THE USE OF ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA IN THE TEACHING OF CHINESE AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract

The Use of English as a Lingua Franca in the Teaching of Chinese as a Foreign Language

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With the rise of China's economy, the teaching of Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) has prospered in the past decade. The large influx of students of Chinese as a foreign language (CFL students) has brought different cultures and languages into the Chinese classroom. In the meanwhile, English has spread widely around the world, and the number of English speakers is increasingly growing, especially in the countries where English is taught and used as a foreign language. CFL students studying the Chinese language therefore are potentially English speakers, link the added potential for using English as an international lingua franca for assisting the learning of Chinese language and understanding Chinese culture.

This thesis provides a preliminary study of the use of English as a lingua franca (EFL) by CFL teachers and students. On the basis of a systematic review of the past studies of first language (L1) use in the second language (L2) class with sections on the L2 student, L2 teacher and L2 classroom, the thesis correspondingly discusses the CFL students' attitudes towards the use of

English for learning Chinese, CFL teachers' beliefs about the use of English for teaching Chinese, as well as the CFL students and teachers' communication through English in actual classroom settings. Despite the rigid regulation of using a Chinese-only pedagogy by the state language policy and teaching syllabuses, this study investigates whether ELF is playing a role as an alternating pedagogy in CFL class. It is one of few studies focusing on ELF as a teaching pedagogy for CFL teachers and students regardless of its controversial status as a default medium of instruction in CFL teaching.

Following primarily a multi-method research approach, three studies were conducted. In 2010 October, four universities in Beijing were surveyed. Quantitative and qualitative data were provided by 497 CFL students through questionnaires, 24 CFL teachers through in-depth interviews and four CFL classes through classroom observations.

Study one is a quantitative study examining the current situation with regard to the use of languages by CFL teachers and students and which practical goals that CFL teachers and students would more likely to achieve through an ELF pedagogy. It then focuses on describing CFL students' attitudes about using English and the possible factors influencing their attitudes. Results indicated that English is used for CFL students and their CFL teachers. This study suggests that the Chinese-only pedagogy is not fully abided by in actual teaching practices.

Study two is a qualitative study investigating CFL teachers' beliefs about ELF and how their identity has shaped these beliefs. Findings indicate that CFL teachers' beliefs of the use of ELF form a continuum of perspectives which following Macaro (2009) can be further classified into

three categories of beliefs: the virtual position, maximal position and optional position. Two types of identity, national identity and foreign language identify, are identified to be pertinent for explaining CFL teachers' beliefs about the use of ELF in CFL teaching.

Study three is a study of classroom observation describing the actual use of ELF in CFL classroom. It proposes three principles for CFL teachers and students to adopt an ELF pedagogy: for comprehension, for communication and for efficiency. It also has identified three major purposes to use ELF: the explanatory purpose, managerial purpose and interactive purpose.

This thesis concludes by pointing out directions for future studies on the judicious use of ELF pedagogy in CFL teaching. Findings of this study can help Chinese language teachers and educators, language policy makers and curriculum designers make future decisions to enhance the teaching and learning of Chinese as a foreign language. (201 words)

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis represents my own work, except where due acknowledgement is made, and that it has not been previously included in a thesis, dissertation or report submitted to this Institute or to any other institution for a degree, diploma or other qualifications.

Signed…….

Wang Danping (王丹萍)

Date:……August 05, 2011……

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF APPENDICES

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Aims of the research

Research about first language (L1) use in second language (L2) learning has been one of the most discussed topics in the studies of foreign language education, especially in the teaching of English as a second language (ESL). However, the discussion of alternating languages as medium of instructions in the teaching of Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL) is less studied. In CFL teaching, empirical studies suggest that English as a lingua franca (ELF) is becoming a dynamic pedagogy, though the Chinese-only pedagogy remains the regulating and overriding principles. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to describe the current situation with regard to the language use by CFL teachers and students and examine CFL teachers and students' attitudes towards the use of ELF.

1.2 Context of the problem

Plenty of studies have been done CFL teaching in the past few decades. Four leading journals in CFL in mainland China are thus produced, namely, 世界汉语教学 (*Chinese Teaching in the World*), 语言教学与研究 (*Language Teaching and Linguistic Studies*), 汉语学习 (*Chinese Language Learning*) and 语言文字应用 (*Applied Linguistics*). Searching through the four journals with key words of 对外汉语教学 (Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language) and 英语 or 英文 (English), between 1990 and 2010, more than one hundred related articles were found. However, most of these are cross-linguistic studies between the Chinese language and the English

language. Many of these studies are on people's opinions, anecdotes and intuitions, instead of empirical research approach. Few systematic studies are found on the use of ELF pedagogy and in which circumstances, for which purposes, in which way that English can be used to achieve practical goals, both for CFL teachers and students. Moreover, there is virtually no empirical research attempting to explore CFL teachers' and students' attitudes towards ELF use in teaching and learning CFL. The present research is designed to fill the above gaps, describing the actual situation of language choices for CFL teachers and students, eliciting CFL teachers and students' attitudes of English use, as well as demonstrating how they practice this ELF pedagogy in natural classroom settings.

1.3 Motivation for this research

A first degree in English linguistics and a master's degree in Chinese linguistics offer the researcher a great advantage and insightful knowledge in doing this research. The English and Chinese bilingual educational background enables the researcher to view and understand the use of English as a lingua franca in CFL teaching from a broader sense. The researcher's teaching practice, more specifically, the experience of helping CFL beginners overcome the difficulties in the initial stages and foster their interest in the study of CFL have also shed light on the design of this study. In particular, to reduce difficulties in understanding class for CFL students and between CFL teachers and students is one of the missions for doing this research. Further, the researcher's good knowledge about the research sites makes it easy to get access and identify participants for purposive sampling.

1.4 Significance of the research

China has become the fastest growing destination for college students studying abroad who have strongly interest in learning the Chinese language. The large influx of such students has made it imperative that teachers' pedagogical practices be examined in the light of the different cultures and languages brought into Chinese classroom by these students. Therefore, examining the issue of medium of instruction becomes very necessary. On the other hand, the wide spread of English around the world has resulted in many people using English as a lingua franca in cross-cultural communication. As a result, debates are unavoidable among teachers who teach such students using English as an international lingua franca for assisting their learning of Chinese language and understanding Chinese culture. This study integrates the study of internationalization of English with the teaching and learning CFL, by focusing on investigating whether English as a lingua franca plays a role as an alternating pedagogy in the CFL classroom. It brings the study of English of lingua franca to a new field of enquiry.

This study was constructed on the basis of a systematic review of past studies of language-of-instruction issue with sections on the L2 student, L2 teacher and L2 classroom. It correspondingly includes three empirical studies which have taken account of perspectives from CFL teachers, CFL students and CFL classrooms respectively. It is one of the few studies focusing English as a lingua franca as a teaching pedagogy for CFL teachers and students regardless of its controversial status as a default medium of instruction in CFL teaching. It is hoped that findings of this study can help Chinese

language teachers and educators, language policy makers and curriculum designers make future decisions to enhance the CFL teaching and learning.

1.5 Definition of terms

A clear definition of the technical terms involved in this thesis in the beginning is helpful for better understanding the development of the research.

1. Chinese language is widely known as 'Mandarin Chinese' and 'Modern Standard Chinese' in the study of linguistics. It will be referred to as 'Chinese' throughout the thesis.
2. Putonghua is officially defined as having 'Beijing speech as its standard pronunciation, the northern Chinese dialect, and modern Chinese literary classics written in vernacular Chinese as its grammatical norm' (National Linguistics Work Committee, 1996, p.12). Putonghua is spoken and taught as an official language in the People's Republic of China; and is also the target language for CFL teaching in China. However, this thesis shall use 'Putonghua' only in the discussion of language policy and use 'Chinese' to represent the target language that CFL students are studying in China.
3. Codeswitching occurs in bilingual or multilingual communities, as the students or teachers switch from one language to another in the same discourse. The term is used in this thesis in a broad sense, which includes language choice, language mixing and language switching between or among Chinese, English and their L1s.

4. Medium of instruction denotes the language used for teaching or learning a language, including the target language, the students' first language and/or a common language shared by teachers and students. However, this term will be redefined in this thesis.

1.6 Overview of the thesis

The thesis consists of nine chapters. Chapter one introduces the aims, research context, significance of research, motivation for doing this research and a definition of terms. Chapter two presents the research background of CFL from politico-economic, historical, linguistic and sociolinguistic angles. It then considers the national language policy and the questions of the medium of instruction in CFL. Chapter three introduces the development of ELF as a new research paradigm and defines ELF pedagogy on the basis of worldwide spread of ELF. Chapter four provides the literature review and sets the theoretical and analytical framework. Chapter five introduces the research design in general and the following chapters will provide detailed information for the rest part of study. This thesis compares three interrelated studies in order to provide a thick description for the research questions. Chapter six focuses on CFL students, Chapter seven on CFL teachers and Chapter eight on actual classroom practice. Chapter nine starts with a brief summary of this research, then discusses the research findings, makes conclusions, points out the limitations of the present research, and, lastly, puts forth suggestions for future study.

CHAPTER 2 RESEARCH BACKGROUND (CFL)

2.1 Politico-economic review

This section explains reasons for the worldwide fever for Chinese from a politico-economic perspective. It firstly introduces the promotion of Chinese internationally, describes the current situations of CFL teaching in China and ends by looking into the development of the CFL teaching in the future.

2.1.1 Chinese: Language of the millennium

China held the Olympic Games in 2008 and the World Expo in 2010. The state foreign exchange reserves amounted to 2.847 trillion American dollars by the end of that year and China surpassed Japan to become the world's second economy in the world. In April 2011, the International Monetary Fund predicted that China's economy will surpass America's by 2016, far earlier than most mainstream economists have been forecasting. Some analysts ridiculed the Fund's prediction, but others warned that it could happen even sooner. Davis (2003) analyzed the linguistic impact of the economic growth by calculating the proportion of world GDP that each language would account for. Such calculations raise many methodological questions, but some basic underlying trends are worth noting, in particular, the steady rise of Chinese. Figure 2.1 shows the predicted percentage of the global economy (GDP) accounted for by each language in 2010 according to Davis (2003, p.32).

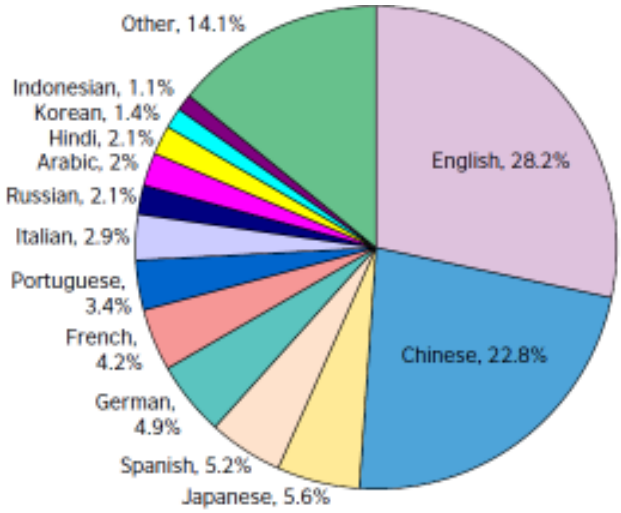

Figure 2.1. The percentage of the global economy accounted for by each language in 2010.

As Figure 2.1 shows, while English is a major language, it only accounts for around 30% of the world GDP, and is likely to account for less in the future. It indicates that neglecting other languages means ignoring quite significant potential markets, among which Chinese is becoming the most important. As China is now the most important export market of many countries within the Asia Pacific region and beyond, and is also their major source of inward investment, the ability to speak Chinese will be of growing importance for trade, diplomacy and cultural exchange. People need to understand different customs, even daily norms when doing business with China. The more they understand each other, the better people communicate.

Learning the Chinese language is riding a wave of popularity due largely to its great commercial potential. In many Asian countries, U.S. and Europe, Chinese has emerged as the new must-have language. Chinese has even been identified as the most important

language for the coming millennium. As Dr. Raymond Ravaglia, Deputy Director of Education Program for Gifted Youth at Stanford University remarked,

> Latin had been the most important language for the first millennium. English has been the most important one for the second millennium. We believe that Chinese will be the most important one in the third millennium. It would be stupid if people today could not be aware of the importance of Chinese (Pan Xinghua, 2007).

As China has become more integrated with and more attractive to the outside world with its rapid economic growth and increasing international influence, the Chinese government is itself on a drive to promote Chinese abroad in hopes of putting it on a par with English. Hu Youqin, a National People's Congress deputy and Chinese-language professor, called for promoting Chinese. Hu Youqin (Xing Zhigang, 2006) argued that 'promoting the use of Chinese among overseas people has gone beyond purely cultural issues. It can help build up our national strength and should be taken as a way to develop our country's soft power.'

2.1.2 CFL overseas

With the rise of China, growing numbers of people around the world are beginning to acquire Chinese as a foreign language. The *Report of the Language Situation in China*, released by the Chinese Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (henceforth, CME), first estimated that more than 30 million people all over the world were learning Chinese as a foreign language in 2005. This number has been growing dramatically in recent years. The report confirmed 40 million in 2006 and predicted 100

million of CFL students in 2010 (CME, 2006). This number is to be further confirmed by the issue of this year, which will come out by the end of 2011.

This process has been actively promoted by the Chinese government with the establishment of Confucius Institutes all over the world under the support of Hanban. Headquartered in Beijing, Hanban, the short title for The National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language was founded in 1987. It is under the direct auspices of the Chinese Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. The object of the Confucius Institutes (which are broadly modeled along the lines of British Council, Alliance Française and the Goethe Institute) is primarily the teaching of the Chinese language, including the training of CFL teachers, together with the promotion of Chinese culture. To better combine the teaching of the Chinese language and the promotion of Chinese culture, Hanban began to establish overseas Confucius Institute, in the form of institutes attached to 'local' universities. Since the first overseas Confucius Institutes were set up in 2004, a new Confucius Institute and Confucius classrooms (subordinate to the Institute) sprung up every four days on average. By October 2010, some 322 Confucius Institutes and 399 Confucius classrooms had been established in 96 countries and regions. They taught Chinese language and culture to about 260,000 CFL students outside China in 2009.

2.1.3 CFL in China

Within China, there has also been a surge of CFL students with numbers hitting a record high of 238,184 in 2009, according to statistics released by the China Association for

Foreign Students Affairs (CAFSA). CFL students, from 190 different countries, were studying in 610 universities and institutes in 31 provinces in mainland China (these figures exclude those studying in Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macau). Table 2.1 provides an overview of the demographics of CFL students enrolled in Chinese programs in China in 2009.

Table 2.1. Demographics of CFL students enrolled in Chinese programs in China in 2009. (Source: the China Association for Foreign Students Affairs)

By continent					
	Asia	Europe	America	Africa	Oceania
Headcount	161,605	35,876	25,557	12,436	2,710
Percentage	67.84%	15.06%	10.73%	5.22%	1.14%

By curriculum				
	Degree courses			Non-degree courses
	Bachelor degree	Master degree	Doctoral degree	
	74,472	14,227	4,751	
Headcount	93,450			144,734
Percentage	39.23%			60.77%

By nationality (top eight home countries)								
Headcount	Korea	America	Japan	Vietnam	Thailand	Russia	India	Indonesia
Percentage	64,232	18,650	15,409	12,247	11,379	10,596	8,468	7,926

CFL programs in various universities in China have been faring well, particularly in Beijing, the cultural, political, and educational center of the country. As one of the most popular places to learn Chinese, Beijing attracted 62, 786 college-age CFL students in 2009 from foreign countries, ranking the first among all cities in China. CFL programs in Beijing are mostly taught in universities and CFL students are studying Chinese for academic purpose, business, personal interest, etc. The Beijing Language University

(henceforth, BLU) is the only university in China which takes teaching and researching Chinese as its primary task.

Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (HSK) developed by BLU, or the Test of Chinese as a Foreign Language (TOCFL), is regarded as an authoritative test similar in nature to TOEFL. It is nationally recognized as a standardized test to assess the Chinese proficiency of non-native speakers (including foreigners, overseas Chinese and students from Chinese national minorities). The test aims to be a certificate of language proficiency for higher educational and professional purposes. The HSK test, through its washback effect, also promotes the systematic study of the standard Chinese language worldwide. The exam was launched for overseas candidates in 1991 and the interest by overseas candidates has grown rapidly since 2000, as showed in Figure 2.2.

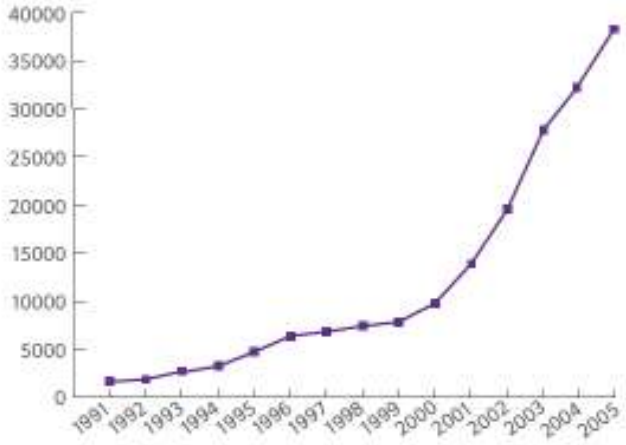

Figure 2.2. The number of overseas candidates taking the HSK.

2.1.4 CFL in future

The Chinese government published the *National Outline for Medium and Long-Term Education Reform and Development* (2010-2020) on July 29, 2010, which includes expanding international cooperation and higher-education exchanges. Self-funding international students are set to become the largest overseas group in China, as the country plans to attract 500,000 of them by 2020, after a series of bilateral educational cooperation programs launched in 2010. 'It is an attempt to implement China's 10-year national education outline and an important part of the county's diplomatic work to show Chinese culture to the global community', said Zhang Xiuqin (Chen Jia, 2010 September 28), the director of the Ministry's Department of International Cooperation and Exchange. Figure 2.3 shows these trends.

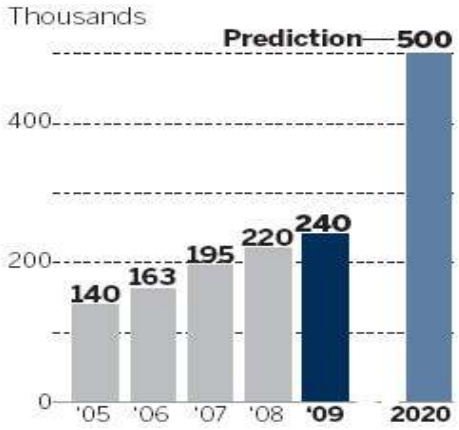

Figure 2.3. China looks to attract more foreign students.

During his visit to China in 2009, US President Barack Obama announced that the United States was committed to sending 100,000 more US students to study in China over the next four years. China is the fastest growing destination for college students

studying abroad. President Hu Jintao and his French counterpart Nicolas Sarkozy vowed on Nov 4, 2010 to work together to increase the number of French students studying in China by 10,000 over the coming five years (China Daily, 2010, November 11).

This is both an opportunity and a challenge to China's education. 'We encourage more presidents of universities, and heads of middle and primary schools to visit foreign countries and bring more of the Western educational concept to China,' Minister of Education, Yuan Guiren (Chen Jia, 2010, November 11) said. 'Internationalization of education is a part of educational reform in China,' he added. For this reason, the research drawn on established language learning and teaching theories, reflecting the discussions or debates ongoing in the field of foreign language education, in particular the teaching of English as a foreign language, could be valuable for developing the CFL cause.

2.2 Historical review

Chinese is an ancient language but teaching it internationally is relatively new. This section introduces the development of CFL teaching from a historical perspective dating back to ancient times. CFL teaching in the recent 60 years since the liberation of China will be described in a more detailed way.

2.2.1 Teaching Chinese in ancient times

In fact, CFL teaching in China has a history of more than two thousand years. It began in the Han Dynasty, flourished in the Tang Dynasty and resurged again in the Qing

Dynasty before the country was disconnected from the outside world in the late 1800s. Through history, it developed in two ways: through formal school education and through the spread of religion. The motive for spreading religion has played an important role. Buddhism, Islam, and the later spread of Christianity in China have all trained many world renowned western sinologists, who studied Chinese language and culture on their way to spread the religion in China.

In the Eastern Han Dynasty (25-220), the first surge of foreigners or other ethnic groups (i.e. the non-Han ethnic group) arrived to study Chinese as a foreign language. 四姓小侯学 (Si Xing Xiao Hou Xue), established in the year 66 CE, was the earliest school in history for teaching Chinese to foreigners (Fu Ke, 1986, p. 3). CFL teachers employed in this school were even more highly qualified than those in the imperial colleges. The reputation of the school soon spread abroad and the learning of Chinese as a foreign language became popular.

In the Tang Dynasty (618-907), CFL learning reached a peak. Emperors permitted classes to take place in the National Hall in the Imperial Academy. Foreigners took around six to nine years to study the Chinese language before moving to other subjects in Chinese. This model of CFL learning was followed in the following dynasties. The earliest CFL teacher deployed to teach Chinese overseas was the Monk Jian Zhen. After he arrived in Japan in 754, the Japanese emperor standardized the pronunciations of Kanji according to Jianzhen's accent. He was believed to have taught Chinese pronunciation in Japan. CFL students were from Tubo (Tibetan Tubo Dynasty), Silla

and Goguryeo (two of the Three Kingdoms of Korea); and hundreds of Japanese Buddhist monks were sent by the Japanese Government (715-748) to learn Chinese language for translating Buddhist scriptures. Students of Chinese even came from afar as today's Arab countries. Since Tazi (An Arab Kingdom) and China established diplomatic relations in 651, hundreds of thousands of Islamic missionaries learnt Chinese in Southern China and settled down. In late Ming Dynasty (1368-1644), Catholic missionaries from Portugal, Spain and Netherland started to come to China. Later, with the introduction of Christianity, the teaching of Chinese was further promoted.

In the Qing Dynasty (1644-1912), the Russian Studies Hall was set up in 1690 in the Imperial Academy and started to teach Chinese as a foreign language to four students from Russia. During the 18th and 19th centuries, European missionaries from Germany, France, Italy and United Kingdom came to study China and to spread religions, and the first and primary task they had to undertake was the learning of Chinese. Many world famous sinologists have reported their painstaking Chinese learning experience in their memoirs. Niccolo Longobardi, Michael Ruggieri, Jean Adam Schall von Bell, Joseph de Premare and F. Verbiest and Mateo Ricci have all endeavored to introduce western culture and science by writing in Chinese (Fu Ke, 1983, p.6). Historically, the reasons for learning Chinese mainly focusing on understanding Chinese culture, doing business, and spreading religions; CFL students mostly focused on training their speaking skills; while for translating scriptures, studying Sinology, writing skills were emphasized.

2.2.2 Teaching Chinese since 1949

Since the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949, CFL teaching developed quickly. The history of CFL teaching in China since 1949 can be divided into four stages.

2.2.2.1 Initial stage (1950 - 1966)

It was in 1950 that China opened its education system for the first time to international students. By the end of 1950, 33 international students came from Eastern Europe to the newly-founded China to study Chinese language for diplomatic purposes. Their arrival marked the beginning of the CFL teaching in new China. Under the direction of the Ministry of Education, a special course for Eastern European students in the Chinese language was set up at Qinghua University in 1950 in Beijing.

During the late 1950s and the early 1960s, many Asian, African and Latin American countries gradually established diplomatic relationships with China. International students of Chinese therefore mostly came from countries such as Viet Nam, Mongolia, North Korea, Kenya, Uganda, Cameron, Malawi, etc. At this stage, China took in 7,259 international students from 68 countries, as it shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. An annual record of foreign students during 1950 to 1965.

1950	1951	1952	1953	1954	1955	1956	1957
33	no record	230	504	324	327	473	167
1958	1959	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965
90	259	437	471	241	162	229	3,312

These seven thousand or more international students were mostly from socialist countries around the world, and the teaching of CFL was somewhat similar to a 'foundation course' preparing these students for entering universities in China. In order to meet the need of the fast growing number of international students of Chinese, the Beijing Language Institute was officially approved by the Department of Higher Education in Beijing in 1965, the predecessor of BLU.

The teaching method was an Adaptive Grammar-translation Approach. In order to practice the grammar-translation pedagogy, candidates for entering this Chinese language course who could speak either English or Russia were preferred (Cheng Yuzhen, 2005, p.58).The importance of foreign languages as a medium of instruction was highly valued. For example, in the Eastern European Chinese course, CFL teachers usually gave a class in English as medium of instruction to introduce Chinese grammar and assigned exercises for students to practice (Zhao Jinming, 2009, p. 219). Coming from five different countries, namely, Romania, Bulgaria, Poland, Czechoslovakia and Hungary, these 33 students of Chinese shared English as a common language. The earliest model of CFL classroom was bilingual in Chinese and English. This model is regarded as an effective pedagogy since the class was kept communicative. However, with the wide spread of Direct Approach, to give instruction in English was abandoned.

At this stage, the development of CFL teachers focused on training their foreign language competence and sending them to teach Chinese abroad. In 1952, Zhu Dexi, a

famous Chinese scholar, was deployed to teach Chinese in Sofia University in Bulgaria. He was the first CFL teacher sent by the Chinese government to teach Chinese overseas. However, along with the rapid rise of CFL teachers going overseas, many countries started to require CFL teachers with high foreign language competence. For this reason, in 1961, the Chinese government selected 35 top Chinese majors, and gave them 3-year foreign language programs including in English, French, Arabic and Spanish before sending them abroad to teach Chinese. Nevertheless, the Ministry of Education soon realized that it was very difficult for Chinese majors to command a foreign language in only three years and decided to set up a bachelor degree course in 1964, primarily for training qualified CFL teachers to teach Chinese abroad (Cheng Yuzhen, 2005, p.86). Foreign language competence was believed to be a primary skill for CFL teachers, whether for teaching foreigners Chinese in China or abroad. CFL teachers were encouraged to learn a foreign language as well as to increase language awareness for teaching CFL more effectively. Unfortunately, all programs of teaching Chinese as a foreign language in China were halted by the Cultural Revolution from 1966 to 1976.

2.2.2.2 Resumption stage (1972 - 1977)

With China's admission to the United Nations in 1971, and President Nixon and Prime Minister Tanaka Kakuei's much publicized visit to China in 1972, China resumed diplomatic communications with many 'capitalist' countries. This called for CFL teaching again. In October 1972, Premier Zhou Enlai approved the reopening of the Beijing Language Institute, which received 383 CFL students from 42 countries in the following year. Nevertheless, learning Chinese was forbidden in many neighboring

countries, including Indonesia, Cambodia and many others, because of the fear of revolution. From 1973 to 1977, foreign students' enrollment in China totaled 2,266, from 72 countries and regions (Cheng Yuzhen, 2005, p. 51).

The teaching method shifted to a Relative Direct Approach from 1964 under the influence of pedagogical developments in foreign language teaching (Fu Ke, 1986, p. 284). As a result, the audio-lingual approach and pattern drills became the most popular teaching methods during this period. However, it was believed to be a 'relative' direct approach in CFL teaching (Cheng Yuzhen, 2005, p. 58) in that, while it favored an exclusive use of the target language, it did not fully proscribe the use of students' L1 as a medium of instruction.

2.2.2.3 Development stage (1978 - 1999)

China's Open-door Policy in 1978 brought the CFL teaching into a new era. First of all, CFL students were not confined to Eastern European, Asian communist or the 'third world' countries. They gradually covered all continents, with an increasing number from Western European and North American countries, as well as Japan. Second, Chinese language learning was not limited to 'foundation courses' for entering universities in China. Instead, postgraduate courses were opened in five of the universities in China. One significant change was the beginning of short courses. In 1978, the arrival of 28 CFL students from France in China represented the first short-term CFL courses. Shortly after, many universities offered summer programs as well to meet the need of an increasing number of international students visiting China for a short time. CFL students

in 1978 amounted to 1,900, all of whom were provided with government scholarships. However, the number of students taking short courses funded by themselves gradually outweighed those taking degree courses with government funding.

At this time, the Relative Direct Approach lost its leading role and a Communicative Approach prevailed. As for diversifying the school curricula, the communicative approach gradually took over the structural syllabus, and the Task-based Approach thrived. Since then, CFL teachers were introduced by different methods such as the 'Silent Way', 'Total Physical Response', 'Suggestopedia', etc (Liu Xun, 2006, p. 84-99; Zhao Jinming, 2010). Many of these teaching techniques are still in practice, leaving no particular approach being dominant.

The development of CFL teachers was not only needed to meet the demand from overseas, but also for training qualified CFL teachers for teaching Chinese within mainland China. In 1983, the first degree course for teaching CFL was opened in the Foreign Language Department in Beijing Language Institute. Before this, CFL teachers were not organized as an independent profession.

2.2.2.4 Flourishing stage (2000 - 2010)

The most prosperous stage has been from 2001 to now with the popularity of learning Chinese linked to the rapid development of China. CFL is becoming very popular and the enrolments of international students in CFL courses have shown a very sharp increase since 2001.

The population of CFL students in China has kept increasing steadily at the rate of almost 20,000 per year between 2001 and 2009 with an exception of a slight drop in 2003 due to the sudden burst of SARS in China. Table 2.3 presents a summary of statistics released by the CAFSA of the continental distribution of CFL students in China from 2001 to 2009.

Table 2.3. Continental distribution of CFL students in China from 2001 to 2009.
(Source: CAFSA)

	Unit in	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Asia	Head.	46,142	66,040	63,672	85,112	106,840	120,930	141,689	152,931	161,605
	Per.	74.58%	76.94%	81.93%	76.80%	75.73%	74.33%	72.47%	68.43%	67.84%
Europe	Head.	6,717	8,127	6,462	11,524	16,463	20,676	26,339	32,461	35,876
	Per.	10.86%	9.47%	8.31%	10.4%	11.67%	12.71%	13.47%	14.52%	15.06%
America	Head.	6,411	8,892	4,703	10,695	13,211	15,619	19,673	26,559	25,557
	Per.	10.36%	10.36%	6.05%	9.7%	9.37%	9.6%	10.06%	11.88%	10.73%
Africa	Head.	1,526	1,646	1,793	2,186	2,757	3,737	5,915	8,799	12,436
	Per.	2.47%	1.92%	2.31%	2.0%	1.95%	2.3%	3.03%	3.94%	5.22%
Oceania	Head.	1,073	1,124	1,085	1,327	1,806	1,733	1,733	2,749	2,710
	Per.	1.73%	1.31%	1.40%	1.2%	1.28%	1.07%	1.07%	1.23%	1.14%
Total	Head.	61,869	85,829	77,715	110,844	141,087	162,695	195,503	223,499	238,184

*unit in Headcount (Head.) and Percentage (Per.)

In order to provide a visual display of the international students' population trend and continental distribution from 2001 to 2009, a line chart was drawn as follows in Figure 2.4.

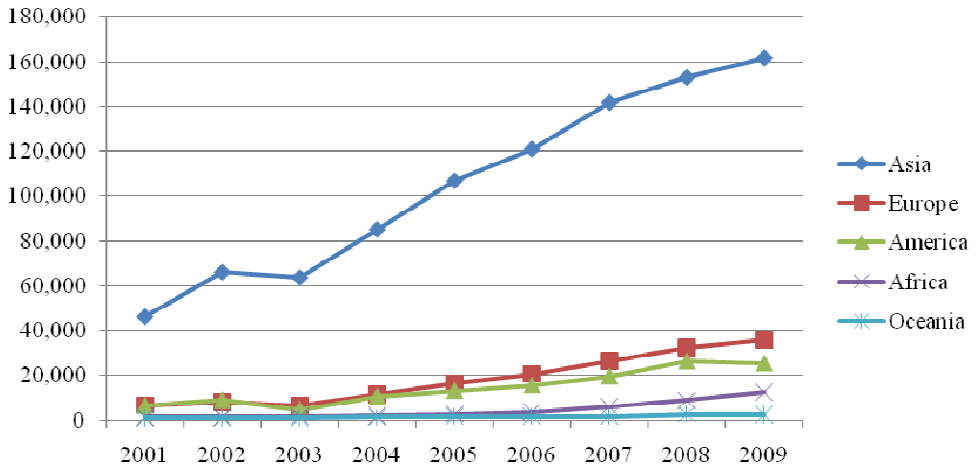

Figure 2.4. Continental distributions of international students in China.

It can be seen that Asian students have remained the most dominant population. The next largest two populations were from Europe and America, constituting 15.06% and 10.73% respectively of the whole population in 2009. Although African and Oceania students account for a small portion of the whole population, it can be seen from both the Table 2.3 and the Figure 2.4 that the number of African students has also increased steadily.

With the rapid increase of CFL students in China, the demand for CFL teachers is growing at an astonishing speed. The growing importance of Chinese in overseas countries called for more qualified CFL teachers to be able to teach Chinese abroad. The worldwide that the ratio between CFL teachers and Chinese students were estimated to be 1:1000 and that 4 million more CFL teachers will thus be needed to fill this global gap in the near future (CME, 2006, p. 203).

Sadly, however, the current quality of CFL teachers is variable. They were found difficult to 'go out' due to their insufficient foreign language ability and intercultural communication skills as well as a lack of understanding of their students who had been educated in different educational systems. The Washington Observer (2006) argued that the shortage of qualified CFL teachers has created a 'bottleneck' preventing the development of Chinese teaching in the US. Deng Xiaoqin (2008) argued that a bilingual CFL teacher, especially with good command of English, is playing a vital role in the beginners' class. However, the lack of English language proficiency for CFL teachers in China has become a hindrance for their career development.

The ability to speak good English is now one of the most important requirements to recruit qualified candidates for teaching Chinese overseas. For example, since its launch in 2006, the Teachers of the Critical Languages Program, administered by the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs of the U.S. Department of State, only considers those 'currently teaching English as a Foreign Language or Mandarin as a Foreign Language' (American Councils, 2006) in China, whose English language proficiency in written and spoken English is high. CFL teachers in this program were also asked to adapt to improve their English competence and to American teaching methodologies.

In order to produce qualified CFL teachers, the Master of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Languages (MTCSOL) was set up in 2007, and soon became one of the most popular masters programs in China's higher education. In terms of foreign language competence, the MTCSOL program guide stated that 50% of the core curriculum is to

be taught in a foreign language through bilingual education. By the end of the 2-years master program, graduates are expected to teach and communicate fluently in a foreign language.

Furthermore, Hanban developed a set of standards for teachers of Chinese to meet the growing demands for more and better qualified teachers. One of the categories requires foreign language competence across all the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Moreover, in late 2011, Hanban will re-launch the Qualification Test for CFL Teachers. Only those with high proficiency in foreign languages will qualify. To be certified, candidates will need a minimum English score of band 5 in IETLS or 500 in TOEFL.

2.2.2.5 Summary

From 33 international students from five Eastern European countries in 1951 to 238,184 from 190 countries in 2009, CFL teaching has developed at an astonishingly fast speed over the past 60 years. The teaching approaches have developed through several stages, beginning with the Adaptive Grammar-translation Approach in 1950s, moving to the Relative Direct Approach in 1960s and 1970s, and the Communicative Approach in 1980s and involved a Task-based Approach since 1990s. Now various teaching methods are seen, without specific trends. The team of CFL teachers has been developing quickly. By 2009, 282 universities in China were officially recognized for preparing qualified CFL teachers. A high score is needed for admission. Since the 1950s, there has been a focus on developing CFL teachers' foreign language competence and training qualified

teachers for teaching Chinese overseas. Foreign language competence – especially, of course, in English – has become one of the most important qualifications that CFL teachers must have.

2.3 Linguistic review

CFL learning is complicated, especially for those whose mother tongues come from different language families and who are not used to tonal languages and ideographic scripts. The difficulty is possibly stemmed from the language distance and the special characteristics of Chinese language itself.

2.3.1 Language distance

That the learning of Chinese poses special difficulties for speakers of English has long been recognized. Among many studies, Kirkpatrick (1995) has explained reasons for the complexity of Chinese language from the perspective of a person whose L1 is English. In order to measure the difficulty of Chinese language, the School of Language Studies of the Foreign Service Institute drew up a chart that divides languages into four groups. This is the 'FSI scale'.

Table 2.4. The FSI scale.
(Source: Expected levels of absolute speaking proficiency in language taught at the Foreign Service Institute, April 1973)

Length of training	Groups of languages
240 – 720 hours	Group I: Afrikaans, Danish, Dutch, French, Haitian Creole, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, Swahili, Swedish
480- 1320 hours	Group II: Bulgarian, Dari, Farsi, Greek, Hindi, Indonesian, Urdu, German
480-1320 hours	Group III: Amharic, Bengali, Burmese, Czech, Finnish, Hebrew, Hungarian, Khmer (Cambodian), Lao, Nepali, Pilipino, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Sinhala, Thai, Tamil, Turkish, Vietnamese
480-2760 hours	Group IV: Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean

As can be seen, the easiest group includes many languages cognate with English such as French, Italian and Spanish. These require 720 hours of intensive language study for adult students to reach basic proficiency. In contrast, languages in the fourth and 'toughest' group require 2760 hours for students to reach comparable proficiency (Cavalier, 1994, p.129; Smith et al., 1993, p.89). Chinese is listed in group four, and will require nearly four times as long for English speakers to reach basic proficiency in it than learning one of the easier languages in group one.

The relative degree of similarity between students' L1 and L2, defined as the language distance, influences how much time students need to allocate to achieve high language proficiency (Elder and Davies, 1998). The study of language distance emerged in 1980s and many studies (Odlin, 1989; Rutherford, 1983; Ringbom, 1987) have provided support for this claim. For example, Crystal (1987) argued:

> The structural closeness of language to each other has often been thought to be an important factor in L2 learning. If the foreign language is structurally similar to the L1, it is claimed, learning should be easier than in cases where the L2 is very different. However, it is not possible to correlate linguistic difference and learning difficulty in any straightforward way, and even the basic task quantifying linguistic difference proves to be highly complex, because of many variables involved. (p. 371)

Chiswick and Miller (2004) developed a quantitative measure of the 'distance' between English and other languages. Such a measure provided a feasible operational measurement when references were needed to decide the linguistic distance between languages. However, most of the research so far has been done focusing on one branch of the 'language family tree'. Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family, whereas English and most European languages in the West are from the Indo-European language family.

For these and other reasons, Chinese remained one of the Less-Commonly Taught Languages in the US. Learning less commonly taught languages could produce strong negative affective reactions from the students which may hinder their learning motivation (Samimy and Tabuse, 1992). The high-demand level of the learning task may lessen motivation in learning the Chinese language as students face new challenges like mastering the four tones, the complicated scripts as well as the different grammar. Even though learning Chinese in China is different from learning it in America, the features of the target language and the distance between their L1 and L2 still influence motivation, learning strategies and outcomes.

2.3.2 Special characteristics of Chinese language

The unique tonal and the logographic writing system of Chinese are regarded as two of the most challenging parts in the learning of Chinese as a foreign language (Walton, 1989).

2.3.2.1 Tonal phonetic system

DeFrancis (1990) argued that 'tones would undoubtedly be the first casualty, as they had been in Korea, Japan, and to a lesser extent, Vietnam and Myanmar where the indigenous language was either tonal to begin with or became tonal in the course of its history' (p. 6). A different tone makes a big difference in lexical meaning. The Indo-European language family lacks a tonal system, which makes it one of the most difficult linguistic features to master in the learning of Chinese. Many international students find it hard to sound the tones correctly and master the four tones accurately and would surely confound mā (mother), má (hemp), mǎ (horse), and mà (revile), pronouncing all of these words as undifferentiated *ma*. They therefore make lots of mistakes in oral communication, consequently being labeled as having a '洋腔洋调' (yang qiang yang diao, in foreign accent). The examples of *ma*'s four tones will be clearly distinguished both when accurately pronounced and when written in Chinese characters, as each is represented by a different character.

2.3.2.2 Logographic writing system

The writing system of languages of Indo-European language family consists of a series

of graphemes to represent sounds, written out in an alphabet. In contrast, Chinese characters are conventionally called ideographs or ideograms, the written symbols of the Chinese language mostly represent meanings, leaving only a small proportion of the components representing the sound. The Chinese writing system has a long history of more than four thousand years. Chinese has a distinctive logographic writing system which is highly complex. The Chinese characters constitute a system of writing obviously different in appearance from alphabetic scripts.

It's noteworthy that the writing systems of Korean and Japanese are closely influenced by the Chinese characters and share many Chinese cognates in their languages. Although Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language family and Japanese and Korean belong to Altaic language family, the writing systems of Korea and Japan are based on Chinese characters. Thus, Chinese and the two languages are thought to have comprised a 'Character-writing Language Circle' (CLC), leaving the rest languages in another circle of 'Non-Character-writing Language Circle' (NCLC).

The independence of the written script from the spoken language makes Chinese learning a formidable and time-consuming task for students from countries of NCLC. A minimum of 3,500 different characters are considered to be needed in terms of daily reading in accordance with the 'Table of the Most Common used Chinese Characters in China' (State Language Commission, 1988). CFL students in the beginning level, as Yu Baohua (2008) estimated that, are expected to learn about 35 words a day to achieve basic literacy in Chinese, which might be an overwhelming task for most students in the

NCLC, not least because there is rarely a way of deducing a word's meaning from its pronunciation (p. 85). The writing system of Chinese is a real obstacle and is believed to be one of main reasons which might drive away many CFL students.

In summary, students from countries neighboring China have an easier time of learning Chinese. Students from Vietnam, Thailand, and Myanmar have an ear for tones and while those from Korea and Japan have advantages to learn reading and writing quicker. As we can see from the statistical data of CFL students in China shown in Table 2.3 and 2.1, the majority of CFL students are from Asia, in particular from Korea and Japan. However, the next largest two continental groups are from America and Europe, and the number of students from these regions is increasing rapidly. It's thus inappropriate to neglect their differences and teach all these students by using the same teaching methods.

2.4 Sociolinguistic review

As defined by Cortazzi and Jin (1996), culture of learning refers to beliefs and values of quality learning and teaching that are shared by a homogeneous group of people with a similar cultural background and educational experience, and the behaviors or norms that are built on them. For the purposes of this thesis, CFL students are classified into two groups: Asian student group and Western student group. The Asian student group refers to students from some East and Southeast Asia countries such as Korea, Japan and Vietnam. The Western student group refers to CFL students from countries such as

America, Australia, England and Western European countries such as Sweden and France.

2.4.1 Difference of culture of learning

CFL students from different cultural backgrounds may find different levels of difficulty in learning Chinese. Individualism, a cultural practice found in the Western group, especially, Western Europe and North America, emphasizes individual independence, personal autonomy and self-fulfillment, according to Oyserman et al. (2002). In contrast, collectivism, which is said to be common in Asia, Africa, South America, and the Pacific, prioritizes rights of communal societies over individual rights. From a cross-cultural perspective, it can be argued that most Western students may find it more difficult to learn Chinese than many East Asian students no matter how good their language aptitude is or how well they have acquired other foreign languages (Yu Baohua, 2008, p. 90). This is due to the natural distance students feel between native and target culture appearing to impact on their language attainment (Svanes, 1987). Further, Dahlin and Watkins (2000) argued that Western students usually view understanding as usually a process of sudden insight, whereas Asian students typically think of understanding as a long process that requires considerable mental effort.

The difference between cultural backgrounds between the Asian group and the Western group and the ways how people use their mother language and the degree of tolerance for other languages to mingle with their mother tongue may influence CFL learning and teaching. More importantly, a potential difficulty to adapt to Asian learning style may

also need to be taken into consideration when a CFL class consists of multicultural students from both the West and the East.

2.4.2 Homogeneous society

It is also important to look into how local Chinese people use their mother tongue through in their daily lives. As native Chinese citizens, CFL teachers' attitudes and beliefs about the language use might influence or shape their teaching practice in the Chinese classroom. One of the most influential incidents was the *Battle of Chinese* in 2010.

In 2010, Huang Youyi, the director of the China International Publishing Group, proposed to take preventive measures to preserve the purity of Chinese. Huang said 'if we don't pay attention and don't take measures to stop the expansion of mingling Chinese and English, Chinese won't be a pure language in a couple of years…. In the long run, Chinese will lose its role as an independent linguistic system for passing on information and expressing human feelings.' (Wang Jingqiong, 2010) With the appeal to be aware of English invasion, major national and regional broadcasters all received the directive from the State Administration of Radio, Film and Television that they must avoid using certain English acronyms in Chinese-language channels and programs. Television viewers in China will no longer hear English acronyms like NBA, WTO, GDP, etc. However, CCTV English Channel is concerned that this new measure will lead to cultural conservatism. It is noteworthy that English and other foreign languages

are considered to be a threat to the purity of the Chinese language and even harmful to national cohesion.

Despite the recent increase in migrants and foreigners, Beijing, the capital city of China, remains a relatively homogeneous community where there's no tradition of multilingual policy or practice and the tolerance for code mixing or switching is extremely low. The majority of CFL teachers are native Chinese speakers, who usually majored in Chinese linguistics or Chinese literature in universities in China. The situation has changed only in the recent years. Graduates from foreign language studies, education, psychology, history and many other related majors have only just started to join the CFL teaching team.

2.5 The national language policy

China is a multidialectal and multilingual country. For the Han Chinese, the majority of the population, there are two main groups of dialects: the northern dialects and the southern dialects. The northern dialects can be subdivided into seven sub-groups and the southern dialects into six sub-groups (Huang Jinghu, 1987, pp. 33-45). In addition, over 80 to 120 languages are used among the 55 officially listed ethnic minorities (State Language Commission, 1995, p. 159). The standard dialect, Putonghua, maps well on to the written form of Modern Standard Chinese (Lam, 2005, p. 8).

2.5.1 Promotion of Putonghua and the national language policy

Despite the diversity of dialects spoken and languages taught in China, CFL teaching only focuses on Putonghua, the standard Chinese, as the standard target language. Many efforts have been made to standardize Chinese and to promote it since the 1950s.

Reviewing the policy after half a century in the light of all the recent developments, the official promotion of Putonghua in all areas of the use of Chinese is evident. The promotion of Putonghua began in the mid-1950s and was reaffirmed in the 1980s. It is clear that the move was planned as an all-encompassing policy involving the schools, the media and other public services with specific implementation targets and follow-up action at both national and regional levels. The manpower resources mobilized for policy implementation were immense. Even though China is vast and a population of 1.3 billion makes state initiated language planning extremely challenging, much work has been done since 1990s. The demand of learning or speaking Putonghua remains an official task. In many places in China, plaques on the walls of schools and dormitories or government offices still exhort teachers and students to 'speak Putonghua' while reminding them that 语言文字是一个国家主权的标志 (language is the mark of a county's nationhood). Language learning has been closely related to ideological issues and Putonghua has becomes the standard for teaching and learning CFL within mainland China.

In order to assure standardization for assessing proficiency in Putonghua, the Putonghua Proficiency Test was developed in 1997 for native speakers of Chinese, with particularly high requirements for broadcasting personnel and teachers. All teachers should attain

Grade 2B and teachers of Chinese (including who teach CFL) should attain Grade 2A. While the early emphasis in the 1950s was on local popularization, the later impetus from the 1980s has turned attention to overseas. To keep up link this, Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi (HSK) developed in 1988 as a national standardized test of Chinese in for CFL students.

CFL teaching became the current goal. Of all the recent measures, the clearest indication of policy intent is the 中华人民共和国国家通用语言文字法 (*the Law on the Commonly Used Language and Script in China*), which took effect on the first day of 2001. In Article 20, the law clearly spelt out that Chinese language teaching for foreigners shall involve Putonghua and standard Chinese characters (Rohsenow, 2004, p. 41).

2.5.2 Regulations on syllabuses

During the past 60 years, eleven CFL teaching syllabuses in total have been published (Cui Yonghua, 2005, p.68). Regulations concerning the medium of instruction are mostly found in these syllabuses for teaching Chinese at the primary stage and for short-term Chinese programs. For example, an earlier one (Yang Jizhou, 1999) with a focus on CFL beginners regulated that

> 教学的主要用语是汉语。鉴于一般教材都有适量的翻译，多数正规教学单位基本上是混合编班，因此，课堂教学中原则上不允许使用某种学生母语（例如：英语、日语等）或其他媒介语。

> Chinese is the primary medium of instruction. In general circumstance, translation is appropriately provided in textbooks and the class is usually made up by students from different countries. In view of these two points, in principle, students' L1 (e.g., English, Japanese, etc.) and other foreign languages are forbidden to be used as the medium of instruction in teaching Chinese (p5).

Moreover, another syllabus (Hanban, 2002) dealt with short CFL courses stated in a very short and simple way that

> 用汉语组织教学，把媒介语的使用减少到最低限度。
>
> Teachers should teach in Chinese and to minimize the use of L1 as the medium of instruction (p.3).

2.5.3 The definition of medium of instruction

Following an informative introduction of the research background, it is important to point out by the end of this chapter that the term of 'Medium of Instruction' (MoI) is defined in a different way from its established definition in English. In ESL teaching, MoI denotes the language used for teaching or learning a language, including the target language, students' L1 and a common language shared by teachers and students. However, MoI in CFL teaching excludes the target language, and all assisting languages are considered an 'other language'. For example, Du Yalin (2009) defined that

> 所谓媒介语，是指在对外汉语教学中为了实现与无汉语基础或是少量汉语基础的汉语留学生的沟通而使用的他种语言。
>
> The so-called 'medium of instruction' refers to languages other than Chinese used to communicate with students of no basic or little knowledge of Chinese (p. 136).

Likewise, Fu Chuanfeng (2005) defined this term in a more systematic way in her thesis that

> 对外汉语教学界所说的媒介语一般不指目的语汉语，而专指教师上课时候所用的师生共同掌握的语言，这一语言一般是教师的第二语言，是学生的母语或第二语言。
>
> The term of medium of instruction excludes the target language, but particularly refers to a common language shared by teachers and students. This common language usually is teachers' L2 or students' L1 or L2 (p. 49).

Another group of scholars of CFL teaching equated MoI and English, or put English in brackets as an equivalent of MoI and treated English as the default MoI in CFL teaching (e.g., Xu Pinxiang, 2008, p.119; Zhang Yifang, 2007, p162; Deng Xiaoqin, 2008, p. 5). Nevertheless, this thesis shall not adopt the above-discussed definition of MoI, but to follow the established definition in ESL teaching. Thus, in this thesis, MoI means languages used for teaching Chinese, including Chinese per se, students' L1, and common languages shared by CFL teachers and students.

Another important phenomenon to point out is that 'interlanguage' is sometimes used to replace MoI in some studies. As a matter of fact, interlanguage means a linguistic system that is developed by a student of a L2 who has not yet become fully proficient (Selinker, 1972). It has nothing much to do with the problem of which language to use as a MoI. However, such misconception was found in some published academic articles, where 'interlanguage' was inappropriately used for discussing the problem of MoI. In pedagogical studies, some Chinese scholars (e.g. Liang Ninghui, 1998; Wang Hanwei,

2007) promoted the use of students' interlangauge for teachers as a solution to avoid speaking English when communicating with CFL students. Moreover, in a recent article, Chen Yi (2011) argued that

> ……极为重视目的语的广泛使用……项目也秉承着这一宗旨，以"直接目的语"教学为原则，积极创设纯净的汉语学习环境，在教学中尽量避免直接翻译法的使用，有意识地摈弃中介语，取而代之以高度视觉化的教学辅助材料，大量借助教师肢体语言、直观教具等可视化教学工具和手段来开展教学。
>
> The extensive use of target language is stressed….The program upholds this proposition and supports a direct target-language-only pedagogy by creating a pure Chinese learning environment, making effort to avoid the direct translation method and refusing the use of *interlanguage*. To replace it, teachers use highly visual assisting materials, relying on body language and highly visual tools for teaching (p. 23).

2.6 Summary

This chapter has introduced the background and development of CFL teaching from politico-economic, historical, linguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives and presented a discussion of language policies, regulations and teaching syllabuses, especially with regard to the MoI problem in CFL. Focus has been placed on the demographics of the CFL students, the CFL teachers as well as the teaching pedagogy, which will serve as the background for Chapters six, seven and eight. The next chapter will introduce the worldwide spread of English as a lingua franca. The thesis assumes that CFL teachers and students are potentially English speakers, who would be able to use English as an international lingua franca for teaching and learning Chinese language.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH BACKGROUND (ELF)

3.1 The spread of English as a lingua franca

Although the world is embracing CFL and the Chinese government is striving at promoting Chinese, even enthusiastic promoters of Chinese are not predicting that it will overtake English as the world's commonly used language in the near future. However, as Martin (2009) noted that Chinese is the most widely spoken language in the world, far exceeding English, but the vast majority of Chinese speakers live in China; English, by contrast, has flown the nest (p.115). Murata and Jenkins (2009) argued that it is a well-established fact that during the past four centuries, the English language has spread around the world, and that, as a result, it is used for a wide range of purpose by many millions of people for whom it is not a mother tongue in the traditional sense of the term (p.40).

3.1.1 Changes to Kachru's model

The most useful and influential, model of the spread of English has undoubtedly been that of Kachru (1985, p. 12-3; 1992, p.356). As shown in Figure 3.1, Kachru divided World Englishes into 'three concentric circles', the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle. The three circles represent the type of English spread, the patterns of acquisition, and the functional allocation of English in diverse cultural context, as the language travelled from Britain, in the first diaspora to other English as a Native Language countries (together with UK these constitute the Inner Circle), in the second diaspora to the English as a Second Language countries (the Outer Circle) and, more

recently, to the English as an International Language countries (the Expanding Circle) (Jenkins, 2009, p.18).

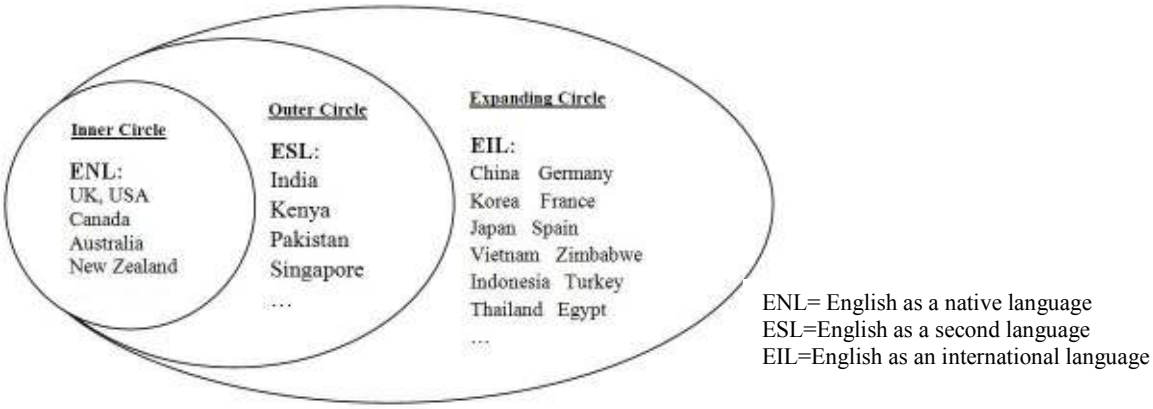

Figure 3.1. Kachru's three concentric circles of the spread of English.

As Honna (2003) estimated, English is now used as an official or dominant language in 71 countries (around 36%) of the 195-nation world (p.14), with a total population of over two billion. It has already an accepted fact that English is spoken as a native language by around 375 million and as a L2 by around 375 million speakers in the world (Braine, 2005, p.xii). In the Inner Circle, there are only five countries (i.e. Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK and the USA) which were inhabited by migrations of native English-speaking people; in the Outer Circle, there are several dozen nations for which English serves as an official or institutional language. In the Expanding Circle, around 750 million people are believed to speak English as a foreign language (Crystal, 2003, p. 69). One out of four of the world's population speaks English to some level of competence. Demand from the other three-quarters is increasing (Crystal, 1995; 1997). Graddol (2007) puts the three circles of English as

overlapping (see Figure 3.2), which is easier to show how the 'centre of gravity' has shifted towards L2 speakers since the start of the 21st century (p. 10).

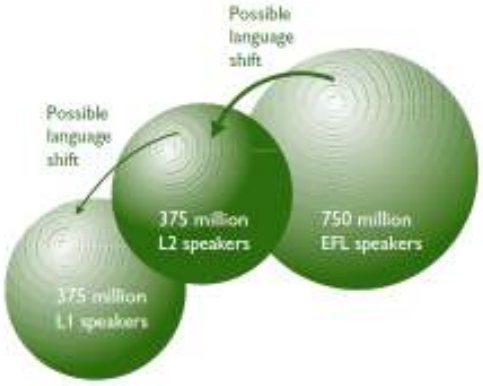

Figure 3.2. The possible language shift of the three circles towards L2 speakers.

In fact, in many parts of the world there are ongoing shifts in the status of English in recent years. In existing L2 areas, a slight increase in the proportion of the population speaking English (e.g., in India, Pakistan, Nigeria and the Philippines), is significantly increasing the global total of L2 speakers. Thus, speakers of English as a L2 have outnumbered those who speak it as a L1.

3.1.2 The spread of English as in the Expanding Circle

Nevertheless, the most extensive spread of English, in terms of number of speakers, has undoubtedly occurred in the countries in the Expanding Circle, such as China, Japan, Thailand, Brazil and Continental Europe. Kachru's concentric model (1992) was already failing to capture the increasing importance of the Expanding Circle, and the degree to which 'foreign language' students in some countries were becoming more like L2 users.

English has become a common language not only important in the fields of trade or tourism, but also crucial in overseas studies and academic pursuits across the world. Thus, with regard to its rapid spread on a global scale, English cannot be considered as a 'foreign language' any more in Korea, Japan and many other countries. Foreign implies 'out of system' socially and 'undesirable' psychologically (Honna, 2008, p.16). However, this is not the situation any longer. The English Proficiency Index (English First, 2011), a benchmark for the assessment of international English proficiency, ranked South Korea 13th and Japan 14th as places where people speak English with moderate proficiency, among 44 non-English speaking countries in the world (p.14). Spoken or written, English has established itself as the world's most effective intermediary language in many fields.

In the Expanding Circle, most students of English no longer learn English in order to communicate with Inner Circle English speakers. Instead, they need English to provide them with a lingua franca with which to communicate for both social and professional reasons with speakers of other first languages, particularly in the other Expanding Circle countries. In other words, they are learning and subsequently using English as a lingua franca (ELF). ELF can be defined, in a general sense, as a medium of communication by people who do not speak the same language (Kirkpatrick, 2007; 2010). That English has become the international lingua franca means that it has become a language for multinational communication. The examples from European Union (EU), the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), information provided by a study

from Japan may show a trend that the traditional 'expanding circle' is seeing an increasing use of ELF.

The EU is a supranational union composed of 27 member states and 23 official and working languages. English has acquired a special place in school timetables in most EU countries. Steadily, across Europe, English has become the 'first foreign' language in education systems, often replacing another language from that position. According to the most influential statistics provided by the Eurobarometer (2006), English is also the language most often studied as a foreign language in the EU, by 89% of schoolchildren, ahead of French at 32%, while the perception of the usefulness of foreign languages amongst Europeans is 68% in favor of English ahead of 25% for French. Among some non-English speaking EU countries, a large percentage of the adult population can converse in English — in particular: 85% in Sweden, 83% in Denmark, 79% in the Netherlands, 66% in Luxembourg and over 50% in Finland, Slovenia, Austria, Belgium, and Germany in 2001 (Eurobarometer, 2006, p.7).

In Asia, ASEAN has 10 members, but has formally adopted English as its sole working and official language after many years intensive debate (Kirkpatrick, 2010, pp. 7-15). With the signing of the ASEAN Charter in February 2009, English is given its official status as the sole working language of ASEAN. English is also the working language of the extended grouping known as ASEAN + 3, which includes the ten states of ASEAN plus China, Japan and Korea. The majority of the speakers from the ten countries in ASEAN are multilinguals who have learnt English as a second or later language. They

use English as a lingua franca with fellow multilinguals. As regional trade grows, encouraged by ASEAN, English is becoming an ever more valuable lingua franca in Asia.

Lastly, a Japanese survey (Honna, 2008, p. 17) quoted in Table 3.1 fully shows how widespread the view that English is the most useful language for worldwide communication. To answer the question that 'what languages do you think will be necessary for worldwide communication from now on', respondents in the survey generally selected English as an indispensible world language even prior to their national languages. As indicated in Table 3.1, for ten countries where people speak English as a 'foreign' language, English is singled out as the most important.

Table 3.1. An international survey by the National Institute of Japanese Language.

	1	2	3	4
Egypt	English (85%)	Arabic (66%)	French (36%)	German (15%)
India	English (89%)	Hindi (32%)	Marathi (11%)	French (8%)
Indonesia	English (87%)	Indonesia (49%)	Japanese (8%)	Arabic (8%)
Israel	English (96%)	French (31%)	Arabic (22%)	Hebrew (15%)
Japan	English (90%)	Japanese (21%)	Chinese (9%)	French (2%)
Korea	English (93%)	Korean (48%)	Japanese (22%)	French (14%)
Nigeria	English (91%)	Hausa (30%)	Yoruba (21%)	Ibo (14%)
Philippines	English (98%)	Tagalog (25%)	Spanish (6%)	Chinese (4%)
Thailand	English (97%)	Thai (22%)	Chinese (15%)	Japanese (10%)
Vietnam	English (89%)	French (36%)	Chinese (36%)	Vietnamese (16%)

These above examples suggest that people are prepared to treat English as 'our' language, for economic promotion, social improvement, regional cooperation, and international exchange and collaboration. In terms of language teaching, it may not be appropriate to treat international students as monolingual speakers any longer. English, at least, in some extent, may have already been one of their basic language skills, acquired for worldwide communication when studying overseas.

3.2 Research on ELF

Understanding how non-native speakers use English among themselves has now become a serious research area. In Europe, the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE) project, led by Barbara Seidlhofer, is creating a computer corpus of lingua franca interactions, which is intended to help linguists understand ELF better, and also provide support for the recognition of ELF users in the way English is taught. In Asia, the Asian Corpus of English (ACE) was established by Kirkpatrick in the Hong Kong Institute of Education. With a close cooperation with the VOICE, ACE is establishing a corpus of spoken English as a lingua franca in Asia which helps us better understand how English is used in Asia and allow us to analyze its linguistic features and the communicative strategies of its speakers.

There are several features with ELF. First, fewer interactions now involve a native-speaker. This has become an inexorable trend in the use of global English. Proponents of teaching ELF suggest that the way English is taught and assessed should reflect the needs and aspirations of the ever-growing number of non-native speakers

who use English to communicate with other non-natives. Second, intelligibility is of primary importance, rather than native-like accuracy. Proponents of ELF have already given some indications of how they think conventional approaches to EFL should be changed. Jenkins (2000), for example, argues for different priorities in teaching English pronunciation. Lastly, ELF focuses on pragmatic strategies required in intercultural communication. The target model of English, within the ELF framework, is not a native speaker but a fluent bilingual speaker, who retains a national identity in terms of accent, and who also has the special skills required to negotiate understanding with another non-native speaker.

3.3 ELF in Asia

As many countries in Asia are eager to make their country bilingual in English and their national language, ELF can become the *de facto* lingua franca. The use of English by English-knowing multilinguals for whom English is not a first language represents today's major role of English in Asia and in many other parts of the world. For instance, in Colombia, the government initiated a 'Social Program for Foreign Languages without Borders' which attempted to make the country bilingual in English in 10 years. In Chile, the government has embarked on a program to make the population of 15 million 'bilingual within a generation'. In Mongolia in 2004, the Prime Minister declared that the country should become bilingual in English. Thailand announced a new teacher training program and a switch to communicative pedagogy and the Philippines are debating whether to make English the medium of education at all levels. In Japan, Benesse (the Japanese company who own Berlitz language schools) reported that, in

2005, 21% of 5-year-olds in Japan attended English conversation classes – up from 6% in 2000. This trend is typical for many Asian countries.

With the rapidly growing number of English students and English knowing multilingual speakers, some countries propose to a legitimate use of English in particular social sectors or even as an additional official language. For example, South Korea intends to make English an official language in new enterprise zones. In Taiwan, a public opinion survey published in January 2006 found that 80% of the respondents said they hope that the government will designate English the second official language.

3.4 ELF in China

China is now setting the pace of change in the region. More people are now learning English in China than in any other country. In China, the number of people who desire to learn English is astounding. In an early article, Kachru (2005) estimated that there were already 200 million Chinese English users in 1995. And in a recent report, Asia Society (2011) estimated that there are 300 million Chinese students learning English. Statistically, English students in China outnumber the total populations of the United States and Britain combined (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.146) and many young educated Chinese speak the language with impressive fluency. Already, in a significant move towards bilingualism, China has made the teaching of English compulsory from Grade 3 (Braine, 2005, p. xviii). In practice, big cities, such as Beijing and Shanghai, have already introduced English at Grade 1. As a result of this policy, China now produces over 20 million new users of English each year. China's decision to make English a key part of its strategy for economic development has had a galvanizing impact on

neighboring countries, where enthusiasm for English was in danger of waning. Graddol (2007) argued that 'it is likely that it will be China who will determine the speed at which other Asian countries, such as Thailand, shift to a global English model (p. 94). By the end of 2005, Thailand, the Philippines, Japan, and Taiwan were all expressing grave anxiety about their national proficiency in English and had announced new educational initiatives.

China's huge investment in English, together with its promotion of Chinese as a foreign language, must be seen in this global context. It is partly because English is proving popular as a means of internationalizing both the student community and teaching staff. China has taken a thoughtful approach to setting goals. As the most populous country in the world, China also boasts one of the largest populations of English students and a history of over seven decades of English learning. China's reasons for promoting the learning of English were well summed up twenty years ago by a team from the U.S. International Communication Agency after visiting five cities and many educational institutions in China:

> The Chinese view English primarily as a necessary tool which can facilitate access to modern scientific and technological advances, and secondarily as a vehicle to promote commerce and understanding between the People's Republic of China and countries where English is a major language (Cowan *et al.* 1979, quoted from Boyle, 2000, p.14).

This basic motivation has not changed since 1980, as can be seen from the Report of the English 2000 Conference in Beijing, sponsored jointly by the British Council and the

State Education Commission of China, in which reasons for the learning of English by the Chinese were summarized:

> They learn English because it is the language of science, specifically perhaps of the majority of research journals. They learn it because it is the neutral language of commerce, the standard currency of international travel and communication. They learn it because you find more software in English than in all other languages put together (Bowers, 1996, p.3).

Since China's outward orientation from 1978, there has been a flourishing growth of teaching and learning English as a foreign language from primary schools to universities and a popularization of English among the people from all walks of life for work and leisure. As Boyle (2000) puts it 'at this stage in the last few years of the millennium, it does look as if China will continue to want English, and want it badly' (p.15). Moreover, Ruan Xianfeng (2010) argued that China should use English to build a discourse power in the world (p. 179). In fact, Ruan pointed out that English is the first step for Chinese language to reach the world.

As mentioned earlier, English is increasingly being used as the medium of instruction both in schools and universities in many continental European countries, and more recently in Expanding Circle Asian countries such as China. In the past two decades, a number of colleges and universities in Chinese mainland have experimented with the use of English as a medium of instruction in teaching non-language subjects (Bolton, 2003, p. 250; Lam, 2005, p. 192). It's important and valuable to investigate questions like 'has English helped a native Chinese speaker learning French as a foreign

language?' More significantly, with the influx of CFL students coming to China, it is also crucial to examine the extent to which English as a lingua franca between CFL teachers and students, as well as among CFL students themselves.

3.5 ELF in CFL teaching

Not only is China setting the pace, but until countries in the region are able to develop their national proficiency in Chinese, English will provide their main means of communicating with China (Graddol, 2007, p. 95). However, many Chinese scholars in CFL teaching disagree with the lingua franca status of English. For example, Wang Hanwei (2007; 2009) challenged the lingua franca status of English in Asian countries and denied the possibility and rationality of using English legally in teaching CFL. Wang Hanwei argued that the use of English in CFL classroom only helps to spread English to CFL students, distorting the purposes of teaching and promoting Chinese to the world. Using English as a lingua franca is like 'sewing trousseau' for the spread of English (p. 116). Furthermore, Ma Qingzhu (2003) quoted examples of how people from non-English speaking countries felt uncomfortable about using ELF and expressed a strongly antipathy towards the lingua franca status of English. Ma Qingzhu also argued that the use of English will negatively affect CFL teaching and learning and eventually harm the internationalization of Chinese (p. 13). Nevertheless, such perspective sounds more political than educational, and is not based on any empirical studies, but to some extent is based on an ambition to promote the international status of Chinese and make it another international lingua franca on a par to ELF.

Therefore, with the popularity of Chinese language and the large influx of CFL students into China and the fast development of ELF worldwide, the study of ELF in CFL teaching in the new cultural and academic milieu of foreign language teaching and learning, requires more empirical attention. The thesis will investigate the use of ELF in CFL teaching and describe this phenomenon through an empirical study.

3.6 Summary

This chapter has introduced the spread of English by citing Kachru's three circles model and reported the potential changes to the model as English is establishing itself as a lingua franca in a dramatically fast speed in the Expanding Circle, especially in Asia and in China. Special focus has been given to the use of ELF in CFL teaching, which demonstrated Chinese scholars' perceptions of the use of ELF for teaching CFL and introduced the significance for doing an empirical research to find out how CFL teachers and students actually think and use of English.

The next chapter will provide the literature review in two main sections. The first part will focus on studies about the L1 use in L2 learning in foreign language teaching and considers this in terms of L2 students, L2 teachers and L2 classrooms. The second part will move to a closer examination of discussions about the use of ELF as a medium of instruction in CFL teaching.

CHAPTER 4 LITERATURE REVIEW

4.1 Debate of L1 use in the L2 class

The discussion about L1 use in the L2 class is an age-old issue yet remains controversial and unsolved. The debate has resulted in a plenty of literature. On one side, governments, schools and scholars supported an exclusive use of target language and the avoidance of students' L1 or any possible medium of instructions. This monolingual teaching method is named 'L2-only pedagogy' in this thesis. On the other side, many teachers and educators advocate that language rights and bilingual education can foster students' linguistic and culture origins. The support of L1 use in L2 classroom is called L1 pedagogy in the thesis. Despite widespread opposition to the exclusive use of L2, many educators continue to uphold the notion that target language is the only acceptable medium of communication within the confines of the L2 classroom.

4.2 L2-only pedagogy

Historically, assumptions about language teaching are traceable mostly to the 'Great Reform' of the late nineteenth century (Hawkins, 1987). Cook (2001) argued that these assumptions have affected many generations of foreign language teachers and students, which were rarely presented to new teachers but are taken for granted as the foundation of language teaching (p. 404). Discouragement of L1 use in the classroom originates in this tradition. Gatenby (1965), one of the founding fathers of ESL, formulated that 'what is essential is that the language being studied should be as far as possible the sole medium of communication in any given environment.'(p. 14). Since 1965, L2-only

pedagogy to the ESL teaching has always been the norm (Crawford, 1991). However, these approaches are often determined by political rather than pedagogical factors. Whether or not to support the use of students' L1 is not simply a pedagogical matter; it's more a political one.

On policy level, the English Only movement in the United States has convinced many language schools administrators, teacher educators, publishing houses and teachers and students to use English as the sole medium of communication. When English became associated with patriotism in the Americanization movement during the first quarter of the 20th century, English only became the norm in ESL classes. Baron (1990) recommended that English be the sole MoI, and in grouping students, 'warned teachers to prevent the formation of 'national cliques', which would delay the work of Americanization' (p.160). However, it has gone too far and become an extreme perspective regardless of many important factors influencing students' L2 learning. In ESL teaching, Atkinson (1993) and Phillipson (1992) therefore argued that it has reached a hegemonic status with regard the teaching and learning of English as a L2. This 'linguistic imperialism' has left not much scope for the development of other languages in multilingual communities (Phillipson, 1992, p.306-308).

On the micro level in the L2 classroom, many teachers have unconsciously reinforced this agenda in classroom teaching. Auerbach (1993) pointed out that schools and teachers even devised penalty system to ensure that students did not use their L1 and justify these practices with the claim that use of L1 will impede progress in the

acquisition of English (p.10). Weinberg (1990) extolled the virtues of fining students for using their L1. The teacher warned the students that 'this is the English-only classroom. If you speak Spanish or Cantonese or Mandarin or Vietnamese or Russian or Farsi, you pay me 25 cents. I can be rich.' (p.5). This penalty system assumes that English only should be used in the ESL classroom. In this and many cases, official language policies, teaching syllabuses and principles in certain language contexts that officially ban L1 use by teachers and students.

The convention of discouragement of L1 can be phrased in stronger to weaker forms (Cook, 2001). The strongest is to 'ban' the L1 from the L2 classroom. It is often practiced in circumstances when teachers do not speak students' L1 or students have different L1s. The weakest one is to 'minimize' the L1 use in the classroom, which requires teachers and students to use L1 as little as possible. Between the two, a more optimistic version is to "maximize" the L2 in classroom. This stance emphasizes the usefulness of the L2 rather than the harm of the L1. However, L1 is still seen as negative because it is not something to be utilized in teaching but to set aside (p. 404).

4.2.1 Theoretical support for L2-only pedagogy

L2-only pedagogy has dominated foreign language teaching and learning for many decades (Turnbull and Arnett, 2002, p. 211) and rigidly regulated the avoidance of L1 or any other possible MoI. Macaro (2009) summarized by saying that 'the theoretical framework that might support the L2-only pedagogy can probably be found in the huge body of literature on input and interaction which was carried out in the 1980s and 1990s

(p. 36). In short, proponents of L2-only pedagogy see little or no pedagogical and communicative value in the L1.

With the overarching theory that language learning derived from innate properties and functions in the brain (Chomsky, 1965), researchers provided evidence that aspects of the L2 were acquired by premodified input and by interactionally modified output. Krashen's (1985) comprehensive input hypothesis is supported by proponents of the L2-only pedagogy. They argued for exposing students to a flood of comprehensive L2 input to ensure mastery of the L2. The use of L1 reduces the exposure to that all-important input in L2. This hypothesis recognizes the importance of comprehensible input for language learning, but argued that comprehensible input alone will not ensure mastery of the L2. Swain argued that students need to output (speak and write) in the L2 in order to master it, thus proponents of this position argued that speaking and writing must always and only be in the L2 (Macaro, 2005, p.3). Therefore, Swain's (1985) output hypothesis is also employed as a theoretical rationale for using L2 only.

Three arguments are believed to be held by proponents of L2-only pedagogy: arguments from L1 learning; language compartmentalization; and L2 use in the classroom, with reference to Cook (2001, p. 406-410).

(1) Argument from L1 learning

Proponents of L2-only pedagogy believe that the only completely successful method of acquiring a language is that used by L1 children, therefore, L2 teaching should be based on the characteristics of L1 acquisition. They draw on the L1= L2 learning hypothesis

and argue that since L1 is the only language present during L1 acquisition, the TL should be the only language available when it is acquired (Ellis, 1986; Krashen, 1981). However, this comparison is questionable in that L2 students are usually adults who have more mature minds, greater social development, a larger short-term memory capacity, and many differences from L1-only young children.

(2) Argument from language compartmentalization

Proponents of L2-only pedagogy argue that successful L2 acquisition happen solely through L2 rather than being linked to the L1. L1 is seen as the major problem in the process of acquiring the L2 due to its possible negative transfer to the L2 learning. Lado (1957) developed the Contrastive Analysis in the mid-twentieth-century and the rationale has prevailed in L2 teaching for many decades. In terms of practicing, teachers explain the L2 word, define or mime its meaning, show pictures, and so on, without translating, in the long-term hope that this builds up the L2 as a separate system (Cook, 2001, p. 403). As a matter of fact, many studies have proved that L1 and L2 are interwoven in people's mind in vocabulary (Beauvillain and Grainger, 1987), in syntax (Cook, 1994), in phonology (Obler, 1982), and in pragmatics (Locastro, 1987). As Stern (1992) puts it, 'the L1-L2 connection is an indisputable fact of life' (p.282).

(3) Argument from L2 use in the classroom

Proponents of L2-only pedagogy suggest that teacher can maximize the provision of useful L2 examples by avoiding the L1. Littlewood (1981) argued students should accept the L2 as an effective means of satisfying their communicative needs (p. 45).

Moreover, if teachers use L1 for classroom communication, they are depriving the students of only true experience of L2 and thus wasting students' golden time. However, as Willis (1996) reminded, classroom interaction has its own genre (p.17), where teachers and students produce meaningful interactions in turn. It's equally important for students to develop strategies based on their experience and knowledge for working out the meaning of L2 from realistic classroom contexts. Overall, accepting that students should meet natural L2 communication in the classroom supports maximizing the L2 rather than avoiding L1.

4.2.2 Practices of L2-only pedagogy

L2-only pedagogy, in fact, is theoretically supported by many teaching approaches, even if many are seldom spelled out. First of all, built on behaviorist theory and widely adopted since the 1880s, the Direct Approach articulated a support for the monolingual teaching practice the L2-only pedagogy. Howatt (1984) argued that it was the unique contribution of the twentieth century to the classroom language teaching (p. 289). Following this, the Audio-lingual Approach, fully developed during the World War II, recommended keeping L1 inactive while the new language is being learnt. However, in the late 1950s, the theoretical underpinnings of these approaches were questioned by linguists such as Noam Chomsky, who pointed out the limitations of structural linguistics. The relevance of behaviorist psychology to language learning was also questioned. Recent teaching approaches do not so forcefully forbid the use of L1 but still regard it as unhelpful during the L2 acquisition. For instance, the Communicative Approach has no necessary relationship with the L1, yet the only times that the L1 is

mentioned is when advice is given on how to minimize its use. Likewise, the Task-based Learning Approach does not even involve a discussion of the classroom use of L1 at all (Nunan, 1989).

L2-only pedagogy is known and promoted in worldwide foreign language teaching beginning with the influential French immersion programs. These language immersion programs, originated in Canada, are cited as the most successful language teaching and learning model and this gave full credit to the L2-only pedagogy. Due to the success of immersion programs, many teachers and students, curriculum developers and school leaders have built a strong belief that L2 is best taught monolingually.

In summary, there is a blind acceptance of the notion that L2-only pedagogy is the best practice and which refuses to entertain any kind of meaningful dialogue about this hegemony, about the realism or desirability of the position or about the potential usefulness of students' L1 in comprehension, communication and acquisition. Nevertheless, an emerging multilingual pedagogy has brought challenges to the L2-only pedagogy's hegemony.

4.3 The multilingual pedagogy

Following the debate sparked by Cook (2001), many recent empirical studies examining when and how much the L2 should be used, and why, have revealed that, in reality, L2-only pedagogy doesn't always work. Many research results (e.g. Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002; Turnbull and McMillan, 2007; Sanaoui, 2005; Cummins,

2000; Swain and Lapkin, 2000) clearly show that teachers vary in terms of the quantity and quality of L2 used, even in contexts that are based on principles of exclusive L2 use. These above-mentioned studies have prompted many scholars to soften the insistence in using L2 only, turning to advocate a multilingual pedagogy.

Multilingual pedagogy sees student's L1 the 'greatest asset any human being brings to the task of L2 learning' (Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009, p.66) and the use of L1 an 'instrumental to the emotional and academic well-being' of the students (Swain, 1986, p.101). Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009) believed that teachers make extensive use of student' L1, especially to build an indispensable Language Acquisition Support System (p.66). Moreover, Butzkamm (1998) argued that belief and systematic episodes of switching to the L1 'can function as a learning aid to enhance communicative competence in the L2' (p. 81). Although it is generally accepted that 'maximizing the use of the L2 in the classroom is beneficial in providing linguistic exposure' (Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009, p.18), many studies have shown that the use of L1 as a MoI can enhance students' comprehension (Greene, 1998; Ramirez, 1992; Willig, 1985).

4.3.1 Rationale for multilingual pedagogy

In a broader sense, Paulo Freire (1970), a theorist of critical pedagogy, pointed out that the content of the curriculum of adult education is drawn from participants' life experiences and invites reflection on these experiences. Similarly, Rivera (1988) argued that education is to empower students to use their L1 actively in order to generate their own curriculum and knowledge (p.2). Therefore, a monolingual pedagogy to L2

learning should be rejected because it denies students the right to draw on their language resources and strengths by forcing a focus on childlike uses of language and excluding the possibility of critical reflection.

Theorists providing evidence of a facilitative effect of the L1 come from three sources. The first of these is sociocultural and psycholinguistic theory. Proponents of multilingual pedagogy draw on Vygotsky (1978), who argued that the transfer of functions from the social (or interpsychological) domain to the cognitive (or intrapsychological) plane occurs within the zone of proximal development (ZDP) (p. 86). Vygotsky also believed that it is within the ZDP that cognitive development occurs, not only during a child's development in the early stage but throughout one's life; and also it is within the ZDP that scaffolding occurs or that semiotically mediated interactions lead to development. Sociocultural studies provided evidence for positively use students' L1 in the L2 classroom. For instance, Antón and DiCamilla (1998) surveyed a group of native English speakers who enrolled in a six-week intensive Spanish class at the beginner level and found that L1 is deployed to provide scaffolded help in the ZPD. Other studies were Swain and Lapkin (2000), Libscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2004), Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) and Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher (2006). These studies provide a fundamental support for the use of L1 in L2 teaching. Macaro (2009) summarized that 'this theory suggests that inner voice and private speech are essential contributors to the way we think and act; and that they are almost always performed in the L1' (p.37). The cognitive purpose is especially important for students with a low level of L2 proficiency dealing with challenging tasks and content (Turnbull and

Dailey-O'Cain 2009, p.6). Morris and Adamson (2010) also argued that students' L1 or their 'familiar languages' can be helpful as a cognitive tool that aids in L2 learning (p.159). If students are able to use their L1 or their 'familiar languages' pedagogically in the classroom to negotiate new content while they are still developing their cognitive and academic language, they might enjoy more fun than suffer from hard working. Meanwhile, some studies (e.g. Kim, 2002; Stables and Wikely, 1999; Littlewood and Yu, 2009) warned that depriving students completely of this support by immersing them in a strange environment, where they feel disoriented and powerless, has been identified as one possible source of de-motivation.

The second theory supporting an L1 facilitative effect is that of the interdependence of L1 and L2. Cummins (1991) proposed an interdependency L1 and L2 proficiency model, which posits an underlying language proficiency common to the L1 and the L2 that students use to support the L2 development, also supports judicious use of the L1 in L2 classroom. In fact, many scholars now agree that 'the language of thought for all but the most advanced L2 students is inevitably his or her L1' (Macaro, 2005, p. 68). Similarly, Auerbach (1993) revisited theoretical discussions on the use of L1 in L2 teaching beyond beginning levels and further pointed out that evidence from both research and practice suggests that the L1 maybe a potential resource rather than an obstacle.

The third theory is from an adaptive review of the input hypothesis. Some scholars (e.g. Ellis, 1994; Cook, 2001; van Lier, 2000) revisited Krashen's input hypothesis and added that L2 exposure is necessary, but not sufficient to guarantee L2 learning, since L2 input

must become intake. The L2 input must be understood by students and internalized, and judicious and theoretically principled L1 use can facilitate intake and thereby contribute to learning.

4.3.2 Programs of multilingual approaches

Many bilingual and multilingual programs emerged in ESL teaching in Canada, America and some European countries. For many L2 researchers and educators, any notion of L1 use in foreign language teaching and learning connotes the fearful grammar-translation methods. However, teaching bilingually and multilingually does not mean a return to that obsolete teaching method, but instead, 'a standpoint which accepts that the thinking, feeling, and artistic life of a person which is very much rooted in their mother tongue' (Piasecka, 1988, p. 97). That is to say, at the initial stages of learning a new language, it is best done through the mother tongue.

As alternating language approaches, many bilingual and multilingual programs are developed for L2 students to learn their L2 at one moment and at another using their L1. In order to achieve bilingualism in English and Spanish, the Dual Language Programs emerged in the United States, where classes were taught through L2 (English) in the morning and L1 (Spanish) in the afternoon (García, 2005, p. 163). Further, the Reciprocal Language Teaching (Hawkins, 1987) was developed in European countries, in which English and French students learned each other's language on alternating occasions, and this course also took place in England and France on alternate years. Nevertheless, while alternating language methods recognize the importance of L1, L1

and L2 are still treated as two languages, as in these programs L1 is valued as another independent language instead of integrating them into one class. These alternating language approaches are limited by requiring two more or less balanced groups of L1 speakers. In common practice, the situation is usually not so ideal. As Cook (2001) pointed out, there have not been teaching methods that have favoured using both languages within the same lesson.

As a result, educators and teachers are endeavoring to integrate L1 into L2 in one language class, where teacher and students switch from one language to another at key points according to particular rules. In this practice, codeswitching skill is acknowledged as an advanced language skill for bilingual speakers and a normal L2 activity. These teaching approaches includes the Community Language Learning (Curran, 1976), the Dodson's Bilingual Method (Dodson, 1985), and the New concurrent Method (Jacobson, 1990). Among these, Dodson's sandwich (Dodson, 1972) method remains one of the most widely applied.

4.3.3 Macaro's optimal model

With the fast development of L2 teaching and learning, many of the above discussed ideas have been proved to be only applicable under circumstances in certain areas rather than a tenable framework that foreign language teachings can draw upon to analyze what they are current do and how they could improve onwards. In recent years, an 'optimal model' is developed by Macaro (2005; 2009, pp. 3-5; p. 36), which has won support from many language educators. The optimal model belongs to a continuum of

perspectives on L2 and L1 use. The continuum illustrates three distinct personal beliefs that teachers might hold towards the L1 use: virtual position; maximal position; and optimal position (Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain, 2009, p. 4).

The virtual position holds a monolingual perspective. It believes that the L2 could only be learnt through that language per se, and that the exclusive use of the L2 provides a kind of 'virtual reality' classroom. *The maximal position* admits that perfect learning conditions (where only L2 is used) do not exist, but it still supports that teachers should maximize the use of L2. As a result, teachers usually feel guilty about using L1 to aid L2 learning. Teachers usually feel guilty for switching codes between students' L1 and the L2. *The optimal position* holds a multilingual perspective. However, in contrast to the maximal position, proponents of the optimal position do not feel guilty about using students' L1 in the L2 class. As Macaco (2009) pointed out, the optimal perspective recognizes value in the L1 use without bearing any pedagogical regrets. The optimal model acknowledges that there is recognizable value in students' L1 use and during the teaching and learning process. With an optimal model, codeswitching between L1 and L2 in broadly communicative classrooms can enhance L2 acquisition and or proficiency better than L2 exclusivity (Macaro, 2009, p.38).

The optimal model is gaining acceptance and is taking effect into practice. One of the most recent supports of the optimal model came from Swain, Kirkpatrick and Cummins (2010). The handbook for ESL teachers in Hong Kong to have a guilt-free life using students' L1 in the English Class has critically examined the English-only principle and

made three arguments for modifying the monolingual policy: (1) Language is a cognitive tool, so using student's L2 helps them to discover and express ideas in the L2; (2) Language is for communicating, thus bilingual and multilingual students regularly made use of a mix of their languages, giving them subtle and complex ways of conveying their ideas, emotions and identities; (3) A multilingual model is more appropriate for today's world, in that English is now playing an important role as a lingua franca and the majority of communication is between people who come from non-English backgrounds (pp. 6-7). Following these three reasons, several guidelines were suggested for teachers and students to use the L1 in a planned and judicious manner: (1) make content comprehensible by building from the known, providing translations for difficult grammar and vocabulary, and using cross-linguistic comparisons, (2) focus on student process and product in task completion, and (3) use L2 for classroom routines. It is believed that the suggested key principles to use students' L1 could help scaffold their learning of English. L2 teachers and students are advised to accept the notion that the L1 apparently serves numerous functions in the L2 class, and that denying a role to the L1 would appear to be a futile endeavor. As a result, these theories and suggestions soon invited many studies to examine the ways of positive use of L1 in L2.

4.4 Research on multilingual pedagogy

Now that educators and scholars have seen value in using student's L1 in the L2 classroom, many of them produced empirical studies to investigate how to effectively integrate L1 into teaching. The use of multilingual pedagogy has been examined

extensively in the research on foreign language teaching, mostly from ESL teaching, but also from the teaching of French, Spanish, German and many other foreign languages. These empirical studies are categorized in accordance with three different research objects: L2 students, L2 teachers and L2 classrooms.

4.4.1 Research on L2 students

As Norton (2000) pointed out that when language students speak, they are not only exchanging information with target language speakers, but they are constantly organizing and reorganizing a sense of who they are and how they related to the social world (p.11). Thus, codeswitching becomes a widely observed phenomenon as the L2 students switch from one language to another in the same discourse to create new positions to improve their interactional opportunities.

4.4.1.1 Students' codeswitching

There is a rich body of literature in which different definitions and models of the concept and practice of codeswitching have been elaborated. However, the term 'codeswitching' in this theis will be used in a broader sense, which including code choice, code mixing, and other forms of different language elements involved in one interlocutor's utterance.

Codeswitching acquired a bad reputation in the field of L2 as it is viewed by many educators as a source of language interference at various levels. However, with the recognition of the usefulness of L1, codeswitching is also reported as not only

facilitating classroom managements and transmission of lesson content, but also preparing students for their sociolinguistic life beyond the classroom (Canagarajah, 1995). Likewise, Holliday (1994) argued that students working in groups or pairs do not have to speak the L2 all the time; they can speak in the L1 about a text and if through this process they are producing hypotheses about the language, then what they are doing is communicative. Codeswitching is thus regarded as a learning strategy for L2 students.

At present, studies on L2 students' codeswitching are mostly about how much L1 and L2 is used and in what circumstances they use L1 to affiliate their L2 learning and conversations. In addition to purposes for 'linguistic functions', Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2004) studied a group of advanced German students in a content-based college course and suggested an affective and sociolinguistic function, which has delineated the reasons for students' language choices in given circumstances. However, the reasons why they switch codes between L1 and L2 and their attitudes about their conscious or unconscious codeswitching behaviors call for more complex studies on students' individual differences.

4.4.1.2 Students' individual differences

Students' individual differences include age, gender, language learning experience, mother tongue proficiency, personality, learning aptitude, learning attitude and motivation, sense modality preference, social preference, etc. (e.g. Altman, 1980; Skehan, 1989). As Pavlenko (2002) noted, L2 students' individual differences can mediate their access to linguistic and interactional resources available in the L2. Though

studies on students' individual differences cover various areas, this thesis focuses on L2 student's attitude towards L2 learning, especially to their codeswitching behavior.

Studies on L2 learning strategies have suggested that students' attitudes would be likely to be an underlying factor in codeswitching in L2 class. With regard to the use of L1 in L2 teaching, the prevailing L2-pedagogy may cause a 'L2-use anxiety' and many empirical studies have supported this assumption. For instance, Young (1990) found that students generally become anxious when they have to use the L2 in front of others. Levine (2003) investigated 600 FL students about the overall use of L2, attitudes about L2 and L1 use, and anxiety. Further, Polio and Duff (1994) noted that it is hard to have some sort of relaxed atmosphere with L2 students in the L2 only (p. 318). For many students, it is widely accepted that the greater L2 use may be accompanied by greater anxiety about L2 use. As a result, students would resort to a language learning strategy to cope with the anxiety, build a comfortable learning environment, create communicative and meaningful learning environment. Auer (2002) pointed out that, wherever it is employed, code-switching counts as a discursive strategy that achieves communicative ends by either building on or violating what are commonly seen as fixed boundaries (p. i). That codeswitching functions as a conversation and learning strategy has invited many mixed-method studies.

4.4.2 Research on L2 teachers

With regard to the use of L1 in L2 class, L2 teachers are usually surveyed to examine their beliefs, identity and actual instructional practices. To date, numerous empirical studies have been done in L2 teaching.

4.4.2.1 Teacher belief

Belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior (Borg, 2001, p. 186). Williams and Burden (1997) argued that 'beliefs are notoriously difficult to define and evaluate, but there do appear to be a number of helpful statements that we can make about them. They tend to be culturally bound, to be formed early in life and to be resistant to change' (p. 56). That is, a belief system is intellectually and affectively complex, and cannot presume to be fully captured by people's response to a set of normative statements (Wilkinson and Schwartz, 1989; Weinstein, 1994).

That teacher beliefs could have a direct effect on their teaching is not new. Ghaith (2004) described teacher beliefs as 'comprehensive of several dimensions relative to beliefs about learning, teaching, program and curriculum, and the teaching profession more generally' (p. 280). Borg (2006) summarized by saying that teacher beliefs are teachers' pedagogical beliefs or those beliefs of relevance to an individual teaching. The diversity of theoretical framework in language teaching and learning beliefs research creates a rich tapestry of complimentary studies. Many approaches to the studies of teacher beliefs were developed. On the basis on definition of beliefs, research methodology, and

the relationship between beliefs and other factors, Barcelos (2003) distinguished three main approaches: nominative; metacognitive; and contextual.

Research studies within contextual approach are qualitative in nature and contribute to an interpretive paradigm. A number of research studies have employed the contextual approach to explore L2 teachers' beliefs of using students' L1 in L2 class (e.g. Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002; Macaro, 2001; Levine, 2003; Crawford, 2004). To be specific, in a task-based ESL class, Carless (2008) interviewed ten teachers and ten teacher educators through semi-structured interviews in Hong Kong secondary schools to investigate their beliefs about the use of students' L1. Most of the teacher participants took a pragmatic view of L1 use, considering it to be inevitable. Teacher participants generally expressed a preference for L2 use but acknowledged that in order to maintain students' attention, interest or involvement, contributions in the L1 needed to be permitted (p. 333). And Carless further classified teachers' use of students' L1 into two categories: communicative tasks and language analysis tasks (p.336).Similarly, Eldridge (1996) classified the purposes into four types for teachers to use students' L1: equivalence; floor-holding; reiteration; and conflict control.

4.4.2.2 Teacher identity

Welmond (2002) pointed out that teacher identity is comprised of the beliefs that teachers hold about their individual role as teachers, as well as the view of society towards teachers. Drake, Spillance and Hufferd-Ackes (2001) saw teacher identity as the teachers' individual-self concept as well as their knowledge, ideology, attitudes, and

disposition towards responsibility and change. As its core, an understanding of teacher identity enables the researcher to analyze 'the ways in which teachers achieve, maintain, and develop their identity, their sense of self, in and through a career which is of vital significance in understanding the actions and commitments of teachers in their work' (Ball and Goodson, 1985, p.18). Therefore, the concept of teacher identity becomes critical for researchers if they want to gain a deeper understanding of the factors that influence teachers' attitudes and beliefs in everyday educational practice (Williams, 2007, p. 309).

Language teacher identity is an emerging subject of interest in research on language teacher

education and teacher development. Yet, for many, L2 teacher identity remains confused when discussing their attitudes about the L1 and L2. For many teachers, the argument about the language of education is also an argument about national identity, as much as about developing the intellectual skills of children. In fact, main many countries are facing challenges of how to maintain their identity in the face of internationalization of English.

Martin (2005), Lee (2003), Mardziah and Wong (2006) studied the ethnic identity and attitudes towards the use of English and found that ESL teachers in Malaysia strongly felt that English is a threat to their ethnic and national identity. Some teachers even regarded those who used English widely as unpatriotic. Tsui (2005) argued that many Asian countries are in the process of reinventing national identity at the same time as

they are 'legitimating' the hegemony of English by making it a central feature of national development. In most cases, this paradox is resolved by appropriating English in ways which do least damage to their national language and identity. This includes pedagogical practices and systematic biases in research which evaluates them – traditional EFL privileges very western ideas about expected relations, for example, between teacher, student and text. Hence, arguments about the priorities of different languages in education and the best age to start learning them, may conceal deeper issues about cognitive learning styles and expected relationships between teacher and student. But as English becomes more widely used as a global language, it will become expected that speakers will signal their nationality, and other aspects of their identity, through English.

Studies of teacher belief and teacher identity are further examined by observing their actual classroom practice. Comprehensive reviews of teacher beliefs and practice have found both congruence and incongruence between the two. Johnson (1992) is one the early studies that explored the relationship between ESL teachers' beliefs and practices in reading instruction. The study invited 30 ESL teachers for interviews to describe what they believed of an ideal ESL class. Their classroom practices were found to be consistent with their beliefs. In contrast, discrepancies are also revealed in terms of teacher's beliefs about using L2 only while practicing with a multilingual pedagogy. Polio and Duff (1994) mentioned that teachers reminded students a number of times that they must use the L2 in their small-group language practice, however, the teacher soon

later switched to students' L1 to give a translation and then a grammatical explanation in response to a certain language point (p. 320).

4.4.3 Research on L2 classroom

Studies focused L2 classroom are found to aim at two targets. One is to provide guidelines and principles for using students' L1 in a more conscious, sensitive and effective way. Another goal is to identify common purposes for using students' L1.

4.4.3.1 Principles of L1 use in L2 class

Lai (1996) recorded classroom teaching by four pre-service ESL teachers in Hong Kong and described the situations which rendered the use of the L1 necessary for the ESL teachers, the way which student's L1 is used as well as what triggers the use of L1 in ESL class. Later, Cook (2001) pointed out four factors to consider in terms of whether or not students' L1 to be used: (1) efficiency: Can something be done more effectively through the L1? (2) learning: Will L2 learning be helped by using the L1 alongside the L2? (3) naturalness: Do the participants feel more comfortable about some functions or topics in the L1 rather than the L2? (4) external relevance: Will use of both languages help students to master specific L2 uses that they may need in the world beyond classroom? The four factors helps L2 teachers decide when and how to achieve the practical goals in learning L2. Moreover, Maraco and Mutton (2002) found that teachers can achieve many pedagogical functions in a very short time in using students' L1, thus still allowing for significant 'discourse space' in L2. Likewise, Macaro (2000, p.184) reminds that too much focus on the L2, with long periods of input modification, result in

teacher-fronted lessons in which individual students only speak the L2 for limited amounts of time (Chambers, 1992).

To sum up, this study concludes there are three core principles for using L1 into L2 classroom. By summarizing the principles of L1 use in L2 class, L2 teachers will know when to use students' L1 to assist the L2 teaching.

4.4.3.2 Purposes of L1 use in L2 class

The following reviews some established aims of L1 use in L2 class. First of all, Swain and Lapkin (2000) developed three principal purposes for a task-based classroom. The coding categories they established for instances of L1 use are as follows (p.258):

1. Moving the task along: (a) sequencing (figuring out the order of events); (b) retrieving semantic information, understanding pieces of information; developing an understanding of the story; (c) task management.
2. Focusing attention: (a) vocabulary search; (b) focus on form; explanation; framing; retrieving grammatical information.
3. Interpersonal interaction: (a) off task; (b) disagreement.

Second, Polio and Duff (1994) listed eight items for three categories of purposes for L1 use in the L2 classroom (p.317):

1. Function of item/utterances produced: (a) for administrative vocabulary items; (b) for grammar instruction; (c) for classroom management; (d) to index a stance of empathy/ solidarity; (e) for L1 practice by the teacher with tutoring from the students.

2. Difficulty of the language being used: (a) to provide translations for unknown L2 vocabulary; (b) to remedy students' apparent lack of comprehension.
3. Interactive effect involving students' use of L1.

Third, Cook (2001) described three ways of using L1 positively in teaching (p. p. 413-419):

1. Teachers use L1 to convey meaning: (a) to convey and check meaning of words or sentences; (b) to explain grammar.
2. Teachers use L1 to organize the class: (a) to organize task; (b) to maintain discipline; (c) to gain contact with individual student; (d) to run tests and examinations.
3. Student use L1 within class: (a) as part of the main learning activity; (b) as classroom activities.

Many similarities are seen from the above three studies. They all emphasized the importance of using students' L1 for explaining L2 grammar and translating L2 vocabulary for explaining or conveying meaning. Second, the three models all mentioned the usefulness of L1 for teachers to manage classroom task and maintain a good learning environment. Third, students can use the L1 to achieve interactive effect with teachers and among students themselves as well.

To sum up, three categories for sensibly using L1 into L2 classroom are summarized as follow:

1. The explanatory purpose: teachers use students' L1 for explaining metalinguistic content of L2, checking comprehension, providing necessary scaffolding for classroom student learning, etc.

2. The managerial purpose: teachers use students' L1 for giving activity instructions, giving feedbacks, praising, encouraging, disapproving, planning assignments or preparing tests, examinations, etc.
3. The interactive purpose: students use L1 to communicate with each other or provide peer support for each other, etc.

4.5 Chinese-only Pedagogy

In the teaching of Chinese as a L2, Chinese-only pedagogy is the predominant language policy across China. Despite a rigid regulation of using Chinese-only pedagogy by the state language policy and teaching syllabuses (see section 2.5), there has been intensive debates on whether or not to use ELF as a MoI in CFL class. Two camps, in fact, have formed, on allowing or disallowing the use of ELF in CFL class. On one side, proponents of Chinese-only pedagogy argue that Chinese is best taught through Chinese only and the use of students' L1 always result in negative transfers in the process of acquiring Chinese the L2. On the other side, opponents of the Chinese-only pedagogy argue by providing empirical evidence that CFL teachers, in practice, applied ELF pedagogy to various degrees.

Supporters of the Chinese-only pedagogy follow the regulations laid down by the state language policy and teaching syllabuses. As can be seen from the excerpts below, little value is accorded to the ELF. These pedagogical assumptions are from a few prestigious Chinese scholars whose opinions might have influenced and shaped CFL teachers beliefs. For example, Lü Bisong (1993) regulated that

我们原则上不反对在第二语言教学中使用媒介语，但主张把媒介语的使用减少到最低限度，只是在不得已的时候使用。

In principle, we do not object to the use of English as the MoI in Chinese teaching, but we aim to minimize its use, or only use it as the last resort (p. 84).

This was probably one of the earliest statements to regulate the use of English as the medium of instruction in the teaching of Chinese). Moreover, CFL teachers are also warned to avoid switching codes between Chinese and English. Liu Xun (2000) argued that

应尽量运用目的语与学习者沟通，避免语言转换或夹杂学生的母语或媒介语。

Use as much target language as possible to communicate with students, avoid switching codes or mixing students' L1 or English with Chinese the target language. (p. 351).

Yang Huiyuan (2004) specified circumstances where English can be use as a MoI and where not. Yang argued that

教师在讲解的时候可以适当使用外语，但是课堂用语绝对不能使用外语。

Teachers can use some foreign languages to explain the language point, but never use any foreign languages when giving directions.

Negative consequences are presented as a result of using student's L1 or English. Sun Dejin (2003) argued that

实践中我们都有这样的体会，学生非常反感教师上课总以外语讲授，有的学生甚至干脆不客气地告诉老师“我是来学汉语的，不是来学外语的”。

> In teaching, we all have this experience. Students found it very annoying that teachers overused the students' L1 or English. Some students even complained that 'I'm here to learn Chinese, not foreign languages (p. 101).

Lastly, Liu Xun (2006) pointed out that CFL teachers should strictly abide the Chinese-only principle and use Chinese exclusively in class. Liu argued that

> 课堂上则应严格体现"沉浸法"的精神，尽可能使用目的语，除了必要的翻译练习外，不使用母语或媒介语。
>
> The Chinese class should strictly follow the 'spirit of immersion approach' and use the target language as much as possible. Except for necessary translation, the students' L1 or English is forbidden. (p.118).

Chinese-only pedagogy is thought to be the most successful. CFL teaching borrowed the term of 'immersion' from the Canadian immersion program in promoting the Chinese-only pedagogy (Zhang Xiaolu, 2006, pp.1-3). Historically, the Middlebury College, one the most prestigious Chinese summer schools in the United States, adopted an intensive immersion program in the teaching of Chinese. Many Chinese scholars (Ji Chuanbo, 2006; Shi Zhongmou, 1994; Zhang Xirong and Tian Dexin, 2004) have examined the 'Middlebury Model' and introduced it to China. In mainland China, the 'Princeton in Beijing (PiB)' program follows and applies the Middlebury model and became the first program to promote the spirit of immersion approach in Beijing (Zhu Zhiping, 1996, p.46). PiB, began in 1993, is one of the most well-known American summer language programs in Beijing and PiB's 'total immersion' approach requires

students to speak no language other than Chinese. Students take a 'language pledge' (Mu Ling, 2007). The text of the pledge is as follows:

> I hereby pledge to use, in all my contacts, no language other than Mandarin Chinese for the duration of the program. I understand that failure to abide by the pledge will result in my dismissal from the program and forfeiture of tuition (Princeton in Beijing).

PiB is famous for its rigorous monolingual pedagogy and its strict language pledge. Following this Chinese-only model, hundreds of summer intensive programs and short term training Chinese programs in universities in Beijing adopt this method, examples include the *Associated Colleges in China* in Capital University of Economics and Business, *International Education of Students* in Beijing Foreign Studies University and, *Columbia University Program* in Peking University. However, the above mentioned study-in-China programs are believed to be more suitable for highly capable and highly motivated CFL students (Xing, 2006, p.71).

Many Chinese scholars have suggested ways to abide by the Chinese-only pedagogy in the CFL classes. Liang Ninghui (1998) suggested a few methods to avoid the use of English: (1) use flashcards; (2) make gestures; (3) elicit students to imitate; (4) use students' interlangauge; (5) ask students to use dictionary; (6) ask students to explain to each other (p. 41-42), at occasions when the use of English are triggered. It's clearly revealed from these solutions that students are treated as school pupils and the boundary of L1 acquisition and L2 learning is inevitably mixed. Moreover, the class is assumed to be teacher-centered in that the importance of communication between teachers and students might be negatively impeded if teachers simply requesting students to check

new words in dictionary by themselves, instead of helping them translate and convey the meaning in time. Furthermore, Wang Hanwei (2007) investigated 420 CFL students by questionnaires for their choices of language use in class. The report argued that only English native speakers support the use of English and students from Korea and Japan opposed to it due to their limited English proficiency. However, the result is doubtful due to its oversimplified research method and generalization of this small scale research that no Korean and Japanese people speak English. In a recent study, Du Yalin (2009) followed Wang Hanwei's assumption that Korean and Japanese students are not English speakers, argued that the use of English is limited to students from a few English speaking countries and only useful to students in the beginning stage (p. 136). Du then argued that the exclusion of English in CFL class is not only possible but also necessary.

4.6 Evidence against Chinese-only pedagogy

Many studies have emerged to question the Chinese-only pedagogy in recent years. One of the most studied and discussed areas concern absolute CFL beginners. Another is from the study of medium of instruction problem in CFL class.

'Absolute beginners' refers to those who have no or very little prior knowledge of Chinese language before they come to study in China. They are usually mixed with other beginners who have more background knowledge of Chinese in the same class. Absolute beginners are expected to benefit from the Chinese-only pedagogy as much as other CFL learners in higher levels. In terms of answering why potential CFL students should come to China to study Chinese, most CFL professionals believe that China

provides an opportunity for students to communicate with native Chinese in and out of classroom, an environment absent in Western countries. Nevertheless, given the fact that native speakers of Chinese use their language fluidly and converse at a comparatively fast speed, many believe that only advanced or intermediate CFL students can benefit from the trip. Therefore, Kubler et al. (1997) argued that only those who have studied Chinese for at least 'two or three years' prior to their arrival in China will be able to 'take optimal advantage' of this environment (p.173). Thus, for absolute beginners, especially in a short term course or summer course, it becomes questionable that they should go to China to study Chinese in the first place. The American National Foreign Language Center's Guide for Basic Chinese Language Programs (cited by Jones, 2005) lists two major problems for CFL beginners in China: (1) They tend to stay by themselves because of their inability to converse in Chinese with the local people; (2) They feel pressured to learn fragmentary Chinese to meet their survival needs (p. 71).

For teaching CFL beginners, a bilingual model has been discussed. Through a comparison of results from the control group, Ouyang Wanjun's (2003) experimental study showed that a bilingual model is very helpful to absolute beginners for improving their language skills and enhanced the comprehensibility of conversations (p. 76). Ouyang Wanjun found that CFL beginners from Korea were struggling with their class instructions and often need to rely on Korean-knowing tutors to help them translate the Chinese after school. Moreover, Xie Min, et al. (2007) and Wang Danrong (2010) argued that CFL teachers should become Chinese and English bilinguals and CFL teacher training should focus on their pedagogical skills in English.

Studies on MoI have reached a consensus on the use of 'other languages' (mostly refers to ELF) in CFL class by proposing a 'moderation principle'. Xu Pinxiang (2008) argued ELF should be used moderately and put forwarded the 'moderation principle'. Xu argued that the use of ELF should consider four factors: (1) to whom, (2) at which level, (3) for how long and (4) for how much. Following Xu, many studies discussed this issue. Jiao Jiao (2009) suggested that advanced CFL students would be more satisfactory if 80% to 100% of the class was in Chinese; and 50% for intermediate or lower level CFL students (p. 24). Further, Chen Jingyang (2010) suggested that CFL teachers should observe Xu's 'moderation principle' and diminish the possibility of negative transfer from ELF. These and many studies attempting regulating the use of ELF in CFL class have proved the importance of using ELF effectively. It's true that both advantage and disadvantages exist for using ELF, but it is not enough to stop at such a general moderation principle. Up to date, very few thick descriptions of the current situation of language use in CFL classrooms through empirical research.

4.7 ELF pedagogy

There has been intensive discussion about the importance for CFL teachers to use English as well as students' L1 for CFL teaching. In recent years, the Chinese government is striving to develop a group of multilingual CFL teachers, who are expected to speak one of those less-commonly-taught foreign languages in mainland China, such as Korean, Japanese, French, Russian, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Arabic, Bulgarian, Slovenian, Albanian, Croatian, Czech, etc. However, these multilingual CFL

teachers are trained to teach Chinese in designated overseas countries instead of teaching through multiple codes in China's universities. In fact, only a few empirical studies have attempted to address the issue of CFL teacher training for increasingly multilingual classrooms in China. These studies are to be introduced in the Chapter six, seven and eight. Due to the foreign language competence of CFL teachers, only in rare cases can CFL teachers speak the L1 of the students. Thus, corresponding to previous discussions, there is relatively little possibility to develop the 'L1 pedagogy' to scaffold the CFL teaching. On the other hand, it's equally important to bear in mind that CFL students are highly diversified linguistically and the CFL class is usually shaped by very different L1 speakers. It's not realistic to expect CFL teachers to be able to speak all potential students' L1. However, under such circumstances, English is indisputably the most commonly and widely used foreign language for both the CFL teachers and students. Thus, as one of the few shared languages between CFL teachers and students, and between students, English is, in fact, the potential lingua franca.

Specifically, in the CFL teaching and learning context in China, CFL teachers and students are very likely resorting to English as a commonly shared language for learning the Chinese language and understanding the Chinese culture. This thesis will investigate whether English as lingua franca plays a role as an alternating pedagogy for students of Chinese and Chinese teachers in the increasingly globalized context.

4.8 Summary

This chapter has reviewed the previous studies and discussions about the L1 use in L2 learning in L2 teaching from three different angles: L2 students, L2 teachers and L2 classrooms. On this basis, the chapter further introduced the related studies of CFL students, CFL teachers and CFL classroom with regard to the problem of using ELF. Chapter 5 will introduce a multi-method research design for this thesis.

CHAPTER 5 RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 Context of the study

The rise of Chinese- fever, caused by the fast development of China in the past decade, is only a recent phenomenon. Meanwhile, the teaching and spread of English has a relatively longer history and has already achieved worldwide success. English language is being accepted as the international lingua franca at an increasingly high speed all over the world. It is beileved that today's CFL students and CFL teachers might potentially be English speakers who are capable of communicating through ELF. The context of the study involves the spread and development of two major languages in the world. Based on the preceding introduction of the popularity of Chinese language and the spread of ELF all over the world, the thesis attempts to consider these two backgrounds and to merge them into one research context, in particular for the investigation of how English as a lingua franca play its role and how CFL teachers and students feel about the use of English in CFL classroom.

5.2 Research purposes and questions

Within the above defined context of research, the purpose of this study is to explore the use of ELF pedagogy for CFL teachers and students and in the CFL classrooms. Despite a stated adherence to a Chinese-only policy, ELF pedagogy is playing a role in CFL teaching in China. To discover or describe the phenomenon, it's crucial to hear opinions from both CFL teachers and students, and further examine the actual use of ELF in the

classroom interaction. For this reason, this study sought to answer the following three research questions:

1. What are CFL students' attitudes towards the Chinese-only pedagogy and/or ELF pedagogy?
2. What are CFL teachers' beliefs about ELF pedagogy and how identity shapes their beliefs?
3. What are CFL classroom's teaching practice with focus on the use of ELF pedagogy?

Each section of the study provide addictive research questions and these are listed in each relevant chapter.

5.3 A multi-method research design

In order to answer these research questions, the study will conduct three individual yet interrelated studies. This multi-method approach research helps to map out or explain more fully the richness and complexity of human behavior by studying it from more than one standpoint and by making use of both quantitative and qualitative data (Cohen and Manion, 1994, p.235).

Both quantitative and qualitative methods applied, the investigation of ELF pedagogy primarily follows a multi-method research approach. It sought to describe, analyze and interpret a culture-sharing group's shared patterns of behavior, beliefs, and language that develop over time (Creswell, 2008, p. 473). In order to do this, the researcher has made

two trips to the research sites and spent a few weeks there. In fact, the researcher had good connections with the research sites and had good knowledge of the research sites. These advantages enabled the researcher to conduct a multi-method research, providing a full and thick description.

In order to investigate ELF pedagogy, a combination of research methods was applied, questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data from international students of Chinese, in-depth interviews were used to collect qualitative data from CFL teachers, and the classroom observations were used to collect data from natural settings. 497 CFL students were surveyed by questionnaire and 24 teachers were interviewed. In addition, four classes were observed for their actual classroom interactions and use of ELF pedagogy. Table 5.1 describes the research instruments and the surveyed sample in this thesis. The next three chapters will introduce the research methods respectively and in more detail.

Table 5.1. The breakdown of the three studies in the thesis.

Research target	Research instrument	Number of participant
CFL students	Questionnaire	497 students surveyed
CFL teachers	in-depth interview	24 teachers interviewed
CFL classrooms	classroom observation	four classes observed

5.4 Research sites

The investigation was carried out in October 2010; one month after the winter semester began in Beijing. It is believed to be the more appropriate research period in this study,

since after one month's living and studying in Beijing, CFL students should have known the teaching methods and their needs for studying CFL, and have had a better understanding of the social environment. The data collection was completed between the 11th and 22nd, October 2010.

The researcher spent one year in contacting potential research sites. It started from ten Beijing's key universities which offer CFL programs, of which four agreed to provide access to the researcher. The four universities were: Peking University (PU), Renmin University of China (RUC), Beihang University (BU) and Beijing Foreign Studies University (BFSU). Based on the statistics from the respective administration offices, there were, at the time of the data collecting, approximately 1,600 international students studying Chinese language in the four universities and 116 full-time CFL teachers. Of these, this research managed to survey a total of 497 students, representing about 31.1% of the total cohort; and interviewed 24 CFL teachers. Four CFL teachers among the 24 interviewed agreed to open their class for observations. Table 5.2 described the distribution of the participants in the four research sites.

Table 5.2. Participants in the thesis.

	A	B	C	D	Total
Surveyed students	79	194	137	87	497
Total students*	390	410	300	500	1,610
Surveyed teachers	5	8	5	6	24
Total teachers	25	34	25	32	116

*approximately

5.5 A pilot study

A pilot study was conducted with 115 CFL students and eight CFL teachers. The CFL students were surveyed by questionnaires and CFL teachers were interviewed. The pilot study (Wang Danping, 2010) has been published. Data from the pilot study will not be presented in this thesis, but the pilot study provided a useful starting point for the major study.

5.6 Ethic issues

This investigation has received approval from the Deans of the faculties in the research sites. The administrative office, functioning as gatekeepers, provided access to the sites, helped locate people and assisted in identification of places to study.

The questionnaire starts with an introduction to the purpose and procedures of the study, explaining that participation was completely voluntary and anonymous, and indicated that participant's completion of the survey depended upon their informed consent. The questionnaire provided names and emails of the researcher for further contact should there be any problems or concerns. Respondents were instructed to read each statement and tick the box that most closely reflected their understanding or opinions.

All interview participants signed the Consent Form in advance. They understood why their participation was necessary and how it would be used only for academic purposes. Participants recognized the right to withdraw from the research for any or no reason and at any time. All interview participants agreed to have the conversations audio-recorded

for research purposes. Audio-recorders were used instead. The researcher assured the participants of confidentiality. All personal data concealed behind a shield of anonymity.

Classroom observations were conducted according to the convenience of class meeting times and the teachers' willingness to participate. The research sites prohibited bringing any video recorders into the teaching areas, in order to protect the confidentiality of the CFL students in the classes. However, the Faculty Deans in the four schools agreed to have class recorded with audio recorders. In fact, audio recordings are sufficient for collecting data in that this study focuses on the interactions of teachers and students instead of facial expressions or body gestures, etc. Only the segments of lessons where English was used were transcribed.

Recorders and recorded files were handled carefully. Two audio recorders were used to ensure there was a recording in the event of one recorder malfunctioning. The small size of audio recorders would not draw attentions from CFL students when they were having class. The researcher sat at the back of the classroom with the audio recorders on the table. The recorded files were clear enough to identify teachers and students interactions. These audio files were stored in the researcher's computer and would be kept with high confidentiality after the study was finished.

5.6 Summary

This chapter has introduced the research purposes and research questions for this thesis. It explained the need to conduct a multi-method study for collecting data from different groups of participants, CFL students, CFL teachers and actual CFL classroom interactions. The chapter also introduced the research sites and gave a brief reviewing and ended by describing the ethic issues. The next chapter reviews and discusses the findings of the students' questionnaire.

CHAPTER 6 ENGLISH FOR CFL STUDENTS

6.1 Previous research in CFL teaching

This study represents the first part of the multipart study. In the CFL teaching, many studies have been done on CFL students' attitudes and beliefs, such as learning strategy and motivation, beliefs about language learning, learning style (Ding Anqi, 2010). Nevertheless, very little work has considered CFL students' attitudes towards the use of ELF, such as which language CFL students would choose as a communication medium with their CFL teachers and among their peers, especially when their Chinese language proficiency remains limited. Current thinking about English for CFL students leans towards codeswitching, language choice and individual differences.

6.1.1 CFL students' codeswitching

Codeswitching is believed to be a positive way for learning Chinese. For instance, a sociolinguistics study (i.e. Li Yao, 2010) investigated a group of CFL students at beginner level and discussed benefits for CFL students to switch codes between English and Chinese. Likewise, Yu Houlin (2007) argued that CFL students need to resort to English for understanding the class and the knowledge embedded in the Chinese language. Moreover, Zhao Jiangmin and Fan Zukui (2010) examined and proved the importance of codeswitching for teaching CFL students from Central Asian countries in Xinjiang, China. In addition, on the basis of a social interactive perspective, many pragmatics studies (Jiang Yongfang, 2008; Li Yan, 2010) also provided support for CFL students' codeswitching practices between English and Chinese. In terms of attitudes

towards the use of English, Zhang Yifang (2007) investigated 24 CFL students through questionnaires (approximately 50% from Korea) and found that the surveyed CFL students switched codes mostly between Chinese and English. Whereas 95% Korean CFL beginners argued that the lack of English proficiency left them only capable of switching codes between Chinese and Korean, mostly for conversations with their Korean peers; and 45% of intermediate level CFL students claimed that they had to give up switching codes when taking account of CFL teachers' foreign language ability. Lastly, advanced CFL students reported little evidence about their codeswitching practice.

To sum up, in terms of research methods, studies with a focus on student's codeswitching behavior and individual differences are mostly quantitative ones to generate potential correlations among many variables. As for research instruments, studies mostly used to the two sets of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (Horwitz, et al, 1986) and the Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (Horwitz, 1988).

6.1.2 CFL students' individual differences

CFL Students' use of English to assist the Chinese learning is believed to be influenced by their individual differences, such as students' overall Chinese proficiency, language background, English language proficiency, motivation for learning Chinese, learning strategy, anxiety for using Chinese in class, etc.. Qian Xujing (1999) investigation of 95 CFL students in Peking University by using Horwitz's FLCAS survey model and found

a relationship between the CFL students' country of origin and their anxiety, when the sampled CFL students were classified into three groups: (1) Japan, (2) Korea and (3) America, Canada and Australia (p. 147). It indicated that CFL students from America, Canada and Australia have stronger anxiety in classroom communication than the other two groups due to the difference of teaching pedagogy in the 'West' and in China. And the study suggested that students from America, Canada and Australia were more anxious about reading and speaking due to their disadvantages in the prior knowledge of Chinese characters in comparison with their Japanese and Korean peers. However, no other correlations were found in gender, age, cultural background, expectation, length and level of Chinese studying. Furthermore, Jin Yi (2009) investigated 70 CFL students from a German university to compare their attitudes towards learning Chinese and English respectively by using Horwitz's BALLI (1987) survey model. The study found that the sampled students felt that Chinese was harder than English, not only for the difficulty of Chinese language but also due to the language distance and culture distance. Moreover, it also showed that these German CFL students attached greater importance to the learning of English because the chance for using English is much more than that for Chinese. Learning Chinese is like an extra bonus for them to look for a better job (p.64).

This thesis will draws on the previous studies for developing a questionnaire to survey CFL students' attitudes towards the use of ELF. For questionnaire design, some particular questions are selected from Horwitz's FLCAS scale (1986) and BALLI (1988) scale through a careful consideration to its relevance. However, this thesis shall not use

the whole complete scales or simply ask the same questions translated from the original version of the scale, but it will rearrange and reword the questions and develop a set of new questions in order to elicit CFL students' attitudes towards language choice and the use of English.

6.2 Research purpose and question

The purpose of this part of study is to describe the situations of language use from CFL students' perspective and their attitudes towards the ELF pedagogy. This part of the study sought answers for the four following research questions:

1. What is the current situation with regard to the use of languages in the classroom?
2. If English is used, how do CFL teachers and students achieve practical goals through the ELF pedagogy?
3. What are CFL students' attitudes towards the Chinese-only pedagogy and/or ELF pedagogy?
4. How do the reported attitudes relate to CFL students' personal backgrounds?

This part of study attempts to provide factual data and statistical outcomes which can be generalized to a larger population. By answering these questions, this sub-study with CFL students will also offer some recommendations for CFL classroom language use, which appeared to be indicated by the questionnaire results. These results will also help to adapt the interview protocols for investigating CFL teachers in Chapter 7 and direct the classroom observation in Chapter 8.

6.3 Research method

A questionnaire survey is believed to be the most appropriate research instrument for collecting data from CFL students in this part of study. Dörnyei (2002) quoted questionnaire as 'any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers' (p. 6). A properly designed questionnaire can be used for eliciting opinions from a good number of multilingual and multicultural CFL students. To survey a relatively large sample is also one of the aims for this thesis.

Considering the variation in students' proficiency both in Chinese and English, the questionnaire was bilingual (see Appendix I). First, two experienced CFL teachers who were teaching CLF beginners during the time of this survey were invited to go through the questionnaire in Chinese and they gave several suggestions to simplify and shorten the questions and use only high frequency Chinese characters. Ambiguous statements and expressions with difficult Chinese structures were modified. Second, three advanced CFL students from the United States in the Renmin University were invited to check the English versions. Their suggestions led to a series of revisions and adjustments. Based on their suggestions and a detailed discussion with the researcher's supervisor, the questionnaire was improved to make it more appropriate for the context of Beijing's CFL teaching, and more importantly, CFL participants' vocabulary capacity. Finally the whole questionnaire was reviewed and checked by two specialists in the area of Chinese language teaching and one expert in English language teaching. In this way, the Chinese and English bilingual questionnaire was developed.

The questionnaire consisted of seven sections. **Section 1** was about participants' demographics. It sought to elicit the background information of the participants through 10 questions on gender, age, country of origin, mother tongue, Chinese studying time, length of studying Chinese before coming to China, self-evaluation of Chinese language proficiency, foreign language ability, length of studying English before coming to China, self-evaluation of English language proficiency.

Section 2 comprised four multiple choice questions to elicit the situations of language use. This part also asked about the most desirable situation of language use in Chinese class for teachers and students from the students' perspective.

Section three to section seven of the questionnaire consist of 50 Likert-scale questions designed to elicit attitudes towards CFL. These Likert-scale items consisted of statements for participants to rate across a five point scale (1= strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither; 4= agree, 5=strongly agree).

Section 3 focussed on the use of English. Part A consists of 10 items to examine to what extent teachers use English to achieve practical goals in teaching Chinese. Part B consists of 10 counterpart items to examine to what extent students use English to achieve practical goals in learning Chinese. These categories were grouped into categories by means of a coding scheme, which was established by previous studies as discussions about 'purposes' (Swain and Lapkin, 2000, p. 257), 'framework'

(Littlewood and Yu, 2009, p.70), 'ways' for using L1 in L2 classroom (Cook, 2001, p. 413).

Section 4 focussed on attitudes towards the Chinese-only pedagogy. It consists of 10 items with 5 positively keyed statements and 5 negatively keyed statements towards the Chinese-only pedagogy. A high score represents students' positive attitudes towards using Chinese-only pedagogy. A low score represents students' negative attitudes towards using Chinese-only pedagogy.

Section 5 focussed on attitudes towards the use of EFL pedagogy. It consists of 10 items with 5 positively keyed statements and 5 negatively keyed statements towards the ELF pedagogy. A high score of this construct represents students' positive attitudes towards using ELF pedagogy. A low score of this construct represents students' negative attitudes towards using ELF pedagogy.

Section 6: focussed on attitudes towards the use of English in the CFL textbooks. It consists of 8 items. A high score represents the extent of satisfaction of the current textbooks for students. A low score represents the extent of dissatisfaction of the current textbooks for students.

Section 7 focussed on feelings about learning Chinese. This measure consists of 10 items, which describe students' general feelings towards learning Chinese as a foreign language.

The participants of study one were 497 CLF students from the following four universities in Beijing, as shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1. Distribution of participants in the four research sites.

	A	B	C	D
Headcount	79	194	137	87
Percentage	15.9%	39.0%	27.6%	17.5%

The questionnaires were distributed to Chinese teacher participants in the beginning of regular classes and they helped distribute the questionnaires to their CFL students. It took approximately ten minutes for CFL students to complete the questionnaires. The CFL students were asked to give their immediate reaction to the questions and to be as truthful as possible. For CFL students with limited knowledge of Chinese and English were encouraged to ask their peers to help in translating or assisting in taking the survey. The average return rate in the four research sites was a very high 95.6% (542 handed out with 518 returned, and 11 invalid). Quantitative data generated by questionnaire survey was entered into Statistic Package for Social Science (SPSS) (version 17.0) for data analysis. Missing values were treated by SPSS analysis commands.

6.4 Data Analysis

The data was analyzed statistically as follows: (1) result of demographics of participants, four multiple choice questions and 50 Likert-scale variables were firstly presented using descriptive statistics; (2) the reliability and validity of the instruments; (3) possible

relationships between demographic variables, Chinese-only pedagogy variables and ELF pedagogy variables.

6.4.1 Reliability and validity of the instruments

The content validity of the scales used this study was tested by expert-judge validity. Moreover, factor analysis with varimax rotation was used to test the construct validity of each instrument. The results of the factor analyses led to modifications such as deleting and retranslation of a few items. Alpha coefficients above 0.70 are regarded as sufficient for research purpose (Nunnally, 1978) and above 0.60 are acceptable (Hair et al., 1998). Table 6.2 presents the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the seven measures.

Table 6.2. Internal reliability, means and standard deviation of the study variable.

		Alpha Coefficients	Means	S.D.	Items No.
Section 3:	purposes to use of English to achieve practical goal	.76	50.73	18.14	18
Section 4:	attitudes towards Chinese Only pedagogy	.91	31.24	10.75	10
Section 5:	attitudes towards ELF pedagogy	.74	35.99	10.61	10
Section 6:	attitudes towards the use of English in the CFL textbooks	.80	19.95	5.57	6
Section 7:	general feelings about learning Chinese in China	.77	22.81	6.48	6

As shown in the above table, the five measures indicated sufficient alpha coefficients: the highest .91 for attitudes towards Chinese-only pedagogy and the lowest .74 for

attitudes towards ELF pedagogy, all above the significant level. It indicates that results from this questionnaire are sufficient for research purpose.

6.4.2 Section 1: Demographics of CFL students

Section 1 sought background information from the participants. There are 10 items in this section.

1. **Gender:** The gender distribution of participants was approximately equal. 52.1% (n=259) was male and 47.9% (n=238) was female.
2. **Age:** Most participants sampled were college-aged students. 19.7% (n=98) were between 15-20, 59.1% (n=294) were between 20-25; 16.3% (n=81) were between 25-30; and 4.8% (n=24) were above 30.
3. **Country of origin (CoO):** Participants were asked to name their country of origin. Participants in this survey are from 54 countries and these were classified into five groups by their geographical locations: 1 (Asia), 2 (Europe), 3 (America), 4 (Africa) and 5 (Oceania). This showed a distinct majority of students from Asia. Indeed, 335 participants (67.4%) came from Asia, 98 (19.7%) came from Europe, 40 (8.0%) came from America, 24 (4.8%) from Africa and no participants came from Oceania. The results mirrors the statistic released by the Ministry of Education of China in the same year (2010) which showed that the number of CFL students from Asian countries (especially, Korea) far outnumbered the rest. Table 6.3 showed the countries of origin of participants.

Table 6.3. The countries of origin by geographic location of CFL student participants.

(Per. =Percentage)

Country	No.	Per.	Country	No.	Per.	Country	No.	Per.
Korea	159	32.0	Mongolia	4	.8	Angola	1	.2
Malaysia	46	9.3	Zimbabwe	4	.8	Belgium	1	.2
Japan	41	8.2	Belize	3	.6	Croatia	1	.2
USA	29	5.8	Congo	3	.6	Ethiopia	1	.2
Indonesia	28	5.6	Libya	3	.6	Gabon	1	.2
Thailand	27	5.4	Netherlands	3	.6	Ghana	1	.2
Vietnam	14	2.8	Poland	3	.6	Guatemala	1	.2
UK	13	2.6	Salvadorian	3	.6	Hungary	1	.2
France	12	2.4	Sri Lanka	3	.6	Jamaica	1	.2
Russia	10	2.0	Algeria	2	.4	Latvia	1	.2
Germany	9	1.8	Brazil	2	.4	Mauritius	1	.2
Spain	9	1.8	Cambodia	2	.4	Nicaragua	1	.2
Kazakhstan	8	1.6	Egypt	2	.4	Oman	1	.2
Ireland	6	1.2	Finland	2	.4	Panamanian	1	.2
Sandi Arabia	6	1.2	Italy	2	.4	Romania	1	.2
Sweden	6	1.2	Laos	2	.4	Turkey	1	.2
Canada	5	1.0	Nigeria	2	.4	Turkmenistan	1	.2
Israel	4	.8	Swiss	2	.4	Ukraine	1	.2

4. **Mother tongue (MT):** Participants were asked to name their mother tongues (henceforth, L1). Participants in this survey speak 35 different languages as L1. Of these, 11.5% of the sample population reported being English native speakers. Table 6.4 shows the mother tongues of all CFL student participants in the study.

Table 6.4. Mother tongues of CFL student participants.

L1	No.	Per.	L1	No.	Per.	L1	No.	Per.
Korean	158	31.8	Swedish	6	1.2	Hokkien	2	.4
English	57	11.5	Kazakh	6	1.2	Portuguese	2	.4
Malay	46	9.3	Dutch	4	.8	Yoruba	2	.4
Japanese	42	8.5	Mongolian	4	.8	Cantonese	1	.2
Thai	27	5.4	Polish	3	.6	Khmer	1	.2
Indonesian	25	5.0	Shona	3	.6	Ndebele	1	.2
French	21	4.2	Hebrew	3	.6	Romanian	1	.2
Spanish	17	3.4	Sinhala	3	.6	Turkish	1	.2
Vietnamese	14	2.8	Finnish	2	.4	Ukrainian	1	.2
Arabic	14	2.8	Hungarian	2	.4	Latvian	1	.2
Russian	13	2.6	Italian	2	.4	Turkmenistan	1	.2
German	9	1.8	Lao	2	.4			

5. **Length of studying Chinese in China (LstChi):** Participants were asked to estimate the length of residential time in China. Their responses were categorized into five groups: 1 (CStT ≤ 2 months), 2 (2 months ≤ CStT ≤ 12 months), 3 (12 months ≤ CStT ≤ 24 months), 4 (24 months ≤ CStT ≤ 36 months), 5 (CStT ≥ 36 months). More than one third of the sample was in their first two months in China (35.2%, n=174); around a quarter of the sample was in their first 12 months in China (25.1%, n=124), 17.6% (n=84) was in their second year in China, 9.6% (n=48) was in their third in China, and 13.5% (n=67) has been in China for more than three years.

6. **Experience of studying Chinese before coming to China (EstChi):** Participants were asked about whether or not they have studied Chinese before they came to

China; and, if yes, to estimate for how long. Their responses were classified into three groups: 1 (no previous learning experience), 2 (less than six months) and 3 (more than six months). Most participants reported to have limited or no knowledge of Chinese before coming to China. 70.2% (n=349) reported no previous learning experience. 18.9% (n=94) of the sample had less than half a year learning experience before coming to China and 10.9% (n=54) had more than half a year learning experience before coming to China. The average length of their studying Chinese before coming to China was 4.50 months.

7. **Self-evaluation of Chinese language proficiency (ChiLP):** Participants were asked to report their current Chinese language proficiency. Their responses formed three categories: 1 (beginner level), 2 (intermediate level) and 3(advanced level). More than one third of the participants (37.6%, n=187) reported they were in the beginner level. More than half of the sample (53.7%, n=267) was in their intermediate level. However, very few participants (8.7%, n=43) identified themselves in the advanced level.

8. **Foreign language ability (FlA):** Participants were asked to name three possible foreign languages they spoke excluding their L1 and Chinese. Their responses were classified into four groups: 1 (speak no foreign language), 2 (speak at least one foreign language), 3 (speak two foreign languages) and 4 (speak three foreign languages). 12.1% (n=60) reported of speaking no foreign language except for their L1 and Chinese. Meanwhile, 87.9% (n=437) of the total sample population spoke

at least one foreign language with certain proficiency, 27.3% (n=135) speak two foreign languages and 5.4% (n=27) spoke three foreign languages. That is, participants in this survey were mostly bilinguals or multilinguals. To be specific, 79.0% (n=392) of the sample reported English as one of their foreign language. Thus it can be concluded that approximately 80% of CFL student participants are English speakers. Table 11 shows illustrated the first five most spoken foreign languages by CFL student participants in the study.

Table 6.5. The first five most spoken foreign languages.

	English	French	Japanese	Spanish	German
Headcount	392	41	40	39	22
Percentile	79.0%	8.2%	8.0%	7.8%	4.4%

9. **Experience of studying English before coming to China (EstEng):** Participants were asked about whether or not they had studied Chinese before they came to China; if yes, to estimate for how long. Their responses were classified into six groups: 0 (no previous English learning experience), 1 (LstE ≤ 6 month), 2 (6 months ≤ LstE ≤ 36 months), 3 (36 months ≤ LstE ≤ 72 months), 4 (LstE > 72 months) and 5 (native English speakers). 7.8% (n=39) of the sample reported of no previous English learning experience. The majority identified themselves as having studied English students before coming to China (80.7%, n=401). English is the common language shared by the majority of participants. The average length of their studying Chinese before coming to China was 80.4 months, which was around

8 years. As indicated earlier, 11.5% (n=57) of the sample was native English speakers.

10. **Self-evaluation of English language proficiency (EngLP):** Participants were asked to estimate their current English language proficiency. Their responses formed five categories: 0 (no previous English learning experience), 1 (beginner level), 2 (intermediate level) and 3(advanced level) and 4 (native English speaker). Same as the result from question 9, 7.8% (n=39) of the sample reported of no previous English learning experience; and 11.5% (n=57) of the sampled responded to be native English speakers. Moreover, one third of the participants (30.0%, n=129) reported they were at the beginner level. 32.8% (n=163) was at their intermediate level and 21.9% (n=109) of the sample was at the advanced level.

6.4.3 Section 2: Result of multiple choice questions

Section 2 sought to research question 1 to describe the current situations of language use. The CFL students were first asked to report the relative use and described use of Chinese, English and L1s in the classroom across four domains: (1) the languages used by teachers, (2) the languages they wanted the teachers to use; (3) the languages used for students in the classroom, (4) the languages the students wanted to use in the classroom. Table 6.6 below shows the results.

Table 6.6. Result of teachers' and students' language use.

	Teachers' use		Students' use	
	Actual	Wanted	Actual	Wanted
A. Chinese only	n=215	n=234	n=209	n=309
	43.3%	47.0%	42.1%	62.2%
B. Chinese and some English	n=269	n=249	n=207	n=141
	54.1%	50.2%	41.7%	28.4%
C. Chinese and some L1	n=13	n=14	n=81	n=47
	2.6%	2.8%	16.2%	9.4%

First and foremost, the result illustrates that the Chinese-only principle was not strictly followed in practice. Both teachers and students participants were in fact using a Chinese and English bilingual teaching pedagogy and not strongly objected to this bilingual model.

For teachers' use, 54.1% (n=269) spoke 'Chinese and some English' in the classroom and this number outweighed those who practiced the Chinese-only pedagogy (43.3%, n=215); and only small group of teachers (2.6%, n=13) were reported to have spoken foreign languages excluding English. This basically mirrors students' wants and expectations.

For students' use, the proportion of students who identified themselves as switching between Chinese and English (41.7%, n=207) was about equal to those spoke Chinese only (42.1%, n=209). However, a contrast emerged between student's actual use of their L1 (16.2%, n=81) and that of the teachers (2.6%, n=13). This, of course, is not surprising, as teachers can hardly be expected to know several foreign languages.

Furthermore, even though students wanted to speak more Chinese (62.2%, n=309) and less of their L1 (9.4%, n=47), their wanted use of English remained considerable (28.4%, n=141), far exceeding the wanted use of L1. In other words, the use of English was in fact seen as helpful to their Chinese language learning.

It is worth stressing that the reported number wanting the use of English for teaching and learning was relatively high, even though there were only 11.5% native English speakers in the survey population (see section 6.3.1.1, question 9 and 10 for detail). Moreover, section one of the questionnaire also found that teachers (54.1%, n=269) were reported to have spoken English more than their students (41.7%, n=207). This indicates that English was employed as a lingua franca on both the teachers and students' side.

6.4.4 Section 3-7: Descriptive analysis of Likert-scale variables

Descriptive analysis refers to methods of organizing and summarizing data by editing variable names and value labels into SPSS which can generate several common, one-number statistics such as the mean and standard deviation (S.D.) (Kinnear and Gray, 1999). Descriptive analysis was firstly used in this study to organize and summarize all the responses in the questionnaire under each category for mean and S.D. to see CFL students' general attitudes towards the use of ELF pedagogy.

Section 3: Purposes for teachers and students' use of English to achieve practical goal

Part A and B in Section 3 were to answer research question 2 of this part of study: how do CFL teachers and students achieve practical goals through ELF pedagogy. In section 3, CFL student participants were asked to recall to what extent their teachers use English to achieve practical goals in teaching Chinese and to examine to what extent that students use English to achieve practical goals in learning Chinese. Table 6.7 illustrated the result of means and S.D. for the two groups respectively.

Table 6.7. Result of the purposes for using of English for teachers and students. (item 1-18 from the questionnaire)

	Teachers		Learners	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.
Teach or learn Chinese grammar	4.27	.89	2.04	1.17
Teach or learn new lexical terms	4.02	.92	2.81	1.21
Teach or learn Chinese texts	3.29	1.10	3.08	.93
Teach or learn Chinese culture	2.36	1.00	4.31	.79
Assignments, quizzes and examinations	2.89	.94	3.54	.81
Classroom activities	2.21	.85	3.19	.98
Answer or ask questions in class	2.41	.90	2.37	1.24
Communication in class	2.41	1.24	2.26	1.16
Communication after class	2.11	1.19	1.96	0.82
Total	26.01	9.03	24.72	9.11

First of all, the sum of the means indicated that the total amount of overall use of English to achieve practical goals for teachers (m=26.01) outnumbered that of the students (m=24.72). Second, teachers focused more on using English as a translation or interpretation tool of Chinese grammar and lexical items, whereas CFL students were in fact using English for many possible reasons that occurred during L2 learning process.

The result showed that teachers tended to focus on linguistic analysis whereas students used English more for communicative tasks. Lastly, when CFL teachers were reported to use English the most for explaining Chinese grammar (m=4.27), CFL student participants found themselves use English the most for understanding Chinese culture (m=4.31). In the following sections, descriptive results were to be showed for section 4, 5, 6 and 7.

Section 4: attitudes towards Chinese-only pedagogy in CFL classroom

CFL students' attitudes towards Chinese-only pedagogy were elicited in this section. The first five (from item 19 to 23) statements were positively worded and the last five statements (from item 24 to 28) were negatively keyed. The result is shown in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8. Result of attitudes towards Chinese-only pedagogy in CFL classroom.

		Mean	S.D.
19.	Speaking Chinese only makes me study Chinese better	3.90	1.16
20.	Speaking Chinese only helps my learn faster	3.02	1.29
21.	My goal is to become a native Chinese speaker	3.34	1.30
22.	Speaking Chinese only is the reason for me to come to China	4.31	.63
23.	In China, people speak Chinese only	3.74	.87
24.	I don't think my teachers understand foreign languages	2.77	.63
25.	I have no difficulty in speaking Chinese only	2.67	1.20
26.	I don't feel nervous when speaking Chinese only	2.32	1.41
27.	I don't feel tired when speaking Chinese only	2.07	1.07
28.	I don't feel bored when speaking Chinese only	3.10	1.19

As Table 14 shows, student's motivation for learning Chinese was generally high (item 19, 20 and 21), and their impression and perspective towards language use in China was, by and large, shared (item 22, 23 and 24). That is, China is a place where people were mostly monolinguals and thus an ideal place to learn Chinese. However, in terms of anxiety for speaking Chinese, students reported rather low support to Chinese-only pedagogy (item 25, 26, 27 and 28). In summary, students' responses from the first five positively worded statements were generally higher than the five negatively keyed items. It indicated that student participants expressed their supports to the Chinese-only principle, though they indeed had difficulties.

Section 5: attitudes towards ELF pedagogy in CFL classroom

Following an analysis of attitudes towards Chinese-only pedagogy, this section elicited students' attitudes about ELF pedagogy as a contrast. The first five (from item 29 to 33) statements were positively worded and the last five statements (from item 34 to 38) were negatively keyed.

Table 6.9. Result of attitudes towards ELF pedagogy in CFL classroom.

		Mean	S.D.
29.	Learning English is very important in my country	4.67	.67
30.	English is very important to me	3.84	.92
31.	English is the international language	3.91	1.05
32.	I feel more confident to speak English than Chinese	3.51	1.10
33.	English is helping me learn Chinese	3.84	1.12
34.	Without English, I don't understand the Chinese class well	3.73	1.07
35.	Without English, I cannot communicate with my teachers and classmates in class	3.79	1.08

Table continued

36.	Without English, I cannot communicate with my teachers and classmates after class	3.01	1.14
37.	I shall not stop learning English while I'm studying Chinese in China	2.86	1.13
38.	I'm not very satisfied with my teachers English proficiency	2.83	1.33

First of all, positive responses about English were heard from CLF students. This is not surprising because the demographic data showed that around 80% of the sampled students were English speakers (see section 6.4.1, question 8). Learning English was identified as important in nearly all the home countries of the student participants (item 29). Student participants believed that English was an important language for international communication and they attached importance to the value of English, although they were learning Chinese as a foreign language (from item 30 to 32). As English was reported to be a prior knowledge for the majority of the student participants, it was employed to learn Chinese and communicate with Chinese teachers and classmates in- and outside the class (from item 33 to 36). Now that English is an important international language and used for assisting Chinese learning, students participants reported a motivation to keep learning English and a wish for their teachers to improve their English proficiency (item 37 and 38).

Section 6: attitudes towards the use of English in the CFL textbooks

Student participants' attitudes towards the use of English in textbooks were elicited in

section 6. This measure was designed to yield descriptive results only. The results are shown in Table 16.

Table 6.10. Result of attitudes towards the use of English in the CFL textbooks.

		Mean	S.D.
39.	I read the English in textbooks	2.96	1.13
40.	English in the textbooks is helping me learn Chinese	3.16	.83
41.	I need more English translations in textbooks	3.29	.54
42.	I understand well the English in textbooks	2.61	1.21
43.	I found mistakes of the English used in textbooks	3.72	.90
44.	English in Chinese textbooks should be improved	4.21	.96

Participants' attitudes about English used in the Chinese textbooks were not as positive as when it's used in the classroom. Some student participants reported reading the English in Chinese textbooks and found it helpful for learning Chinese, and thus demand more English translations to the learning content (from item 39 to 41). However, in terms of the quality of English, student participants were not as satisfied and requested an improvement in the quality of English (from item 42 to 44). That is, their attitudes towards the English in textbook might be influenced by the quality of it, in addition to their own English language proficiency.

Section 7: general feelings about learning Chinese in China

In the last section of the questionnaire, student participants were asked to evaluate their general feelings towards learning Chinese as a foreign language in China, which included their self-perceptions towards the distance of their L1 and culture from Chinese

language and Chinese culture, their interest in learning Chinese and any difficulties they had in learning Chinese, as well as the extent to which they felt satisfaction about their Chinese language class and life in China. Results are displayed in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11. Result of the general feelings about learning Chinese in China.

		Mean	S.D.
45.	Chinese language is very different from my mother tongue	3.84	1.14
46.	Chinese culture and the culture of my country are very different	4.12	.83
47.	Learning Chinese is fun	4.16	1.05
48.	Learning Chinese is hard work	4.27	.79
49.	I'm satisfied with my Chinese class	3.15	1.54
50.	I enjoy my life in China	3.27	1.13

The findings in table 17 showed that most students surveyed felt that their mother tongue and their home culture were very different to Chinese culture (item 45 and 46), although 67.4% (n=335) of them were from nearby countries in Asia (see section 6.4.2, question 3). Meanwhile, although Chinese language remained hard work for student participants, they still found it interesting to learn (item 47 and 48). Lastly, in a general sense, student participants were by and large satisfied with their Chinese class and their life in China (item 49 and 50).

Through a descriptive analysis of the research findings from section 4 to section 7, research question 3, the students' attitudes towards the Chinese-only pedagogy and ELF pedagogy, has been described and answered.

6.4.5 Pearson Product-Moment correlations

The most popular ways to analyze the data for beliefs and strategy use are methods such as descriptive analysis, factor analysis, and multiple regression analysis to show the statistical significance in the studies. For example, factors that constitute students' beliefs have been identified through estimates of reliability using internal consistency reliability and factor analysis has been used successfully to categorize types of beliefs.

Pearson Product-Moment correlations were obtained to examine the possible relationships between the two attitudinal variables and the ten demographic variables. The significance level was set to 0.05. 1-tailed tests were conducted. This part of test was to answer research question 4: correlations between the reported attitudes relate to CFL students' personal backgrounds. Table 19 showed the Correlations between two attitudinal variables and ten demographic variables.

Table 6.12. Correlations between two attitudinal variables and ten demographic variables.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1.	Gender	1										
2.	Age	-.01	1									
3.	CoO	-.08	.07	1								
4.	MT	.00	.00	.00	1							
5.	LstChi	-.06	.10	.27	.01	1						
6.	EstChi	-.03	-.02	-.05	-.07	-.01	1					
7.	ChiLP	.09	-.02	-.30	.02	.06	.02	1				
8.	FlA	.02	-.06	.10	-.04	-.02	-.03	-.03	1			
9.	EstEng	-.12	.01	.02	-.02	-.03	-.09	-.07	.20	1		
10.	EngLP	-.08	.06	.13	.07	.07	.08	.09	.10	.19	1	
11.	Chi-O	-.07	.13	-.20	.02	.40**	.28**	.43**	.08	.09	.10	1
12.	ELF	.06	.15	.06	.02	.04	-.03	.11	.23**	.29**	.40**	.07

Note: **Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed)

1. **Gender**; 2. **Age**; 3. **CoO**. Country of Origin; 4. **MT**. Mother Tongue; 5. **LstChi**. Length of Studying Chinese; 6. **EstChi**. Experience of Studying Chinese before coming to China; 7. **ChiLP**. Chinese Language Proficiency; 8. **FlA**. Foreign Language Ability; 9. **EstEng**. Experience of Studying English; 10. **EngLP**. English Language Proficiency. 11. **Chi-O**. attitudes towards Chi-O pedagogy. 12. **ELF.** attitudes towards ELF pedagogy.

As seen in Table 6.12, low but positive relationships were found between the three variables relating to Chinese studying. Increased support for the practice of Chinese-only pedagogy correlated with the length of studying Chinese (r=.40), the experience of studying Chinese before coming to China (r=.28) and Chinese language proficiency (r=.43). The Pearson correlation test yielded three significant results between the three independent variables for studying Chinese and the increasing support for Chinese-only pedagogy. As a result, three relationships were found: a). students who had studied Chinese longer supported the Chinese-only pedagogy more than those who had studied Chinese for a shorter time; b). students who had experience of learning Chinese in their home country before coming to China supported the Chinese-only pedagogy more than those who have not; c). students with a higher Chinese level tended to support Chinese-only pedagogy more than students at the beginner level.

Moreover, significantly positive low relationships were found between students' foreign language ability (r=.23), experience of learning English (r=.29), English language proficiency (r=.40) and their attitudes towards ELF pedagogy. Three significant results were revealed and this indicated that students attitudes towards ELF pedagogy tended to correlate with their experience and proficiency in English: a). students who spoke foreign languages felt more comfortable speaking or using English than those who

spoke no or few foreign languages; b). students who had richer experience in learning English supported using English more than those who had no or less experience; c). students with a higher English proficiency tended to support using English more than those with low English proficiency.

No statistical significance appeared for gender and age. That is, male and female, younger and older CFL students did not differ in their opinions towards language use. Furthermore, no significant correlation was found between country of origin and mother tongues towards their attitudes towards Chinese-only and ELF pedagogy. In other word, students' attitudes towards language use were not decided by which country they were from or which mother tongue they spoke. The long prevailing myths such as Asian students prefer a Chinese-only pedagogy and that American students prefer a more ELF pedagogy, were not supported by this survey.

6.5 Summary

In this part of study, the sampled students were mostly young college aged students, from a good range of home countries and speaking a good number of mother tongues. One third of them were in their first two months in China and 70% of them had no knowledge of Chinese before coming to China. Over 90% were at the beginner and intermediate level of Chinese language proficiency. Nearly all sampled students were bi- or multilingual speakers and among which around 80% of them were English language speakers. Their English language proficiency was equally distributed across beginning, intermediate and advanced level.

The first research question required a description of the use of language both to reflect the current situation and the expected situation. Chinese-only is not a well observed teaching principle and neither teachers nor students seem to expect that a Chinese-only pedagogy will be exclusively used. On contrary, both CFL teachers and students were reported to have practiced codeswitching to a certain degree and this language behavior was not regarded as unnecessary or unwelcomed. That is, the role of ELF as a medium of instruction is accepted both by teachers and students, although it was not publicly acknowledged. Meanwhile, the possibility of an L1 pedagogy developing in these CFL classes is proved low again, due to the highly multilingual make up of the student body.

The second research question was well answered by Table 6.6 in Section 6.4.3. Teachers were reported to use English more than students themselves. Students showed a relatively broad application of English across a variety of contexts, whereas teachers concentrated more on using English for language analysis.

The third question was answered by calculating the means of each item in the constructs of students' attitudes towards Chinese-only pedagogy and ELF pedagogy. In this part, only descriptive and factual data was involved. However, these results showed: (a) Chinese-only pedagogy kept students motivated yet made them anxious, (b) English is an important communication tool and CFL students valued the importance of English in terms of learning Chinese.

Many possible correlations were expected to be found in the fourth question; however, only three groups were at the significant level. Students' attitudes towards Chinese-only pedagogy correlated to their length of studying Chinese, experience of studying Chinese before coming to China and their Chinese language proficiency. It is perhaps not surprising that the tendency to report higher levels of support to use Chinese only was found among students who (a) had been studying Chinese longer, (b) had longer experience in studying Chinese before coming to China, and (c) has a higher level of Chinese language proficiency.

Moreover, students' attitudes towards ELF pedagogy had relationships with their foreign language ability, experience of studying English and their English language proficiency. In summary, the tendency to report higher levels of support to ELF pedagogy was found among students who (a) were bi- or multilingual speakers, (b) had longer experience in learning English before coming to China, and (c) were with higher level of English language proficiency.

Notwithstanding, several potential limitations of the present study should be kept in mind. The first area of concern that may limit the strength of these findings relates to the representatives of the sample. The research was based on a fairly small sample or on languages classes at a few universities. As a consequence, there is some question about generalizability of the findings. As Rifkin (2000) has suggested studies are needed with greater number of participants.

A second potential limitation is that there may be confounding variables unmeasured in the questionnaires or unaccounted for in the analyses. Therefore, any curricular decisions based on this study should be made with caution. As Levine (2003) has suggested that it may be that teachers' perceptions of target language use are simply not determined by years of experience, pedagogical training, or their native-speakers status, or it may be that a different instrument would be needed to gauge these relationships (p. 357). The next chapter will analyze CFL teachers' attitudes towards the Chinese-only pedagogy and ELF pedagogy through in-depth interviews.

CHAPTER 7 ENGLISH FOR CFL TEACHERS

7.1 Previous research in CFL teaching

This study represents the second part of the multipart study. With the development of studies on CFL teachers (Cui Xiliang 2010; Sun Dejin, 2010), a surge of empirical research on CFL teachers' practical knowledge and teacher training (e.g., Jiang Xin and Hao Lixia, 2010; Liu Xuan and Jiang Xin, 2010) quickly appeared in CFL teaching. However, little research has been done to investigate CFL teacher's beliefs about the use of ELF and how does identity shape their beliefs.

Previous works about the use of English in CFL teaching have concentrated on CFL teachers' linguistic knowledge and awareness. A good command of English grammar is considered important for CFL teachers to do comparative studies on phonetics, semantics, pragmatics between the English and the Chinese language, which flourished and dominated in CFL teaching in 1990s. Corresponding to the promotion of English language education in China (Lam, 2005, p. 9), focus shifted to on CFL teachers' English language competence, with more emphasis on teacher training and career development (Chen Fu, 2010; Zhang Hesheng, 2006). CFL teaches is hence portrayed as a messenger to spread Chinese culture in addition to the role of a language educator. This has increased the importance of ELF as a communication tool which could effectively bridge CFL students and Chinese culture in a short time. How do CFL teachers perceive the role of English in CFL teaching? Why do they think so? In order

to answer these questions, this part of study sought to contribute understandings of CFL teachers' beliefs and identity about the use of ELF.

7.2 Research purpose and question

The main purpose of this study is to investigate various ways that CFL teachers perceive, understand and interpret the use of ELF in CFL teaching with respect to their knowledge of second language acquisition, their own experience of foreign language learning, their pedagogical training, professional development and classroom experience. Specifically, this part of the study sought answers to the following two research questions:

1. What are CFL teachers' beliefs about the use of ELF?
2. How does CFL teachers' identity shape their beliefs?

7.3 Research method

This study will adopt qualitative methods, as it allows to contrast, compare, replicate, catalogue and classify the object of the study (Miles and Huberman, 1994). A qualitative study can increase our understanding of the ideas, feelings, beliefs, and motives related to the individuals' actions of a certain culture (Schloss and Smith, 1999). Specifically, this qualitative study was informed by principles of grounded theory (Creswell, 2008; Glaser and Strauss, 1967) and most importantly, narrative inquiry (Clandinin and Connelly, 2000).

Narrative inquiry is an excellent method to show the unique ways that people deal with their dilemmas and challenges (Beattie, 2000). Although a number of studies have used interviews and questionnaires to investigate beliefs (see e.g., Levine, 2003), more

recently narrative inquiry has widely been used in the survey of teachers' beliefs and identities in teacher education (see e.g., Tsui, 2007) in that it allows teachers to reconstruct their personal knowledge and representations, helping them to become more aware of their actions and more able to be agents in their own practice (Telles, 2000). In CFL teaching, narrative research has also emerged as one of the most distinct forms of qualitative research on CFL teachers. (Sun Dejin, 2010, p.387).

A one-to-one in-depth interview technique was employed as the main method for collecting narrative data because interviews can 'yield direct quotation from people about their experience, opinions, feelings and knowledge' (Patton, 2002, p.4). The interview protocol was semi-structured, since the researcher has a good enough overview of the domain in question and was able to develop broad questions about the topic in advance. The format of interview questions is open-ended and participants were encouraged to elaborate on the raised issues (Dörnyei, 2007, p.136). The conversations were conducted in Putonghua, the target language of CFL teaching. CFL teachers who participated in this study were from many different parts of China, and were all highly proficient in Putonghua. In designing and developing the interview questions, this study has referred many qualitative and narrative inquiry studies of ESL teachers (see e.g. Flores, 2001; Lemberger, 1997; Ramos, 2001). The interview protocol developed for this study is provided as Appendix II.

Interview participants for this survey were chosen by a theoretical sampling, used synonymously with purposive sampling (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Silverman, 2005) as

the main goal of qualitative sampling is to find individuals who can provide rich and varied insights into the phenomenon under investigation so as to maximize what we can learn (Dörnyei, 2007, p.126). Based on theoretical sampling, participants were not chosen in order to produce a sample representative of the larger population, but rather, were chosen based on the purpose of the study. The interview participants thus represented a range of teachers with different backgrounds and experience, allowing this study to gain a comprehensive understanding into the issues of concern. Table 7.1 summarizes the demographic details of the CFL teachers.

Table 7.1. A summary of CFL teachers' demographics.

Gender	Age	Qualifications	Qualified areas	Teaching experience
Male = 11	20-30 = 4	Master's degrees = 15	Chinese language = 15	1-5 years = 7
Female = 13	30-40 = 7	Doctoral degrees = 9	CFL teaching = 5	5-10 years = 7
	40-50 = 9		Foreign languages = 4	10-15 years = 8
	50-60 = 4			15-20 years = 2

24 CFL teachers from the four research sites participated in this study. Of these participates, 11 were male; 13 were female, distributed fairly evenly. The different age ranges were well represented among them. The above table shows that all the interview participants held degrees higher than a bachelor degree, 15 were master degree holders; and nine were doctoral degree holders. With regard to their specialized areas, 15 were in Chinese language; five in CFL teaching; four in foreign language (English was reported). Interview participants had relatively long teaching records, with only seven out of 24

having less than five years' experience. Four were Deans or Deputy Deans of the schools in the four universities.

Interview participants signed the *Consent Form* in advance and agreed to have their conversations audio-recorded for research purpose. Pseudonyms are used when their opinions are quoted. Taking into account the heavy workload and each teacher's timetable, the face-to-face interview was limited to 30 minutes. Two audio recorders were used to ensure there was a recording in the event of one recorder malfunctioning. In order to increase the richness and depth of the responses and to help in tracking and identifying themes from the transcripts, notes and memos were taken while the participants were talking.

7.4 Data Analysis

During the transcription of the interviews, emerging themes and similarities or differences were noted. In keeping with grounded theory methodology, interview transcripts and field notes were analyzed using open coding techniques. Open coding consists of naming and categorizing data. As interview transcriptions were reviewed, concepts or themes with similar properties were grounded together (Lincoln and Cuba, 1985). The categories were arranged and rearranged until saturated. Two groups of categories emerged in the opening coding process underneath the theme of teacher beliefs and teacher identity. CFL teachers' beliefs about ELF were firstly analyzed and factors that shaped or influenced these beliefs were accordingly elicited.

7.4.1 Beliefs about ELF

Conceptually, this study was informed and guided by theoretical discussions about teachers' attitudes and beliefs, and the ways in which these belief systems are formed, and how they influence teachers' intended and actual classroom practices (e.g. Ajzen, 1991; Kennedy and Kennedy, 1996; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Richards, 1996; Woods, 1996, 2003). This study particularly drew on Richards' (1996, p. 282) notion of 'working principles or maxims which teachers consciously or unconsciously refer to as they teach'. Richards proposed that motivations for language teachers' decisions and actions could be understood by examining their guiding maxims. In terms of CFL teachers' beliefs about the use of ELF, interview participants varied enormously in the extent to which they articulated why they teach in the ways they do, and why they behaved in certain ways in their classroom. Teacher participants' opinions were classified into the three categories identified in Macaro's (2005; 2009) 'continuum of perspective'. The continuum illustrates three distinct personal beliefs that CFL teachers might hold towards the ELF use: virtual position, maximal position and optimal position.

7.4.1.1 The virtual position

The virtual position holds a monolingual perspective. It believes that the L2 could only be taught through that language *per se*, and that the exclusive use of the L2 provides a kind of 'virtual reality' classroom.

Five teacher participants were identified as supportive the monolingual perspective – Chinese-only pedagogy. They were Mary, Bill, John, Flora and Judy. Of these five CFL teachers, two were the Deans of the faculties. Their perspective corresponded to what Macaro (2001) referred that 'the classroom is like the target country. Therefore we should aim to total exclusion of the L1. There is no pedagogical value in L1 use' (p. 535). When these teacher participants were first asked to define their beliefs about use of languages in their classes, their answers were remarkably uniform. They stated that they supported the Chinese-only pedagogy and believed that Chinese could only be taught monolingually. For example, Mary, one of the Deans responded with certainty to the question of 'Do you and your colleagues use some English for teaching Chinese?' Mary said,

> No. Our school has a very strict rule of prohibiting the use of English. Every teacher knows it. Chinese teachers should never forget that students are here in China to learn Chinese, not English… As you can see along the corridors, posters and banners are plentiful on the walls reminding our students about speaking Chinese only. (Mary)

Mary's remarks showed that CFL teachers are expected to practice what the language policy and teaching syllabus regulated. Mary's perceived that 'students are here in China to learn Chinese, not English', so she believed that English should never be spoken or used in the context of Chinese teaching. Moreover, Bill, another faculty Dean, shared the same standpoint with Mary, but his idea was built on his understanding of L2 learning. For example, Bill argued,

> Speak Chinese only! This is undoubtedly the best way to learn a foreign language. If you recall on how we learnt Chinese as children, your questions will be answered easily. We

> became native speakers by ear and imitation. There were no other languages helping us understand, right? All that CFL students need to do is to keep practice, then they will become native speakers like us. (Bill)

Bill found that L2 learning equated with L1 learning. However, it has long been proved that L2 teaching and learning is by no means equal to L1 acquisition. The majority of CFL students in Beijing's universities are college-aged adults, CFL teachers should not act like babysitters. For students with little or no prior knowledge of Chinese, the Chinese-only pedagogy will simply leave drills of language forms throughout each class and inevitably let the classroom reality fall into a content vacuum. However, Bill's insistence in speaking Chinese only was supported by John and Flora, but on the basis that they felt L1 caused the biggest interference in learning Chinese. As John explained,

> Translation is a very bad idea! I'll never ask my students to waste time on it. What they need to do is to forget their mother tongue as much and as quickly as possible. They should activate a part of the brain to speak and think in Chinese only. They need to drop all 'crutches' and learn to walk on their own. (John)

'Crutches' is used as a metaphor for using English as a translation tool. In John's eyes, CFL students were seen as handicapped in speaking Chinese. Flora shared the same opinion, seeing students' L1 as a source of interference or confusion in learning Chinese. She also believed that if she were to use English, her students, would, in turn, probably increase their use of English as well. She expressed concern that ELF would therefore cause students to ignore target language input. As Flora said,

> If I use English to translate for them, they would rely on it and expect me to translate for them all the time…. When we speak Chinese, we do not mix English codes at all.. Responsible Chinese teachers should be role models for their students and help them speak Chinese as native as possible…. After all, Chinese class is not a place for us to show off our English. (Flora)

John and Flora thought Chinese learning to be most effective when kept separate from the existing L1 language system and from the other languages students speak. They believed that trying to make connections between Chinese and other languages most often led to inappropriate transfers. They saw translation as unnecessary or even harmful. In order to follow the Chinese-only pedagogy, a teacher participant with a very firm belief in the virtual position seemed to have developed a set of unique teaching methods. For example, Judy described,

> Teaching Chinese is an art. A good Chinese teacher should be able to sing, dance, draw, and perform. I honestly feel that I can manage a Chinese class without using a single English word. For example, yesterday, in my class, a student asked me what was 无限 (wu xian, infinite). I knew its English equivalent, but a good Chinese teacher can do better than an electronic dictionary. So I took a chalk and started to draw a line on the blackboard. I kept drawing and drawing. And after I while, I asked the student, have you seen the meaning now? (Judy)

Judy's idea corresponded to the discussion about the enthusiasm towards avoiding English in CLF teaching context. As discussed earlier, an increasing number of studies appeared in recent years with attempt to prove that CFL class can be taught without using English. In the interview with Judy, she seemed to enjoy sharing their

self-developed methods to explain certain difficult Chinese words, whether drawing pictures, making gestures, telling stories or acting a drama, as long as those techniques could help her teach Chinese and avoid resorting to English.

7.4.1.2 The maximal position

The maximal position admits that perfect learning conditions (where only L2 is used) do not exist, but it still supports that teachers should maximize the use of L2. As a result, teachers usually feel guilty for switching codes between students' L1 and the L2.

Nine of teacher participants supported the maximal positions. They were Jane, Frank, Allan, James, Lily, Cindy, Karrie, Kelvin and Amy. They found it's unrealistic to use Chinese only but they try and maximize the use of Chinese. They sometimes used English but often doubted if resorting to English was correct. Jane and Frank said they were for Chinese-only pedagogy in the beginning of the interview but they became opponents that this was not strictly true. They gave examples of using English in actual teaching practice. For example, Jane pointed out,

> I will give as much as 99% effort to abide by the Chinese-only pedagogy.… But sometimes, in only 1% exceptional situations, I have to use some English. Of course, I'll keep in mind that it's not a good solution. If I ever had a chance, I'll definitely use other method for giving instructions. (Jane)

Participants who supported the maximal position agreed that English deployed as a MoI can be used but as seldom as possible. However, in the next excerpt, the situations for resorting to English were obviously not limited to an amount of merely 1%. As

discussed earlier, empirical surveys have identified many reasons for CFL teachers' to switch codes between English and Chinese, such as explaining Chinese grammar, translating difficult Chinese terms, and introducing Chinese culture, etc. Frank's perspective echoed these studies. As Frank argued,

> It's not easy to explain Chinese grammar only in Chinese. Sometimes, I will give out the equivalent English translation for the grammar point and tell my students to read the English explanation in the textbooks. Students always want me to help them translate from English to Chinese, for many different reasons. I'm glad to, but I'm also hesitating…. If I can explain it in Chinese, I will do it first in Chinese. (Frank)

It can be seen from Frank's case that using English for explanatory purposes was considered important. However, in addition to the pedagogical reason, some classroom managerial and communicative reasons were also reported in this part of study. As Allan said,

> I know it's not a good practice to give instructions in English but I don't think I can find a better way…. My class is all absolute beginners. For example, if I want my class to divide into two groups and do some practice, and each group later selects one representative to give a performance. I've tried gestures and flashcards, but it feels very impolite and a little bit stupid for adults to do it. If I speak some English, everything will become an easy job….saving a great amount of time! And more importantly, I can chat with my students and make friends with them. (Allan)

As Alan explained, the ELF pedagogy helped to save time to and to build a rapport between teachers and students. Participants who supported this maximal position did not strongly reject the notion that ELF will facilitate their L2 learning to some extent, but

they often feel guilty when resorting to English. Jane and Frank always remember to express their hesitation towards using English. Likewise, James also said,

> I know some teachers are using English to teach Chinese and I myself use a little bit English too. But it doesn't make sense to develop it into a teaching method…. Chinese teachers only use English when there are no other solutions, but after class they need to reflect and find out a way …. to avoid triggering to speak English the next time. (James)

James'perspective showed the contradictory and ambiguous opinion of some CFL teachers. These examples showed that teachers varied in terms of the quantity and quality of English, but they did not want to acknowledge its value. Some participants noticed their codeswitching practices in classroom and felt very worried if they had done something wrong. For example, Lily argued,

> I might have spoken too much English just now…. Next time, I think I will try to write down those English words on the blackboard instead of speaking them out…. It's so hard to teach absolute beginners through Chinese only. I've prepared all the necessary vocabulary for this lesson. In case of being asked to translate from English to Chinese, I've also brought a pocket dictionary with me…just in case. (Lily)

Lily, Cindy and Karrie were novice CFL teachers. They shared some common features in their beliefs. Cindy and Karrie reported similar hesitations about holding to the Chinese-only pedagogy but applying ELF pedagogy in actual teaching. It has been shown in the previous chapter that English is adopted as the implicit and covert MoI in Chinese teaching. Nevertheless, Cindy and Karrie worried that their students might complain about them using English. For example, Cindy said,

> I always feel uncomfortable when speaking English, though I know a judicious use of English can make the class more efficient….I've heard that some students asked their teachers to stop speaking any English. Students complain that 'we are here to learn Chinese, not English!' If this complaint happened to me, it would be so awkward. (Cindy)

Similar stories were also heard from Karrie, Flora, Alice and Jane, but none of them had personally encountered the complaint that Cindy mentioned. The teacher being complained might have overused English, but the story made the participant believed that the fault was caused by English. When they were further asked about the source of the fear, Karrie indicated where it had stemmed from some of the books that she read for the CFL teachers qualification tests. As Karrie said,

> I couldn't tell exactly where I've read about the story, but it is definitely from one of the key readings for CFL teaching. (Karrie)

> When I was in the Masters' program, my teachers like to repeat this story and ask us to keep alerted. I feel if I speak English, it will ruin my reputation of being a good Chinese teacher. I don't want to be complained about. (Amy)

In fact, the source of the quotation is from renowned academic journals and compulsory readings for CFL teachers (Sun Dejin, 2003, p.101). Its impact on individual CFL teachers is tremendous. To sum up, CFL teachers who supported the maximal position did not fully reject the ELF pedagogy, but also did not fully recognize its value either. They treated the use of English as a haphazard and possibly detrimental practice. They saw pedagogical value in switching or mixing codes and translation, yet felt guilty,

hesitant and worried about these pedagogies. Even though English was considered to be useful, participants in the maximal position did not feel that it was legitimate to adopt this ELF pedagogy.

7.4.1.3 The optimal position

The optimal position holds a multilingual perspective. However, in contrast to the maximal position, proponents of the optimal position recognize value in the L1 use without bearing any pedagogical regrets. They regarded ELF pedagogy as a 'lubricant' (Butzkamm, 1998) to create a 'harmonious and balanced teaching environment' (Senior, 2006, p. 270).

Six of teacher participants supported the optimal positions. They were Peter, Michelle, Smith, Tommy, Leo and Maggie. They believed that there is an optimal use of L1 in the L2 teaching. They displayed a positive belief towards the use of ELF and practice of codeswitching in class. Peter and Michelle argued,

> To keep the class interactive is very important. I encourage my students to negotiate meanings in any languages they like as long as they truly understand what I'm teaching about. I know many CFL teachers insisted on speaking Chinese only but students have no idea what they are saying. They are speaking to themselves. This kind of exposure to target language won't work well when the discursive input is not comprehensive to students. (Peter)

> It is a strategy for me to use in the class. There are always some able students in one class. Whenever I have some new words that I anticipate that most of my students do not know,

> I will ask those able students to translate into English in a louder voice. Then, most of the students would understand quickly. I don't need to translate by myself, because sometimes their translations are much more concise than mine. (Michelle)

Peter and Michelle's perspectives also discouraged a complete dominance of classroom teacher. They emphasised the importance of interaction and comprehension between teachers and students. They reported that they'd like to check to see if their students had really understood their instructions from time to time. Likewise, Smith added that the class should be rich in cultural atmosphere. And English was the best, probably the only possible medium to use for introducing the Chinese culture.

> I'd like to make my class full of interesting Chinese cultures. I want my students to know more about Chinese culture even if their Chinese proficiency remains limited. I translated those special Chinese cultural symbols, such as 春联 (chunlian, couplets), 针灸 (zhenjiu, acupuncture) into English. And I use very simple English to explain to my students. They all love it. Otherwise, a class without new knowledge or interesting stories would be so boring. (Smith)

As Smith pointed out, a content-vacuum class might not be suitable for adult Chinese students. He found a bilingual introduction of Chinese culture has entertained many of his students and made his class interesting. Smith also mentioned that even advanced students in his class may need translations or interpretations now and then. Tommy told a story of how he was made aware of language when he was asked to speak English by a group of students from Europe,

> It was a Friday afternoon, I remember. They came to me after the class and wondered if I spoke English. I said yes and then they relieved and started to complain of how

> frustrated they were in the first week here. I didn't even notice that they had no idea of my instructions when other Asian students had already figured out by checking characters from their electric dictionaries. They also told me about their difficulties in paying school fees, buying the right textbooks, logging into Internet…. I might have focused too much on teaching a language and neglected my students as individual persons. (Tommy)

From Tommy's perspective, language is not simply a means of expression or communication; rather, it is a practice that constructs, and is constructed by, the ways language learners understand themselves, their social surroundings, their histories, and their possibilities for the future. Tommy emphasized the importance of English for building a close relationship with students. He realized that international students of Chinese studying abroad needed time to adapt to the local culture and life style. English is a useful way for CFL teachers and their students to get together, inside and outside class, for school study and for individual needs. Leo further explained,

> I developed a 'two weeks bilingual method'. I will mainly use English in the first two weeks for the beginners' Chinese class. I will speak English most of the time and make sure my students could understand my instructions. For example, I will speak Chinese first and then English, and Chinese again. It goes like this "一起读 – read together – 一起读", "大声点– louder please – 大声点", "再读一次– read again – 再读一次". It lasts for around 2 weeks before I move on. (Leo)

Leo's 'two weeks bilingual method' is a Chinese version of Dodson's Sandwich Techniques (1972). In fact, teacher participants who supported the optimal position

tended to have developed a set of personalized teaching methods with the help of English. Leo, Michelle, Tommy and Maggie all mentioned a 'transitional stage', where English is frequently resorted to in giving directions, building up relationships, managing classroom activities, checking comprehensibility, etc. This transitional stage could be interpreted as a "bilingual mode" in terms of the languages it involved, similar to Ouyang Wanjun's (2003) experiment. Further, Maggie stressed the importance for CFL teachers of learning how to use English as a lingua franca to handle a multilingual and multicultural class. Maggie pointed out,

> The beginners' class is definitely multilingual. You know, students in CFL programs usually make a United-Nations-typed class. Look, my class has 12 students, but they are from many different countries, France, Vietnam, Pakistan, Russia, and two boys at the back are from Korea…. They speak to teachers in Chinese, communicate with classmates in English and talk with their friends in mother tongues. It would best if a CFL teacher knows all students' L1, which is very unlikely. But at least, we can speak English … the lingua franca of many languages. (Maggie)

Maggie emphasized the communication with students. Compared with the first two groups of teacher participants, these teachers spoke more frequently about their students. It is important here to point out that the teacher participants who supported this position, like Maggie and Tommy majored in English. Their educational backgrounds may well have shaped their beliefs. They supported the idea that CFL teachers should be bilinguals in Chinese and English.

Four of the teacher participants' ideas went beyond Macaro's continuum. They were Judy, Kate, Alice and Alex. They could not be classified into any of the above three types of beliefs. They thought the discussion of the use of English was irrelevant to their Chinese teaching practices. They felt the Chinese teaching was new and independent and thus has no relations to any other foreign language teaching. For example, Judy argued,

> Teaching Chinese as a foreign language is a new discipline, but it's independent. I don't think all those difficulties and problems that English language teaching have encountered will occur again to Chinese teaching…. English is English. Aren't we talking about Chinese teaching? (Judy)

Judy believed that Chinese teaching was independent and thus no comparison should be made between the two languages. Kate was not even conscious about what she practiced in her class. She continued,

> Honestly, I don't remember…. But I don't really care. There should not be a fixed pedagogy to follow. If making facial expression works, I will make facial expression. If singing works, I will sing. If using some English will work, I will do it as well…. I'll say no matter it's a black cat or white cat, as long as it catches mice, it's a good cat. (Kate)

Kate used a metaphor to describe her opinion at the end of the interview. For her, being able to speak English and use English is just one technique among many. To speak English is equally as important as making facial expressions and singing, techniques that can be adopted for conveying meanings to students.

7.4.2 Teacher identity of ELF

During the process of investigating CFL teachers' beliefs about the use of ELF in teaching Chinese, many identity issues emerged as shaping their beliefs. As discussed earlier, teacher identity is comprised of the beliefs that teachers hold about their individual role as teachers, as well as the view of society towards teachers (Welmond, 2002). Following an analysis and an initial classification of the 24 teacher participants' standpoints, the following part will discuss how teacher participants' identity shape their beliefs.

7.4.2.1 National identity

CFL teachers are often presented as representatives of the national image. CFL teaching is one of the first professions shouldering the responsibility of spreading Chinese culture and showing a positive image of China to the world. In this context, some participants expressed a firm belief of the exclusive use of Chinese in the language classroom. They considered it as a 'prerequisite for being a responsible Chinese teacher'. For example, Lucy explained

> I've told myself, 'No English', since the first day of my teaching practice. As a Chinese teacher, we have responsibility to keep the purity of Chinese language. Only 假洋鬼子 (jia yang guizi, fake foreigners) switch codes. (Lucy)

The label of 'jia yang guizi' refers to local Chinese who pretend to act or speak like foreigners. Such people can be easily identified from their use of mixed English-Chinese code when they speak Chinese. Yet, by many, English is considered to be a threat to the purity of the Chinese language and even harmful to national cohesion. Lucy's attitudes

reflected the current battle of 'saving Chinese from English'. The banning of the use of English acronyms in Chinese media and this has influenced teachers and students at school. Further, this has brought up the relation of language use and national pride, giving awareness of national pride to their students. For example, Alice thought using English would make students from Korea and Japan feel uncomfortable. As Alice said,

> It'd be very dangerous for a Chinese teacher to use English in class. Students from Korea and Japan, and many other places in Asia do not speak English at all. It will cause injustice in class. Students would question, why doesn't the teacher use my mother tongue? Why English? We want to keep the class equal. We should not make our students feel we only like to communicate with students from the US and UK. (Alice)

Alice's notions about the spread of English were quite representative among many teacher participants, but were surely based on some misconceptions. It's clearly idealistic to suggest that each individual has the right to speak their mother tongue in the classroom. It's impractical to expect Chinese language teachers to speak all languages. But equality and language justice are not maintained by depriving people completely of their language rights by insisting on the Chinese only principle. In this case, English becomes the baby thrown out with the bathwater.

7.4.2.2 Foreign language identity

Teacher participants' foreign language identity was believed to be a crucial factor influencing their beliefs about of the use of English. Interestingly, the study found only those who supported the optimal position were comfortable to be labeled as bilinguals; but for teacher participants who supported virtual and maximal positions, either rejected

the notion or found it problematic. For instance, they treat English as a useful tool, but do not regard it as necessary for their identity. When being asked to comment on their foreign language identity, some participants found it unnecessary to carry a foreign language identity. For example, Alex argued:

> Are Chinese teachers bilingual? Hum… I have no idea. I do know that English is the first foreign language for most in-service Chinese teachers….but it sounds problematic if I am regarded as a bilingual teacher…. It's very wrong to put English onto the same level as Chinese. (Alex)

Alex's attitudes, in fact, represent quite a number of the teacher participants in this study. They were satisfied with being a monolingual but standard Chinese speaker and hesitated to accept English as one of their foreign language identity. Notwithstanding feeling uncomfortable about a bilingual identity, all participants agreed that competence in English is of great importance to CFL teachers' career development. The lack of proficiency in English has been frequently described as 'a bottleneck' for CFL teacher's development. Some previous studies (e.g. Deng Xiaoqin, 2008) have showed that a lack of communicating skills in English was a serious impediment for CFL teachers. As Kelvin explained,

> English is of great importance to CFL teachers. If your English isn't good enough, you will find it difficult to read academic journals in English for research purpose, and it would eventually become a hindrance for getting promotions. (Kelvin)

To follow, Smith, one of the four Deans, echoed Kelvin's comment. He found value in ELF pedagogy and practiced codeswitching in class with students. Smith displayed a

solid command and grammatical understanding of Chinese and English grammar. He gave an example of how he corrected a mistake made by one of his students. Smith turned to code-mixing when he told this story. He said,

> My student said 这件事高兴了我 (zhejianshi gaoxing le wo, it pleased me). It's a very common mistake for native English speakers. So I told my student it is a mistake and I explained that 高兴(gaoxing, happy) in Chinese cannot be used as a causative verb, you must say '让'(rang, let) or '使' (shi, let), which is "make" or "let" in English. In English you can say "pleased me, satisfy me, disappoint me", because English has lexical causative. But in Chinese there's no lexical causative, except for some unusual cases…. (Smith)

It can be seen from Smith's example that he felt that a good command of English benefited the class in providing comparative language knowledge. It's an advantage for Chinese teachers to be able to understand English linguistics and use it for teaching comparatively in CFL class. Moreover, beyond the classroom, many teacher participants have seen the importance of English in many practical ways. As Michelle said,

> I majored in English in university…. My English is much better than my colleagues, and this has brought me many part-time jobs and thus working experiences. And I have no difficulty in attending seminars in English and communicating with foreigners in English…. I also have more opportunity to practice English with my students.… Of course, English is very important. If your English is not good enough, as a young teacher, you won't get the chance to teach Chinese in overseas countries. (Michelle)

As Michelle mentioned, English can bring extra opportunities, working experiences, better chances for communicating through English and practicing English, and more importantly, the possibility to be recruited to teach Chinese in overseas countries. Michelle was a pre-service CFL teacher, who was about to graduate from the MTCSOL program. As Michelle recalled, candidates in the MTCSOL were expecting an enhancement of their social mobility and opportunities to go abroad once they had qualified as a CFL teacher, an opportunity only available for a few. With regard to teaching Chinese abroad, teacher participants expressed their concerns over the cultural differences. Leo worried if his knowledge of English and the education were enough for him to manage an interactive class. As Leo said,

> I have seen from TV that language teaching in Europe and America is very different from us. Teachers seem to give more freedom to students and they have a very equal relationship. I want to learn from them, but I'm afraid my English is too limited to develop a close relationship with my students. I'd rather not bother with my broken English. I don't want to cause extra troubles or see my students laugh at me. (Leo)

It's, of course, understandable that some CFL teachers avoid using English because their English competence is not good. Some young teachers with high English proficiency also hesitated to speak English due to their lack of English vocabulary associated with Chinese culture. For example, Kate said:

> I had an unpleasant experience in my teaching practice. It was a beginner's summer language course. I tried to give some examples of food for breakfast, but I don't know how to say 豆浆 (doujiang, soybean milk), 馄饨 (huntun, won ton), 包子 (baozi, steamed bun), 油条 (youtiao, deep fried dough). You know, all that we have learnt in

> our English class are western food terms: pizza, hamburger, pasta, etc. I don't know where I can get the English vocabulary for special Chinese food, drink, typical symbols of Chinese culture. (Kate)

As we can see from Kate's comments, there is a gap in what the CFL teachers learn when learning English and the English they actually need as CFL teachers. CFL teachers need English for introducing or explaining Chinese culture. What they have learnt instead is the English which will prepare them for an English speaking country. This needs addressing so that CFL teachers can also explain Chinese culture in English, especially to their beginning students.

7.5 Summary

ELF is used to explain, translate or introduce Chinese words and culture for pedagogical purposes, to manage class or build relationships with CFL students for practical purposes, and to promote their language awareness, to enhance the academic research ability, improve their foreign language skills as well as to increase their social mobility through winning an opportunity to teach Chinese overseas.

It's noteworthy that some of the participants did not see any value in using English as a pedagogical or communicative tool and simplified the question to be 'teaching Chinese through English'. The conversations were dominated by ideological issues and national identity problem and educational concerns were less significant. However, as discussed earlier, studies with regard to language policy, teachers' beliefs and language identity of ELF are never simple educational questions.

Teacher participants' beliefs about ELF were categorized into three positions according to the extent to which they supported ELF pedagogy. CFL teachers' beliefs about ELF were discussed with respect to its importance in pedagogy, communication and professional development purposes. National identity and foreign language identity were identified as keeping shape these beliefs. In addition to the influences brought by identity characteristics, CFL teachers' language learning experience, and pressures from peers and school principles, as well as social and media influences are all potential research areas to look at. This study attempted to depict a panorama of the ecology of CFL teachers' perceptions and understandings of the ELF pedagogy in the CFL surroundings. Some important findings emerged through the discussions of CFL teachers' beliefs about ELF pedagogy and how identity shaped the beliefs.

For many decades, Chinese language teaching has been dominated by the principles that teachers should use Chinese only to teach CFL students and avoid using English except as a last resort. As a matter of fact, English as a lingua franca has often been applied in as an implicit and covert language policy in classrooms as a dynamic medium of instruction and this has been taken for granted. The next chapter will introduce the use of English in four observed classes.

CHAPTER 8 ENGLISH IN CFL CLASSROOM

8.1 Pervious study in CFL teaching

This study represents the third part of the multipart study. Studies on using English in CFL classroom focus on describing to which extent and in which way that CFL teachers use ELF. Nevertheless, many of them attempt to turn people's perceptions into a general picture. Few are found focusing on the use of English in actual CFL classroom teaching.

Some articles withstood the pressure of Chinese-only pedagogy appeared and provided principles for using English. For example, Zhao Xiaohui (2009) argued that the use of English can benefit in five aspects: (1) help teachers indentify student's difficulty; (2) build authority as a good foreign language speaker; (3) make closer the relationship between teachers and students; (4) increase efficiency; (5) reduce teaching cost (e.g. flashcards). Similarly, Jiao Jiao (2009) generally supported all items that Zhao Xiaohui described but put more emphasis on 'increasing CFL teacher's linguistic awareness'. These suggested principles can be understood as advantages of using English in CFL classrooms.

Some studies focused on how to use English positively in CFL classroom. For example, Yang Yirong (1999) suggested a few possible ways for using English in the CFL beginner classroom, such as comparing lexical items and collocations between English and Chinese, checking comprehension, etc. Zhou Jian's (1999) study has gone beyond the linguistic analysis. Zhou argued to use English (1) to introduce new language point;

(2) analyze the source of errors; (3) manage exercises and classroom activities. Moreover, Wang Bing, et al. (2007) investigated 30 CFL students through questionnaires in the East China Normal University and found that CFL teachers and students used English for teaching or learning (1) grammar; (2) new lexical items; (3) texts; (4) culture; (5) giving or doing assignments, quizzes and examinations; (6) directing or participating classroom activities. Wang's study found that 60% of the surveyed participants suggested that an English explanation is very necessary for them to check the extent of understanding.

8.2 Research purpose and question

It's noteworthy that in many of the previous studies, such as Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002), Polio and Duff (1994) and Fu Chuanfeng (2005), the analysis for the purposes of codeswitching is through tables of percentages. Nevertheless, this study does not intent to measure the quantity of English use. As Polio and Duff (1994) argued, reporting percentages without examining the discourse context and purposes would fail to capture the dynamic and sequential nature of teacher-student interaction (p.314). Therefore, this study describes the actual CFL teaching in classrooms, examines how CFL teachers and CFL students use English to achieve the practical goals. The research questions are in following:

1. What actually occurs in the CFL class with regard to the use of English?
2. How CFL teachers and CFL students use English to achieve the practical goals?

8.3 Research method

Classroom observation is believed to be the appropriate research method to collect precise evidence of CFL students and teacher's use English from naturalistic settings. As Good (1988) put it, one role of observational research is to describe what takes place in classrooms in order to delineate the complex practical issues that confront practitioners (p. 375). Good further argued that one of the fundamental purposes of classroom observation research is describing the current status of instructional practices and identifying instructional problems (p. 376). Likewise, Wajnryb (1992) argued that an observation task is a focused activity to work on while observing a class in progress. It focuses on one or a small number of aspects of teaching or learning and requires the observer to collect data or information from the actual class, such as the language a teacher uses when giving instructions or the patterns of interactions that emerge in a class (p.7).

In order to do this observation research, classes were audio-recorded. Of the 24 CFL teachers interviewed in the previous chapter, seven agreed to have their classes audio-recorded for research purpose. Then, four out of the seven were selected purposely on the basis of their attitudes towards the use of English. This left the four teachers whose classes were recorded. All of the four classes shared four characteristics: (1) the average number of CFL students in each class was around 10; (2) three classes were at beginner's level and one was at intermediate level; (3) each recording class lasted for around 80 minutes; (4) the countries of origin of CFL students were diverse. It's important to point out that the majority of students in the four classes were from the Expanding Circle, where English is not used as official or working languages. However,

CFL teachers were found using English to the class as a lingua franca regardless where each individual student came from.

8.4 Data analysis

The main unit of analysis of classroom conversations was the turn, which has been defined as when an interlocutor stops talking and thus enables another interlocutor to initiate a turn, or when the interlocutor is interrupted by another who initiates another turn (Potowski, 2009, p.94). Nevertheless, it's necessary to bear in mind that some of the observed classes were more teacher-centered than the others, which showed a disproportion of teachers' and students' interactions. The transcript convention (see Appendix III) is adapted from Nagy and Robertson (2009, p.86).

This part of study examined the codeswitching practice between Chinese and English in CFL classroom on the basis of the coding scheme. The coding scheme was developed and adapted from three models provided by Swain and Lapkin (2000), Polio and Duff (1994) and Cook (2001), which has been discussed and summarized in section 4.4.3.2. All interactions with codeswitching between English and Chinese in this study were categorized under a coding scheme with three major dimensions, namely explanatory, managerial and interactive and subcategories.

1. Explanatory dimension
    (a) Explaining Chinese grammar
    (b) Explaining lexical items
    (c) Checking comprehension

2. Managerial dimension

   (a) Giving instructions

   (b) Giving feedback

   (c) Teacher motivating or guiding students to practice

   (d) Planning assignments

3. Interactive dimension

   (a) Supporting from peers

   (b) Students making request to teachers

   (c) Practicing English

   (d) Misunderstandings

In fact, many excerpts show a combination of several purposes for code switching between English. The following segment, for instance, was included under the 'explaining grammar', 'motivating students to speak', 'supporting from peers'.

Segment 1.

S1: 老师<Teacher>, how to say that, hum, I bought something?

T: No, 我买<I buy> is 'I want to buy', not 'I bought', OK? For example, 我买咖啡<I want to buy coffee>, 还有呢<anything else>? Anything else? You want to buy^?

S2: (2.0) [NO RESPONSE]

S3: Anything else?

S2: Oh, 我买绿茶<I buy green tea>.

T: Good, 好啊<good>，非常好<very good>.

8.4.1 Explanatory dimension

The explanatory purpose includes teachers use ELF for explaining metalinguistic content of CFL, checking comprehension, providing necessary scaffolding for classroom student learning, etc.

1. Explaining Chinese Grammar

All of the teachers used English to some degree in their grammatical explanations. As seen below, some utterances were entirely utterance in English and others were not. Segment 2 was taken from the teacher who stated in the interviews that he did not agree about the use English in the class and classified himself as supportive Macaro's virtual position. However, in the actual teaching practice, he identified a mistake made by one of the students and he switched to English.

Segment 2.

S1: 我不吃早饭.

T: You should speak 没. 没 and 不, both are negative verb, but use different. OK?

没, not happened; 不, not adjective. OK?

Segment 2 evidently betrayed a discrepancy between the teacher's belief and his teaching practice. Regardless of the explanation of 没 and 不, his English demonstrated

a typical pattern of English use in the CFL classroom which was identified in all of the four classes. That is, English is employed as a literal translation of the original Chinese expression, without considering the English grammar or collocation of English words. On one hand, the teacher might deliberately form a contrast between English and Chinese by preserving the Chinese sentence structure and filling it with English vocabulary. On the other hand, the teacher might not be able to speak English well so he has to translate literally instead of using full and correct English sentences. However, in the Segment 3, the teacher skillfully avoided the risk of having to speak full English sentences. She simply gave out English equivalent but isolated English academic vocabulary in otherwise Chinese discourse.

Segment 3.

T: 再来一个啤酒<one more beer>，什么意思<what does it mean>?

Ss: (2.0) [NO RESPONSE]

T: 再来一个<one more>，什么意思<what does it mean>? 看啊<look>，大家看<everyone looks at here>. 再<again>，可以加动词(can add verb) verb, and a phrase with measure word, yes, 一瓶<a bottle>, phrase with measure word, yes, 再读一遍<read one more time>, yes, 读<to read>, 说<to speak>, 买<to buy>都是动词<are all verbs>, verb, right? 一遍<one time>，两遍<two times>，一瓶<a bottle>, a phrase with measure word, right?

It's clear that this teacher only used 'verb' and 'phrase with measure word' in her grammatical explanation, but provided several examples to elaborate. The four observed

classes all showed, to different degree, some use of English academic vocabulary to explain Chinese grammar.

2. Explaining lexical terms

For explaining the lexical terms, new or confusing Chinese vocabulary, the teacher in Segment 4 adopted the Sandwich Technique (Chinese—English translation—Chinese). She repeated the Chinese word '那些' twice to make sure students have heard it clearly. At the same time, she checked comprehension by giving the English equivalent, 'those'.

Segment 4.

T: 这些<these>.

Ss: 这些 [REPEAT]

S1: How about 'those'?

T: 那些<those>, those, 那些<those>.

Ss: 那些<those>.

T: 些 is not only one, 不止一个<more than one>, 有很多<many>, more than one, OK？

English translation occurred more frequently when new lexical items were introduced or teachers perceived that students' Chinese proficiency was not enough to understand the content. In Segment 5, the teacher introduced a Chinese word '你看' and closely followed by an English translation 'look'. She used the same method when a student

asked her for translation of another new word. The teacher repeated the Chinese '好看' first and gave the translation afterwards.

Segment 5.

T: 你看, look, 你看, look

S1: 你看[REPEAT].

T: Yea, pay attention.

S1: What is 好看?

T: 好看, good looking,

3. Check comprehensions

Teachers and students use English to check comprehension. Segment 6 shows that teachers asked the class to translate a Chinese vocabulary into English. One student introduced a new word '围巾' to the class and the teacher quickly checked whether they understood it. Another student translated '围巾' to the class and the teacher repeated the English equivalent to make sure everyone has heard of it.

Segment 6.

S1: 我买围巾.

T: 围巾<scarf>, do you know 围巾<scarf>? [TO THE CLASS]

S2: Scarf.

T: 非常好<very good>, scarf, 围巾<scarf>

The teachers in Segment 6 used ‘do you know’ for cuing students to translate. In segment 7, the student proactively and correctly translated teachers’ instructions into English and the teacher responded positively to the student. It was noted that throughout the class some students were very active in translating whatever teachers said to the class for practicing and reinforcing the understanding of the target language.

Segment 7.

T: 打开书<open the book>, 七十二页<page seventy two>.

S: Seventy two.

T: Very good. 七十二页<page seventy two>.

Discourse marker, ‘right’, ‘OK’, ‘yes’ and ‘very good’ were frequently employed by CFL teachers when checking comprehension with students. All of the four teachers used English words for giving signals before changing topic and left some time for students to react. In segment 8, the teacher said ‘right’ two times for cuing a response from students before moving to a new topic.

Segment 8.

T: 刘是什么<What is Liu>?

Ss: (2.0) [NO RESPONSE]

T: 刘, a surname, right? (2.0) Right?

Ss: 刘 [REPEATED THE SOUND]

T: 我不是刘师傅<I am not master Liu>, 我是刘老师<I am teacher Liu>, OK?

8.4.2 Managerial dimension

The managerial purpose indicates teachers use ELF for giving activity instructions, giving feedbacks, praising, encouraging, disapproving, planning assignments or preparing tests, examinations, etc.

1. Giving instructions

The most common use of English came to routine instruction. This occurred quite frequently in all of the four observed classes. Segment 9 showed that the teacher in a beginners' class was trying to teach the difference between 没 and 有 through an activity, which was instructed entirely through English.

Segment 9.

T: Let's try. The first thing. Take out, take out two piece paper. The small one, the small one. [POINTING AT PAPER] (2.0) Just like, just like this. Fold it into half and cut. One paper write 有牙 <with teeth>, another paper write 没牙 <toothless>. [STUDENTS STARTED TO WRITE] Write by yourself. One paper write 有牙 <with teeth>, the other paper write 没牙 <toothless>. [WALKED DOWN TO CLASS] (2.0) Yeah, very good, very good. We will show to your neighbor. OK, make sure, every person has did. OK, follow me. [RETURNED TO THE FRONT AND STARTED TO WRITE ON THE BOARD]

Segment 9 showed that this teacher naturally used 'let's try', 'write by yourself' and 'follow me' when giving instructions for a classroom activity. She wanted students to

take out one piece of paper, tear it into half and write something on each piece of paper. However, it's very obvious that the teacher seemed to have ignored the grammar of English. More fragmentized English than full English sentences were used and many mistakes can be identified.

2. Giving feedback

Teachers gave feedback in English for emotional, interpersonal, rapport-building purposes, such as praising, encouraging, showing empathy, etc. The three examples below showed that teachers used English to converse with CFL students. In segment 10, the teacher praised the student's pronunciation and instructed the student how to pronounce the word better by saying 'open your mouth big'. The teacher then gave the student a 'bonus' when hearing a better pronunciation.

Segment 10.

S1: 在<zai>.

T: Very good, big mouth, right? [SHOWING THE METHOD TO PRONOUNCE]

S1 在<zai>.

T: 非常好<very good>, bonus!

Some teachers switched to English to show concern for the students. As shown in segment 11, the teacher used English to shift his role as an empathetic peer and digressed from instructional sequences. The teacher stopped suddenly in the middle of a grammatical explanation when she heard one of the students complaining about the cold weather and reminded the class and also the student to 'put on more clothes'.

Segment 11.

T: 他们常常一起<they are always together>.

S1: Cold, cold.

T: 北京<Beijing>, 冬天 winter, 非常冷 very cold, very cold, wear more clothes.

He Shan [STUDENT'S NAME], wear more clothes.

S1: OK.

3. Teacher motivates or guides students to speak

Teachers used English to motivate or guide students to speak or practice more Chinese. In Segment 12, the teacher spoke the Chinese twice to cue some responses from the class. The teacher resorted to English when realizing that students might not understand.

Segment 12.

T: 我和玛利亚< Maria and I>, 我和玛利亚< Maria and I>, how to say that?

How to say I and Maria? ^

S1: 我和玛利亚.

T: Yes, and? 一起<together>^, together^

S1: 我和玛利亚一起吃饭。

In fact, the Chinese equivalents for 'yes' and 'and' in segment 12 were not complicated expressions, however, the teachers still used English to cue responses from students. Teachers use English to reassure the students about their output of the target language and alleviate the anxiety of making mistakes.

Segment 13.

S: 五十四块<fifty four dollars> [READING FROM THE PRRICE TAG]

T: 对，keep going, you are right.

S: (2.0) 三毛五分<third five cents>

In segment 13, the teacher kept encouraging the student to finish the sentence by saying 'keep going', 'you are right' in English. And the student gave the right answer after pausing for a few seconds.

4. Planning assignments

Teachers speak English for planning assignments. By the end of the class, three out of the four teacher participants switched to English for giving assignments. In Segment 14, the teacher firstly reminded the class about the dictation and then read through the four assignments one by one.

Segment 14.

T: 最后<lastly>, 作业<homework>. 明天我们有<Tomorrow we have>^?

S: 明天我们有<Tomorrow we have>dictation.

T: 对<Right>. 看啊<Look>, 第四个<the fourth one>, 读<read> read, 第三个<the third one>, make sentence, 第二个<the second one> (2.0) 第二个<the second one>, 大家看啊<everybody looks here>, make a paragraph. 不多<not much>,

not so much. Peter, make a note.

S: Are we going to present?

T: No, just show me, 给老师看<show your homework to me (teacher)>.

The teacher shared the PowerPoint slices of the class, on which the content of Segment 14 could be found. Figure 8.1 was an example of a teacher's PowerPoint slices.

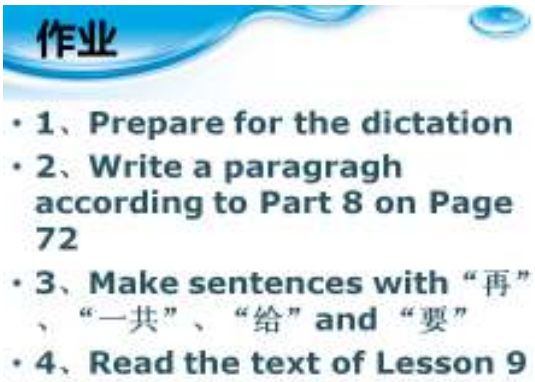

Figure 8.1. CFL teachers use English to plan assignments.

8.4.3 Interactive dimension

The interactive purpose means students use ELF to communicate with each other or provide peer support for each other, etc.

1. Student's peer support

Students were found communicating with each other though English. In segment 15, a student asked the teacher about the meaning of a word and while the teacher was explaining, another student helped explain in English.

Segment 15.

T: 21 路公共汽车.

S1: What is 路?

T: Ah, just the number.

S1: (2.0) [DIDN'T GET IT]

S2: Xxx means the route of the bus.

S1: [NODDING]

In segment 15, the English interpretation provided by the teacher was probably less appropriate than that from the other student. The first student who asked the question quickly understood when hearing the explanation from another student.

Segment 16.

S1: Yes. How to say teeth?

T: Oh, 牙, teeth.

S1: 牙.

S2 What is it?

S1: Ya [S1 REPEATED THE SOUND TO S2]

Students in segment 16 communicated to each other and looked for translations. It's often noted that students used English to translate questions raised by teachers to classmates sitting nearby.

Segment 17.

S1: 我要买<I want to buy>, I don't know, how do I say, because I want to buy shoes.

T: 什么东西<what did you say>?

Ss: Shoes.

S1: Yea, shoes.

T: 鞋子<shoes>.

S1: 我要买一<I want to buy a>.

T: 我要买一双鞋子<I want to buy a pair of shoes>?

S2: Is it the measure word for shoes?

S3: Yea

S2: Really? I thought it's for 筷子< chopsticks> .

T: 双<pair>, 双<pair>, OK? For double things, 一双筷子<a pair of chopsticks>, yes, 一双袜子<a pair of socks>.

Students in Segment 17 first helped the teacher to understand a question put up by a student in English and then discussed about whether the measure word was correct.

2. Practicing English

Teachers used to English as they encountered unfamiliar English vocabulary or attempted to provide English translations for students. In segment 18, the teacher looked for a correct form of 疼 and asked students for the English equivalent. The students modeled words for the teacher to choose and the teacher then repeated it twice, ending the exchange with a discourse marker 'OK' to signal a move onto the next topic.

Segment 18.

T2: 疼 <Téng> (2.0) How to say that, how to say that? 疼 < Téng >^

S1: Hurt.

T2: Yea, hurt. (2.0) Is there any adjective? 疼 < Téng >^

S1: Pain?

S2: Painful?

T: 对<That's right>，painful, painful. 牙疼<toothache> painful [POINTING AT HER TEETH]

S1: Toothache?

T: Yea, Yea, Yea, toothache. OK.

As shown in segment 19, the reversal of roles signifying the teacher and the student's respective English expertise can occur when the teacher is unsure about the English. Furthermore, it's proved that teachers learnt the English expression from students.

Segment 19.

T: 汽水<soft drink>.

Ss: 汽水<soft drink>

S1: What is 汽<qi>

T: 汽<qi>?

S1: What does it mean, like in 汽水<soft drink>and 空气<air>

T: 啊<ah>，不一样<they are different>，空气<air>，[POINTING AT 气] this is

gas，[POINTING AT 汽] that is vipo，veipo [PRONOUNCING VAPOR]

S: Vapor [CORRECTS TEACHER'S PRONOUNCIATION]

T: Vapor.

Ss: Vapor.

Segment 19 indicated CFL teachers practiced English with CFL students and learnt from them. It is seen that the teacher tried to pronounce 'vapor' when giving explanations on the difference between 汽 and 气. The teacher learnt the correct English from some advanced English speakers and repeated the English after them.

Segment 20.

T: 大家来当一当老板<We try to play as a shopkeeper>, OK? Boss. We are boss. Shopkeeper, not boss, shopkeeper, OK?

Ss: Shopkeeper.

In Segment 20, the teacher wanted her students to practice buying and selling in Chinese. When she tried 'boss' first and quickly changed to 'shopkeeper' as the most appropriate English vocabulary for this case and the class repeated after the teacher.

3. Misunderstandings

Misunderstandings happened or communication broke down due to teachers' English proficiency. Some teachers were found not been able to understand students' questions in English. In Segment 21, a student was trying clarify whether the measure word can

represent the shape of things it modified. Another student responded to this question by replying 'some of them'. However, the teacher seemed to have not understood. The question was repeated for three times but the teachers still could not figure out what the student's trying to ask, but seemed only to have understood the 'measure word', the grammatical term only. Then the teacher described the general rules for measure word and ended the conversation.

Segment 21.

S1: Can you, hum, explain the class about the (1.0) the measure word of the different (1.0) to shape of things? (2.0)

T: (2.0) [NO RESPONSE]

S1: Does it mean that the measure word represents the shape of something?

S2: Some of them.

S1: But I didn't realize that measure word represent the shape of something by its meaning.

T: Measure word? 量词<measure word>

S1: Yea.

T: You mean 一个词<one word>, 它有一个量词<it has a measure word>, for example, 书<book>, that is 本<ben >

S1: Yea, 本<ben> is like representing the shape of things?

T: (3.0) 啊<Ah>, 好<good>, 我们等一下再说啊<we talk about it later>.

Another example is seen from segment 22. The student asked about the measure word for a 'can', but the teacher couldn't figure out what the student was trying to ask. After hesitating for a few seconds, the teacher replied with an ambiguous answer that 'you can also say a bottle'. The student repeated his question but the teacher's explanation remained irrelevant. The more obvious proof of his failure to understand the question came from 'a bottle is for something long, with no handle'. These Chinese expressions have far beyond students' Chinese proficiency, but it seemed that the teacher just needed to utter something when she encountered tricky questions.

Segment 22.

T: 一瓶啤酒 <a bottle of bear>.

S1: 老师<Teacher>, 瓶<ping> is for bottle, how about a can ?

T: (2.0) [NO RESPONSE]

也可以说一瓶<you can also say a bottle>, 一瓶就是长的<a bottle is for something long>, 没把儿的<with no handle>.

S1: What about a can?

T: 一瓶就是< a bottle is > for 这个< this> [POINTING AT A WATERBOTTLE ON THE DESK], 没有这个 handle<with no handle on it>.

8.4.4 Examples of violating the principles

Some examples of using English were regarded as violating the principle for using English in CFL class. They emerged as a supplementary dimension of English use in CFL class. To be specific, the examples were to be analyzed in the following three

aspects: (1) avoiding English unnecessarily; (2) overuse of English; (3) misuse of English.

1. Avoiding English unnecessarily

Some teachers avoid the use of English unnecessarily, even though they know their students are English-knowing bilinguals. A few examples extracted demonstrated teachers' reluctance to resort to English, though the English translation has in the end helped leaner understand the new lexical terms. The below segment was from the beginning minutes of a class when the teacher was telling a story and asked the class if they understand one lexical terms occurred occasionally in the coverstaion.

Segment 23.

T 一辈子什么意思<What does yí bèi zi mean> ? (3.0) [NO RESPONSE]

S1 Yí bèi zi…… [REPEATING THE SOUND]

T 一辈子< yí bèi zi> 啊 <Ah> ^什么意思? <What does it mean?>

S2 杯子? < Bēi zi?, means bottle> [POINTING AT THE WATER BOTTLE ON THE DESK]

T 不是杯子, 一辈子. 工作了一辈子<Not bottle, it's yí bèi zi, I work yí bèi zi.> 一辈子, 比如说, 一辈子就是一个人, 一辈子就是所有的时间< yí bèi zi, for example, yí bèi zi is a person, yí bèi zi is all the time> 比如说, 我现在 24 岁, 那我的一辈子, 24 年 <for example, I'm 24 now, then my yí bèi zi is 24 years>明白了吗<Understand>?

S …… (3.0) [NO RESPONSE]

T 所有的, 比如说, 比如说 <all, for example, for example> 一个老太太 80 岁了, 她的一辈子, 80 年<an old lady is 80 years old, then her yí bèi zi is 80 years>. 一辈子就是生命的所有时间, 明白了吗？(3.0) < yí bèi zi is all the time for a life. Understand?>

S ……(3.0) [NO RESPONSE]

T 一辈子就是 whole life < Yí bèi zi is a person's whole life.>

S1 Oh. [NODDING HEAD]

S2 Whole life. [REPEATED]

S3 I thought he meant age.

Segment 23 violated the principle of efficiency. As can be seen that the class was dominated by teacher's talk and CFL students remained rather passive. The teacher insisted on explaining the term in Chinese and kept cuing the students. The whole process took more than 4 minutes till the teacher finally decided to use English, which has helped the whole class finish the long process of meaning negotiation.

2. Overuse of English

An overuse of English occurred when teachers were managing classroom activities. As seen in Segment 24, the teacher repeated the English words 'tiger' four times and 'game' three times when she was giving instruction to an activity.

Segment 24.

T: You can draw a tiger, a tiger. [DRAWING A TIGER] So there is a tiger, a tiger. One person, for example, raise this paper, and, and the other person say 牙疼 <toothache>. OK, let's have a game, a game, OK? A game.

These English words were not used for explaining the target language. If the teacher could give the Chinese equivalent for 'tiger' or 'game' in the case, then CFL students could learn some extra Chinese lexical items while they were preparing for a classroom activity. However, the teacher did not attempt to do so. This overuse of English turned the CFL class into a beginners' English class.

3. Misuse of English

Some teachers were found translating carelessly and led the class in confusion. In Segment 25, the student looked for a word in Chinese. The teacher first gave a wrong translation and further explained the Chinese translation which resulted in some unnecessary discussions about the translation.

Segment 25.

T: 你喜欢什么 flavor?

S1: Hum, Vanilla 和 cream

T: 香草和什么<vanilla and what>？

S1: Cream

T: 哦<Oh>, 黄油

Ss: 黄油

T: 黄 is yellow, 油 is oil, 黄油 is yellow oil in Chinese.

Note that cream here is not exactly 黄油. Translating it to 奶油 may be better for this case. However, the class discipline went loose after the teacher said '黄油 is yellow oil in Chinese.' Students started to talk about what 'yellow oil' represented.

8.5 Summary

This part of study has described the language use and language choice in CFL class. CFL teacher and student' codeswitching between English and Chinese were presented and analyzed according to their explanatory, managerial and interactive functions. In addition, the part of study also identified some examples which have violated the principles for using ELF in CFL classroom. In summary, the study has answered the two research questions by (1) describing the actual situation of CFL class with regard to the use of English and (2) demonstrated the ways for which CFL teacher and student's switched codes between English and Chinese in CFL class.

The findings of this study underscore the need for concrete, theoretical motivated guidelines for CLF classroom language use that indicate which sorts of codeswitching behaviors facilitate L2 acquisition and which behaviors undermine it (Levine, 2003, p. 356). The findings from this study, aside from shedding light on what actually occurs in the CFL class with regard to the use of English, have a number of indications.

First, English was employed as a direct translation of the Chinese original but used in a problematic way. As shown in many of the segments, some English translations were presented in a fragmentized form; some were even grammatically incorrect. However, it was noted that both teacher and student participants in the four observed class were making efforts to keep the class communicative with the help of English, though the quality of English was not very satisfactory.

Second, the English proficiency for some CFL teachers was not enough to manage a multilingual class as examples of communication breakdowns were found. The lack of English proficiency was probably the reason for teachers to use mainly fragmentary English words instead of longer and complete English sentences. Further, it might also have explained why the use of English was limited only to 'explaining grammar' and 'explaining lexical items'. This study did not find any evidence of translating a whole Chinese paragraph or introducing Chinese culture through English by CFL teachers. Interpretations of Chinese cultures, translation of Chinese texts might request a higher English ability for CFL teachers.

Third, the codeswitching practice was not limited to CFL teacher's interactions. Previous studies have not given much consideration to interactions among students. Although students were from different countries, they were very active and willing to help the class with their knowledge of English. English was indeed used in CFL class as a genuine lingua franca, when different L1 speakers relying on English for communicating and learning CFL.

Notwithstanding these findings, with only data from four classroom observations, it's not sufficient to generalize of what teachers and students do with English in the CFL classroom. Thus, a more detailed qualitative study of classroom observation over a longer period of time is needed.

CHAPTER 9 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

9.1 A brief summary of the research

The main aims of the present study were to understand the use of English as a lingua franca by CFL teachers and students in CFL classroom in Beijing. This multi-method study utilized questionnaires to survey students' attitudes, in-depth interviews to elicit teachers' language beliefs and classroom observations to describe the language choice and use in natural settings.

The first study introduced the situation of language use in CFL teaching and found that Chinese-only pedagogy was not strictly observed based on the findings from the questionnaire survey. The correlation test found that CFL students who were supportive to the Chinese-only pedagogy were possibly those who had been studying Chinese for an extended period, with relatively better prior knowledge of the Chinese language before coming to China, or a higher level of Chinese language proficiency. On the other hand, CFL students who were supportive to the ELF pedagogy were possibly those who were bi- or multilingual speakers, had longer time for English learning and were with higher level of English language proficiency. Detailed analysis of CFL students' attitudes about multiple code use in CFL classrooms were presented in Chapter 6.

Study two has investigated CFL teachers' beliefs of the use of ELF in a continuum of perspectives. Three categories of beliefs were identified: the virtual position, maximal position and optional position. Two types of identity stood out as salient points for

explaining CFL teacher's beliefs of ELF use: national identity and foreign language identify. CFL teachers' distinct language beliefs were analyzed in light of Macaro's (2005; 2009) framework in Chapter 7.

Study three illustrated how CFL teachers and students switch codes in natural classroom settings. It suggested three principles for using ELF in CFL classroom: comprehension, communication and efficiency; and three major dimensions for using ELF: pedagogical purpose, managerial purpose and interactive purpose. The three principle and three dimensions might be helpful for CFL educators and teachers to better cope with multilingual CFL classrooms.

9.2 License the use of English in CFL class

The three studies presented in the thesis have evidently proved that English is widely used by CFL teachers and students in CFL classes. CFL educators and teachers might need to recognize the fact that English is the *de facto* lingua franca in everyday classroom. For CFL students with little to no proficiency in Chinese, their knowledge of English is to become a critical means for access to content-area knowledge. Therefore, this thesis put forward 'ELF pedagogy' as an optimal model, which might serve as a threshold for effectively and actively incorporating English as a lingua franca into CFL teaching and learning.

By adopting the 'ELF pedagogy, one might need to license the use of English in CFL classroom. CFL teachers were suggested to let go of many of those taken-for-granted

assumptions and keep an open-minded for rich resources which could help enhance CFL students' CFL proficiency. CFL teachers might have long been under the pressure of the unacknowledged anti-English attitude, which has prevented CFL teaching from looking rationally at ways in which English can be involved in the classroom. For a possible teaching paradigm shift from Chinese-only pedagogy to a multilingual approach, this thesis has described status quo of ELF use in CFL teaching by providing evidence of judicious ELF use for CFL teachers to refer to in their daily practice. The thesis hoped that such an alternating pedagogy would help CFL teachers see English as a helpful tool rather than a regrettable fact of life that has to be endured.

The second step for adopting the 'ELF pedagogy' is to promote a multilingual approach in CFL teaching. In essence, language choice is a question of ideology. Chinese-only pedagogy as an extreme of perspective is discouraged in this study. For that this ideological rooted monolingual approach forces a focus on childlike uses of language and excludes the possibility of critical reflection (Auerbach, 1993, p.22). Such monolingual principle may not just slow the acquisition of Chinese but also denies students the right to draw on their language resources and strength, and to build the new on the known. The enthusiasm and insistence of Chinese-only pedagogy might intimately result in a fear for learning Chinese because it's attempting to 'domesticate the others into the nation' (Luke, 2004, p. 28). The ways for regulating the status of ELF might be found through reinventing national identity around a distinctive mix rather than a single language which is kept pure. By unveiling the mechanism of ideological

influence in the CFL classroom, the thesis suggests pedagogical models for positively and effectively using ELF pedagogy.

9.2 Principles for using ELF pedagogy

The foremost task might start from identifying effective pedagogical principles that both acknowledge and support the classroom as the multilingual environment that it is. Macaro's optimal model is suggested in the thesis as the most desirable perspective of English use in CFL classroom. On the basis of previous discussions, the thesis puts forward three principles. Whether or not to use of ELF and whether the use of ELF is positive or negative to CLF teaching, should be based on the following three principles:

1. Comprehension. As long as the use of ELF could help explain or translate so as to increase the comprehension of CFL, then the use of ELF is judicious.
2. Communication. As long as the use of ELF is for better communication among teachers and students or within students, for organizing or participating, sharing information, then the use of ELF is helpful.
3. Efficiency. As long as the use of ELF could save time and energy, for example, avoiding body gestures, making flashcards, then the use of ELF is wise.

The thesis suggests that as long as the use of English can help to enhance the comprehension, maintain the communication and increase the efficiency, and eventually scaffold the Chinese language learning, it will be regarded as a judicious practice of ELF pedagogy. Rather than regarding ELF creeping in as a guilt-making necessity, it can be deliberately and systematically used in the classroom.

9.3 Pedagogical implications for using ELF pedagogy

To practice an ELF pedagogy effectively, this thesis provides some pedagogical implications. CFL teachers are firstly suggested reflect their use of languages in class and CFL educators reexamine the language policy of CFL teaching. Further, the following points could help CFL teachers to prepare an ELF pedagogy.

1. to make initial assessment for each class. As suggested by Auerbach (1993, p. 22), using English as a tool to identify student needs and goals. CFL teachers are advised to conducted a preliminary survey at the beginning of the program/ semester, and ask CFL students to describe their purposes of studying Chinese, prior knowledge of Chinese, English language proficiency, and knowledge of other foreign languages, etc. This may help the CFL teachers have a sense of each student' individual differences. If the majority of the students reported a certain level English proficiency in the initial assessment, the CFL teacher might find it pedagogically helpful to adopt ELF pedagogy as an alternating method to assist the CFL teaching. To some extent, the initial assessment may help CFL teachers clear the uncertainty of whether or not students understand English and thus alleviate the anxiety when resorting to ELF pedagogy.

2. to offer bilingual CFL course for CFL beginners. With an increasing number of multilingual CFL students into China's universities in the past decade, it's a challenge for program coordinators and CFL teachers to manage multinational and

multilingual classrooms. The thesis has proved that English is internationalized and many CFL students are in fact bilingual in English and their mother tongue. English as a prior knowledge should be utilized as a helpful and dynamic medium of instruction in teaching CFL. In fact, in one of the research sites, a bilingual course in English and Chinese was recently set up as an optional opportunity for CFL beginners to learn Chinese with help of English. The thesis suggests offer bilingual CFL courses in English, if possible, expand to other foreign languages when teaching resources are sufficient.

3. to foster CFL students' ability to carry out learning tasks through collaborative dialogue with fellow students through Chinese, English and languages they know or share. As the classroom observation showed that CFL students were helping each other in translation and interpretation. The thesis suggests that ability CFL students can work as tutors for students with lower Chinese proficiency. CFL students are encouraged to build a close relationship with peers from different countries with the help of mixing English into Chinese. CFL teachers are expected to create a meaningful and communicative learning environment and help students build strategies for international communication.

4. to improve CFL teachers' English ability. It is understandable that many CFL teachers have little English because the majority majored in Chinese literature or Chinese linguistics without appropriate knowledge in language teaching and learning (Zhang Hesheng, 2006, pp.310-311). CFL teachers are increasingly called

upon to incorporate an understanding of SLA or applied linguistics into their teaching (Lam, 2005, p. 189). They are suggested to rethink and reexamine their beliefs and identity built upon their experience from learning English as a foreign language in schools and universities. The prevailing assumptions about the harm of using English might stemmed from a misuse of ELF as a pedagogy. The ability to cope with multilingual teaching environment is becoming a challenge for CFL teachers. A good command of English can benefit CFL teachers in a few ways: (1) to gain a bilingual ability to do linguistic analysis between Chinese and English and a sensitive awareness of the difference between Chinese and English; (2) to own a better bilingual reading ability for academic advancement, a wider vision in international research exchange and a change to introduce rich research recourses of CFL teaching and learning into the world L2 studies; (3) to earn confidence as a bilingual or multilingual CFL teacher who understands the hardship, joy and strategy for learning a foreign language, a good interpersonal skills for international communication and advantages for teaching CFL and adapting to live in overseas countries. Li Quan (2009) and Liu Xun (2004) called CFL teachers for learning from the ESL teaching.

9.4 Future research

This study raises some issues for further research. First of all, it focused on an area of great interest and importance to curriculum designers, language policy makers, especially CFL teachers. The findings suggest that we can no longer assume that it is satisfactory to adopt a one-size-fit-all Chinese-only policy in a global context. It would

be beneficial for Chinese language educators to rethink and reexamine the overarching language policy and develop an alternating pedagogy on the basis of the findings described in this thesis, which will be helpful for pedagogical reforms. Secondly, the present study was mainly involved with the discussion of L1 use in L2 learning in a specific context of CFL teaching and learning in China. Theoretically, this is of special relevance in the discussion of code choice and multilingual approach in CFL teaching. It would be worth a more in-depth narrative study of how CFL is taught, learnt and used in the multilingual classroom setting over an extended period to find out if the amount and frequency of ELF use is decreased while students' Chinese language proficiency increased. Contextually, it is particularly relevant to China and other similar contexts, where such studies are seldom conducted and thus insufficiently documented. Research in this area would offer a contribution to the study of CFL teaching in China which is increasingly important topic and has already become a global phenomenon. Thirdly, the three studies in thesis can serve as food for knowledge transfer for CFL educators and teachers. It would be of particular benefit to develop a handbook for CFL teachers to refer to when they are in need of theoretical and pedagogical supports.

9.5 Limitations

Although this research has reached its aims, there were some unavoidable limitations. First of all, due to the time limit, this research only conducted only a limited size of population in four of the universities in Beijing. Therefore, to generalize the results for larger groups, the study should have involved more participants in other CFL teaching institutes across China. Secondly, with regard to research design, a lack of CFL students

and teachers self-exported reasons for their multiple discursive practices, to some extent, left this study some aspects unexplored. However, all research techniques suffer from certain limitations (Bryman, 2001). These limitations were reduced to some extent by including a more in-depth narrative inquiry of the CFL students' attitudes towards English and the use of English in CFL class would deepen our understanding of their responses from the questionnaire survey. Furthermore, a stimulus recall might be a necessary follow-up study to enrich the observational studies by providing teachers' self-explanation to their language choices. A careful examination of these strategies in use would have enhanced this study, and would make a valuable focus for further research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Bilingual Questionnaires

汉语课堂语言使用情况调查问卷

Open-ended Questions on the language use in classes of teaching of Chinese as a foreign language in Beijing

我们希望通过这个研究了解学生对于汉语教学语言使用情况的态度和看法。请你填写你认为正确的选择。注意：这个问卷不需要你填写姓名，你所给予的信息将会被保密，并仅用于此项研究。谢谢。如果有任何问题，请联络王丹萍。

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This is a study on the use of languages in the Chinese language classroom. Please write the answer that you think it is correct. Please note that you are not required to provide your name and your answers will remain confidential. Thank you. If there is any problem, please contact Wang Danping.

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第一部分 Section One

1. 性别 Gender: 男 Male 女 Female
2. 年龄 Age: 15-20 岁 20-25 岁 25-30 岁 30-35 岁 35-60 岁
3. 国籍 Nationality : _____
4. 母语 Mother Tongue: _____
5. 你学汉语学了多长时间 How long have you been learning Chinese: ____年 Year ___月 Month
6. 来中国前，你有没有学习过汉语 Have you studied Chinese before coming to China
   有 Yes, _____年 Year_____月 Month
   没有 No
7. 你现在的汉语水平是 Which is your Chinese level:
   初级 Beginner level 中级 Intermediate level 高级 Advanced level
8. 除了汉语，你还会说哪些语言？What other languages can you speak, other than Chinese
   _____初级 Beginner level / 中级 Intermediate level / 高级 Advanced level
   _____初级 Beginner level / 中级 Intermediate level / 高级 Advanced level
   _____初级 Beginner level / 中级 Intermediate level / 高级 Advanced level
9. 来中国前，你有没有学习过英语 Have you studied English before coming to China
   有 Yes, _____年 Year _____月 Month
   没有 No
10. 你现在的英语水平是 Which is your English level:
    初级 Beginner level 中级 Intermediate level 高级 Advanced level

第二部分 Section Two

请你在 A，B 和 C 中选择你认为最合适的一个。Please choose the most suitable one from A, B and C.

1. 上课时，我的老师 In class, my teacher speak ( )
   A. 全都说汉语 speak Chinese only
   B. 说汉语和一些英语 speak Chinese and some English
   C. 说汉语和一些我的母语 speak Chinese and my mother tongue
2. 我希望我的老师可以 I hope my teacher could ( )
   A. 全都说汉语 speak Chinese only
   B. 说汉语和一些英语 speak Chinese and some English
   C. 说汉语和一些我的母语 speak Chinese and my mother tongue
3. 上课时，我 In class, I ( )
   A. 全都说汉语 speak Chinese only
   B. 说汉语和一些英语 speak Chinese and some English
   C. 说汉语和一些我的母语 speak Chinese and my mother tongue
4. 我希望我可以 I hope I could ( )
   A. 全都说汉语 speak Chinese only
   B. 说汉语和一些英语 speak Chinese and some English
   C. 说汉语和一些我的母语 speak Chinese and my mother tongue

请你在 1 至 5 中选择你认为最合适的一个。
Please choose the most suitable one from number 1 to 5.

完全不同意 Strongly disagree	不同意 Disagree	中立 Neither	同意 Agree	完全同意 Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

第三部分 Section Three(Part A)

1.	老师用英语解释语法 Teachers use English to explain Chinese grammar	1	2	3	4	5
2.	老师用英语解释生词 Teachers use English to translate new words	1	2	3	4	5
3.	老师用英语翻译课文内容 Teachers use English to translate the content of the texts	1	2	3	4	5
4.	老师用英语介绍中国文化 Teachers use English to introduce Chinese culture	1	2	3	4	5
5.	老师用英语布置作业、翻译测验和考试的题目 Teachers use English to explain homework, quizzes and examinations	1	2	3	4	5
6.	老师用英语组织课堂活动 Teachers use English to organize classroom activities	1	2	3	4	5
7.	老师用英语回答我的问题 Teachers use English to answer my questions	1	2	3	4	5
8.	上课时，老师用英语和同学沟通 Teachers use English to communicate with students in class	1	2	3	4	5
9.	下课后，老师用英语和同学沟通 Teachers use English to communicate with students after class	1	2	3	4	5

第三部分 Section Three (Part B)

10.	英语帮我学习汉语语法 English helps me learn Chinese grammar	1	2	3	4	5
11.	英语帮我学习生词 English helps me learn new words	1	2	3	4	5
12.	英语帮助我学习课文内容 English helps me study the content of texts	1	2	3	4	5
13.	英语帮我学习中国文化 English helps me understand Chinese culture	1	2	3	4	5
14.	我通过英语了解作业、测验和考试的要求与题目 English helps me understand homework, quizzes and examinations	1	2	3	4	5
15.	英语帮我参与课堂活动 English helps me participate in classroom activities	1	2	3	4	5
16.	我听不懂时会用英语提问 If I don't understand I will ask questions in English	1	2	3	4	5

17.	上课时，我用英语和同学沟通 I use English to communicate with classmates in class	1	2	3	4	5
18.	下课后，我用英语和老师沟通 I use English to communicate with my teachers after class	1	2	3	4	5

第四部分 Section Four

19.	全都说汉语可以提高我的汉语水平 Speaking Chinese only makes me study Chinese better	1	2	3	4	5
20.	全都说汉语可以让我学得更快 Speaking Chinese only helps my learn faster	1	2	3	4	5
21.	我的目标是可以说得像中国人一样 My goal is to become a native Chinese speaker	1	2	3	4	5
22.	全都说汉语是我到中国来的原因 Speaking Chinese only is the reason for me to come to China	1	2	3	4	5
23.	在中国，人们都只说汉语 In China, people speak Chinese only	1	2	3	4	5
24.	因为我担心老师听不懂外语 I don’t think my teachers understand foreign languages	1	2	3	4	5
25.	上课说全说汉语，我没有困难 I have no difficulty in speaking Chinese only	1	2	3	4	5
26.	上课说全说汉语，我不会紧张 I don’t feel nervous when speaking Chinese only	1	2	3	4	5
27.	上课说全说汉语，我不会觉得累 I don't feel tired when speaking Chinese only	1	2	3	4	5
28.	上课说全说汉语，我也不会觉得无聊 I don't feel bored when speaking Chinese only	1	2	3	4	5

第五部分 Section Five

29.	我的国家很重视英语学习 Learning English very important in my country	1	2	3	4	5
30.	英语对我来说很重要 English is every important to me	1	2	3	4	5
31.	我认为英语是世界通用语言 English is the international language	1	2	3	4	5
32.	和汉语比，我说英语更有自信 I feel more confident to speak English than Chinese	1	2	3	4	5
33.	英语可以帮助我学习汉语 English is helping me learn Chinese	1	2	3	4	5
34.	如果没有英语的帮助，我上课会听不明白 Without English, I don't understand the class well	1	2	3	4	5
35.	如果没有英语的帮助，我上课时不能和老师、同学沟通 Without English, I cannot communicate with my teachers and classmates in class	1	2	3	4	5
36.	如果没有英语的帮助，我下课后不能和老师、同学沟通 Without English, I cannot communicate with my teachers and	1	2	3	4	5

classmates after class

37.	我学习汉语的时候，不会停止学习英语 I shall not stop learning English while I'm studying Chinese in China	1	2	3	4	5
38.	我不满意老师的英语水平 I'm not satisfied with my teachers English level	1	2	3	4	5

第六部分 Section Six

39.	我会看教材上的英语 I read the English in textbooks	1	2	3	4	5
40.	教材上的英语可以帮我学习汉语 English in the textbooks is helping me learn Chinese	1	2	3	4	5
41.	我希望教材上有更多英语的翻译 I need more English translations in textbooks	1	2	3	4	5
42.	我可以看懂教材上的英语 I understand well the English in textbooks	1	2	3	4	5
43.	我发现教材上的英语有错误 I found mistakes of English in textbooks	1	2	3	4	5
44.	我希望教材的英语水平可以提高 English in Chinese textbooks should be improved	1	2	3	4	5

第七部分 Section Seven

45.	汉语和我的母语非常不同 Chinese language is very different from my mother tongue	1	2	3	4	5
46.	中国文化和我的国家的文化非常不同 Chinese culture and the culture of my country are very different	1	2	3	4	5
47.	学习汉语很有意思 Learning Chinese is fun	1	2	3	4	5
48.	学习汉语很辛苦 Learning Chinese is hard work	1	2	3	4	5
49.	我满意我现在的汉语课 I'm satisfied with my Chinese class	1	2	3	4	5
50.	我喜欢在中国的生活 I enjoy my life in China	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix II: Interview Protocols

1. 请问你的教育经历。
   Tell me about your previous education
2. 你会说哪些外语，程度如何？
   How many foreign languages do you speak and how well?
3. 请问你学习英语的经历。
   Tell me about your English language learning experience.
4. 你教过什么类型的汉语课，是否有海外教学的经验。
   What kind of classes have you taught? Any experience of teaching Chinese overseas?
5. 你认为你的学生会说英语吗?
   Do you know how if your students speak English?
6. 你怎么看待媒介语的问题。
   What do you think of the use of MoI?
7. 你和你的同事会不会使用英语作为媒介语进行教学?
   Do you and your colleagues use some English for teaching Chinese?
8. 你认为汉语课应该只说汉语吗，为什么?
   Do you support Chinese-only pedagogy in your class and why?
9. 你认为使用英语作为媒介语教学，有什么好处?
   If you find ELF pedagogy useful, please give examples.
10. 你认为使用英语作为媒介语教学，有什么问题?
    If you find ELF pedagogy problematic, why and give examples.
11. 你认为是什么影响了你对英语的态度?
    What do you think are the factors influencing your attitudes?
12. 你认为英语对你来说重要吗?
    Do you think English is important to you?
13. 你认为英语对你的职业发展重要吗?
    What does English mean to your career development?
14. 你认为汉语教师应该是双语的吗？
    Do you think CLF teachers are bilingual?
15. 你认为英语对汉语老师来说有什么意义?
    What does English mean to you as a Chinese teacher?
16. 你认为你现在的英语程度是否足够教学使用?
    Do you think your English competence is enough for being a Chinese teacher?
17. 你认为对外汉语教师是双语或者多语的吗?
    Do you think Chinese teachers are bilinguals or multilinguals?
18. 你认为使用英语作为媒介语进行汉语教学将来会不会有发展?
    Do you think ELF pedagogy will become important in future?

Appendix III: Bilingual Questionnaires

T:	teacher
S:	student
Ss:	students
<*text*>:	English gloss of Chinese original
(2.0):	pause in seconds
^:	rising intonation, cue
Capitalized:	researcher's comment
Xxx:	not audible