Learning Strategies and Translanguaging Space: Self-Repetition with Alternation of Languages in an L2 Chinese Classroom

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Abstract

This study attempts to contribute to the translanguaging literature by analysing the phenomenon of the alternating use of languages in self-repetition in the discursive practices in a second language (L2) classroom. Using a database comprising 40 hours of video-recordings of online tutorials in a Chinese course at a university in Hong Kong, this study analyses the meaning and function of self-repetition with translanguaging (SRT) when used by learners. The study finds that SRT is used by L2 learners as a learning strategy that creates space, enabling them to use translanguaging to learn and use a target language. The results of this study argue that SRT is a cognitive mechanism or device by which a learner acquires an L2. The authentic recordings from the classroom add new data for the analysis in some universal sense of translanguaging and language learning. The findings of this study highlight SRTs' multifunctional features, which can be utilized by teachers to improve teaching effectiveness.

Keywords: translanguaging in self-repetition, learning strategies, traslaguaging space, cognitive mechanism, learner discursive practice

INTRODUCTION

This article analyses from a translanguaging perspective, the use of learner self-repetition with the alternation of languages in a second language (L2) classroom. The purpose of this study is to show how, in the context of learning L2 Chinese, translanguaging can be used as a learning strategy; this study also aims to advance our understanding of the discursive learning practices of novice learners in an L2 learning context.

The alternating use of more than one language in the same turn of utterance and in which this alternation between languages is employed as a resource for the construction of meaning is a phenomenon sometimes seen in a classroom learning environment. The learner may express a word or idea in his/her first language (L1) in the same turn of a speech in the target language of learning, or vice versa. Another phenomenon that has been observed in the classroom is the use in the same turn, of self-repetition, where the learner repeats something he or she has just said. These two phenomena sometimes are combined by the learner to produce self-repetition in a dual language, where the learner

does not repeat something in the same language of the prior utterance but repeats it in the other language.

Excerpt below is at the beginning of a tutorial interaction with an English-speaking learner of Chinese.

Excerpt: (T=tutor; L=learner)

		Original transcription	English translation
1	L	*hao ba.*	*Ok*
2		sorry, but the screen is not so clear.	sorry, but the screen is not so clear.
3	T	aha (.)	aha (.)
4	L	I can't ... I don't have the notes.	I can't ... I don't have the notes.
5	→	sorry! *dui bu qi!(對不起)*	sorry! *sorry!*

After the learner agrees with the tutor to start (line 1), he first raised the technical problems that 'the screen is not clear' (line 2), and then he indicates that he does not have the tutorial notes. Apologizing for not having the notes at hand, at the end of his utterance (line 5), the learner says 'sorry' in English; then, he immediately switched to '*dui bu qi*' (對不起)*,* which is the equivalent of 'sorry' in Chinese. This is an instance of self-repetition in different languages. What does this mean, and why did this happen at this moment and in this particular context?

This study focuses on how language learners draw upon different linguistic and cognitive resources as strategies to learn a language, and it identifies the meaning and functions of self-repetition in different languages as a learning tool used in the L2 classroom. To achieve L2 learning, the concept of 'translanguaging' (Baker, 2001; García, 2009) is adopted. In this phenomenon, which has been observed in the classroom, in the same turn, the learner utters in another language a counterpart of what was just said: this practice is called by this article as 'self-repetition with translanguaging' (SRT). This term is used to distinguish the type of repetition shown in Excerpt 1 from that in studied cases involving the use of repetition in either monolingual or inter-language contexts by speakers other than the one with the first utterance or in cases involving the repetition of what had just been said in a prior turn. Though this phenomenon has received little research attention to date, it has been mentioned in some studies on bilingual conversation and referred to in terms such as 'translated equivalents' ('couplets'), 'translated repetition' (Hlavac, 2011, p.3795) and 'pseudo-translations' (Auer, 1984, p.90). The main feature of SRT is that it denotes learner self-repetition, not repetition performed by others, e.g., a tutor and that it occurs immediately in the same turn, not in a subsequent turn. SRT is a naturally occurring phenomenon among language learners and constitutes their discursive practice.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Translanguaging

Traditionally, the alternating use of more than one language in the same utterance and in which this alternation between languages is employed as a resource for the construction of interactional meaning has been studied by using the concept of code-switching (Auer, 1998, p.2). The studies on code-switching usually identify the languages involved, proceed with either a structural or a functional analysis and examine the non-linguistic purposes that code-switching at a particular point might serve (Li, 2018).

In recent years, the new concept 'translanguaging' has emerged as 'a practical theory of language' (Li, 2018) in the fields of bilingualism, psycholinguistics and second language acquisition (SLA). The concept refers to how bilingual people use their linguistic resources to make meaning and communicate (García, 2009) and may involve using different languages in the same turn. It is argued that translanguaging is not just something bilinguals do when they feel they are lacking words or phrases needed to express themselves in a monolingual environment (Lin and He, 2017), and a study of translanguaging is not an analysis of the code-switching in utterance phenomenon as an object or a thing-in-itself (Li, 2018).

The concept of translanguaging originated from the classroom communication and was a term used to describe both the teachers' and pupils' flexible and fluid use of both the Welsh and English languages in Wales (Baker, 2001). The term was later applied and expanded by scholars and educators to the following situations: the study of teacher-student interactions for pedagogical innovation in various linguistic contexts, such as teaching English in America to pupils who have languages other than English in their linguistic repertoire (García, Arias, Murri, & Serna, 2010); the teachers' use of Korean and English in facilitating the students' learning of English in South Korea, (Choi & Leung, 2017); and learning contexts in which multiple languages are used by plurilingual individuals as an integrated linguistic repertoire at various educational levels in different places of the world (e.g., García & Li, 2014; Kaufhold, 2018; Rabbidge, 2019). The results of these studies show that translanguaging may promote a better understanding of class content and allow for better participation between weaker and stronger learners in mixed ability classes (Paulsrud, Rosen, Straszer, & Wedin, 2017). Studies have suggested that translanguaging may provide learners with access to curricula content (García & Kano 2,014) and can be used to understand the meaning of new vocabulary in another language (Creese & Blackledge, 2011). However, the exploration of translanguaging in the existing literature has primarily been from the aspect of pedagogies that teachers' use but rarely from the aspect of learning practices in the learning process of learners and the reasons behind its use. This lack of research motivates the current study to examine translanguaging from the aspect of learners, who use a particular form of translanguaging for self-repetition and to explore how and why translanguaging may help a L2 learner.

In the pedagogical aspect, there is an important notion of a 'translanguaging space', which is defined as a space for the use of translanguaging as an activity, as well as a space created through translanguaging (Li, 2011). Some studies have examined how a

translanguaging space might be created by a teacher for students or how the space could be co-constructed by participants (e.g., García & Li, 2014; Li & Luo, 2017). The notion of a 'translanguaging space' is a fundamental but hitherto under-explored dimension of multilingual practices (Li, 2011). For example, whether this space always needs to be created intentionally or whether it emerges naturally in situations in which it is needed are unanswered questions. However, these questions are the ones that this study intends to answer.

The theory of translanguaging was developed from the concept of 'languaging' proposed by Swain (2006). According to the 'languaging' concept, language functions as the agent, regulator, and mediator of language learning (Swain & Lapkin, 2011). Particularly, languaging 'serves to mediate cognition' (Swain, 2006, p. 97), including attention, recall, and knowledge construction in language learning. This theory describes the talk learners engage in as a means of internalizing a new language and is a useful research approach to help us understand the role of language in mediating L2 cognition and 'the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language' (Swain, 2006, p.98).

Language engagement and disengagement (i.e., stopping speech in one language and switching to another language; see Green & Abutalebi, 2013) denotes a cognitive ability and a strategy. Every utterance requires a choice about which language to use (Blanco-Elorrieta & Pylkkänen, 2017). The process in which during a language switch, language learners select the targeted language instead of the nontargeted one was examined in an experimental context (Declerck, Koch & Philipp, 2015; De Bruin, Roelofs, Dijkstra, & Fitzpatrick, 2014; Liu, Xie, Zhang, Gao, Dunlap, & Chen, 2018). For example, in Liu, Zhang, Pérez, Xie, Li, & Liu*'s* (2019) study, the evidence from an electroencephalogram (EEG) indicates that language control ensures that a bilingual selects words in a correct language in order to produce the intended verbal output. Thus, the learner switching languages must be purposeful, and the process involves the deliberate manipulation of language to improve learning.

In the process of language control, there are costs for switching between languages (e.g., Declerck, Koch & Philipp, 2012). The cost is larger when switching from the less dominant language to the more dominant language (e.g., Peeters, Runnqvist, Bertrand & Grainger, 2014). These 'asymmetrical switch costs' were observed with L2 learners because learners have more experience with L1 than with L2 and L1 has a larger activation than does L2. (Declerck, Thoma, Koch & Philipp, 2015) This experimentally shownresult can bereflected in empirical data: in this study, SRT occurred between L1 and L2.

Strategies for language learning

Strategies for language learning have been defined as specific actions consciously employed by the learner for the purpose of learning language (Griffiths, 2007). The learner uses them "to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford 1990, p. 8).

One of the characteristics of language learners is that they are keenly aware of which language features should be learned (Cohen, 2011). Some studies have observed (e.g.,

Genesee, Geva, Dressler & Kamil, 2006) that learners usually start learning a new language at a more mature age; thus, they can draw on conscious, explicit strategies to enhance their learning.

Strategies used by learners are commonly referred to as the process of storing and retrieving information (Dörnyei, 2005). Cohen (2011) claims that there are two types of strategies used by language learners: one is for language use, and the other is for language learning, although they sometimes may appear similar (e.g., certain rehearsal strategies).

Language use strategies include speaking strategies that compensate for a lack of appropriate lexical and content knowledge of the target language and are used in order to maintain fluency and to improve the negotiation of meaning (Cohen, 2010); once the language material is already accessible, even in some preliminary form, these strategies come into play. The strategies are categorized into four types: retrieval, rehearsal, communication, and cover strategies. While retrieval strategies address calling up language materials and schemata from storage, rehearsal strategies focus more on practising target language structures (Cohen, Oxford & Chi, 2001). Communication strategies include paraphrasing, borrowing, abandoning messages, stalling, appealing for help, or asking for confirmation in communication, while cover strategies are employed so that learners do not appear to be stupid or unprepared in the language classroom (Cohen, 2010; Oxford, 2011).

The language learning strategies' repertoire includes the following types: (a) cognitive strategies for memorizing and manipulating target language structures; (b) metacognitive strategies for managing and supervising the learners' strategies' use; (c) affective strategies for gauging their emotional reactions to learning and lower anxieties, and (d) social strategies for enhancing learning, such as cooperating with other learners and seeking opportunities to interact with native speakers (Cohen, 2003, p. 280).

Language learning is closely connected to human cognition. Therefore, second language acquisition (SLA) and learning strategies can be better understood through the lens of psychology and cognitive science. When a novice learner encounters an L2 problem, he or she often makes use of different cognitive strategies to deal with it. As one type of learning strategy, cognitive strategies include repetition, organizing new language, summarizing meaning, guessing meaning from context, and using imagery for memorization; these are strategies learners use in order to learn more successfully.

The language learners' reflective thinking about their learning is metacognition or a level of consciousness that takes place through executive-cognitive control and self-communication about the learning experiences (Flavell, 1979). In other words, 'metacognition' refers to the learners' awareness of not only what they learn but also how they learn, including but not limited to, planning for, monitoring and evaluating their own learning (Flavell 1979; Flavell, Miller & Miller, 2002). Although the metacognitive knowledge learners bring to the task of learning has been recognized by the cognitive science literature as essential to the effective use of learning strategies, it remains unrecognized in the SLA literature (Wenden, 2001, p.45). Some Chinese learning researchers have devoted much effort to exploring these learning strategies (e.g., Lee-

Thompson, 2008; Rawendy, Ying, Arifin & Rosalin, 2017; Luo & Sun, 2018). Nevertheless, the strategies used by learners can vary and can be adapted to time and to different contexts. However, how learners approach strategies and which adopted strategies are affected by their language use and language learning are unexplored issues. By analysing the use of SRT as a learners' strategy for language learning, this study may provide insight into these issues that have lacked attention in the literature.

Repetition in language learning

Repetition has been used as a general inclusive term for all kinds of 'happening again' actions and has been introduced to denote more specific terms, e.g., repeat, reformulation or playback (Merritt, 1994, p.26). Repetition is a universal phenomenon occurring in all languages, in all societies, and in almost all situations (Merritt, 1994, p.27) Two reasons have been suggested for self-repetition in a monolingual context: (1) to provide time for the planning of new utterances, i.e., to produce 'fillers', and (2) to self-repair, i.e., to correct a produced utterance (Bada, 2010).

The extant studies on repetition have mainly focused on its 'multifunctional character' (Lilja 2014, p. 99). For example, repetition has been examined as a strategy to buy time, a marker of 'metalinguistic activation' to some degree, a device to give particular importance to referents and to prescribe context, and as merely a collection of different examples (Hlavac, 2011, p.3795). While some descriptions of self-repetition (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Tarone & Yule, 1987) and self-repair (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Willems, 1987) view the concepts as separate strategies from each other, Rieger (2003) claims that repetitions are self-repairs.

Repetition has been studied in particular discourse settings. Classroom discursive practices and SLA are two of the foci for studies of repetition (Tomlin, 1994), as repetition can function in association with learning and cognition. In the classroom, repetition of an item serves as a special resource in a particular context to imbue the item with meaning or symbolic value (Merritt, 1994, p.33). As repetition is seen as a response to a situational demand, it thereby assumes a situational function (Merritt, 1994, p.27).

Some studies indicated that non-native speakers did not use repetition as a reformulation strategy and were less successful in using the repetition of words, phrases, or sentences to maintain cohesion during discourse (Wong, 2000). The reasons for this are probably related to their ability to use a non-native language. However, this study may provide relevant evidence of whether the use of translanguaging could solve this problem.

Repetition has been described as the patterning of a previous utterance (Johnstone, 1994, p.3), the echoing of prior utterances, and the recurrence of words and collocations of words (Tannen, 2007, p.9; Sidtis & Wolf 2015) After a discussion of the implications of the analysis of repetition for linguistic theory, Tannen (2007) suggests that 'repetition is at the heart not only of how a particular discourse is created, but how discourse itself is created' (p.2-3).

As one type of repetition, 'repaired repetition' was proposed by Kaur (2012, p.606). Unlike reformulation repetition, 'repaired repetition' involves a process of recycling a repaired segment of interaction, as the speaker wishes to provide the addressee with a

clear utterance and the addressee has the opportunity to 're-hear' the repaired segment. Kaur (2012) concludes that these repetitions by the speakers themselves seem to enhance the clarity of expression for the purpose of improving understanding. Studies (e.g., Gafaranga, 2000) argue that evidence for this type of repetition can be found in repetition and hesitation markers and assert that to solve the problem of understanding, the bilingual speaker can adopt language alternation by two main methods—medium repair and other-language repair, which are techniques used differently by speakers.

Currently, we know much more about the bilinguals' use of repetition than about their use of translanguaging. It is important to understand how repetition with translanguaging is strategically employed and functioned. In addition, as the same or similar principles are valid for a large number of language educational settings, studying the meaning and function of SRT in the case of learning L2 Chinese can advance our understanding of the learners' discursive practices in the classroom. The current study therefore examines this phenomenon and tries to (a) identify the functional types of SRT used by beginning-level L2 Chinese learners as learning strategies at a point in time and (b) determine the role of translanguaging in language use and learning.

PRESENT STUDY

The university in which this study took place provides the Basic Chinese for Non-Chinese Speakers (NCS) programme via an online learning environment (OLE). In addition to providing all the multimedia material online, the programme offers online tutorials (e-tutorials) to support the learners' synchronous interactional learning.

This study uses existing data, which comprise videos recorded automatically in the OLE in the real setting of e-tutorials. The database consists of the video recordings of 36 tutorial sessions, representing a total time of approximately 40 hours and involving three tutors (one female and two male) and 13 learners (six female and seven male). Two to five learners participated per session.

All the learners who enrolled in this programme were clearly aware that the e-tutorials they attended would be video recorded, as there was a course guide and an introduction, which included statements indicating that all the recorded e-tutorials would be archived in the OLE system. Learners who were absent from any session of the e-tutorials or who wanted to review the e-tutorials could revisit the videoed e-tutorials anytime during the course presentation by logging into the system.

To obtain authorization to access the recording archives in the OLE system, the study obtained permission through email from the learners who had been learning Chinese in the programme and who had agreed to participate in the research project. The learners who did not give their permission to use their recordings for the study were excluded from the study. The video recordings used as data for this research were only selected, transcribed and analysed for those learners who agreed to participate in the study.

In the e-tutorials, English was used as the medium of instruction. A learner could see the tutor and other learners in the group on the screen if the other learners' cameras were on, and participants could converse synchronically with others through the system.

The Chinese NCS programme was open to participants from anywhere in the world, but most of those who enrolled lived in Hong Kong. The three tutors who held e-tutorial sessions individually were native Chinese speakers with a first degree in English. The participants were all adults aged from 21 to 50. The first language of most of them was English. While some learners had other mother tongues, all had a high proficiency in English. Before enrolling in the programme, all the learners had no or very little experience in learning Chinese.

All video recordings were transcribed according to transcription conventions (Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008; Jefferson, 2004) and with reference to the pilot transcription for this study.

ANALYSIS

The phenomenon of SRT under observation in this study includes the repetition of words, phrases and clauses in the same turn of the learners' utterances, whereas instances in which the repeated items are uttered in the next turn or are uttered by other speakers are excluded in the analysis.

The following examples demonstrate how SRT can be locally interpreted, and the various strategies are related to the dimensions of the learners' language learning and use.

Example 1:.

1	T		@@ and how to say	@@ and how to say
2			a clothes, a clothes	a clothes, a clothes
3	L		er... a clothes	er... a clothes
4		→	er... *yi ge yi fu*? [一個衣服]	er... *a piece of clothes?*
5			*yi jian yi fu* [一件衣服]	*a clothes*

As indicated by the use of a marker 'er', the learner hesitated and paused for a few seconds. This was followed by a repetition of the questioned word in English at the previous turn (line 3). Afterward, he answered the question correctly in the same turn by his second repetition of the answer in Chinese (line 5). The SRT (between lines 3 and 5) was used to improve his understanding of tutor's question while he bought time for recalling an equivalent in Chinese.

Following the utterance of 'er', which indicates that the learner was hesitating to give an answer to the question just raised by tutor (line 2), the learner repeats 'a clothes' (line 3), the term for which its counterpart in Chinese is requested. After another 'er' and a few seconds' pause, the learner tries to speak 'a clothes' in Chinese (line 4) and then utters a corrected version in Chinese again (line 5). The learner's first utterance 'a clothes', which was spoken in English, provided additional time for him to recall relevant counterparts in Chinese from his existing linguistic repertoire and then to complete the task given by the tutor for learning of the Chinese vocabulary. Uttering in English in order to buy time for recalling the Chinese word is a cognitive strategy. The learner's changing of the Chinese word (lines 4-5) from 'ge' to 'jian' showed that he was self-monitoring and

reflecting on his first utterance. The learner realized that *'yi ge yi fu'*[一個衣服] was not correct, as he should have used *'jian'* instead of *'ge'* as the quantifier. Thus, the learner immediately changed *'ge'* to *'jian'* by repeating *'yi jian yi fu'* [一件衣服]. In this case, the learner performed two tasks during the use of SRT at two levels—one task performed at the macro level in order to recall the phrase from English to Chinese and the other task performed at the micro level in order to monitor the output and make a correction in the process of learning the Chinese phrase.

In Example 1, the SRT was used by the learner as a cognitive strategy for recalling the lexical item in the target language and as a metacognitive strategy for monitoring and reflecting on his utterance by thinking of the counterpart between the languages.

Example 2:

1	L		ok, *zhe jian yifu zenme yang*?	ok, *what about these clothes?*
2	T		*mai duoshao qian*?	*how much is it?*
3	L		what is this?	what is this?
4			oh, how much?	oh, how much?
5		→	expensive(.) *tai gui le*[太貴了]	expensive(.) *expensive*
6	T		*tai gui le*	*expensive*

The tutor asked the learner a question about the price of the clothes (line 2). The learner was supposed to produce an answer in Chinese, but she asked in English for clarification of the tutor's question (line 3), which showed that the learner had a problem understanding the question in Chinese. However, in the same turn, she immediately repeated the question in English (line 4), following which the learner's candidate answer was produced in English first (line 5). This answer indicates that the learner had developed an understanding of the question raised by the tutor. The answer also shows that the learner repeated the question and the answer clearly in English first; then, she could try to find the correct Chinese phrase—after a short pause following her answer in English, the learner repeated the answer in Chinese (line 5).

In this situation, the learner's question 'what is this?' (line3) indicates that she had not yet understood the question that the tutor asked in Chinese (line 2). The mark 'oh' (line 4) followed the English phrase (line 4) shows that the learner understood the Chinese question, but she immediately reflected the meaning in English. After a very short pause (line 5), the learner found that her utterance in English was problematic, as she had to respond in Chinese but had responded in English. Actually, her immediate response 'expensive', which was spoken in English, functioned as a cover strategy that helped her to avoid 'looking stupid' in her language performance in the classroom. The learner repeated the same response in the alternative language as a self-repair to correct her previous utterance. The purpose of SRT in this case was self-repair through using the right language—Chinese. From the learner's perspective, by using the English word ('expensive') before repeating the word in Chinese ('*tai gui le'*), the learner had made a confirmation of the meaning of her response; this helped her to recall and translate it to

the equivalent Chinese word and facilitated the learner's acquisition of the word meaning in Chinese. The similar function can also be found in the following example.

Example 3:

1	T		*xiaojie ni de yifu duoshao qian*?	*miss, how much is your clothes?*
2	L	→	*wo de yifu bu* cheap, *bu pianyi.*	*my clothes is not* cheap, *not cheap.*
			[*不便宜*]	
3	T		we don't say cheap, we just say *pianyi.*	we don't say cheap, we just say *cheap.*

In answering the question asked in Chinese (line 1), the learner attempted to use Chinese, but her response included one word expressed in English; i.e., she inserted the English word 'cheap' into the Chinese sentence (line 2), and then she immediately replaced it with the equivalent word '*pianyi'* in Chinese (line 2).

The SRT used in this case (line 2) comprised a reformulation in which the learner changed the phrase from mixed words in two languages to a phrase in Chinese.

This is a strategy in which the learner used English to express the meaning for which she could not find the exact word in Chinese at that specific moment. Uttering the word in English gave the learner an opportunity to recall the word in Chinese; then, she successfully produced the Chinese equivalent in the same turn. While the learner reflected on her utterance and found it problematic, SRT enabled her to realize the target item. Meanwhile, the learner interacted further with the tutor and received through translanguaging a comment from the tutor .

The two examples above show that for language learning, when the learner uses it as a speaking strategy, SRT can simultaneously function as more than one function.

Example 4:

1	L		*mài.*	*sell.*
2			*yiding, yiding di yi ge.*	*must, must be the first one.*
3	T		*dui la.*	*right.*
4	L		*hen yōngyì* [*很容易*].	*it's so easy.*
5		→	it's so easy. @@	it's so easy.@@
6	T		ok	Ok
7			*zhu xiaojie*, how to say businessman.	*miss zhu*, how to say businessman.

In this example, the learner was participating in multiple-choice exercises in the tutorial. After the right answer was confirmed by the tutor ('*dui la*' in line 3), the learner said '*hen yōngyi*' in Chinese (line 4) to express his pleasure in coming up with the correct answer. Then, he repeated the response in English and expressed happy laughter 'haha' (in line 5). This SRT functioned as an affective strategy for an emotional reaction, as well as a

communication strategy to provide feedback to the tutor for the language items in learning.

There were errors in the learner's pronunciation in Chinese (in line 4, he used an incorrect initial and tone, as he prononced '*yōngyǐ*' but should pronounced '*róngyì*'), and the learner repeated the phrase in English 'it's so easy' (line 5). The learner was aware that he must have incorrectly pronounced the Chinese phrase, and to express his utterance in an understandable way, he used SRT. From the learner's perspective, using English to repeat the phrase established a semantical referential for the listener (tutor) in helping the listener understand what he intended to say, and an interpretation of the utterance *ex post* could also enable the learner to obtain the tutor's reaction.

This finding shows that the learner was reflecting on his utterance in the target language and was aware of the problem he had. As he could not repair his utterance in a correct way at the moment, he used SRT as a strategy to make the meaning clear for classroom interaction.

The phrase '*róngyì*' ('easy') was not an item in the current learning agenda—it was probably learned previously; therefore, the learner might have been unsure about whether his usage or pronunciation was correct and acceptable in terms of linguistic norms and standards. The learner therefore repeated it in English. The learner might have suspected that his utterance in Chinese might have been problematic in its usage or pronunciation and attempted to cope with this by making its English origin explicit and visible to the tutor. The SRT then becomes part of the interaction, and its negotiated status becomes part and a symbol of the ongoing and developing relationship between himself and the tutor.

In sum, there are multiple functions of learning strategies embodied in this use of SRT. First, SRT was part of an affective strategy used by the learner to show his emotional reaction to the correct answer he made as a learning response. Second, as the learner knew that he might not have pronounced the Chinese word correctly and to express his meaning, he changed the language from Chinese to English, thereby providing a semantic reference to the tutor for his utterance: this denotes a communication strategy. Third, the SRT shows to some extent that in the use of an L2, the learner had less competence in self-correction than in self-monitoring. Therefore, to provide a semantic equivalence in order to produce a proper interaction, he used SRT for self-repair. Thus, SRT was not just used for redundancy in message transfer; it represented the learner's metacognitive strategy for reflecting his language use for the Chinese language target items in his repertoire. Then, this SRT functioned to repair the prior utterance made by the learner. As a result, the SRT produced an interactive outcome—the utterance was well accepted by the tutor (line 6), and the class then continued their learning by turning to the next item 'business man' (line 7).

Example 5:

1	T	yup, *fujin shengme difang.*	yup, *so nearby this place where.*
2	L	*fujin shengme difang yòu yinhang?*	*where is a bank nearby this place?*
3		*fujin shengme difang you yinhang?*	*where is a bank nearby this place?*
4		... so if you....	... so if you....
5		you say *fujin shenme difang...* [附近甚	you say *nearby this place where...*
6	→	麼地方......]	
		so.... nearby this place where	so.... nearby this place where.
7		*fujin shenme difang* is..	*nearby this place where* is..
8	T	ok, ok. not at all.	ok, ok. not at all.

In Example 5, after repeating twice (lines 2 and 3) the question asked in Chinese by the tutor (line 1), the learner added '*you yinhang*' ('there is a bank') to form a complete sentence (this was one of target sentences for learning in the tutorial). The learner switched from Chinese to English and repeated the same incomplete sentence (line 6, without '*you yinhang*'); the learner then switched back to Chinese. The steps in the learner's utterance in his own turns (lines 2-7) are the following: (1) repeating in Chinese (with the additional words '*you yinhang*' but '*yòu*' was pronounced with the wrong tone); (2) repeating in Chinese (with additional words '*you yinhang*' while '*you*' was pronounced correctly); (3) repeating in Chinese (without additional words); (4) repeating in English (without additional words); and (5) repeating in Chinese (with an additional English word '*is*').

To speak back and forth between two languages, the learner was trying to adjust the Chinese clause such that it would be understandable with the logical convention in English, as it sounded as if the Chinese clause was not grammatically matched with the English structure. The learner added words to form a sentence to help himself understand the Chinese clause; he then repeated the Chinese clause in its original format again and further repeated it in English. The SRT used by the learner functioned as metalinguistic strategy to help the learner: in step (5), the copula 'is' following the Chinese clause indicates that he was going to make a definition or interpret the meaning of the Chinese clause. The process involving the learner's utterance with different types of repetitions re-establishes his understanding of the structure of the target language and shows a self-monitoring and self-directing path for his learning—making an adjustment to a grammatical issue in a clause, then adapting its format and accepting its meaning.

The similar metacognitive strategies used for learning can be found from the following example.

Example 6:

1	L		*zuo bian shi nan, xiexie ni.*	*the left side is south*, *thank you*.
2	T		yup, *nan.*	yup, *south*.
3	L	→	so the left side is south.	so, the left side is south.

4		*zuo bian shi nan*[左邊是南]	*the left side is south.*
5		*shi nan*[是南] *xiexie ni.*	*is south, thank you.*
6	T	*xiexie ni.*	*thank you.*
		a little bit confused, right? @@	a little bit confused, right? @@

In Example 6, the leaner's first utterance was in Chinese (line 1). After the tutor inserted a short feedback ('yup, *nan*' in line 2) into the learner's turn, the learner repeated the prior sentence in English (line 3). This showed that he attempted to use his L1 to clarify his understanding of the Chinese sentence. His intention is evident from his following utterance in Chinese (line 4), his repeated utterance '*shi nan*' ('is south', line 5), and the tutor's reaction 'a little bit confused, right?' (line 6).

In this example, the learner was reading aloud sentences from the text for learning directional words in Chinese (line 1). He seemed a little confused by the relation between 'left side' and 'south'. He switched from Chinese to English to repeat the sentence (line 3); this was a self-adjustment that created a meaning that enabled him to solve the problem he countered. Then, he switched back to Chinese to repeat the sentence again (line 4) and to indicate that he entirely understood the meaning in Chinese (line 5).

The SRTs used in this example were metalinguistic and metacognitive strategies to facilitate the learner's own learning of the word in the target language. The following example is another example of the use of SRT in a metalinguistic strategy in learning

Example 7:

1	T		(er that is)…yeah good eat.	(er that is)…yeah good eat.
2			and *shihou*.	and *time*.
3	L	→	*shihou*(.) [时候] the time.	*time* (.) the time.
4			so what time do I (usually) eat dinner?	so what time do I (usually) eat dinner?

In Example 7, the tutor was asking the learner to make one by one Chinese words to form sentences. In line 3, the utterance 'the time' following the utterance of the Chinese word was a repetition in English of the last word that the tutor asked in Chinese for the learner to provide. Note that before the repetition switched to English, there was a few seconds' pause. The pause shows that the learner was engaged in thinking about the word *shihou*, and the learner then used SRT to confirm the meaning in English for the Chinese word *shihou*. The function of SRT at this point was to reflect the meaning of the Chinese word in order to help the learner form a complete sentence in the target language, which was the task requested by the tutor.

From the learner's perspective, the SRT presented in Example 7 was used first to display the learner's lexical knowledge of the Chinese word '*shihou*' and second to express the English form of an interrogative sentence in order to initiate repair for her response to the tutor (line 4) and to indicate her understanding of the question asked by the tutor in a prior turn. In this case, the learner knew the Chinese word and was using English to

reformulate the question. Apparently, the repetition in English ('the time') functioned as a metalingual activation to provide the meaning of the Chinese word. In other words, consistent with the learning agenda, to use a word to form a question in the target language, the learner used translanguaging as a strategy to provide a semantic explanation of the Chinese word.

Example 8:

1	T		or you can say er sh-...	or you can say er sh-...
2			sorry is it eleven o'clock or	sorry is it eleven o'clock or
3			ten o'clock?	ten o'clock?
4	L	→	*shīyí* [十一]. eleven.	*eleven*. eleven.
5	T		ok so a complete sentence would be *wo shiyi dian ban zuoyou shuijiao.*	ok so a complete sentence would be *I go to bed approximately 11:30*.

As two choices were given for a question shown on a picture, to test the learner's ability in the use of Chinese words for numbers, after a hesitation (as marked by 'er' and the initial 'sh' that was used as the syllable for the number 'ten' in Chinese and uttered in line 1), the tutor used English to form his question (line 1-3). The learner chose to utter the Chinese word '*shīyí*', the English counterpart of which is eleven (line 4), and taking a short pause, the learner repeated the number in English, saying 'eleven'.

Because the learner could choose only one of two options (between the numbers of eleven and ten in Chinese), in his pronunciation, to avoid any problem that might cause a misunderstanding, the learner used SRT to provide the answer twice, i.e., in two languages. In this instance, the SRT served two functions: one was to emphasize his answer, and the other was to self-confirm that his choice was correct, as his pronunciation for the Chinese word was problematic ('*shīyí*' was pronounced with a level and rising tone but should have been pronounced with a rising and level tone). The SRT was used by the learner to focus attention on the fact that the learner was confirming his chosen word, as the short pause (.) showed that the learner rechecked his understanding and usage of Chinese and then used English to confirm the meaning for the Chinese word.

In this case, SRT functioned as a tool for providing emphasis, attention and confirmation—the English version, 'eleven', provided additional weight to the right answer the learner uttered in Chinese. The SRT was used to give extra information to '*shīyí*' and to show that it was a conscious action employed in the learning process.

Example 9:

1	L	*zuqiu kan*	*soccer game to watch.*
2	T	*you zuqiu kan.*	*there are soccer games to watch.*
3	L	*you zuqiu kan.*	*there are soccer games to watch.*
4	T	*dui.*	*right.*

5	L	→	*you youyong dianshi* [有游泳電視	*there is a swimming TV programme*
6			]*swimming competition.*	swimming competition.
7	T		*youyong bisai*	*swimming competition.*

In Example 9, the learner repeated the clause *'you youyong dianshi'* (line 5), and by switching from Chinese to English when uttering the words for 'swimming competition' (line 6), she indicated her uncertainty about what she actually wanted to say. Following her use of SRT, the tutor in the next turn provided the Chinese phrase *'bisai'* for 'competition' (line 7). The learner's SRT functioned first to show that she was aware of having a problem in the use of the Chinese phrase; this reflected the learner's use of a metacognitive strategy in the learning process; second, the learner used a semantic translation to invite others to help her to make repairs; this denoted a kind a strategy of engagement in ongoing classroom interaction, which is a social strategy in addition to a metacognitive strategy embodied in the SRT.

Example 10:

| 1 | T | | *jingchang, jingchang.* | *usually*, *usually*. |
| 2 | L | → | *Jingchang* [經常], usually, *jingchang*[經常] | *usually*, usually, *usually*. |

The learner followed the tutor in reading the Chinese word '*jingchang*', repeated it in English ('usually'), and then repeated it again in Chinese. The English word 'usually' was used to help the learner in memorizing the meaning of '*jingchang*', and the last repeat of '*jingchang*' was used in an effort to enhance memorizing the pronunciation of the Chinese word.

This example of SRT appears to be an example of the learner speaking with him- or herself—a soliloquy or 'private speech' (Duncan & Cheyne 2001; Winsler, Fernyhough & Montero, 2009; Aro, Poikkeus, Laakso, Tolvanen & Ahonen, 2015). This speech commonly occurs in the process of language learning and can be categorized as a strategy of cognition for attracting attention.

DISCUSSION

For the analysis of this study, ten examples have been drawn from the extracted data. In the learners' use of SRT in the Chinese classroom, various types of learning strategies have been found: cognitive strategies for recalling, memorizing, manipulating and attention; metacognitive strategies for planning, monitoring and reflecting; affective strategies for emotional reaction; and social strategies for cooperating with others for classroom interaction. These strategies were used for language learning, while the target language was used for speaking. SRT was also used as private speech for target language internalization, which is a type of cognitive strategy as well. Among the different strategies, the use of any individual one depends on the learning context, the specific goals of learning and the use of SRT at that moment.

From a sequence perspective, the SRT could be expressed in the learners' native language (English) and then the target language (Chinese), or vice versa. For example, in Example 1, 2, 3 and 6, the direction of SRT use is from English to Chinese, and in Examples 4, 7, 8 and 9, from Chinese to English. Showing that translanguaging can occur in either direction, in Example 5 and 10, it is used back and forth between Chinese and English.

As a manifestation of the learners' mental strategies, the direction of translanguaging reflects something about the way in which the learner perceives the situation and selects the target items in their language repertoire for use. Depending on the needs of the situation, to achieve specific purposes at a point of time in the learning or using of a target language, the learners would select the proper language from their repertoire.

In the data for this study, there were 282 learner SRT cases, from which 34 (12.06%) were repetitions in an internal turn. Twenty-three cases were from English to Chinese (67.6%), while eleven cases were from Chinese to English (32.4%). This result is in line with the studies of findings of asymmetrical switch costs (Green 1998; Peeters, Runnqvist, Bertrand, & Grainger, 2014) during language selection, as the cost is larger when switching from the less dominant language, Chinese, to the more dominant language, English, in this study.

Among the 34 instances of SRT, there were 31 (91.1%) cases of repetition for single words and a phrase, and three (8.8%) cases of clausal repetition in switched languages. This finding is consistent with the results of Auer's (1984, p.2) study, where he found that most language switches were at the word/phrase level and consistent with Cook's (2008, p.176) investigation that comprised 84% isolated word switches, 10% phrase switches, and 6% whole clause switches. Therefore, the nature of the dataset for this study is in line with observations in the previous studies of repetition in other languages.

As the participants in this study are all at the elementary level of learning the Chinese language, they did not have equal proficiency in the two languages—English and Chinese—and as the context was the Chinese classroom, the desire to learn the Chinese language was the main characteristic of the learners. The language learners used various strategies that are associated with learning vocabulary and grammar, as well as pronunciation. However, the learning of pronunciation may be considered 'as an isolated activity, most often with the purpose of memorizing' (Tragant, Thompson & Mia, 2013), and is an effort learners make to improve their competence in Chinese.

Previous studies showed that non-native speakers did not use repetition as a reformulation strategy and were less successful in using the repetition of words, phrases, or sentences to maintain cohesion during discourse (Wong, 2000). The reasons for this finding are probably related to the speakers' ability in the use of a non-native language. However, as the examples showed in this study, learners could use translanguaging to overcome their shortages; e.g., in Example 3, the difficulty in the use of repetition for reformulation could no longer exist.

As shown in the analysis of the examples, individual cases of SRT may reflect either a single or multiple functions of SRT. Some SRTs occurring from English to Chinese provided time for learners to plan or search for another utterance, but SRT in a classroom

is not always used as a simple 'filler' or as in a monolingual context, for the 'correction' of an error in an utterance just produced. SRT provides more functions and can be used for the following purposes: to reformulate (Example 7); to make a meaning clearer (Example 5 and others); to emphasis or focus more attention (Example 8); to provide a semantical reference (Example 4 and others); to invite others help for repair (Example 9) and to reflect on and monitor a prior utterance (Example 1 and others).

In general, language learners, particularly beginning-level language learners such as the Chinese language learners in this study, due to their being 'not-yet-competent' (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977, p.381) in the target language, try to constrain the occurrences of the use of self-repair. However, as this study shows, the learners can adopt SRT as a device or strategy for self-repair. Because of translanguaging, learners can remove barriers, increase their competence in L2 (Chinese) and employ their superior competence and knowledge in L1 (English) to accomplish self-repair and learning tasks, particularly when SRT is used for metalinguistic activation. Apparently, for leaners, SRT plays an important role—e.g., memorizing words, clarifying or providing the accurate meaning of an expression, and maximizing the efficiency of learning. Interestingly, SRT can function for semantic referential and interpretation purposes and, as shown in Excerpts 5 and 8, can re-establish the learners own understanding; these are repetition-related phenomena that are different from those occurring in a monolingual context. In a monolinguistic situation, these functions usually work with the assistance of the speaker other than the one whose utterance is a trouble source. However, in an L2 learner's SRT, the learner can use an alternative language as a resource to help him- or herself to accomplish repair.

The SRT analysed in this study is rooted in the speaker as a novice learner of an L2 language. In the L2 classroom, in the use of concepts of languaging and translanguaging in analysing the process of language learning, SRT serves as a resource for accomplishing utterances at specific points of classroom discursive practices, while it also fosters L2 learning.

The analysis shows that SRT is a spontaneous and natural occurrence that creates the translanguaging space in a repeated utterance for learners to learn and use the target language. In the alternation of languages, the translanguaging space in self-repetition is not an opportunity provided or encouraged by tutor or others in the learning context but is a space that the learner owns and freely uses. SRT is autonomous and conscious learner utterance. It is an inevitable experience and process experienced by learners attempting to acquire a L2 proficiency and represents a cognitive mechanism or strategy by which one can learn other languages.

CONCLUSION

The research questions regarding why and how self-repetition with translanguaging can be used by L2 learners are answered by the following conclusions.

SRT is used by the L2 learner as strategies for the learning and use of a targeted language. In the use of translanguaging, repetition functions differently from the way it functions in a monolingual context. Depending on the individual, the context and the specific learning

and teaching goals and tasks, the strategic use of SRT in different situations may have different impacts on learning the target language.

The concept of translanguaging can be used to explain the meaning and functions of SRT. This concept has been applied in the extrinsic formats of code-switching and in the intrinsic cognitive operations of learners who have specific purposes in using SRT at a particular moment. Evidence from this study shows that for learners, SRT is not only a way to provide meaning for classroom communication, but more importantly, it is used as a learning strategy.

In a language learners' discursive practices, SRT is neither a simple surplus tool, an interference factor, nor a redundancy. SRT provides learners functionality in two dimensions— language learning and language use. Although most learners may not be aware that they are using SRT as strategies for language learning and use, it is a natural practice for L2 learners.

SRT is a spontaneous and natural occurrence that creates translanguaging space for learners to learn and use the target language. The learner owns the translanguaging space and freely uses it in self-repetition with the alternation of languages. SRT is an autonomous and conscious discursive practice used by learners. It is an inevitable experience and process that enables learners to acquire an L2 and is also a cognitive mechanism or device by which ones can learn other languages.

In this study, the authentic classroom recordings add new data for a somewhat universal analysis of translanguaging and language learning. The findings call attention to SRT's multifunctional features, which can be utilized by teachers for improving teaching effectiveness. Further exploration of the polyvalent features of learner translanguaging is needed.

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APPENDIX: TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTION

pinyín	tone marks indicating the Chinese syllable 'yín' uttered with the incorrect tone, whereas 'pin' is correct
bold	instance of SRT under scrutiny
Chinese	English translation from Chinese by the author
...	pauses or intervals
@@	laugher
(...)	irrelevant words omitted by researcher
→	turn with SRT under analysis
[中文]	Original utterance in Chinese character