

Part One: On Code-switching

Part one briefly presents definition of code-switching, its ten major use, and rules governing code-switching. By providing examples relevant to its use, by interpreting its use within interpersonal meta-function, and by presenting a model governing code-switching, this paper restates that code-switching encodes different purposes participants possibly hold, and code-switches are not patchworks of language, but are rule-governed.

Every participant in daily communication is familiar with a common linguistic phenomenon - code-switching, which refers to the act that an interlocutor changes his language or language variety to another language or language variety during an oral or written discourse (Ai-Qaysi, 2018). Code-switching is different from language-mixing, which is seen as indiscriminate use of two languages while code-switching is the linguistic behaviors of interlocutors who can separate languages (Baker, 2014, p.61). When code-switching is discriminated from language-mixing, its purpose and effects become transparent. I agree with Colin Baker that code-switching is a daily linguistic practice between bilinguals, both purposeful and valuable, and is seen as a third language access to bilinguals (Baker, 2014, p.61-63).

Due to a wide variety of language and their varieties, code-switching between languages and varieties serves multiple purposes. Colin Baker generalized ten major purposes of code-switching: for emphasis, for substitution, for adequate expression, for clarification, for establishing shared identities and power relations, for direct citation, for interrupting, for humor and tension removing, for engagement and disengagement, and for alignment and estrangement (Baker, 2014, p.62). It is true that we English language teachers consciously or unconsciously code-switch between English and Chinese or other language in and out of classrooms.

When reinforcing part of a speech, an interlocutor tends to switch to his minority language, such as strengthening an order or a command. My colleague once switched from English to Japanese to discipline her students. When discussing academic topics, my colleagues use English, which is a prestigious language and helps formulate our ideas while talking about family, health, and money, we switch to native language. When talking about culture-loaded native words with no equivalents in English, it is convenient for us to switch to native language, avoiding wordy explanation or translation in English. When we explain linguistic terms such as “word” and

“morpheme” to students, it is very conducive to translate them into Chinese for comprehensive clarification. When quoting somebody, switching to the language somebody speaks is likely to position listeners personally on the scene.

I am not sure whether interrupting a conversation by code-switching works or not, but I am sure that switching to a local dialect sometimes makes participants break into laughter, thus dissipating the tense atmosphere shrouding them.

I strongly agree that code-switching relates to different identities, close or distant interpersonal relationships, and different degree of social relations (Kress & Leeuwen, 2006, p.124-125), to be categorized into interpersonal meta-function, one of the three meta-functions of human language, meaning that human beings use language to enact all kinds of interpersonal and social relationships (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p.30). In business conversations, interlocutors may start a prestigious majority language dialogue, showing formal and social relationships. As the conversation continues, they may switch from a majority language to their shared minority or local language, illustrating in-group identity, personal relationships such as friendship and solidarity, while people who can not speak the minority or local language are not included in further conversation. If an interlocutor shifts from a majority language to his listener’s minority language, he positions himself into a humble position, trading for membership, close social distance and close feelings, while if he shifts back, he positions himself into a powerful position, thus emphasizing a different identity, widening social distance and setting up distant feelings.

With all that in mind, it is safe to say that code-switching is both helpful and meaningful, and meanings reflected by the use of code-switching are worth deep investigation.

What is more, code-switching is not a freewheeling swing from one language to another but is rule-based language use, which is done either consciously or unconsciously, and either intrasententially or intersententially (Mahootian, 2020, p.66-70). Some audacious researchers have managed to induce grammatical rules governing code-switching from specific code-switching pairs such as Timm (1975) and Gumperz (1976), Sankoff and Poplack (1981) (quoted in Mahootian, 2020, p.106-107). Although rules proposed by them, such as “between a subject pronoun and a verb with tense, switching could not occur”, “bilinguals possess three grammatical systems”, “free morpheme constraint”, and “the equivalence constraint” (Mahootian, 2020, p.106-111) are proved false by subsequent researches, but the pioneering researches have attracted

more researchers into code-switching research and Shahrzad Mahootian is one of them. Mahootian (Mahootian, 2020, p.110) discarded code-switching-specific rules and third grammars and proposed that code-switching is a natural language process and that the same grammatical rules governing bilingual's individual monolingual grammars apply to the production of code-switches. Based on a fundamental grammatical relationship within phrases and sentences that exists in all language, Mahootian (Mahootian, 2020, p.110-111) created the Head-Complement Principle (HCP) model, pointing out that complements are likely to be switched or replaced by elements from other languages but heads not. The HCP model is proved applicable to any language pairs and proved to be fruitful to understand how bilinguals produce grammatical code-switches (Mahootian, 2020, p.111). On the other hand, the strong interpretative capability of the HCP model also gives evidence that code-switching is not a hotchpotch of different languages, but a rule-governed language use.

In conclusion, code-switching is of great value in terms of its linguistic features, and its communicative, interpersonal and social purposes. Code-switching between bilinguals should not be seen as a principle to judge bilinguals' language competences since bilinguals code-switch for different purposes. More deep cross-disciplinary researches on code-switching are expected for a panorama of both code-switching and its value.

Part Two: A Report to Bilingual Parents

The determination to raise a bilingual child is a natural choice for parents with different native languages and parents with native-like competence of second or foreign languages. Parents wish to hand down their bilingual advantages to their child, and they believe that being bilingual will enrich their child's life and make their child single out in his future career. Actually, being bilingual has advantages in terms of communicative ability, thinking ability, character cultivation, academic attainments, economic benefits, and cultural engagement (Baker, 2014, p. 62). However promising the future is, the road to raise a bilingual child is as challenging as one could ever imagined. This report will help parents glimpse key issues in raising a bilingual child, and then provide them sound advice to tackle possible problems encountered.

Advice one: Family language policy is an essential factor in raising a bilingual child.

Before the birth of a child, parents are advised to make arrangements for their child's

language development. Since home is where a child spends most of his first three years, family language policy becomes parents' priority. One Person-One Language (OPOL) is the most suitable for parents with different native languages, and the purpose of this model is to cultivate a bilingual child by addressing him in a different language by each parent (Cunningham, 2020, p.79). In the OPOL model, each parent speaks his or her individual language to their child, and their child is expected to respond to the father or the mother with the same language spoken to him (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p. 30). Another effective model, One Language-One Location (LOOL), recommends parents both to speak to their child in a minority language at home, leaving a majority language learned by the child in community, in kindergarten, or at school and this model is also called minority language at home (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p. 37).

When the family language policy is decided, parents need to decide which language is their child's first language and which language is his second language by fully considering every language spoken by them, by their relatives, by the community where they live and by schools nearby. The language spoken by parents and the language spoken in the community have a strong influence on a child's first language (Barron-Hauwaert, 2004, p.216). Research has shown that 77% of children will take their fathers' majority languages as their first languages, but 23% of children will take their mothers' languages as their second languages under conditions that fathers spoke majority languages to children, mothers spoke minority languages to children and the families live in fathers' countries (Barron-Hauwaert, 2004, p.216). On the other side, 94% of children will have their mothers' majority languages as their first languages, but 6% of children will have their fathers' languages as their second languages under conditions that mothers spoke majority languages to children, fathers spoke minority languages to children and the families live in mothers' countries (Barron-Hauwaert, 2004, p.217).

Advice two: Sufficient exposure and comprehensible input are critical to child's output.

It is universally acknowledged that language input has great impact on language output (Ellis, 1994, p. 286-287). Bilingual parents worry that when they speak different languages to their child, the input he gets is more or less half of a monolingual child has (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p.44), regardless of other inputs a monolingual child possible gets from sources such as extended families and neighborhood communities. One research has confirmed the

difficulties children had when acquiring active command of a minority language without language support from their neighborhood community (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p.31). Additionally, bilingual parents also worry that their child's bilingual competences are below that of monolinguals, and some of them experienced their children's reluctance to speak in their weaker language with the targeted parent (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p.31).

To tackle the above-mentioned problems, firstly, it is very important for parents to form a habit of speaking to their child after the birth of the child, which not only helps to set up a language relationship between the child and each parent, getting him to associate an appropriate language with an appropriate parent but also helps to form a close bond between the child and each parent (Barron-Hauwaert, 2004, p.50). Some parents concern that a new-born baby is too tiny to deal with two different languages (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p.33). Nevertheless, previous research on babies has proved that young babies are so sensitive to language phonography that they can recognize their mothers' languages and discriminate their two languages from other different languages (Barron-Hauwaert, 2004, p.50). Moreover, research has shown that young babies are interested in a mixture of simple verbal language and non-verbal gestures, and facial expressions, which are called motherese or fatherese (Barron-Hauwaert, 2004, p.50-51). Therefore, it is vital for new parents to guarantee their engagement with their child, speaking to him and playing with him, thus strengthening a parent-language link (Barron-Hauwaert, 2004, p.52) as well as positioning the child into necessary language environments. What is the average exposure a child needs? The research done by Lewedeg and Oller (1997) disclosed that for a monolingual child, 20% language exposure guarantees him to develop some active vocabulary, while for a balanced bilingual child, 40-60% exposure is needed in each parent language to produce a similar result (quoted in Barron-Hauwaert, 2004, p.53). Accordingly, it is worthwhile for parents to constantly speak to their child for the cultivation of a balanced bilingual child.

Advice three: Don not make a fuss about a child's language-mixing or code-mixing.

Young children, whether monolingual or bilingual, are likely to misuse language elements at an early stage of life, producing a homogeneous or heterogeneous hybrid language. Their misuse of language is shown in the expressions such as "me go there" and "jag (Swedish, 'I') want some" (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p.49), and is seen as language-mixing or

code-mixing in this report. In order to discriminate language (code)-mixing from language (code)-switching, language (code)-mixing confines to the early stage of children's lives and is caused by their indiscriminate use of language elements (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p.49).

There are multiple factors accounting for child's language-mixing, but lack of quantity input and quality input are the basic ones. A child's sufficient exposure to two languages is crucial to his output, but in some bilingual families children failed to acquire balanced and sufficient language exposure. In OPOL families, less interaction with father or mother may cause an imbalance of two languages, and the practice of addressing a father in the father's language and addressing a mother in the mother's language may get a child to gain or lose vocabularies about father-type activities and mother-type activities in two languages (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p.53). Language is a very complex phenomenon, and it is impossible for a child to fully figure out how words are used, and how sentences and texts are formed in one language, let alone in two languages. To make the impossible possible, young children, without sufficient comprehensible scaffolding from their parents, probably translate words between two languages, supposing that there are equivalents in both languages (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p. 51).

When relating child's language-mixing to the quantity and quality of his language experience, parents may easily accept the phenomenon of language-mixing. Instead of making a fuss about it, it is advisable for parents to keep tabs on their child's language development, adjust the child's language experience and provide him high-quality interactive scaffolding, thus strengthening his weak language and helping him well discriminate his two languages. Additionally, parents have to believe that language-mixing is a transitory stage in a child's life and when the child grows older, language-mixing will decrease (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p.52), which is confirmed by previous studies.

Advice four: Understand children who code-switch.

Why do children code-switch? Baker and Wright stated that a child's code-switching is highly influenced by language models provided by his parents or other important figures around him (Baker & Wright, 2017, p.155). Since code-switching is a common linguistic practice among bilingual adults, it is not at all surprising that bilinguals children follow suit. Besides, parents', community's and culture's attitude towards code-switching impacts the extent children

code-switch (Baker & Wright, 2017, p.155). For example, children understand that code-switching is not appropriate when talking with monolinguals.

There is a phenomenon deserving extra attention. A bilingual child, Leif, when speaking English to his mother, made great efforts to recall English words when the Swedish words come to mind first (Cunningham-Andersson & Andersson, 2002, p.50). This phenomenon may get us to contemplate the deep reasons that children code-switch in future. Therefore, at present, it is advisable for parents to be open to their child's code-switching.

Bibliography

1. Ai-Qaysi, N. 2018. A Review of Code-switching: Learners' and Educators' Perspectives. International Journal of Information Technology and Language Studies.
2. Baker, C. 2014. *A Parents' and Teachers' Guide to Bilingualism*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
3. Baker, C. & Wright, W. 2017. *Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
4. Barron-Hauwaert, S. 2004. *Language Strategies For Bilingual Families: The One-Parent-One-Language Approach*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd. [E-book]. Available at: <https://www.amazon.com/Language-Strategies-Bilingual-Families-One-Language-ebook.pdf>. Accessed 1st March 2021.
5. Cunningham-Andersson, U. & Andersson, S. 2002. *Growing Up With Two Languages*. London and New York: Taylor & Francis e-Library.
6. Cunningham, U. 2020. *Growing Up With Two Languages: A Practical Guide for Multilingual Families and Those Who Support Them*. London and New York: Taylor & Francis.
7. Ellis, R. 1994. *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
8. Green, D. & Li, W. 2014. A Control Process model of code-switching. *Language, Cognition and Neuroscience*.
9. Halliday, M.A.K., & Matthiessen, C.M.I. 2014. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Routledge.
10. Hoffmann, C. 2014. *An Introduction to Bilingualism*. London and New York: Taylor & Francis.
11. Kress, G. & Leeuwen, T. 2006. *Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design*. London and New York: Taylor & Francis Group.

12. Mahootian, S. 2020. *Bilingualism*. London and New York: Taylor & Francis Group.[E-book]. Available at: <https://www.amazon.com/Bilingualism-Routledge-Linguistics-Shahrazad-Mahootian-ebook.pdf>. Accessed 1st March 2021.
13. Thomas, C. 2012. *Growing Up with Languages: Reflections on Multilingual Childhoods*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.[E-book]. Available at: <https://www.amazon.com/Growing-Languages-Reflections-Multilingual-Childhoods-ebook.pdf>. Accessed 1st March 2021.
14. You, W. Quin & Tan, J. & Flynn, S. 2017. Code-switching as a marker of linguistic competence in bilingual children. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*.