offer both language courses. The school in my study has experienced the same situation. According to the accounts of a founder's descendant, the school was first established by Chinese immigrants who are Hakka and Cantonese speakers. In the late 1990s, a Mandarin class was provided as interest class. Then around 2009, Mandarin class has become another language class choice other than Cantonese due to the new Chinese immigrants coming to the UK. About few years ago, the number of students in both language classes was about the same, but the newest statistics show that in 2019-2020 academic year, there are 164 students enrolled in Mandarin class and only 54 students enrolled in Cantonese class. The loss of Cantonese students suggests that in order to meet the need of the changing society, Chinese complementary schools are dynamic in terms of the language classes that they provide.

Most of these schools are voluntary schools (Creese and Martin, 2006, p.1), which are self-financed, self-governing, and receive little support from local education authorities (Li and Wu, 2009, p.197). The UKFCS survey suggests that 91% of these schools' main source of income is the tuition fee charged to students (excluding additional book fees and extracurricular activity fees). However, some schools are provided with sponsorship and support from local businesses and academic institutions like the local Confucius Institute which has links with universities in China. Before teachers came to the Confucius Institute

to teach Chinese as a foreign language, they have been trained to be professional Chinese language teachers and sent to teach overseas by those Chinese universities.

According to Li and Wu (2009), teachers in Chinese complementary schools are mainly enthusiastic parents and university students from China (p.197). Statistics in the UKFCS survey support this point: "a vast majority of school use parents of pupils to teach, followed by 57% of schools fortunate enough to have qualified teachers and 37% being overseas students and the remaining 7% taught by members of the church". Because of the nature of Chinese complementary schools, that is to say all the positions are volunteers, the criteria for recruiting teachers are not strict, which in turn leads to the concerns in relation to teachers' qualification, training and dedication in those schools (Wu et al., 2011). In addition to the issue of teachers' qualification in teaching Chinese language, teachers' proficiency in English language also appears to be a question compared with students' more sophisticated English knowledge (Li and Wu, 2009, p.198). Despite these insufficiencies, people in this community (staff, teachers, parents and organisations) devote themselves to maintaining the operation of those schools and improving the teaching quality.

Like the UKFCS and the Confucius Institute, other organisations are also established to support this type of school's Chinese language teaching and learning, for example, the UK Association for the Promotion of Chinese Education and local Chinese Community Associations. These organisations annually gather Chinese complementary school teachers to provide training and offer a platform for them to communicate. In order to meet teachers' various needs and interests, parallel workshops are provided to cover different aspects of teaching Chinese language. During the process of doing this study, I was involved in these training a couple of times. I think these are good opportunities for teachers to share their ideas and teaching pedagogy. However, despite the fact that organisations create these training opportunities for teachers, it appears that some Chinese complementary school teachers are not highly motivated according to Wu et al. (2011).

In Wu et al. (2011), they indicate that teachers in complementary schools do not perceive themselves to be "legitimate teachers" (p.49). Furthermore, their perception of this teaching position is a secondary job with limited income;

therefore rather than seeking professional development, their emotional attachment to the school and the community motivate them to teach in these schools (p.51).

With the widespread of Chinese language learning in the UK, students in Chinese complementary schools are not only limited within the Chinese community. Pupils come from various backgrounds and have different motivations. Some children come to learn Chinese language because of their own or parents' interest in Chinese. Some are reluctant to come, but they have to because of their parents' expectations (Maguire and Curdt-Christiansen, 2007).

For these schools, most of them have a similar routine. Li and Wu (2009) sketches the patterns of typical Chinese complementary schools as follows:

> It rents its premises from a local school or education centre. There is a temporary reception desk at the entrance for parents to speak to the teachers about any issues of interest. A shop is available for children to buy snacks and drinks. Space is provided for staff to have tea and coffee during the break and to have meetings. The children are grouped according to proficiency in Chinese. There are traditional Chinese dance, arts and sports sessions before or after the language and literacy sessions. Many schools also provide English language lessons for parents (p.198).

Those schools provide Cantonese classes, Mandarin classes, or both. Apart from language lessons, students can also learn Chinese language by participating in events or competitions that are frequently hosted by schools or by organisations that I mentioned earlier. The "replication of culture" (Francis et al., 2009) is one of the purposes of establishing Chinese complementary schools. It relates to the additional lessons such as calligraphy, ink painting, Chinese dance, Kung Fu, paper folding and cutting that are provided in order to signify Chinese culture (Francis et al., 2009; Li and Zhu, 2014). The school in this study provides language classes (Cantonese and Mandarin) and other additional classes (singing, dancing and recitation). Compared with two/three hours' language classes, the additional classes are shorter (one hour long). Students in additional classes would have the opportunity to be involved in competitions hold by the Chinese community in the UK.

1.1.3 The Chinese complementary school in this study

To my knowledge, there are five large-scale Chinese complementary schools in West Yorkshire, UK, excluding schools run for profit. This study focuses on one of the biggest in this area. According to the prospectus of this school (unpublished), it was originally a small Word Understanding Class with only a few students and primitive facilities. It was formed above a restaurant by a patriotic overseas Chinese in 1966. In the 1970s the school was allowed to use classrooms at a mainstream school. Since then, it "has evolved and has increased in its pupil attendance" as introduced in the prospectus. The school site has changed many times due to rebuilding and rent issues. Gradually, through the endeavour of three generations, over the past five decades it has been transformed to a well organised complementary school. Now it has over 200 students and 30 teachers (including paid class teachers, paid teaching assistants, paid administrators, and non-paid volunteers). These statistics have been rising in recent years, which shows that this school is growing and worth being studied.

Teachers in this school are from all walks of life. Some are parents of students; others are lawyers, doctors, engineers, teachers, university students and so on. In addition to this, each year, there are teachers assigned by the Confucius Institute to assist with Chinese language teaching in this school. Due to the school's nature as a charity organisation, their budget is limited. Therefore, class teachers and teaching assistances are paid travelling expense rather than paid salary.

The age range of students in this school is from 4/5 to 15/16. They receive British education during week days and learn Chinese language at this Chinese complementary school during weekends. During the first few registration weeks in each academic year, students are allocated to classes in different grades according to their age and Chinese language ability. Pupils can choose to attend Mandarin or Cantonese class. There are also a few students who register both. The tuition fee is around £100 per student per year. In addition to this, the school receives financial support and donations from local businesses and fundraising events for the school. Expenditures are mainly on renting school site, purchasing daily necessities, paying teachers' and staff's travelling expenses, training teachers; and holding events.

This school runs for non-profit. According to the school website, its aim is to provide children of local communities with Chinese language and culture learning opportunities. Like the patterns of Chinese complementary schools mentioned in Section 1.1.2, it opens once a week during weekends. It rents classrooms from a local mainstream school. Overall, the school has 9 Mandarin classes and 10 Cantonese classes. These two sessions run in sequence: Mandarin classes from 12.00 pm to 14.00 pm, and Cantonese classes from 14.00 pm to 16.00 pm. Classes are ranged from the reception level all the way up to GCSE, A-level, and adult class. The syllabus is based on the textbooks and teaching materials compiled by the UKFCS.

This school has connections with other regional Chinese schools for events and training. In addition to its role as a language school, it also aims to provide a community for Chinese people to communicate and settle in the UK. Every year, it holds Parents Meeting Day, Graduation Ceremony, and other events to unite staff, students, parents, enthusiastic people, organisations, China's consulate general in the UK, local city council; and even some schools in mainland China, together. According to the head teacher's statement in the school's prospectus, this school has worked on linking with other organisations, embracing students at different levels, and retaining teachers. All of these have proven to be a success. It is still progressing, which shows its potential and value to be investigated as I mentioned earlier in this section. This is also one of the rationales for my choice of this school.

1.2 Research rationale

There are many factors that prompted me to do this research. The most influential one is my experience of being a teaching assistant and a class teacher of two Chinese complementary schools in the UK since 2013. In these years, as a teaching assistant, I have witnessed students' responses to teachers' language. As a language teacher, I have talked with students' parents after class. I have also discussed the issue of teachers' language use with colleagues in teacher training activities. It is these experiences that gradually deepened my research interest in this context.

I came across the concept of translanguaging when I was working on my MA dissertation that looks at English language teachers' language in secondary

school classrooms in China. I was fascinated by the way that how translanguaging understands individuals' language practice. As my understanding of Chinese complementary schools developing, I realised that many bilingual/multilingual practices which are studied as other concepts (for example code-switching and translation) can be described through the lens of translanguaging which shifts its focus away from language or code. Given the significance and the timeliness that I introduced at the beginning of this thesis, I decided to investigate teachers' deployment of language in complementary school classrooms based on my theoretical basis and teaching experience. As an insider of this context, I would be able to probe and provide more detail that outsiders cannot. As a researcher, I am aware of the strengths and weaknesses being an insider (the researcher positionality is discussed in Section 3.1.1), and at the same time, by constantly reflecting on my teaching practice throughout this study, I can provide practical suggestions for language teachers, school policy makers and Chinese community organisations. Despite the fact that translanguaging is inevitably used by class teachers in those schools, even in wider language educational contexts, the validity and effectiveness of translanguaging, the actual practice of translanguaging and the hidden factors that lead to translanguaging practice are still unknown to teachers and school policy makers. Therefore, the significance of this study is that it validates the deployment of translanguaging, reveals how language and other semiotic repertoires are deployed effectively and seamlessly to make meaning, indicates influencing factors underneath teachers' language choice and suggests improvements accordingly.

Next, based on my experience working with students, class teachers, parents and school founders in relation to Chinese complementary schools, I tell three vignettes illustrating students' learning experience in such schools. These personal, descriptive, and analytic accounts highlight my perspective and position in the research site (Copland and Creese, 2015; Goodson and Tagg, 2018). In addition, as a researcher, my experience is observed in the field as well as participants, which echoes the ideas of the ethnographic research approach. The illustration and discussion of these vignettes present a sketch of Chinese complementary schools. Meanwhile, the problems that I have identified in this

context are described in a vivid and understandable way. All the names in these vignettes and later excerpts of this thesis have been anonymised.

These three vignettes took place in three cities in the UK, and the narrators have different roles. Vignette one is my story, describing my classroom experience when I was a teaching assistant in a Chinese complementary school in Birmingham. Vignette two is a narration of a mother telling about her child's experience in two Chinese complementary schools in Leeds. The last one is the accounts of a Chinese complementary school founder in Chester, recalling the development of her school's policy in relation to the process of allocating students and teachers.

Vignette One

I was a teaching assistant in Ms. W's class, and the students were familiar with me. One day, Ms. W asked for leave, so the school allocated Ms. T to cover. Normally Ms. W adopts both Chinese and English language to teach. On that day, Ms. T spoke Chinese almost throughout her lesson. Since pupils have different home languages, some of them rarely speak Chinese outside the Chinese complementary school. The boy that I am going to talk about belongs to this group.

Although he has always been naughty, he would complete the tasks assigned by Ms. W. On that day, however, he refused to cooperate. Whenever Ms. T asked him to answer a question, he ignored her and walked straight toward me. In order to cope with students' chaos in her lesson, Ms. T raised her tone several times.

This vignette illustrates an obvious contrast of a boy's response to two class teachers due to their different classroom language. Certainly, there might be other reasons that lead to this result. For example, Ms. T acts as an acquaintance for the students; or Ms. T is lack of experience in the classroom management. But based on my understanding of the context, it is assumed that Ms. T's language in class is one of the main factors that influences her control of the whole class.

Vignette Two

This mother has a dual role. She is a mother whose child has experienced 'Mandarin only classroom' and 'English allowed classroom' in two schools. She is also a teacher in one of these two schools. She has noticed her child's different attitudes towards these two types of school:

"Children born and bred in England had experienced difficulty having lessons taught entirely in Mandarin. They have found it challenging to

understand the teacher's instructions therefore disengaged in the class."

Based on this mother's observation of her child's behaviour and her reflection on that, this vignette shows the influence of the school policy in relation to language use in classrooms upon the student's learning motivation and learning outcome. This mother's accounts touch two aspects. First, she highlighted the language needs of students who were born in England. Second, it seems that a school's language policy is influential in guiding teachers' language practice, whether or not the policy is strictly enforced.

Vignette Three

Ms. C is one of the school founders. Eight years ago when the school just started, students who have Chinese backgrounds (Chinese parents or born in China) were allocated in same class with those who do not. Founders gradually noticed some differences: students in the former group have Chinese parents or grandparents who can assist or force them to practice Chinese while students in the latter group need lively teaching methods and textbooks. In addition, students in the second group need teachers who can understand them. That is to say, when they raise their hands in class, if teachers neglect or give no response to their English language, they would "switch off their interest". One of the founders mentioned that if pupils in this group are immersed in the Chinese-only classroom, they would not understand the lesson completely, and their frustration would further lead to a situation that students are unable to finish their homework.

Five years ago, in consideration of the difficulties that mentioned above, the school founders decided to divide students into the "heritage language class" and the "foreign language class" according to their family background. This change proved to be effective by adopting different teaching styles, different expectations and different proportion of Chinese language used in classrooms. Ms. C also mentioned that even for the "heritage language class", there is no lesson being taught in Chinese-only.

Vignette three describes the school policy makers' attempts to meet students' needs through the method of differentiation, which highlights students' complex linguistic, cultural and historical background. Founders of the school also warn of the potential drawbacks if students' needs are not effectively reacted. Another significant point that I want to point out here is the school founder's general comments on language use in two types of classes. She mentioned that even if more Chinese language is used in the "heritage language class", English language is still needed and used in all classes.

These three stories show that in all these three Chinese complementary schools, teachers' language use seems to be a crucial issue. From the students' perspective, there is behavioural and emotional resistance to certain language use; and from the schools' perspective, there are positive results brought by the transformative language policies. This means that there is a requirement for studies on the classroom language in this particular context.

Previous research on translanguaging practice in educational contexts focuses on translanguaging as pedagogy (García and Kano, 2014; García and Sylvan, 2011; Creese and Blackledge, 2010), language and identity (Creese and Blackledge, 2015; Maguire and Curdt-Christiansen, 2007), teachers' and students' attitude towards learning and teaching language in complementary schools (Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Cho, 2014; Li, 2011; Liu, 2006; Maguire and Curdt-Christiansen, 2007; Wu et al., 2011), and policies of governments and schools (Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Conteh et al., 2007; Li and Wu, 2009). Day-to-day language practice in complementary classrooms has not been examined from a translanguaging perspective. There is also a lack of research on the influencing factors that below translanguaging practice. In terms of the scale of research conducted in Chinese complementary schools, there is a paucity of in-depth research focusing on different levels of class in a large school. Considering these literature gaps in association with the problems of language use identified in the three vignettes, next, I provide the guiding research questions of my study.

1.3 A note on terminology

Throughout this thesis, certain terms are introduced to describe the context, analyse data, and discuss findings. Since the understanding of a term may vary due to different perspectives, I first disambiguate my use of some terms in this study below.

Chinese Complementary School

Complementary schools are also called "supplementary schools", "heritage language schools", or "community language schools" (Blackledge and Creese, 2010, p.3). By defining those schools as "complementary school", Creese and Martin (2006) stress "the positive complementary function between these schools and mainstream schools for those who teach or learn in them" (p.1). This

thesis uses Chinese complementary school(s) to refer to the school(s) established and ran by the Chinese communities as introduced in Section 1.1. I chose this term because "complementary" reflects the nature of this type of school which is very different from the mainstream schools in relation to the establishment and operation of schools. It is not the "main" education. Moreover, this word highlights the invaluable qualities, that is, the minority language and culture that those schools strive to preserve.

First Language and *The language that students are more familiar with*

Students learning in Chinese complementary schools have a wide range of linguistic background. Some are British-born Chinese with ethnic Chinese parents; some were brought to the UK a few years after their birth in China; some are local people with non-Chinese ethnic parents. Even for those pupils who come from China, they have various birthplace and first language due to the diversity of Chinese dialects. Therefore, although they all have settled in the UK and most of them speak fluent English, it is inappropriate to generally label English as their "first language", "mother tongue", or "native language". Hall and Cook (2012) propose the term of *own language* to describe students' shared language (p.274). However, as I said, it appears to me that students do not share a language due to their linguistically diverse background. Therefore, I think in the context of my study, it is appropriate to say a student's *own language*, but inappropriate to say students' *own language*. In most cases, I use "the language that students are more familiar with" to indicate the English language. But according to the class teachers in my study, they think the English language as students' first language and mother tongue. Therefore, the term of "first language" is also used in this thesis, referring to the English language.

Target Language and *Chinese (language)*

As mentioned earlier, this study looks at language practice through a translanguaging lens, therefore, it seems that distinguishing the first language from the target language is problematic. However, considering the focus of instruction in the language classes of my study, I keep these two terms here. "Target language" in this thesis means the language that is being taught and learned, that is, Mandarin Chinese. The teaching of Chinese language in Chinese complementary schools is broadly classified into Mandarin and

Cantonese. In this study, I focus on three Mandarin classes. Therefore, whenever the "Chinese language" is mentioned in this thesis, it stands for Mandarin with simplified characters. A detailed introduction of Mandarin Chinese language in terms of its written form and pronunciation system can be found in Section 2.4.2.

Translanguaging Practices

Drawing on the definition in Baynham and Lee (2019),

> "Translanguaging practices are locally occasioned, thus influenced and shaped by context but also by the affordances of the particular communication modes or combinations thereof in the context. Translanguaging practices are typically language from below and are liable to be seen as infringing purist monolingual or regulated bilingual language ideologies and hence can be understood as speaking back, explicitly or implicitly, to those ideologies." (p.25)

My study examines language classrooms where the Chinese language is taught as the teaching content. Therefore, from the perspective of teaching objectives, the first language and the target language are referred to bounded language systems in bilingual classrooms. However, from an insider's perspective (Otheguy et al., 2015), I adopt translanguaging "as a tool for thinking with" (Baynham and Lee, 2019, p.25). That is to say, the same classroom language practices are seen in different ways and from different perspectives. Therefore in my study, I see translanguaging practices as the specific practices of teaching and learning in an environment where no named language is bounded. Translanguaging regards semiotic repertoires as dynamic, situated practices, whereby language resources and multimodal semiotic signs are intertwined to make meaning. It understands individuals' language practice from a range of perspectives (i.e. multimodal perspective, user-centred perspective, pedagogical perspective and ecological perspective). I will continue with a more detailed introduction of this term and those perspectives in the next chapter.

Apart from these frequently used terms mentioned above, the introduction, review and discussion of other significant terms can be found in the Theoretical Framework Chapter and the Discussion Chapter.

1.4 Thesis structure

This thesis is organised as follows: this chapter has provided a general understanding of my study's context. In Chapter 2, I introduce the theoretical

framework that underpins my study. The whole process of conducting this study is discussed in great detail in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 and 5 report the findings of my study by analysing two datasets: the classroom data and the teachers' interview data. In Chapter 6, I further discuss my main findings by answering the research questions and critically re-examining the relevant literature. Chapter 7 is the final conclusion chapter which summarises the contributions, implications, limitations, and reflection of my study.

Chapter 2 Theoretical framework

Introduction

I situate my study within a theoretical framework that encompasses four conceptual perspectives in relation to the theory and practice of translanguaging: a multimodal perspective, a user-centred perspective, a pedagogical perspective and an ecological perspective. As mentioned in Chapter 1, my understanding of translanguaging is relevant to the situated practices that take place in a Chinese complementary school. In this particular context, language teachers deploy a wide range of communicative repertoires to teach Chinese as a heritage language. Therefore, rather than being avoided, the minority language is preserved, taught and studied in the context of my study. I take translanguaging in this thesis to refer to flexible, fluid and situated language practices. Teachers and learners communicate by bringing together language and culture into contact; and meanings are conveyed by adopting both linguistic and other aspects of semiotic repertoires. I structure this chapter in five main sections.

I begin with the theoretical foundations of language practice in educational settings (Section 2.1), discussing how classroom interactions are described in monolingual and bi/multilingual studies. I then proceed to the four theoretical perspectives on translanguaging (Section 2.2-2.5):

1. Translanguaging is deployed by adopting individuals' full linguistic and other multimodal resources to make meaning. [Section 2.2]

2. Translanguaging shifts the focus from language code to language users (García, 2009, p.45). It looks at the underlying reasons why translanguaging is adopted and the potential benefits that translanguaging may bring to language users. [Section 2.3]

3. Translanguaging comes from its origin as a pedagogical practice in Cen Williams's definition. It is achieved by strategically and critically selecting from a wide range of resources of teachers' and learners' communicative repertoires to facilitate the teaching and learning practice. It also contends the users' right to adopt more than one societally named language in classrooms. [Section 2.4]

4. Translanguaging practice is socially constructed. It adopts an ecological perspective and understands language practices across multiple space and time. [Section 2.5]

Based on the examination of these perspectives on the concept of translanguaging, this thesis intends to contribute to a way of understanding translanguaging practice. Drawing upon the insider's and outsider's perspective (Otheguy et al., 2015), I discuss translanguaging practice with other teaching practices that take place in complementary school contexts. However, the implication of this study does not limited to complementary schools, it has its implication in a wider language educational contexts. In addition, this thesis highlights how individuals' linguistic repertoire and multimodal resources are coordinated to support teaching and learning within translanguaging practices.

2.1 Theoretical foundations of language practice in classrooms

This section provides the grounding theories of bilingual education, which later influenced and constructed the concept of translanguaging. By seeing the same phenomenon in different ways (Baynham and Lee, 2019, p.25), the theory and practice of translanguaging grew from studies of bilingual education. There were debates on the use of more than one named language in classrooms and social contexts before the concept of translanguaging developed. What I am going to focus on are two major controversies: the debate over monolingualism and multilingualism; and the controversial opinions on using students' first language (L1) to teach. Through introducing these two controversies, I discuss different perspectives on the use of language in classroom and the impact of these perspectives on individuals' language practice. The discussion in Section 2.1 informs the following sections of this chapter.

2.1.1 Monolingualism and multilingualism

Research on the debates over these two concepts keeps growing. I begin with discussing monolingualism since the immersive teaching was mentioned and supported by one of the teacher participants in my study, which indicates the impact of the monolingual theory on the teachers' view. The immersive teaching mentioned by the participant refers to the French immersion program in Canada which began since the mid 1960's. In this program, most of the students are from

English-speaking homes, but teachers use French as a medium of instruction to improve the teaching of French as a second language (Swain, 1997, p.261). The monolingual idea of this program was later echoed by Howatt's *monolingual principle* (1984) which argues the interference of students' L1 in the process of language learning. Since then, despite the fact that the monolingual principle is less supported by empirical studies (Eldridge, 1996), it has been internalised as common sense which acts as a dominant role for policy makers and teachers (Cummins, 2007). Take English language classroom as an example, the *monolingual tenet* in Phillipson (1992) indicates the dominant status of English and the marginalised status of learners' and teachers' other linguistic repertoires. This tenet "holds that the teaching of English as a foreign or second language should be entirely through the medium of English" (p.185). Therefore, it seems that rather than viewing learners' L1 as a useful resource, people who support monolingualism avoid the use of L1 because it is assumed to be a barrier to the learning of a second or foreign language. According to the literature, this monolingual view has been constantly challenged and criticised for giving privileged status to the second language (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) and ignoring the importance of L1 (Cook, 2001; Cummins, 2007). Despite the critiques of the monolingual paradigm, "so little progress has been made in developing, as a first step, a more additive approach to bi/multilingualism" (May, 2013, p.3). May further introduces the *multilingual turn* to emphasise the "superdiverse linguistic contexts" (p.1) where the language that people deploy to communicate is in a state of flux.

The term 'multilingual' is basically defined according to the number of languages that an individual uses in society. In McArthur and McArthur (1992), multilingualism in Mid-20c is described as

> The ability to use three or more languages, either separately or in various degrees of code-mixing…according to some, a native-like fluency is necessary in at least three languages; according to others, different languages are used for different purposes, competence in each varying according to such factors as register, occupation, and education (p.673).

It can be seen that through pointing out multilingual people's deployment of three or more than three named languages in different contexts and for varying purposes, this definition of multilingualism indicates individuals' linguistic repertoire. In addition, it suggests that multilingualism here not only focuses on

language as separate codes but also involves individuals' engagement with other influencing factors in language use.

Taking the idea that the society provides a space for language users and it also shapes individuals' language use, Li (2011) points out that "multilingualism by the very nature of the phenomenon is a rich source of creativity and criticality" (p.1223). Drawing on Li's argument, language users' linguistic repertoire is grounded in and depends on the society where they come from. The vibrant and dynamic society allows language users to play with their language by pushing and extending the boundaries of language. According to Li, creativity and criticality are two concepts that translanguaging space embraces, which I will further discuss in Section 2.5.2.

Debates over monolingualism and multilingualism have frequently been discussed in studies conducted in different nations, especially in educational contexts. For example, there are studies in the UK (Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Conteh et al., 2007; Simpson and Cooke, 2017), in Switzerland (Meier, 2014), in Canada (Maguire and Curdt-Christiansen, 2007), in the United States (Edwards, 2004; García and Sylvan, 2011); and in other western societies (Blommaert et al., 2012). With more research on the use of more than one named language in classrooms, the language brought by learners to the class is valued as a useful resource. For example, the term "code-switching" (Auer, 1998) is described as significant teaching pedagogy; and likewise "translation" (Cook, 2010; Hall and Cook, 2012) is reviewed in association with the use of students' *own language*. I will continue with my discussion of using L1 in bilingual classrooms in Section 2.1.2.

With a shift of focus away from viewing language as "compartmentalised linguistic knowledge" (Michael-Luna and Canagarajah, 2007, p.57), terms emerged more recently problematise language separation and bring other features in contact with language together. For example, "code meshing" (Canagarajah, 2011) takes the discourse and the context as an integral part of the observable interaction (Michael-Luna and Canagarajah, 2007); "flexible bilingualism" (Creese and Blackledge, 2011) focuses on the users and the interaction; "translingual practice" (Canagarajah, 2012) highlights the embodied signs in individuals' semiotic repertoire, and "translanguaging" (Creese and Blackledge, 2010; García and Li, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012a&b) describes the

interaction by analysing individuals communicative repertoires and sociocultural features, to name but a few. Despite the positive effects being identified in bilingual or multilingual classrooms, multilingualism can also be a problem for individuals and social groups (Blommaert et al., 2012, p.1). Next, I discuss the difficulties in implementing multilingual classrooms in the United Kingdom.

As mentioned in Chapter 1, most complementary schools in the UK are independent from the government; and they are not restricted by the government's policy on language that are made for mainstream schools. However, they also face challenges in terms of adopting bilingualism or multilingualism in classrooms, even though they are rich in linguistic resources that are ready to use in their community. There are mainly two influencing factors. First, based on some schools' regulations regarding the use of language, for example, the One Language Only (OLON) and One Language at a Time (OLAT) policy (Li and Wu, 2009, p.193), teachers are restricted by these *top-down policies* (Blackledge and Creese, 2010, p.51) when they teach in classrooms. As García (2009) points out that "too often bilingual teachers hide their natural translanguaging practices from administrators and others because they have taught to believe that only monolingual ways of speaking are good and valuable" (p.308). It suggests that teachers choose to hide their bilingual abilities because of the teaching or assessment standard formulated by their school. Second, as many language teachers in complementary schools have a dual-role. That is to say, they are not only parents of students who study at a school, but also teachers teaching at the same school. Therefore, their beliefs about the target language, their community and language classrooms also have significant impact on their use of more than one named language in classrooms. Teachers' beliefs and ideologies will be discussed in detail in Section 2.3.1. Besides, it seems that the "bottom-up" policy (McCarty, 2011, p.2) and family language policy (King et al., 2008) also influence the promotion of bilingual and multilingual classrooms. The family language policy will be continued in Section 2.5.3.

2.1.2 Using L1 in bilingual classrooms

There are elements of the original conception of translanguaging that are quite relevant to my study. For example, teachers use L1 to support students' second language learning. Developed from the debates about monolingualism and multilingualism, researchers conducted studies in bilingual classrooms to

investigate the role that learners' mother tongue (MT), first language (L1) or *own-language* (Hall and Cook, 2012) plays in educational contexts (Cook, 2001; Harbord, 1992; Li and Wu, 2009; Lin, 1999; Turnbull, 2001; Wang, 2019). Findings suggest that L1 is not only a valuable linguistic resource in classrooms (Cook, 2001; Khejeri, 2014; Turnbull, 2001; Wang, 2019), but also a potential strategy that facilitates rapport between teachers and students (Harbord, 1992; Lin, 1999).

While acknowledging the use of L1 in classrooms, there are also neutral debates claiming that the amount of L1 should be limited (Turnbull, 2001). Turnbull rests his argument on the role of L1 and TL as described in Stern (1992), "use of L1 and TL should be seen as complementary, depending on the characteristics and stages of the language learning process" (cited in Turnbull, 2001, p.535). It seems that if L1 and TL are complementary to each other as how Stern describes, then rather than giving priority to one language, languages should have their own qualities or features that together contribute to the achievement of teaching or communication purposes. Turnbull further emphasises that teachers should "use the TL as much as possible in contexts in which students…have little contact with TL outside the classroom" (p.535). This argument suggests that L1 is viewed as a subordinate language in classroom, in particular of the second language or foreign language classrooms.

According to Cummins (2007), there are three assumptions that dominate the language use in multilingual classrooms. He labels them as the "direct method" assumption, "no translation" assumption and "two solitudes" assumption:

> "Direct method" assumption: Instruction should be carried out exclusively in the target language without recourse to students' L1.
>
> "No translation" assumption: Translation between L1 and L2 has no place in the teaching of language or literacy.
>
> "Two solitudes" assumption: Within immersion and bilingual programs, the two languages should be kept rigidly separate. (pp.222-3).

It seems that all these three assumptions interpret L1 as interference rather than a useful resource in the process of L2 learning. Apart from this, the "strategy of mother tongue avoidance" (Harbord, 1992, p.350) sheds light on the disadvantages of L1 in the process of learning TL in classrooms. It suggests that looking at language from a monolingual perspective, L1 is regarded as a

deficiency and hindrance in relation to students' TL learning. However, as mentioned earlier, arguments in these assumptions are poorly supported by evidence which suggests the interference from L1 in multilingual classrooms (Eldridge, 1996; Cummins, 2007; Wharton, 2007).

Studies show that these assumptions are mainly driven by three influencing factors: language, teacher/learner and instructional background (Cummins, 2007; Harbord, 1992; Wharton, 2007). A study done by Khejeri (2014) investigates English language teachers' attitude towards MT in lower primary schools. In Khejeri's study, it seems that when teachers make decisions between the MT and English, their primary concern is whether the MT facilitates students' TL learning or not. In other words, English is regarded as their ultimate teaching aim; and the MT is used to facilitate the teaching of English language. Therefore, again, it suggests that the MT is comparatively inferior to the TL. Besides, reasons given by teachers suggest that those who support the use of TL consider the long-term impacts or potential benefits. For example, they consider questions like which language will bring learners more opportunity in the future; or which language benefits students in terms of their interaction with other people inside or outside their country. Those who prefer the MT put emphasis on the instant effect. For example, how to improve the quality of language teaching and learning; or how to use students' L1 to help with their TL learning. Drawing on the three influencing factors of the monolingual assumptions, teachers who have a preference for L1 primarily concern learners (or adopt a user-centred perspective), whereas teachers in the other group focus more on language (or adopt a language-centred perspective). Therefore, it seems that it is the privilege given to the code or the learners that influences teachers' language choice according to Khejeri's study.

In the context of Chinese complementary schools, the OLON and OLAT policy (Li and Wu, 2009, p.193) are implicitly implemented. However it appears to me that, because of the nature of those schools, it is difficult to say whether class teachers' language choices are decided by the schools' language policies (if there is a policy) that are formulated for teachers to pursue; or just underpinned by their own assumption. Even if there are language policies that restrict teachers' language, whether it will be followed or not is arguable (Lin, 2013). This depends

largely on the teachers' ideology of language, which will be discussed in Section 2.3.1.

In Section 2.1.1 and 2.1.2, I introduced how monolingualism and multilingualism are supported and criticised before the development of translanguaging as a concept. By discussing the use of one or more than one named language in classrooms, I first want to point out that despite the critiques that bi/multilingual classrooms face, drawing on students' L1 to teach is a natural phenomenon. That is to say, using the language which is more familiar to students is not only an inevitable practice, but also an effective teaching method that is used to enhance the learning of the target language. The latter point echoes the original definition of the concept of translanguaging by Cen Williams. Furthermore, through the discussion of multilingualism, it appears to me that the development of this concept is shifting away from the focus of the number of languages that individuals use. Multilingualism *from below* (Pennycook and Otsuji, 2015) is "a users' perspective on multilingual interaction, an emic perspective" (Baynham and Lee, 2019, p.26). This perspective is consonant with the user-centred perspective of translanguaging which I will further elaborate in Section 2.3.

2.1.3 Theoretical development of translanguaging

Prior to the emergence of translanguaging as a concept, terms like *multilingualism*, *flexible bilingualism*, *code-switching*, *translation*, *code meshing* and so on are defined to describe the use of more than one societally named language for the purposes of teaching and communication. The concept of translanguaging also derives from the focus of language use in classrooms. In my study, by looking at users' language through a translanguaging lens, I take classroom language practice as language users' flexible deployment of their and learners' linguistic repertoire. That is, teachers "select and deploy particular features from a unitary linguistic repertoire to make meaning and to negotiate particular communicative contexts" (Vogel and García, 2017, p.1).

Translanguaging was first described by Cen Williams in 1994 as a Welsh term *trawsieithu* (Baker, 2003). It refers to "using one language to reinforce the other in order to increase understanding and in order to augment the pupil's ability in both languages" (Lewis et al., 2012b, p.644). This definition aims to argue for the use of Welsh in mainstream educational contexts. García (2009) then develops a new way of describing the fluid multilingualism by arguing the focus of language

or code. She proposes a shift of focus to "readily observable" practices (p.44). Taking this stance, García and Li (2014) introduce the "two autonomous language systems" in bilingual education (p.2), which is quite different from the concepts that I mentioned above in terms of understanding language deployment in bilingual and multilingual classrooms. More recently in Otheguy et al. (2018), they further develop translanguaging by adopting a unitary view of approach, which means "the myriad lexical and structural features mastered by bilinguals occupy a cognitive terrain that is not fenced off into anything like the two areas suggested by the two socially named languages" (p.1). This view opens a new way of describing how language users' process their linguistic repertoire cognitively.

In this study, I take classroom language practice as being between and across repertoires and discourses, not only named languages. It draws on the insider's and outsider's perspective (Otheguy et al., 2015, p.291) to understand class teachers' translanguaging practice. That is, for linguistic phenomenon that looks the same on the surface, the insiders adopt and understand their language practice based on their linguistic repertoire which is constructed by their social and cultural experience, whereas the outsiders only see the data or texts without knowing how the practice takes place. In other words, the outsider's perspective is on the story itself while the insider's perspective explores how the story is made up and constructed. A similar distinction is made in Vogel and García (2017) to describe bilinguals' language practice from an "external perspective" and an "internal view" (p.1). In my study I bring in the insider's and internal perspective to analyse and interpret the collected data. By looking at classroom phenomenon from these two perspectives, I adopt translanguaging "as a tool for thinking with" (Baynham and Lee, 2019, p.25). That is, instead of examining the switch of language from one to another in classroom interactions, I explore multilingualism from below (Pennycook and Otsuji, 2015). In Chapter 4 and 5, I will show how I analyse and discuss classroom transcription by associating it with language users' societal features that construct their language practice.

Learning from the discussions in this section, the way how I understand translanguaging is that it is not a concept that is ready to use or apply as a teaching method like code-switching, but a conceptual theory that is tailored for different research contexts. I think it is inaccurate to say that certain practice is

translanguaging, rather; drawing on Baynham and Lee's idea of translanguaging "as a tool for thinking with", it is better to interpret certain practice from the perspective of translanguaging. As I indicated in a note on terminology (Section 1.4), translanguaging practice needs to be examined from different perspectives. I now move on to the next section: discussing the theory and practice of translanguaging through different perspectives. I begin with a multimodal perspective on translanguaging.

2.2 A multimodal perspective on translanguaging

Together with the linguistic repertoire, other non-linguistic communicative features like signs, pictures, gestures, mime etc. are also deployed by language users to make meaning. The type of translanguaging which "worked across modal boundaries" is identified as visual-verbal translanguaging (Baynham and Lee, 2019, p.21). They further extend the definition of translanguaging by involving a wide range of communication modes:

> "Translanguaging is the creative selection and combination of communication modes (verbal, visual, gestural, and embodied) available in a speaker's repertoire." (pp.24-5).

The use of multimodal resources have already been described in the context of language classrooms (Creese and Blackledge, 2015; García and Li, 2014; 2015; Kusters et al., 2017; Lin and He, 2017; Li, 2011; Simpson and Cooke, 2017). I agree with the idea that in educational settings, particularly of complementary schools, teachers and students have the access to semiotic repertoires; and they deploy these resources in the process of meaning making. By taking this stance, this section looks at translanguaging from a multimodal perspective.

García and Li (2014) describe translanguaging as "a trans-semiotic system with many meaning-making signs, primarily linguistic ones that combine to make up a person's semiotic repertoire" (p. 42). They further shed light on the effectiveness of using "multimodal semiotic signs" for very young learners, pointing out that linguistic signs are accompanied by signs like gestures, pointing, physical imitation, drawings, and so on (García and Li, 2015, p.231). Their argument points out the role of multimodal semiotic resources in communication. In addition, it seems that the linguistic repertoire is given the primary role whereas other semiotic resources (signs) are given the subordinate role.

However, as Canagarajah (2016) argues, "non-verbal resources should not be seen as compensatory or subservient to spoken/written language". This idea is supported not only by translanguaging but also by the notion of trans-semiotising as proposed in Lin and He (2017). They emphasise the significance of visual image, gestures, and sounds (p.230) by providing an excerpt which manifests a teacher's use of gesture in a bilingual classroom. A further conclusion is made to emphasise that by adopting both the linguistic and non-linguistic modes, translanguaging and trans-semiotising are subconsciously engaged to help the teacher to achieve her teaching target (p.234). Another recent study that focuses on people's deployment of their full linguistic and other semiotic repertoires is conducted by Zhu and her colleagues in a multilingual karate club (Zhu et al., 2019). Their study suggests that in a multilingual educational context, the embodied repertoires do not take a secondary place in comparison with the linguistic repertoires. Rather, verbal communications are employed to complement body movement (p.13). There are also other studies that works on the multimodal and multilingual translanguaging. For example, in deaf education studies, translanguaging takes place between the sign language and spoken/written language (Lewis et al., 2012a; Swanwick, 2017). Comparatively, there is less research on how teachers' and learners' linguistic repertoire and multimodal (or verbal and non-verbal) resources work with each other to enhance the teaching and learning practice in bilingual language classrooms.

My study attempts to fill this gap by discussing the multimodal resources in association with the teaching content (i.e. Chinese language). In Section 2.4.2, I will give a further discussion on how the characteristics of Chinese language make space for teachers' deployment of a broad range of semiotic resources. And in Chapter 4, I illustrate how multimodal resources are adopted to convey meaning by analysing classroom data.

This section explored the important role of the semiotic repertoire other than language in communication. It can be seen that the concept of translanguaging not only stays at the understanding of language that transcends the boundaries of named language. It also emphasises that individuals' various communication purposes are achieved by selecting from a range of communicative repertoires. Translanguaging integrates the multilingual resources with the multimodal resources and highlights the coordination of different resources. Therefore, it

seems that the theory of translanguaging goes beyond modalities as how it goes beyond named languages.

2.3 A user-centred perspective on translanguaging

Compared with other concepts that describe multilingual practice, translanguaging shifts its focus from codified systems to language practice and users (García, 2009). In my study, by adopting a user-centred perspective, I look at translanguaging practice through understanding the teachers' and learners' beliefs about Chinese language and bilingual education. I also believe that their commitment to the teaching/learning Chinese language in complementary schools has an impact on their translanguaging practice. Therefore, this section explores language users' beliefs underneath their language practice.

2.3.1 Language teachers' beliefs about language teaching

It is necessary and important to examine beliefs alongside practice since they relate to each other; and their relationship is understood as interactive (Basturkmen, 2012). Basturkmen further describes the relationship that "beliefs drive actions but experiences and reflection on actions can lead to changes in or additions to beliefs themselves" (p.283). While pointing out the close relationship between beliefs and practice, it also shows that the relation is not linear. Instead, they interact with each other. Moreover, as studies suggest, it is not surprising that there is correspondence or lack of correspondence between teachers' beliefs and practice (Basturkmen, 2012; Basturkmen et al., 2004; Eraut, 1994; Festinger, 1962).

Argyris and Schon (1974) drew a distinction between "espoused theories" and "theories in use". They described the espoused theories as teachers' explicit beliefs and ideals that are generated independently from the teaching situation, while theories in use or implicit beliefs refers to the perspectives of teachers that arise through their practices (cited in Segal, 1998, p.205). This distinction highlights the complexity of teachers' beliefs which are multiple in different situations. In my study, by drawing on the distinction made by Argyris and Schon, I examine the relationship between teachers' stated beliefs and practice. It needs to be pointed out that both beliefs and practice do not stand alone with respect to the factors that may influence individuals' theory and action. Teachers' theory is strongly informed by their earlier experiences, their reflection on those

experiences, other aspects of their lives; and "ideas about education freely circulating in the press, on television and in everyday conversation, to which they are unlikely to be immune" (Eraut, 1994, p.60). Likewise, one of the factors that is used to explain the dissonance between theory and practice is "situational constraints" (Basturkmen, 2012; Basturkmen et al., 2004). Therefore, it can be seen that in order to investigate the consonance or dissonance in complex educational settings, it is important to recognise the interactive multi-layers that exist in it. Those layers not only include beliefs and practices, but also factors that may formulate teachers' beliefs and situations that may lead to teachers' practice. As discussed in Section 2.1, teachers hold their own opinion in terms of the using of L1 and TL in language classrooms. This *teacher autonomy* is described by Kumaravadivelu (2001) as the heart of postmethod pedagogy. He further mentions that "teacher autonomy is shaped by a professional and personal knowledge base that has evolved through formal and informal channels of educational experience" (p.548). That is to say, although teachers' language choice is based on their previous understanding of conceptualised teaching methods, when they recognise the need to escape from certain methods after starting teaching, they give up or change their original views and rely on their "personal knowledge of teaching and learning" instead (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p.549). Additionally, Kennedy (1999) claims that when teachers decide to make a change, they change their methods as well as their attitudes and beliefs. This is incompatible with the argument made by Borg (2006) that the behaviour change is not necessarily accompanied with a change of their cognitions (p.277). In my study, I will discuss the class teachers' insistence on their beliefs even though they changed their teaching method. The development of teachers' beliefs will be further addressed in Section 6.3 with the discussions of class teachers' interview data analysis.

Multilingual studies show that even if language teachers advocate the use of L1 or translanguaging, there is a mismatch or inconsistency between their beliefs and practices (Deroo and Ponzio, 2019; Martínez et al., 2015; Karathanos, 2009; Varghese, 2006). Findings in Khejeri (2014) show that although a greater proportion of teacher holds negative beliefs towards L1 in classrooms, L1 is inevitable. Varghese (2006) supports this point from another aspect by describing the mismatch between teachers' positive view towards bilingual

education on the surface and their underlying negative practices (p.217). Study done by Karathanos (2009) investigates mainstream language teachers' beliefs and practices. Results show different perception degrees: teachers' higher support in theoretical perspectives is inconsistent with their moderate support of practical perspectives (p.626).

A similar mismatch has also been identified in more recent studies on teachers' ideologies of translanguaging in classrooms (Deroo and Ponzio, 2019; Martínez et al., 2015). As Martínez et al. (2015) claims, teachers' ideologies are "complex, nuanced, and sometimes contradictory" (p.38). Deroo and Ponzio (2019) further indicate the inconsistency between teachers' explicit inclusive attitudes toward translanguaging and their underlying beliefs that are limited by the monolingual paradigms. I need to make it clear that pointing out teachers' mismatch or dissonance identified in studies does not mean that teachers should keep their practice in line with their beliefs or vice versa, because to some extent compatibility is not necessary (Basturkmen, 2012; Basturkmen et al., 2004).

Discussions in this section support the point that teachers' beliefs shape their classroom practice (Borg, 2006; Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2012). Moreover, since the feature of teachers' language practice is dynamic and complicated, teachers' beliefs are also highly influenced by factors like context (Borg, 2006), sociocultural issues (Holliday et al., 2010; Holliday, 2013) and previous experience (Eraut, 1994). Therefore, in order to explore teachers' translanguaging practice in relation to language users and their beliefs, I adopt an ecological perspective (Allard, 2017; Deroo and Ponzio, 2019) (see Section 2.5 for detail).

As mentioned in Section 1.1.2, in the context of complementary schools, studies on teachers' perception of their job show that teachers' attitude towards the school, to the job and to their language use plays a significant role in class teachers' performance (Cho, 2014; Liu, 2006; Wu et al., 2011). Varghese (2006) points out the "marginalised nature of the profession" (p.223) in bilingual teaching, which is supported by Wu et al. (2011), indicating that language teachers in complementary schools "express a weak recognition of themselves as 'legitimate' teachers" (p.49). They further mention that these teachers' perception of their job is a secondary job with limited income (p.51). All of these views eventually lead to teachers' lower dedication and an inferior position perception compared with

mainstream school teachers. I will discuss how teachers' beliefs influence their translanguaging practices by examining interview excerpts in Chapter 5.

2.3.2 Students' beliefs about complementary schools

Students' attitude towards the bilingual education and their behaviour in complementary classrooms have been investigated in some studies (Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Conteh et al., 2007; Maguire and Curdt-Christiansen, 2007). Studies show that students studying at complementary schools have different motivations in relation to language learning. For some students, they take the learning of Chinese language as an 'obligation'; and would prefer to be treated as English rather than Chinese (Blackledge and Creese, 2010). This shows students' resistance to this type of school and their self-positioning as English rather than the Chinese identity labelled by their parents or teachers. The following excerpt comes from an interview excerpt in Maguire and Curdt-Christiansen (2007),

> "I don't like the Chinese school, it's boring and the characters are too difficult to remember. Plus, there is no action in the class. I feel like sleeping. But my mum says I have to go. I like action. But in the Chinese school, we are not allowed to do anything. We are not allowed to talk or write except dictations. So all the Chinese I have learned, I forgot it all when I come home. In my French school, we are allowed to make up stories, we can talk about our stories in front of the whole class, and the teachers are nice." (p. 73)

In this excerpt, we can see the student's resistance to the Chinese school, Chinese language and the Chinese language teacher and the teaching style. As introduced in Section 1.1.2, many students come to study Chinese language because of their parents' decision rather than their own interests. This might lead to students' lack of motivation, few attachment to the school and the community language; and even the failure of language teaching and learning in classrooms. In addition, this student compared his experience in the Chinese complementary school with the French school, which suggests the impact of teachers and teaching methods. Another reason that might lead to students' low motivation is mentioned in Francis et al. (2009). They point out that the second and third generations of Chinese immigrants gradually no longer agree with the value and status of Chinese language learning (p.533).

Discussions in this section highlighted teachers' beliefs about language teaching and students' beliefs about language learning. First, it seems that from a user's

perspective, language practice can be understood "from below". That is to say, language users' beliefs influence their language practice; and the language phenomenon that they experience in turn affects their cognitions. Second, language users' beliefs are not necessarily consistent with their practices. Specifically, it appears to me that in day-to-day classroom interaction, actual language practice might be influenced but not decided by teachers' beliefs as there are other influencing factors like context, sociocultural background, previous experience and so forth (see Section 2.3.1 and 2.5 for more details). Next, I move on to the pedagogic purpose of translanguaging.

2.4 A pedagogical perspective on translanguaging

With more research that works on the emancipatory approach to the classroom language use, there is a recognition of the language and the culture that learners bring to classrooms; and translanguaging as pedagogy has come subsequently (Baker, 2003). Translanguaging is conceived as a pedagogic theory in Williams (1996, cited in Lewis et al., 2012b, p.644). The pedagogical perspective of translanguaging is very much linked to dialogic practice and cultural theory about the role of communication in interaction, teaching, and learning, which foreground what I am going to look at. This section first focuses on translanguaging as pedagogy in classrooms. Then I narrow it down to the Chinese language classrooms, discussing how the characteristics of Chinese language create a space for the deployment of translanguaging, especially adopting multimodal resources to make meaning. Lastly, I investigate other language teaching practices in relation to translanguaging practice in classrooms.

2.4.1 Translanguaging as bilingual pedagogy

Translanguaging used as *flexible pedagogy* is a label introduced by Creese and Blackledge (2010) through investigating the teaching practices in Gujarati and Chinese complementary schools in the UK. Following this idea, findings in recent studies support the positive role of translanguaging as pedagogy in bilingual classrooms (Gort and Sembiante, 2015; Henderson and Ingram, 2018; Palmer et al., 2014; Wang, 2019). Cenoz and Gorter (2017) notice the difference between translanguaging that occurs inside and outside schools. They further distinguish the *pedagogical translanguaging* from the *spontaneous translanguaging*; and describe the *pedagogical translanguaging* as intentional, planned alternation of languages for input and output (pp.3-4). They also point

out that even inside schools, there are spontaneous translanguaging when "boundaries between languages are fluid and constantly shifting" (p.4). It indicates that for some translanguaging practices - *pedagogical translanguaging* in schools, language users intend to adopt more than one language, and therefore languages are seen as societally or nationally separated in this situation.

According to García and Li (2015), translanguaging as pedagogy refers to "building on bilingual students' language practices flexibly in order to develop new understandings and new language practices, including language practices for academic purposes" (p. 233). They further conclude seven purposes of translanguaging as *transformative pedagogy*:

1. To differentiate among students' levels and adapt instruction to different types of students in multilingual classrooms...
2. To build background knowledge so that students can make meaning of the content being taught and of the ways of languaging in the lesson.
3. To deepen understandings and cognitive engagement, develop and extend new knowledge, and develop critical thinking.
4. For cross-linguistic transfer and metalinguistic awareness so as to strengthen the students' ability to translanguage in order to meet the communicative exigencies of the socioeducational situation.
5. For cross-linguistic flexibility so as to translanguage competently.
6. For identity investment and positionality, to engage learners.
7. To interrogate linguistic inequality and disrupt sociopolitical structures so as to engage in social justice. (p.235)

We can see that translanguaging's influence is not limited to classroom practice (Number 1-3), it goes beyond classrooms and touches students' sociocultural, sociopolitical and identity aspects (see Section 2.5.1 for details). In terms of translanguaging practice' purposes of instruction and communication, the purposes on the list are added on by other studies. Using translanguaging to differentiate students or "shifting based on language practices of interlocutor" (Henderson and Ingram, 2018) is a prominent purpose in many studies which examine learners' varying levels and language proficiency in complementary schools. Apart from this, translation is viewed as translanguaging practice in some studies (Henderson and Ingram, 2018; Wang, 2019). In Section 2.4.3), I discuss the practice of translanguaging and translation in educational and social settings. Reinforcement is another pedagogical function of translanguaging that is described in Wang (2019).

As García and Li (2014) suggest, translanguaging in bilingual classrooms is a two-way interaction. For students, it is a learning process that enables the use of a wide range of language brought by students. For teachers, it adopts inclusive language practices for the purpose of teaching (García and Sylvan, 2011; García and Li, 2015). However, it seems that more focus is given to students' learning rather than how language is provided by teachers. Williams (2003) points out that "translanguaging focuses more on the pupils' use of two languages… than on the teachers' role within the classroom, although it may be engineered by the teacher" (translated in Lewis et al., 2012b, p.644). This can also be seen from the interpretation of translanguaging as pedagogy in García and Li (2015).

Compared to the benefits that translanguaging brings to students, it seems that in the context of complementary schools, students are not the only beneficiary. García and Li (2014) point out students' and teachers' different English language proficiency that is caused by their previous experience. Chapter one has also introduced the general background of teachers who teach in Chinese complementary schools: teachers come from various backgrounds and their English language proficiency varies. This situation leads to the *co-learning* as described by Li (2014). Findings in my pilot study (see Section 3.3.3) suggest that *co-learning* happens between teachers and students: When students noticed that their teacher's English grammar was wrong, they corrected it for her. Therefore, it indicates that both teachers and students need translanguaging as a facilitator to achieve a better teaching and learning outcome. By citing one sentence from a student participant in my pilot study to conclude this point, "We learn Chinese from you, and you learn English from us".

2.4.2 Translanguaging in teaching Chinese language

Chinese language (Mandarin or *Putonghua*) in my study is taught and learnt in the complementary school as a foreign language. This section introduces the characteristics of the Chinese pronunciation system (*Hanyu Pinyin*) and Chinese characters. Based on these characteristics, I examine the relationship between teaching Chinese language and the use of translanguaging in such classrooms.

Chinese pronunciation

Mandarin pronunciation is a Romanisation system that includes Latin alphabets in its written form and four tones. The main purpose for teaching Pinyin in

Chinese complementary schools is literacy. *Pinyin* is "an alphabetic phonetic system used to assist children in learning to read Chinese characters, was highly correlated with English pseudoword reading" (Wang et al., 2005). The symbols of tones are put over vowels to pronounce in different pitches and refer to different words. I provide an example of Pinyin (Figure 1) as described in Tsai (2011, p.45). The four tones are (1) *first tone* (high flat " - "), (2) *second tone* (rising " ´ ") (3) *third tone* (low dipping " ˇ "), and (4) *fourth tone* (falling " ˋ ") (Chao, 1965, cited in Morett and Chang, 2015, p.347).

Tone	Description	Tone depicted in Pinyin	Pinyin example	Meaning
1ˢᵗ	high and level	-	ma	mother
2ⁿᵈ	rising	´	má	hemp
3ʳᵈ	falling and rising	ˇ	mǎ	horse
4ᵗʰ	falling and stressing	ˋ	mà	admonish

Figure 1 Example of standardised Chinese Pinyin system

In the "Pinyin example" column of Figure 1, we can see that with different tones, the same combination of same letters creates totally different meanings. That is the reason why tones are important both for the teaching and learning of Chinese language (Tsai, 2011). As the four tones use different symbols to simulate the trend of pronunciation, studies suggest that using embodied gestures to visualise tones is an effective teaching technique for learners of other language speakers (Chun et al., 2013; Morett and Chang, 2015; Tsai, 2011). Figure 2 is another example in Tsai (2011, p.46), illustrating what gestures are made in order to visualise each tone.

1st tone	flat hand moved across the body at shoulder height
2nd tone	raise your eyebrow every time you say the 2nd tone.
3rd tone	drop your chin on your neck and raise your chin when you say the 3rd tone.
4th tone	stamp your feet when you say the 4th tone.

Figure 2 Example of using gestures to teach tones

As Morett and Chang (2015) propose, underpinned by the *dual coding theory* in Paivio (1990), "learning is reinforced when information is encoded simultaneously through the visual and verbal modalities" (p.347). Drawing upon

the multimodal perspective of translanguaging (Section 2.2), it seems that this feature of tones enables Chinese language teachers to adopt both their language and gestures to enhance students' learning, which provides a positive space for the deployment of translanguaging in language classrooms.

Chinese characters

The written form of Chinese characters (known as *Hanzi*) has a history of development and evolution for thousands of years. The components of Chinese characters are radicals which are structured with strokes. According to Kuo and Hooper (2004), many ancient Chinese characters were pictographs (also known as *image-shape* words) (p.24). They mention that ancient words were created by "drawing pictures of objects according to their shape and form", and new characters were "formed by combining two or more symbols to represent more complex or abstract concepts" (p.24). It can be seen that rather than words, they are embodied characters with the word's meaning encoded. Therefore, the learning of characters can be realised by analysing the meaning inside (Kuo and Hooper, 2004; Li, 1996; Wang, 1998).

Based on these features, there are studies that challenge the traditional method which teaches Chinese characters by copying words repeatedly. They argue that teachers and learners should deploy the visual and semantic information in relation to the meaning of Chinese characters (Kuo and Hooper, 2004; Li, 1996; Wang, 1998). This argument echoes the *dual coding theory*, which indicates that this theory is more likely to achieve for highly imageable learning content (Kuo and Hooper, 2004; Paivio, 1990; Sadoski et al., 1995). There are studies that investigate the use of visual information in relation to its benefits for students' learning of Chinese characters. Among those studies, most work on the mnemonics strategies (Kuo and Hooper, 2004; Li, 1996). However, few studies focus on teachers' teaching practices.

As discussed in the section of the Chinese pronunciation, translanguaging as pedagogy provides teachers and learners with an opportunity for the use of semiotic resources other than language. The meaning encoded in characters potentially allows teachers to adopt other multimodal resources like gesture or body language to facilitate teaching practices. I will further discuss the use of

translanguaging in relation to visualising Pinyin and Chinese characters in Section 6.2.3.

2.4.3 Translanguaging and teaching practices

This section moves on to look at how translanguaging works with class teachers' other teaching practices. In Section 2.4.1, translanguaging is described as bilingual pedagogy which supports language learning and teaching. Taking this idea, my study further examines translanguaging as a supportive pedagogy in relation to its deployment with other teaching practices. In the process of data analysis of my study, some other teaching practices emerged. They are scaffolding, drills and translation.

There are studies that link translanguaging and scaffolding, arguing that translanguaging goes beyond scaffolding (García, 2011; García and Li, 2015; Lin and He, 2017). There is also research that looks at translation practice through the lens of translanguaging (Baynham and Lee, 2019). Together with drills, these three salient teaching practices deserve their own sections in this chapter. Therefore, this section discusses the relation between translanguaging practice and those three teaching practices.

Translanguaging and Scaffolding (Zone of Proximal Development)

Zone of Proximal Development (*ZPD*) is the theoretical basis of scaffolding. Vygotsky (1978) defined *ZPD* as

> "... the distance between the actual development level (of the learner) as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p.86).

To shorten the distance between the actual and the potential level of learners, scaffolding is needed to provide learners with "temporary assistance", in order to help them to complete a task so that they "will later be able to complete a similar task alone" and further develop learners' autonomy (Gibbons, 2002, p.16). Hammond (2001) proposes three key features of scaffolding; and one of them is "temporary support…at the point of need" (p.17). He explains two underlying meanings that this feature suggests: one is "timely"; and the other is a good understanding of learners which ensures that timely support is given. Drawing on the concept of translanguaging which puts users in the centre (García, 2009) and scaffolding which is grounded in "students' prior knowledge and experience"

(Hammond and Gibbons, 2005), these two concepts have overlaps regarding the consideration of the understanding of students. However, scaffolding's "temporary support" feature does not agree with the dynamic and flexible support that is provided by translanguaging practice. Apart from this, scaffolding's micro and macro level of interaction (Hammond, 2001) also shows its different focus from translanguaging.

According to Hammond (2001), the micro level stays at a task level, and the macro level reaches the framework of a planned program and curriculum (p.18). We can see that the focus of both levels is on the teaching objectives rather than on learners. García (2011) makes an argument based on this point, pointing out how translanguaging goes beyond scaffolding. She says:

> Translanguaging is not only a way to 'scaffold' instruction, to make sense of learning and language; rather, translanguaging is part of the metadiscursive regimes that students in the twenty-first century must perform, part of a broad linguistic repertoire that includes, at times, the ability to function in the standardized academic English language required in US schools. (p.147)

According to García, translanguaging goes beyond language and the teaching or learning activities in classrooms. It allows the bi/multilingual students to recognise and embrace their linguistic repertoire. It also argues for the legitimacy of using a range of societally named languages, which touches the socio-political aspect of translanguaging (García and Li, 2015). In her later comment, García mentions the transformational potential of translanguaging which

> "is a way to enable language-minoritized communities who have been marginalized in schools and society to finally see (and hear) themselves as they are, as bilinguals who have a right to their own language practices, free of judgement from the white monolingual listening subject; and free to use their own practices to expand understandings" (forthcoming, 2020).

In my study however, the minority language is the target language that is taught by teachers and learnt by students. The nature of such language education is that it is designed to preserve and promote the minority language and culture. In addition, the language that some teachers want to marginalise in my study is the students' first language (i.e. English) based on the OLON and OLAT policy as discussed in Section 2.1.2 and teachers' beliefs about monolingualism in Section 2.3.1. Therefore, I take the transformative nature of translanguaging (García, 2009) as a way of freeing language users from the societally named language

with boundaries; and allowing a strategic use of language that is selected flexibly from users' linguistic and other semiotic repertoires. By drawing on this nature of translanguaging, it makes language users aware of their right to interact, teach and learn through deploying a wide range of communicative repertoires in the context of complementary schools.

In language classroom settings, Hammond (2001) highlights the question of what to scaffold (p.36), since both the curriculum knowledge and language are included in classrooms for the purposes of teaching and communication (p.35). This sheds light on the nature of language classrooms and relates to an argument that my study makes about the limits of translanguaging. Teachers have different focuses "on language and on relevant aspects of curriculum knowledge (aspects of science, history etc.)" (Hammond, 2001, p.36). Language teachers are in the same situation like teachers of other subjects. The purpose of teachers' language deserves further attention, since on the surface, teachers focus on teaching specific languages if we view it from the outsider's perspective as mentioned in Section 2.1. Moreover, it is combined with the language that is used for academic and communication purposes. I will continue with the discussion of this point in Section 6.4.1. Besides, a further discussion on the relation between translanguaging and scaffolding can be found in Section 6.1.3.

Translanguaging and Drills

Drills is often discussed as *form-only activities* with the name of "mechanical practice" or "pattern practice" (Wong and VanPatten, 2003, p.403). It is the basic core of the audiolingual method of teaching foreign languages (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Paulston, 1970). As a teaching technique that is deeply rooted in the structural linguistics and behaviourist psychology (Wong and VanPatten, 2003, p.404), drills not only has a long history dated back to the 1940s in the army language training programs, but also being widely used in nowadays (on language learning apps for example) according to Wong and VanPatten (2003). However, the debates on the contribution of drills for language acquisition continue.

Class teachers believe that drills help with students' learning of vocabulary and structural patterns, based on the assumption that "if drills have been sufficiently representative and have been fully practiced, analogy will guide the learner along

the right linguistic path, as it does in the mother tongue" (Brooks, 1960, p.143, cited in Wong and VanPatten, 2003, p.404). The necessity of *mechanical drills* for beginning courses is particularly being pointed out in Paulston (1970, p.193). Following the idea of "analogy" in Brooks (1960) and the *transferability* of language (termed by a teacher participant) in my study, it seems that it is the language teachers' beliefs about a particular language (Chinese in my study)'s logic and structure that make teachers use drills as one of their teaching techniques.

However, by drawing on comparative studies in drills, Wong and VanPatten (2003) argue against the necessity of drills. They propose that drills can impede learners' language acquisition due to a lack of learners' engagement in self-expression (p.417). Despite these critiques, language teachers adopt drills based on their understanding of the language and language classrooms. However, few studies look at how teachers manipulate their language while adopting drills. In my study, translanguaging practice is identified being intertwined in the teaching practice where the structural pattern of certain language is repeated. I will continue with my discussion of this point in Section 6.1.4.

Translanguaging and Translation

Translanguaging and translation practice can widely be identified in language classes. However, few studies investigate these two concepts together. In a recent book written by Baynham and Lee (2019), they point out the fundamental difference between these two concepts: translation is an institutionalised practice with "a dimension of intentionality, a conscious project to accomplish" whereas translanguaging is a variable, contingent interactional language in use (pp.5-6). They further provide a way of examining translation, saying that "the lens of translanguaging and the notion of repertoire can help in developing a dynamic account of translation as activity and practice" (p.6). This is in line with how I interpret class teachers' translation practice in my study, that is, I highlight the ecological perspective of translanguaging in the process of data analysis.

Influenced by the monolingual assumption, translation is marginalised to a less favourable position or even banned in some foreign language classrooms and bilingual educational contexts (Carreres, 2006; Creese and Blackledge, 2010;

Hall and Cook, 2012; Popovic, 2001). In more recent studies, with more focus on the bilingual and multilingual education, there is a revival of using students' first or community language (Carreres, 2006; Cummins, 2007; Hall and Cook, 2012; Popovic, 2001). Translation practice allows the use of more than one language in classrooms. Research on translation in foreign language classrooms focuses largely on teachers' deployment of translation for the purpose of giving instruction (Hall and Cook, 2012). I want to point out teachers' attitude towards translation, which is similar to the inconsistency that I discussed in Section 2.3.1. In terms of teachers' practice and their underlying beliefs, there is a tension between teachers' opposition to translation and their acknowledgement that translation is an effective method for language teaching (Carreres, 2006).

Based on the argument in Cook (2010) that translation is not just the equivalence of meanings between words, phrases, or sentences in two named languages, Hall and Cook (2012) describe translation as a natural and effective means of language learning that develops an important skill, answers students' needs and preferences; and protects students' linguistic and cultural identity (p.283). It seems that these features of translation touch the idea of translanguaging in relation to seeing language as the embodiment of the society and culture where users live in.

Moving beyond educational settings to the superdiverse society, we are living in a *translation age* (Cronin, 2013) where "translation offers a lens through which to view the transformation of communication in rapidly changing societies" (Creese et al., 2016, p.4). Creese and her colleagues further argue that translanguaging and translation are social practices which are "a means for navigating relationships, and making social space malleable in superdiversity" (p.4). More empirical studies on translation and translanguaging can be found in the TLANG research project, which investigates the meaning making by using translanguaging across a wide range of domains of business, sports, heritage and legal advice (TLANG, 2014-8) in the UK. In this project, translation is defined "as the negotiation of meaning using different modes (spoken/written/ visual/gestural) where speakers have different proficiencies in a range of languages and varieties" (see TLANG website). This definition frees the concept of translation from language code and understands translation practice by drawing on the multimodal perspective of translanguaging.

In some translanguaging studies, translation is studied as practice that is included in translanguaging (García, 2011; Lewis et al. 2012a&b). By drawing on the idea of the *moment* in translanguaging (Li, 2011), Baynham and Lee (2019) describe the concept of translation and translanguaging as mutually embedded. That is, translation-in-translanguaging and translanguaging-in-translation:

> "Yet a translanguaging space emerges from different kinds of mediating procedures, including translation, transliteration, code-switching/mixing, orthographic morphing, and so forth. Translation can therefore be seen as embedded within a translanguaging space, at the same time as it is composed of successive translanguaging moments." (p.40)

Through thinking translation practice as procedure which is incorporated into translanguaging, Baynham and Lee argue for a translanguaging turn in translation studies "to move away from translation conceived as a relationship between texts and conceive of it as a creative deployment of resources within the multilingual repertoire" (p.33).

Later on in Section 6.1.5, I will continue with the discussion of translanguaging and translation practice in language classroom settings. By seeing translation practice through the lens of translanguaging, I will illustrate how language teachers strategically and critically adopt translanguaging and translation based on their "critical multilingual awareness" (García, 2017)).

From the pedagogic perspective, this section discusses the theory and the practice of translanguaging in classrooms, especially in Chinese language classes. It appears to me that the current translanguaging studies have gone far beyond the original definition of this concept. By exploring the communicative modes other than language embraced by translanguaging, it is developed into an integrated theory. That is to say, from a user-centred perspective, it integrates all available resources that are brought by users to make meaning for various communication and teaching purposes. In addition, through the discussion of translanguaging practice and other language practices from the pedagogic perspective, we can see that rather than a teaching practice like scaffolding, drills, or translation as discussed in this section, translanguaging provides a dynamic understanding of users' communicative repertoire.

2.5 An ecological perspective on translanguaging

Having discussed translanguaging from the linguistic, multimodal, user-centred and pedagogical perspectives, I move on to discuss translanguaging from an ecological perspective. I take the idea of complexity and totality of ecological approach (Duff and Van Lier, 1997; 2010; Tudor, 2003) in my examination of language and classroom. Duff and Van Lier (1997) describe ecology as "a conception of the learning environment as a complex adaptive system, of the mind as the totality of relationships between a developing person and the surrounding world, and of learning as the result of meaningful activity in an accessible environment" (p.783). This emphasises the multifaceted and multi-layered nature of classroom research. The complexity and dynamic of complementary schools in respect of students, teachers and schools themselves have been mentioned in Chapter one. In order to understand the flexible translanguaging practice in language classrooms, it is essential that the multiple temporal and spatial scales (Allard, 2017; Lemke, 2000; 2002; Van Lier, 2010) inside and outside classrooms are looked at. The necessity of adopting an ecological perspective in the context of multilingual classrooms has been pointed out in some studies (see Creese and Blackledge, 2011a; Creese and Martin, 2003; Hornberger, 2002). In this study, instead of isolating classroom interactions from other layers, I situate it in an ecological framework that focuses on the contextual analysis, its context; and the relationship between classroom language practice and its background (Duff and Van Lier, 1997; Van Lier, 2003).

My study not only investigates translanguaging practices, but also looks at the influencing factors underlying these practices. Therefore, I conceptualise classroom translanguaging practices as socially constructed, and as such, reflections of individuals' social and cultural experience. In the following sections, I discuss the sociocultural perspective of translanguaging. I then look at the space created by the dynamic and superdiverse society that enables the existence and development of translanguaging practice. I conclude this section by linking translanguaging with the family language policy as a factor that influences teachers' translanguaging practice.

2.5.1 An examination of sociocultural issues

This part examines the sociocultural factors from an ecological perspective (Tudor, 2003). I discuss translanguaging from two aspects: the individuals'

repertoire, and the sociocultural and historical environment where language users and translanguaging practices are embedded in.

As mentioned in Section 2.1, the concept of translanguaging views the language system that bilinguals or multilinguals have mastered and use as one linguistic repertoire that refers to "the totality of linguistic resources (i.e. including both invariant forms and variables) available to members of particular communities" (Gumperz 1972/1986, cited in Blommaert and Backus, 2013, p.11). While individuals deploy their linguistic repertoire, they freely and strategically select linguistic features to respond to various situations, interlocutors and discourses. Linguistic repertoires are complex, integrated and fluid, but not closed (Blommaert, 2010; Blommaert and Backus, 2013). This concept "has evolved to keep pace with the expanding linguistic diversity and language practices of communities" (Swanwick, 2017, p.237).

In education, García and Kano (2014) describe translanguaging as *entire semiotic repertoire* adopted by language users:

> In education, translanguaging is 'a process by which students and teachers engage in complex discursive practices that include ALL the language practices of ALL students in a class in order to develop new language practices and sustain old ones, communicate and appropriate knowledge, and give voice to new sociopolitical realities by interrogating linguistic inequality'(p.261).

The word translanguaging with -ing form suggests that rather than "a simple system of structures and discrete sets of skills" (Celic and Seltzer, 2012, p.1), it is a dynamic and fluid process with language flow (Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Lemke, 2016; Lewis et al, 2012a&b; Hornberger and Link, 2012; García and Li, 2014). Translanguaging shares the idea of *languaging* defined by Swain (2006) regarding the process of meaning making through language (p.98). Therefore, we can see that the dynamic and complex feature of individuals' linguistic repertoire is deeply rooted in and influenced by the mobile society and environment.

In Creese and Blackledge (2010), they highlight the socio-political and historical environment and the local ecologies of schools and classrooms where translanguaging practice is embedded in (p.107). Across the scales of time and space (Lemke, 2000; 2002), Lemke (2016) further points out learners' prior experience as the basis of learning. He describes that individuals' "past": past

events, past participations, past unfoldings and past undergoings are traceable in material mediums (cited in Lin and He, 2017, p.238). This is in line with the "layered simultaneity" in Blommaert (2005), referring to the layers and scales of time that occurs simultaneously, with some might be invisible but still present (p.130). Drawing on Blommaert's argument and Lemke's metaphor that compares the past to *open and unsealed envelopes*, an individual's translanguaging is deployed by selecting appropriate features from these porous envelopes. As new envelopes continue to be put in, the prior envelopes keep growing and expanding; and all of the past (envelopes) construct an individual's entire linguistic repertoire which has a dynamic flow as mentioned earlier. In Chapter 4, through the analysis of teachers' translanguaging practice, I will illustrate how teachers draw on students' language and other aspects of semiotic repertoires with their understanding of students' social and cultural past.

2.5.2 Translanguaging space

So far I have mentioned the coexistence of linguistic and other multimodal resources in the concept of translanguaging. This section further investigates this issue. So, "how do these repertoires work together?" (Zhu et al., 2019).

Translanguaging space is proposed by Li (2011) to describe a space for translanguaging and a space created through translanguaging (p.1222). To begin with, this space embraces the "dynamic nature of multilingual communication" and the "complexity and interconnectivity of the multimodal and multisensory resources" (Zhu et al., 2017, p.412). It seems that this space allows language users to make full use of their repertoire to make meaning. Rather than focusing on the individuals' repertoire, it highlights the interaction among language users. At the same time, "it creates a social space for the multilingual language user by bringing together different dimensions of their personal history, experience and environment, their attitude, belief and ideology, their cognitive and physical capacity into one coordinated and meaningful performance" (Li, 2011, p.1223; Li, 2017). That is, language users' deployment of their semiotic resources creates this space; and in turn, it is the space that gives language users the opportunity to deploy their multilingual and multimodal resources.

As indicated in Section 2.1.1, multilingual people's ability for *creativity* and *criticality* are the two concepts that translanguaging space embraces in Li (2011; 2017). He defines *creativity* as "abilities to push and break boundaries between

named language and between language varieties, and to flout norms of behaviour including linguistic behaviour", and *criticality* is "the ability to use evidence to question, problematize, and articulate views" (Li, 2017, p.15). Creativity and criticality highlight a two-way relationship between language and the society in which language users live. Specifically, individuals' use and learning of language influence the society; and the society shapes users' language expressions at the same time.

There are few studies working on teachers' use of language and other semiotic resources in bilingual classrooms. In this thesis, through analysing the communicative repertoires that are deployed by class teachers, I examine the translanguaging space opened by teachers in language classrooms. I use the concept of translanguaging space to describe the dynamic and complicated teaching practices in language classrooms. In the subsequent analysis and discussion chapters of this thesis, translanguaging space in language classrooms is described as an integrated dimension created by teachers who adjust their practice according to a range of considerations, for example, their understanding of the teaching content, students' background, and students' reaction and so on. In Section 6.2.4, I will probe into these considerations in relation to the translanguaging space created by teachers.

2.5.3 Family language policy

Having discussed class teachers' beliefs in Section 2.3.1, this section looks at the impact on teachers' beliefs brought by their dual-role: for some teachers, they are not only language teachers who teach in complementary schools, but also bilingual parents who have children studying Chinese language at the same school. Drawing on the ecological perspective, most of the literature on family language policy (FLP) investigates the support and motivation of learners' families (King and Fogle, 2013; King et al., 2008; Schwartz, 2008; Schwartz et al., 2013; Spolsky, 2012). In the context of community language education, my study highlights the influence of FLP upon teachers' practice in classrooms, which has seldom been touched.

King et al. (2008) describe the FLP as "an integrated overview of research on how languages are managed, learned, and negotiated within families" (p.907). They further emphasise the importance of FLP for children's development and the maintenance of the minority languages (p.907). Meanwhile, by drawing on

De Houwer (1999)'s model in relation to children's language development (see Figure 3), King and his colleagues point out the two-way interaction between parents' beliefs and their children's language development (p.911-2). That is, "children's own language behavior is shaped by parental language but also in turn impacts parents' beliefs and strategies" (p.912). My understanding of FLP in this study is grounded in this argument.

Parental beliefs and attitudes

⬇

Parental linguistic choices and interaction strategies

⬇

Children's language development
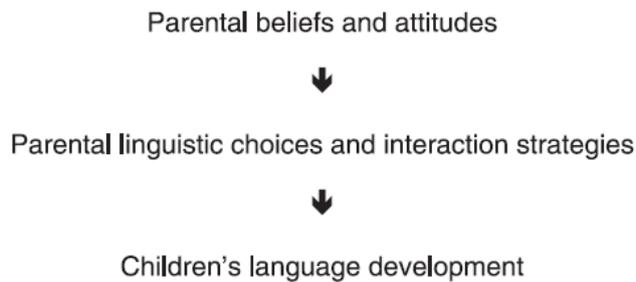
Figure 3 Relationship between parental beliefs/attitudes and children's language development.

In Chapter 5, through discussing the data analysis of teacher interviews, I will show as parents, how their beliefs about the community language and the ethnic (Schwartz et al., 2013) influence their classroom teaching practice as teachers.

This section discusses the factors that influence translanguaging practice from individual, sociocultural, historical, and parental dimensions. The discussion shows the superdiverse and dynamic features of translanguaging. What translanguaging practice delineates is not only the communicative repertoires at some "moments". It also accounts the underlying factors which spans the time and space.

2.6 Research questions

Given my discussions in this chapter, these are my research questions. By answering these questions, I hope to contribute to the development of translanguaging studies in terms of its use as pedagogy. I mainly investigate language users who teach the minority language as a heritage language; and examine a wide range of individuals' communicative resources that they draw upon in their translanguaging practices.

1. How is translanguaging practice evident in Chinese complementary school classrooms?

2. How do teachers bring their communicative repertoires into being in their classroom practice?

3. What factors influence the teachers' practice of translanguaging?

Chapter 3 Research methodology

Introduction

Having discussed the theoretical framework that this study draws on, Chapter 3 moves on to the study design, the analytical framework for the study, the actual implementation of this study and the rationale. It begins with the methodological framework. In chronological order, I then introduce the procedures for conducting the fieldwork of my study: ethical considerations (Section 3.2), preparation before data collection (Section 3.3), entry to the fieldwork and data collecting (Section 3.4) and data analytical process (Section 3.5).

3.1 Methodological framework

This section sets out the research approach that I adopted in my study and the rationale for choosing it. The first part looks at how I position myself as a researcher in this study; and how this position influences my choice of conducting this research within the ethnographic paradigm. The second part focuses on the ethnographic study. I explain how my study is ethnography by critically drawing upon literature on research approach.

3.1.1 Researcher positionality

I have been a Chinese language class teacher in two Chinese complementary schools in the United Kingdom, therefore, I see myself as an insider (Asselin, 2003; Dwyer and Buckle, 2009; Kanuha, 2000) in this context. This insider's perspective provides me with a deeper understanding of the research context.

To begin with, I noticed the complexity of Chinese complementary schools. As indicated in the introduction of this type of school in Chapter 1, there are bilingual or multilingual students who come to learn Chinese language with varying age, language ability, motivation, interest, family background, and so on; there are language teachers with different levels of English/Chinese language ability, teaching qualification, and social role; there are also school language policies which preserve the minority language and at the same time ignore other features in teachers' and students' linguistic repertoire.

Secondly, I observed the close relationship between the classroom practice and social background. Specifically, class teachers' language deployment is based on the teaching objectives and their understanding of students' background. In

addition, students' response to class teachers' language shows that their needs are brought by the social background, as discussed in the vignettes in Section 1.2.

Thirdly, it appears to me that although the complexity exists in every class, it has not raised educators' awareness. That is to say, it seems that the day-to-day teaching routine has made school policy makers and class teachers neglect the potential tensions and conflicts in complementary school classrooms. Therefore, I adopt the ethnographic approach to describe the natural, complex, and society-associated classroom practice by examining the descriptive and explanatory data (Heller, 2008, p.259) in my study.

Fourthly, as a multilingual researcher, I developed my linguistic repertoire in the interaction with students, colleagues and parents. I picked up a few Cantonese while listening to the interaction between Cantonese staff. I also learned some English expressions when students corrected me in informal conversations. In addition, I reflected on my language practice as a bilingual teacher in this school. The pilot study (Section 3.3.3) is an example which indicates my translanguaging practice. Generally speaking, using multilingual and multimodal resources is the norm for my class in order to achieve teaching and communication purposes.

Having discussed the strengths of being an insider in the fieldwork, I also notice the weaknesses of positioning researchers as insiders. According to Styles (1979), outsider and insider research is described as *outsider myths* and *insider myths*:

> "In essence, outsider myths assert that only outsiders can conduct valid research on a given group; only outsiders, it is held, possess the needed objectivity and emotional distance. According to outsider myths, insiders invariably present their group in an unrealistically favourable light. Analogously, insider myths assert that only insiders are capable of doing valid research in a particular group, and that all outsiders are inherently incapable of appreciating the true character of the group's life." (p.148)

These two myths describe two opposing, irreconcilable and extreme situations, however, it indicates that there are blind spots and partial perspectives (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007, p.88) in both insiders' and outsiders' research. As Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) conclude, "the very distinction between outsider and insider is problematic" (p.87). They further emphasise that "the insider/outsider distinction does capture something important about the different

sorts of roles that ethnographers can play in the field, and the perspectives associated with them." (p.87)

One of the limits of insider research is over-rapport, which is put forward by Miller (1952). Researchers' focus might be influenced by connection and familiarity with participants, overly aware of participants' perspectives or a lack of distance (Brayboy and Deyhle, 2000; Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007). Therefore, ethnographers are suggested to maintain a marginality position, that is, between familiarity and strangeness (Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007, p.89). In my study, I use my insider's perspective to design study phases and conduct the research flexibly according to my understanding of the complementary school and teachers working at this school. Meanwhile, I keep distance from my participants. Specifically, I do not make any subjective evaluation of their teaching; and I am aware of the factors that may influence my choice in relation to data collection and discussion, for example, my prior knowledge of teaching Chinese as a foreign language, my intrinsic understanding of language teaching as a teacher, my theoretical background, and so on.

3.1.2 An ethnographic study

The complex and multifaceted nature of school-based research has been pointed out in many studies (Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Copland and Creese, 2015; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). Despite the complexity of educational settings, with people becoming so familiar with "the institutions we know best, the routine we practice most, and the interactions we repeatedly engage in" (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.13), they pay less attention to the practice that takes place at school. This is the reason why the ethnographic approach is needed in these contexts in order to "make the familiar strange" Erickson (1986, p.121). Through my research, I hope that class teachers can re-examine their classroom language. Rather than following the theories that they learnt many years ago, teachers should make their "familiar" classroom interactions "strange" by reviewing their language critically and objectively. The design of my study, again, is driven by the research questions, which are proposed to explore the complexity of classroom interactions in relation to social aspects.

In order to allow researchers to see the kaleidoscope of classroom interactions through a critical lens, drawing on the ethnographic approach generates

productive data rather than other methods which focus on *simplification and reduction of complexity* (Blommaert and Jie, 2010, p.11). Translanguaging practice in bilingual and multilingual classrooms has already been studied as effective teaching pedagogy which is frequently used. Language users however, adopt translanguaging as part of their teaching routine without noticing; and some even avoid using it because of their own beliefs or schools' policies. The strength of my study as ethnography is therefore used to capture this routine by understanding participants and their activities (Rampton et al., 2004). Moreover, justifying and legitimising the use of translanguaging allow language users to be aware of the rationales for their deployment of translanguaging.

Another key characteristic of the ethnography approach is its focus on participants' social and cultural aspects (Blommaert and Jie, 2010; Heller, 2008; Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995; Rampton, 2007; Rampton et al., 2004). Drawing on the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, language is not independent, or separate from the society. Rather, language is firmly grounded and embedded in the society. This point has also been preliminarily illustrated based on my knowledge of the context of my study (see the vignettes in Section 1.2 and the descriptions in Section 3.1.1). Therefore, by examining both the classroom language and the society where users live in, a holistic framework (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995, p.25) can be established. Hitchcock and Hughes further emphasise the focus of ethnography in education:

> "Ethnography in education might therefore involve a focus upon individual biography in the form of life histories of teachers and pupils, and attention to features such as the historical background, cultural and neighbourhood contexts as well as socio-linguistic investigations." (p.25)

This highlights the social and historical perspective underlying linguistic phenomenon. Teachers' and students' diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds in the context of my study have been introduced in Chapter 1 and Section 3.1.1. Blackledge and Creese (2010) point out the research methods for studies in this specific context that "linguistic ethnography is well positioned to describe linguistic diversity in complementary schools that highlight social and linguistic indices through monoglot and heterglot practices" (p.66). My study started with a plan of investigating the naturally occurring language practice in a Chinese complementary school; hence I initially situated my study in the

paradigm of linguistic ethnography approach. With the development of this study and the preliminary data analysis, more social factors hidden behind language started emerging from the data. Moreover, teachers' reflection upon their language use greatly focus on their understanding of students' social background. Therefore, by adopting the ethnographic research, I analyse participants' surface language practices as well as their underlying social influencing factors. Heller (2008) points out the potential benefits that we can get from doing ethnography.

> "Fundamentally, ethnographies allow us to get at things we would otherwise never be able to discover. They allow us to see how language practices are connected to the very real conditions of people's lives, to discover how and why language matters to people in their own terms, and to watch processes unfold over time. They allow us to see complexity and connections, to understand the history and geography of language. They allow us to tell a story; not someone else's story exactly, but our own story of some slice of experience, a story which illuminates social processes and generates explanations for why people do and think the things they do." (p.250)

We can see that the ethnography goes beyond exploring the language and the society as two unrelated phenomenon. According to Heller, ethnography focuses on the link and construction of processes. Adopting the idea that the term bilingualism recognises the boundary between two languages, Heller further indicates the existence of socially constructed, and probably porous boundary among "social practices ordered across space and time" (Giddens, 1986, p.2). This idea seems incompatible with the idea viewing ethnography as *holistic contextualisation* (Miller, 2017, p.28) which understands people's life as integrated. My study draws upon the concept of translanguaging from an ecological perspective (see Chapter 2 for detail). Therefore, the way that I understand the ethnographic research in my study mainly focuses on the *cultural ecologies* characteristic of ethnography (Rampton et al., 2004). It aims to understand language users' full linguistic and other semiotic repertoires by examining participants' social experience, beliefs about language teaching and learning; and other possible influencing factors that are intertwined in the society where they come from. In order to support my arguments in this study, I use qualitative data collection methods: observation, audio recording; and semi-structured interview. In Section 3.4, I will introduce these three methods in detail.

This research is a qualitative study that is informed by ethnography. It uses a range of qualitative data generation strategies and appropriate analytical approaches. In addition, it has ethnographic features. Firstly, I had prolonged engagement with the research site, setting, participants, and so on. Secondly, data was collected through observation and field notes as well as through the open-ended nature of interviews. Thirdly, my analysis is driven by the data.

3.1.3 Case study

Driven by the complexity of educational contexts and a holistic approach to examine the theory and practice of translanguaging, I adopt multiple holistic case studies (Yin, 2018) to investigate two class teachers in my study. As mentioned by Duff (2008) and other case study methodologists, because of a wide range of research interests, researchers' disciplines, theoretical frameworks, collected data, different perspectives on a same case and so forth, the same subject might be conducted and interpreted in completely different case studies. In my study, having collected the classroom and interview data by taking a holistic and ecological approach, the class teachers are understood on different levels. I focus on the contextual basis of performance and ecology (Duff, 2008, p.37).

In respect of the sociocultural aspect, conducting case studies is in line with the idea of ethnography that I use as the methodological approach of this study. Moreover, as indicated elsewhere in this thesis, the theory of translanguaging also starts with understanding the complex historical and sociocultural background of language users. Therefore, adopting case studies allows me to "retain a holistic and real-world perspective" (Yin, 2018, p.35) and explore multiple dimensions other than my concern of participants' translanguaging practice. As Johnson (1992) describes the purpose of case study, it is used "to understand the complexity and dynamic nature of the particular entity, and to discover systematic connections among experiences, behaviors, and relevant features of the context" (p.84).

Case study according to Merriam (1988) is

> "an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit. Case studies are particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic and rely heavily on inductive reasoning in handling multiple data sources" (p.16).

This definition highlights the feature of case studies especially in educational settings, which is complex, holistic, unique and dynamic (Duff, 2008; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2018). Case study is further categorised into three types by Robert K. Yin: exploratory case study, descriptive case study and explanatory case study. My study is a descriptive case study that aims to "describe a phenomenon (the 'case') in its real-world context" (Yin, 2018). The multiple datasets are used to investigate layers of the cases in order to understand teachers' language practice as well as the factors that influence language users' language practice. In addition to the strengths of conducting case studies, this approach also has weaknesses. One of the limitations that should be aware of in relation to my study is the subjectivity in research (Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1998; Stake, 1995). Rather than avoiding or eliminating it, I provide "sufficient detail about decision making, coding or analysis, chains of reasoning, and data sampling" to show my openness to the process of conducting this study (Duff, 2008, p.56). Later on in Chapter 3, I will continue discussing subjectivity with respect to the methods of data collection.

3.2 Ethical considerations

There are altogether five main ethical considerations in my study. The first is the entry to the site. As the fieldwork site is a school and I need to have contact with students, the Disclosure and Barring Service (DBS) check is necessary. Therefore, I had done the DBS check before I got contact with the student participants. I then went through the ethical review procedures according to the protocol of the University of Leeds and got the approval with ethics reference: AREA 15-082 (see Appendix 4). To ask for potential participants' permission, I prepared the information sheets and consent form for the headteacher, class teachers, pupils, and parents (see Appendix 1&2 for an example of the information sheet and consent form for class teachers).

My second consideration is the young age of student participants. Due to the nature of my study, it has to be conducted in complementary schools where children are under 16 years old, that is, students over 16 do not attend such schools. Therefore, in order to protect this vulnerable group, I asked for parents' permission to collect data from their children. To enhance students' understanding of my study, I explained orally while giving out the information sheet, so that I can get their oral approval if they are happy to be involved in my

study. In addition, in consideration of parents' different language and culture backgrounds, I prepared two versions of the information sheet and consent form: Mandarin version for Chinese parents and English version for parents with other language backgrounds.

Thirdly, in the documents that I distributed to participants, I made it clear that participants are free to withdraw at any point before the end of the fieldwork. If withdrawal happens, I will respect my participants' choice and delete their data from the dataset. In terms of the anonymity, I made an agreement with the headteacher that all the names (both the school site and the participants) included in my study will be anonymised (see Section 3.3.2 for the negotiation I had with the headteacher in terms of this issue). In addition, I make sure that there will be no identifiable information in this thesis or any further published documents. In terms of confidentiality, I replaced participants' name with pseudonyms.

Fourth, as I consider my positioning in this study as an insider, I am aware of the observer's effect (Blommaert and Jie, 2010, p.27) and the relationship between the participants and me. I was not being an insider for this study. Conversely, I became interested in doing studies in this context after I had been an insider. It seems to me that sharing a common ground with participants not only helps me better understand this context, but also "provides a level of trust and openness" with my participants (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009, p.58). However, this familiarity may also lead to personal judges or biases. While I was in the field as a researcher, some participants viewed me as an expert in language teaching. During the break time or after school, they asked me to assess their teaching practice. Rather than trying to avoid the subjectivity as mentioned earlier in Section 3.3.1, I accept it and keep "a close awareness" (Dwyer and Buckle, 2009, p.59) throughout my study. I am aware that I had supportive or negative attitude towards teachers' teaching methods while I was observing their class. Even if in the process of producing the thesis, my theoretical background guided my writing as well. But as a researcher, I kept reminding myself that I need to report what I have seen, heard; and recorded honestly without my personal judgement.

Finally, in terms of the data storage, all collected data were stored on a password-protected area of the University's computer storage. It means that data can be only accessed internally through my University account and externally

through Desktop Anywhere Software in my personal laptop. Any raw paper forms and materials were kept in a locked cabinet and I would be the only person who has the access.

3.3 Access to setting and participants

As mentioned in Chapter 1, my first contact with a Chinese complementary school was in 2012 when I became a teaching assistant in a large school in Birmingham, UK. I was surprised by the language and culture diversity in that school. After I further studied this context, I came across the concept of translanguaging. I realised that this concept is widely adopted but not known and recognised by users. Therefore through this study, I want to show how translanguaging is deployed in this particular context and let users aware of the legitimisation and right to use their language flexibly.

Bearing this in mind, around October 2015, I started searching for this type of school within my reach. There are not many such schools in a city or a specific area, especially a large-scale school. Due to the limited number of such schools, it will be identifiable if I disclose the specific area or city where this school is located. Therefore I replace the city's name with X in this thesis to keep confidentiality. In this section, I introduce two stages before I started my data collection: getting access to the school in October 2015; and recruiting participants and obtaining their permission to collect data in their classroom from September 2016. This section also includes a report of pilot study that I conducted in the same school in March 2016.

3.3.1 First contacts

I first learned this school online through typing key words "Chinese complementary school in city X" in search engine. The name of this school appeared in the first few search results. I browsed the school website and found that it is one of the largest Chinese school in that area. I then sent the headteacher an email according to the contact detail that provides on the school page, expressing my interest in teaching and doing research in their school. Therefore, instead of asking for the gatekeepers' permission to get access to the fieldwork, I offered my help of being a volunteer there. I did this for three reasons. First, I am very interested in continuing to teach in Chinese complementary schools. Second, I do it in return for giving me the opportunity to conduct my

research in this site. Third, this opportunity had allowed me to better understand the context before I started my research. In addition, I am aware of the *subjectivity* (Peshkin, 1988) that might be caused by over familiarity with teacher participants. I manage this issue by accepting the existence of subjectivity and observing it without giving personal comments on participants' behaviour.

A few days after I sent the email, the headteacher (Ms H.) replied and invited me to visit the school first. This was the first time I came to the school and met the headteacher and the deputy headteacher (Ms D.). They gave me an introduction of the school; and asked me some questions in relation to my background of being a Chinese language teacher and a researcher. Although the research proposal was in its initial stage at that point, Ms H. and Ms D. expressed their interest and said that they would like to support academic research conducted in their school. I was then taken on a tour of the school; and was introduced to class teachers when I visited their classroom. About three weeks later, I received Ms H's email, offering me a post of teaching assistant, which was a milestone recognising the permission that I got from the school. Since then I became one of the teaching staff at this school.

In the following weeks I passed my DBS check; I was trained as a teaching assistant; and finally I became a class teacher. This allowed me to get access to students and familiarise myself with other colleagues and students at this school. With a deeper understanding of the context, I further shaped my research proposal and prepared for my pilot study (see Section 3.3.3). Generally speaking, I got more interested in class teachers' purpose of adopting translanguaging practice. Therefore, in order to obtain both classroom data and teachers' reflection upon their teaching practice, I chose to use the audio recording and the individual teacher's interview as my two main research methods.

3.3.2 Recruitment of participants

After I had received the approval from the ethical committee of the University of Leeds, I started to approach the headteacher and negotiated with the potential class teacher participants who had expressed their interest of joining my study in our previous conversations. The headmaster (Ms H.) who has given her consent to my pilot study was about to retire in the following 2016-17 academic year; and Ms. S. took over the position of headteacher. Ms. S. has been involved

in the research of other field; hence I could feel that she is very serious and meticulous about my research documents. After she saw the information sheet and the consent form of this study (see Appendix 1&2), she sent me an email and raised her suggestions from two aspects. She first expressed her concerns about the deadline which was set for participants to withdraw from the study, that is, "before the end of the fieldwork" as Appendix 2 shows. She suggested that the study should not have a withdrawal deadline and participants should feel free to withdraw at any point, so that it won't intimidate them. I further negotiated this point with Ms. S. I explained that due to the nature of my study which is a qualitative study, any participant's withdrawal after the data collection stage would cause tremendous loss for a PhD research study which has its time limit. This was then accepted by Ms. S. In addition, she is also sensitive to the identifiable information and the anonymity issue in my study, which is solved by my further emphasis in the amended documents. Compared with the original version that I sent to Ms. S., I list three terms that were amended (see Table 1) based on Ms. S.'s suggestions. Italicised words indicate the revised terms. After obtaining the gatekeeper's permission in terms of her agreement on the documents, I started to recruit teacher participants.

No.	Original version of Consent Sheet	Revised version of Consent Sheet
1	"I give permission for the researcher's access to the record of the school."	"I give permission for the researcher's access to the record of the school–*the access does not include teachers', pupils' or parents' personal identifiable information*."
2	"I give permission for the lessons to be audio recorded."	"I give permission for the lessons to be audio recorded *with prior written consent from teachers, parents and pupils*.
3	"I understand that all data collected from my school will be kept anonymous."	"I understand that all *raw materials* collected from my school will be kept *strictly confidential*. And all *data being analysed or published* will be kept *anonymous*."

Table 1 Comparison of two versions of terms in the Consent form

Altogether I recruited three class teachers as planned. I met the first teacher (middle level class teacher in my study, abbreviated as MLCT in this thesis) for

the first time at the school's 2015-16 graduation ceremony. It was also the first day she had joined this school. I introduced my teaching position and my research topic to the MLCT. Since she was also working on the research proposal of her master dissertation, she immediately showed her interest and agreed to take part in my study. So I had one teacher who gave me her oral consent before I formally recruited participants.

The second teacher (lower level class teacher, abbreviated as LLCT) came to me in September 2016, after the headteacher introduced generally about my study to all the class teachers in the first staff meeting of 2016-17 academic year. After the meeting, the LLCT asked me some details about my study in private. Her questions were mainly about my research purposes, procedures and significance. Due to limited time, I explained briefly and assured her that if she was interested in joining my study, she would find all the relevant details in the information sheet that I prepared for participants. She then expressed great interest and support. It is interesting that although as a researcher I am not giving my feedback on my participants' teaching or learning practice, the LLCT is one of the participants who would like to ask for my advice on her teaching practice.

After I had successfully recruited two class teachers (i.e. the MLCT and the LLCT), there was no more class teacher came to me as a volunteer of my study. I decided to invite a third teacher to participate. Since I want to incorporate a range of class levels in my study and I had already recruited teachers from the lower and middle level classes, I considered to invite a teacher from a higher level class. This decision was also made based on my theoretical understanding of research in this context: I could barely find studies working on a wide range of class levels in a large-scale Chinese complementary school. Therefore, I approached a class teacher (higher level class teacher, abbreviated as HLCT) during the break time, explained my intention; and asked if she would like to take part. She had no hesitation and gave me her consent. However, it seemed that she was a bit anxious about the research method of audio recording, which was also mentioned by her in our informal conversations at the second stage of my study (see Section 3.4.3 for procedures of my fieldwork). Nevertheless, she agreed to take part after I reassured her that I will be the only person who can get access to the raw recording; and I will anonymise her name whenever I discuss my study under any condition. Therefore, by 25th September, 2016 I

obtained three class teachers' consent to be the teacher participant of my study. On the same day, I distributed the information sheet and the consent form to students in the three classes taught by the three class teachers.

Since my study includes classes and students at three levels (i.e. the lower level class, the middle level class and the higher level class), I need to make it clearer about how learners were assigned to the different levels. Under normal circumstances, when parents register for their children, teachers who are responsible for the recruitment assign learners according to their age and Chinese language ability. They ask parents a few simple questions about their children like "which level your child study in mainstream school?" and "how much Chinese language has your child learnt before?" This is to get a sense of the very basic Chinese language background of the learners. Then during the first three weeks in each academic year, which is the transition period, most class teachers would hold an entrance test to see if their class level is appropriate for the students who were assigned to this class. Class teachers then design and mark the paper themselves. They also have the right to tell their thoughts to parents and the deputy headteacher if they believe that certain students need to be assigned to a higher/lower class according to the test scores. After the approval of parents and the deputy headteacher (signed approval), students change their level according to the class teachers' suggestion. There are altogether ten levels from reception to A-level. In order to make sure that my data is collected from a wide range of class levels, I divided the ten grades into three: Low (Reception, Year 1, Year 2)-Middle (Year 3, Year 4, Year 5, Year 6)-High (Pre-GCSE, GCSE, A-level). Luckily the class level of the two teachers who showed their interest belongs to the low and middle level. This means I only needed to recruit one more high level class as introduced above.

While I was giving out the documents, in order to minimise the disturbance that I might bring to the classes, I chose three time slots to enter the three classes respectively: at the beginning of a class, soon after students come back from break; and 15 minutes before the class finish. I spent 15 minutes in each class to give out documents, explain orally about my study; and answering students' questions. The most common question that was asked by students is "what is this study for?" I tried to explain them in a simple and straightforward way. Since most students are below 16, I need to get their parents' consent as well.

Therefore, I left one week for the students and their parents to consider before I conduct the study.

Rather than taking time to wait for all the potential participants' signed consent, I made it clear in the consent form that I would believe that they were agree to take part if I did not hear anything from them in the following week. I made this decision based on my understanding of how the school operates. As the school runs once a week, if there was any delay caused by students forgetting to bring their consent sheet, the fieldwork would be postponed for months. Rather than resting this decision on my assumption, I took some measures to validate my decision. To ensure that these documents would be read by the students and their parents, the three class teachers asked students to write this down as a homework in their "Student learning planner", which is a booklet used to communicate between teachers and parents. Parents regularly check this booklet to find students' homework and other reports from the teachers, so they know what is happening in the school. I received their responses in the successive weeks. There are students or parents who chose not to be involved in this study, and in this case, I made a note in my field notes to ensure that their voice would not be further transcribed or analysed. Parents' response (consent or rejection) suggests that they read the letter. Moreover, as this is a prolonged study, they can choose to withdraw at any time while I was collecting data. Discussions above show that I was ethically aware of the decision that I made while asking for participants' permission. Reflecting on the whole process of recruiting participants, here are my reflection at this stage.

- People with a research background pay more attention to the details of a study, such as the ethical issues.
- It is helpful to get access to the site and familiarise myself with other staff before formally conduct the study, especially in this type of school which only runs one day during weekends. This is because class teachers only come and teach for 2-3 hours; it is difficult to find a proper time to talk to them about the research without causing any disturbance. In addition, creating rapport prior to the study helps with the recruitment of participants.
- It is important to remind participants to look at the documents carefully as some participants did not pay enough attention to the written documents.

However, it was interesting to find students' different reactions to my study while I was distributing the documents in the higher level class. Students were sitting in two groups: boys' and girls' group. Boys showed less concern while girls read the documents carefully and asked me questions. I assume that such difference is more easily to be noticed in a smaller class.

- It is difficult to quickly catch younger student participants' attention and explain in simple sentences to let them understand "what the study is for".

- Time management is crucial for doing a study across a whole academic year in this type of schools.

3.3.3 Reporting on pilot study

The pilot study was designed and conducted as a small scale study in the same context of my main study. It aimed to test the feasibility of data collection techniques (classroom audio recording and semi-structured interview) and data analysis; and to identify themes that might be relevant for the main study. This small scale study only involves one small class in the Chinese complementary school. Participants in this pilot study include 2 students and a class teacher.

I did the pilot study in March, 2016. Despite the small number of participants, it was conducted under the protocol of this school and was approved by the ethical committee of the University of Leeds. I had a dual role in this pilot study: a teacher and a researcher. I collected three hours' audio recording classroom data and a follow-up group interview data with students. In terms of the process of data collection and data analysis, the lessons that I learnt from the pilot study are listed as follows:

1. Students (and teachers) are anxious about whether they will be judged by the researcher(s) (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.65), especially for those participants who believe that they are not competent at a particular language.

2. The nature of this type of school determines that both teachers and students stay in this school for a short period of time (2-3 hours); and the interval between two lessons is at least one week (longer interval during national holidays and traditional Chinese festivals). It is difficult to find a

time to interview participants without disturbing their normal teaching and learning schedule.

3. One of the audio recorders was interrupted during the classroom recording, which caused 5 minutes breakdown.

4. In the group interview with students, the pace and the content were slightly diverted by the student participants.

5. While I was doing the classroom audio recording transcription, I found that it was difficult to recognise which student participant was talking.

6. The workload of transcribing and analysing the three hours' classroom data was more than I had imagined.

Accordingly, I came up with the following solutions in my main study:

1. In order to reassure participants, I added a clearer statement in the information sheet that "the researcher will NOT judge any of your behaviours". Additionally, the information sheet for pupils were read to them, which ensured that they were aware of this point.

2. Based on my best understanding of how the school runs, I planned time carefully according to the school's academic calendar. I negotiated with the teacher participants about the time and place to conduct interviews. We finally agreed to conduct the interview in a quiet room in the University of Leeds during weekdays. I also asked the class teachers to propose a time for student interviews. The group interviews for all these three levels then took place at another classroom, 20 minutes before the end of class.

3. I used professional audio recorders in my main study. In order to prevent equipment failure, a back-up recorder was recording at the same time.

4. I was aware of the pace of the interviews (Lewis, 1992) in the main study: neither too slow which might cause participants' distraction, nor too quick which might prevent participants from fully expressing their thoughts. In addition, to avoid diversions led by students in group-interviews (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995, p.161), I participated in their conversations to guide and mediate the interactions.

5. My role is different from the pilot study. I was only a researcher observing and recording in the main study. Therefore, this problem was solved by jotting down field notes.

6. In consideration of the feasibility, I reduced the number of planned classroom recording. I recorded 3 lessons per class, each lesson lasts 2 hours (18 hours altogether). Each individual interview and group interview lasts 45 minutes maximum. Moreover, I left the third phase from May to August 2017 as contingency time.

In addition, my preliminary data analysis identified some emerging themes which are related to the class teachers' use of translanguaging (as listed below). However, these themes were not developed further in my main study because of the change of participants. Different themes generated in my pilot study and main study also show the multifaceted nature of classrooms and the uniqueness of individual teachers in terms of language deployment.

- Theme one: Teacher's translanguaging led by students
- Theme two: Teacher's translanguaging led by the teacher
- Theme three: Students' translanguaging
- Theme four: The influence of teacher's language on teacher-students relationship

3.4 Data collection

This section discusses the research methods that I used to generate data, and describes the procedures of data collection in chronological order. It starts with an introduction of the research methods and strategies. I move on to provide the participants' information. Finally, the procedures of data collection and the rationale for each phase are introduced in detail.

3.4.1 Research methods

As indicated earlier in this chapter, in order to capture the complexity in classrooms and class teachers' thoughts on their language practice, I used in-depth classroom observation, classroom audio recording; and semi-structured interview to generate qualitative data.

I started the data collection by adopting the open ethnographic observation (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.37) to address the first and the second research questions (see Figure 5 in Section 3.5.1 for an overview of the research question, data, and analysis). This method was chosen to cope with the complexity and unpredictability in the research context of my study. It was also used to fully address the descriptive research questions. Compared with other non-

ethnographic observations with organised schedules, observation in ethnography is conducted in the way of "a blank page and pen are the tools of the ethnographer, who writes down what he or she sees, hears, smells, feels, and senses in the field" (Copland and Creese, 2015, pp.37-8). Therefore, while doing observation, I also chose to jot down field notes as supplementary interpretation to "coherent documents" (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.41). I will elaborate the role of field notes in my study later on in section 3.4.4.

As the first research question looks at the language practice, transcription of interactional data is needed to provide evidence while analysing and discussing the classroom data in Chapter 4 and 6. Even if the field notes data can facilitate my argument to some extent, audio recording is still necessary in relation to its feature that can be replayed and listened to as many time as needed. Therefore, in addition to the classroom observation data, the classroom audio recording data was also used to answer the first and second research questions. Besides, the analysis and discussion of teachers' translanguaging are mainly based on the data that was produced from these two research methods.

One of the researchers' main concerns in terms of using a recorder is the non-natural practices of participants once a recorder is present (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.46). However, participants would have forgotten the existence of recording device as the study goes on (Copland and Creese, 2015; Johnstone, 2000, p.106). Findings in my pilot study support this point. According to the audio recording, the student participants murmured about the recorder at the beginning, which seems that they were worried. Then 33 minutes after I turned on the audio recorder, one student participant suddenly said "oh, the recorder is on". Therefore, I acknowledge this phenomenon and focus on "the event as it unfolds, rather than wondering about some missing 'more natural' events that would otherwise have taken place" (Speer and Hutchby, 2003, p.318).

After I had observed and audio recorded the classroom interaction, I hoped to find out why they practice in certain ways and how they view their language practice. Therefore the semi-structured interviews were conducted "to probe and expand the respondent's responses" (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995, p.157). This feature of interview is especially useful for my study since it can dig deeper into participants' thoughts and obtain the beliefs that underpin their language practice. The interview data collection is mainly used to address the third

research question, which is about the factors that influence teachers' translanguaging practice.

Kvale (1996) defines the purpose of qualitative interview is "to obtain descriptions of the life world of the interviewee with respect to interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena" (pp.5-6). I used qualitative interview research method to get a deeper understanding of language class teachers' views on two aspects particularly. To begin with, based on teachers' description of their previous experience and their current situation in relation to the sociocultural aspect, their beliefs about language and language education can be discussed in depth. Secondly, drawing on the central purpose of interviews, that is, "an inherent reflexive enterprise" (Mann, 2016, p.48), I used excerpts or transcripts that had been collected from their classroom to encourage teachers to reflect on their teaching practice, which also contributes to a deeper and fuller understanding from the subjects' point of view (Kvale, 1996).

Qualitative interview is a "narrative approach" (Silverman, 2000) that is used to co-construct a special kind of conversation (Kvale, 1996; 2008; Mann, 2016; Richards, 2003). During those conversations, interviewers get "a unique access to the lived world of the subjects, who in their own words describe their activities, experiences and opinions" (Kvale, 2008, p.9). As the interview questions in my study were designed according to my research focus and my reflection on the first phase of study, they are "predetermined" but "openended" (Mann, 2016, p.102). Therefore, the type of interview that I adopted is semi-structured interview. Considering the context of my study as a multilingual research, I also value the importance of language choice in interviews. Drawing on the idea of translanguaging which puts its emphasis on language users' repertoires, rather than prescribing the language that we used in interviews, I encouraged my participants to adopt language freely in order to express their ideas to a greater extent (Androulakis, 2013; Mann, 2016, pp.604-5).

I adopted the individual interview with each teacher participants. Since the class teachers in my study are different in the class level that they teach, their social experience, teaching practice and concerns, the purpose of individual interviews is to obtain their reflection on teaching practices and beliefs. For learners, I conducted group interviews with student participants since they are vulnerable groups who are under 15 years old (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.30). Moreover,

group interviews "enhance the reliability of children's response" (Lewis, 1992, p.413). Following Lewis's suggestions, for each group interview, I chose 4-6 key participants, taking the aspect of students' friendship into consideration (p.418-9). Drawing on the lessons that I had learned from my pilot study, I guided the group interviews while listening and making supplementary notes.

3.4.2 Brief introduction of participants

This section introduces the basic information of all the participants of my study. This study altogether involves three class teachers and students in their class (except students who opted out). These three classes were chosen from a spread of levels and mixture of abilities: one in lower level class (abbreviated as LLC, chosen from Reception to Year 2), one in middle level class (abbreviated as MLC, chosen from Year 3 to Year 5); and one in higher level class (abbreviated as HLC, chosen from Year 6 to A level). Table 2 illustrates a summary of the participants of my study. The information was mainly provided by the three class teachers, with some obtained from the student group interviews.

Students are allocated to classes according to their age and language competency as introduced in Section 3.3.2. We can see from Table 2 that students' age range is very wide in all three classes. Students' background language varies from person to person. But according to the teachers' statistics, about 90% students speak English and Chinese (including Mandarin and other varieties of Chinese language in different areas) at home. Likewise, teachers' background also varies. By comparison with the MLCT and the HLCT, the LLCT has a wider range of background language due to her place of origin. A detailed biography of the MLCT and the LLCT will be provided in the two case studies in Chapter 5 (Section 5.1.1 and Section 5.2.1).

About the HLCT, she has comparatively longer teaching experience than the MLCT and the LLCT. She came from mainland China and immigrated to the United Kingdom more than 5 years ago. During her past years in the UK, she taught Chinese language in other Chinese complementary schools and mainstream schools. During weekdays, she runs her own business with her husband. In our informal conversations, she expressed that she is experienced and confident in teaching Chinese language. She also showed her attachment

to her students by saying "children in our class are very good. I like them very much. They don't mind even if I am joking".

In class, the HLCT teaches in a relatively relaxed way. She emphasised many times that she does not push her students to learn; and all students in her class are happy in learning Chinese language. Compared with the other two teachers, she likes to chat with students during class and breaks. In terms of her language use in class, she expressed her concerns about her English language ability. When I was observing her class, for a few times, she asked me whether the English word or phrase that she just said was correct. As there are only six students (three boys and three girls) in the HLCT's class, she often divides them into two groups (the boys' group and the girls' group) to do activities. I also noticed that she likes to let students learn through various group activities.

	Teachers				Students		
	LLCT	MLCT	HLCT		LLC	MLC	HLC
Gender	Female	Female	Female		Mix	Mix	Mix
Age Range	41-50	21-30	31-40		6-11	8-14	11-16
Years of being in the UK	10-15	1-5	10-15				
Years of teaching Chinese language	1-5	1-5	6-10				
Years of teaching at the school	2	1	5				
Qualified Chinese language teacher	No	Yes	No				
Highest education	Bachelor	Master Candidate	Bachelor				
Linguistic repertoire	Fluent in English, Mandarin, Cantonese, Hakka and Malay	Fluent in English and Mandarin			Being able to speak more than one named language		
Number of Students in Class					22	21	6

Table 2 Summary of participants' information

3.4.3 Procedures

Data collection in my study is divided into three phases, which draws on the procedures of the study done by Creese and her colleagues in a Panjabi complementary school in Birmingham, UK (Copland and Creese, 2015, P.64). I adjusted the three phases to make it better suit my study. Table 3 illustrates a summary of the data collection phases (a detailed summary of data can be found in Appendix 5). Generally speaking, the three phases are classroom observation, classroom audio recording and interview. I adopted different patterns to observe (and record) classrooms in the first and second phase. The rationale for this design will be further addressed in Section 3.4.4 & 3.4.5. In addition, I kept a fieldwork journal throughout my study. It records the time and place of data collection, my reflection on each stage; and any further work that needs to be done based on my reflection.

Phases	Time	Participants	Place	Time length	The totals
Phase one: Classroom observation	02/10/2016	MLCT and 15 students	*MLC		Classroom observation: 9 lessons
	09/10/2016	MLCT and 19 students			
	16/10/2016	MLCT and 20 students			
	06/11/2016	LLCT and 23 students	*LLC		
	13/11/2016	LLCT and 21 students			
	20/11/2016	LLCT and 21 students			
	27/11/2016	HLCT and 6 students	*HLC	Two hours per lesson	
	04/12/2016	HLCT and 6 students			
	11/12/2016	HLCT and 5 students			
Phase two: Classroom observation + Classroom audio recording	05/02/2017	MLCT and 19 students	MLC		Classroom observation: 9 lessons Classroom audio recording: 9 lessons, 18 hours
	12/02/2017	LLCT and 18 students	LLC		
	05/03/2017	HLCT and 6 students	HLC		
	12/03/2017	HLCT and 6 students			
	19/03/2017	HLCT and 6 students			
	26/03/2017	MLCT and 17 students	MLC		
	02/04/2017	LLCT and 17 students	LLC		
	30/04/2017	MLCT and 21 students	MLC		
	07/05/2017	LLCT and 20 students	LLC		
Phase three: Interviews	04/06/2017	6 higher level students	*CCS		Teacher individual interview: 72 minutes Student group interview: 80 minutes
	15/06/2017	MLCT	*UoL		
	18/06/2017	6 middle level students	CCS		
	18/06/2017	6 lower level students	CCS		
	21/06/2017	LLCT	UoL		

Contingency time	(Follow-up interviews)				
*Abbreviation note	Chinese complementary school: CCS Higher level classroom: HLC Lower level classroom: LLC Middle level classroom: MLC University of Leeds: UoL				

Table 3 Summary of data collection phases

3.4.4 Phase one: Observation

Phase one is mainly designed for two purposes. First, observations are used to "build rapport and develop trust in the field" (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.38). It seems to me that students, especially some young learners showed their curiosity towards the "intruder" (Blommaert and Jie, 2010, p.27) who turned up in their classroom. I was sitting at the back of the classrooms from which angle I could observe the whole classroom. I noticed that the first time when I went to the LLC and the MLC, several students always looked back at me during class. Likewise, in the HLC, I overheard students whispering about who I am and what I was there for. This suggests that some student participants paid little attention to the documents I distributed and to my oral introduction when I first approached them. In addition, the *observer's effect* (Blommaert and Jie, 2010, p.27) does exist and the *observer's paradox* (Labov, 1972, p.113) may influence learners' behaviour. However, Blommaert and Jie (2010) further point out the "different stages" of this effect. That is, the influence of a researcher's presence on participants "may diminish as fieldwork goes on" (p.28), and sometimes even being forgotten. Therefore, in order to prepare for natural classroom interactions in the second phase, I let the participants get used to my presence. In addition, the establishment of trust in this phase allowed me to proceed to the audio recording phase smoothly. Second, the teaching practice that I observed in this phase would inform a more focused observation in phase two. In other words, I started in this phase by observing naturally happened classroom interactions and then in the second phase I gradually "start focusing on specific targets" (Blommaert and Jie, 2010, p.29).

As Table 3 shows, in phase one, I observed each class three times in three consecutive weeks. There are two reasons for this pattern. First, in the first few

weeks of the first phase (i.e. late September to early October), the school was at the beginning of a new academic year 2016-17 with new teachers and students coming to register. Therefore, this stage is designed to be a transition period, which allowed the school to stabilise the allocation of teachers and students in other classes. Second, staying in one class for three consecutive weeks helped me to develop a solid relationship with participants (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.47), in comparison with the observation pattern in phase 2.

Based on the purposes and rationales mentioned above, I took turns to observe the three classes. And while observing, I jotted down field notes to facilitate my understanding of the classroom transcription in later data transcription and analysis stages. They also helped with eliciting themes that informed phase two and three. Field notes played a crucial role in my study, especially for some unexpected themes that emerged from my data analysis. Take the theme of "multimodality" as an example. Since my study started with the examination of teachers' language practice, I only audio recorded the classroom interactions. But according to my observation, teachers' deployment of body language showed its potential to be a significant finding. Therefore I used my field notes to reproduce how multimodality was presented in classrooms (see Figure 4 for an example of my field notes).

2. Teacher's gestures for teaching tones
   She was doing the pronunciation drills of a word (see audio-recording transcription 05022017). She was facing students, raised her left arm, extended her left index finger, and then pressed down, said "四声 *the fourth tone*" simultaneously. She repeated "四声 *the fourth tone*" and the simultaneous gesture for 3 more times.

Figure 4 Sample excerpt of field notes (05022017-1)

Therefore, the field notes made up some areas where the audio recording could not reach. In addition, field notes also helped me to identify which participant was talking when I was transcribing the classroom interactions. Altogether at this stage, I collected 27 A4 pages written field notes, which was then edited in a Word document with 12,049 word count (see Appendix 5 for detailed summary of data sets). After the collection of classroom observation data at the first stage was completed, I moved on to the next stage: classroom observation and audio recording.

3.4.5 Phase two: Audio recorded observation

This phase focuses on the in-depth classroom audio data collection. Since participants had got used to my presence in phase one, I introduced a professional audio recorder to the classrooms in the second phase. I designed a different observation pattern compared with stage one. Again, I observed and audio recorded each class for 3 times. However, I was in each class once in every three weeks (see Table 3). The reason for this pattern is to let both the participants and the researcher take an "occasional time-outs" (Emerson et al, 2011, p.202) from the two-hour intensive recording. Although the LLCT and the MLCT later expressed that neither the recorder nor the researcher influenced their teaching practice, the HLCT showed uneasiness about the presence of the recorder whenever I turned on the recorder at the beginning and before and after the break time. Therefore, this pattern was designed for the class teachers to relieve their tension. In addition, through this longitudinal observation and audio recording, it gave me the opportunity to observe participants' change over time. This pattern was disrupted in the middle as we can see from Table 3. Specifically, after I had audio recorded each class level once, I continued in the HLC for two more weeks. This was due to the HLCT's change of her personal schedule. She told me that she would probably ask for leave after March, so I finished her class's audio recording earlier than my original plan.

Based on the themes identified from the preliminary analysis of field notes in phase one (see an example in Figure 4 where I highlighted "2. Teacher's gestures for teaching tones" as one of the emerging themes), I started to focus on some related themes in the observation of this phase. The themes that I started to focus include class teacher's language, class teacher's gestures, students' reaction to their teacher, and so on.

I was still sitting and observing the classes at the back, with the backup recorder placed on my desk. The high sensitive professional recorder device was put on the teachers' desk which was placed in front of the classroom. This placement is to ensure that the voice of the students sitting at the back can also be clearly recorded. The recorders were recorded without break during the two hours' class time in the LLC and the MLC, however, for the HLCT who asked me to turn off the recorder during breaks, I switched them off as she requested, which caused a break. Altogether at this stage, I collected 18 hours classroom audio data and

22 A4 pages written field notes which was later edited in a separate Word document with 8,704 word count (see Appendix 5 for detailed summary of data sets).

3.4.6 Phase three: Audio recorded interviews

Having briefly introduced the rationale for using the interview as a research method of my study in Section 3.4.1, there are two additional specific purposes in association with the preliminary findings from the data analysis of previous phases. To begin with, I wanted to see if there is any consistency or inconsistency between teachers' actual language practice and their beliefs about classroom language. Secondly, there are several very interesting points emerged from the classroom data which I wanted to probe. Therefore, I invited the teachers to reflect on some of their specific practices to elicit their deeper understanding. An example can be found in the interview guide (see Appendix 3): the first and the fourth interview questions under the section of "About languages in classrooms". These are the questions that I added on to the interview guide after I finished phase one and two. Therefore we can see that these three data collection stages inform and support each other to link different data *set* (Braun and Clarke, 2006) together.

I adopted the semi-structured individual interviews with teachers and group interviews with students. As how I did in the classroom audio recording, I prepared two recorders to record simultaneously. The time and place of interviews were decided by the teacher participants. On 4th Jun 2017, I interviewed six students from the HLC, and on 18th June I interviewed six students from the LLC and the MLC separately. Each group interview lasts about 25 minutes. Then on 15th and 21th June 2017, I interviewed the MLCT and the LLCT in a quiet room at the University of Leeds. Both interviews were conducted mainly in Mandarin, however other named languages in our linguistic repertoire were also adopted from time to time. The durations are 28 minutes and 44 minutes respectively, non-stop in the middle. In terms of the teacher interview, I need to mention an unexpected situation which affected the following data analysis and the structure of this thesis.

After I finished the second phase, I contacted the three teachers to ask their availability and preferred time and place to conduct the interview. However, the HLCT showed hesitation at the first time when I talked to her. She said that she

does not want to be recorded in the interview. I explained that the raw audio data would not be evaluated or published. I then contacted her again through text message at the second time. She told me that she had thought for a long time and decided not to mention any personal thought. I wanted to ask her if there was any concern that I could explain; so I met her on the following Sunday. I tried my best to reassure her that her name will be anonymised and the interview questions do not touch any sensitive or private issues. She still insisted on her decision without giving any reason. I have to admit that this is a great loss for my study. Despite the fact that I was disappointed, it is her right to do so and I respect her choice. I still thank her for allowing me to use her classroom data. However, it is a shame that I could not interview all the three teacher participants and therefore I adjusted this thesis's structure to avoid asymmetry in my finding chapters. I analyse and discuss the classroom data in Chapter 4, and then shape the other two class teachers' interview data analysis into two case studies in Chapter 5.

I had a critical self-reflection on this incident and came up with three possible reasons. To begin with, the teacher's hesitation when I recorded her class indicates that she might not be comfortable with her voice being recorded. Secondly, it is likely that she did not look at the information sheet and the consent form closely. Lastly, she might choose to withdraw after experiencing the tension in classroom audio recording. Based on these assumptions, I also considered two ways that might avoid this situation in further studies. The first and foremost thing that researchers need to do before data collection is to be very explicit and clear when we negotiate with potential participants, making sure that they are aware of each detail regarding the data collection methods and phases of the whole study. Another solution that might be helpful is to show participants an example of how we are going to work with the data, both in data collection and data analysis stage to ease their tension. Nevertheless, as promised in the consent form, participants can withdraw if they want without any negative consequences. This shows that as a researcher, I am aware of the ethical issues that I might face in the field, and I kept my promise when my participants did ask for a withdrawal. Now I move on to the next section: the data analysis phase.

3.5 Analytical approach

This section introduces the analytical approach of my study. I start with the guiding analytical framework that underpins this study. I then discuss the analysis methods in detail. After this, I elaborate the analysis of each type of data, providing the details of data analysis procedures and the rationale for each analytical method. In this section, I also indicate which analytical chapters are informed by the data analysis.

3.5.1 Guiding analytical framework

Since my study is situated in the ethnographic tradition, it primarily takes the data-first approach as described in ethnographic studies. The analysis approach of this study is also partly influenced by the grounded theory; and draws on a constant comparative approach and the thematic analysis method. Different types of data were analysed with different methods. Figure 5 provides a summary of research questions, dataset, and the analysis methods in my study.
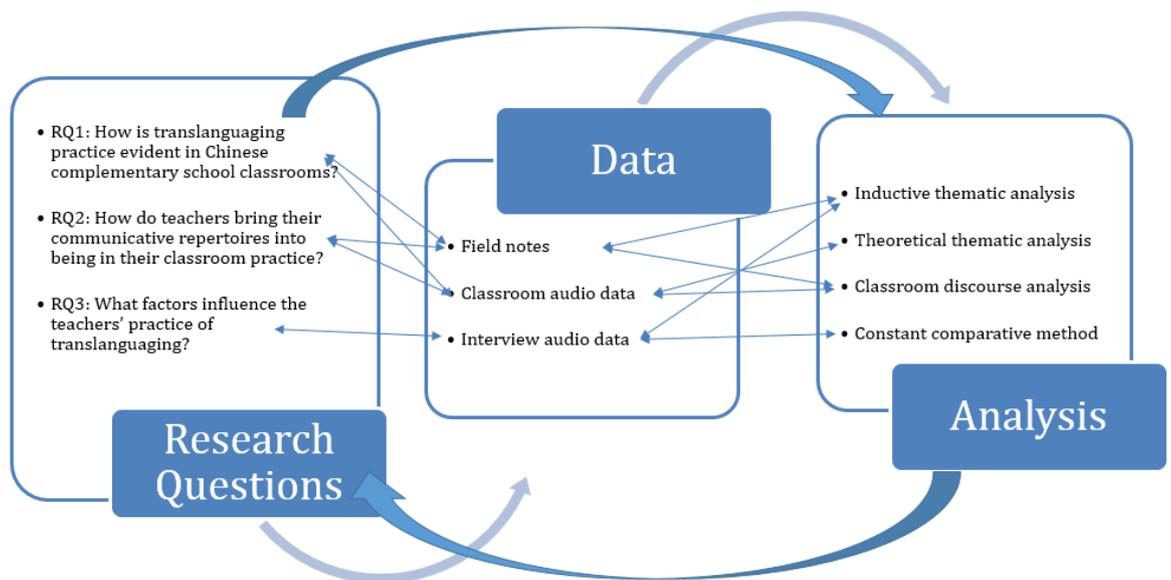
Figure 5 Overview of the research question, data, and analysis

Specifically, data was analysed in chronological order according to the data collection schedule. I first carried out a preliminary analysis of the field notes that I had collected in the classroom observation phase. Due to the nature of field notes, it not only records the interactional data in classrooms, but also describes the incidents and senses which helped me to construct and recall the scene (Emerson et al, 2011), I adopted the classroom discourse analysis and the thematic analysis to examine the classroom interactions by putting it in larger

context of society (Tsui, 2011). This allowed me to identify potential themes in relation to the social, cultural, and multimodal aspects of translanguaging practice.

Like other grounded theorists, I was guided by implicit guidelines for data collection (Charmaz and Belgrave, 2012). The focus in the second phase (i.e. audio recorded classroom observation) and the interview guide that was used in the third phase were developed from the potential themes identified in the first phase. This is compatible with the "contextualized grounded theory" as described in Charmaz (2006), which "start with sensitizing concepts that address such concepts as power, global reach, and difference and end with inductive analyses that theorize connections between local worlds and larger social structures" (p.133). However, I am also aware of the challenge that the grounded theory faces in terms of subjectivity (Chapman et al., 2015) caused by researchers' control of data collection and analysis (Charmaz and Belgrave, 2012). Therefore, driven by the data and my theoretical interests, the theoretical thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.84) was also adopted when I looked closer at the transcription of classroom recording, in order to allow myself open to other emerged themes. However, what also needs to be mentioned is that studies also indicate the impossibility of freeing researchers from their prior knowledge in the process of data analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Chapman et al., 2015).

Next, I moved on to the interview data analysis. I adopted the inductive thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p.83) to analyse the interview transcriptions. Although the interview guide was developed according to the analysed potential themes in phase one, there were unexpected themes that were emerged by using the "data-driven" (Braun and Clarke, 2006) analysis method. For example, while I was analysing the teachers' reflection on the gestures that were used by both teachers to teach Pinyin, they provided me with completely different views based on their own understanding. In order to explore this issue further, I adopted the constant comparative method to generate two case studies (Chapter 5) which are "integrated, consistent, plausible, close to the data, and in a form which is clear enough to be readily" (Glaser, 1965, p.437). Drawing on the five steps (Table 4) as proposed in Boeije (2002, p.395), I further analysed the interview data in association with the thematic analysis.

I drew upon Boeije's constant comparative analysis procedures according to the feature of data in my study. In step one, I analysed the transcription of interviews with two teachers by summarising their response to interview questions. I then compared their different responses to the same questions in step two. After I compared and analysed their different views on the same topic in step three, I identified "contractions or agreements" (Boeije, 2002, p.396) between the two cases of the LLCT and the MLCT in step four. And finally in step five, I produced the criteria and reason for patterns.

Type of comparison	Analysis activities	Aim
1. Comparison within a single interview	Open coding; summarizing core of the interview; finding consensus on interpretation of fragments.	Develop categories understanding
2. Comparison between interviews within the same group, that is persons who share the same experience	Axial coding; formulating criteria for comparing interviews; hypothesizing about patterns and types.	Conceptualization of the subject produce a typology
3. Comparison of interviews from groups with different perspectives but involved with the subject under study	Triangulating data sources.	Complete the picture, enrich the information
4. Comparison in pairs of interviews with two partners belonging to a couple	Selecting themes from open coding that concern the relationship; summarizing the relationship; finding consensus on the interpretation.	Conceptualization of relationship issues understanding of the interaction between partners
5. Comparing interviews with several couples	Finding criteria to compare couples; hypothesizing about patterns and types.	Find criteria for mutual comparison produce a typology

Table 4 Different steps of the constant comparative analysis procedure

3.5.2 Analysis methods

There are three main datasets collected in my study: field notes, classroom audio data, and interview audio data. This part discusses the analysis of each dataset

by referring to literature on qualitative data analysis. Then Section 3.5.3-3.5.5 introduce in detail how analyse the data sets in my study.

Emerson et al. (2011) describe the procedures of processing field notes data as close reading, open coding, and writing memos. In Copland and Creese (2015), they further subdivide the process into five procedures which my study mainly draws on. To begin with, data are organised and tagged according to identifiable information like time, place, researcher, and so on. Then the first reading is suggested by Copland and Creese. While reading, ethnographers are supposed to reflect on their original research questions, reviewing for alignments and "new foci emerging" (p.43). As introduced earlier in Section 3.4.4, based on the data generated from my field notes, there were new themes emerged from my preliminary analysis; there were also adjustments of research questions (see the discussion of research questions in Chapter 6). In the second complete read-through, driven by data, ethnographers start to code and look for "routines and repeated practices" (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.44). As in ethnographic studies, we are open to themes; and in order to generate more themes, a line-by-line repeated reading is recommended by Emerson et al. (2011). After identifying themes, a third reading is needed to reduce categorises and look for connections. Finally, ethnographers focus on the emerging themes that are produced for further analysis in later stages.

At the stage of analysing the classroom audio data, being open to data is still crucial even though the focus of analysis might be shaped by potential themes that were identified in the analysis of field notes. Other factors like researchers' interests and research questions might also shape analysis focus (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.48). Due to the large amount of transcription of classroom interactional data, it is difficult to choose which part of data to focus on in order to produce relevant themes. Therefore, it is suggested that ethnographers need to repeatedly listen to the recordings and *work backwards and forwards* (Silverman, 2000, p.131) to ensure that all the relevant data are considered. In order to study the classroom routines and practices in association with the social context, the classroom discourse analysis is adopted. As my study takes an ecological perspective on translanguaging, the analysis of classroom discourse "relates to the relationship between language structure and the immediate social context in which it is used" (Kumaravadivelu, 1999, p.458). By bringing together

the three dimensions of social context, interactional context, and individual agency (Rymes, 2015), my analysis of the classroom data focuses on the linguistic repertoire as well as the bigger contexts where individuals are situated in.

In the initial process of analysing the interview data transcription, the generation of themes was mainly guided by the unmotivated looking (Psathas, 1995, p.45) principle. With themes being produced from the analysis of interview guide, respondents' utterance and a comparison of two interviewees' data set, the interview data was then analysed together with the classroom data in relation to the investigation into the consistency and mismatch between individuals' language practices and beliefs. I chose to manually analyse the interview dataset due to the small amount. Next, I elaborate on each data analysis stage of my study.

3.5.3 Preliminary textual investigation

I collected field notes in the first and second phase of my study (see Table 3 for summary of data collection phases, also see Appendix 5 for detailed summary of data sets). The analysis of field notes underwent three main stages. At the first stage, I started with looking at the field notes that I jotted down in classrooms again. Then I input the field notes data into my computer to create a file for each lesson that I had observed. This stage allowed me to recall the scene and form a more completed electronic version of field notes.

I then tagged the field notes with time, place, participants, and brief descriptions. Afterwards, I adopted the thematic analysis to look for patterns and themes. I need to note again that field notes in the first phase of this study had been preliminarily analysed in order to inform the two phases later on. However at this stage, guided by the following questions (Copland and Creese, 2015, p.44), I looked at all the field notes transcription to look for emerging themes.

- What are the different kinds of things going on here?
- What are the biggest differences?
- What are the biggest shifts in activity within the interactional occasion?

After themes had been identified, I labelled, categorised, and found connections among themes. Take Figure 4 as an example, "teachers' gestures for teaching tones" is a prominent non-verbal practice that was identified in the field notes

which I jotted down in two teacher participants' class. It might be easily neglected in the analysis of classroom audio transcriptions. However through the analysis of field notes, the deployment of gestures turned out to be an important teaching practice. Therefore, by making "the familiar strange" (Erickson, 1986, p.121), themes generated at this stage supplemented classroom audio data analysis which I am going to introduce in the next section.

3.5.4 Analysis of classroom audio recording data

Altogether I have collected 18 hours classroom audio recording data in phase two (see Table 3 for summary of data collection phases, also see Appendix 5 for detailed summary of data sets). For each two hours' class recording, I first listened twice from beginning to end in order to remind myself of the lessons that I had observed. When the third time I listened, by referring to the field notes, I divided each recording into smaller chunks according to the processes and teaching tasks (see Table 5 as an example).

No.	Time	Tasks/Activities
1	00.15-05.50	• Checking students' attendance • Informing students the plan for this and the following week
2	05.55-07.16	• Collecting homework • Letting students choose the colour of whiteboard pens and wrote the date on the board
3	07.16-12.00	Reviewing last week's vocabulary with students
4	12.00-21.20	Word dictation
…		

Table 5 Sample of dividing classroom audio data

Due to the considerable amount of recordings, I did not transcribed all of it. Rather, based on different tasks that I had divided, I chose the episodes which are relevant to teachers' translanguaging practice to transcribe. For example, I did not transcribe No.4 in Table 5 as this is a typical dictation task with the act of a class teacher saying a Chinese word and then students writing on their book. This does not involve the flexible use of a teacher's linguistic repertoire. Hence, activities like this were not chosen to be transcribed. Altogether, I transcribed 16,329 words edited in Word document for the three classes. I then read the

transcription repeatedly; and meanwhile I manually underlined, named and labelled the language practices and teaching objectives that teachers had achieved by using translanguaging. In the next step, I noted down names and page numbers on a blank A4 paper with 4*4 tables (see Table 6), in order to locate and compare at later data analysis stages.

Since I adopted the 'theoretical' thematic analysis while developing themes and sub-themes (see Figure 5), rather than completely being driven by data, I focused on language practices based on my theoretical and analytic interest (Braun and Clarke, 2006). I classified themes by colouring the similar and overlapped themes with same colour highlighters. For example, I coloured "drills" with red in lesson 1 in the LLC and the HLC; "scaffolding" with blue in lesson 1 in the LLC and the MLC, and so forth. Themes developed at this stage focused on the purposes and objectives of teachers' translanguaging practice.

Observations & audio recordings	LLC	MLC	HLC
Phase 2 - Lesson 1	• Drills p.1 • Scaffolding p.4,5	• Scaffolding p.9 • Chinese characters p.17	• Translation p.20 • Drills p.22
Phase 2 - Lesson 2			
Phase 2 - Lesson 3			

Table 6 Sample of generating themes

Before moving on to the next section, I provide the transcription conventions for excerpts in this thesis (Table 7). I partly adopt the recognised set of transcription conventions in Richards (2003, pp.173-4). In addition, based on the data of my study, I added several signs to Richards's transcription conventions.

. Falling intonation	That was foolish.
, Continuing contour	I took bread, butter, jam and honey
? Questioning intonation	Who was that?
! Exclamatory utterance	Look!
(2.0) Pause of about 2 seconds	So (2.0) what are we going to do?
(. . .) Pause of about 1 second	In front of (. . .) the table
(..) Pause of about 0.5 second	Then (..) she just (..) left
(.) Micropause	Put it (.) away
(xxx) Unable to hear or transcribe	We'll just (xxxxxxxxx) tomorrow
___ See descriptions in the commentary column	
<Italicised> English translation (said in Chinese) It is called 走路 *<walk>*	
…Omission	

() Added contents in the process of translation for better understanding S: One of the students Ss: Students S1 Distinguish S1 from other students in the interactions LLCT: Lower level class teacher MLCT: Middle level class teacher HLCT: Higher level class teacher

Table 7 Transcription conventions

3.5.5 Analysis of interview data

The interview data is thinner than the classroom observation and recorded data; however, the interviews with teachers in my study are very efficient and highly relevant. In terms of the student interviews, I need to mention that I did not include the group interview data in this thesis apart from some basic information. This is because with the development of my study, the primary focus is on the three class teachers' language practice, but the content of group interviews is less related to the core themes. Therefore, I decided to leave it out.

The duration of interview with the LLCT and the MLCT is 45 minutes and 30 minutes. I listened to each recording thoroughly for three times. I then transcribed both recordings for the thematic analysis. The transcriptions were typed and edited in two separate Word Document, with 9,107 and 4,948 words respectively (see Appendix 5 for detailed summary of data sets). I did not start translation at this stage, therefore, transcriptions show the linguistic repertoires that the interviewer and interviewees had adopted in interviews. After this, I printed all the transcribed interview data in two copies (A and B): copy A was used to compare teachers' response to the same questions; and copy B was prepared for the thematic analysis. Therefore, by drawing on a constant inductive comparative approach, I was hoping to elicit the impact of these two teachers' different beliefs on their language practice.

Having considered the limited amount of the interview data, I did all the analysis manually. I used A4 printing papers, colour pens, highlighters, glues; and scissors to help with my analysis. In copy A, I highlighted the participants' key words, sentences, and paragraphs which helped me to categorise their answers according to the questions in the interview guide (Appendix 3). I then labelled each question, in order to organise the same labels together. Specifically, for all the questions in the first section of my interview guide, I labelled "background".

Likewise, questions in the last section were labelled "influence of the study". The seven questions in the second section "About language in classrooms" were respectively labelled "identified language", "language choice", "language choice", "identified language", "students' response", "communication strategies" and "language choice" according to the order. The third section "About emotional issues" was labelled "students' response". In this way, I developed six categorisations for both interview transcripts: background, influence of the study, identified language, language choice, students' response; and communication strategies. As mentioned, these inductive categories were mainly led by the research aims but the analysis is open to other themes. I left the first two categories to Chapter 1 and 3 of this thesis. The other four categories were developed into main themes which I further analysed in the next step.

Copy B was printed one sided. For each teacher, I prepared three blank A4 papers, double sided. I wrote a theme on each side of the three sheets of paper, in a landscape orientation (See Figure 6 for an example of the theme "identified language").

Figure 6 illustrates how I developed one of the main themes "identified language" into sub-themes. Specifically, after the main themes were written down, I cut transcription in copy B into excerpts according to the labels I had attached to each question in the previous step. I then pasted excerpts accordingly on the pink paper as Figure 6 shows.

I read the transcription repeatedly to look for patterns. I also made some notes in the blank according to the interviewees' response (see Figure 6). I underlined, circled, and highlighted the key words. I also counted the instance of some key words mentioned by teacher participants. Sub-themes were produced from the words and sentences that had been constantly mentioned by teachers. After I completed the analysis of the interview data of each teacher separately, I did a comparative analysis between these two teachers.

The thematic analysis in this dataset generated two main themes and a series of sub-themes. The main themes of both teachers are same, but the sub-themes vary. The analysis also shows different influences that are brought by teachers' beliefs, that is, underneath the class teachers' similar teaching practices, they

have different understanding of those practices. I will fully develop this point in Chapter 5.

LANGUAGES (MLC) IDENTIFIED

TEACHER'S EXPECTA- REFLECTION

I: 因为听过你的课嘛 有的时候你会用中文说比如说 "还有吗" 然后那个 "什么" 就比如说 "去吃什么？" ""to eat 什么" 就大概这种表达 你觉得这种表达 啊 就是你为什么要用这种语言来教学 就是为什么有这种切换？

MLCT: 因为中文它是有一定的逻辑性跟那个 (0.5) 转换的 就比如说一个 "吃" 字 它就是说就是吃什么 然后它比如说一个吃一个动词加什么 他们就 他有一种结构性 就给学生建立一种相当于连贯性 就他们 你别看跟他说说吃什么什么然后你就他可以替换有些词他就可以替换 就那种 提醒学生让他形成用其他词来替换 (I: 哦) 让他们想尽量多的词 一是要帮他们回忆 回忆那么多词 二是就是他回忆的时候 比如说这个句子他把所有回忆的词可以运用到 (0.5) 当中 相当于练习他再练习一下他运用就是说句子 啊 说句子的那种 (1.0) 啊 潜意识吧 就是顺便复习和练习一下

I: 那类似于 "还有吗" 也是 就是让他去说更多是吗？

MLCT: 对对对 还有复习 我觉得这点对他们挺重要的 他们回家都不复习的 （I: 对对）

- emphasize the nature of Chinese as a language
- Help students to revise, re-practise, and apply the alternative words that they have practised in sentences.

TEACHER'S RESPONSE TOWARDS Ss' EXPECTATION

MLCT: 挺好玩儿l... 你或者他们会期待你用什么语言呢？

MLCT: 当然是他们的母语 但是你作为语言就是你的目的语的语言完全实现不了那你就尽量用他的目的语说 就不要 (1.0) 就是如果你老说英文的话他就不叫不叫外语课堂

I: 嗯 那就是嗯重他们那个

MLCT: 也不能说他们回忆的 这毕竟是语言课 就不能就是你要你喜欢听英语不能说老师给你英语 不可能的事情 那就是营造一个目的语的环境吧 挺重要的

I: 就是别的现过 (I: 嗯) 对 但是也会有实现的 实现的百分之八十以上沉浸全汉语来说

MLCT: 对

MLCT: 你猜的比较多

MLCT: 对 中文英文都是

I: 我说的是在英国教中文实践 上是目前在沉浸式教学是有

MLCT: 没有实现过 （但是也会有实现的

I: 那沉浸式教学实践有没有实践 完全没有的

MLCT: 我说的是我教学的比较少实践

MLCT: 也不能完全尊重他们那个

MLCT: 说老师给你英语 不可能的事情

MLCT: 最理想的状态就是沉浸式教学嘛 但是沉浸式教学目前在英国实现的比较少因为国家

Figure 6 Sample of developed themes and sub-themes

Summary

This chapter discussed the methodology consideration of my study. It has covered the methodological theoretical basis and the specific implementation procedures. Next, guided by the data collection and analysis processes introduced in this chapter, chapters 4 and 5 focus on the analysis of two different data sets: the classroom data (4) and the teachers' interview data (5). The first and second research question regarding the translanguaging practices and users' communicative repertoires in the complementary school's classrooms are

addressed in Chapter 4. The third question about the influencing factors of translanguaging practices is discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 4 Analysis of classroom practice

Introduction

This chapter and the next chapter address the analysis and main findings of two types of data. Chapter 4 discusses the classroom data, including field notes and classroom audio recording. Chapter 5 investigates the two language teachers' interview data. In this chapter, by examining translanguaging practices in three language classrooms, class teachers' purposes of adopting translanguaging will be reported. Altogether, five objectives of the class teachers' translanguaging practices were identified:

1. Teaching Chinese characters
2. Teaching Chinese tones
3. Teaching unique expressions in Chinese
4. Differentiating students with different language abilities
5. Giving instructions

These five objectives were developed from the analysis of classroom observation and audio recording data. This chapter is then divided into five sections examining each of the themes. In each section, extracts are illustrated to demonstrate how translanguaging is used to achieve the class teachers' teaching or communication purposes. Some excerpts will be cross-referred in the next chapter, in order to further explore two class teachers' reflection on their teaching practices. At the end of this chapter, a brief conclusion is included to provide a summary of the main findings. Data analysed in this chapter include field notes on 18 lessons (two hours per lesson) and audio recordings of 9 lessons (18 hours altogether). Now I begin with the first objective of teachers' translanguaging practices: teaching Chinese characters. By looking at language practices through the lens of translanguaging, I analyse how a wide range of linguistic and other aspects of repertoires are deployed by class teachers to convey meaning.

4.1   Translanguaging for teaching Chinese characters

Introduction

As introduced in Section 2.4.2, Chinese characters (or *Hanzi*) are crucial parts in Chinese language. They are also one of the main teaching and learning targets in Chinese language classrooms. The classroom data analysis suggests that both the LLCT and the HLCT deployed translanguaging to teach Chinese characters. This practice was also confirmed by the LLCT who flexibly used her language repertoire to teach Chinese characters as one of her teaching objectives. The following sections describe class teachers' deployment of students' existing knowledge by making full use of their and the learners' language and multimodal resources. Those resources include:

1) Students' existing Chinese knowledge

2) Students' existing English knowledge, and

3) Students' understanding of visual modes.

4.1.1 Using students' existing Chinese knowledge

The analysis of classroom data shows that translanguaging is used for teaching Chinese characters in both lower level class and higher level class. I start with an excerpt from the LLCT's class.

In Excerpt 4-1-1, the teacher alternated her language to teach how to write the Chinese character "路 *<road>*" (in the following texts of this thesis, the *<italicised English>* after Chinese characters refers to the English translation of specific word, phrase; and sentence). Students' existing Chinese knowledge in relation to parts of the target word is constantly and carefully picked by the teacher to facilitate students' understanding.

Excerpt 4-1-1
LLCT: 路 *<road>* is for 口 *<mouth>* here again…this is when you 踢球 *< kick a ball>*. Remember you 踢球 *<kick a ball>* and you 跑 *<run>* remember this side? 足字旁 *<the radical 足>*.
S: Yeah.
LLCT: Something to do with your leg is 足 *<feet>* so is 足字旁 *<the radical> 足*. 路 *<road>* 路 *<road>* is like 面条的条 *<the 条 for (the Chinese character) noodle>*, here 面条的 *< (the Chinese character) noodle's>* upper part we got 口 *<mouth>* here (…) all right? Remember how to write it? It is called 走路 *<walk>*.

We can see that in order to teach the Chinese character "路 *<road>*", the LLCT borrowed from the left part of the Chinese character "踢 *<kick>*" and the character "跑 *<run>*", which the students had learnt (see Figure 7 for detail). Likewise, for

the right upper part of "路 *road*", she borrowed from the upper part of the character "条 *<stripe>*" for "面条 *<noodle>*". The LLCT's word "remember" in the second line of this excerpt suggests that in order to teach the target word, she constantly reminded the students of the radicals (see Section 2.4.2 for an explanation) and the words they had learnt before.

Teaching target:
路 *<road>* ＝足＋夂＋口

Radicals that are shared in the learnt and the new words:
足字旁 *<the radical 足> and* 偏旁夂 *<the radical 夂>*

Chinese words that students have learnt:
口 *<mouth>* , 踢 *<kick>*, 跑 *<run>*, 条 *<stripe>*
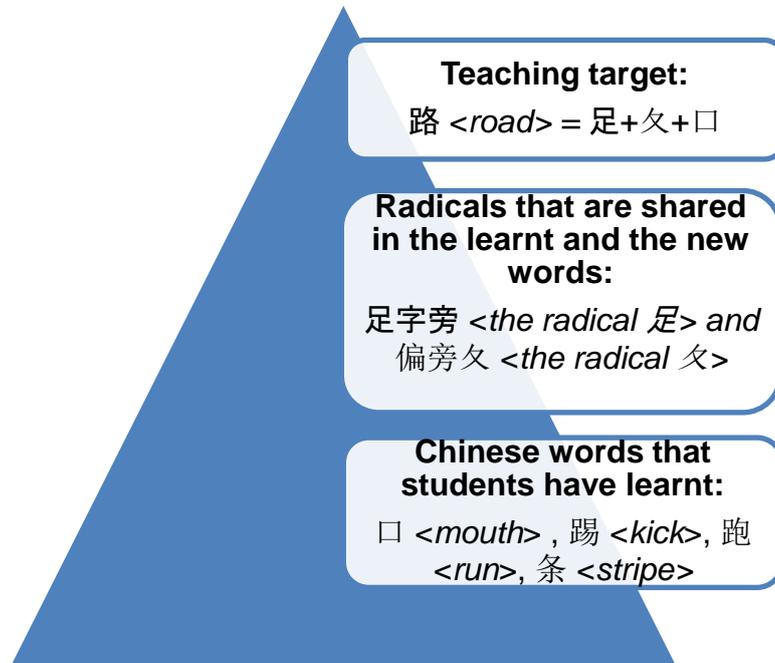
Figure 7 Example of radicals broken down by the LLCT in Excerpt 4-1-1

Next, by taking an outsider's and insider's perspective (Otheguy et al., 2015) respectively, I will analyse the LLCT's language practice in depth. Although I agree with the idea of translanguaging that it focuses on individuals' deployment of their full linguistic repertoire, in order to understand the big picture of what translanguaging brings to language classrooms, it is necessary to analyse the function of language separately. That is to say, I examine the uses and purposes of class teachers alternating use of Chinese and English. I thus in the first instance examine excerpts from the outsider's perspective, looking at the functional separation of different parts of the repertoire. I then adopt the insider's perspective, analysing excerpts by looking at the class teachers' linguistic repertoire which is grounded in their understanding of students. Therefore, the way that I analyse the classroom excerpts throughout this thesis is that I investigate teachers' language separately first. I then critically discuss how translanguaging in this context benefits or facilitates teachers' teaching and students' learning by taking the teachers' language as a unity.

We can see that the LLCT adopted her language for different purposes: English language was used throughout for communication, and meanwhile she moved to Chinese language inside her explanation for two reasons. Firstly, according to the LLCT's reflection, speaking specific radicals and strokes in Chinese language is to enhance and emphasise the basic structure of Chinese language. For example, for the three words "踢 *<kick>*", "跑 *<run>*", and "路 *<road>*" in Excerpt 4-1-1, "足" is the mutual radical shared on the left part of these three words. Therefore, "足字旁 *<the radical 足>*" is the teaching content which the LLCT would like to emphasise in this case. I will further mention this point in Chapter 5 (Excerpt 5-1-4). Secondly, she moved to Chinese language to remind students of certain radicals or strokes within other learnt words, for example, "the left part of '踢 *<kicking>*' and the upper part of '条 *<stripe>*'". Using students' existing linguistic knowledge of Chinese language allowed the LLCT to introduce the new word 路 *<road>*. In addition, it helped the students to transfer their previous knowledge to the new ones smoothly. This will be further discussed as the teaching practice *scaffolding* in the discussion chapter (Section 6.1.3).

In Excerpt 4-1-1, two salient findings need to be pointed out regarding the LLCT's language. To begin with, Chinese as the target language employed by the class teacher is unavoidable in the educational settings, especially under the circumstance that the teacher's focus is on language education. In this case, when the teaching content relates to delivering knowledge about strokes and radicals, specific language (i.e. Chinese in this excerpt) is spoken inevitably for the purpose of instruction. The second finding is based on the LLCT's reflection, in relation to the ways how she alternated between Chinese and English. The LLCT adopted specific language (Chinese) for specific teaching contents (learnt words, strokes and radicals), which manifests that she was aware of the students' linguistic repertoire and drew upon it to enhance their understanding.

Turning now to the LLCT's language by viewing it from a user-centred perspective of translanguaging, rather than prioritising the language in her classroom, it seems that she put the learners in the centre while helping them to construct their knowledge. This conclusion can be supported with evidence from the interview data with the LLCT in Section 5.1.2. She acknowledged and respected her students' social background and their linguistic repertoire. So in

this excerpt, it seems that she created a positive learning environment by using strokes creatively in the process of teaching new knowledge. In addition, she sustained students' existing Chinese language knowledge. Translanguaging therefore enables the realisation of this environment and enhances the students' understanding of the new and existing knowledge.

A similar translanguaging practice was identified in the HLCT's class, where the class teacher borrowed from her students' existing knowledge of Chinese language to facilitate the teaching of another Chinese character. In Excerpt 4-1-2, the HLCT was teaching how to write the Chinese word "翻译 *<to translate>*". After she had explained and written it down on the whiteboard, a student asked her if she could display how to write the Chinese character "翻" of "翻译 *<to translate>*" for another time. This character has 18 strokes all together. The sequence of writing this character is comparatively complicated to follow. So, to make it easier for the understanding of the strokes, I provide the order of the strokes that people follow when they write this Chinese character (number on the left top corner of each step, which was synchronously counted by the HLCT) in the right column of the excerpt.

Excerpt 4-1-2	
S: Can you do again? HLCT: Do it again. (7.0) 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 *<one, two, three, four, five, six, seven>*. OK, so 田还是像以前一样的啊 *<the character of 田 (field) is still the same as usual>*. 先写外面再写里面 *<write the outside first then the inside>*, we close the door finally, OK?	

We can see that like the LLCT in Excerpt 4-1-1, the HLCT reminded her students of their learnt word as well. The Chinese character "田 *<field>*" is the learnt word which forms part of the teaching target "翻 *<turn>*" (i.e. the left bottom part). She stopped counting after she finished the first seven strokes of the word, and then by borrowing from the students' existing knowledge, the HLCT said "田还是像以前一样的啊 *<the character of 田 (field) is still the same as usual>*" (line 4-6).

Interestingly, the way that she introduced the learnt word "田 *<field>*" (i.e. the eighth to the twelfth stroke of the target word "翻 *<turn>*") is different from the LLCT. Instead of continuing counting, she added her description to this word. She illustrated the correct order of writing this character "先写外面再写里面 *<write the outside (strokes) first (stroke 8-9) then the inside (strokes) (stroke 10-11)>*", and finished the last stroke (the twelfth) by referring it to closing "the door". It seems that she was aware of the students' knowledge gap, i.e. the students were much familiar with "田 *<field>*" but not with other strokes in the word "翻 *<turn>*".

As discussed, the HLCT started with adopting Chinese language and finished with using English to teach the word "田 *<field>*". It suggests that language was flexibly used by the HLCT to facilitate her language teaching. The teaching target is achieved by using translanguaging by drawing on students' linguistic repertoire.

In Excerpt 4-1-1 and Excerpt 4-1-2, both teachers used their language to assist their students with bridging the distance between the knowledge that they had acquired and the knowledge in the next level which can be achieved with teachers' help by linking the new knowledge with students' existing knowledge. This touches Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD) that I introduced in Section 2.4.3. I will discuss this point in greater detail along with scaffolding as a teaching practice in Chapter 6 (See section 6.1.3). The two excerpts show that as a major part of students' linguistic repertoire, learners' existing knowledge of the target language is used effectively in language teaching. Besides, from the pedagogical perspective (Section 2.4), translanguaging is used flexibly by the class teachers for the purpose of teaching Chinese characters as their teaching objectives.

4.1.2 Using students' existing English knowledge

Having discussed the way that the language teachers borrow from the students' existing Chinese knowledge while adopting translanguaging, this section examines another aspect of students' linguistic repertoire that the teachers draw on to make meaning.

Excerpt 4-1-3 is from the LLCT's class. She was teaching the writing of the Chinese character "笑 *<laugh>*". This excerpt shows how the LLCT adopts her

language to bring students' full linguistic repertoire into being. Again, for better understanding, I use the commentary column to illustrate the English knowledge that was borrowed from the students in order to facilitate their learning of the target word.

Excerpt 4-1-3	
LLCT: 笑 *<laugh>*, yeah? 笑 *<laugh>* how to write 笑 *<laugh>*? Remember (xxx) you are replicating F yeah? But a bit longer isn't it? And then we for (…) what's that I forgot. 笑 *<laugh>* OK 一撇 *<a ノ>*, 一横 *<a 一>* yeah (xxx)?	*FF* 竹

In this excerpt, "Remember" was used likewise to remind the students of their previous knowledge. In order to teach the upper part of the target word "笑 *<laugh>*" (the picture on the right of the commentary column), students' English knowledge-the letter "F" (the picture on the left side of the commentary column) was activated. She used the visual similarity between this two 'pictures' to enhance students' understanding. She then modified her analogy by saying "But a bit longer isn't it?" However, when the LLCT introduced the lower part of the word "笑 *<laugh>*", she moved to the traditional Chinese expressions of the strokes "一撇 *<a ノ>*" and "一横 *<a 一>*", which broke the lower part down into independent strokes.

At the beginning of this excerpt, the LLCT firstly drew upon the letter F, and then further described it to teach the Chinese character. She thereafter adopted a specific description in Chinese language to illustrate the Chinese strokes. It seems that under the premise that she knows the students' first language is English, rather than avoiding the use of English, she allowed the use of different named languages in her class. In the meantime, the Chinese strokes that she emphasised in Chinese language are presumably students' learnt knowledge. It can be seen that Chinese characters as one of the LLCT's core teaching targets, it is necessary for her to emphasise Chinese strokes, which also provides an opportunity for the LLCT to adopt the target language in her class.

Coming back to the approach of translanguaging, the students' full linguistic repertoire were adopted to support their learning of the target language. I need to point out that for students whose first language is not English, different learning

results may occur by using the similar strategy. The reason why the LLCT successfully achieved her teaching target is due to the similarity of the analogy she made between "FF" and "⺮". It suggests that by viewing the students' existing language knowledge as useful resources, English is used flexibly by the LLCT to support students' learning of Chinese language. It also shows that the language teacher respects the different linguistic and social backgrounds brought by students. Moreover, she used it as resources. This "sociolinguistic motivation" is in line with the pseudo-Chinese characters "where strokes of Chinese characters and English alphabets mutate and slide into one another" in Baynham and Lee (2019, pp.164-7). Other forms of mutation: Tranßcripting with respect to words and phrases between English language and Chinese language can be found in Li and Zhu (2019). Based on the features of both named languages and the class teacher's creativity, the translanguaging space is created between Chinese and English.

By illustrating the flexible and creative use of classroom language, Section 4.1.1 and Section 4.1.2 suggest that students' linguistic repertoire is an important component which can be employed in language teaching practices for the purpose of teaching the writing of Chinese characters specifically.

4.1.3 Using students' multimodal repertoire

Now I move on to the class teachers' another way of meaning making. Within my theoretical framework of translanguaging as introduced in Chapter 2, this section focuses on the use of creative, multimodal visual aid for the purpose of teaching Chinese language. Classroom data in this section comes from the LLCT's class where she adopted two types of visual modes to assist her teaching. The first type is drawing and asking students to imagine images of specific teaching goals. The second type is making simultaneous gestures while teaching orally.

The following excerpt is an example of making embodied gestures to teach Chinese language. The teaching targets in Excerpt 4-1-4 are the pronunciation, meaning, and writing of the words "上学 *<go to school>*". Again, I provide the commentary on the right column to illustrate the strokes' order of the word "学*<to learn>*". Besides, I provide the field notes collected on the scene to facilitate understanding. The supporting field notes explain and describe the scene while the class teacher saying the underlined words and sentences in this excerpt.

Excerpt 4-1-4	

1.   LLCT: 上学 *<going to school>* 上面的上 *<the 上 (up) for upside>* yeah? This is how you do it 上 <u>*<up>*</u> this is pointing up 上 *<up>* 学 *<to learn>* 学 *<to learn>* is like this you know? You know about
5.   this? 上面 *<upper part*s> like three things yeah? Or maybe <u>a chicken with three horns</u> (xxx) isn't it?
    Ss: (laughter)
    LLCT: Isn't it? Like a chicken yeah? OK I think so yeah? So (xxx) and for a 子 *<son>* here 上学
10. *<go to school>* 上 *<up>* (3.0).
    S: 上 *<up>*
    LLCT: 上 *<up>* 上 *<up>* sh-ang shāng yeah? shāng shāng eh 第一 *<the first>* (…) 第四音 *<the fourth tone>* shàng shāng sháng shǎng shàng yeah
15. shàng 上学 *<go to school>* xu-e xuē (3.0) 第二音 *<the second tone>* xuē xué xué 上学 *<go to school>* OK follow me 上学 *<going to school>*.
    Ss: 上学 *<go to school>*.
    LLCT: Again 上 *<up>*
20. Ss: 上学 *<go to school>*
    LLCT: Again 上 *<up>* <u>第四音 *<the fourth tone>*</u> 上 *<up>*
	<u>上 *<up>*</u>: with her finger pointed up twice toward the ceiling to show the direction that this word refers to.
	
	<u>a chicken with three horns</u>: She compared the upper part of "学 *<to learn>*" to the cockscomb (see pictures below).
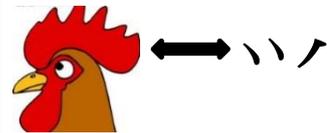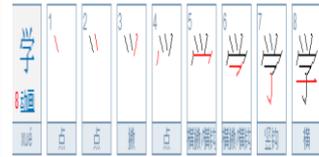	
	<u>第四音 *the fourth tone*</u>: with her hand raised to the height of her head and then pointed down with her index finger.

According to the commentary we can see that gestures were adopted for three times to teach, namely the meaning of "上 *<up>*", the writing of the upper part in the Chinese character "学*<to learn>*" (i.e. " ˇ ´ "), and the pronunciation of "上 *<up>*". The LLCT firstly reminded the students of their learnt words "上 *<up>*" in Chinese, which can be told from what she said "上面的上 *<the 上 (up) for upside>*" (line 1). Interestingly, she further explained this word by using translanguaging (line 2-3), and was meanwhile illustrating the direction that this word refers to "This is how you do it" (line 2). As mentioned in Chapter 2, Chinese characters are image-shape words (Kuo and Hooper, 2004). The LLCT visualised the word for students to enhance their understanding. Therefore, in order to let the students understand her teaching content, the class teacher used two types of communicative methods simultaneously to make meaning (i.e. verbal and non-verbal body language).

Likewise, in order to explain how to write the Chinese character "学*<to learn>*", the students' imagination is employed in Excerpt 4-1-4. The LLCT started with using English language in the third line, and then before she divided the word into two parts to illustrate (i.e. the upper and the lower part), the LLCT used "上面 *<upper parts>*" (line 5) to describe rather than carrying on with English language. Based on the class teacher's understanding of her students' linguistic repertoire, her purpose of adopting translanguaging seems clear here, which is for emphasising what the students had just learnt and let them practice. I will continue with this point with greater detail in the next chapter supported by the analysis of the teacher interview data.

The LLCT then used the metaphor of the cockscomb (as the picture in the commentary column shown) to describe the upper part of "学*<to learn>*" (line 5-6). Students' laughter in line 7 shows that the LLCT's metaphor was understood by the students, despite her inaccurate English "horn". In the interview, she mentioned the importance of pictures and drawing for younger students in learning a language (see Excerpt 5-1-8 for detail). The LLCT's motivated the students' imagination through linking the teaching target " ˇ " with the vivid picture existing in the students' mind.

Soon after the LLCT finished teaching the writing of the lower part "子 *<son>*" in "学*<to learn>*", she alternated her language to teach the pronunciation. I will investigate the use of translanguaging to teach Chinese Pinyin in the following section. What needs to be pointed out is that in the last line of this excerpt, the class teacher made a gesture "with her hand raised to the height of her head and then pointed down with her index finger" to imitate the tone "第四音 *<the fourth tone>*" (i.e. the symbol above "a" in Pinyin [shàng]) of the word "上 *<up>*". It manifests that non-verbal communication does not only exist in the teaching of Chinese characters, rather, it is widely used by the LLCT to convey meaning in language education. I will come back to this point in Section 6.2.3.

Excerpts in this section suggest that embodied communication methods like gestures and images facilitate teachers to make meaning in non-verbal ways while giving oral instructions. By visualising how to recognise, write, and pronounce the target words, the LLCT's deployment of translanguaging does not

limited to the linguistic resources. The teaching target is achieved through drawing on both the students' linguistic repertoire and their other aspects of semiotic repertoires.

To conclude, Section 4.1 examined the class teachers' language which is adopted for the purpose of teaching Chinese characters. The data analysis suggests two main findings. Firstly, translanguaging is being identified as an effective way to communicate in language classrooms, especially for some specific teaching contents (Chinese characters in this section). Secondly, apart from users' linguistic repertoire being drawn upon by teachers, the deployment of multimodal resources also seems to be a significant finding. That is to say, within the framework of translanguaging, a wide range of semiotic repertoires collaborate effectively to enhance students' understanding in complementary school classrooms. In addition, by taking the classroom language practices as the coordination of deploying different resources, the concept of translanguaging also explores the underlying factors of those practices. It understands class teachers' language and embodied gestures as a dynamic process where teachers constantly examine their practice according to their understanding of students, for example, students' language background, language needs and language ability. Therefore, rather than describing multilingual or multimodal classroom practice, the theory of translanguaging in my study is used to understand the users and their practice.

4.2   Translanguaging for teaching Chinese tones

Another important teaching objective of language teachers in Chinese complementary schools is the tones in Pinyin. It is a salient finding that both in the LLCT's and the MLCT's classroom, by drawing on both linguistic and other semiotic resources, teachers adopt translanguaging for the purpose of teaching tones. In Chapter 2, I introduced that within the context of teaching Chinese as a foreign language, there is a call for language teachers to use specific gestures to teach the four tones in Pinyin. Gestures are described as a systematic and effective strategy in teaching Chinese as a foreign language (Morett and Chang, 2015). Excerpts in this section examine two class teachers' method of making gestures while teaching tones orally.

I begin with the MLCT. Excerpt 4-2-1 and Excerpt 4-2-2 are two excerpts of her lessons, but regarding the same character's pronunciation "见 *<to see>*" (Pinyin [jiàn]). In both excerpts, after the MLCT had listened to her students' pronunciation, she identified their mistakes, and then corrected for several times. Based on my observation and the field notes, the supplemented commentary can be found in the right column to explain the underlined sentences on the left accordingly.

Excerpt 4-2-1	
1. Group2 Ss: 见 *<to see>* MLCT: 四声 *<the fourth tone>*	见 *<to see>*: [jiān]
	四声 *<the fourth tone>*: with her right arm lifted, her index finger stretched out and pointed to her bottom right direction.
Group2 Ss: 见 *<to see>* MLCT: 四声 *<the fourth tone>*	见 *<to see>*: lower voice with various tones
5. Group2 Ss: 见 *<to see>*	四声 *<the fourth tone>*: repeated her gesture
MLCT: 四声 *<the fourth tone>* Group2 Ss: 见 *<to see>*	见 *<to see>*: with various tones
MLCT: 见 *<to see>* Group2 Ss: 见 *<to see>*	四声 *<the fourth tone>*: repeated her gesture
10. MLCT: 见 *to see* Good	见 *<to see>*: with some pupils pronounced correctly
	见 *<to see>*: with stressed voice
	见 *<to see>*: with the correct tone [jiàn]
Excerpt 4-2-2	
1. S: 见面 *<to meet>* MLCT: 四声 *<fourth tone>*	见面 *<to meet>*: with various tones
	四声 *<fourth tone>*: with her finger stretched out and pointed down
S: 见面 *<to meet>* MLCT: 四声*<fourth tone>*	见面 *<to meet>*: with various tones
5. (1.5) 见面 *<to meet>* 见面 *<to meet>* S: 见面 *<to meet>* MLCT: Great	四声 *<fourth tone>*: repeated her gesture
	见面 *< to meet>* 见面 *<to meet>*: with stressed voice
	见面 *<to meet>*: with the correct tone [jiàn]

In Excerpt 4-2-1, the MLCT was correcting the tone pronounced by Group 2 students. The students' pronunciation was the high flat Pinyin [jiān] whereas the

correct tone is the fourth tone (i.e. [jiàn] falling tone as illustrated in Section 2.4.2). Therefore, in the commentary we can see that while she was reminding the learners of the correct tone orally in the target language "四声 *<the fourth tone>*", she made a simultaneous gesture "with her right arm lifted, her index finger stretched out and pointed to her bottom right direction". The students' response with various tones in the third line seems that they had heard the teacher's instruction, but they did not follow the MLCT's words for some reason, which can be seen by the teacher's error correction for another time in line 4.The same pattern then occurred for the third time in line 5-6. Interestingly, students still did not correct their tone as the MLCT expected. So in the following conversation (line 8-9), instead of telling them orally what is the correct tone in Chinese language with her accompanied gesture, she pronounced the correct tone for students "见 *<to see>*" (Pinyin [jiàn]) with emphasised tone, which was eventually followed by students' correct pronunciation in line 9.

The correction of the students' pronunciation in relation to the same word was identified again in another MLCT's lesson. Excerpt 4-2-2 shows that although the MLCT had corrected the pronunciation of the word for students in the previous lesson as illustrated in Excerpt 4-2-1, they came across the same situation again. She did the similar teaching practice twice in line 2 and line 4 (i.e. corrected the students' pronunciation by speaking Chinese language and making simultaneous gestures). However, exactly like the previous excerpt, the students did not correct their tones until the class teacher pronounced for them (line 5-6). In spite of the students' unsatisfactory response to the MLCT's gesture, the MLCT was trying to make the tones visible for students. This supports the dual coding theory (Paivio, 1990) mentioned in Chapter 2. In the interview with the MLCT, she emphasised the use of specific gestures as a teaching strategy in terms of teaching Chinese tones. She added that her practice is driven both by her theoretical understanding of language teaching approach and by the training she had received. I will further discuss this in Chapter 5 (see Excerpt 5-2-6 for detail).

Now coming back to look at the gestures made by the MLCT in Excerpt 4-1-4 (line 21): the word emphasised in the LLCT's classroom is "上 *<up>*" (Pinyin [shàng]) and the one in the MLCT's classroom is "见 *<to see>*" (Pinyin [jiàn]).

Both are the fourth tone, which were therefore visualised by the two class teachers in a similar way according to my field notes. However, they commented differently on their practice: the MLCT is quite aware of her teaching strategy as discussed earlier whereas the LLCT said that she does not know her reason for making gestures to teach tones. This suggests that due to teachers' individual difference, their purpose varies in terms of using gestures to teach tones. Nevertheless, because of the same content and meaning that the teachers wanted to deliver, they produced similar gestures, which echoes the point made by McCafferty and Stam (2008).

Translanguaging practices in these three excerpts are achieved by adopting the target language and the simultaneous embodied gestures. The data analysis in this section suggests that the teaching technique which combines two types of resources together happens frequently and widely in Chinese language classrooms in terms of teaching tones. In these extracts, it is difficult to assume that whether or not students' response may vary if their first language is adopted rather than the target language. But whichever societally named language is adopted, the key point that I want to make here is that the language teachers attempted to incorporate both students' linguistic and other aspects of semiotic repertoires into her teaching practice, and all of which are based on the class teachers' understanding of their students. Briefly speaking, the class teachers made meanings by adopting a wide range of available resources.

To conclude, the major finding in this section is that by identifying the practice of using both linguistic and multimodal resources as translanguaging practices, it suggests that the deployment of translanguaging facilitates language teachers' achievement of their teaching purposes (i.e. Chinese tones in this section). Similar to the teaching of Chinese characters introduced in the previous section, due to the nature of the target language-Chinese which is described as pictographs (Kuo and Hooper, 2004), both lingual and embodiment gestures can be adopted to facilitate the language teachers' teaching.

4.3 Translanguaging for teaching unique Chinese expressions

As mentioned in Chapter 1, apart from the purpose of teaching Chinese language, another main purpose of establishing Chinese complementary schools is to promote the heritage language's culture. Therefore, traditional culture like Chinese festivals are included in the teaching target. But due to students' lack of the background knowledge, sometimes they are confused about some Chinese expressions if they cannot transfer or link those to their own linguistic knowledge. Under these circumstances where single mode cannot fully express the meaning that teachers want to convey, translanguaging is identified being used to make meaning. Like previous sections in this chapter, this section also views teachers' deployment of a wide range of semiotic repertoires as translanguaging practices, which is underpinned by the multimodal perspective on translanguaging as introduced in Chapter 2.

In this thesis, unique expressions in Chinese refers to the Chinese words or phrases which can only be found in Chinese language and can hardly be understood by foreign language learners literally, or a Chinese tradition which is exclusively originated from China. For example, 上火 (Pinyin [shàng huǒ]) literally means "get angry/inflamed", it is actually more used in the field of traditional Chinese medicine to say that someone is suffered from excessive internal heat. This word occurred in my pilot study where the class teacher found it difficult to explain to get the students to fully understand. It is because of the difficulty to find a corresponding phenomenon or expression in the learners' society where they live. Another example is one of the Chinese traditional festivals "Dragon Boat Festival" (as illustrated in Excerpt 4-3-1). Although it has been known and spread to other places of the world, the learners still need supportive background knowledge to understand the festive food and celebrating activities. The following extract is an example in which the LLCT was recapping the "端午节 *<Dragon Boat Festival>*" which had been introduced in her last lesson. She was reminding the students of the traditions in this festival by asking questions. Background knowledge and field notes are included in the commentary column.

Excerpt 4-3-1	

1.   LLCT: 端午节 *<the Dragon Boat Festival>*, which is Dragon Boat Festival? What we do? What we do during Dragon Boat Festival? Yeah 端午节 *<the Dragon Boat Festival>* yeah
5.   S: Ah 包粽子 *<making <u>zongzi</u>>*
    LLCT: 包粽子 *<making zongzi>*, yeah that's what your mum (xxx) 包粽子*<making zongzi>* isn't it? Put all the (xxx) in (xxx) in and then do it yeah? And then you as children what you do? <u>You</u>
10. S: Eat
    LLCT: Eat yeah? Eat what do you call it?
    Ss: 吃 *<to eat>*
    LLCT: What?
    S: 吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>*
15. LLCT: Yeah 吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>* yeah? 吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>*. So 端午节 *<the Dragon Boat Festival>*
    S: 蛋糕 *cake*
    LLCT: You 吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>*
20. S: 吃蛋糕 *<eat cake>*
    LLCT: Ah? No why is that? Why is that? That's called 粽子 *<zongzi>*
    S: Oh
    LLCT: Yeah?
25. …
    LLCT: Beside(s) 吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>*, what else you are doing? <u>What else?</u> Whole class answer me. What you do?
    S: Row row
30. LLCT: To yeah row row row to have race
	zongzi: traditional festive food in this festival, which is made with sticky rice.
	
	<u>You</u>: She reminded the students by imitating the action of eating-putting food in her mouth with her right hand.
	
	<u>What else</u>: She was imitating the action of rowing a boat.

I begin the discussion of this excerpt with the semiotic aspect. We can see that in order to remind the students of their linguistic knowledge about the "Dragon Boat Festival", the LLCT used her body language twice to encourage the students' response. The first time took place in line 9 where she expected the students to produce the Chinese phrase "吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>*". Her imitation of the action "putting food in her mouth with her right hand" passed her information to the students, which can be seen from the students' reaction "Eat" in line 10. However, it seems that the students' answer was not the one that the LLCT wanted. So after confirmed the students' answer "Eat yeah?" she carried on asking "Eat what do you call it?" to elicit more from the students. This was followed by the Chinese language "吃 *<to eat>*" in line 12. The LLCT continued to ask "What" to eat, which was finally answered by the students "吃粽子 *<eat*

zongzi>" in line 14. The LLCT then repeated the students' answer to emphasise "So 端午节 *<the Dragon Boat Festival>*…You 吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>*" (line16-19). This example shows that the class teacher used her body language to remind the students of the specific expression in the target language.

The second non-verbal communication happened when the LLCT asked the students about the traditional activity that people organise in this festival, i.e. to "row" dragon boats (line 26-27). Interestingly, like the students' response to the LLCT's action which imitated "to eat", their first reaction to the teacher's stimulus was in the language that they are more familiar with "Row row" rather than in the target language. However, the students' involvement suggests that the LLCT's body language actually worked. The students understood the information that the class teacher attempted to deliver, and they reacted accordingly.

In Excerpt 4-3-1, the transcript of both examples discussed above suggests that the LLCT did not adopt her gesture until the second time she asked students questions. In other words, the LLCT was inclined to adopt the students' first language to ask them when she first mentioned her questions "And then you as children what you do?" (line 9) and "what else you are doing?" (line 26-27). She repeated part of her questions "You" and "What else?" with simultaneous embodied gestures thereafter. We can see that the LLCT adopted English language for the purpose of communication, then the use of another mode is assumed to be not only for the language barrier in the classroom, but also for assisting students with their understanding of the unique expressions in Chinese.

Apart from the semiotic aspect in this excerpt, another finding that needs to be pointed out is that the LLCT constantly alternated her language between Chinese and English to emphasise the target words. This is in line with the LLCT's reflection on her purpose of deploying translanguaging. She mentioned that she frequently uses multimodal ways (i.e. drawing, pictures, and making gestures) to teach students, especially for lower levels (see Section 5.1.3 for detail). As discussed earlier, the teacher confirmed the students' answer in line 16-19 "So 端午节 *<the Dragon Boat Festival>*…You 吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>*". Similarly, in line 26-27, she said "Beside(s) 吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>*, what else you are doing?" The teaching targets "吃粽子 *<eat zongzi>*" and "端午节 *<the Dragon Boat Festival>*" were used to emphasise for many times in this session. Therefore, it shows that

despite the usefulness of translanguaging and the fact that the LLCT is open to the use of translanguaging as she said in the interview, when the focus of instruction is on the specific named language (i.e. Chinese in this study), the use of target language is inevitable. I will further address this tension in Chapter 6.

To give a brief conclusion, this section investigates the use of two societally named languages and mime as translanguaging practices. They are adopted for the purpose of teaching Chinese culture or tradition related expressions which are difficult for foreign language learners to understand or acquire. There are two main findings. To begin with, simultaneous body language made by the class teacher is an effective way to bring students' semiotic repertoire into being and facilitate the teaching of culture related words/phrases. Secondly, the tension that exists between the orientation of translanguaging and the focus of teaching content in language education is identified.

4.4　Translanguaging for differentiating students

This section looks at the flexible translingual practice of class teachers' language used for different students as translanguaging practices. Differentiation is described as one of the teachers' purposes when they adopt translanguaging (García and Li, 2015, p.235). Based on students' different proficiency in Chinese language, learning styles and interests, differentiated instruction is used to meet all the students' needs (Levy, 2008). In my study, students' varying level of Chinese language ability in a classroom is acknowledged by the class teachers. This section examines two excerpts from the LLCT and the HLCT's classroom data. It describes how the class teachers alternated their use of language to cater all the learners who have different abilities.

I start with a vignette from the LLCT's classroom. It is an extract from my field notes. In Vignette 4-4-1, students were practising a Questions & Answers speaking task in pairs. Specifically, within a pair, one student asked "…在哪 *<where is…>*", and the other student answered accordingly by looking at the picture printed on their textbook "…在池塘里 *<…is in the pond>*" for example. While students were practising, the LLCT walked around the classroom to see how the task was going on.

Vignette 4-4-1
1. The LLCT walked to S4. She firstly took a pen and then on S4's textbook, she drew lines for S4 to match the animals printed on the textbook and the corresponding names written in the target language (Chinese). After the LLCT finished drawing, she said to S4 "你要照顾他多一点知道吗 *<you know*
5. *what? You should take care of him a little more>*". In order to ensure that S4 understood, the class teacher indicated by pointing at S5 who was S4's partner in this activity, sitting next to S4. The LLCT then asked S4 and S5 "你问还是你 *<you ask (first) or you>*?" In other words, the class teacher asked this pair who would like to initiate the practice by asking "…在哪 *<where is …>*"
10. S4 nodded and replied the teacher. After this, the LLCT walked to another pair (S6 and S18) who sat next to S4 and S5, and asked the same question that she just asked S4 and S5, but using English "you ask first or you?"

This vignette supports the conclusion that I made earlier, which is the LLCT assigned the task and adopted her language based on her understanding of the students' abilities. We can see that in order to meet the students' different need that was caused by their various Chinese language abilities, the LLCT attempted to pass the same message to two pairs (i.e. S4 & S5, and S6 & S18) by using the target language and the students' first language respectively (line 7-8, and line 12). In addition, when the teacher talked to S4 and S5, she adopted Chinese language to S4 "你要照顾他多一点知道吗 *<you know what? You should take care of him a little more>*". It suggests that S4 is more competent in the target language compared with S5, which is further supported by S4's reply thereafter. S4's reply not only manifests that she understood the message conveyed by the LLCT, but also shows that the class teacher has got a correct understanding of this student's language ability. In addition, it is assumed that S6 and S18 are less competent in the target language than S4 and S5, based on which she translated to English language to make the same meaning. Vignette 4-4-1 suggests that the flexible translingual practice of the LLCT was adopted to achieve two purposes. First, from students' learning perspective, it was used to bridge the ability gap among the learners to get more students involved. Second, from the LLCT's teaching perspective, she attempted to balance the students' language levels through differentiating her language instruction, particularly linguistic aspect in this vignette.

Now I move on to the HLCT's classroom. It was identified that the HLCT also communicated with her students who have different language abilities through using her language flexibly. In Vignette 4-4-2, The HLCT divided the class into

two groups: boys' group and girls' group. There is no evidence shows that whether the grouping is based on the class teachers' ideas or students' choice. But according to the HLCT, the Chinese language ability of the girls' group is higher than the boys' group. Based on my observation of the HLCT's class, such grouping is common in most group activities of this class. Students were asked to design a job advertisement in groups on a blank paper. They could write or draw on the paper to let others know their company's name, the vacant position, and the requirements for the position.

Vignette 4-4-2
1. While the students were designing the advertisement, the HLCT realised that some of them might need colour pens to draw on the paper. Then the HLCT opened the drawer under the teacher's desk and took a box of colour pens out of the pedestal. Having the box in her hand, she walked to the
5. boys' group, asked "do you need this box of colour pens?" The boys accepted the box. Thereafter, the HLCT went back to the front of the classroom and looked for another set of colour pens in the cupboard behind the front door. While she was finding, she asked a girl in another group "S1 需要彩色铅笔吗 *<S1 do you need colour pencils>*? 我正在试着找第二套 *<I*
10. *am trying to find a second set>*."

It is noticeable that the HLCT passed a similar message about the students' need of colour pens to two groups through using two societally recognised languages. The LLCT asked the boys (line 5) "do you need this box of colour pens" in their first language and then translated parts of her question to the target language to ask the girl (line 8-9) "S1 需要彩色铅笔吗*<S1 do you need colour pencils>*". In addition to that, she added another sentence "我正在试着找第二套 *<I am trying to find a second set>*". It seems that the teacher used her language alternately not only for her instructive purpose, but also for communication purpose. In the classroom observation, I noticed that the HLCT now and then talked to the girls with Chinese sentences, but she seldom communicated with the boys in Chinese language. This vignette shows that for the purposes of communication and giving instruction, the HLCT differentiated her use of language to cater for students' differing language competences.

To sum up the analysis of the two vignettes in this section, it suggests that both class teachers are much aware of their students' language abilities when they use differentiated instruction and communication. Based on their understanding, the class teachers use their language to balance the learners' differing

competencies. Therefore, especially from the perspective of flexible use of language for different communication purposes, translanguaging practice is identified to be frequently and flexibly used in language classrooms where students' ability varies. Apart from students' linguistic ability, the MLCT also mentioned her use of translanguaging for the purpose of balancing students' different interests and motivations. I will further discuss this in Chapter 5 (see Section 5.2.2).

4.5 Translanguaging for giving instructions

Turning now to the last purpose of translanguaging identified in my study, which is also the most common and general language practice of all the class teachers being observed in their class: translanguaging is used to give students instructions and "keep the pedagogic task moving" (Creese and Blackledge, 2010). In this section, I give four typical examples from the three classes to show how the class teachers use their language flexibly in order to facilitate their teaching practices and strategies. Therefore, teachers' flexible use of language to give instructions is viewed as translanguaging practices in this part.

I begin my discussion with the MLCT's class. The teaching target in Excerpt 4-5-1 is "红包 *<red envelope>*" (lucky money wrapped in red packets, normally given by the elder to a younger generation during festivals for good luck). The extract illustrates a speaking practice in which the MLCT asked the students to say what they had done during the Chinese Spring Festival. She planned to introduce the "红包 *<red envelope>*" to the students in this speaking practice. She asked S4 first what he had done during the Chinese Spring Festival.

Excerpt 4-5-1

1. MLCT: 你呢 *<how about you>*?
    S4: Eh 我 *I* (xxx)
    MLCT: 恭喜发财 *<may you be happy and prosperous>*. 有红包吗 *<have you received the 'red envelope'>*? 红包 *<red envelope>* red red envelope? And
5. put some money eh in in
    S4: Yeah
    MLCT: Yeah you get it from your parents or your?
    S4: My parents
    MLCT: En 红包 *<red envelope>* yes, 你呢 *<how about you>*?
10. S8: (xxx)
    MLCT: En, 还有 *<and>*
    S8: (xxx) 红包 *<red envelope>*

> MLCT: Ah 有红包 *<have (received) red envelope>*. 好的 *<OK>*, 谁给的 *<from whom>*? 谁给的红包 *<who gave (you) the red envelope>*?
> 15. S8: 妈妈 *<mum>*

The MLCT used Chinese to initiate the conversation with S4. However, it seems that S4 was not confident about his response as we can see he hesitated "Eh" and then said in a very low voice which cannot be heard. The MLCT added another Chinese sentence which is frequently used to greet people during the Spring Festival to remind S4: "恭喜发财 *<May you be happy and prosperous>*". And then she introduced the key word "红包 *<red envelope>*" by putting it in an interrogative sentence in line 3-4 "有红包吗 *<have you received the 'red envelope'>*?" She further emphasised, translated, and explained the key word in the students' first language (line 4-5), which was understood and responded by the student in line 6. The MLCT then use English to ask S4 who gave him the red envelope. It is followed by a quick response from S4 in his first language (line 8) which can be told by the class teacher's incomplete sentence in line 5 and 7. We can see that while the MLCT was constructing the linguistic framework for students, she used the question-and-answer drill (Larsen-Freeman, 2000) teaching technique together with the deployment of translanguaging practice.

Thereafter, she continued with the same initial question about the students' holiday in the conversation with S8. The same as how she did for S4, she started with the target language "你呢 *<how about you>*" (line 9) and "En, 还有 *<and>*" (line 11). After the class teacher got S8's answer "红包 *<red envelope>*", from line 12 to 14, she confirmed it and added the same question she just asked S4, but this time she used the target language "谁给的 *<from whom>*?" The MLCT then elaborated her question and asked the full sentence "谁给的红包 *<who gave (you) the red envelope>*?" S8's answer suggests that the message that the MLCT was trying to convey was understood and responded by the student. It seems that the content of the two conversations with S4 and S8 is similar, however, as the students deepened their understanding of the learning objectives (i.e. expressions in relation to "红包 *<red envelope>*" in Excerpt 4-5-1), the MLCT gradually alternated her use of language to help students build their language ability.

We can see that little by little the MLCT was helping the students to construct their knowledge. The target word is initially in line 3 where she said a sentence in Chinese with the teaching target "红包 <*red envelope*>" embedded. Then the target word is said in Chinese again, followed by its translation, English explanation, and a further relevant question asked in the students' first language. Building on the students' understanding, when she moved on to the second student, translanguaging was used again for both instruction and the communication purposes in line 13-14. Therefore, the class teacher's use of language is actually influenced by the students' language ability and their progress on the understanding of the learning objectives.

At the same time, looking at this extract from the translanguaging perspective, we can see that the translanguaging space (Li, 2011) that the class teacher created for students was limited. As the MLCT mentioned in the interview, she prefers to adopt as much target language as possible, in order to create the "target language environment" (see Excerpt 5-2-7 for detail). It is interesting that although the MLCT advocates the "target language environment" for language teaching, English is inevitably deployed to achieve her teaching technique of question-and-answer drill and make meaning. Therefore firstly, translanguaging is used effectively for the purpose of giving instructions. Secondly, it facilitates the teacher's other teaching practice (i.e. drills in the excerpt above). I will come back to this point in the discussion chapter (see Section 6.1.4). Finally, it seems that the class teachers' actual language use in language classrooms is largely determined by students' linguistic background rather than teachers' theoretical background. I will continue with discussing the factors that influence class teachers' translanguaging practice in Chapter 5 through analysing the MLCT's interview data.

Next, I provide another extract from the MLCT's class. Excerpt 4-5-2 vividly displays in what ways the MCLT used her language to help the students' build their target language's linguistic system. The class teacher started her teaching with a new word "会 <*can/will*>". The teaching target is the basic declarative sentence Subject + Time + "会 <*can/will*>" + Object, and its related interrogative sentence in Chinese. The MLCT initiated the conversation, which is followed by students' copy of what she had said.

Excerpt 4-5-2
1.   MLCT: 我会 *<I can/will>*.   Ss: 我会 *<I can/will>*.   MLCT: Ah 我会做蛋糕 *<I can make cakes>*. Who can make make cake? Yes.   Ss: (xxx)   5.   MLCT: Ah 你 *<you>* ah always we ask 你会做什么 *<what you can/will do>*?   What you can do? Yes. On the weekends (…) 你周末会做什么 *<what you can/will do during weekends>?* (…)   …   MLCT: S1 周末你会做什么 *<what you can/will do during weekends>*? What you   10. can do on weekends? (4.0) on weekends?

We can see that like how the MLCT did as described in the previous excerpt, she helped the students to build their linguistic structure progressively through alternating her language between English and Chinese. She started with Subject + "会 *<can/will>*" (line 1), then she added the "Object" to her sentence "做蛋糕 *<to make cakes>*" (line 3) to complete the basic declarative sentence. Thereafter, she changed the "Subject" and made an interrogative sentence (line 5). She embedded the time "周末*<weekends>*" to make a more complete sentence (line 6). And finally the class teacher changed the sentence that she just said to an interrogative sentence and asked a student. This step-by-step process frequently occurs in the MLCT's class, which is in line with her comments on the structure of Chinese as a language (see Excerpt 5-2-5). It supports the teaching strategy *scaffolding* that I mentioned before, and this will be further investigated in Chapter 6 (see Section 6.1.3).

This excerpt suggests that the use of translanguaging is necessary in the process of giving instructions. To be specific, apart from the teaching objectives which have to be said in the target language, the students' first language is involved for the communication purpose to make sure that the students understand what the class teacher is trying to convey. For example, the MLCT emphasised the target sentence "我会做蛋糕 *<I can make cakes>*" through making another related sentence in the students' first language "Who can make make cake" in line 3. This practice can also be understood as translation that is studied as a teaching strategy in language classrooms. We can see that in this extract there are other places where language is being translated by the MLCT. Moreover, translation is identified in other two classes as well. Therefore, as an outstanding use of language in my study, the translation practice is viewed as a

type of translanguaging which will be further discussed in Chapter 6 (see Section 6.1.5).

Looking at the two excerpts from the MLCT's classroom data, it suggests that from a microscopic point of view or the outsider's perspective, both named languages adopted by the class teacher are needed and necessary in language classes. From a macro perspective or the insider's perspective, the use of translanguaging is inevitable in language educations, in terms of making full use of the class teacher's language to give instructions and deepen the students' understanding of specific learning contents based on the class teachers' knowledge of their students and teaching targets.

Moving on now to see the LLCT's use of language for the purpose of giving instructions. Excerpt 4-5-3 illustrates a listening and painting practice. In this practice, the LLCT said a Chinese sentence, and then the students were required to fill the colours in their textbook according to the sentence said by the teacher. And meanwhile, the LLCT walked around to check the pupils' painting. She then realised that the students might need some colour pens. So she walked to the front, took several colour pens out of her bag, and asked the students if anyone want it.

Excerpt 4-5-3	

1. LLCT: Who wants the 红色 *<red>*?
   S: Me
   LLCT: You use the (xxx) who wants 红色 *<red>*? Who wants 红色 *<red>*? 谁要红色 *<who wants red>*?
5. S: (xxx)
   LLCT: Nobody (…)
   <u>LLCT</u>: right you done (2.0)
   <u>LLCT</u>: right you got all correct yeah?
   LLCT: So <u>花园里有红花和黄花</u> *<there are red and*
10. *yellow flowers in the garden>*. You all 可以吗 *<all right>*?
   <u>LLCT</u>: These are both 两个都是红 *<both are red>*.
	<u>LLCT</u>: said to a pupil
	
	<u>LLCT</u>: said to another pupil
	
	<u>花 园 里 有 红 花 和 黄 花</u>
	<there are red and yellow flowers in the garden>: the sentence that students need to colour their textbook accordingly
	
	<u>LLCT</u>: said to the third pupil

In this excerpt, translanguaging is also adopted for both instructive and communication purposes. "红色 *<red>*" is the word that the students had learnt.

So the LLCT initially asked in English, with "红色 *<red>*" embedded in line 1. After her question was responded by a student, she repeated twice to get more

answers from other students. Then for the third time, she asked the whole sentence in the target language "谁要红色 *<who wants red>*" (line 4). Later on in line 6-8, she walked around to check the students' answers and communicated with two students in their first language. She then repeated the instructive sentence according to which students need to paint on their textbook "So 花园里有红花和黄花 *<there are red and yellow flowers in the garden>*" (line 9), checked again for students understanding "You all 可以吗 *<all right>*?" (line 10), and turned to speak to the third pupils (line 12). Line 9-11 is an outstanding example which shows the flexibility of the LLCT's language use in order to achieve her purpose of teaching and communication. Whichever purpose she intended to achieve, we can see that in these three lines none of her sentence is expressed with one language. First of all, it suggests that both named languages are needed in a language classroom for instructive purpose. Secondly, considering the students' language abilities and their previous learnt words, translanguaging is an effective method actually and frequently used in the LLCT's class.

Translation practices can also be identified in this excerpt, in order to enhance students' understanding in most of the cases (i.e. in line 3-4). Those practices do not limited to the translation from the target language to the language that students are more familiar with. Rather, there are also translation from English to Chinese to enhance and re-emphasise the key word (i.e. "红色 *<red>*" in line 12). It suggests that apart from enabling the students to understand the teaching contents, the LLCT managed her language use according to the students' language competence. For example in line 12, within the reach of the students' language ability, the LLCT translated from English to Chinese to achieve her teaching target. Therefore, in this case, it is assumed that the class teacher's translation decision was made with her consideration of the learners rather than only focusing on the language as a code. Such shift of focus is believed to be in accordance with the learner-centred approach of translanguaging.

I will now move on to the third class teacher's class, investigating the HLCT's classroom language that is used to teach generally. The following short excerpt is from the same episode of Excerpt 4-1-2 where the HLCT was teaching the writing of a Chinese character "翻*<turn>*". The main teaching target in Excerpt 4-

5-4 is the 11th stroke or step as illustrated in the commentary column of Excerpt 4-1-2.

Excerpt 4-5-4
HLCT: So they are separate characters, going down. Then this line is a whole line OK? So eight, this is nine, ten, eleven (4.0) 啊这整个的一个 line 是一笔啊 *<Ah this whole line is in one stroke ah>*. 那个 S5 看得见吗*<S5 can you see (it)>*? 这整个是一笔啊 *<this as a whole is in one stroke ah>* 一笔 *<in one stroke>* whole line OK.

In Excerpt 4-1-2, I discussed the reason why the HLCT adopted the target language to teach "田 *<field>*", which is based on her understanding of the students' language competency. She believed that the students should know this character since they had learnt it. However, since the student raised her query regarding this part, instead of teaching in the same way, the HLCT illustrated this character again through alternating her language to enhance.

It can be seen that the HLCT intended to emphasise a stroke which is "一笔 *<one stroke>*". She repeated this for four times in line 2-5. She used the target language to teach for most of the time in line 2-4. However, interestingly, unlike the LLCT who embedded the strokes' Chinese name in her sentence that was mainly spoken in English language, the HLCT deployed the English expression "line" in her Chinese sentence (line 2). It shows that similar to the class teachers' use of embodiment gestures as mentioned earlier in this chapter, although the deployment of translanguaging is a common phenomenon in my study, class teachers use it in their own way and based on their own understanding.

To conclude this section, the data analysis in this section shows that translanguaging is being widely and flexibly adopted by the class teachers for the purpose of communication and giving instructions. It helps the class teachers to build the students' language system progressively, which echoes Vygotsky's concept of the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD*).* I will further investigate this in Section 6.1.3. Translanguaging also benefits the teachers regarding their teaching technique of drills (see Section 6.1.4 for detail). In addition, the translation practice is identified as a type of translanguaging in this section. It goes beyond the transfer of meaning between two societally named languages. The discussion in this chapter shows that the language teachers use translanguaging in different ways to facilitate the learners' understanding. The

analysis also suggests that translanguaging is inevitably needed in language education. Language teachers' deployment of translanguaging depends on their understanding of the students' language ability and the teaching objectives.

By taking a translanguaging approach to analyse the teaching practices as illustrated in this chapter, I do not simply view those practices as the flexible use of linguistic code and multimodal resources, rather, they are fluid, dynamic, and superdiverse process which not only claims the use of a wide range of resources, but also emphasises an integrated system that brings together users' consideration of the contexts, the interlocutors; and the sociocultural background. Therefore, it seems that the concept of translanguaging not only focuses on the description of certain language or mode's benefit or effectiveness. It is also used as a theory that sees those language practices as an integrated combination of all the available resources. In addition, the factors that may influence the actual practices are taken into consideration within the framework of translanguaging.

Summary

This chapter focused on the analysis of the classroom audio data and the field notes of my study. Through a close examination of the translanguaging practices used by the class teachers, I identified and discussed teachers' five purposes of translanguaging in this context. The main findings are listed as below:

- In order to achieve some specific teaching targets (i.e. Chinese characters, Chinese tones, and unique expressions in Chinese), all the three class teachers adopted translanguaging in their teaching practices.
- Due to the characteristics of certain language (i.e. Chinese language as image-shape words in my study), it provides a space for language teachers to make their verbal teaching practices visualised for students. In this case, the use of translanguaging is identified as an effective and inevitable approach through drawing on individuals' communicative repertoires to make meaning.
- Based on the class teachers' understanding of their students, translanguaging is identified for the purpose of differentiating students with differing language competencies.

- Apart from the teaching targets listed in the first bullet point, class teachers deployed translanguaging widely and flexibly with the aim of giving general instructions and achieving communication purposes in order to move teaching process along. Data analysis suggests that teachers' deployment of translanguaging is based on the consideration of their students' competency and their progress of the teaching content.

- I identified three significant teaching practices in the process of analysing teachers' classroom language. They are scaffolding, drills, and translation. Findings suggest that translanguaging adopted by class teachers effectively facilitates these three teaching practices. Moreover, translanguaging practice and other teaching practices are mutually-embedded in classroom interactions.

- Through examining the class teachers' actual translanguaging practices in their classroom, translanguaging is concluded as necessary and inevitable language practices in language education. However, there is a tension between the orientation of translanguaging in multilingual contexts and the focus of teaching content in language education where languages are treated separately sometimes by the class teachers in order to teach a target language.

Through reviewing these findings, we can see the flexibility and superdiversity of language use in bilingual classrooms. In order to achieve different purposes, class teachers deploy a wide range of available resources to get students understand. In addition, the features of named languages (Chinese characters and English alphabets in my study) provide a space which can break the language boundaries by borrowing part of features from one language and mutating into another. In the process of the creativity and criticality, translanguaging space is created to enhance students' learning. However, this space seems not being fully opened because of the bounded language brought by the teaching content. Another possible reason is the influence of class teachers' monolingual paradigm. Taking this assumption, the next chapter further examines classroom translanguaging practices through looking at class teachers' understanding of their classroom language.

From an observer's view, Chapter 4 analysed the classroom data of my study. It lays the foundation for Chapter 5 which examines the interview data from the perspective of class teachers. Chapter 5 further discusses the LLCT and the MLCT's reflection on their classroom language use and on the excerpts where they deployed embodied gestures to make meaning (Excerpt 4-1-4, Excerpt 4-2-1, and Excerpt 4-2-2 for example). In addition, Chapter 5 also explores the factors that influence teachers' translanguaging practices. After analysing the classroom data in Chapter 4 and the interview data in Chapter 5, the discussion chapter will answer the research questions of my study and discuss how these findings add to the theoretical framework mentioned in Chapter 2.

Chapter 5 Case studies

Rationale for this chapter

This chapter is designed to obtain further in-depth information based on the analysis of the classroom data in Chapter 4. As introduced in Chapter 3, I only obtained the LLCT and MLCT's permission to conduct the individual interviews. Therefore rather than integrating the interview dataset into the three teachers' classroom dataset within one chapter, I chose to develop two symmetrical case studies. Building on a close examination of the teacher interview data, I would like to investigate two issues: (1) teachers' reflection upon their teaching practices in relation to their use of more than one named language and embodied gestures which have been identified in Chapter 4; and (2) the consistency and disparity between what the teachers think and what they actually do. The rationale for exploring the first issue is because these two practices (i.e. language and gestures) are the most prominent findings according to the classroom data analysis; and in order to further support the conclusions that I drew in Chapter 4, class teachers' reflection upon those practices is needed. The reason why I take the second issue further is by examining the consistency and the disparity, I can get the teachers' thoughts on the deployment of translanguaging, which will further inform the third research question about the factors that influence teachers' translanguaging practices.

There are two rationales for separating this chapter from Chapter 4. First, the focus of these two chapters is different, and they examine data from different perspectives. This chapter mainly focuses on teachers' views on their classroom practice at a detailed level and their beliefs about language and language teaching at a broad level. Second, these two chapters target different research questions. The discussion of the interview data analysis largely provide evidence for me to address the third research question of my study (see Figure 5).

In the following two sections, I examine the LLCT and the MLCT respectively. For each section, I will firstly provide an introduction to each teacher's basic biography. Then based on the main themes and sub-themes generated from the thematic analysis of interview data, I do a more in-depth analysis of each theme,

looking at the class teachers' reflection on their classroom practices and the factors that affect their language choice.

5.1 Case study one - Lower level class teacher

Introduction

This section focuses on the lower level class teacher. The discussion is based on the analysis of a 44 minutes' individual interview, classroom field notes, and 6 hours' classroom audio recording data. Data were analysed manually, and led by the interview guide and themes generated in the preliminary analysis, the themes were identified in both inductive and deductive way (Braun and Clarke, 2006). According to the labels that I had attached to each question in the interview guide, I identified two main themes to look at in this section as shown in Table 8. Before moving on to the discussion of each theme, I start this section with a brief biography of the participant in this case study. All the information in both teachers' biography were obtained from the interviews.

Main theme	Sub-theme
Theme 1: LLCT's language choice	• Students' background vs. interests • Trying things out vs. improvements
Theme 2: LLCT's reflection on her teaching practices	• Different purposes of translanguaging • Drawing as one of the teaching techniques

Table 8 Main themes and sub-themes – LLCT

5.1.1 Lower level class teacher's biography

As mentioned in Section 3.4.2, the LLCT has a broad linguistic repertoire that comprises features of 5 societally recognised languages (Mandarin, Cantonese, Hakka, English and Malay). She comes from Malaysia where a range of languages are spoken. She deploys her language repertoire fluidly and flexibly in different contexts, to different interlocutors, and at different places. As she termed, in comparison to the "pure" or "Yorkshire" English, she depicts her English as "mixed" regarding her linguistic repertoire and "很奇怪 *<very odd>*" in relation to the English accent of people who come from her country. It seems that her evaluation of the language use is slightly negative. She has been in the UK for 13 years. She has established her family here and raised four children

who were born in the UK. The language that is used at her home is very complex: she speaks Cantonese with her husband, Hakka with her children (her children replied her in English); her husband speaks Cantonese and Vietnamese to his family; and her children speak English among themselves.

She does not think her English is good enough, especially her "oral English with Malaysia accent" as she described. She is more confident in her written English because she likes reading newspapers and articles; and she believes that she has learnt a lot from English written materials. According to her reflection, her learning of English language first started in primary school in Malaysia where the English course was provided, focusing on grammar. Later when she was studying in college, she self-studied English because Malaysia as a commonwealth country adopts British education syllabus and textbooks are in English. After she got married with her husband in the UK, her English language was improved by practicing in daily life, with neighbours, colleagues, and by reading written sources.

She does not think her Chinese is good either. Her background of learning Chinese language started from a Malaysian Chinese Primary School where she has been studying for six years. These schools use Chinese language to instruct. Thereafter, the middle school where she studied in uses Malay to teach so she stopped learning Chinese for years. After she came to the UK, she speaks Chinese with her Chinese friends in Chinese community, which she thinks helped her a lot in improving her Chinese language. But she still thinks that she speaks Chinese with Malaysia accent. So as she summarised, her language learning experience in English and Chinese relies more on practice rather than formal education at schools.

Regarding the LLCT's experience in teaching Chinese language, she has more extensive experience in tutoring her children at home before she became a Mandarin teacher in this Chinese school three years before. Like most volunteers in this school, she has not been formally trained as a Chinese language teacher. Therefore, her experience in teaching Chinese was mainly obtained from her teaching practice at home with her children. According to what she said, the reason why she wants her children to learn Chinese language is because of her consideration of their identity as Chinese ethnics. She started at this school as a teaching assistant like other parents who send their children to study Chinese

language and themselves being a member of the school (as a teacher, a teaching assistant, a committee member, or an administrator). She finds this job fits her as she enjoys the interaction with pupils. Most of the time, the LLCT teaches Mandarin classes, however, when there is a lack of teacher in Cantonese classes, she also covers the position. After she joined this Chinese complementary school, she participated in one-day training/workshops provided annually by organisations like UKFCS as introduced in Chapter one and two. Those training and workshops aim to support teachers who teach Chinese language to local students. Apart from these, she has not been systematically trained to be a teacher of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (TCSOL). She does not have a full-time job during weekdays. Occasionally, she does a part-time job as an invigilator when in need.

In class, she follows a routine which starts with asking students the date of the day and writes the date in Chinese language on the upper right corner of the white board. Before writing on the board, she likes to let her students decide the whiteboard pen colour that she is going to use. She repeats the colours every time in Chinese language and encourages students to choose among the colours she provides. This routine took place in her every class that I observed. Next, I begin discussing the first theme.

5.1.2 LLCT's language choice

Under the umbrella of "language choice" as the first main theme of this case study, this section examines the following two main factors that affect the LLCT's language choice: students' background versus interest and trying things out versus improvements.

Sub-theme 1: Students' background versus interest

Since the LLCT's experience in teaching Chinese language originated from teaching her children at home, she said that she had learnt from her experience of teaching at home and made adjustments in her class. The reason for the transferability is the similar language background that her children and students share. The following excerpt comes from the interview data with LLCT. When she was asked why she used Chinese and English language to teach Chinese (the first question of section 2 in the interview guide), she commented on the

consideration of her children's background while teaching them Chinese language.

Excerpt 5-1-1	English translation
"因为我就是从**我教我的儿女**这么多年，我还没有做老师之前我就从他们这方面学习到。因为他们就是在他们的那个 background **就是**讲一出生就是讲英语比较多，跟兄弟姐妹一开始就是讲英语，所以中国人为什么不讲中文多呢？但是我要他们明白要带起他们那个兴趣让他们明白多点我就要插一个句子里面总体还是用**那个英**语 …"	"*<Since I have started teaching my children these years, before I was a class teacher, I learnt from (the experience of teaching) my children. They have an (English language) background. That is, they started speaking more English language after they were born. They talked with their sisters and brothers in English at the very beginning. So why Chinese people do not speak more Chinese? However, I want them to understand, and I need to heighten their interests. So to let them understand more, I have to insert (Chinese words) in an (English) sentence, but in general, I still use English>. …*"

The interview was conducted by using a range of communicative repertoires; and we can see that in this excerpt, the LLCT draws on her linguistic repertoire to explain. She adopted English language when she mentioned the word "background" in her account. This indicates that she deploys translanguaging to communicate as mentioned in Section 5.1.1. In addition, the highlighted "background" shows that the LLCT is fairly aware of her children's language background in reality. However, she still holds the opinion that people who belong to a certain ethnic community should speak that community's language as she said "中国人为什么不讲中文多呢 *<So why Chinese people do not speak more Chinese>*?" In other words, she wants her children to speak more Chinese language because she describes them as "Chinese people". As a mother, her awareness of maintaining the community language guides her teaching motivation and influences her parental linguistic choice as family language policy suggests (see Section 2.5.3).

However, her expectation of the children's language is hindered by the current situation (i.e. her children's background), which as a factor influences her language choice while teaching them Chinese language. According to the LLCT's account in the following excerpt, this situation is transferred to the LLCT's class because of the similar background of her children and her students in the Chinese complementary school:

Excerpt 5-1-2	English translation
"因为最重要是我是用我的儿女来做一个尝试，我觉得因为我的女儿在这里出生的，他们那个底子很差的，所以我就是从那边我就是感觉他们，如果我在太重视用那个中文来讲呢，他们不明白，他们就是失去了那个兴趣。所以最大的我都还是在说拿我的女儿来做'小白鼠'（Researcher: laughter） 就是看他的那个 respond 怎样我就是改进我的方式 … 有一次我就是讲了几次多一点点的中文他们不明白。"	"<*The most important (thing) is that I put my children on a trial. It feels to me that my daughters have a very poor foundation (of Chinese language) because they were born here. So from their aspects, it seems to me that if I emphasise too much on speaking in Chinese language, they do not understand and then they will lose their interests. So the biggest (reason for my language choice) is putting my daughters as 'guinea pigs'. (Researcher: laughter) Then (I) improve my methods through looking at their response… Once (or several times), I talked in a bit more Chinese language, but they couldn't understand>*."

According to the LLCT, it is her children and students' background (i.e. "底子很差 <a *very poor foundation (of Chinese language)>*") that affects her initial language choice. Later on, she examines the feasibility of her language by looking at the responses of her "小白鼠 <*guinea pigs>*" (i.e. her children), which in turn, improves her teaching methods. Moreover, as mentioned in Excerpt 5-1-1, she restated the balance between teaching in Chinese language and students' interests. It seems that the pupils' interests are also taken into consideration when the LLCT reviews her language in class. As an influencing factor of the LLCT's language choice, "兴趣 <*interest>*" was mentioned over and over again in the interview with the LLCT. This suggests that students' interest is one of the motivational factors in L2 classroom motivation (Crookes and Schmidt, 1991). I will further explore this point in Section 6.3. Thus far, we can see the LLCT's contrasting views on her use of Chinese language. Her espoused beliefs (Argyris and Schon, 1974) make her claim her use of Chinese language as a necessity for her children due to the ethnic group to which they belong, whereas her beliefs in use highlights her concern of using Chinese language to teach due to her children and her students' language background, language competency and interests.

Sub-theme 2: Trying things out versus improvements

Having indicated the LLCT's adjustment of her language choice in Excerpt 5-1-2, the following excerpt illustrates the process of the LLCT's attempts at trying out adding more Chinese language in her teaching.

Excerpt 5-1-3	English translation
"…我听他讲'我的名字是什么'讲的有些就是连名字都讲不出，就是哦糟糕，就是可能要第一堂课就是要教他们写他们的中文名然后教他们怎样练他们的中文名。然后我就知道哦可能这个班上需要多点的讲中文，额讲多点英语，他们不强。**所以慢慢来我可以放多一点的中文**。**其**实我有想过的，到了教了他们半年之后再转多一点的中文，但是不行啊。**我有学**过就是我有尝试**就是不明白他们**。**我**觉得还没有达到那个那个标准，所以哎呀还是用回旧的方法，就是讲多点那个英语，中间就是插进那个中文。"	"*<… (while) I was listening to them saying 'my name is (what) (in Chinese language)', some of them could barely say their name. I felt oops. Probably I need to teach them how to write and practise their Chinese name in the first lesson. Then I know well, I may need to speak more Chinese, eh speaking more English in this class, (as) they are not competent. So gradually I can insert more Chinese language. Actually I have considered using more Chinese language after teaching them for half year, but it didn't work. I had learnt to try, but they just didn't understand. I think they were still not up to that standard yet, so I had to go back to the old method, i.e. speaking more English with Chinese inserted>.*"

This excerpt is from the LLCT's response to the question regarding how she chooses language in her teaching (see the second question of section 2 in the interview guide). The LLCT mentioned that she asked the students two questions in the very first lesson: "how old are you" and "what is your name" to gain a general knowledge of her students. According to this extract, it can be seen that her initial understanding of students' Chinese language ability is developed from the students' response "my name is (what)". Their response seems guide her to draw a starting line in terms of her language choice "可能这个班上需要多点的讲...英语，他们不强 *<I may need to speak more…English in this class, (as) they are not competent>*". And then "半年之后 *<after half year>*", the LLCT "慢慢来 *<gradually>*" attempted to add a bit more Chinese language in her teaching as she presumably believed that there were improvements in students' language ability. However, it turned out that the students "就是不明白 *<just didn't understand>*". Therefore she had to "用回旧的方法 *<go back to the old method>*" in terms of language use. The LLCT's attempt suggests that the students' initial

and their progressive competency in Chinese language assumed by the teacher are two factors that influence the LLCT's language choice according to this excerpt. Moreover, the students' development of Chinese language does not necessarily lead to the class teacher's success of adopting more Chinese language. In other words, the amount of Chinese language that can be accepted by the students cannot be planned or measured simply through predicting their learning outcome.

Additionally, degree adverbs like "慢慢来 *<gradually>*" was frequently mentioned in the LLCT's interview transcription, which suggests that the teacher is actually adjusting her language choice while monitoring students' learning progress. Along with the 'trials' that she conducted on her children and the improvement that she made in her class, it shows that the LLCT is teaching through learning from her previous experience and reflection.

In summary, there are three main findings in this section. Firstly, to cater for the abilities and needs of students, the LLCT takes students' language backgrounds and their interests into consideration when making language choices. Secondly, the LLCT's language choice shifts accordingly while she is monitoring students' response to her language. Finally, the longer students learn Chinese language or the more competent they are at Chinese language assumed by the teacher does not necessarily lead to their better understanding of more Chinese language adopted by their class teacher in language classrooms.

5.1.3 LLCT's reflection on her teaching practices

Having discussed how translanguaging was adopted to facilitate other teaching practices in Chapter 4, this section probes deeper into the LLCT's purposes of using translanguaging by citing the teacher's reflection upon her actual language practices in the classroom data. Two sub-themes were produced specifically based on the LLCT's reflection: different purposes of translanguaging and using gestures and drawing as one of the teaching techniques.

Sub-theme 1: Different purposes of translanguaging

The LLCT commented on three occasions when she adopted translanguaging in her class. That is, she flexibly use her linguistic repertoire (1) to teach strokes of Chinese character (see section 4.1), (2) to review Chinese words and expressions that have been introduced in previous lessons (discussed in this

section), and (3) to teach tones (see section 4.2). I start with an introduction of her purposes of translanguaging and then move on to the non-verbal embodied gestures that the LLCT used to teach tones.

For the LLCT, teaching strokes of Chinese character is not only an important teaching target, but also an opportunity for introducing Chinese language in her teaching practice. In the following excerpt, she explained her reason for using Chinese language by giving an example to show how she taught the writing of the Chinese character "坐 *<to sit>*".

Excerpt 5-1-4	English translation
"…但是我要教的那个重点字我要跟他们讲一撇怎样写的哇，我就是要用那个加强用那个中文在里面，所以他们知道我讲什么。所以慢慢从那边呢再 expand 我想要讲的那个句子觉得会比较好一点。所以写字呢最重要的就是那个 basic structure: 一撇一横。跟他们讲怎么两个人坐在里面，所以他们会想啊，他们就是当做一个游戏在 imagine 一个画画里面'哦这个画面就是两个人坐在一个泥土上面，坐'所以我要教他们记住啊…"	"*<…Regarding the key word, I want to teach them how to write (the stroke of) '丿', I need to emphasise it by using Chinese language, so that they know what I am talking about. So I think it is better to expand gradually from that to a sentence. So the most important thing of writing (Chinese) characters is the basic structure: (the stroke of) '丿', (the stroke of) '一'. Telling them how two people sit inside, so they will think, and they will imagine a picture like playing a game. 'Oh, so the picture is about two people sitting on the soil, which is 坐 to sit.' So I want to teach them (how) to remember…>*"

According to the LLCT's reflection upon her deployment of translanguaging which is in order to teach the writing of Chinese characters (see the first question of section 2 in the interview guide), Chinese language for her was adopted to "加强 *<emphasise>*" and to let the students "知道 *<know>*" her teaching target. As discussed in Excerpt 5-1-3 regarding the degree adverb, she used "慢慢 *<gradually>*" in this excerpt again to express her progressive use of Chinese language (i.e. start from the "basic structure" and then "expand" to complex structures). This teaching strategy takes students' learning process into consideration, which also echoes the learning strategy of the metacognitive strategy (Chamot and Kupper, 1989). It is noticeable that there are three places where the teacher alternated her language in this excerpt, which seems highlighted the key words that she wanted to emphasise: "expand", "basic

structure", and "imagine". The next excerpt looks at how the LLCT actually taught the writing of the Chinese character "坐 <i><to sit></i>" in the classroom data. In Excerpt 5-1-5, she was teaching students to express the ways to "go to school" by using different means of transportation. Like the way how I described excerpts in Chapter 4, I provide a commentary column on the right to reconstruct the scene.

Excerpt 5-1-5	
LLCT: 开车 <i><drive></i> means driving, 开车 <i><drive></i>. While you is 坐 <i><to sit></i>, <u>坐 <i><to sit></i> means</u> two people sit on there, sit. <u>土 <i><solid></i></u>, this is 坐 <i><to sit></i>. You just sit down you don't do anything. You are not driving. That's why you are 坐 <i><to sit></i>, 坐 <i><to sit></i> what?	<u>坐 <i>to sit</i> means</u>: drawing 坐 <i><to sit></i> ![character] on the white board <u>土 <i><solid></i></u>: the bottom part of the Chinese character 坐 <i><to sit></i>

We can see that the LLCT taught the Chinese character "坐 <i><to sit></i>" by separating it into two parts, namely the upper part "two people" and the lower part "土 <i><solid></i>". This teaching practice is consistent with what she claimed in the interview that the "basic structure" is the starting point from where she would expand later on. In terms of her language use, as what I have discussed in the classroom data in Chapter 4, it seems that she adopted her language fluidly and freely to teach the two parts of "坐 <i><to sit></i>".

In Section 4.1 and 4.2, I mentioned the simultaneous gestures that the LLCT used to make meaning while she was teaching Pinyin and Chinese characters. Here again, in Excerpt 5-1-5 she tried to guide the students to imagine the Chinese character as an image for their best understanding, which is reinforced by her words in Excerpt 5-1-4 "当做一个游戏在 imagine 一个画画里面 <i><(the action of) to imagine a picture is like playing a game></i>". Due to the formation of Chinese characters, which is known as image-shape words (Kuo and Hooper, 2004) as mentioned in Chapter 2 and 4, the LLCT believes that a vivid image can facilitate her teaching as a communication strategy, which will be further introduced in the discussion chapter (see Section 6.2.3).

Another occasion that the LLCT reflected on in terms of her deployment of translanguaging is to repeat and review learned words and expressions. Before I move on to the LLCT's reflection upon this translanguaging practice, I first illustrate an extract from the audio recording transcription of this teacher's class.

In Excerpt 5-1-6, while the students were performing a writing task, sunshine came in through the window, the LLCT then felt the heat in the classroom. So she took this opportunity to recap the expressions in relation to hot weather with students.

Excerpt 5-1-6	
1. LLCT: 很热 *<very hot>*, 今天很热 *<today is very hot>*, isn't it? Is it hot? Ss: (xxx) 5. LLCT: 热 *<hot>*, oh sorry about the sun. (…) OK, 很热很热 *<very hot very hot>*. <u>(6.0)</u> If you feel 热 *<hot>* what do you wear? Ss: 衬衫*< shirt>* LLCT: Yeah 汗衫*<T-shirt>*	<u>(6.0)</u>: She went to the window and closed the curtain.

The LLCT initiated this interaction with the key word "热 *<hot>*", which the students had learnt before. From line 1 to line 5, she repeated this Chinese word for five times, with English embedded from time to time. For the sixth time in line 5 when she mentioned the word "热 *<hot>*", she further inserted it in an English sentence to ask students a question (line 5-6). It can be seen that the students' response in Chinese language (line 7) met the teacher's expectation, which can be told by the LLCT's confirmation in the last line of this excerpt. According to the LLCT's reflection on this extract (see Excerpt 5-1-7), the reason for adopting translanguaging is based on her assumption that the students had acquired the words "热 *<hot>*" and "汗衫 *<T-shirt>*". Therefore, she deployed translanguaging for the purpose of doing revision. She said

Excerpt 5-1-7	English translation
"关于他们练过的那个那科目我就会插一点，就好像刚才我们讲的那个天'today is 热'，因为我不能跟他讲'今天热'，因为他们还没有学到'今天' 所以我就强调那个 '热' 字，然后慢慢慢慢我就才改，因为我知道三年级他们会学'明天'啊有那个什么'月份''年份'那些。所以我知道他们的年纪还没学，只不过带过给他们讲，这样讲。(Researcher: 那用中文复习之前学过的，为什么又切换回	*"<I inserted a bit (Chinese) subjects that they had practised, like what we mentioned before 'today is hot'. I could not tell them 'today is hot' as they had not learnt (the word) 'today' yet. So I emphasised the word 'hot'. And then I (will) change slowly and gradually, because I know they will learn (words like) 'tomorrow', 'month', and 'year' in Year 3. So I knew that they had not learnt those yet by their age, and that is (why) I just mentioned a bit in this way. (Researcher: so you adopted Chinese to revise what they had learnt before, but then why you use English*

英文？）为了他们明白我讲什么。因为如果我刻意地一直在讲我的中文的话我就是觉得很多他们跟不上他们**就会打瞌睡。在班上就提不起那个那个兴趣。"**	*language again?) To (enable) them to understand what I was talking about. Because if I kept speaking Chinese deliberately, I think many of them could not catch up and they would doze off. They would not be interested in class>."*

We can see that the LLCT shows her understanding of the students' Chinese language level. In this excerpt, she clearly demonstrated her familiarity with the subjects that the students had learnt and those they would learn in further stages: "我知道他们的年纪还没学 *<I knew that they had not learnt those yet by their age>*" and "我知道三年级他们会学'明天'啊有那个什么'月份''年份'那些 *<I know they will learn (words like) 'tomorrow', 'month', and 'year' in Year 3*". It is her awareness of students' limited Chinese competency that decides the Chinese language that she carefully adopted to "为了他们明白 *< (enable) them to understand>*".

To "为了他们明白 *< (enable) them to understand>*" has been repeatedly mentioned by the LLCT in the interviews; however, we can see that she used both Chinese and English language to convey different contents that she wanted to emphasise. In Excerpt 5-1-4, she adopted Chinese strokes to make her teaching target "一撇 *< (the stroke of) 'ノ'*" clear to students. She used English in Excerpt 5-1-7 "为了他们明白我讲什么 *<to (enable) them to understand what I was talking about>*" (i.e. to ensure what she just said in Chinese language was understood by the students). Therefore, the LLCT's translanguaging practices are used to enhance students' understanding. Moreover, these two "understand" are in different contexts and for different purposes: the former one for the clarification of teaching contents, and the latter one for the communication.

Another word which is frequently mentioned by the LLCT according to the interview data is "兴趣 *<interest>*" as shown in Excerpt 5-1-1, Excerpt 5-1-2, and Excerpt 5-1-7. It seems that from her perspective, students will lose their interest if she adopts too much Chinese language which is beyond the students' understanding. This relates to the notion of the ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978) as discussed in Chapter 2 regarding the development of students' competence. By providing the right amount of Chinese language, the LLCT can "慢慢慢慢

<gradually and slowly>" (see Excerpt 5-1-7) construct students' learning with their interests sustained.

The third occasion for the LLCT adopted translanguaging in classroom is teaching tones and is meanwhile accompanied with embodied gestures imitating the ways that each tone pronounces (see Excerpt 4-1-4 for detail). The LLCT commented on her purpose of inserting Chinese language to teach tones from line 13 (i.e. "第*音 *<the * tone>*"). She said that Chinese is adopted to "为了强调那个音讲的准 *<emphasise students' accurate pronunciation (of Pinyin) >*". This is similar to her emphasis of strokes in Excerpt 5-1-4. However, in terms of her reasons for using gestures to teach tones, the LLCT said that she does not actually know why she used those gestures. "我不懂其实我没有想过这问题…是我自己的方法吧 *<I don't know actually. I have not thought about this issue… (perhaps) it is my own way>*". As mentioned in Chapter 4, the LLCT's view on using gestures to teach Pinyin is completely different from the MLCT who legitimised her gestures with evidence supported. I will continue with this distinction in Chapter 6 (see Section 6.2.3).

<div align="center">Sub-theme 2: Drawing as one of the teaching techniques</div>

As discussed earlier in this chapter, in order to achieve her teaching and communication targets, the LLCT adopted translanguaging to enhance students' understanding. In her response to the interview question about the teaching techniques used to ensure that her language was accepted by the students (the sixth question of section 2 in the interview guide), she highlighted drawing as her teaching and communication technique.

Apart from using non-verbal communicative techniques like embodied gestures, images or pictures to convey meaning as previously mentioned (see Excerpt 4-1-4 and Excerpt 5-1-5 for examples), the LLCT also commented on drawing as an effective teaching technique which she adopted to facilitate students' learning.

Excerpt 5-1-8	English translation
"…我班上可能低年班所以很多东西我都是在画画的，我知道我自己的画画的那个技术不大好，但是我也是要强调我在画画，一来我画的不好他们在笑他们其实在学习…"	"*<…Perhaps due to the lower level of my class, I draw a lot of things. I know that my technique of drawing is not very good, but I still want to emphasise that I am drawing. First, they laugh*

	because I draw badly, but actually they are learning …>"

Her emphasis on the level of the class fits well in the argument of multimodal semiotic signs made by García and Li (2015). They point out that this technique is especially useful for very young learners because "they are not shy about using all their entire language repertoire to make meaning" (p.231). According to the LLCT's accounts, she takes this advantage of lower level pupils to create "好笑的学习环境 *<interesting learning environment>*", and "建立起浓厚的感情 *<to establish deep affection>*" between students and the teacher. Therefore, it suggests that drawing is used not only for teaching purpose to transfer knowledge, but also for communication purpose to meet pupils' interests.

To summarise this case study, the LLCT adopts translanguaging for different purposes: teaching Pinyin, teaching Chinese characters; and reviewing previously learnt subjects. Translanguaging is deployed to achieve the communication purpose as well. Factors that influence the LLCT's language choice include her teaching aim (strokes of Chinese characters and Pinyin), the task design (doing revisions for instance), students' interests, students' language competency and students' understanding of teaching/learning content. In order to create a positive translanguaging space for students, the LLCT adjusts her language critically through looking at her students' response and progress constantly.

5.2 Case study two - Middle level class teacher

Introduction

Having discussed the LLCT, I now turn to the MLCT. The analysis in this case study mainly focuses on a 28 minutes' individual interview data, as long as classroom field notes and 6 hours' classroom audio recording data. The analytical approach and the way of presenting the MLCT's interview data are the same as case study one. This section starts with the MLCT's biography and then demonstrates the themes (see Table 9) generated from the thematic analysis.

Main theme	Sub-theme
Theme 1: MLCT's Language choice	• Students' response • Balancing students' language competency, interest and motivation
Theme 2: MLCT's reflection on her teaching practices	• Different purposes of translanguaging • Perspective on 'language classes'

Table 9 Main themes and sub-themes – MLCT

5.2.1 Middle level class teacher's biography

Different from the LLCT's broad linguistic repertoire, the MLCT's linguistic repertoire is comprised of two societally recognised languages (Mandarin and English). She had been in the UK for only a couple of months when she was recruited as a participant of my study. It was also her first year teaching Chinese language at this complementary school.

The MLCT is a qualified teacher teaching Chinese as a foreign language. She had been trained before in China and then formally became a language teacher two years ago. Prior to that, she had been a personal tutor teaching Chinese language since 2012. The MLCT has a full time job in another institution which mainly covers the business of teaching Chinese as a foreign language and transmitting Chinese culture to people who are interested in Chinese. Meanwhile, she is pursuing her master degree in a university in mainland China.

The MLCT's experience as a learner learning English language was in mainland China. English language as a subject in China is a compulsory course that students need to study by following the syllabus developed by the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. Moreover, students in China need to pass English language exams almost in all entrance exams (i.e. high school entrance examination, college/university entrance examination, post-graduate entrance examination, and even in the post-graduate researcher entrance examination). Before the MLCT came to the UK, she attended the business English course that is designed for the students who study in MTCSOL (Master of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages). She also passed the CET4&6 (College English Test Band 4 and Band 6).

Regarding her speciality in teaching Chinese, she started in the field of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Language (TCSOL) from her undergraduate

study. Courses that she received during her undergraduate and postgraduate time in relation to her professional development include theory and practice. Theory courses introduce basic language teaching knowledge while practical courses allow students to practice teaching in real Chinese language classrooms. Before going to teach in the UK, the MLCT participated in two training courses organised by *Hanban* (Confucius Institute Headquarters) for teachers who are going to teach Chinese language overseas. She also got the Certificate of Accreditation in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language.

In class, she pays attention to the structure of Chinese language sentence. For each new passage in the textbook, she often reads aloud for students and asks her students to follow her. She then asks students to take turns to read individually or as a group. She is an advocate of the 'Chinese only' in classrooms. She believes that providing as much target language as possible can help students with their target language learning, which was confirmed by her accounts in interviews. Her views on this were formed in her undergraduate and postgraduate studies in China. She mentioned that influenced by the "immersive teaching method" originated from western countries, Chinese language education gives more and more attention to this teaching method, in both theory and practical courses. However, she also pointed out that she found this method quite difficult to practice in actual teaching because many students still need help from their mother tongue when they have difficulty understanding Chinese language. It is interesting to find that data in the MLCT's class shows that students' first language is widely used by the MLCT, even more than the other two class teachers. Next, I start with looking at her language choice.

5.2.2 MLCT's Language choice

Although the main themes that I developed in both case studies are same, the sub-themes vary. This section discusses two sub-themes around the MLCT's language choice: students' response and the balance of students' language competency, interest and motivation.

Sub-theme 1: Students' response

As mentioned earlier in the previous case study, the LLCT's use of language has its roots in her previous teaching experience. Likewise, the analysis of the MLCT's interview data suggests that her teaching practices are particularly

grounded in her theoretical background which is presumably gained from her teaching and educational experience. In the MLCT's responses to the interview questions of this study, she adopted a number of terminology in language education, which reflects her education background in language teaching as well. The following interview excerpt looks at the MLCT's accounts in relation to her choice of language in class (the second question of section 2 in the interview guide):

Excerpt 5-2-1	English translation
"要看学生的反应。我觉得中英文转换最重要的是看学生。就是如果他听懂能听懂汉语为什么还要用英语呢？肯定是用他的目的语言，尽量的用目的语。如果不用目的语的话就是他们听不懂很迷惑的话你就用他的母语跟他讲，如果听得懂的话听得懂的话就用目的语。"	"< (I) need to look at students' response. I feel that the most important (criteria) for the switch between Chinese and English is (by) looking at students. Precisely, if he can understand Chinese language, why (should I) use English? The target language must be used, (or) try to use the target language as much as possible. If (you) do not use the target language, (it should be under the circumstances) when they cannot understand (or) they are very confused, then you could speak with them in their mother tongue, but if they can understand, you should use the target language if they can understand>."

In this excerpt, the MLCT argued the use of two terminology: "目的语言 *<target language>*" and "母语 *<mother tongue>*". Debates around language in bilingual and multilingual classrooms have been introduced in Chapter 2. Influenced by the monolingual assumptions, although poorly supported by empirical studies, the target language is still being preferred by some class teachers in language classrooms. In my study, it seems that the MLCT has firm beliefs that the priority should be given to the target language as long as "他听懂能听懂 *<they can understand>*". At the beginning of this extract, she emphasised "学生的反应 *<students' response>*" as a factor that influences her language choice. According to the MLCT's accounts, students' responses in her class are divided into two groups: "听懂的孩子按照老师的命令做 *<students who can understand follow the teacher's instruction>*", whereas "听不懂的孩子一脸懵，然后自己玩 *<those who cannot understand show a blank face, continuing with their own stuff>*". It seems that from the aspect of students' Chinese language competency, there is a gap

between the language that some students actually need and the ideal language (i.e. "尽量的用目的语 *<try to use the target language as far as possible>*") that the MLCT prefers to offer.

Excerpt 5-2-2 is another example showing the dilemma noticed by the MLCT. She mentioned another concept in this excerpt, which is "de-phoneticised". Specifically, it means that students in certain level should have already got rid of their reliance on Pinyin (see Section 2.4.2 for an introduction of Pinyin), and have the ability to recognise Chinese characters. The following excerpt shows her understanding of students' needs at different language learning stages.

Excerpt 5-2-2	English translation
"如果他们还需要依赖这个的话，那你告诉他们汉语。这是 (xxx) 不应该再依赖太多的那个英语的。 (3.0) 但是 (xxx) first tone 什么我们应该在刚开始的时候就是刚接触他们的时候告诉他们，那后来就不会告诉他们了。为什么老得告诉你？越告诉他们多他们就不用，有依赖，对。"	"*<If they still rely on this (Pinyin), then you should tell them Chinese language. This (xxx) (students) should not rely too much on English language. (3.0) But (xxx) like first tone, which we should tell them at the very beginning when we met them, then it should not be told later on. Why (teachers) have to keep telling you? The more (teachers) tell the less they use, reliance on (English language), yes>.*"

It seems that the MLCT believes that students have different needs at different language learning stages, and they should have already mastered the required knowledge by the time when they are about to reach a further level, that is, being "de-phoneticised" in middle level class. This is very much same as the attempts that the LLCT mentioned in Excerpt 5-1-3, that after she has taught her students for a while, she assumed that they were more competent, so she tried to add more Chinese language in her teaching, but failed. These two cases show that students' ability does not always meet teachers' expectation, which finally influences their language choice. Excerpt 5-2-1 and Excerpt 5-2-2 suggest that the MLCT's insistence on the target language has to give way to the students' actual competency which can be observed from their responses. The following sub-theme investigates in detail about the significant differences that exist among students in the MLCT's class.

Sub-theme 2: Balancing students' language competency, interest and motivation

As discussed in Excerpt 5-2-1, the MLCT emphasised the importance of the target language based on her understanding. Interestingly, the analysis of the classroom audio recording data show some inconsistencies after compared with the interview data. Firstly, she adopted much more English language than the other two class teachers in my study as mentioned in Section 5.2.1. Secondly, English language was used dominantly rather than Chinese language as she claimed. In the interview with the MLCT, I raised this issue in relation to the inconsistency I observed in her class. Excerpt 5-2-3 illustrates how she understands this mismatch.

Excerpt 5-2-3	English translation
"…我们班差别很大。就比如说有几个学生他会认很多汉字他会说很多，还有的就是说几乎看不懂汉字。有一个，两个，反正就5个左右5，6个左右根本不止，5，6个反正就10个左右差不多，10个左右就不认识汉字。那你跟他说那么多的汉字或者是很多汉字你要让他理解（Researcher：他就完全懵了？）对对对对，反正我觉得在那教还是挺费劲的，你得平衡平衡它们的语言语言差异还有兴趣他们的动力…"	"<… (Students) in my class have great differences. For example, there are a few students who can recognise many Chinese characters and speak a lot (Chinese), while some can barely read Chinese characters. There are 1, 2, well, 5-6, well more that 5-6 (students), right, around 10, around 10 (students) do not know Chinese characters. Then if you speak to those (students) too many Chinese characters which you want them to understand (Researcher: they will get lost completely?). Right right right right, anyway, I find it rather difficult teaching there as you need to balance, balance their language differences, interests, and their motivation…>"

We can see that the MLCT is aware of the disparity in students' Chinese language abilities. It seems that her students' differences have negative influence over her idea of promoting the "目的语的环境 <target language environment>" in her class, which can be seen from her expression of the difficulty that she encounters in terms of teaching Chinese language in this school: because of the students' differences in languages, interest, and motivation. Similar to the points that have been put forward by the LLCT, students' motivation and interest were emphasised again by the MLCT. The discussion chapter will further investigate this issue in relation to the background of the students as introduced in Chapter 1. In addition, the "目的语的环境 <target

language environment>" mentioned by the MLCT will also be analysed in the following sub-theme of this case study.

With the considerable difficulties in using the target language to teach as the MLCT claimed, she also acknowledged the positive influence of translanguaging, which she adopted to help "open students' ear". In her response to the question whether she thinks that translanguaging helps her to "balance" students' differences, she said:

Excerpt 5-2-4	English translation
"有帮助，因为他他不想听的不想听汉语的（..）那不愿意学习他会有个耳朵会是闭着的。你就算用母语跟他讲他就会潜意识知道一点然后他会做。如果全用汉语来讲他耳朵都是关闭的，不接受这个信息根本不接受这个信息，脑子也不过滤这个信息。"	"*< (It) helps, because they do not want to hear, they do not want to listen to Chinese language (..). Then (because students) are unwilling to learn, one of their ears is closed. If you speak to him in his mother tongue, (presumably) he will subconsciously know a little, and he will do it. If (teachers) speak all in Chinese language, his ears will be closed, and he will not accept the information, not at all. The brain will not process the information either>*."

It seems that according to the MLCT, students have a preference for their "mother tongue" and an objection to Chinese language in her class. She added on giving an example to illustrate different responses from students when she moved her language from Chinese to English. She reported that when she asked the students to "打开书 *<open the book>*", most of the students did not follow her instruction, which was probably not processed or understood by students because "他会有个耳朵会是闭着的 *<one of their ears is closed>*". Then, according to the MLCT's words, after "看他们的反应 *<observing their response>*", the MLCT "have to" translated to English language "open your book", which was accepted and followed by her students. She commented on this example "听不懂必须得强调 *< (I) have to emphasise if they do not understand>*". She further mentioned that for her class, she would adopt language differently according to the actual situations "教新知识的时候英语说得少，但是给他们命令就是发信号的时候英语说得多 *<English is less spoken when teach new knowledge, but more English is spoken when give them orders and signals>*." It

can be seen that the purpose of her speech is another factor that influences the MLCT's language choice. Precisely, compared to giving instructions, she uses English language in imperative sentences, for example "open your book".

This theme suggests that although the MLCT holds a positive attitude towards the "target language environment", for her actual language choice in the class, she has to adjust it by adopt translanguaging according to students' response and their varieties. Moreover, sentences with different purposes influence her language choice as well.

5.2.3 MLCT's reflection on her teaching practices

The above section attempted to investigate the factors that influence the MLCT's language choice in teaching Chinese language. Now based on her actual language practices which have been analysed in Chapter 4, I move on to have a closer look at her reflection on her teaching practises. Two sub-themes were produced from data analysis: different purposes of translanguaging and the MLCT's perspective on 'language classes'.

Sub-theme 1: Different purposes of translanguaging

It is interesting that although the MLCT expressed a preference for the deployment of the target language in language classes, for most of the time, she seldom moved to Chinese language in her actual teaching. According to the MLCT, translanguaging is mostly used to help students to remember, re-practise, and apply the learnt words in sentences. In addition, she also emphasised the use of gestures to teach tones. This section starts with the MLCT's reflection on her repetition of the structure "verb + 什么 *<what>*". This is the structure that she frequently used in her class to let students re-practise.

Excerpt 4-5-2 is a typical extract in which circumstance the MLCT adopted translanguaging. Whenever she introduces a new verb, she often asks students to practise in this way. Specifically, "会 *<can/will>*" is the new verb that she was introducing to students, and the way she used is by combining "会 *<can/will>*" with different subjects. She gave an example "我会做蛋糕 *<I can make cakes>*" (line 3) and then invited students to make a sentence likewise. She added "什么 *<what>*" after the new verb to initiate her question to students "你会做什么 *<what you can/will do>*" (line 5) or "你周末会做什么 *<what you can/will do during*

weekends>" (line 6). In the interview with the MLCT, she reflected on this practice from a professional view, looking at the characteristics of Chinese language:

Excerpt 5-2-5	English translation
"因为中文它是有一定的逻辑性跟那个（..）转换的…它有一种结构性，就给学生建立一种相当于连贯性。 就你跟他说 "会什么什么" 然后…有些词他就可以替换…提醒学生让他形成用其他词来替换，让他们想尽量多的词。一是要帮他们回忆，回忆那么多词。二是就是他回忆的时候比如说这个句子他把所有回忆的词可以运用到（..）当中。就是顺便复习和练习一下。"	"*<Because Chinese (language) has certain logic and (..) transferability...It is structured, which creates coherence for students. That is, you tell them "can/will what what" and then they can replace ("what") with (other) words…To remind students and to let them form (a new sentence) by replacing with other words, and to make them think of as many words as possible. Firstly, it helps them remember and recall those words. Secondly, when they recall, they could apply all the remembered words in (..) this sentence. That is, to review and practise by the way>*."

We can see that the purpose of the MLCT's translanguaging is based on her understanding of Chinese as a language, which has its logic, transferability, structure and coherence according to her words. Moreover, by listing different learnt words after "会 *<can/will>*", she expected students to review and practise those words, which is similar to the first case study: the LLCT adopted translanguaging to review learnt words as discussed in Excerpt 5-1-6 and Excerpt 5-1-7. Their main purpose of translanguaging is quite close: helping students to review learnt vocabulary.

As discussed in chapter 4, the embodied gestures adopted by teachers for teaching tones are another important finding in both the LLCT and the MLCT's classrooms. In Excerpt 4-2-1 and Excerpt 4-2-2, we can see that there is a clear contrast between the MLCT's persistence in making the embodied gestures to remind students the tone of a particular word and students' ignorance of the teacher's hint. Excerpt 5-2-6 is the MLCT's reflection on her gestures while teaching tones.

Excerpt 5-2-6	English translation
"手势首先给他一种画面感，就是说特别是小学生手势很管用的。 你给他一种画面感让他也动起来，他自己动他	"*<First of all, gestures give them a sense of picture. It is especially helpful for primary students. You give them a sense of picture and let them move as well. (When) they move, they gain (the*

有一种潜意识… 他一想这个词他就知道怎么发音，也会帮助他。相当于教学当中有一个（…）'动作展示'吧…你怎么就发三声 ǎ。就是有一个这样的动作 (Imitated the third tone) 跟画面感他就（..）即使他不动他就会潜意识的，嗯，应该是这样发。"	*gestures) sub consciously… Whenever they think of this word they will know how to pronounce, which helps them as well. It is probably equivalent to the (…) 'action display' in education… (For example) how to pronounce the third tone ǎ. There is a movement like this (imitated the third tone) and a sense of picture. (..) Although they did not move, subconsciously they will (know), eh, it should be pronounced in this way>*."

According to the MLCT, it suggests that her understanding of teaching Chinese language is grounded in her theoretical background, which can be told by the academic words that she used in educational settings "动作展示 *<action display>*". She gave another example in relation to her use of 'action display', illustrating the effectiveness of this technique: "**教身体部位的**时候你就会站起来摸你的比如说鼻子眼睛摸一下, 动作就是动作演示 *<when (I) teach the body parts, you stand up and touch your nose (or) eyes for example. (These) actions are action display>*". Therefore we can see that with the knowledge and experience that she has previously gained, the MLCT uses embodied gestures consciously, and she believes that gestures help students' learning of tones and other subjects. The MLCT further said that "**特**别是小学生手势很管用的 *<gestures are especially helpful for primary students>*", which again, echoes the view of the LLCT in relation to the use of multimodal semiotic signs for young learners in the previous case study (see Excerpt 5-1-8).

In Excerpt 4-2-1 and Excerpt 4-2-2, I illustrated and discussed students' refusal to correct their pronunciation even though their teacher tried to correct it in both verbal and non-verbal ways. The MLCT later commented on the students' ignorance of her gestures in the interview. She firstly emphasised the positive effect of gestures by saying that students would correct their wrong tone when they saw her gestures. She then mentioned the reason that she thinks why students did not do so: "**如果学生**懒的话他不想纠正 *< if students are lazy, then they do not want to correct it>*". Therefore it can be seen that although the results were not as she expected, she still has a positive view towards using gestures. She blames this result by labelling students as lazy students. She added on to legitimise her use of gestures "**其**实真正的汉语老师哈, **就是**专业的汉语老师都会

这样，**都会有**这个动作...包括在国内,现在的专业汉语老师出身都会都会用手势教声调 *<actually real Chinese language teachers, that is to say professional Chinese language teachers would (do) this, they all have this action…including (Chinese language teachers) in China, nowadays, all professional Chinese teachers would use gestures to teach tones>*." We can see that she expressed her orientation as a Chinese language teacher. Through positioning herself as a professional teacher, she implied the rationality and professionalism of her views in relation to language teaching.

Drawing upon the *dual coding theory* (Paivio, 1990), there is research on using hand signals in teaching Chinese tones. The positive aspect of gestures has been found in this particular context (Tsai, 2011; Morett and Chang, 2015), which is supported by the MLCT's data analysis in my study. In Chapter 6, I will provide a further discussion by integrating this point with the literature on using embodied semiotic resources (see Section 6.2.3). Based on the MLCT's beliefs about the teaching methods and techniques of professional Chinese language teachers, sub-theme 2 introduces the influence of her experience on her language teaching practice and how her perspective on 'language classes' influence the language that she uses in her class.

Sub-theme 2: Perspective on 'language classes'

As discussed in section 5.2.2, the MLCT knows students' language competency and the language that students want; however, she still prefers to create the "目的语的环境 *<target language environment>*" for students. Excerpt 5-2-7 further illustrates the conflict that she has identified between students' needs and her opinion on the best model of language classes. This is an extract from her response to the interview question "what language do you think students expect" (see section 3 in the interview guide). From pedagogy's perspective, she described her understanding of "language classes" by providing supporting theories:

Excerpt 5-2-7	English translation
"当然是他们的母语，但是不可能 (laughter)。但是你作为语言教学的目的是就是哈，现在很多的沉浸式教学你知道吗?完全就是目的语教学，但是目	"*<Of course their mother tongue, but (that is) impossible (laughter). But the purpose of language teaching is, you know there is a lot immersion teaching (programmes) now? It is 'target language only' in teaching. However,*

| 的语完全目的语实现不了的情况下那你就尽量用他们的目的语说。就不要（…）就是如果你老说英文的话他就不叫不叫就是外语课堂了 (Researcher: 嗯，那就是尊重他们那个?) 也不能完全尊重他们的。这毕竟是语言课。就不能就是说你要你要你喜欢听英语不能说老师给你英语，不可能的事情。那就是营造一个 '目的语的环境' 吧挺重要的，就是尽量说中文。" | *when the 'target language only' cannot be achieved, then you can use their target language to speak as much as possible. Do not (…), it is just that if you keep speaking English, then it is not a foreign language classroom. (Researcher: eh, so do you mean to respect their?) Not fully respect them. This is (a) language lesson after all. You cannot just say that you want to listen to English, and then the teacher offers you English, impossible. It is quite important to create the 'target language environment', which means speaking Chinese as much as possible>."* |

There are two interesting points that I want to make from this excerpt. The first point is the "immersion teaching (programmes)" or "target language only" and "target language environment" (debates on these were discussed in section 2.1). According to the MLCT's words, the ideal state is the "沉浸式教学 *<immersion teaching (programme)>*", and if the ideal one "实现不了的情况下 *<cannot be achieved>*", the second best option is "尽量用他们的目的语说 *<to use their target language to speak as much as possible>*". The actual situation is, however, as Excerpt 5-2-3 stated, the realisation of the "target language environment" was hampered for the reason of students' differences. Therefore, she is suggesting an ideal, but constantly unattainable state, to which she aspires. Based on the MLCT's comments, it seems that the translanguaging space that she opens for students is limited. Her "de-phoneticised" view as mentioned in Excerpt 5-2-2 suggests that she thinks students' reliance on English goes down while their Chinese ability goes up over time. If she actually acts on what she believes, she would provide less English language in this context after students were getting more competent. Then this action might even narrower the translanguaging space due to her beliefs about language classrooms.

Another point I want to make is the MLCT's understanding of a "外语课堂 *<foreign language classroom>*" and "语言教学的目的 *<the purpose of language teaching>*" in Excerpt 5-2-7. For the MLCT, a real foreign language classroom or a language lesson means "营造一个 '目的语的环境' *<to create the 'target language environment'>*", despite the fact that the students want to listen to

English. What needs to be pointed out again is that although she holds this view as a teacher, her actual language practices go in the opposite direction, which comes back to the disparity of students' competency as mentioned in section 5.2.2. She further mentioned her request for students' language in her class (the last question of section 2 in the interview guide). Under the circumstance when she asked students to express something in Chinese, she said "就是说只要你说一句那我的教学目的就达到了，但是如果你说一句英文那教学目的就没有达到 *<as long as you speak one single sentence (in Chinese), then my teaching purpose is achieved; but if you speak an English sentence, then the teaching purpose is not achieved>*". So she believes that something is better than nothing even though it is a long way from the unattainable ideal. Along with the first point I made in the paragraph above, the evidence proves that the MLCT's understanding of teaching Chinese as a foreign language is firmly grounded in her theoretical background, which guides her to follow the ultimate but seems unattainable target (i.e. immersion teaching).

To conclude this case study, the MLCT adopts translanguaging for the purposes of reviewing previously learnt subjects and teaching tones with the help of embodied gestures. Although the MLCT's theoretical background in relation to the language and language teaching influences her use of translanguaging, her actual language choice is greatly led by students' responses. Because of the major differences that exist among students in respect of their language competency, interest and motivation, the class teacher has to give up the ideal "target language only" that she firmly believes; hence she adopts translanguaging to facilitate her teaching and students' learning. In addition, limited translanguaging space is created by the MLCT due to her view of the ideal immersion teaching and the target language environment underpinned by her monolingual perspective.

Summary

This chapter investigated two case studies based on the analysis of the classroom data in Chapter 4. By juxtaposing the actual classroom interactions and the teachers' reflection on their practices, this chapter provided a deeper understanding of some underlying factors in relation to individuals'

communicative repertoires. In other words, the discussion of classroom data in the previous chapter revealed the day-to-day language practices while the investigation of interview data in this chapter illuminated the underlying class teachers' rationale for their translanguaging practices, as expressed from their own perspective.

The most obvious findings in this section is that although both class teachers' have a preference for using more Chinese language to teach students, for various reasons, translanguaging practice is inevitable and sometime spontaneous. Translanguaging is used for communication and teaching purposes by drawing on a wide range of communicative repertoires including language, gestures, mime, (mental) pictures, drawing, and so on. The following table summarises and compares the significant findings emerged from these two case studies.

	LLCT	MLCT
Language choice	• Before the class, students' background and interest are her first considerations. • In the class, her language is adjusted according to students' responses, in order to communicate with students and let students understand her meaning.	• Before the class, Chinese as the "target language" should be used as much as possible. • In the class, translanguaging have to be used according to students' responses, in order to balance their differences.
Reflection upon the purpose of translanguaging	• To teach strokes of Chinese characters • To review learnt Chinese words and expressions • To teach tones • To communicate by using non-verbal embodied gestures and pictures	• To review learnt Chinese words and expressions • To teach tones • To communicate by using non-verbal embodied gestures • To emphasise when students do not understand. However, it is not preferred.

Table 10 Summary of the main findings in case studies

This chapter gives me a deeper understanding of the translanguaging practices that took place in the Chinese complementary school. It also extends the findings

of my study from the teaching "moments" to the dynamic procedures which involve the influencing factors that lead to those moments. From an ecological perspective, this chapter investigated the process and the cause of particular translanguaging practices through seeing those practices as components of "successive translanguaging moments" (Baynham and Lee, 2019, p.40). Therefore, the findings of my study dovetail with the idea in Baynham and Lee (2019), which looks at the translation practice and other classroom language practices through the lens of translanguaging; and sees those practices "as embedded within a translanguaging space" (p.40).

Since teachers in this type of school normally design, plan, conduct and reflect on their teaching all by themselves rather than being controlled by the school, each class teacher is very representative and worth being examined closely. Building on the analysis of classroom data in Chapter 4, analysing reflective interviews with class teachers generated some ideas which will be further developed by drawing on relevant literature in Chapter 6, including the discussion of the translanguaging practices that is used alongside with other teaching practices in classrooms, the use of multimodal resources in language classrooms; and the discussion of class teachers' practice and beliefs. Chapter 4 and 5 also provoked some additional ideas, for example, the limits of translanguaging, which will also be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 6 Discussion

Introduction

This chapter synthesises and discusses the major findings reported in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 through re-examining the research questions, my findings in relation to the research questions, and the existing relevant literature, closely and critically. I first recap the purposes and the main findings of my study. This study is designed to investigate class teachers' translanguaging practices in the context of Chinese complementary schools where the use of more than one *named national language* (Otheguy et al., 2015, p.286) is unavoidable. Findings suggest that separating out named languages for the purpose of instruction runs counter to much of the translanguaging literature, which focuses on the fluid, flexible and seamless movement across languages as discussed in Chapter 2. Therefore, my study explores the extent to which translanguaging is a useful practice and a useful concept in language educational contexts. It attempts to identify the language teachers' day-to-day translanguaging practices that take place in language education classrooms; and to discuss teachers' implicit understanding of translanguaging by comparing their language practices and their reflection upon those practices. Before moving on, please see below for a restatement of this study's research questions:

1. How is translanguaging practice evident in Chinese complementary school classrooms?
2. How do teachers bring their communicative repertoires into being in their classroom practice?
3. What factors influence the teachers' practice of translanguaging?

In the development of the concept of translanguaging, it has been described in different ways by different researchers at different times and in different contexts. It has developed from a teaching approach to a way of thinking how multilingual and multimodal resources coordinate to make meaning. Language is still analysed and examined in translanguaging studies, but with a greater focus on situated practices and language users (García, 2009). It is a norm that translanguaging is widely deployed in many contexts despite those theoretical tensions. Therefore, the potential theoretical contribution of this research is to describe this concept by investigating language from both "above" and "below"

(Baynham and Lee, 2019). That is, through looking at both the actual classroom language and the other features (i.e. social, historical, and cultural) that might influence those language practices, I provide a thorough and critical understanding of translanguaging practice in educational contexts.

In general, there are three main findings in relation to each research question, which have not or very rarely been touched in previous studies. To begin with, the close relation between translanguaging and other teaching practices, techniques or strategies has not been investigated. In other studies, these two practices are either examined separately or viewing translanguaging as pedagogy in language educational contexts. Findings in this study argue that translanguaging practice and other teaching practices intertwine closely in meaning making and imparting knowledge. Specifically, translanguaging permeates into every teaching practice while teaching practices cannot be successfully achieved without the deployment of translanguaging. I was surprised by the class teachers' use of both practices closely, smoothly and skilfully. Secondly, having reviewed the literature on multimodality, I found that despite the wide range of resources that are used in language classrooms or even in other subjects' classroom settings, very few studies focus on how multimodality facilitates teachers to achieve their teaching practice. The examination of multimodality in the field of translanguaging is comparatively a new area and still limited to the deaf education (Swanwick, 2017), literary art (Baynham and Lee, 2019; Lee, 2015) and communicative interaction in street (Blackledge and Creese, 2017; Bradley et al., 2018). My study highlights teachers' awareness of using multimodal resources to teach. It particularly points out teachers' acceptance and support for combining language with other visual modes to teach. Lastly, taking an ecological approach, individual differences that are brought by various educational and sociocultural background provide evidence for the necessity of examining multiple layers where language users come from. It was unexpected for me to find out how complex teachers' beliefs are when I investigated the beliefs together with practices. Specifically, a similar teaching practice could be explained in different ways according to their own understanding; teachers with similar beliefs might also perform fairly differently likewise.

In this chapter, I am going to take each research question separately (Section 6.1 - Section 6.3). Under each research question, I first present a critical summary of the major findings. I then reflect on the questions. Finally I discuss my findings by drawing on relevant literature. Beyond my research questions, additional findings of my study are addressed in Section 6.4. At the end of this chapter, a conclusion is provided to summarise my arguments briefly.

6.1   Translanguaging practice

Introduction

This section looks at the first research question which is: How is translanguaging practice evident in Chinese complementary school classrooms? I begin with a discussion of my finding chapters. I move on to reflect upon and problematise this research question. I then further discuss the three significant teaching practices which were investigated in the finding chapters. They are scaffolding, drills and translation. This section mainly discusses the role of translanguaging as teaching pedagogy (Creese and Blackledge, 2010) and as a practice that encompasses other teaching practices while being embedded in those practices (Baynham and Lee, 2019) in the context of language classrooms.

6.1.1 A summary of the main findings

In Chapter 4, based on the analysis of the classroom data that was collected in the Chinese community school, I looked into the language teachers' translanguaging practices. Findings suggest that in all the three classrooms of my study, translanguaging is used widely by the three language teachers. It is unavoidable in language teaching. Translanguaging is identified as being used mainly for five purposes. In this section, I divide the purposes into two categories: specific purposes in relation to teaching content and general instruction and communication purposes.

First of all, translanguaging is used to teach Chinese characters (see Section 4.1, Section 5.1.3, and Section 5.2.3 for a full description), Chinese Pinyin (see Section 4.2, Section 5.1.3 and Section 5.2.3 for a full description) and unique expressions in Chinese (see Section 4.3 for a full description). Language teachers draw on their and the students' linguistic repertoire (i.e. both students' existing Chinese language knowledge and their English language knowledge) and other aspects of semiotic repertoire (i.e. embodied gestures, mental pictures

and mime for instance) to make meaning. The idea of using L1 to facilitate L2 learning echoes the original concept of translanguaging in Williams (2002, in Welsh). Moreover, the deployment and emphasis of both named languages in classrooms is in line with how Lewis et al. (2012b) describe translanguaging. They point out that "translanguaging entails using one language to reinforce the other in order to increase understanding and in order to augment the pupil's ability in both languages" (p.644). However, this finding also indicates the functional separation of language in bilingual education.

In terms of the use of individuals' semiotic repertoire, class teachers adopted multimodal resources to teach Chinese characters which are described as image-shape words (Kuo and Hooper, 2004). Likewise, visual depiction of the four tones in Pinyin has been studied as a systematic and helpful technique in teaching Chinese tones (Morett and Chang, 2015; Liu et al. 2011). The class teachers' different reflection shows that from an outsider's perspective, teaching practices look similar on the surface, but below the practice, the practitioners as insiders have various perceptions (McCafferty and Stam, 2008). This indicates the complexity of investigating beliefs: espoused beliefs and beliefs and beliefs in practice. I will return to this point in Section 6.3.

The implication of this practice is not limited to the Chinese language education since it is the features of Chinese language (i.e. the image-shape written characters and the four tones that can be simulated) that provide a space for teachers' deployment of a range of communicative repertoires. It suggests that according to the characteristics of certain language, translanguaging might also work with regard to the use of language and multimodal resources. However, most studies done in language classes focus on how learners benefit from translanguaging. Very few examine teachers' language use. Studies on multimodal resources that teachers draw upon are even scarcer, which needs to be further studied to support my argument. The discussion of this point has its implication in a wider educational context, for example, language teaching in mainstream schools and even in classes of other subjects. This is because the use of translanguaging is not limited to the advantage of communication, but also has the effect of facilitating other teaching activities and strategies.

In the second category, language teachers use translanguaging to differentiate students with different language abilities (see Section 4.4 and Section 5.2.2 for

a full description) and to give instructions (see Section 4.5 for a full description). This is a broader use of translanguaging compared with the first category. However, it is notable that translanguaging permeates every teaching detail. In my study, I identified three salient teaching practices that work together with translanguaging practice and are facilitated by translanguaging. They are scaffolding, drills and translation. By looking at these teaching practices through the lens of translanguaging and as embedded moments in the dynamic procedure of translanguaging (Baynham and Lee, 2019), I described how they work within the framework of translanguaging from the user-centred and the ecological perspective. I will further discuss these three aspects in Section 6.1.3, 6.1.4 and 6.1.5 respectively.

It can be seen that with the help of translanguaging, teachers could be more confident and flexible in adopting a range of specific teaching practice. In Creese and Blackledge (2010), they made an assumption that by drawing upon Gujarati and English in a Gujarati complementary school, teachers with a lack of proficiency in English use translanguaging to "save face" (p.110). However, although teachers in my study acknowledged their lower English language proficiency than students, their reflection does not indicate that saving face is one of their concerns. Instead, they commented heavily on their knowledge of students. This suggests that translanguaging goes beyond using different languages for the purpose of communication. It focuses more on language users' understanding of context, which explains the rationale and necessity of deploying particular practices. According to the teachers' words, they both believe that using more target language would help with students' language learning. Moreover, there is no need to draw upon students' first language if they can understand the target language. However, this seems to be an unattainable target, which was indicated by the failure in their initial teaching attempts. As a result, differentiation was used to balance students who have a lack of proficiency; scaffolding and translation were employed in a dynamic and non-linear way, and so forth. There is a need to point out that the close relation between translanguaging and teaching practices is not limited to the three practices that were identified in my study. Other teaching practices and strategies like eliciting, re-casts, error correction etc. would also be benefited from adopting the theory of translanguaging.

6.1.2 Research question one: discussion

The first research question aims to explore the actual translanguaging practices in language classrooms of a Chinese complementary school. Rather than focusing on learners, the main focus of my first research question is on the class teachers who adopt translanguaging to teach and interact with students. It examines teachers' language use in classrooms and their reflection on their language use.

This question was developed after I had identified a particular gap in translanguaging studies. The majority of the translanguaging literature works on its notion, its legitimacy, the aspects it embraces, and the use of it as pedagogy in general educational settings. Very few studies touch upon how translanguaging occurs and for what purposes in language classrooms, especially in the context of Chinese complementary schools where the minority language is promoted.

For much of the recent literature on the concept of translanguaging, this theory shifts its focus away from language code to learners or language users (García, 2009) Taking this idea, studies on translanguaging examine interaction that takes place in a range of educational and social contexts: complementary schools (Creese and Blackledge, 2010; 2018), bilingual/multilingual education (García and Kano, 2014; García and Li, 2014; 2015; García and Lin, 2017; Li and García, 2016), CLIL (Content and language integrated learning) classrooms (Lemke, 2016) communities (Moore et al., forthcoming, 2020), linguistic systems (Otheguy et al., 2015; 2018), and multilingual clubs (Zhu et al., 2019). In addition, rather than seeing the use of more than one named language as language separation, translanguaging describes individuals' language as individuals' meaning making that is achieved by drawing upon different features from their linguistic repertoire in which societally named languages are not bounded. However, as I mentioned elsewhere in this thesis, different people understand the idea of translanguaging differently as they look at different contexts and from different perspectives. In the context of my study where language is taught and learnt as a subject, there is an unavoidable functional separation of language use. Therefore, the main issue of this research question is that it attempts to investigate the actual classroom language practice that is functional separated on the one surface and integrated "from below" (Baynham and Lee, 2019;

Pennycook and Otsuji, 2015). This means that in order to explore teachers' language, their classroom translanguaging practices were first analysed as functionally separated languages. Then, in addition to the classroom discourse analysis that I adopted in the process of data analysis, the data was also analysed from a user-first perspective and an insider's perspective that situates language in the sociocultural context.

In the findings chapters, I identified the tensions between the idea of translanguaging and the translanguaging practice in the context of my study. Specifically, the theory of translanguaging describes users' language as people drawing upon their repertoire that comprises element of different languages, but in actual classes where a particular language is taught as the teaching content, named languages are separated quite strictly by class teachers. However as mentioned earlier, data in my study was analysed by integrating teachers' and learners' sociocultural and historical backgrounds. It can be explained by referring to the insider's and outsider's perspective (Otheguy et al., 2015) that understand the same phenomenon differently (see Section 2.1 for detail).

To clarify, the findings in my study identified a challenge to the theory of translanguaging in multilingual contexts. Meanwhile, this theory can be understood through exploring the underlying factors of translanguaging practices. Therefore, by drawing upon the idea of "below" and "above" in Baynham and Lee (2019) and the insider's and outsider's perspective in Otheguy et al. (2015), I dealt with this challenge critically and carefully. As the discussion goes on, I will illustrate these two contrasting ideas with examples. The tension between the orientation of translanguaging and my findings will also be discussed in Section 6.4.

6.1.3 Translanguaging and scaffolding

Findings indicate that the teaching strategy of scaffolding is one of the language teachers' significant teaching practices. It recognises the coexistence of translanguaging and scaffolding practices in language classrooms. In my study however, rather than seeing translanguaging as flexible bilingual pedagogy (Creese and Blackledge, 2010) or scaffolding strategy (García, 2011; García and Li, 2015), I argue for the association between translanguaging and scaffolding, investigating the overlaps and differences of these two concepts through discussing how translanguaging facilitates the realisation of class teachers'

teaching practice of scaffolding. The finding suggests that translanguaging facilitates scaffolding from two aspects: understanding students' social background and offering constant instructional assistance.

Findings of my study are in line with the idea that class teachers' good understanding of their students' competency lays the foundation for their effective scaffolding (Hammond, 2001; Hammond and Gibbons, 2005). The data analysis suggests that language teachers planned and adjusted their language based on their knowledge of the students' language level (see Excerpt 5-1-3 for a class teacher's reflection on the language that she planned to provide and the language that she adjusted to meet the students' needs). It seems that there are overlaps between the concept of scaffolding and translanguaging in terms of the understanding of students. That is to say, in order to deploy these two practices effectively in classrooms, it is necessary to take learners' background into consideration. However, scaffolding is clearly planned to extend learners' understanding (Hammond, 2001, p.15) and reach a higher level, as explained in the theory of the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD) proposed by Vygotsky (1978), which only concerns students' background in relation to their competency in certain subject, for example, the Chinese language competency in my study. Based on this consideration, translanguaging understands learners by bringing students' sociocultural background in language classes. Excerpt 5-1-1 illustrates how the teacher balanced her language with her consideration of the students' background in relation to their birth place, language environment, and learning interest. This is also compatible with the argument made by García and Li (2015) that translanguaging goes beyond scaffolding, particularly its attention to social aspects.

In the context of language classrooms, Hammond (2001) points out that "educational programs need to focus equally on assisting students to develop control both of relevant curriculum knowledge and of the language that enables them to construct that curriculum knowledge" (p.35). Likewise, Cenoz and Gorter (2017) distinguish pedagogical translanguaging from spontaneous translanguaging (p.3). They indicate that teachers' language is used for both teaching and communication purposes. According to the findings of my study, spontaneous translanguaging provides great support for scaffolding in terms of teachers' instructional purpose. Next from the perspective of giving instruction, I

discuss the relation between scaffolding and translanguaging practice in language classroom. It appears to me that translanguaging goes beyond scaffolding not only stays at the consideration of learners' language and sociocultural backgrounds as discussed earlier; but also extends to the dynamic, flexible, and critical features of translanguaging and individuals' full linguistic and other aspects of semiotic repertoires that translanguaging embraces.

To begin with, spontaneous translanguaging emphasises the dynamic and flexible support based on a close examination of learners. As discussed in Excerpt 5-1-1, the class teacher's classroom language is carefully deployed by looking at learners' language and social backgrounds. Based on teachers' evaluation of the students' response, teachers provide flexible adjustment critically. For example, in Excerpt 5-1-2, the LLCT mentioned that she would improve her teaching method according to her observation of learners. Once she had identified that there is a lack of support for students' learning, she critically changed her methods, even back to the old ways as she said in Excerpt 5-1-3. Therefore we can see that unlike scaffolding which always aims for learners' reach of a higher level, translanguaging is not straightforward in relation to the teaching procedure. Teachers' teaching methods might go forward and backward by examining their language practice and the learners' response closely and critically. Although both concepts focus on providing language support in language education, it seems that different from the practice of scaffolding which emphasises the "temporary support" given "at the point of need" (Hammond, 2001, p.17), the dynamic support that provided by translanguaging cannot be removed.

Furthermore, findings of my study suggest that translanguaging differs from scaffolding in terms of the teachers' teaching targets and the features that teachers draw upon to assist students. Taking Excerpt 4-1-1 and Excerpt 4-1-3 for examples, first, building on the basis that the LLCT understands her students' level of Chinese language competency as she iterated in Excerpt 5-1-7, she drew on the learners' existing linguistic knowledge of Chinese and English respectively to construct new words. However, it seems that the idea of scaffolding emphasises students' L1 linguistic repertoire which should be used to support the learning of TL. Second, the purposes of using translanguaging to scaffold are getting students understand and heighten their interests according to the LLCT

(see Excerpt 5-1-7), whereas scaffolding aims for the completion of tasks, the development of understanding, and the achievement of the framework of a planned programme (Hammond, 2001, p.18). In addition, spontaneous translanguaging provides support by drawing on teachers' and learners' semiotic repertoire which does not limited to language but the deployment of different modalities (García, 2009, p.47). Teachers' use of communicative repertoire will be further addressed in Section 6.2.

Data analysis in my study supports the idea in Creese and Blackledge (2010) that translanguaging helps teachers with engaging audiences, keeping tasks moving, and accomplishing lessons. Moreover, other specific purposes of translanguaging as indicated in Chapter 4 suggest that translanguaging is deployed to facilitate language teachers' other teaching practices (i.e. scaffolding, in this case) successfully. The discussion of the LLCT's classroom data and interview data analysis in this section show that without the help of translanguaging, it would be impossible to achieve her teaching targets by simply adopting her teaching strategy of scaffolding. This is partly because the students in her class do not have necessary lexical knowledge to understand some specific words which are unavoidable in the LLCT's teaching. More importantly, by examining teaching practices from the speakers' perspectives (García, 2009), class teachers' dynamic and flexible translanguaging is grounded in their understanding of the learners' background. Therefore, it seems that the language practice cannot be simply described as the deployment of translanguaging approach and scaffolding strategy as how it is seen from an outsider's perspective. Rather, from an insider's perspective, it is the scaffolding moments being embedded in the dynamic translanguaging, and at the same time, translanguaging practice permeates into the teaching practice of scaffolding.

6.1.4 Translanguaging and drills

Drills, as mentioned earlier, are "the basic core of the audiolingual method of teaching foreign languages" (Paulston, 1970; Larsen-Freeman, 2000). They have been mainly studied for teaching vocabulary and structural patterns. In my study, question and answer drills (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p.49) were identified as teachers' technique to teach Chinese sentence structure (see Excerpt 4-5-1

for detail). Similar to the discussion that I made in the previous section, it suggests that the use of translanguaging brings the practice of drills into being.

There is a tension that has been indicated in my findings chapters. It occurs between the language teachers' awareness of constructing students' linguistic knowledge and their ideologies about how language should be used in their classroom. In the interview with MLCT, she expressed her preference for using the target language in language classrooms to create the "target language environment" (see Excerpt 5-2-7). At the same time, the MLCT emphasised the logical and structural features of Chinese language (see Excerpt 5-2-5). It seems that she supports the point proposed by Brooks (1960) that "analogy will guide the learner along the right linguistic path" (cited in Wong and VanPatten, 2003, p.404). This means that she was intentionally delivering the knowledge of Chinese structure to students by using drills as her teaching technique; and she was hoping to teach in target language "as much as possible" according to the MLCT. However as we can see from Excerpt 4-5-1, also in other MLCT classroom excerpts, she adopted single Chinese word "我 *<I>*", Chinese words "红包 *<red envelope>*", Chinese phrases "恭喜发财 *<may (you) be happy and prosperous>*", and Chinese sentences "有红包吗 *<have (you) received the 'red envelope'>*" together with longer and complicated English sentences "Yeah you get it from your parents or your…" to teach and communicate. Although this contradicts her imaginary ideal language education, we can see that the use of translanguaging is necessary in giving instructions and facilitating drills. The contradiction between the teachers' ideology and practice (Varghese, 2006; Karathanos, 2009) will be further discussed in Section 6.3.3.

The tension discussed in the previous paragraph suggests that when translanguaging was adopted, the teacher adopted her knowledge of students to meet students' requirements. In the interview with the MLCT, she mentioned that using language is one of her methods of balancing students' difference and opening students' ear (Excerpt 5-2-4). Therefore, she started with the "target language only" orientation, which was then adjusted and adapted due to students' varying background, their performance (Excerpt 5-2-3) and response (Excerpt 5-2-1). The process of adjusting her own language shows how she deepened her understanding of students as an insider, even though she advocates the "target language environment". Picking up the insider's and outsider's perspectives in

Otheguy et al. (2015), from the outsider's perspective, the language teacher was teaching the target language by using students' first language to assist. But from the insider's perspective, the teacher's adjustment of her language is out of her respect for students' academic and linguistic backgrounds, with the completion of her teaching aims (i.e. Chinese language structure in this case) being taken into consideration.

Now returning to the language that the MLCT adopted in her teaching technique, the question and answer drills, in Excerpt 4-5-1, translanguaging is used to enhance students' knowledge of a new Chinese language structure. It is the deployment of translanguaging within the teaching practice of drills that ensures the smooth and efficient progress of classroom practice and interaction. Therefore, drills are achieved by embedding translanguaging practice inside; and through understanding students from the language and sociocultural perspectives which are within the framework of translanguaging, the teaching practice of drills is embedded in translanguaging.

6.1.5 Translanguaging and translation

Translation as a language teaching strategy has gone through a long history of rejection and revival as discussed in Chapter 2. It has been investigated in many areas of language teaching, for example vocabulary, grammar, reading, and culture etc. (Hall and Cook, 2012). However, despite the wide use of translation, it is seldom discussed in the language educational field in relation to the concept of translanguaging. García (2011) argues that translation practice is included in translanguaging (p.147). Finding 5 in Section 6.1.1 supports this argument by identifying translation as a type of translanguaging. Moreover, it highlights the practice of translation that occurs frequently and cannot be underestimated, especially in language education contexts. In this section, I look at the language teachers' translation practices through the lens of translanguaging, discussing how their translation is tailored to the needs of learners, rather than simply as a means of transferring meaning from one language to another (Cook, 2010).

As indicated in Chapter 4, translation is identified as a significant practice for the purpose of giving instructions in language classrooms. Going beyond the definition of the equivalence of meaning, the class teachers' translation varies according to their understanding of the learners and the teaching content, which

makes each translation unique and purposeful. This personalised and critical type of translation echoes the critical multilingual awareness in García (2017).

Giving Excerpt 4-5-2 as an example, there are four instances in this excerpt. This excerpt has been analysed as a translanguaging practice used to teach Chinese language structure in Chapter 4. Next, I will look at this excerpt again as a translation practice. In the following transcription, the text being translated by the class teacher is marked in bold font. The italicised text is the English translation of the teacher's Chinese sentences.

Translation 1 (line 3): "我会做蛋糕 *<I can make cakes>*" → "Who **can** make **make cake**?"

Translation 2 (line 5-6): "你会做什么 *<what you can/will do>*?" → "**What you can do**?"

Translation 3 (line 6): "**On the weekends**" → "你周末会做什么 *<what you can/will do during weekends>*?"

Translation 4 (line 9): "周末你会做什么 *<what you can/will do during weekends>*?" → "**What you can do on weekends**?"

We can see that unlike word-by-word translation in Translation 2 and 4, the teacher did Translation 1 by replacing the subject and changed the sentence into an interrogative sentence; and Translation 3 by putting her translation of the adverbial into a full sentence. Admittedly, besides these intentional translations provided to construct sentence structures, there are translations like Translation 2 and 4 that were used to transfer meaning, not only in this teacher's classroom, but also in the other two teachers'. However, for those intentional translations, it requires the class teachers' precise understanding of their students' language ability. It suggests that while the teacher was constructing the language structure for students, language knowledge was not her only concern even if she advocates the use of target language. She translates to answer "students' needs and preferences, and protects students' linguistic and cultural identity" (Hall and Cook, 2012, p.283), which shares the learner-centred perspective of translanguaging.

Apart from using translation to give instruction, translation is also adopted for the purpose of differentiation. As discussed in Section 4.4, translanguaging is identified "to differentiate among students' levels and adapt instruction to different types of students in multilingual classrooms" (García and Li, 2015, p.235). Vignettes 4-4-1 and 4-4-2 are two examples which demonstrate that the

language teacher-LLCT adopted the target language for one student (or group of students), but translated into the students' *own language* (Hall and Cook, 2012) for another student (or group of students). Here language is used to balance the students' diversities. This type of translation practice cannot be done in such a targeted and personalised way if language teachers limit their consideration to the linguistic aspect of language teaching. What class teachers were attempting to do with such translation is to recognise students' different linguistic needs, accept the needs brought by the students' social experience, and embrace those by making a compromise between the students' needs and their language teaching ideologies. As argued earlier, rather than viewing the language practices from an outsider's perspective which focuses on the negotiation of meaning or giving instructions with more than one named language, translation practice through the lens of translanguaging understands the phenomenon from an insider's perspective based on the knowledge of the students and the teaching content or aim in the educational contexts. As how Baynham and Lee (2019) describe a translator's cognitive translation process:

> "A translator does not merely move from a start-point to an end-point; this movement is punctuated by consecutive moments within each of which a translator shuttles back-and-forth, hither and thither between languages, language varieties, registers, discourses, and modalities, while still remaining the forward thrust towards the destination-the target text." (p.189)

The class teachers' progressive and featured translation process in my study suggests that by fusing translation practice into a translanguaging pedagogical frame (Baynham and Lee, 2019, p.38), translation is not a linear process. All in all, in the context of language education, findings in my study support the argument made by García (2011) that translation can be seen as a type of translanguaging. Translation in this case goes beyond the equivalence of meaning. It is done purposefully by examining the teachers' teaching target and the learners' language competency. Moreover, like scaffolding and drills, translation practice is also realised and embedded in the translanguaging procedure. However, it is worth pointing out that within translation practices, the translanguaging space opened for students is very limited due to the teachers' language teaching ideology. I will further discuss the teachers' stance on creating a translanguaging space in Section 6.2.3.

This section reviewed the first research question and the findings in relation to the question. It pointed out the challenge of the current concept of translanguaging. Meanwhile, in order to explore and understand this challenge, I extended the idea of language from "above" and "below" (Baynham and Lee, 2019) to the classroom language practice in language education through drawing on the insider's and outsider's perspective (Otheguy et al., 2015). I highlighted the relationship between translanguaging and the three prominent teaching practices as identified in the findings, i.e. scaffolding, drills, and translation. Developed from the idea which sees these practices as separated from translanguaging practice in classroom interactions, I integrated those teaching practices with translanguaging practice. Translanguaging is identified as existing within these three teaching practices, providing help to the language teaching and communication practices. Moreover, those teaching practices are embedded in the dynamic translanguaging procedure as Baynham and Lee point out, which suggests the close relationship between teaching practices and translanguaging.

6.2 Teachers' communicative repertoires

Introduction

Now I move on to the second research question: How do teachers bring their communicative repertoires into being in their classroom practice? Having discussed the use of translanguaging for the purpose of facilitating language teachers' other teaching practices, this section focuses on the discussion of multimodal resources that teachers deployed in their translingual practice (Canagarajah, 2012), based on which I also provide a discussion of my findings in relation to the translanguaging space (Li, 2011) that teachers opened for students. First, I summarise the main findings of this question. I then revisit the second research question. Section 6.2.3 discusses the communicative repertoires, for example, the embodied gestures that are frequently used by the language teachers to make meaning. Finally, by re-examining the class teachers' translanguaging practice and their reflection upon their practices as discussed in this and the previous section, I investigate the class teachers' stance on creating a translanguaging space and the space that were created by the language teachers in class.

6.2.1 A summary of the main findings

As indicated earlier in Section 6.1.1, a range of semiotic resources were used by class teachers to teach Chinese characters, Chinese Pinyin, and unique expressions in Chinese. Teachers' reflection on their practices suggests that they regard the deployment of multimodal resources as an efficient technique for the teaching of Chinese language, especially for young learners who have limited knowledge in Chinese language.

Findings show that multimodal resources are widely deployed in Chinese language classrooms (see Section 4.1-4.3, Section 5.1.3 and Section 5.2.3 for a full description). Moreover, there is translanguaging space opened by teachers. However, sometimes the space created for students is limited (the degree varies from teacher to teacher) (see Section 5.2.3 for a full description). Students have little chance to use their linguistic repertoire to construct their language learning in class. The analysis of the interview data in Chapter 5 shows that this is heavily influenced by the teachers' beliefs about language and language teaching.

The investigation into how language and other semiotic resources work together to teach moves the field of translanguaging forward in educational contexts. In the process of understanding and analysing language teachers' communicative repertoires, it appears to me that a wide range of resources combine with each other seamlessly. Teachers' deployment of different modal resources depends more on the effectiveness of the resources with regard to their purposes of instruction and communication, rather than on their preference for language or visual modes. Taking the idea of breaking the language barrier in the theory of translanguaging, this is another move that breaks the barrier between language and other multimodal resources, and also barriers among a range of resources. This holistic view goes beyond the verbal interaction and extends the translanguaging study to non-verbal communication field. However, in order to probe deeper into individuals' use and perception of these resources, the analysis of interactional data would be insufficient. My argument is that in order to understand the holistic, dynamic and diverse multimodal resource system, we need to look underneath the interactional data in classrooms, that is, translanguaging studies require more investigation into practitioners' perceptions.

It is interesting to notice that compared with teachers' attitude towards their use of language which was kept strictly separate, they support using multimodal

resources to make meaning. Although both practices have been identified in classroom data, teachers have completely different beliefs about the trans- that occurs between language and among modes. The consonance and dissonance have been studied as "espoused theories" and "theories in use", which are the two concepts distinguished in Argyris and Schon (1974). Basturkmen et al. (2004) further emphasise that "the two sets of beliefs may or may not be compatible and an individual may or may not be aware of any incompatibility between the two" (p.269). Findings suggest that despite the fact that teachers are aware of the dissonance with respect to their beliefs and practice about using their and learners' full linguistic repertoire, they are not intend to reduce the dissonance and achieve consonance as the assumption made in Festinger (1962).

There is another dissonance that was identified in teachers' openness to the translanguaging space that is provided for learners. It seems that the opening of the space largely depends on teachers' beliefs, espoused beliefs in particular. The espoused beliefs are influenced by their previous experience and theoretical/professional background. As we can see the difference between how the two class teachers reflect on their teaching practice: the LLCT who has less teaching experience and theoretical background learned from students' response while adjusting her teaching approach, whereas the MLCT who has already learnt teaching methods applied her theoretical understanding to her class. This is in line with the correspondence described in Basturkmen (2012) "in the case of the more experienced teachers the beliefs were more consistently reflected in their classroom practices compared to less experienced teachers" (p.287). Although there is dissonance in both teachers' class, the MLCT is more insistent on her beliefs obtained from her previous experience.

The discussion of consonance and dissonance has its implication in wider fields in relation to social interaction. As Li (2011) defines the translanguaging space, from a top-down perspective, it is the society that allows and gives space for translanguaging practice to push the language boundaries and be creative. Admittedly, translanguaging practice also leads to a superdiverse society from a bottom-up perspective. But as in language classrooms where students' proficiency would influence teachers' decision making, teachers take this as a compromise but not a change of their beliefs. Likewise, although more and more translanguaging practice contributes to a superdiverse society, the progress of

accepting this phenomenon and changing policy makers' beliefs might be slower and harder.

6.2.2 Research question two: discussion

The second research question has undergone several changes throughout the study. Initially, before the data collection phase, I was not aware of the extensive use of the multimodal resources in language classrooms. Gradually as my study goes on, I noticed that in the setting of Chinese language education in the UK, other aspects of semiotic repertoires or multimodal signs exist widely in classrooms (Creese and Blackledge, 2015; García and Li, 2015; Kusters et al., 2017; Lin and He, 2017; Li, 2011). This led me to consider investigating this phenomenon further. Therefore I asked: How do class teachers deploy their language in classrooms? I was hoping to show a multimodal teaching method that teachers adopt to teach and communicate with students. Then, with the development of my research and the preliminary data analysis, I learned that the phenomenon of using semiotic resources other than language cannot be ignored or overlooked (Canagarajah, 2016; Lin and He, 2017). I finally developed the question into what it is now, highlighting the status of semiotic resources.

There was a sub question asked within the second research question: How do teachers create positive/negative translanguaging space in their classroom? This was asked because it appears to me that by deploying a wide range of resources, teachers are assumed to provide an open space which enables both verbal and non-verbal communications make meaning for students. However, later on, this question seems to me more like a finding after analysing the classroom data. Therefore, rather than put forward it as a research question, I discuss this point as one of the findings in my study (see Section 6.2.4).

In order to discuss this issue, both teachers' and students' data need to be collected and analysed. That is to say, the language and other resources provided by teachers are necessary, and meanwhile, students' reaction to the space opened by class teachers also contributes to the discussions. However, since my study mainly focuses on teachers' translanguaging practice, the amount of data from students is limited. I will continue discussing the limitation of this study in Chapter 7. Nevertheless, in order to illustrate students' response to the space created by teachers as much as possible, I carefully analysed the classroom interactions that took place between the teachers and their students.

6.2.3 Visual modes in making meaning

Findings in Section 6.2.1 highlight the use of teachers' and learners' semiotic repertoires (i.e. simultaneous gestures, pictures, and mental pictures) to make meaning. Based on my findings, I argue about the crucial status of other aspects of semiotic resources apart from language in language classrooms. Having mentioned in Chapter 2, Kusters et al. (2017) argues that in translanguaging studies, semiotic resources are being studied as subordinate to language in terms of conveying meaning (p.228). They further mention the argument made by Canagarajah (2016) that "non-verbal resources should not be seen as compensatory or subservient to spoken/written language" (in Kusters et al., 2017, p. 228). Despite the fact that Kusters and her colleagues are discussing language that is used by deaf people (including sign languages), findings of my study suggest that language teachers use a variety of gestures to teach smoothly. Moreover, their reflection indicates that the semiotic resources other than language occupy an irreplaceable position in their teaching activities, especially for those learners who are young and have insufficient language knowledge.

The data analysis in my study supports Canagarajah's argument in a language educational context. There is no evidence which shows that teachers have given their preference or priority for their linguistic or other semiotic repertoires when both resources are adopted. Take Excerpt 4-1-4 as an example. There are altogether three occasions when both oral explanation and embodied gestures occurred simultaneously. The first case happened in line 2 where the teacher was teaching the Chinese character "上" which means *<up>* in English. She said "This is how you do it 上 *<up>* this is pointing up" while "with her finger pointed up twice toward the ceiling to show the direction that this word refers to". The simultaneous gesture was made at the same time with her language to teach a written character "This is how you do it", which suggests that the teacher did not separate her language from gesture. Likewise, in line 5-6, the teacher's language works together with the mental picture to convey meaning in both verbal and non-verbal ways. In the interview, this teacher commented on her use of pictures and mental pictures as one of her teaching techniques (see Excerpt 5-1-8 for her reflection upon drawing pictures as her teaching technique). She emphasised the importance of using pictures; and believes that it is especially useful for "lower level" classes, which echoes the point made in García and Li (2015) that

young learners are not shy of using their entire linguistic and semiotic repertoires (p.231). The discussions above suggest that in my study, simultaneous semiotic resources like gestures and pictures are not subordinate to teachers' language. To some extent, the simultaneity seems to indicate an equal status of verbal and non-verbal means of communication. Moreover, different modes of embodied communication are coordinated by class teachers to enhance their teaching and students' learning. The aim though is always to teach spoken or written Chinese, so in this sense gesture is always subordinate.

Admittedly, despite the positive features of using semiotic resources other than language, the data analysis also identified some gestures which were not noticed or accepted by students. There are also other excerpts which show that gestures are adopted "as compensatory" (Canagarajah, 2016) after the failure of teachers' oral communication which is due to students' language competency. Excerpt 4-2-1 and 4-2-2 demonstrate a similar situation where the teacher's gestures failed to achieve her teaching target as expected. We can see that the teacher adopted a simultaneous gesture each time when she repeated "四声" which means <*the fourth tone*> to correct the students' pronunciation. The meaning of "四声<*the fourth tone*>" is embodied in her gesture. Therefore, according to this teacher, the students should be able to recognise her gesture even if they did not understand her Chinese words that she said orally, unless students are too lazy to correct it (see Excerpt 5-2-6 for detail). This is interesting as there might be other reasons why students did not respond correctly to the teacher's language and gesture. For example, the students did not understand the meaning of her gesture or they could not pronounce the fourth tone correctly. Rather than exploring the reasons why her language and gesture were not accepted, the teacher labelled her students as "lazy" learners. It seems that teachers' expectation of learners influences their teaching practice as well. Similar to the Chinese ethnic identity that the LLCT views her children (Excerpt 5-1-1), the identity that the MLCT ascribed to her students prevents her from further reflecting upon her teaching practice.

As indicated in Excerpt 4-3-1, when the teacher asked students in line 9 and line 26-27, for each question, she first adopted her linguistic repertoire only; and then the second time she asked, she used simultaneous gestures to reinforce students' understanding of her questions. No clear evidence in this excerpt

shows that why the teacher deployed her repertoire in this way. There is also a lack of studies working on teachers' communicative repertoires which are not accepted by learners or being used as a remedy for conveying meaning when language failed to do so. I need to note that the field notes in this case helped me greatly in terms of recording the scene and presenting the scene to readers.

Findings in Section 6.1.1 also indicate that teachers vary with their reflection on their use of gestures. Specifically, teachers are driven by different cognitions when they use a similar gesture to teach the same language knowledge (Borg, 2006, p.277; McCafferty and Stam, 2008). In my study, it seems that teachers' different cognitions are influenced by their teaching experience and theoretical background. In terms of the purpose of deploying simultaneous gesture to teach Chinese Pinyin, the LLCT mentioned that she did not notice that and did not know why she acted like that. She saw her gesture as her own way (see Section 5.1.3). So unlike her reflection upon the use of pictures, gestures were not planned in this case. In contrast, the MLCT legitimised her gesture based on her theoretical and professional background. She commented that using gestures gives students "a sense of pictures" which can "let them move as well" (see Excerpt 5-2-6). She described "real professional Chinese language teachers" in Section 5.2.3. She further confirmed the use of embodied gestures as an effective way to teach Pinyin from a more convincing perspective by standardising and popularising this method. The MLCT's accounts suggest that making gestures is effective in teaching Chinese pronunciation and there is a universal set of gestures for that. Referring back to the equal status of the two communicative modes that was discussed earlier in this section, it seems that she has an individual sense of hierarchy. Whether or not teachers have valid reasons to support their use of gestures or other semiotic resources, it is a fact that they are using multimodal resources to communicate and teach in their classroom. Findings in my study support the idea of translanguaging that users draw upon their language and other aspects of semiotic repertoires to make meaning (García and Li, 2014; 2015). Additionally, there is evidence in my study which supports the argument made in Canagarajah (2016) that language users' other communicative repertoires like embodied gestures are not subordinate to language. Further studies on this matter would be worthwhile.

As mentioned above, translanguaging practice occurred in all three classrooms in terms of teaching Pinyin, teaching Chinese characters and teaching unique expressions in Chinese. It seems that the characteristics of Chinese language enable teachers to use those resources - the four main symbols that can be visualised to imitate the changing of tones and the image-shape written characters that can be associated with mental pictures or actions (see Section 4.1.3 and 4.2 for examples). The use of gestures as teachers' teaching technique has been discussed in Chapter 2. Findings of my study indicate that due to the universality and similarity of use, adopting gestures to teach Pinyin is becoming a recognised and unified teaching strategy, which echoes Morett and Chang (2015) and Tsai (2011). However, different from what I discussed above, Tsai (2011) mentions that the embodied gestures deployed by different teachers are not necessarily uniform in terms of teaching tones.

Compared with Pinyin, there is less research that focuses on using gestures or mental pictures to teach Chinese characters. Findings in Kuo and Hooper (2004) show that adopting the *dual coding* theory (Paivio, 1990) does not offer a significant effect on learners' memory of Chinese characters according to learners' scores. However, it does help learners with forming mental images to remember characters according to the survey (p.31). Findings in my study highlight the use of gestures and pictures especially for young learners as the LLCT and the MLCT mentioned in Excerpt 5-1-8 and Excerpt 5-2-6. Therefore, visualising image-shape words (Kuo and Hooper, 2004. p.24) does have positive influence on conveying meaning in Chinese language classrooms. A greater focus on using a wide range of resources to teach Chinese characters needs to be pointed out; and further studies need to be carried out in order to validate this argument.

6.2.4 Translanguaging space created by class teachers

Having discussed in Chapter 2, translanguaging space is "a space for the act of translanguaging" and "a space created through translanguaging" (Li, 2011). It has emerged from the data after I looked back. In the context of my study, it seems that rather than a space which had already existed before teachers and students entered, the space is mainly set up, controlled and adjusted by class teachers, and meanwhile, students also play a role in the process of constantly narrowing down or opening up the space. According to the class teachers'

reflection on their teaching practices, translanguaging space is derived from teachers' needs of communication in their teaching activities.

Findings in Section 6.2.1 suggest that generally speaking, there is a translanguaging space created by teachers in their class, from varying degrees. However, from the students' perspective, the translanguaging space opened up for learners which allows them to freely adopt their linguistic repertoire is very limited in the process of language learning. Findings also show that the LLCT and MLCT have different intentions of creating a translanguaging space for students. Next, I discuss the space that was created in each teacher's class.

In the LLCT's class, the translanguaging space is based on the class teachers' knowledge of her students' language competency, sociocultural background and her teaching content. It is also decided by students' response in class. Findings in Section 5.1 highlight the development of the LLCT's language use. Initially she believed that since her children and students' background are both ethnic Chinese, both the teacher and learners should speak more Chinese language (Excerpt 5-1-1). Based on this, the space is narrowed down by giving more space to the teaching content. In the process of classroom interactions later on, she realised that she needs to take learners' language background, interest and Chinese language ability into consideration. She adjusted her language use and opened up a space to meet the students' level (Excerpt 5-1-3). At this stage, we can see that rather than viewing her students as language learners like her first thought of students with Chinese ethnic identity, she started to see them as individuals living in the existing British society. The dimensions of personal history, experience and environment (Li, 2011, p.1223) were drawn upon when the LLCT made further language decisions. In addition to these, as mentioned in Section 6.2.3, she used multimodal resources to make meaning in her teaching of specific content. She attempted to make full use of her and her students' communicative repertoires to convey meaning. In other words, it appears that a range of resources is allowed to be deployed, not closing down the English uses and Chinese-only in the classroom. It suggests that there is a space that she opened up for her students while teaching some particular knowledge. However, I need to point out that the space opened by the LLCT is a compromise between her initial idea that prefers the use of more Chinese language in her classroom and the students' needs. Therefore, it seems that at the level of her initial

thoughts about class design and the language use, the target language is her preference as long as students understand what she is talking about (Excerpt 5-1-7). This situates translanguaging practice in a less preferable position which would probably lead to limited translanguaging space created in language classrooms.

In terms of the language use in the MLCT's class, I would call it an interactional space rather than a translanguaging space. In the interview with the MLCT, she claimed a similar opinion in relation to the compromise of language use. She situated herself firmly in a target language only orientation by emphasising some supporting monolingual theories. As discussed in Section 5.2.3, she mentioned her preference for the immersion teaching programme, target language only and the creation of target language environment for learners (Excerpt 5-2-7), which echoes some complementary schools' implicit One Language Only or One Language at a Time policy as mentioned in Li and Wu (2009). The MLCT continued with her rationale for holding this view. She mentioned that the classroom would not be a foreign language classroom if English is used continuously; and despite the fact that students' needs should be considered, the language that students want to hear cannot be used all the time just because they like it. Her monolingual view in language teaching comes from her education background as introduced earlier in Chapter 3. She was studying for a master degree in teaching Chinese as a foreign language. Therefore, it is assumed that she was influenced by the monolingual theories and the training that she received.

The reason why I describe her class as an interactional space is because although she adopted translanguaging practice to facilitate her teaching, as she is heavily influenced by the idea of immersive teaching programme according to her accounts, her orientation to language teaching is firmly guided by the monolingual principle (Howatt, 1984); and the purpose of using translanguaging is to achieve effective interaction with students rather than viewing it as a good practice in language teaching/learning. It suggests that on the one hand her cognitions do not agree with the idea of using more than one societally named languages in language classrooms; but on the other hand, she acknowledges the positive effect of translanguaging that she adopted in her teaching practice (Excerpt 5-2-4). It seems that there is inconsistency within her cognitions. There

is a more obvious contradiction between teachers' cognition and practices, which I will further discuss in Section 6.3.3.

Both teachers' reflection upon their multilingual teaching practices shows that drawing on students' full linguistic repertoire was not their first or ideal choice at the stage of course planning before they met their students. Their stance towards creating translanguaging space changed after their first language choice failed to communicate or teach in class. This suggests that the translanguaging space does not stay the same during the teaching and learning process. It is dynamic since the teachers adjust their language use by observing the classroom interactions.

In Section 6.1.5, the teaching practice of translation was discussed together with translanguaging practice. Although translation is identified as facilitated by and embedded in translanguaging, and the translation practice adopted by teachers are purposeful and personalised, the translanguaging space created in translation practice is very limited due to restrictions on lexical choice or other resources that can express meaning. This finding concurs with the argument in Baynham and Lee (2019), which points out that "translanguaging spaces are not always free spaces and have the potential to be sanctioned and regulated by the kind of dominant language ideologies…in relation to translation" (p.58).

Compared with the use of language, other aspects of semiotic resources are recognised and advocated by the class teachers in my study. The discussion in Section 6.2.3 demonstrate that teachers deploy simultaneous embodied gestures, mime, and mental pictures to teach. Specifically, they compare Chinese strokes to mental pictures; and provide embodied gestures to teach Chinese Pinyin in their "own way", and so on. Through deploying a range of resources creatively (Li, 2011), they open up the translanguaging space for students in order to make meaning.

To conclude, it appears to me that some class teachers in my study have a monolingual mind-set, but they enable the use of translanguaging in practice. In other words, despite the fact that there is a wide use of translanguaging practice as I noticed from the analysis of the classroom data, findings of interview data analysis show that teachers' stance on creating translanguaging space is not that positive. However, in terms of using multimodal resources to create a

translanguaging space, both class teachers have a relatively positive stance, which is consistent with their classroom practices. The discussion in this section not only extended the understanding of translanguaging from the multimodal perspective in the context of language classrooms, but also provided a more integrated way of examining the concept of translanguaging, that is, in-depth examinations of both the language on the surface and the underlying factors below.

6.3   Factors influencing translanguaging practice

Introduction

This section discusses around the third research question: What factors influence the teachers' practice of translanguaging? It mainly draws on the findings of interview data in Chapter 5. After summarising the main findings and discussing the question, I make a comparison between the teachers' actual language practices in the class and their accounts of their practices.

6.3.1 A summary of the main findings

As indicated in Chapter 5, the influencing factors do not remain the same throughout the teaching process. In other words, different factors influence teachers' language at different stages. Generally speaking, there are four major factors that were identified through the analysis of interview data: teachers' and students' background, teaching content, students' response and effective communication.

In my study, findings about teachers' language decision making echo the descriptive model of teaching in Freeman (1989, see Figure 8 below). As teachers' accounts indicate, the sociocultural aspect influences their language choice heavily in the process of trying out, observing and reflecting on their teaching method. Both case studies in Chapter 5 suggest that (a) sociocultural background, (b) teaching experience and (c) understanding of specific language teaching methods are three main influencing elements that teachers' language choices are built on. Freeman (1989) emphasises the flowing process of teaching which involves constant shifts, negotiations, actions and responses (p.36). What my study adds on to this teaching model is the layers outside classrooms and schools. My findings highlight the dynamic flow brought by the sociocultural aspect which might constantly let teachers revisit their decisions.

Descriptive Model of Teaching
The Constituents

AWARENESS triggers and monitors attention to:

ATTITUDE
a stance toward
self, activity, and others that
links intrapersonal dynamics with
external performance and behaviors

SKILLS ———————————— KNOWLEDGE

the *how* of teaching:

method
technique
activity
materials/tools

the *what* of teaching:

subject matter
knowledge of students
sociocultural/
    institutional context

Knowledge-Transmission
—View of Language Teacher Education—

Figure 8 Descriptive Model of Teaching: The Constituents in Freeman (1989, p.36)

In the sections of ecological perspective on translanguaging and ethnography study (Section 2.5 & 3.1.2), I pointed out the complexity and diversity of studies in educational settings, especially in multilingual and multicultural classrooms where the sociocultural influence is even more influential. Sociocultural background is not only reflected in teachers as individuals, but also reflected in the interaction between teachers' and students' background in classrooms. Compared to the "big culture", the "small culture" in Holliday (2013) can be used to describe the impact of culture communication on teachers' decision making in classrooms. According to Holliday (2013), small culture formation happens all the time and is a big essence of being human:

> Small cultures are cultural environments which are located in proximity to the people concerned. There are thus small social groupings or activities wherever there is cohesive behaviour, such as families, leisure and work groups, where people form rules for how to behave which will bind them together. Small cultures are the basic cultural entities from which all other cultural realities grow. Wherever we go we automatically either take part in or begin to build small cultures. (p.3)

Both teachers and students co-construct the small culture as we can see that teachers' language choice is influenced by different factors at different teaching stages. Decisions are made by taking students' sociocultural background and response into consideration. Before meeting students, both class teachers have their preliminary plan of their language choice in classrooms. The plan is influenced by their previous experience and background. That is, teachers map their earlier experiences onto their current practices.

For the LLCT, she transferred her experience of teaching her children Chinese language at home to her classroom. Specifically, building on the Chinese ethnic identity that she ascribed for her children, she felt that there is a need for them to learn Chinese language. Therefore, she started to teach her children Chinese language at home. Then, based on what she had learnt from her teaching experience at home, she improved her teaching practice accordingly. For example, children who were born in the British society have limited Chinese language knowledge so that she needs to be careful to judge the amount of Chinese language used in class, otherwise students may lose their interest. In this case, factors of students' background and their interests decide her initial language choice.

For the MLCT who has been trained and educated as a professional Chinese language teacher, she transferred her theoretical background to her classroom. For example, influenced by the monolingual theory, she thinks that the target language should be used as much as possible in language classes. She positions herself as a professional teacher, based on which point, she believes that she speaks from a professional perspective. For some teaching activities, she supposes that there are particular modals that can be applied universally (for example, using particular embodied gestures to teach tones). Therefore, as she is heavily influenced by the immersion program (Swain, 1997), she believes that students would benefit from a classroom in which the target language is used as much as possible.

The situation changed after both teachers met their students - their language changed accordingly. It shows that students' response and teachers' further knowledge of students' sociocultural background are two main factors that influence both teachers' adjustment to their language choice. This change suggests the flow and interactive nature of classrooms (Hanks, 2017; Holliday,

2013; Holliday et al., 2010). The implication that came through the discussion so far in this section is that teachers should be aware of the sociocultural aspects with regard to its influence upon their decision making. Teachers' decision at earlier stage might only be influenced by the big culture, i.e. what they think of students and classroom. But in actual practice, for each class, even for each student, teachers need to be self-criticised (Hanks, 2017, p.251) and reflect on their teaching practice against students' background constantly.

It is the reflection that constructs teachers' teaching experience. Eraut (1994) describes the importance of teachers' reflection

> Their reflections on their own experience of schooling are not the only important component of this theoretical pre-knowledge. Many other aspects of their lives will have contributed to their 'knowledge of people' and their 'theories of human behaviour'. (p.60)

In my study, because of the teachers' different teaching background and professional understanding of teaching methods, it can be seen that although both teachers believe that translanguaging is a useful practice, the purpose and the way that the two teachers use it are not exactly the same. Moreover, despite the fact that translanguaging practice is inevitable in language classrooms, class teachers still hold their opinion that more target language should be used. In 6.1.1, I mentioned teachers' similar practice underpinned by different beliefs. In 6.2.1, I mentioned the consonance and dissonance of teachers' espoused beliefs and beliefs in practice. Section 6.3.3 will carry on with the discussion of the relation between beliefs and practice.

I need to make it clear that the aim of raising the dissonance is not to advocate the consonance between espoused beliefs and beliefs in use because to some extent beliefs and practices do not necessarily compatible (Basturkmen, 2012; Basturkmen et al., 2004). What I am trying to convey is the implication for policy makers and teacher training institutions/organisations. As teachers obtain teaching methods and conceptions from their previous teaching experience or professional training, accepting those theories uncritically may discourage or impede "an analytical response to one's own teaching" (Eraut, 1994, p.71). So there is a need for policy makers and training institutions to make teachers aware of the latest core theories in relation to language teaching and other related subjects so that teachers could make their decisions based on their own examination of their class and students.

6.3.2 Research question three: discussion

As discussed in Chapter 2, in language classroom settings, translanguaging studies focus more on how learners benefit from multilingual and multimodal resources that are enabled and provided by class teachers (Creese and Blackledge, 2010; García and Kano, 2014; García and Li, 2015). From the language users' perspective, the third research question of my study explores the factors underneath teachers' translanguaging practices.

First, it examines the underlying factors that influence teachers' practice. It also touches the perspective of teachers' cognitions which inform their language use. This research question analyses and discusses translanguaging practices from a bottom-up perspective. By drawing on an ecological perspective on translanguaging, I examine factors at different layers. In order to understand translanguaging from a broad view, such examination is crucial.

Second, by comparing the classroom data with the interview data, we can see whether translanguaging practices are necessary or not, both for language teachers and learners. Furthermore, studying teachers' reflection reveals the mutual relationship between beliefs and practice, that is, how teachers' beliefs influence their translanguaging practice; and how their reflection upon those practice influence teachers' beliefs.

6.3.3 Inconsistency between beliefs and teaching practices

Findings in Section 6.3.1 indicate the inconsistency through examining teachers' teaching practices and their reflection on those practices. The inconsistency exists between language teachers' expression of promoting the use of target language and their translanguaging practices that L1 is used more frequently. This finding is consistent with the results in Khejeri (2014) and Martínez et al. (2015) as mentioned in Chapter 2. According to the class teachers' accounts in my study, it is the students' lack of proficiency in Chinese language that contributes to this mismatch.

Both cases in Chapter 5 suggest a similar tension between the teachers' monolingual paradigm (Deroo and Ponzio, 2019) and their actual translanguaging practices in a way of deploying more than one societally named language. Compared with the LLCT, the MLCT expressed stronger opposition

towards the use of L1 in the interview. She has a very strong and explicit beliefs about language use in language classrooms. She said "如果他听懂能听懂汉语为什么还要用英语呢？肯定是用他的目的语言，尽量的用目的语. *<if he can understand Chinese language, why (should I) use English? The target language must be used, (or) try to use the target language as much as possible>*" (see Excerpt 5-2-1). One of her rationales for using target language is to avoid students' reliance on L1 if too much L1 is provided by teachers. It seems that the use of L1 is a negative issue for the MLCT. However, as indicated in Section 5.2.3, the analysis of the MLCT's classroom data shows that she did not use large amount of Chinese language to teach or communicate in her class. Most identified Chinese language that she adopted are teaching objectives in relation to language education, which had to be said in Chinese to meet her teaching purposes. Here, her firm beliefs about classroom language and inconsistent practices suggest a strong contrast. Drawing on the point made in Eraut (1994) in relation to the influence of teachers' previous experience upon their teaching practice, the teaching methods that the MLCT had gained from her leaning background which trained her to be a professional Chinese language teacher made her insist on what she believes.

As indicated earlier in this section, both teachers claimed that they could not use the target language as they had expected because students were not competent enough to understand what they said. If this is the case, then students in higher level are supposed to be more competent in the target language and therefore should be exposed to more Chinese language that is spoken by their class teacher. However, findings in my study do not support this argument. As discussed in Chapter 5 (Excerpt 5-1-3), there is a lack of evidence to believe that the longer a student learns a language, the less they rely on their L1. The analysis of the classroom data supports this point. Classroom data analysis shows that the HLCT used the most Chinese language. In the HLCT's class, she adopted longer Chinese sentences or chunks. However, there is no significant difference in terms of the amount of Chinese language that was used in the LLCT and MLCT's class. Rather, the LLCT used more Chinese language than the MLCT. Therefore, we can see that students' language ability is indeed one of the

factors that influence teachers' language use. Nevertheless, we cannot infer that the use of L1 is unnecessary for students when their ability is improved.

The identified inconsistency in language teachers' beliefs and their practices echoes the point made in Deroo and Ponzio (2019) that "while both teachers 'embodied ideologies of linguistic hybridity and pluralism' consistent with translanguaging, they also 'explicitly articulated ideologies of linguistic purism' associated with monolingual paradigms" (p.3).'

To conclude this section, teachers' monolingual paradigms are firmly rooted in their previous experience which later acts as one of the factors that influences teachers' translanguaging practices in language classrooms. However, although the teachers in my study have certain beliefs and understandings about what they should do in classrooms, their actual practices are not always in line with what they claim. This section contributes to the literature on translanguaging in respect of the close examination of language users' rationales for deploying multilingual and multimodal resources to make meaning. It also investigates the factors that influence the adjustment of translanguaging practice in a dynamic process.

6.4   Additional findings

Introduction

In addition to the findings mentioned above, there are some other salient findings emerged from my data analysis. This section highlights two more findings. First, I deepen the understanding of translanguaging and put forward the tension that I identified through discussing the existing literature on translanguaging and the findings in my study. Second, I take a step back to look at the holistic picture of language, language users, language teaching, translanguaging; and how these features work in the context of a Chinese complementary school. Finally, I reflect on my overarching research questions by bringing my three areas of discussion together (i.e. translanguaging practice, communicative repertoires, and factors that influence translanguaging practice).

6.4.1 Translanguaging in language educational contexts

In terms of the translanguaging practice in multilingual contexts, people draw upon a repertoire that comprises element of different languages. In language teaching settings however, teachers have a sense that they focus on the

teaching of a particular language and they separate or keep certain language quite strictly from other languages in students' linguistic repertoire. Discussions above indicate that when teachers were talking about the beliefs about their language, they said that the Chinese language has to be kept away from English because it is Chinese language classroom. However, when they were actually teaching, how separately they were with regard to their language practice varies from class to class and from teacher to teacher. The argument that I want to make is the tension exists between multilingual contexts where language are not kept separately and language teaching contexts where teachers' beliefs suggest language separation whereas their practices vary in different situations.

From the language teachers' perspective, my findings suggest that the teachers treat the English and Chinese language as functionally separate, especially at initial stages when they prepare the lessons. Class teachers in my study teach language as the subject. The data analysis shows that their understanding of language is mainly based on the linguistic features (phonetic, lexical, syntax, etc.). Next I provide evidence to elaborate this argument.

I examine the class teachers' language practice from two stages: at early stages when teachers prepare their class, and in the process of teaching. It appears to me that for both teachers, their cognitions of language use are different in these two stages. That is to say, before the class, their cognitions are influenced by the prior experience and teaching content as discussed earlier. After they enter the class, their language use is no longer dominated by their cognitions, rather, there is a need for a flexible use of language in classroom interactions, which provides a space for translanguaging practice. This is what I mean by defining translanguaging as "situated" practice in Chapter 1.

For both teachers in my study, they emphasised that their original intention is to get students speak and receive more Chinese language (Excerpt 5-1-1, Excerpt 5-2-1). At this stage, the teachers' focus is on their teaching content (i.e. the linguistic knowledge that needs to be delivered to students). As the classroom data illustrates, teachers' teaching content include Pinyin (phonetic) in the LLCT and the MLCT's classroom, Chinese characters (lexical) in the LLCT and the HLCT's classroom and sentence patterns or structures (syntax) in the MLCT's classroom. All these elements construct the target language, which is also these teachers' main concern before they pass these linguistic knowledge to students.

That is, it seems that teachers' understanding of the target language stays at the level of separated named language (Otheguy et al., 2018) since teachers view language as their teaching objectives. Drawing on the assumption in Baynham and Lee (2019) in relation to the "above" language "in the shape of monolingual" (p.26), language is seen as separated linguistics parts rather than dynamic procedures. However, with the development of teaching activities, the target language does not stand alone in the context. Rather, it is situated in the interactions that take place between teachers and students. Therefore, it seems that there is a distinction between language as an object of study and language as process or languaging (Swain, 2006) which I am now moving to.

In the process of teaching and learning, teachers constantly adjust their language use in order to cater students' needs and achieve their teaching and communication purposes. Meanwhile, while the teachers obtaining more knowledge about students' sociocultural background, language ability, interest, and motivation, their focus starts to move from planning linguistic knowledge at previous stages to giving instructions in real classrooms. This is supported by the inconsistency that I discussed in Section 6.3.3., which suggests that teachers went against their monolingual paradigm and adopted translanguaging practices to meet students' need. This change concurs with the change of teachers' original views as described in Kumaravadivelu (2001).

It seems that there is an implicit change of teachers' beliefs about language and language teaching before and after their actual teaching practice as I discussed in Section 6.3 and elsewhere regarding teachers' beliefs. However, as Borg (2006) points out that the change of behaviour does not imply a cognitive change. The analysis of the interview data (Chapter 5) shows teachers' emphasis on particular teaching content (i.e. Pinyin, characters, and sentence structure), which indicates that the teaching objectives – the target language for them was still explicitly viewed as functionally separate from students' L1. However, it appears to me that this beliefs about language was weakened due to their shift of focus.

To conclude, from the class teachers' perspective, they do not view their language use as the practice that flexibly draws upon their or learners' linguistic repertoire, at least at the initial stages of their teaching. The reason for this is that teachers mainly focus on certain language as the teaching subject. However,

their beliefs about language are adapted but not completely changed when language is put in the context of classroom procedures. Once language is situated in an interactional context, it is used unavoidably and flexibly by drawing on teachers' and students' entire linguistic repertoire and other aspects of semiotic repertoires to make meaning as how the idea of translanguaging views language, even though the functional separation still exists. Based on the investigation of classroom language, this section critically examines the deployment of translanguaging in language educational context, from language users' view. The discussion further shows the tensions of the current translanguaging theory in different contexts (i.e. multilingual and language educational context. Through discussing the class teachers' understanding of language at different stages, it appears to me that this tension exists throughout all the teaching stages. However, as discussed above, in the process of classroom interaction that occurs between teachers and learners, the tensions are less obvious.

6.4.2 A discussion of Chinese complementary schools

Having mentioned in Chapter 1, that despite the wide use of translanguaging in Chinese complementary schools, very few studies investigate the language use in this particular context. Now I move on to provide a discussion of the context of my study: Chinese complementary schools in the UK. I mainly discuss three points: my general observation throughout this study, parents' motivation for sending their children to this type of school, and class teachers' orientation towards students and towards their professional identity.

First, throughout the data collection phases, one of my major reflection on this context is its complexity and superdiversity. This not only rests on the linguistic and sociocultural diversity, but also on the uniqueness of each individual and the school's inclusiveness of such uniqueness. Teachers are 'autonomous' since lessons are prepared by themselves which do not need the approval of others in the school; their teaching are not supervised or evaluated by any people who have authority in language education; they can take time off at any time if they have more important things to do. Students at this school have different nationalities, religious beliefs, language backgrounds, and birthplace and so on. They gather here to learn Chinese language for various reasons. Some study for GCSE or A level qualifications; some only for basic communication. I have also

seen a couple of students who returned to Chinese schools after they have stopped learning Chinese language for years. Factors that changed their learning motivations including their age, the people who they have contact with, their change of situations, and so on (Li, 2011). Students' low motivation in attending Chinese schools (Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Maguire and Curdt-Christiansen, 2007) is sharply contrasted by their highly motivated parents. Based on my knowledge, a majority of students are sent to these schools by their parents but not by their own will.

In some private conversations with teachers who are also the parents of students in this school, they told me that they have to push their children to learn Chinese language in this type of school. Therefore it seems that compared with students, their parents are more motivated. Interview with the LLCT indicates the social dimension to this issue (see Excerpt 5-1-1). However, this point needs being further studied.

As discussed in Section 6.3, language teachers' beliefs are one of the influencing factors that inform their use of language. Findings show that teachers' understanding of students also influences their teaching activities, which supports the reciprocal relationship between teachers' identity and students' identity (Abdi, 2011; Cummins, 2001; Varghese et al., 2005). Excerpt 4-2-1 and Excerpt 4-2-2 illustrate that the students refused to accept or did not receive the information that the teacher was trying to convey. From the class teacher's perspective, she believes that the reason why students did not correct is because they are "lazy" (see sub-theme 1 in Section 5.2.3). Her description of students as lazy learners stopped her further correction of students' pronunciation. In addition, giving students this identity also prevented her from exploring other reasons which might lead to the same situation as discussed in Section 6.2.3.

In terms of class teachers' orientation towards their professional identity, I mentioned in Chapter 1 that teachers have weak recognition of themselves as 'legitimate' teachers in Chinese complementary schools (Wu et al., 2011). However interestingly, there is a noticeable difference between this recognition and the MLCT's self-positioning as Chinese language teacher according to the analysis of the interview data. Findings suggest that the professional position of the MLCT informs her teaching and educational background. In addition, this

orientation guides her throughout her teaching practice, which seems to be an impact on her translanguaging practice.

6.4.3 Reflection on the overarching research questions

My study had a close examination of the theory and the practice of translanguaging. I planned to describe how day-to-day translanguaging practice takes place in language classrooms by drawing on the existing concept of translanguaging critically. In addition, from "below", I hoped to explore the factors that have an impact on translanguaging practice. By examining these two aspects together, I not only look at language on the surface but also understand language phenomenon from a cognitive perspective. My research questions were developed from the gaps that I identified in relation to the concept of translanguaging. It appears to me that few studies focus on how translanguaging takes place and for what specific purposes people deploy translanguaging in different contexts. Therefore, my study examined both the translanguaging practice from "above" and the underlying influencing factors from "below" (Baynham and Lee, 2019).

To begin with, my data analysis suggests that there are tensions in the concept of translanguaging. I need to point out that the tensions exist in specific research context (i.e. language educational context). In the process of developing those tensions, I came across the insider's and outsider's perspective on translanguaging (Otheguy et al., 2015), which I drew on to explain the identified tensions. This shows that for some language teaching practices that are not studied as translanguaging (those practices refer to scaffolding, drills and translation in my study), by looking at those practices through the lens of translanguaging, they can be seen as embedded moments in the dynamic translanguaging procedures (Baynham and Lee, 2019). Therefore, in the field of translanguaging studies, my study has its potential contribution to develop the understanding of translanguaging practice in language classrooms: it moves the field forward from seeing translanguaging as language practice to a conceptualised theory that is used to describe and understand language practices. Moreover, this discussion is not limited to those three teaching practices in language classrooms as indicated in earlier sections, which points out the implication for future studies.

Furthermore, with the help of field notes, the creative deployment of multimodality is identified in language classrooms. This aspect of translanguaging has been studied in other research contexts, but not in bilingual or multilingual classes. I found that the multimodal resources are widely and creatively used by class teachers to make meaning in language classrooms. In most cases of my study, it is used simultaneously with oral explanation. Looking at the integrated use of multilingual and multimodal resources through the lens of translanguaging, the boundaries between different modes are weakened. They depend on each other to achieve teaching and communication purposes, which also provide a new direction of investigating translanguaging practice (i.e. breaking the boundaries among modes through focusing on how a wide range of modes work together to make meaning)

In addition, through looking at language from "below", findings in my study suggest that individuals' deployment of translanguaging is rooted in their sociocultural and historical backgrounds. In other words, the deployment of multilingual and multimodal resources is critical, creative, and personalised based on teachers' dynamic evaluation of students. Despite the fact that there is a translanguaging space created by teachers, the space is not always open and positive because of teachers' teaching content and their beliefs about language teaching. Moreover, people's cognitions have a great influence on their translanguaging practices. However, the cognitions are not necessarily consistent with their practice. Discussions around this issue not only highlight the complexity of multilingual language classrooms, but also encourage teachers, policy makers and teacher training institutions to be aware of the factors that behind the scenes.

In short, my study first investigated the challenges and tensions of the concept of translanguaging. Meanwhile, I explained those identified issues by drawing on relevant theories that looks at the same phenomenon differently. I linked class teachers' translanguaging practices with other identified teaching practices and described how they mutually embedded into each other (Baynham and Lee, 2019). Second, I pointed out the coexistence of multilingual and multimodal communication in complementary school classrooms. I also examined how those integrated features work with each other to convey meaning. Third, by looking at the translanguaging practices and users' reflection upon those practices, I

suggested a new angle to look at the concept of translanguaging, from which users' reasons and purposes of deploying translanguaging were examined.

Summary

In this chapter, I discussed and answered my research questions by bringing together the classroom data analysis in Chapter 4 and the interview data analysis in Chapter 5. Throughout my discussion of the main findings in my study, I referred to the relevant guiding literature critically and indicated the potential contributions of my study which leads to the next chapter.

In Chapter 7, I will give a conclusion to my study, pointing out its contributions, implications, and limitations. I will also indicate the directions for further research based on the discussions in this chapter.

Chapter 7 Conclusion

Introduction

This concluding chapter provides a critical summarisation of my study. In Section 7.1, I look back and reflect on the chapters that is included in this thesis. I review my research questions and summarise my key findings and arguments. Section 7.2-7.4 critically evaluate this study in terms of its contributions, implications, and limitations. Based on what I have achieved so far in this study, Section 7.5 points forward to directions for further research with my suggestions. I finish this chapter with my final reflection on conducting this research.

7.1 Thesis summary

This eight-month longitudinal and qualitative research was designed to examine the theory and practice of translanguaging by looking closely at the translanguaging practice in a Chinese complementary school in the United Kingdom. By critically drawing on the idea of translanguaging as bilingual pedagogy, this thesis had the aim of exploring what are the day-to-day translanguaging practices in language classrooms.

Chapter 1 provided the contextual foundation of this thesis. Based on my understanding of Chinese complementary schools in the United Kingdom, I described the linguistic and cultural diversity both in the UK and in Chinese complementary schools. Chapter 2 set out the theoretical discussion which guides my conceptual understanding of translanguaging in this particular context. In Chapter 3, I discussed the methodological framework of my study. With the contextual and theoretical background that I had involved in the first three chapters, Chapter 4 started with the analysis of classroom data; and Chapter 5 illustrated two case studies through analysing the interview data of two teacher participants, in respect of their translanguaging practices in classroom. To further discuss my findings by drawing on the existing literature as introduced in Chapter 2, Chapter 6 considered the research questions and presented a critical summary of the main findings.

My research questions investigate three aspects of translanguaging which have thus far been touched on less in the relevant literature, especially in the context of Chinese complementary schools. The first question examines translanguaging in use, which not only describes translanguaging as a dynamically and flexibly

used practice or pedagogy, but also looks at how, the actual translanguaging practices are pedagogic and helpful; and how individuals' linguistic repertoire is deployed by class teachers. Discussions around this question suggest that in language educational contexts, users' translanguaging practice with regard to the deployment of their linguistic repertoire should be viewed and interpreted critically. The second research question focuses on the multimodal resources that translanguaging draws on in language classrooms. What we have already known is that the theory of translanguaging describes individuals' deployment of a wide range of communicative repertoires to make meaning, but how the linguistic repertoire and other semiotic repertoires work with each other to construct meaning in educational settings; and how teachers see their use of different resources is the potential contribution of my study. Through investigating teachers' translanguaging practice in language classrooms and class teachers' reflection on their practice, I illustrated how language and other semiotic repertoires were combined seamlessly by teachers. This investigation also emphasised the importance of multimodal resources in language classrooms, which is a less touched area in translanguaging studies. Since the concept of translanguaging is founded on a user-centred perspective, the third question deals with the underlying factors that influence people's translanguaging practice, which helps us to identify users' beliefs and cognitions in respect to their practice. Through analysing the visible changes that took place in classrooms and subtle changes in teachers' beliefs, this question explores both the obvious and hidden influencing factors. This examination not only allows us to further understand the complexity and subtlety of language teaching process, but also shows the significance of language users' sociocultural background and their beliefs about language teaching.

The analysis of the qualitative data collected in the fieldwork suggests that translanguaging is a useful and effective practice that is used widely and instinctively by language teachers. Moreover, teachers deploy a wide range of communicative repertoires to achieve their teaching and communication purposes. Another theme that emerged from my analysis of language teachers' interview data suggests that their beliefs about language, language teaching and learners greatly influence their translanguaging practices. Although these findings are generally compatible with the concept of translanguaging as an

effective communicative practice and a pedagogic approach, there are several areas in which they differ from other studies due to different understanding of translanguaging in terms of its use in different contexts, at different times and by different people. Specifically, my study is different from the original definition of translanguaging proposed by Williams who argues that L1 is used to support L2 learning in the context of mainstream education in Welsh; it is also different from García's attempt to argue against the inequality status of the minority language in the social and educational context. My study stands for the use of the language that students are more familiar with in the context of studying/learning a minority language as the subject.

7.2 Contributions to research

In this section, I describe the potential contributions of my study from two perspectives: theoretical contributions and methodological contributions.

Theoretical contributions

My study makes four major contributions to the literature on the theory of translanguaging. Ideas about translanguaging have changed a great deal over time, in particular in shifting its focus from language as code to a user-centred perspective, and from language classroom contexts to the streets. My study returns to the original conceptualisation of translanguaging. To begin with, this study investigated translanguaging practice in the context of a Chinese complementary school. It is different from the context of Welsh mainstream classrooms described by Cen Williams. It differs from Ofelia García's focus on the social justice-based argument proposing the deployment of translanguaging for the minority language. It is also different from a more recent example of work on translanguaging - the Tlang project where translanguaging is situated in "everyday way of making meaning" (Lewis et al., 2012b, p.641). My study has a similar orientation with Cen Williams's toward translanguaging in relation to the approach of using L1 to facilitate TL learning. However, rather than the minority language that is being marginalised by people in everyday interaction in the context of the studies mentioned above, the minority language and its culture in my study are taught and learnt while the language that learners' use in mainstream schools are cognitively marginalised by class teachers in language classrooms. Although my study supports the use of L1 as in Cen Williams's work,

the concept of translanguaging that I adopt is different from Williams. I understand classroom language practice from the multimodal perspective, and regards the flexible use of language as the deployment of language users' linguistic repertoire. I analyse and discuss classroom translanguaging practice by drawing on the insider's and outsider's perspective in Otheguy et al. (2015). Meanwhile, the examination of teaching Chinese language as a foreign language remains a relatively new field.

Secondly, my study is an in-depth investigation of translanguaging practice in language classrooms. It examines teachers' translanguaging practices in association with other teaching practices; this combined approach has not been attempted in previous empirical studies. Rather than adopting the concept that translanguaging is used as pedagogy in classrooms, I view this description critically by analysing the way that actual translanguaging practices work with other teaching practices. I take an approach that looks at the teaching practices through the lens of translanguaging, which provides a new way to see those practices. In addition, I identified the tensions that exists between the current concept of translanguaging in multilingual contexts and the translanguaging practice in language educational contexts.

Thirdly, my study makes contributions to the study of translanguaging in relation to individuals' semiotic repertoires by drawing attention to multimodalities and a wide range of resources. While the idea of using multimodal resources in classrooms is embraced by the concept of translanguaging, there is a gap in respect to the investigation of how users' integrate their language and other semiotic resources together to make meaning in language classrooms. By examining the multimodal resources adopted by teachers as an effective communicative method, this study fills the literature gap and points out the potentially and promising research directions in terms of multimodalities within the concept of translanguaging.

Lastly, in addition to the exploration of how communicative repertoires are presented by users' in classrooms, this study also examines the underlying factors that influence the deployment of translanguaging. That is, by adopting a user-centred perspective of translanguaging, my study not only provides a descriptive analysis of translanguaging practices on the surface, but also probes into the reasons why translanguaging is needed from the users' perspective.

Based on the literature that I have come across on translanguaging so far, no other research has asked learners about their purposes and reasons in relation to their translanguaging practices.

Methodological contributions

My study is an eight-month longitudinal study which almost encompasses the whole of the 2016-2017 academic year. It documents classroom language and activity of three different class levels in a large, fast developing Chinese complementary school. This long-term, large-scale classroom data collection contributes a relatively complete dataset. I describe in detail the procedures of my study design, data collection, and data analysis. The research design is robust and can be drawn upon in later studies. The reason is that as an insider of this context, I fully considered the features of Chinese complementary schools, including the time plan, the teachers' background, the students' characteristics and the pattern of data collection. This design proves to be efficient since according to my own and the participants' reflection. It minimises the impact on participants while allowing the classroom data to be collected as naturally as possible.

In addition, I record the participation of the researcher as an insider of this Chinese complementary school. From my perspective, I evaluate the strengths and weaknesses that an insider may bring to this research. I also highlight the usefulness of field notes in the fieldwork while conducting an ethnographic study. Field notes not only fill gaps that certain research methods cannot reach, but also help researchers to recall the scenes that occurred in the field, which benefits the process of data analysis.

7.3 Research implications

The study appears to support the argument for revisiting educators' ideology and practice. As can be seen in Chapter 2 and in some interview excerpts of my study, monolingual assumptions still dominant some educators' ideologies though it is less supported. Through this study, I attempt to raise their awareness of using more than one named language in language classroom; and hopefully make a change in their practice. Next, I explain the implications of my study from two perspectives: implications for class teachers and implications for school policy makers.

Implications for class teachers

As the main focus of my study is class teachers' classroom practice, I first suggest two implications from teachers' ideological and pedagogical perspective respectively. Based on the discussion of teachers' beliefs and their actual practices in Chapter 2 and 5, there is a need to call teachers' attention to their right and legitimacy to draw upon their and students' entire linguistic repertoire to teach and communicate. I want to make recommendations for teachers to develop a positive and open view towards a flexible multilingual ideology.

The recommendation not only stays at the ideological level, it also requests for translanguaging practice that should be in line with teachers' ideologies. Translanguaging practice is not limited to the use of linguistic repertoire, but to make meaning by drawing on a wide range of communicative repertoires (i.e. including both linguistic and other semiotic repertoires like signs, gestures, pictures, mime). Teachers are encouraged to create a positive translanguaging space by deploying multimodal resources, which emancipates language use and achieves teaching and communication purposes in classrooms.

Implications for school policy makers

Through this research, I hope to raise school policy makers' awareness, especially complementary school policy makers, that while they are aiming for the protection and promotion of certain heritage language, language brought by students and teachers to the classrooms should also be respected and supported. Policies driven by monolingual ideologies like OLON and OLAT policy might impede effective classroom communication and have negative influence upon students' learning motivation and outcomes. Therefore, policies should allow teachers to deploy more than one societally named language in classrooms; and encourage teachers to embrace a wide range of communicative resources to make meaning.

In addition, my study also recommends school policy makers for taking their responsibility to provide teachers with more teacher training. Improving teachers' engagement through training not only improves teachers' recognition of their position as a teacher in complementary schools, but also enables teachers to get access to more language teaching theories and strategies which can be drawn on in their future teaching activities. Since some participants in my study

have expressed their interests in the findings of this study, I plan to introduce my study to teachers who teach in Chinese complementary schools so that the ideas in this thesis can be spread among teachers. I am also considering to contact the organisations which united those Chinese schools together as introduced in Chapter 1. I hope that these implications can be valued in those organisations as well since the ideas that they transmit can influence more teachers and educators.

7.4 Limitations

I should stress that in the research design phase, my study has been primarily concerned with teachers' linguistic repertoire. Therefore, there is a lack of consideration of the learners' perspective, which calls for further research into this. In addition, audio recorders were designed to record the classroom interactions. The deployment of other semiotic repertoires that emerged from data analysis prove to be another significant finding. Although field notes provided great help in data collection, data analysis, and data presentation in this thesis, my study would have been more convincing with video data or pictures illustrating the gestures or other multimodal resources adopted by teachers.

A second constraint of the research design was the limited amount of teachers' interview data. Besides, I was unable to avoid one of the teacher participants' refusal of interview as mentioned in Chapter 3, which was a great disappointment since her classroom data could have been explored much deeper from her own perspective. But generally speaking, it would have been useful to have far more information about informal and open-ended type of interview data with other teachers in this Chinese complementary school rather than just three class teachers.

Thirdly, my study does not provide much information about the teachers' previous language learning experience and their previous training in relation to language teaching. It will benefit from future research by incorporating teachers' trajectory in the discussion of their translanguaging and teaching practices.

Finally, parents' perspective and the school policy documents are not included. As indicated in my study, parents play an important role in the context of complementary schools: both act as dual-role (i.e. teacher and parents) and their higher motivation of sending their children to those schools. My study only

includes those parents who have a dual-role in this school. The research would have been more comprehensive if it provides a fuller examination of the parents' perspective. In terms of the school's policy, as I mentioned earlier in this thesis, there is no formal language policy at this school. In other words, the policy is invisible or acts as a language tradition instead. However, developing a further investigation into those invisible policy or tradition would make this thesis more convincing

7.5 Directions for further research

As mentioned in earlier chapters, the concept of translanguaging is continually developing and still being critiqued by researchers with different understandings in different research contexts. My study is situated in a context where multiple languages, cultures, history and identities coexist and closely intertwine. As educational institutions where the minority language and culture are protected and promoted, the existence of complementary schools also have their social and cultural meanings. Therefore, future research into translanguaging practice might usefully focus on teachers' and students' social, cultural and historical orientations, especially on the influence of these factors' upon translanguaging practice in complementary school contexts. In addition, a fuller examination of language users' trajectory would also be helpful in terms of understanding translanguaging practices in language classrooms.

Furthermore, as suggested by Vogel and García (2017) that multimodality in the study of translanguaging is worth further investigations (p.13). The concept of translanguaging would be better understood if more studies could explore how individuals' linguistic repertoire work with other semiotic repertoires to make meaning.

Lastly, another possible area for further research would be research into an investigation of classroom interactions that both teachers' and learners' perspective are included. As language users, it is both parties that work together to establish the interactive space. Despite the fact that teachers might dominate classrooms and provide less opportunities for students to adopt their language flexibly, it would be more convincing to provide learners' perceptions and experiences with respect to their deployment of translanguaging or their reflection on teachers' use of translanguaging.

7.6 Research reflections

My study looks at classroom interactions in a Chinese complementary school through the lens of translanguaging. Throughout the research, I investigated, challenged and critiqued the theory of translanguaging. I tried to describe the translanguaging practices in this study with the existing definitions, however, I found that translanguaging is a conceptualised theory rather than a term which can be taken and applied to other contexts. That is to say, different people interpret this concept differently in different contexts. Rather than practices which are ready to be examined, translanguaging is a theory which provides ways to look at the same phenomenon from different perspectives. Translanguaging studies have different focuses even if within educational contexts since it not only has its pedagogical role. It is also adopted to argue for social justice.

Another two terms that I was struggling with defining them in this thesis is first language (L1) and mother tongue (MT) as mentioned in the section of a note on terminology in Chapter 1. I described the superdiverse and dynamic society where translanguaging is situated in my study. Due to the complexity of students' and teachers' social background, it seems that L1 and TL are out of date and place. The boundaries defining which language belongs to an individual's L1 or MT become very blurred. Again, this is one point why the concept of translanguaging is becoming necessary to describe language practice with a mixture of societally named languages. Meanwhile, I also experienced the profound influence of monolingual paradigm upon language teachers.

This study also made me reflect on my own professional values as a language teacher inside and outside of this complementary school. I became aware of the inconsistency between the multilingual theories that underpins my teaching practice and my classroom language that I had to use for various purposes. I reflected on some of my language practices where translanguaging occurred unpredictably and inevitably in dynamic classroom interactions. This invaluable experience will inform my future language teaching practice.

Conducting this research has been an invaluable learning experience for me. I have gained a deeper understanding of the theory of translanguaging and the related concepts. I have learnt about the complexities involved in doing research in educational contexts. This rewarding and exciting experience in undertaking

research with teachers and students has taught me that doing research is not linear, rather, sometimes it is confusing, overwhelming, and difficult to proceed, but finally those difficulties will be resolved by repeated thinking, effort, and intellectual reflection. It is the satisfaction from working out each tricky problem that motivated me to fulfil my research.

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Appendix 1 Information sheet

University of Leeds School of Education- Information sheet for Class Teacher

Research project: Translanguaging in a Chinese Community School

I wish to invite you to take part in this research project. Please take time to read the following information to help you decide if you wish to take part. If you have questions, please get in touch.

What is the purpose of the project?

This project is the main phase of my PhD study. The purpose of the project is to explore languages used by teachers and students in language classrooms. The major aim of research is to analyse different languages used in classrooms, which may develop into a potential pedagogy helping teachers to improve their teaching quality, helping students with better learning outcomes, and enhancing teacher-students relationship.

Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you are a class teacher with students attending Chinese complementary school in Leeds.

What will happen if I agree to take part?

If you agree to take part, I will ask for your permission to carry out research in your classroom. You will be given this information sheet to keep it with yourself. You will be requested to sign a consent form. You have full authority to withdraw from your participation before the end of the fieldwork if you want. In this case, data collected from you will be wiped out and you will not be involved in any further studies. The research will involve the following approaches to collect data over 12 months:

- September 2016-December 2016: classroom observations phase which will observe up to four lessons in your classroom with your permission
- January 2017-May 2017: classroom observations, audio-recordings, and interview phase which will involve up to four lessons in your classroom with your permission
- May 2017-Semptember 2017: Contingency time which may include follow-up interviews with teachers and students in your classroom with your permission

Will I be recorded, and how will the recording be used?

With your permission, I will take notes of classroom interactions during observation, and will audio record your lessons (in the 2nd phase) and our conversations in the interview. As this study focus on the different languages adopted by teacher and students, the recording will be used for later transcription and analyse. None of these approaches relates to any judgement or evaluation of your language ability or teaching practices. You can believe that all will be merely observation, listening and understanding. I will be the only person to write the notes and to get access to the raw recording. I will transcribe recordings so

that my supervisors can read it. I will change all the names so that no one else will be able to identify you or your school. I will check with you that you are happy for me to do this before I share any transcripts; if there are any things you are unsatisfied with, I will not share them. After I have finished doing the research, the recordings will be kept safely in a file at the university. The interview will be in the school, and you can feel free to select a time that suit you. If you feel uncomfortable to record anything during the conversations, please let me know freely, and I will switch it off. I will not show the results to anyone else, but I will write about and speak to other people from universities about them at conferences and seminars.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

The study will not involve any physical or social activities which may bring any harm to you, or young children. It will only include classroom observations, audio-recordings, and follow-up interviews. The researcher will not introduce any intervention in the classroom settings which may disturb teaching activities and school work of the students.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

Your participation in this project will definitely help me to answer the issues raised through this proposed study. The findings of the study may reveal helpful ideas about the language teaching and learning. During the field work, you may help me to identify some problems related to teachers and students adopting different languages during their lessons. I may also discover some ways to build a harmonious atmosphere in classrooms which may facilitate you in your teaching and your students in their learning.

Will my taking part in this project be kept confidential?

It is guaranteed that all information gathered through observation, audio-recording, and interviews will be kept confidential. Your name and the name of students will be kept anonymous in any form of reporting. The data may be shared with my supervisors from the university, however it will be shared by using university email. All the data will be stored on M drive with password protected and I will take special care of any paper work which will not be discussed with anybody from outside.

Who is organising and funding the research?

This research is being organised by myself, Yan Chu, under the supervision of Dr. James Simpson and Dr. Jean Conteh from the University of Leeds and is self- funded. If you wish to speak to me, please reply by my email: edyc@leeds.ac.uk or alternatively contact my first supervisor Dr. James Simpson: j.e.b.simpson@education.leeds.ac.uk

Thank you very much for reading this information sheet. I hope that you will enjoy taking part in this project and thank you for your time and interest.

Yours sincerely

Yan Chu

School of Education

University of Leeds

Leeds, LS2 9JT

Appendix 2 Consent form

Informed Consent Protocol for Class Teachers

Title of research project: Translanguaging in a Chinese Community School

Name of researcher: Yan Chu

|	*Please tick in the last column to show your agreements on each statement*	
1	I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet explaining the research project and I have had the opportunity to ask questions about the project.	
2	I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw before the end of the fieldwork without giving any reason and without there being any negative consequences. In this case, data collected from me will be wiped out and I will not be involved in any further studies. In addition, should I not wish to answer any particular question or questions, I am free to decline.	
3	I agree to take part in the observation phase from Sep. 2016 to Dec. 2016	
4	I agree to take part in the phase of observation, audio recording, and interview from Jan. 2017 to May 2017.	
5	I give permission for my classroom interactions and interviews to be audio recorded.	
6	I understand that my name and contributions to the research study will be kept strictly anonymous.	
7	I agree for the anonymised data collected from me to be used in the PhD thesis, future reports, publications or presentations.	
8	I agree to take part in the above research project and will inform the head teacher.	

Name of the participant: Name of the Researcher:

                                            Yan Chu

_____

Signature (date)   Signature (date)
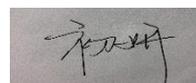
                                            19-11-2016

Appendix 3 Interview guide

Background:

1. How old are the students in your class?
2. Do you know the language(s) they know and use in different occasions?
3. What language(s) do you use in different occasions?
4. How many years have you taught in this school? How long have you engaged in teaching Mandarin?

About languages in classrooms:

1. (For lower level class teacher) I have observed you using Chinese in teaching Chinese characters, tones, and fitting learned words into English sentences, which are very interesting; can you tell me what motivate you in using different languages in classrooms and why?
(For middle level class teacher) I have observed you only using Chinese in making sentences, translation and some simple words like "还有吗<anything else>?" "什么<what>", which are very interesting, can you tell me what motivate you in using different languages in classrooms and why?
2. How do you choose between the languages English and Chinese to teach in your class? What influence the way you use language?
3. Did you make these choices consciously or unconsciously? If consciously, Can you give me an example to specify it?
4. (For lower level and middle level class teacher) I have observed you using some gestures in teaching tones, characters, and difficult expressions? Can you tell me why you used them in this way in these contexts?
5. Have students ever got lost while you speak Chinese or English? How did they deal with the situation if this happened? Will they put their hands up to ask or let it go?
6. What techniques do you use to make sure your languages are understood?
7. What languages do students use in your class when they speak and write? Have you ever tried to tell them to use Chinese or English? Do you ever tell them which language to use?

About emotional issues:

Have you noticed students' response to the languages you use in your lessons? What language(s) do you think students expect in Chinese classrooms?

About the influence of the audio recorder:

1. Did the audio recorder or my presence influence your teaching?
2. Is there anything in this study that influences you to some extent?

Appendix 4 Ethics reference

Performance, Governance and Operations
Research & Innovation Service
Charles Thackrah Building
101 Clarendon Road
Leeds LS2 9LJ Tel: 0113 343 4873
Email: ResearchEthics@leeds.ac.uk

UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

Yan Chu

School of Education

University of Leeds

Leeds, LS2 9JT

ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee

University of Leeds

31 January 2020

Dear Yan Chu

Title of study:	**Translanguaging as pedagogy in a Chinese complementary school**
Ethics reference:	**AREA 15-082**

I am pleased to inform you that the above research application has been reviewed by the ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee and following receipt of your response to the Committee's initial comments, I can confirm a favourable ethical opinion as of the date of this letter. The following documentation was considered:

Document	Version	Date
AREA 15-082 Fieldwork_Assessment_Form_low_risk_final_protected_nov_15.docx	1	15/03/16
AREA 15-082 YC information sheets.docx	1	15/03/16
AREA 15-082 Ethical_Review_Form_YC.doc	2	15/03/16
AREA 15-082 Appendix.docx	1	16/02/16

Please notify the committee if you intend to make any amendments to the original research as submitted at date of this approval, including changes to recruitment methodology. All changes must receive ethical approval prior to implementation. The amendment form is available at http://ris.leeds.ac.uk/EthicsAmendment.

Please note: You are expected to keep a record of all your approved documentation. You will be given a two week notice period if your project is to be audited. There is a checklist listing examples of documents to be kept which is available at http://ris.leeds.ac.uk/EthicsAudits.

We welcome feedback on your experience of the ethical review process and suggestions for improvement. Please email any comments to ResearchEthics@leeds.ac.uk.

Yours sincerely

Jennifer Blaikie

Senior Research Ethics Administrator, Research & Innovation Service

On behalf of Dr Andrew Evans, Chair, AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee

CC: Student's supervisor(s)

Appendix 5 A summary of data

		Time	Place	Participants	Numbers	Total
				Summary of Data		
Field notes	Phase One	02/10/2016	Middle level classroom (MLC)	Class teacher and 15 students (with one TA)	27 pages 12,049 words edited in Word Document	49 pages 20,753 words edited in Word Document
		09/10/2016		Class teacher and 19 students (with one TA*)		
		16/10/2016		Class teacher and 20 students (with one TA)		
		06/11/2016	Lower level classroom (LLC)	Class teacher and 23 students (with 2 TA)		
		13/11/2016		Class teacher and 21 students (with 2 TA)		
		20/11/2016		Class teacher and 21 students (with 2 TA)		
		27/11/2016	Higher level classroom (HLC)	Class teacher and 6 students		
		04/12/2016		Class teacher and 6 students		
		11/12/2016		Class teacher and 5 students		
	Phase Two	05/02/2017	MLC	Class teacher and 19 students (with one TA)	22 pages 8,704 words edited in Word Document	
		12/02/2017	LLC	Class teacher and 18 students (with 2 TA)		
		05/03/2017	HLC	Class teacher and 6 students		
		12/03/2017	HLC	Class teacher and 6 students		
		19/03/2017	HLC	Class teacher and 6 students		
		26/03/2017	MLC	Class teacher and 17 students (with one TA and one new student)		
		02/04/2017	LLC	Class teacher and 17 students (with two TA)		
		30/04/2017	MLC	Class teacher and 21 students (with one TA)		
		07/05/2017	LLC	Class teacher and 20 students (with one TA)		
	Phase Three	04/06/2017	HLC	6 higher level students	A sheet of A4 paper (handwritten)	Three pages for students interview
		15/06/2017	UoL	Middle level class teacher		
		18/06/2017	Chinese school	6 middle level students	A sheet of A4 paper (handwritten)	
		18/06/2017	Chinese school	6 lower level students	A sheet of A4 paper (handwritten)	
		21/06/2017	UoL	Lower level class teacher		

Classroom audio recording	Throughout Phase Two	2 hours for each lesson	See above in phase two	See above in phase two	9 recordings in 18 hours	18 hours
Interview audio recording	Students' group interviews	04/06/2017 19 minutes long	Chinese school	6 higher level students	80 minutes students group interview	152 minutes interview recording
		18/06/2017 25 minutes long		6 middle level students		
		18/06/2017 36 minutes long		6 lower level students		
	Class teachers' individual interviews	15/06/2017 28 minutes long	UoL	Middle level class teacher	72 minutes teachers individual interview	
		21/06/2017 44 minutes long	UoL	Lower level class teacher		
Transcription	Students' group interviews			6 higher level students	9 pages 1,800 words edited in Word Document	
				6 middle level students		
				6 lower level students		
	Class teachers' individual interviews			Middle level class teacher (in Chinese)	5 pages 4,948 words edited in Word Document	
				Lower level class teacher (in Chinese)	8 pages 9,107 words edited in Word Document	

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