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Facilitative effects of learner-directed codeswitching: Evidence from Chinese learners of English

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Facilitative effects of learner-directed codeswitching: Evidence from Chinese learners of English

This study examines the interaction between learner-oriented codeswitching (CS) practices and the degree to which intermediate Chinese L2 learners of English engage in classroom interaction. The guiding questions are whether the teacher's CS use facilitates classroom interaction at moderate L2 proficiency, and if so, at which specific stages of the lesson, and to what extent. A systematic comparison of two classroom types was carried out in the same Chinese secondary school, with English-only instruction versus with English-Chinese CS. A combination of quantitative and qualitative analyses was based on class observations (2 classes per type) and subsequent teacher interviews. CS behaviour was analysed in relation to the particular teaching focus of the task at hand. Interviews included a stimulated recall technique using selected CS extracts to enrich insights from the teacher's perspective. The results showed a higher student response frequency as well as a longer mean utterance length in CS classes. Overall, codeswitches were systematically distributed across lesson stages and were closely related to changes in the teaching focus. These findings call for an optimal use of CS in instructed environments so as to maximise its benefits via a sensitive adjustment to specific pedagogic aims.

Keywords

codeswitching, classroom discourse, bilingual input, student engagement, stimulated recall

Introduction

To codeswitch between the L1 and the L2 or not in a foreign language classroom is a resonant and contentious question (Unamuno, 2008; Shin & Milroy, 2000). Proponents argue that CS can increase pupils' openness to classroom learning because its use can alleviate the foreign language challenge (Cook, 2001), motivate students' classroom engagement, and facilitate the acquisition of competences necessary for intercultural communication (Halmari, 2004; Li, 2005), or more fully draw upon multiple communicative repertoires including styles, genres and registers (Saxena & Martin-Jones, 2013) available in a bilingual classroom context. Opponents claim that the use of L1 will undermine the learning process by limiting opportunities of input and output in L2 (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002), or hold that CS is a mere proof of learners' language deficiencies, and a sign of insufficient L2 proficiency of the teachers (Moore, 2002). This study adopts the premise that CS deserves a place in FL classrooms because it is an effective strategy to stimulate classroom interaction to a greater extent than the exclusive use of L2. Whether this is the case is tested via zooming in on the interplay between teachers' use of CS and student talk. In particular, we examine the underexplored issues of how different types of CS are embedded in the sequential organisation of classroom discourse, at which lesson stages teachers typically switch to L1, and what student responses particular switch types prompt. Addressing these issues aims to contribute to our understanding of the intricacies of classroom talk beyond the traditional framework of the IRF (initiation-response-feedback) sequence (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975), in which students are usually limited to the response turn while teachers take charge of initiating and closing the sequence.

Codeswitching is defined in this work as an interactional resource by which speakers have the option of shifting from one language to the other within the same conversation or utterance (Milroy & Muysken, 1995); either intra-sententially (within clauses or words), inter-sententially (between sentences), or extra-sententially (tag or

interjection attached to the utterance) also known as emblematic switching.

Conceptual framework for a CS analysis

One of the most fruitfully used theoretical anchors for a CS analysis is Gumperz' (1982) approach to CS as *contextualisation cues*. In this approach, speakers use codeswitching as contextualisation cues to signal orientations, manage their talk, and co-construct meanings in contexts. Building on the contextualisation cues approach, Myers-Scotton (1993) proposed the *markedness model*, assuming that code choices are indexical of the social negotiation of "rights and obligations" (RO, p.83) between participants to signal their relevant roles within a conversational exchange. In this model, speakers' negotiation of their personal RO is realised by CS as the 'unmarked choice' to show solidarity and informality, and as the 'marked choice' to indicate social distance or create aesthetic effects. Li (2005), and Gafaranga (2005) questioned the fixed one-to-one mapping between CS and RO, arguing that it is insufficient to focus on the local meaning of linguistic choices since meaning of the conversation can be independent of the social meaning for the community. Instead, they interpret the meaning of CS in relation to the sequential development, also analysing what precedes and what follows CS use. Auer (1998) proposed the distinction between *discourse-related* and *participant-related switching*. Discourse-related CS acts as a resource to marking topic changes, quoting, moving in and out of different discourse frames, while participant-related CS concerns hearers' linguistic preferences and competences (Martin-Jones, 1995). The notion of participant-oriented CS is particularly useful to the study of classroom discourse since classrooms are settings where students have differing language abilities and communicative competences, so it is advantageous (see Cheng, 2013) if teachers can shift from one language to the other to address student needs. Discourse-related CS is also important in FL classroom context as it can be used as a compass to signal orientation of the communication and the interactional parameters (Unamuno, 2008), e.g. when a new topic is introduced or when a new speaker is invited to take their turn. Thus, a reliable analysis of the situational and social

indexicality of language use needs to build on subtle observations of the evolving sequences in conversational discourse.

Regarding the appropriateness of switching to L1 in FL classrooms, the position against CS is represented by the *input hypothesis* (e.g. Lightbown, 1991; Liu, 2008). Advocates of this approach emphasise the significance of maximum comprehensible input in TL during the course of learning, criticise CS as an environment in which students are deprived of L2 interaction, and object that students are less motivated and less likely to learn and use TL inside or outside the classroom unless teachers maximise TL use and in this way let students see the immediate usefulness of its mastery. In contrast, supporters of CS promote a careful and 'optimal' use of L1 in FL classrooms following the *effective linguistic resource* and the *cognitive relief* approach (Kumar and Narendra, 2012; Macaro, 2001 respectively). The former assumes that CS helps students at various proficiency levels to absorb L2 information about the target grammatical and lexical features faster, and the latter emphasises that activation of the bilingual mental lexicon can reduce the cognitive load imposed by constant high-speed inferencing, and can provide contextual clues for the incoming L2. Another powerful argument for CS use in the classroom rests on its high ecological validity. Literature on naturalistic codeswitching (e.g. Myers-Scotton, 2001) documents high frequencies of brief switches in order to communicate lexical or phrasal meaning in one (i.e. embedded) language whilst using another (i.e. matrix) language as the main vehicle for communication.

Adopting a supportive position to CS in an L2 classroom triggers the need to define what degree of L1 use is optimal. This is a challenging task as an adequate definition needs to encompass, *inter alia*, the dynamics of the changing classroom circumstances. In Macaro's (2009) view, 'optimal use' is where the teacher's codeswitches can improve second language acquisition and/or proficiency to a greater extent than L2 use on its own (2009: 38). He also emphasises that this definition (only applicable in a communicative classroom) implies the teacher's careful judgement about language choice, i.e. a *principled decision*, considering how much important information would be lost if the L1 was avoided in situations where L2-only input

might be too difficult for students to understand. Rather than focussing on the teacher, Levine (2009) elaborates on the notion of *principled use* of L1 in L2 learning contexts with its main aim being that *learners* 'gain awareness of the functions of first language use as an integral part of second language interaction and learning' (2009: 145). This study builds on Levine's idea of CS destigmatisation as a key awareness-raising phase during which learners realise that codeswitching is a normal bilingual verbal behaviour and a useful semiotic tool that can be exploited to structure conversation, build relationships or construct identities. In what follows, equally high importance is attributed to the learner's understanding of CS as a fundament of bilingual interaction, as well as to the teacher's decisions to modify second language input when learning can be enhanced.

To analyse instructional and interactional teacher talk, this study builds on the taxonomy of pedagogic functions behind teachers' CS proposed by Ferguson (2003:39). Firstly, *CS for curriculum access* (also see Lin, 2013; Moore, 2002) holds that CS provides an important access path to TL input and navigates knowledge construction for students with limited L2 competence. Secondly, *CS for classroom discourse management* includes those CSs which signal "a shift of frame away from lesson content and towards some off-lesson concern" (Ferguson 2003:42) to manage classroom discourse and motivate learning, and also to modify L2 input in response elicitation when time constraints play against the sequential flow of conversation and teachers do not want their students to 'switch off' (Macaro, 2005; Forman, 2012). Thirdly, *CS for interpersonal relations* represents an affective or social function, in which CS indexes a closer and more comfortable teacher-student relationship than the TL (Ferguson, 2003), suitable for accentuating a learner-centred environment which is better able to stimulate classroom interaction and increase student engagement.

Empirical context

In an earlier study of immediate relevance, Lin (1996) explored CS patterns in a sequential flow of classroom discourse using the IRF framework (teacher

initiation->student response->teacher feedback) (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). She found that CS successfully engaged students in both enjoying classroom discussion and learning new L2 features. Looking at language choice per move in story-focused vs. language-focused IRFs separately, Lin found that the teacher typically initiated the sequence in L1 to establish a more relaxed frame (which usually elicited student responses in L1), but gave feedback in L2 whenever focussing on language features to urge students' L2 use and to redefine the frame as formal learning. This teaching model was found effective for the students to move from the familiar (L1 expressions) to the unfamiliar (L2 counterparts).

More recently, Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) examined the functions of CS by explicating the relationship between code choices and pedagogic focus within specific types of classroom interaction (role-play, grammar practice). They categorised CSs in different activity types according to pedagogic focus (e.g. CS for clarification, CS providing prompt for L2 production). Through analyses of language choices, they found that CSs are effective as a response trigger and also as a stimulus for L2 use when students misalign with the teacher's intention and respond in L1. These findings were corroborated by Sali (2014), strengthening the view that teachers' CS as a response trigger prompts more L2 production. Informed by the significance of enriching conversational CS analysis with interview data (Stroud, 1998), Liu *et al.* (2004) examined teachers' attitudes to codeswitching in South Korea, where a maximised use of English in L2 classes is required. Surprisingly, L2 use in EFL lessons in high schools was only 32% on average. Results of a subsequent survey in Liu *et al.* (2004) showed that language choices were guided by teachers' beliefs, even though CS per se may run against the curriculum guidelines. This study highlights that the teachers' own conceptualisation of how the flow of interaction is organised is more informative of classroom discourse than curriculum guidelines. What Liu *et al.*'s (2004) study lacks is a quantitative analysis that could provide evidence for the link between CS and the degree of student participation, which presents a gap this study aims to address.

Further empirical support in favour of CS use in the classroom setting was

furnished by Lo and Macaro (2012), who examined the effects which changes in the medium of instruction (MoI) (from L1 Chinese to Chinese-English versus to L2 English only) have on classroom interaction. They observed 10th Grade classrooms across 32 secondary schools in Hong Kong, and reported that MoI change from L1 directly to L2 only coincided with more teacher-centred lessons as well as scarcer meaning negotiation and scaffolding than did MoI switching between L2 and L1. This finding brings an important insight that teacher's CS can help mitigate difficulties created by introducing the L2, arguably because CS provides a dual stimulus to support teacher-learner interaction. Nevertheless, CS use in the classroom is unlikely to be equally suitable across learner groups. Lee and Macaro (2013) investigated how teachers' code choices (L2 only versus L1-L2 CS) relate to vocabulary acquisition and retention as well as language preferences in different age groups (443 elementary school children versus 286 adults). Whilst both groups were found to benefit from CS use, young learners' gains were higher, and they also appreciated L1 involvement in the L2 classroom more than adult learners did. These findings signal that principled decisions about what is optimal in CS use need to consider the age factor, perhaps with CS more suitable in classrooms with younger student cohorts. Informed by previous findings and research designs, the current study contributes to the debate on the adequacy and optimality of CS use in the L2 classroom by looking at how the degrees of student involvement and their response types differ with and without CS use.

Research questions and hypotheses

RQ1: To what extent CS practice and English only (EN-only) practice differ in terms of eliciting student engagement? Does teachers' CS to L1 co-occur with higher student response frequency as well as more student talk?

H1: The use of CS helps to increase both the amount of student turns and student talk.

RQ2: How is student-directed codeswitching distributed across lesson stages and what are its links to specific pedagogical functions?

H2: CS is used strategically rather than at random, with particular CS types linked to different teaching foci.

To strengthen the theoretical anchor for the second prediction, this study adopts Üstünel and Seedhouse's (2005) view that the evolution of pedagogic focus inevitably influences the organisation of classroom interaction. Their study furnishes evidence in support of the idea that language choices which are embedded in the dynamic interactional environment change alongside the shifts in pedagogic focus. As a second line of support, if we adopt the more bottom-up premise that L1 use contributes to building meaning (Levine, 2009), it seems reasonable to assume that resourceful teachers will exploit CS, and will vary it so that it best fits different pedagogic needs.

Methodology

Participants and local context

Four EFL classes of intermediate level students (a total number of 168, age 14-15) and four English teachers (native speakers of Chinese) were involved in this study conducted in a secondary school in Suzhou, China. The participants were divided into two groups of teaching/learning modes based on the teachers' preferences of language use. Two codeswitching classes (CS-1/2) formed 'the experimental group', and two English-only classes (EN-3/4) were 'the control group'. This division with English-only classes as a control comparative baseline was motivated by the aim to detect whether or not the absence of CS use coincides with different degrees of students' classroom involvement.

All four teachers were females, native speakers of Chinese, qualified English language educators with comparable teaching experience (between 6-10 years), and they used identical teaching materials in compliance with regulations from the Education Department. The four teachers habitually engaged in coordinated lesson planning. The expectation from their institution was to ensure L2-dominance in their EFL classes, leaving codeswitching optional as no further rules were stipulated in this

respect. All observed lessons were communication-orientated English classes covering both form-focused and meaning-focused activities. Of further contextual relevance is that the language guidelines at the time of the study encouraged teachers to apply a task-based teaching approach, with the possibility of L1 use if the teacher found it appropriate as a tool for maximising students' exam performance.

Procedure

The initial step was to observe codeswitching practices in the four classes. Two lessons (80 minutes) per class were observed for a period of two weeks (1 lesson/week in 1 class), with identical teaching content across classes. The limited number of observed lessons agreed by the school is doubtlessly a hindrance for wider generalisations of the findings, yet on an exploratory level it is deemed a sufficiently competent response to the set research questions. Data collection was aided by audio recordings. Spoken data were transcribed, coded and subjected to quantitative analyses. Comparable parts were selected for qualitative analyses.

In stage two, interviews were held with the four teachers to examine their motivations and thus complement analyses of classroom discourse with the level of underlying socio-psychological forces which generate it (Laihonen, 2008). Interviews with the teachers from the control group comprised a series of questions centring on their attitudes about CS in L2 classrooms and on their reason for favouring monolingualism. For the teachers in the experimental group, interviews were supplemented with stimulated recall with the aim to "relive original situations with great vividness and accuracy" (Gass & Mackey, 2000:17). After listening to recordings of selected CS extracts, the teachers were asked to recall their motivations for individual CS uses. As for ethical considerations, issues of voluntary participation and confidentiality were duly addressed.

To check method reliability, the authors conducted a pilot test with four intermediate-level classes (two bilingual and two monolingual) in a different secondary school, observed for one lesson each. The teacher's CS frequency and the amount of

student volunteering turns (S-VT) are shown in Table 1. Preliminary quantitative results indicated that the overall percentage of S-VTs was higher in the CS-classes than in the English-only classes, in line with the related hypothesis.

Table 1 Outcomes of the pilot study

	Classes	T's turns	T's CS (%)	Ss' turns	S-VT (%)	MLU
English-only	1	179	0	165	49.7	12
	2	151	0	136	44.9	11-12
	3	167	22.6	116	67.0	19-20
CS	4	152	25.4	103	61.9	18

Analysis and coding

Quantitative analyses aimed to explore the interaction between teachers' CS and students' classroom engagement. First, transcripts for each lesson (40 minutes) were divided into four intervals, 10 minutes for each. In each time unit, the frequency of the teachers' CS and the amount of student talk including the frequency of S-VT and the mean length of utterance (MLU) were measured. This lesson division was inspired by Seedhouse (2004), who found that the evolution of the pedagogic focus can induce a change in the sequential organisation of interaction, hence the CS use which is embedded in the sequences can also be expected to vary. All teachers in this study followed a multi-focal lesson structure including 4 parts, lead-in->communicative tasks->content discussion->follow-up. Table 2 and Table 3 summarise the frequencies of turns and MLUs for each time unit.

Table 2 Summary of classroom interaction in Week 1

Classroom	Time unit	T's turn	T-CS (%)	Ss' turn	S-VT (%)	MLU
CS-1	1-1	42	24	37	81	16.13
	1-2	37	14	32	66	12.00
	1-3	33	45	30	63	8.21
	1-4	39	31	35	80	17.56
Total		151	28	134	73	Mean 13.44
CS-2	2-1	39	23	30	83	14.35
	2-2	33	42	21	76	13.12
	2-3	30	67	25	44	7.14
	2-4	34	32	28	53	10.39
Total		136	39.7	104	64	Mean 11.25
EN-3	3-1	31		27	81	12.30
	3-2	41		35	68	8.47
	3-3	26		20	40	10.60
	3-4	33		25	48	6.12
Total		131	0	107	62	Mean 9.37
EN-4	4-1	28		22	77	13.63
	4-2	22		17	58	7.18
	4-3	48		36	58	12.36
	4-4	40		37	43	8.09
Total		132	0	112	57	Mean 10.32

Table 3 Summary of classroom interaction in Week 2

Classroom	Time unit	T's turn	T-CS (%)	Ss' turn	S-VT (%)	MLU
CS-1	1-1	45	38	42	78	14.26
	1-2	49	37	40	70	10.42
	1-3	28	18	24	45	12.17
	1-4	41	27	35	71	18.43
Total		163	31.3	141	68	Mean 13.82
CS-2	2-1	52	40	47	74	13.11
	2-2	46	52	41	58	10.00
	2-3	37	38	34	44	11.64
	2-4	32	38	24	67	12.33
Total		167	42.5	146	61.6	Mean 11.81
EN-3	3-1	39		33	73	13.36
	3-2	42		35	54	9.87
	3-3	30		21	29	9.69
	3-4	32		29	31	11.14
Total		143	0	118	49.2	Mean 11.02
EN-4	4-1	43		39	74	12.17
	4-2	38		32	62	8.24
	4-3	41		35	31	9.35
	4-4	29		24	50	7.69
Total		151	0	130	55.4	Mean 9.36

In the next step, an independent samples *t*-test was run to check the consistency of CS use between the two CS groups, and between lessons in Week1 and Week2. Then, a

one-way ANOVA tested whether the level of student engagement in the CS classroom varies across time units. Quantitative analyses of student engagement in this study (i.e. student response frequency, MLU) included student responses in L1, in L2 as well as codeswitches. Basing calculations on the inclusion of all student responses (rather than e.g. on L2-only or CS-only responses) was motivated by the idea that all student contributions to classroom talk, including those in the L1, play an important role in building meaning in L2 learning (Levine, 2009).

For qualitative analyses, the coding scheme adopted from Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005) helped to relate codeswitches to the changes in pedagogic focus. CS extracts from each time unit were categorised based on teaching focus (e.g. Teacher's CS focusing on communication effectiveness: Lead-in activity). The functions of teacher CS as defined by Ferguson (2003) (i.e. CS for curriculum access, CS for classroom discourse management, CS for interpersonal relations) constituted the broader reference frame to characterise larger teacher-student interaction sequences. Also, each teacher CS was coded as inter-/intra-sentential or emblematic, to identify which CS elicits what kind of student response. Another layer of coding classified each conversational turn according to language choice, either as a turn fully in L2, fully in L1 or a CS turn. The distinction between turns fully in L1 versus CS turns was drawn purely as a means to identify more detailed response behaviour, i.e. the student's at-the-moment language choice in each individual turn, rather than as a differentiation of more or less desired response types. This study adopts the view that the use of L1, either as part of CS or on its own, is an available resource for L2 learning. Selected turn pairs from CS classes were then compared with extracts from English-only classes to identify the main similarities and distinctions in teacher-student interaction. Finally, interview extracts were used to explore preferences for teachers' language use in further depth.

Results

Interaction between student engagement and classroom type

The first step presents quantitative analyses to assess the interaction between classroom

type and level of student engagement. The overall frequency of S-VTs in the CS groups (70.5% in CS1, 62.5% in CS2, (calculated from the total of S-VTs in Week1+Week2)) was higher than in the EN groups (55.6% in EN3, 56.5% in EN4), and the same holds true regarding MLU (M=27 in CS1, M=24 in CS2, M=20 in EN3, M=19 in EN4). This signals that the students in CS classes were more willing to speak up as well as to speak more. Remarkably, the frequency of teachers' CS was not directly proportionate to the frequency of S-VT. The teacher in CS-1 class used 59.3% CSs, whilst the CS-2 teacher codeswitched 82.2%. Independent *t*-tests conducted to check the consistency of CS frequencies across lessons for week 1 and week 2 confirmed that there were no significant differences between the CSs of learners [$t(14)=0.713, p=0.49$], nor between the CSs of the teachers [$t(14)=1.025, p=0.32$] across the lessons.

When comparing the frequency of students' volunteering turns across 4 lesson parts, a one-way ANOVA showed that the degree of students' classroom engagement within the CS-group varied across different parts of the lesson [$F(3,12)=8.64, p=.003$]. An LSD post-hoc test clarified that S-VTs in the CS group were significantly lower in the third time unit of the lesson compared with all other parts ($p<.001$ in contrast with the first, and $p=.009$ in contrast with the second and fourth part). Although students in the EN-group showed lower degrees of classroom engagement in both the third and the fourth time unit, the overall development of S-VT density was similar to that of the CS group (Figure 1). In each time unit, the student engagement level of the EN-group was lower than that of the CS-group. It should be noted that the quantitative comparisons included all student contributions to classroom talk (turns fully in L2, fully in L1, as well as codeswitches).

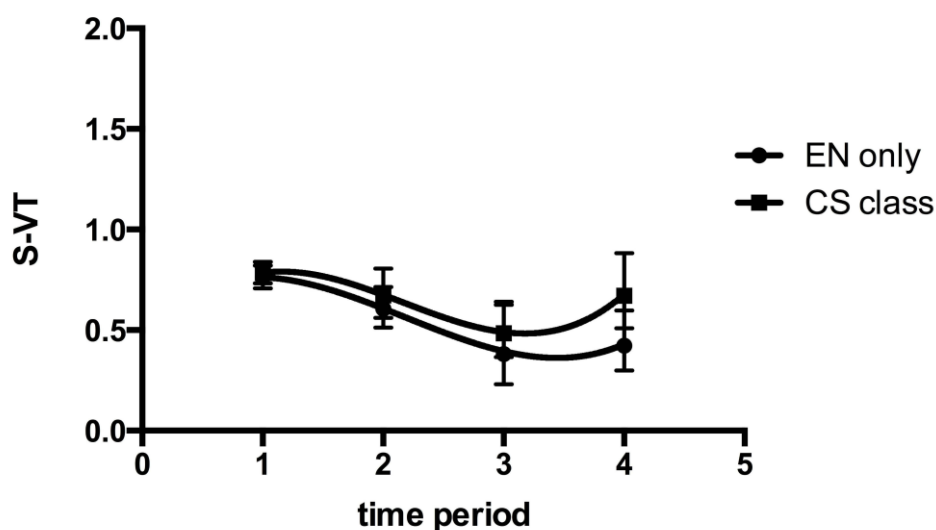


Figure 1 Time curves expressing the relationship between S-VTs and evolving lesson stages

Students' reactions to the teachers' language choices

For a more nuanced assessment of the relationship between teachers' language use and student talk, S-VTs responding to teacher's questions or making comments were classified into six categories. Table 4 presents these categories as well as the frequency of S-VTs per category.

Table 4 Frequencies per teacher-student interaction type in the codeswitching classes (TE-SE English teacher talk – English student response; TE-CS English teacher talk – codeswitched student response; TCS-SE Teacher codeswitching – English student response, TCS-SCS Teacher codeswitching – codeswitched student response; TCS-SL1 teacher codeswitching – Chinese student response, Chinese teacher talk – Chinese student response)

W1 \ W2	TE-SE	TE-SCS	TCS-SE	TCS-SCS	TCS-SL1	TL1-SL1						
CS-1	61	58	8	6	13	12	10	14	5	5	3	5
CS-2	50	47	6	4	15	16	18	19	7	8	4	6
Total	216	24	56	61	25	18						

S-VT frequencies show that the students' performance is sensitive to the teachers' code choices. The amount of language-congruent student responses (i.e. in the same language as the teacher's choice) was nine times higher (TE-SE, N=216) than the language-non-congruent responses (TE-SCS, N=24). The other way round, the number of students' L1 responses to teacher's L1 use (TCS-SCS/SL1, N=86) was also higher

than language-non-congruent responses (TCS-SE, N=56). It is noteworthy that the teacher's L1 use always elicited an L1 response (no CS or L2), and the students would never produce a complete L1 response when the teacher used English only. This result signals that students were likely to reciprocate their teachers' language choices. The following steps qualitatively analyse the use of CS linked to three specific pedagogic aims to see how similar switches can lead to different students' reactions.

Teachers' CS to increase communication effectiveness

In the first 10 minutes before introducing new teaching content, techniques to enhance student involvement in the EN-only class included question repetition (#1 *Yesterday, we learnt some outdoor activities. Do you remember what they are? Tell me what outdoor activity you like*; #3 *What outdoor activity do you like?*), rephrasing (#5 *Any other ideas about your favourite outdoor activities?*), affirmation and praise (#9 *Oh, you like climbing. #19 Very good! Fat is an evil, isn't it?*), or using 'urge phrases' such as *what about you*. Interaction in the EN-only class (examples from EN3W1 class, Supplementary file 1) was best characterised by regular 'what-and-why' sequences in which success to activate student engagement was limited.

In comparison, the teacher in the CS class (examples from CS1W1 class, Supplementary file 2) was more successful in motivating students to engage. This was achieved by opening the lead-in with a question in English combined with an emblematic CS, a direct translation in Chinese (#1 *Boys and girls, have you ever seen any cartoon films, 看过动画电影吗? 'ever seen cartoon films?'*). This step had a socio-psychological function to establish a less formal, relaxed teacher-student rapport. To stimulate classroom talk when no sufficient student response was given, the teacher used systematic inter-sentential CS (#7 *So, introduce something you like. 像是飞屋环游, 加菲猫 [...] 肯定是你们喜欢的吧? Come on! 谁先来? Boys? 男生们!*' such as 'Up', 'Garfield', you must very much like such kind of films, right? who's first? gentlemen!'). The teacher firstly switched to L1 to give a direct example, followed by sentences in English and Chinese in turns until a negotiation stirred up among students

with the desired outcome (#8 *I like 冰川时代 4 'Ice Age 4' very much. It is so interesting and touching.*). The generally observed pattern at the beginning of CS classes was that teacher switches served to establish less formal interpersonal relations (Ferguson, 2003), an environment in which students instantly see that L1 can also be used as a resource for L2 learning.

Teachers' CS to focus on form

To correct and explain grammar during the text analysis phase, the teacher in the EN-only class (examples from EN-4W1 class, Supplementary file 3) pointed out the student's mistake (#10 S: *Because Alice did not want let the rabbit get away*) via a multiple repetition of the critical verb (#11 T: *Want? Want? Want let the rabbit? Want let the rabbit get away? Want?*). With no success in eliciting self-correction (#12 S: *err [...]*), the teacher turned to others for the correct answer (#13 T: *Who can help her? Want do?*). This scenario reoccurred later (#15 T: *Yes, want to do something. So, the sentence should be?* #16 S: *Alice did not want to let the rabbit to get away.* #17 T: *Let the rabbit to get away? Is that right? Want to do, let?* S: [silence]) when the teacher could not elicit the desired response from the student who got mixed up in the use of the two verb phrases.

The teacher in the CS class focussed on form (examples from CS2W1 class, Supplementary file 4) with a series of phrasal codeswitches (#6 S: *It took a watch and looked at the time.* #7 T: *Yes, it had a watch, but, 注意一下 took a watch, 拿手表, 从哪里, Where was it from? 'pay attention to [...] took a watch; from where')* #8 S: *Pocket.*) In turn 7 the teacher switches to Chinese with the aim to modify student output, uses 'pay attention' as an awareness-raising device to signal a shift from a meaning exchange to a correct formal expression about the underspecified direction. In broader functional terms, this is an example of CS for classroom discourse management (Ferguson, 2003), in which a switch to L1 also signals a switch in the teaching focus. A very similar sequence was staged again later to elicit information about direction (#11 T: *Took a watch from its pocket? From? Can you change the word to a phrase, 短语, 拿*

出来, 出来. *Took a watch what?* ‘a phrase; take out of, out of’). After the teacher’s explicit guidance in which L2 was used as the matrix language with an embedded L1 (#9 T: *So, 从pocket里拿出来的, then you can add the information in the sentence. The rabbit took a watch?* ‘from the pocket’, #13 T: *Then what about 从口袋拿出? Yeah, you can, I believe* ‘take out of the pocket’), the student managed to provide a preferred response (#14 S: *Ah, the rabbit took a watch out of its pocket*). Use of L1 as a problem-solving device proved comparatively more successful to make it explicit for the student in what way the missing form can be furnished.

Teachers’ CS to explain form-meaning mapping

To address the student’s difficulty with the target expression, the teacher in the EN-only class (examples from EN4W2 class, Supplementary file 5) preferred not to provide a direct L2 translation but supplied a range of clues instead (#14 S: *I think the man is so rude because he has so many ties but, but...he, Em...does not... He, he 嫌弃... ‘detest’; #18 T: *May be you can change your word. Use a simple word? [...] He does not... #22 So she bought the hat. Then, what you can say? Is the man patient?*) with the aim to elicit a simpler expression as a replacement for the originally intended one. In a comparable sequence, the teacher draws attention to multiple meanings of the same form by supplying the L2 equivalent (#27 T: *[...] Girls always like to look at themselves in **the mirror**. And it **mirrors** that girls care more about their appearance. Here the “mirror”, the second “mirror”, do you know what it means? It equals?* #28 S: *反应 ‘reflect’ #29 T: *Yeah, an English word, reflect. Mirror something equals to reflect something*). In this exchange, turn #28 serves as a good example that even when student response is fully in L1, it is helpful not only for a successful diagnosis that the student is aware of the polysemous quality of the target word but also as a resource the teacher can draw upon in the subsequent turn.**

The teacher in the CS class (examples from CS2W2 class, Supplementary file 6) approached form-to-meaning explanation differently. Initially, the teacher’s strategic switch for repetition and awareness raising successfully shifted focus to form (#8 S1:

The lighthouse can show the right way for the ship. #9 T: *Very good! Show **the right way for the ship**, or we can say **right the way for the ship**.* 为船只指明方向. 这里的 *right* 就怎么样? 'right the way for the ship'. *Here, what happens to **right**?* #10 Ss: 形容词变动词 'change from adjective to verb'). During the talk between the teacher and S2, the tactical use of L1 by S2 revealed how the student tried to transform the interaction into a more fully bilingual mode so as to let the teacher know the meaning is clear but not the L2 form to express it (#12 S2: *I choose the second picture. The girl, the girl 打男孩的脸 for his rude behaviour.* 我不知道该怎么说那个词. 'hit the boy in the face; I don't know how to express that phrase'). The teacher acknowledged the need for help by providing part of the missing expression in English and restated the complete sentence in Chinese along with a question tag (#13 T: *OK, you mean... hit the boy in the face, 女孩因为男孩的粗鲁而打了他的脸. 是 'The girl hits the boy in the face for his rude behaviour. Do you mean that?'*), to which the student responds in a target-like manner (#14 S: *Yes. The girl hits the boy in the face for his rude behaviour.*). Importantly, this item was re-used by the student later on (turn #26) to enrich her output in a new linguistic environment, which signals learning success.

Although situations from both class types show the teachers' endeavour to create opportunities for genuine interaction, different outcomes were identified. The EN-only learning environment may provide a fully target-centred linguistic context to facilitate the habit of thinking and communicating in English, whilst the alternate use of both languages may foster the development of better metalinguistic awareness and speed up the intake of new linguistic information via L1, which, at least in the short run, was found to enrich the student's output more effectively.

Teachers' evaluation of their CS use

According to the teachers' recall of their own practical CS use, their main motivations to codeswitch were to enhance comprehension, increase student engagement, sensitively react to student response in L1/CS.

The teachers agreed that their CS uses were primarily aimed at enhancing

instruction comprehension and checking the level of understanding, especially for the students with lower proficiency. But when teaching grammar, they preferred to set aside L2 for a moment to explain the aspects of grammar in L1 so that they could highlight the important points and increase accuracy in student output. One of the interviewed teachers highlighted that her effort to establish language contrasts or L1-L2 balance in students' mind could help them to master the L2 information better, to apply the learned knowledge in various new linguistic environments, and to feel less stressed and thus more willing to speak up (Table 5).

Table 5 Interview extract to illustrate teacher's CS motivation to enhance understanding

Q: Why did you alternatively use the two languages here? (Supplementary material B, extract 3b, turns 9, 13, 19)

T2: I translated English sentences into Chinese because I wanted to help students further understand the meaning by using their most familiar language. In turn 9, I wanted to make sure that the students can understand the conversation of the word "right". And in turn 13 wanted to deepen their impression of how to express "打某人的脸" (hit somebody in one's face). In turn 19, there is a key word "remind", so I repeated it and highlighted it. I think, Chinese can make students feel more comfortable to master the knowledge.

In terms of increasing student engagement, the teachers ascribe the relative lack of student responses to the high tension of facing new L2 information, the cognitive load of listening, and misunderstanding. Therefore, a switch to L1 could ease their pressure exerted by attentive listening to unfamiliar forms and focus their attention on the content. The first teacher (T1) suggested that a pleasant, small opening could set a more activating tone for the activities to follow, while the second teacher (T2) had a different motivation. She codeswitched at points when multiple elicitation attempts in English failed to trigger a response, and when she felt students could be inspired to talk more when the switch to L1 appeared as provocation or shock tactics (Table 6).

Table 6 Interview extract to illustrate teacher's CS motivation to increase student engagement

Q: Why did you choose to switch to L1 here? (Supplementary material B, extract 3b, turns 17, 19, 27)

T2: That was a competition right? I'd like to say something exciting in Chinese to encourage students to talk more. Even though the expression like “你们落后了” (you are falling behind) seems a little bit ironic, I believe students can be provoked to perform better in the activity.

Discussion

Quantitative results support the assumption that students in the CS classes are more willing to speak up than those in the English-only classes. Support from quantitative analyses also extends to the idea that codeswitching students talk more on average in response turns than their EN-only counterparts. Higher levels of student engagement exhibited as an increase in S-VTs and in MLU length in the CS classes is interpreted as evidence in favour of teachers' use of CS to effectively stimulate student participation in FL classroom interaction. This is in line with Cook (2001) and Ferguson (2003), advocating classroom codeswitching as an effective strategy that facilitates students' openness to L2 learning and encouraging their oral participation. Regarding the students' reactions to the teacher's CS practices, language-congruent preferences prevailed. Teachers' L2 production was more likely to elicit student reply in L2, whereas the teacher's L1/CS was typically mirrored by the students responses in L1/CS, irrespective of question complexity. This finding differs from the study of Liu *et al.* (2004), who reported that although the students tend to reciprocate the teacher's language, their language choices were to a great extent dependent on the difficulty of the question.

Qualitative analyses centred on the relation between class type with the enhancement of communication effectiveness, focus on form, and form-meaning mapping. The first level of analysis showed that the teachers who employed the CS teaching mode were overall more successful in engaging students in the classroom interaction than those favouring English-only practice. Exploration of the sequential

organisation of CS practices and the teachers' self-reported motivations for code choices showed that one of the most significant reasons for such differences is the high response eliciting power of CS practices, i.e. the greater degree of students' willingness to speak up. This idea was also supported in Sali (2014), who found that the switch to L1 was frequently used by teachers when the students had difficulty in producing the desired L2 output, or when there was a lack of L2 production.

Several types of teacher codeswitches changing as a function of different teaching foci emerged in the data, including paraphrasing, highlighting, ordering, explaining L2 form and choice of lexis. The most commonly used CS pattern was the teacher's inter-sentential switch to L1 after a repetition or paraphrase of the previous L2 question, when there was no or very little student response (34.4% out of all teacher switches in CS class 1; and 44% in CS class 2). Such a switch aims to either assist with a brief translation to provide a hint. The second most frequent pattern was emblematic switching (17.2% out of all teacher switches in CS class 1; and 12.8% in CS class 2), typically placed in utterance-final or utterance-central position, and used as a stimulus to create a positive emotional effect. This switch typically occurred when the teacher wanted to extend student talk beyond the pre-set content. This switch type displays the potential of CS as contextualisation cues (Gumperz, 1982), inviting the students to transfer consciously between the time for listening and the time for speaking, and to talk more.

Bifocalisation

An inherent feature of CS is its bifocalisation property, which allows a double focus on meaning and form. Not necessarily identical with the aim of student response elicitation with an immediate effect, bifocal switches aim to increase the frequency of student talk as well as to better understanding in the long run. As Mokgwathi and Webb's (2013) showed, once CS improved lesson comprehension, it could then engage more learners in the learning process and increase class participation. The present results reveal CS bifocalisation in the context of asking for clarification (Supplementary file 4, turn 7),

establishing language contrast (Supplementary file 4, turn 15), highlighting important information (Supplementary file 4, turn 11), or raising metalinguistic awareness (Supplementary file 6, turns 13, 19). All these contexts are fitting examples of Moore's (2002) conceptualisation of CS as an awareness-raising device, which can lighten the students' cognitive load and thus enhance lesson comprehension.

Distribution of CS with respect to pedagogic focus

This study attested a close relation between the distribution of CS uses and the changing pedagogic focus as the chain of activities unfolded. With variation in teaching focus comes change in CS distribution, suggesting different roles for each language. This idea is in line with Üstünel and Seedhouse (2005), who advocate that shifts in pedagogic focus inevitably influence the dynamics of classroom interaction. In this respect, three systematic uses of CS are particularly remarkable, i.e. focus on meaning, focus on form, focus on form-meaning mapping. Firstly, the teacher's pedagogic focus on meaning via a small talk, usually at the beginning of the lesson, was aided by codeswitches used to enhance the level of student interest within the shortest time. Bilingual exchange in the form of inter-sentential switches were typically present throughout the entire teacher's sequence. As such switches were chained coherently to construct and convey the meaning, L1 and L2 were in the same status in a conversational turn. In relation to markedness theory (Myers-Scotton, 1993) the shared L1 in the initial stage enables teachers to reduce social distance and imply a more informal role as a 'friend' in order to encourage students' cooperation, whereas the use of FL marks the teachers' more formal role (Simon, 2001:326).

Secondly, pedagogic focus on form was accomplished through a different variety CSs. A switch comprising a short L1 sentence or word (*please pay attention; but*) acted as a discourse marker to signal a transition point between the meaning-focused frame and form-focused frame, while a switch involving partial L1 phrases were used to increase the degree of students' focus on, and understanding of, a particular linguistic feature. Such organisation directly reflects CS as contextualisation cues, and displays a

good combination of discourse-related CS and participant-related CS (Auer, 1998) respectively.

Thirdly, focus on form-meaning mapping via CS surfaced as a bilingual translation strategy, occurring typically when the students lacked competence to finish their utterance in L2. In such cases the teacher typically provided a direct L2 translation of the missing item, which was followed by a switch to L1 for repetition. Other form-meaning centred CSs were used when the teacher felt the need to highlight key points in the L2 input and the students' output. Such switches proved useful in drawing students' attention to semantic and formal differences between the source vs. target lexemes. This is in line with Moore (2002), who promotes that concurrent language use which successfully makes the meaning and form integrated can help to refine the formation and elaboration of students' input. The underlying mechanism behind students' output facilitation is via weaving a sensitive language contrast of source vs. target-like use particular forms.

Teachers' motivation to codeswitch

For teachers in favour of CS practices, the most significant reason for CS use was the students' L2 ability, corroborating findings by Liu *et al.* (2004) and Cheng (2013). The interviewed teachers frequently reported their L1 use for fear of students' insufficient L2 proficiency to understand instructions, and hence 'switching off'. In contrast, teachers who insisted on English-only practice considered such concerns unfounded, claiming that the key for the student's classroom performance lies less in teacher encouragement than in the learner's confidence in their mastery of L2 expressions. There are two alternative approaches to evaluate the weight of these clashing viewpoints on the impact of teachers' CS use. In one view, students in the CS classroom tap into a much less limited pool of language resources and hence their thinking in a bilingual way can produce more elaborate content and greater risk-taking output than thinking in L2 only (Macaro, 2005). However, quantitative analyses showed that a higher frequency of teacher's CS does not necessarily imply an increase in overall student output. In fact,

the opposite might be the case if demotivation sets in as a result of extensive L1 use in an FL classroom (MacDonald, 1993). Non-systematic CS uses were identified in the present study, e.g. when the teachers admittedly switched to L1 as a problem solving of deficient L2 knowledge, or when they fell behind the set schedule and felt the need to accelerate the lesson pace. This calls for high systematicity in CS use because random inclusion of the L1 may not only deprive students of L2 interaction time, but also discourage classroom participation. Macaro (2001) warns that student-directed CS requires careful planning and limited use. The current study provides some indication that this limit might be around 30% of L1 use.

Consensus about the benefits and drawbacks of alternating languages during classroom interaction has not yet been reached (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2004; Unamuno, 2008). Nevertheless, the concurrent language use does not seem to detract from learning. The increased student participation level found in CS classrooms is more suggestive of a spontaneous discourse type that is hospitable to classroom interaction and enhanced L2 awareness, at least when code switches conform to a principled use in response to the evolving pedagogic focus. To situate these findings in their context of origin, sensitively used language switches between English and Chinese in a communication-orientated EFL class with teenage intermediate-level students are able to boost student engagement in classroom interaction.

Proposals for optimised codeswitching

Findings of this study signal that L1 use in the L2 classroom can effectively stimulate student involvement in tasks and subtasks with various teaching foci. Focus-specific comparable pairings (teacher CS and related S-VTs versus English-only input and related S-VTs) lend themselves to formulating some concrete suggestions for how the notion of 'optimal CS use' may be operationalised.

One possible way to optimise CS use could be via a development of mutually agreed explicit classroom norms about language use between teachers and students (in line with Levine, 2009). Discussing specific situation types with students when CS can

help increase communication effectiveness (e.g. how combining a lead-in question in L2 with a subsequent L1 equivalent can be used to set a less rigid framework which welcomes bilingual interlocutors to codeswitch) would raise awareness of CS as a normal complementary tool that stimulates discussion. Also, providing examples to students with CS in particular classroom contexts (e.g. in a storytelling situation, CS can be an effective tool to navigate the interlocutor's attention to provide more specific spatial or temporal details) could foster the habit of a purposeful use of codeswitching.

Another optimisation technique could be achieved through a teacher-student consensus about using CS as instructional language units to explain form-meaning mapping between the most appropriate 'difficult' lexical items in the L2 and their corresponding L1 meaning (e.g. 'detest' for 嫌弃). This proposal builds on the assumption that some items of vocabulary might be better internalised through the provision of L1 equivalents because they trigger deeper semantic processing than L2 definitions or paraphrases (Macaro, 2009: 49). In sum, a teacher-student agreement on collaborative classroom norms for L1 use in dialog initiations, and also on CS used with the intention to clarify nearest lexical equivalents in L2 to express the desired (often complex) L1 meaning, are two possible ways towards operationalising the notions of principled and optimal CS use in the classroom.

Limitations

Generalisability of the present findings is naturally limited by the sample size involved. Also, CS use may turn out to be very different with participants at different levels of L2 proficiency, or in classrooms with different teaching methods. Other limitations concern teacher-related factors, such as the potential influence of the teacher's personality and inclination towards codeswitching, or the level of familiarity between the teachers and students. One way to control for this factor and increase result comparability would be to choose teachers based on the closeness of their (pre-assessed) CS preferences, and to allocate them to classes they have not taught before. Another area that might benefit future research is the exploration of level-specific codeswitching effects, and how CS

interacts with learner performance at different proficiency levels.

Conclusion

This study explored how the levels of student engagement differ in foreign language classrooms with and without teacher codeswitching. Quantitative comparisons of English-only versus Chinese-English classrooms with intermediate Chinese learners of English provided support that CS use can be a useful technique for teachers to enhance the level of student engagement and also the amount of student talk. Qualitative analyses highlighted the CS property of bifocalisation, and furnished evidence for different switch types triggering different responses in correspondence with the pursued teaching aim. Overall, students' reactions to the teacher's language use showed that the students tend to reciprocate their teachers' language choices. This finding emphasises the need for optimising L1 use to ensure comprehensible input, but also warns against L1 overuse. Through this study, the distribution of CSs closely linked to the changes in teaching focus shows that optimisation of CS practices is indeed possible as well as beneficial.

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Supplementary file 1

Extract from the EN-3 class in Week 1

1. T: Yesterday, we learnt some outdoor activities. Do you remember what are they? Tell me what outdoor activity do you like.
2. Ss: (Negotiation, but no one hands up.)
3. T: What outdoor activity do you like? Just say something. OK? Volunteer?
4. S1: I like climbing.
5. T: Oh, you like climbing. Why do you like it?
6. S1: Because... Because...
7. T: Why? Does it help you, or good for your what?
8. S1: Because it helps with my health.
9. T: Can you use another phrase? You like climbing, so you can say climbing makes me?
10. S1: Strong
11. T: Yeah, strong, complete sentence please.
12. S1: I like Climbing, because it makes me strong.
13. T: What about others? What about you?
14. S2: Badminton is very fun.
15. T: Oh, you think it's very fun, right? What about you?
16. S3: I like jogging.
17. T: Why?
18. S3: Because jogging is very good for our health, and it can help us keep slim.
19. T: Very good! Fat is an evil, isn't it?
20. Ss: (negotiation)
S3: Yes.
21. T: Any other ideas about your favorite outdoor activities?
22. S4: I like cycling.
23. T: Oh, you like cycling, can you tell me the reason, why?
24. S4: Because I can feel the fresh air.
25. T: Yeah, you can , a new word, you can breath, (the teacher makes body language to explain the word), you know? You can breath the fresh air.
26. T: OK, well, so yesterday we talked about different outdoor activities, and this class, we'll discuss something not in the real world, not around us, not the activities you can take, something about a fairy tale.

Supplementary file 2

Extract from the CS-1 class in Week 1

1. T: Boys and girls, have you ever seen any cartoon films, 看过动画电影吗?
(ever seen cartoon films?)
2. Ss: Yes!
3. T: Then, can you say more about what you have seen, and did you like it?
Why you like it?
4. Ss: Silence
5. T: There are a lot of films. You said you have seen some films, right?
6. Ss: Yes.
7. T: So, introduce something you like. 像是飞屋环游, 加菲猫... 肯定是你们喜欢的吧? Come on! 谁先来? Boys? 男生们!
(*Such as 'Up', 'Garfield', you must be very like such kind of film, aren't you?; (who's first?); (gentlemen!)*)
8. Ss: (Negotiation)
S1: I like 冰川时代4 very much. It is so interesting and touching. I even want to have a pet like Scart.
(*Iced Age 4*)
9. T: Yeah! It's really an exciting story. My daughter also like it. 跟你们一样大哦, she always always cries for me to buy a same squirrel. 那我上哪里找?
(*she is the same age as you; Where can I find it?*)
10. Ss: (Laugh)
S1: Oh, my mom didn't agree. 她说除非我期末考全校第一.
(*She said, she would buy me one if I got the highest score in the final exam.*)
11. T: Ah-ha, good idea. May be I can say that to my daughter.
12. Ss: (Laugh, negotiation)
13. T: What about else? Girls? Any romantic cartoon you like?
14. Ss: Silence
15. T: 一些浪漫的啊, 幻想的啊, 女孩子都喜欢的哇. Now, who? Girls?
(*something romantic, faerie? Girls like that I think*)
16. S2: I like, I like Shrek. Because the green monster is very nice, he always protect the princess.
17. T: Yes, 他总是保护公主, pay attention, "他总是怎么样"...
(*he always protects the princess; He always does what...*)
18. Ss: Protects
S2: Oh, 他总是, he aways protects the princess.

(he always)

19. T: Yes, he is a good man, always protects his princess. You want to have such a good boyfriend, aren't you?
20. S2: Yes! Of course! I think all girls want a kind boyfriend.
Ss: (Laugh, negotiation)
21. T: Ok. I believe you will find your prince in the future.
22. Ss: (negotiation)
23. T: Well, you all like to watch the cartoon film, and now, today, I'd like to share a fairy tale with you. It's my favourite. First, lets enjoy some period of this film.

Supplementary file 3

Extract from the EN-4 class in Week 1

1. T: Yeah, Alice saw a rabbit when she was sitting by the river. It was a strange rabbit. She was amazed. What did Alice do when she saw the strange rabbit?
2. Ss: (silence)
3. T: Any volunteer? Easy question!
4. S1: Alice stood up and ran across the field.
5. T: Yes! Alice ran across the field after the rabbit. Then?
6. S1: The rabbit jumped down.
7. T: What about Alice? Alice?
8. S1: She jumped down the hole too.
9. T: Yes, she jumped down the hole after the rabbit. Pay attention, here, why? Why did Alice jump down the hole? Why?
10. S2: Because Alice did not want let the rabbit get away.
11. T: Want? Want? Want let the rabbit? Want let the rabbit get away? Want?
12. S2: err...
13. T: Who can help her? Want do?
14. S3: to do
15. T: Yes, want to do something. So, the sentence should be?
16. S2: Alice did not want to let the rabbit to get away.
17. T: Let the rabbit to get away? Is that right? Want to do, let? (S2: silence) so, S3, please help her to finish the sentence.
18. S3: Alice did not want to let the rabbit get away.
19. T: Good! OK, want to do sth, let do sth. Can you make sentence by using these two phrases?
(Point to S2)
20. S2: em... I want ... I want to let my mom... em... buy a dress for me.
21. T: Yes, you got it. Thank you! Now let's move on

Supplementary file 4

Extract from the CS-2 class in Week1

1. T: Ok, we know something happened. Alice saw a rabbit. Do you think is there any special about the rabbit? Do you think the rabbit is strange?
2. Ss: Yes.
3. T: So, what's the special about the rabbit? Can you tell me? You can use sentences in the former part. 可以用之前课文里的内容. 这只兔子有什么特别的? Who can tell me?
(*You can refer to the former part of the text. What's special about this rabbit?*)
4. S1: It was in a coat.
5. T: Yes, it was in a coat. The rabbit wore a coat. More?
6. S1: It took a watch and looked at the time..
7. T: Yes, it had a watch, but, 注意一下 took a watch, 拿手表, 从哪里. Where was it from?
(*pay attention to; took a watch; from where*)
8. Ss: (negotiation)
S1: Pocket
9. T: So, 从 pocket 里拿出来的, then you can add the information in the sentence. The rabbit took a watch?
(*from the pocket*)
10. S1: The rabbit took a watch from its pocket.
11. T: Took a watch from its pocket? From? Can you change the word to a phrase, 短语, 拿出来, 拿出来. Took a watch what?
(*a phrase; take out of, out of*)
12. S1: out of
13. T: Then what about 从口袋拿出? Yeah, you can, I believe.
(*take out of the pocket*)
14. S1: Ah, the rabbit took a watch out of its pocket.
15. T: Yes! You got it! Take something out of something, 把什么从什么里面拿出来.
(*Take something out of something*) = translation
他把钱从钱包里拿出来怎么说?
(*How to say 'He takes the money out of the wallet'*)
16. Ss: He takes the money out of the wallet.
17. T: Good! Take out of, 拿出来.
(*take out of*)

Supplementary file 5

Extract from the EN-4 class in Week 2

1. T: Now I have a task for you. After reading the story, you know what happened at the hat shop, and what happened between the wife and the husband. They did not enjoy their shopping, you know, they had a quarrel, they disagreed with each other. Now, this time, I'd like you, boys and girls, to have a debate, a debate. OK? Boys, you stand by the side of the husband, that means you speak for the husband. And girls, you stand by the side of the wife, you speak for the wife. OK?
2. Ss: (negotiation)
3. T: Boys! You think the husband is right, and you speak for the man. Girls, you think the wife is right, and you speak for her. Use your own word, make your own sentences. And, try to use the new word you have learned. Understand? Clear?
4. Ss: Yes!
5. T: OK! Good! Let's start a debate! Who's first? Boys or girls?
6. Ss: Boys! Girls!
7. T: OK, gentlemen, you first! Who can? Who?
8. S1: The wife is not a good wife, because she let her husband wait for a long time.
9. T: Oh, really? You will not spend a lot of time waiting for your girlfriend?
10. Ss: (Laugh)
S1: Maybe, yes when I chase after her.
11. T: Hehe...OK, I know. When you pursue her, right? Next, girls's attack! Try to use the new word in your sentences. OK. Who?
12. Ss: (Silence)
13. T: Ladies! Don't be shy! Come on! Your time to attack! Who's first?
14. S2: I think the man is so rude because he has so many ties but, but...he, Em...dose not...
15. T: Yes, he has so many ties but he does not what?
16. S2: He, he 嫌弃...
(*detest*)
17. T: May be you can change your word. Use a simple word?... He does not...
18. S2: em... He does not let his wife buy that hat.
19. T: Really? The husband does not let his wife buy the hat at last?
20. Ss: No!
21. T: So she bought the hat. Then, what you can say? Is the man patient?
22. S2: em... The man is so rude because he is not patient with his wife.
23. T: Yes! He is not patient with his wife while she is choosing her hat.
So he is rude! Yes you use "rude"! Very good! Next time, when you don't know how to express yourself, try to change to the word you know, OK?
24. S2: OK

25. T: Good! Next, boy's! Your time to fight against!
26. S3: I think the woman wastes so much time. She keeps looking herself in the mirror.
27. T: Oh, you think she is wasting the time. Girls always like to look themselves in the mirror. And it mirrors that girls care more about their appearance. Here the "mirror", the second "mirror", do you know what it means? It equals? I have told you just now.
28. Ss: 反应
(*reflect*)
29. T: Yeah, an English word, reflect. mirror sth. equals to reflect sth., OK, now who's turn? Girls?
30. S4: I think the woman's hat is beautiful. The man should support her.
31. T: Oh, do you like to wear a hat that looks like a lighthouse? A lighthouse on your head?
32. Ss: (Laugh)
S4: I will wear it to a mask party.
33. T: Good idea!

Supplementary file 6

Extract from the CS-2 class in Week 2

1. T: Now, here are some pictures. Would you please make sentences to describe following situations? How about having a competition between boys and girls? You make sentences. Choose any picture you want and you choose any word you want (lighthouse, remind, hole, mirror, rude, remark, regret...). If your sentence is correct and excellent, then you win. 让我们来一场男女大战! 你可以选择任何一副图, 任何一个之前我们学到的单词. Is that OK? Do you understand? A competition!
(Let's have a competition between boys and girls! You can choose any of the picture, and you can choose any word we learned just now.)
2. Ss: Yes!
3. T: OK, so, ladies first, OK boys?
4. Ss: OK
5. T: Now, girls, first sentence! Volunteer? 谁来? Girls 的代表呢?
(Who? Who is the representative of girls?)
6. S1: I choose the lighthouse.
7. T: So your sentence is?
8. S1: The lighthouse can show the right way for the ship.
9. T: Very good! Show the right way for the ship, or we can say right the way for the ship. 为船只指明方向. 这里的 right 就怎么样?
(right the way for the ship. Here, what happens to 'right'?)
10. Ss: 形容词变动词
(Change from adjective to verb.)
11. T: Yes! OK, girl get one mark! Next, boys your turn!
12. S2: I choose the second picture. The girl, the girl 打男孩的脸 for his rude behavior.
我不知道该怎么说那个词.
(hit the boy in the face; I don't know how to express that phrase)
13. T: OK, you mean... hit the boy in the face, 女孩因为男孩的粗鲁而打了他的脸. 是吗?
(The girl hits the boy in the face for his rude behavior. Do you mean that?)
14. S2: Yes. The girl hits the boy in the face for his rude behavior.
15. T: OK, hit the boy in the face, 打男孩的脸.but, is the boy very rude? I don't think so.
You like to have such girlfriend right?
(hit the boy in the face)
16. S2: Oh no no no.
Ss (Laugh, negotiation)

17. T: Boys! 你们丢了一分! Girls turn!
(*You lose one mark!*)
18. S3: The last one. It reminds me of the exciting trip in the last summer.
19. T: Oh, 它让你想起了你上个暑假令人激动的旅行. You must enjoyed your trip very much. Girls you are so smart! Boys! 要加油啦! 你们落后了!
(*It reminds you of the exciting trip in the last summer.*
Cheer up! You fall behind the girls!)
20. S4: The third. A curious cat is looking at itself in the mirror.
21. T: Yes! Good! How vivid! A curious cat is...
S4: And maybe it thinks "what the hell is that?".
22. Ss: (laugh, negotiation)
23. T: Quite good! You get two marks!
24. Ss: Yeah! Yeah!
25. T: It is so vivid! Girls! Come on please!
26. S5: I'll describe the second picture. Because of the boy's silly behavior, the girl hits him in the face rudely.
27. T: Good! You use the new phrase I just told you. Boys! The last turn! 最后一次机会, 把握住!
(The last chance. Seize the chance!)
28. S6: Picture two.
29. T: Oh, again the second picture
30. S6: The boys' experience reminds all the boys to choose girlfriend carefully.
31. T, Ss: (Laugh, negotiation)
33. T: Good Attack!