BILINGUALISM IN A FUNCTIONAL PERSPECTIVE:
THE LANGUAGE AND CONTENT LEARNING OF IMMIGRANT ENTREPRENEURS

By

ALICE SIU-PING WONG

Dip. TEO, The University of Leeds, 1974
B.Ed., The University of British Columbia, 1982
M.Ed., The University of British Columbia, 1985

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Department of Centre for the Studies of Curriculum and Instruction
The University of British Columbia
Vancouver, Canada

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ABSTRACT

This is a case study of the academic and occupational discourse of immigrant entrepreneurs in a bilingual (Cantonese and English) business and language program which aims to relate the linguistic and managerial knowledge acquired in class to the business operations. This case study raises problematic questions for both LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) research and bilingual code-switching research. There were two purposes: (1) to study the functional variation of discourse in the educational program and the operation of small business; and (2) to investigate the importance of the functional variation of discourse in code-switching.

Pursuing purpose one, part one of the study explores two models: an LSP approach based on "genre" and learning tasks (Swales, 1990); and the Language Socialization approach (Halliday, 1975; Mohan, 1986; Ochs, 1988) viewing language learning and sociocultural learning as occurring simultaneously in "activities" (social practices or situations). Two issues are raised: (1) Data indicate that the LSP approach does not illuminate the relation between academic discourse and occupational discourse; (2) It does not account for specific connections between tasks in classroom discourse and genres in business practices.

The Language Socialisation approach, however, points to important dynamic theory/practice relations which appear in contrasts between business rules and examples, language rules and
examples, seminar discourse and workshop discourse, and the English class and service encounter discourse.

Pursuing purpose two, part two of the study compares the Language Socialization model with two models of code-switching as it relates to functional variation of discourse: (1) Guthrie (1983), and (2) Faerch (1985). Model (1) misses a large proportion of second language examples while model (2) fails to account for data labelled as "business rules" and "business examples" in the sample.

The Language Socialization approach, however, recognises in discourse both theory (e.g., language and business rules) and practice (e.g., language and business examples). Rules are mostly handled in the first language while examples are mostly handled in the second language. A log-linear analysis indicates that, in all cases, "rules/ examples" is the strongest predictor of language choice.
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Chapter One
Statement and Definition of the Problem

Introduction

This is a case study of the discourse of thirty-two immigrant entrepreneurs learning English language skills and business managerial skills in Cantonese and English. These entrepreneurs are enrolled in a bilingual program which aims to relate the linguistic and managerial knowledge acquired in class to the entrepreneurs' daily business operations. In other words, it is significant for the entrepreneurs to relate (a) the "theory" of the business, which is learned in Cantonese and English, and its modes of discourse, to (b) the "practice" of the business, and its attendant modes of discourse. This case study raises problematic questions for both ESP (English for Specific Purposes) research and bilingual code-switching research.

Background of the Problem

Putting Theory into Practice: Meeting the Needs of Immigrant Entrepreneurs

A review of the literature in this field revealed is a lack of research in bilingual adult language and content learning in various areas. The business management and language learning of immigrant entrepreneurs, for example, has not been thoroughly studied (Toulouse and Brenner, 1990; Witter and Wong, 1990). With
this in mind, the present study was conducted to investigate the discourse of a group of bilingual (Cantonese and English) immigrant entrepreneurs who were learning managerial skills and language skills in their first language (L1, i.e., Cantonese) and second language (L2, i.e., English). The focus of the bilingual Small Business Owner Development program was to relate the entrepreneurs' linguistic and managerial knowledge to their business practices (Witter and Wong, 1990; Wong, 1992). The present study was an investigation in the area of the relationship between the entrepreneurs' "knowledge" in their academic discourse and the "operation" on the job; in other words, this was an issue of relating "theory" with "practice", which is a general concern of both educators and researchers (Piper, 1987).

Figure 1.1 illustrates the design of the program. There were three components: the management class, the EOP class and the on-site sessions at the business site. The management class was further divided into two areas: seminars and workshops which were led by professionals in the field. Cantonese (L1) was used as the medium of delivery while the written texts and outlines were in English (L2). The workshop leader was a business consultant who was also an advisor/coach. He visited the entrepreneurs at their business sites and reviewed with them the seminar/workshop materials as well as their business performances in the past month. There were two EOP classes: a high level group taught by an English speaker, and a low level group taught by a bilingual instructor, who was also an experienced retail shop owner. Both L1 and L2 were
used as the media of instruction in the low level group. Discourse in the low level class was the specific data used for the bilingual code-switching study.

This program was unusual in several ways:

1. it provided the learners with on-the-job training in both language and business content;

2. the application of the academic knowledge in business management to the actual operation was immediate;

3. the learners were already practitioners who had full control over their own activities in their businesses, and were therefore able to modify their business practices in light of the course; hence, this model was different from many other general pre-vocational or vocational training situations; and
(4) both L1 and L2 were used in the management and low level EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) classes.

(1), (2) and (3) made this program a valuable source of data on the relation between academic knowledge and occupational practice.

This type of program, which involves adult content and language learning in a second or foreign language context, is generally investigated following the approach of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (e.g., Mackay and Mountford, 1978) or Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) (e.g., Richterich, 1983). ESP is further divided into EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) (Mackay and Mountford, 1978). A leading theoretical concept for present work in LSP is "genre" (Swales, 1990).

To deal with the bilingual and multi-lingual situations, we should speak of LAP (Language for Academic Purposes) and LOP (Language for Occupational Purposes). In the present bilingual Small Business Owner Development program, because English written text is used in the academic component of the business program, the management class will fall under the aegis of EAP or more generally, LAP. In the present context, English is also the
language used to operate a business, e.g., in service encounters; therefore, the language program naturally falls into the area of EOP or, more generally, LOP. This case, then, raises several problematic questions in LSP research, as described in the following section.

The Relationship between Theory and Practice and Discourse Variation

Data in the pilot study, of an entrepreneur's tasks, indicated that there should be a relationship between LAP (talking about a topic, scientific or technological) and LOP (doing the actions covered by a topic). The theory/practice dynamic was one of the important focuses in this business and language training program. The objective of learning was to relate the academic components to actual business practices, such as the application of marketing strategies to customer services. One of the purposes of the present investigation is, therefore, to study the academic and occupational tasks of a group of immigrant entrepreneurs with respect to the "theory" and "practice" of small business management. This requires a global view of the program components and the business sites. By analyzing the academic discourse of the management class and the
language class, and the discourse of the operation of the business, the ecological relations between texts could be revealed.

The literature indicates that one of the current approaches in LSP discourse analysis is the "genre theory". Within this approach, the discourse of a marketing lecture or a textbook in the educational program would be analyzed as "academic text" or "expository text" (Swales, 1990). Other examples of academic text include scientific articles. This type of analysis is required by EAP or LAP. The discourse of business transactions at the business sites would be analyzed as "service encounters" (Ventola, 1987), a type of analysis required by EOP (or LOP). What has not been explored is the relation between these two types of texts. While genre theory in LSP is helpful for capturing the differences between these genre types, it is not completely clear how one would capture the theory/practice relation between the discourse of the management class and the discourse of the business operation.

This raises an important issue in ESP. The ESP literature has indicated a division between EAP and EOP. To the best of my knowledge, there has been no research on the connection between the two. The ESL (English as a Second Language) field tends to treat EAP and EOP separately rather than looking at them as two different

The Relationship between English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Bilingual Code-switching

The present study also addresses a gap in research related to bilingual code-switching. Conventionally, assumptions made in ESP have been based on monolingual situations (e.g., Swales, 1985). Little is known regarding the role of the first language (L1) and the second language (L2) in ESP and content learning; neither have studies in bilingual code-switching been addressed as issues in ESP. A brief review of literature reveals a lack of communication between these two research worlds.

In earlier works, the areas of ESP and bilingualism were connected but recent research has not related them to each other. In the early work of Halliday (1968), the varieties of language depended on both the users and the uses in a language community. With respect to users, multi-lingual contexts resulted in bilingualism and hence bilingual code-switching. The users in this context would then be monolinguals or bilinguals. The "uses" of the language resulted in the varieties of language which differed
according to different "situations" (see Figure 1.2). Halliday (1968) used the term "register" to describe these varieties.

A review of the history of ESP reveals that the study of "register" (i.e., varieties of language) was an early basis for ESP research (Swales, 1985). Discourse varies according to the language "purpose" or "function". ESP has been developed to meet the special needs of speakers of English as a second (ESL) or foreign language (EFL) for academic or occupational purposes. These learners are in fact "bilinguals", and yet there is a lack of research in ESP which addresses the roles of both L1 and L2 for academic and occupational purposes. (See Figure 1.2).
When it comes to bilingualism, research in bilingual code-switching has been focused on the study of "domains" (Fishman, 1972; Heller, 1988). Each domain or situation differs according to the roles of the participants, time, areas and purposes or functions of language (Fishman, 1972; Heller, 1988. See Figure 1.3.). These language purposes can be social, academic or occupational. As mentioned earlier, ESP or LSP is related to the "functions" of language in bilingual or multilingual situations. However, research in bilingual code-switching which attempts to address genre and theory/practice issues in LSP or ESP is lacking.

**Figure 1.3** Bilingual Code-Switching and ESP

The importance of stronger linkages between code-switching research and LSP research is clearly indicated by developments in research and theory about language proficiency in bilingual
contexts (Cummins, 1991). With regard to the study of the functional roles of L1 and L2 in relation to bilingual code-switching, Cummins's (1991) theory incorporates both bilingualism in education and functional differences in discourse. As reflected by Cummins himself (1991), his theoretical positions have been well researched (Cummins, 1978, 1979a, 1979b, 1984, 1991; Cummins and Swain, 1986; Wong-Fillmore, 1980), and intensely debated (Cummins and Swain, 1983; Edelsky, Hudelson, Flores, Altweger and Jilbert, 1983; Martin-Jones and Romaine, 1986). Cummins' work is notable for theoretical constructs relating to (a) the relation between L1 and L2 proficiency, (b) the cognitive consequences of bilingualism, and (c) conversational and academic language proficiency. While (a) and (b) relate directly to bilingualism, (c) relates to functional variation in discourse. A natural question is the relation between bilingual code-switching and conversational and academic discourse variation. To the best of my knowledge, this question has not been examined.

Cummins (1984, 1991) discusses the functional differences of language in terms of "conversational and academic language proficiency" in bilingual contexts. The former is "context-embedded" while the latter is "context-reduced". According to him

In general, context-embedded communication is more typical of the everyday world outside the classroom, whereas many of the linguistic demands of the classroom (e.g. manipulating text) reflect communicative activities which are closer to the context-reduced end of the continuum. (1984, pp. 138-139)
In the data of the dissertation, the closest analogy to the contrast between conversational language proficiency and academic language proficiency is the contrast between the service encounter at the business sites on one hand and the classroom communication on the other hand. Below, I will examine the link between code-switching and functional variation in the thesis data.

In summary, the study of the "uses" of language has resulted in the development of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) research while the study of the "users" of language has resulted in the development of bilingual code-switching research. Although bilingual code-switching has been researched extensively in sociolinguistic studies, a number of issues raised by ESP research have not been addressed. Similarly, although ESP work has extensively discussed questions of language use, it has little to say about bilingual code-switching. The question is, "Is there a relationship between bilingual code-switching and the types of functional variation studied in ESP?" Initial data in the pilot study indicated that there was a close relationship between bilingual code-switching and functional variation. A more in-depth study was therefore necessary to further establish this relationship.
Purposes of the Study

There were two purposes to the present investigation:

(1) To conduct a study of the functional variation of discourse in the educational program and the operation of small business, and

(2) To investigate the importance of the above functional variation of discourse in code-switching.

The research questions, more specifically, were:

(1) What is the functional variation of discourse in the educational program for immigrant entrepreneurs (i.e., in the management classes, the language classes and the operational tasks)?

(2) In light of the functional variation described in Question (1), what are the roles of the first language (i.e., Cantonese) and the second language (i.e., English)?

Significance of the Study

This study will raise issues related to the following research areas: (1) the relationship between theory and practice in the
discourse of an activity; and (2) the functional variation of L1 and L2 in relation to "theory" and "practice".

It was hoped that the findings would: (1) contribute to a better understanding of and form a basis for further research in the relationship between ESP and bilingual code-switching; and (2) from a pedagogical standpoint, provide a research base which would shed light on the design of bilingual adult language and content programs.

The Structure of the Thesis

There are six chapters in the present thesis. The first chapter is an introductory chapter which includes: (1) the background of the problem, (2) the purposes of the study, 3) the research questions and (4) the significance of the study. Chapter Two is a review of related literature with explanations of key concepts and constructs. Chapter Three reports the investigation including the details of the research design. The results of the first half of the investigation, which address research question number one, are presented in Chapter Four while the results of the second part of the study, which address research question number two, are reported and discussed in Chapter Five. The implications and conclusions of the study are presented in Chapter Six, the concluding chapter. These chapters are followed by the References and Appendices.
Chapter Two
A Selective Review of Literature

Introduction

This chapter presents a selective review of literature in the two major areas which the present study investigates: functional variation of language/discourse in relation to occupational purposes, and bilingual code-switching. The bilingual Small Business Owner Development program, which is the focus of the study, lies in the intersection of these two areas. Particularly, it is the language classroom which seems to be the crucial site of interaction.

The linkage between functional variation of discourse in relation to occupations and bilingual code-switching appears in the earlier works of Halliday (1968). In his terms, the present study would be one about the "uses" and the "users" of the language, which are closely related in a language community. In the present case study, the "uses" are the functions of the language. This area has often been labelled as "Language for Specific Purposes (LSP)" and the users are the bilingual learners. Therefore, literature related to specifically the following areas will be reviewed: (1) studies on immigrant entrepreneurs in small businesses; (2) bilingual code-switching; and (3) business and the functional variation of discourse.
Immigrant Entrepreneurs in Small Business

Review of Studies

Recent studies of immigrant (or ethnic, minority) entrepreneurs have been conducted by different researchers e.g., social scientists (e.g., Waladinger et al., 1990), business educators (e.g., Witter and Wong, 1990; Witter, Wong, Tam, Dooley, Ho and Davies, 1992; Wong 1992) and government agents (e.g., Nash, 1987; Samuel and Conveys, 1986; Toulouse and Brenner 1988, 1990) and for different purposes. For five years (1985 - 1989), Waladinger et al. (1990), for example, conducted a series of studies on immigrant small businesses in industrial societies in Europe and USA. They hoped to provoke

much-needed discussion about how similar and different cultural, political, and economic characteristics of immigrants and of the industrial societies in which they settle influence the development and transformation of immigrant small businesses. (p. 7)

According to Waladinger et al. (1990), ethnic entrepreneurship is important because "it is one way immigrants and ethnic minorities can respond to the current restructuring of Western industrial economies" (p. 14). The more active role of immigrant entrepreneurs has also been investigated in a different geographic location. Nash (1987), as well as Samuel and Conveys (1986), for instance, undertook two studies designed to measure the value of the economic contributions of immigrant entrepreneurs for the Department of
Cultural Communities of the Province of Quebec and for the Canadian federal government. Toulouse and Brenner (1988) summarised the findings in these Canadian official studies in their report "Immigrants Entrepreneurs: In Search of a Theoretical Model". Their other paper, "Business creation among the Chinese immigrants in Montreal" (1989), further presented the positive and negative findings from the largest immigrant entrepreneur group on similar issues they investigated.

Regarding the definition of "entrepreneurs", Waladinger et al. (1990) noted that

Many definitions suggest a distinction between entrepreneur and manager on the basis of the former's unique innovative functions. But neither economists (Baumol 1968: 66) nor social scientists (Kilby 1971: 27-29; Wilken 1979:60) seem able to implement this distinction to permit the unequivocal exclusion of any owner/manager from the class of entrepreneurs. (p. 17)

Waladinger et al., therefore, operationally defined "entrepreneurs" after Greenfield et al., as "owner/operators of business enterprises" (p. 17). As for "immigrant entrepreneurs", Toulouse and Brenner (1990) defined them as "immigrants who have taken advantage of the categories of visas reserved for people who have promised to create a business in Canada" (p. 38). For the purpose of the present study, a broader meaning of "immigrant entrepreneurs" will be adapted to include "entrepreneurs and owner-managers who are immigrants", regardless of their visa status.

Research on programs for small business establishment and
development was the focus of a two-year study led by Witter and Wong (1990). "Project '92 - Immigrants and Entrepreneurship", as the project was titled, was designed to co-ordinate a series of research activities to develop, implement and/or evaluate a total of nine innovative entrepreneurship curricula for the immigrant and basic literacy communities. The findings of this project were reported in various papers and reports (Witter et al., 1992; Wong, 1992). Among these works, the ethnic owner development programs, which had been developed in an ethnic small business centre in a western province of Canada for several years, were evaluated. These programs were designed to improve the business practices of immigrant entrepreneurs. Data seem to have revealed practical impacts on the performance of the business owner/operators in different areas, e.g., management skills, computer skills and import/export techniques (Witter et al., 1992; Wong 1992). Some of the positive outcomes included the creation of new jobs, an increase in profits and the ability to survive a recession period.


Regarding the needs of immigrant entrepreneurs, Waladinger et al. (1990) listed seven common business problems that confronted
most ethnic entrepreneurs. They were: (1) How do ethnic or immigrant entrepreneurs acquire the information needed for the establishment and survival of their firms? (2) How do they obtain the capital needed to establish or to expand their business? (3) How do they acquire the training and skills needed to run a small business? (4) How do they acquire and manage efficient, honest, and cheap workers? (5) How do they manage relations with customers and suppliers? (6) How do they survive strenuous business competition? and (7) How do they protect themselves from political attacks? This list seems to indicate that "problem solving" would have to be an important component to include in an educational program for immigrant entrepreneurs. To meet these needs, the solutions to these problems would require both the "theory" of business management and the "practice" of operational and communication skills in the actual business situations or activities.

Waladinger et al. (1990) further explained that

One of the essential problems facing entrepreneurs is their relations with customers and suppliers... Retailers use a variety of methods to gain customer loyalty, with their personalities often playing a role too. The success of an enterprise (particularly hotels, restaurants, cafes, and exotic boutiques) frequently depends on an entrepreneur's ability to negotiate different public images: (1) in the face of bureaucratic authorities, who demand legal compliance; (2) in the face of coethnic customers, who tend to take possession of the premises; and (3) in the face of nonethnic customers, who demand better services. These multiple roles are demanding and occasionally create formidable problems. (p. 144)

Summary of this Section

In summary, this section of the review of the literature seems
to indicate that there are few studies investigating the learning of small business communication skills together with the learning of entrepreneurial skills. Regardless of the theoretical approach, much of the work on ethnic business and ethnic business owners remains exploratory. Viewing small business activities as social practices seems to be one of the possible adequate approaches. Issues related to theory/practice dynamics and activities need to be reviewed and then addressed.

Bilingual Code-switching and Functional Variation of Language

Bilingual Code-switching

Code-switching, the internal variation from one language to another in the course of a single communicative episode, is commonly examined in sociolinguistic theory and research because "it is often more noticeable than other kinds of sociolinguistic variation" (Fishman, 1970, p. 40). Heller's studies (1988), for example, investigated code-switching from anthropological and socio-linguistic perspectives. The purpose of the papers in her volume of work was

to illustrate ways in which the study of code-switching addresses fundamental anthropological and sociolinguistic issues concerning the relationship between linguistic and social processes in the interpretation of experience and the construction of social reality. (p. 2)

Other related works include Hymes' earlier study (1968) on the structural analysis of "domains" (p. 104). With specific language
groups, examples of existing studies are: Gibbons' (1987) "Code-mixing and code-choice: A Hong Kong case study" (Cantonese and English); Pandit's (1986) Hindi English code-switching; Lipski's (1985) Spanish-English language switching; and Dabene and Billiez's work (1986) studying members of Spanish, Portuguese and Algerian communities in France. There are numerous other code-switching studies in various domains but it is beyond the scope of the present study to conduct an exhaustive review. This section of the literature review will be limited to studies in bilingual code-switching occurring in language classrooms.

**Bilingual Code-switching in the Language Classroom**

The present investigation was a study of data collected from the business education program and the operation of the business. Within the data, there were very few examples of bilingual code-switching in the business practices since L2 was the language of operation. In the management classes, the spoken discourse was in L1 while the written discourse was in L2; there was very little code-switching. In the advanced English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) class, L2 was used almost exclusively. Most of the code-switching data occurred in the low level EOP class. In other words, the focus of observation for bilingual code-switching data was in the classroom. Therefore, this section will examine studies in the bilingual classroom and will be limited to a review of studies about bilingual code-switching in language classrooms. It will be restricted to studies that analyze code-switching in relation to
Bilingual Code-switching in Classroom Discourse in Relation to Functional Variation of Language

The literature seems to indicate that although there are many studies of code-switching in bilingual classrooms, very little research has been conducted on the functional role of the two languages in terms of theoretical perspectives. The following is a review of three studies which address issues relating the roles of L1/L2 and the functional variation of discourse in the language classrooms. They are Guthrie (1983), Bowers (1980) and Faerch (1985).

Functions of L1 in instruction: Guthrie (1983). The use of the children's first language was investigated by Guthrie (1983) and Guthrie-Phung (1985). This is an area that has been widely studied and discussed (Duran, 1981; Gumperz, 1981). Guthrie's focus, however, was on code-switching in a bilingual (Chinese and English) language classroom as it related to functional variation of discourse, specifically conversational acts in discourse. His case study investigated in detail the interaction and language use of two teachers with a group of Chinese-American first-graders. His methods included quantitative analysis of conversational-act frequencies and qualitative analysis of these conversational acts. Data revealed that students sometimes answered in Chinese or gave hints or brief explanations to their classmates in that language. The teacher, who was bilingual, most frequently used Chinese (the
students' language) to clarify or to check for understanding. As Guthrie states, "her use of the language revealed a sensitivity to the variable meanings in Chinese and English that made it possible for her to pick out likely sources of confusion" (p. 45).

The analysis of the bilingual teacher's use of Chinese further revealed that she employed it for at least five distinct purposes: (1) for translation; (2) as a we-code for social solidarity; (3) for procedures and directions; (4) for clarification; and (5) to check for understanding (p. 45).

Verbal behaviour in the language teaching classroom: Bowers 1980. Bowers' study (1980) of the roles of teacher and student in classroom utterances was a comprehensive one. His study related with some "degree of specificity to the language teaching context and ... [dealt] with a number of major features of that context, e.g., code-switching and multiple-functioning" (p. 17). He distinguished between target language and mother tongue utterances (p. 39) and commented on the proportions of target language use and mother tongue use (pp. 172-173). In his analysis, he listed seven categories of language functions that emerged from the data: sociate, organise, direct, present, elicit, respond and evaluate. As a conclusion to his findings, he proposed that

functional units and relationships can be identified, and their operation expressed adequately, economically and in a way compatible with a rational theory of language. (p. 329)

His study, however, did not comment on the "subject matter" (i.e.,
the content) in the language class (p. 90). His model would fail to address elements in an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) class which were beyond language and language learning and which were not limited to speech-acts. In an EOP class for business communication, for example, Bowers' categories of language functions would not be able to account for business cases and business rules. In his model, Bowers admitted that there were differences between linguistic and meta-linguistic topics. However, he did not specifically use them as categories for his analysis (pp. 72, 90). His findings did reveal that meta-linguistic topics were generally conducted in the mother tongue with target language citation (p. 175).

**Language and meta-language differences: Faerch (1985).** Faerch's studies of foreign language classrooms viewed discourse from a different perspective than Guthrie's (1983) and a partially similar view to Bowers (1980). Faerch adopted a basic distinction between transactions with a focus on the FL code (meta transactions) and transactions with a focus on socio-literacy or other non-linguistic content (content transactions). He argued that meta-talk constituted a largely neglected area of classroom research. He discovered that meta-talk occupies varying portions of FL classroom discourse. It may take up as much as the entire lesson, e.g. if this is devoted to discussing ways of solving a translation exercise; or it may be restricted to a single move, as when the teacher replying to a student's content-oriented contribution, corrects a grammatical error and then continues on the content level. (p. 185)
He challenged the view that FL learning could/should take place without learners acquiring any explicit knowledge about the language. Instead, he strongly believed that "the question is not whether learners need meta-language or not but how much, how precise, and how this knowledge should be linguistically encoded" (p. 190). According to Faerch, there are two functions of meta-language: function in connection to explicit FL knowledge as a monitor in speech production, and eliciting information about the FL.

Meta talk in the FL classroom includes aspects such as corrections (Chaudron, 1977; Long, 1977; Kasper, 1982), vocabulary explanation (Chaudron, 1981), and explicit discussions of the nature of FL rules. In his study, Faerch (1985) also mentioned a variety of types of meta talk exhibiting various degrees of teacher control. For example,

at one extreme, we have the use of scaffolded structures in a situation where the teacher is in full control of both semantic and syntactic planning. At the other extreme we have the (theoretically possible) student-centred negotiation of rule knowledge with the teacher functioning more as a consultant than as a director. (p. 194)

During this process, the feedback from teachers may be in the form of rule formation or "providing the students with the right FL examples at the right moment" (p. 195). Meta talk, therefore, has a positive potential as a teaching as well as learning tool. Another important issue Faerch has raised is the need for a
connection of texts, an issue of the "ecology" of discourse. He believed that

We also need to see how different varieties of meta talk interrelate: otherwise it is difficult, for example, to see that an implicit correction performed in one phase of the lesson may relate directly to an explicit discussion of the same rule in a different phrase of the lesson. This, I know, is an ideal goal which I have certainly not reached in my paper. (p. 197)

Faerch finally summarised his position: the call for a better understanding of the function of more explicit types of FL rule knowledge in communication, and his belief that explicit rule knowledge does not always, or necessarily, conflict with fluency.

What Faerch has not acknowledged is the relation of the meta-language/language functions to bilingual code-switching though, very obviously, his data revealed that relation. These examples included the discussion of rules in Danish (the mother tongue of the students) in a German lesson (pp. 192-194), and the use of Danish for scaffolding English structures in an English translation class (pp. 186-187).

Summary of this Section

This section has reviewed in detail three bilingual studies on functional variation in language classrooms: Guthrie's (1983) conversational acts, Bower's (1980) speech-acts, and Faerch's (1985) meta-language/language differences. These studies seem to have indicated, either explicitly or inexplicitly, that there is an important role for L1 in explaining concepts, in discussing
language rules and in dealing with meta-linguistic topics. In contrast to this, L2 is used more with the working of examples. Guthrie’s categories are not well adapted for the language examples. Bowers’ speech-acts cannot account for the "content" part of language class interaction. Faerch’s meta-language and language distinction seems to be more helpful in relating bilingual code-switching with the functional variation of discourse, though he has not explicitly acknowledged the roles of L1 and L2.

**Business and Functional Variation of Discourse**

The next issue is the question of business and functional variation of discourse. Two approaches will be reviewed: (a) the ESP approach; and (b) the Language Socialization approach.

An initial review of literature seems to indicate a problem regarding the issue raised by the present study. While functional variation in business would seem to be a central topic in ESP, in fact it has not been well studied or well analyzed. To understand why, we need to review some of the earlier works. In the present investigation, the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) components in the program studied fall half into the occupational camp and half into the academic camp. This section will, therefore, (1) review the ESP approach to the study with a historical overview and (2) review an alternate strategy to the ESP approach - the Language Socialization/Activity approach.
An Overview of the History of ESP

In the 1960s & early 1970s, most of the work in ESP was on English for Science and Technology (EST). For a time, EST & EAP (English for Academic Purposes) were regarded as almost synonymous (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Swales, 1985). ESP work was initially influenced by Halliday's concept of special language, especially register analysis (Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens, 1964) though Swales (1985) dated his ESP Episodes as early as 1962 when Barber's study was already condensed with heavy statistics in frequency counts. Later works of others looked at actual teaching materials (Herbert, 1965) or actual teaching situations in major growth areas in ESP (Higgins, 1967). This trend led on to the 1970s with Swales' (1971) cognitive approach in WSE (Writing Scientific English) and Ewer & Hugh-Davies' (1971) study on reading in the final years of university. Lackstrom, Selinker & Trimble (1972) held the door open to discourse analysis and half closed the door on frequency counts. Widdowson & Allen (1974) soon followed with further considerations of use as well as usage -- a rhetorically functional approach leading to scientific discourse. Munby's (1978) Communicative Syllabus Design marked the beginning of emphasis on needs analysis. Mackay & Mountford (1978) edited studies examining the sociological, linguistic, psychological and pedagogic design factors that ESP has to reflect. Then, there was Robinson's (1980) survey of articles, documents and journals on ESP, which summarised past works before the eighties.

The 1980s began as a stage of development moving from a
language-centred approach to a skills-centred approach (Hutchinson & Waters 1987), e.g., Moore (1980) studied reading and thinking skills materials while Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stressed the importance of underlying competence such as learning skills rather than the rehearsal of superficial aspects in that educational setting and stated that "a focus on specific subject registers is unnecessary in this approach, because the underlying processes are not specific to any subject register" (p. 13). Hence, the ESP field has also expanded into the areas of needs analysis, skills and strategies, the details of which are beyond the scope of the present review.

In summary, much of the work in ESP in the past three decades has been dedicated to either a language-centred approach or a skills-centred approach, supplemented by needs analysis and discourse analysis.

An unfortunate result of this opposition between language-centred and learning-skills-centred is that it tends to exclude consideration of the intersection of language and learning. Yet this issue is central to our study: how the academic and occupational components of our educational program are related through the discourse of learning and the learning of discourse.

EOP versus EAP: Is there a relation between the two?

As summarised by Swales (1985), acknowledged by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), and indicated by the review of literature in the previous section, the area of English for Science and Technology
EST), mostly related to English for Academic Purposes (EAP), has been particularly important in the development of ESP in general. Compared to the pre- eminent position of EST/EAP, there were fewer studies in the area of English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) in the sixties and seventies; however, in the American scene in the eighties, there has been growing interest in EOP because of immigration patterns. For example, the 1984 ESP Journal, (vol. 3 n.2 ), had a special issue on "ESP: Vocational ESL". In the present investigation, the communication skills for small business owner/operators on the job would be classified as EOP and the business management text would be considered as EAP. The objective of the program in the present study is to relate the management theory (embedded in the text) and the language learned in EOP classes to the actual practice on the job. In other words, there is a need to relate EAP to EOP. What do current works in ESP reveal?

Johns (1986), in a review of ESP work on the language of business English, clearly acknowledges that business language includes elements from both Language for Occupational Purposes (LOP) and Language for Academic Purposes (LAP) in her statement of the scope of her review (Johns, 1986, p. 4). But Johns does not discuss the need to relate LOP and LAP aspects of business. To examine this problem further, we can now turn to a discussion of how LOP and LAP are analyzed (and might be related) in current LSP analysis.
Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) Analysis (Swales 1990): Genre and Task

In LSP, according to Swales (1990), there are two major elements. One is the notion of genre and the other is the notion of task. An example of a genre in a small business context is a "service encounter" (Ventola, 1987). These encounters may include purchasing in a bakery, customer and server interaction, conversation in over-the-counter buying, or negotiating a deal in import/export etc. Basically, these encounters are identified in situations where the small business operators are providing small services in the service industry. Another example of a genre is "academic text" or "expository text". In the context of the present study, the academic text or expository text genre would apply to the management component of the program where there is a text used for the course and there is a seminar which follows a pattern similar to the textbook discourse.

Genre Classification in the LSP Theory

Genre is defined as "types of discourse which are used for social purposes" or "a class of communicative events ... [which] share some set of communicative purposes" (Swales, 1990, p. 58). With this definition, Swales' (1987, 1990) analysis of English in a particular type of scientific writing and Ventola's (1987) investigation of service encounters are in-depth studies of the genres of one example of an "academic text" and a particular example of "occupational" or "practical" text. The present study is
related to both the academic and the occupational purposes. The business classes use academic texts. Service encounters are significant in a small business, since all other related activities are generated either before or after the "point of sale". In other words, service encounters are also part of the owner-operators' occupational tasks. Hence, these two and other related studies will be reviewed.

Ventola's (1987) study of service encounters was a thorough, linguistic one. Her original plan was to carry out a comparative analysis of service encounters in Australia, England and Finland but managed to handle only texts collected in Australia. The purpose of her study was to construct "situational grammars", which she defined as "how native speakers use language for communication when contextual factors and demands are also taken into consideration" (p. 234). She chose the genre of service encounter as the focus of her study, attempted to define the nature of its elements and organization and then tested her hypothetical generic organisational structures with the data she had collected. As Williams commented, she did not include a definition of the term "service encounter" in her work, perhaps with an assumption that this was "common sense knowledge". Williams (1988), however, cited Merritt's (1976) definition of service encounter as

an instance of face to face interaction between a server who is "officially posted" in some service area and a customer who is present in that service area, that interaction being oriented to the satisfaction of the customer's presumed desire for some service and the server's obligation to provide that service. (p. 321)
In his review of Ventola's work, Williams stated that "a more compelling reason for the study of this interactional form ... is the centrality of the 'service encounter' to the working of the interaction order" (p. 125). He further reported that this claim had been asserted by Goffman (1961), Davis (1959), Spradley and Mann (1975) and others, "based on observations of the character of modern public life" (p. 125). To Williams, a sociologist, talk was considered as "a type of social action". He agreed with Goffman (1972) that "service encounter" was one of the "most fundamental organizational devices of public order" (p. 125).

In her study, Ventola (1987) argued that genre determined the linguistic patterns in the verbal interaction. She arrived at nine elements that constituted the ideal-typical service genre (along with their functions). They were: Greeting (phatic); Attendance allocation (organization of proximity); Service bid (offer of service); Service (needs and their provision); Resolution (decision to buy, not to buy); Goods handover (exchange of goods); payment (exchange of money); Closing (appreciation of service); Goodbye (phatic) (pp. 51-85).

Ventola's data collection and sampling methods are worth mentioning because some of the data in the present study are also related to "service encounters". Ventola analyzed twelve final texts, which were collected from three types of locations: the post office, a small souvenir/jewellery gift shop, and a travel agency. Her focus was to deal with typical NS/NS (native speaker to native speaker) service encounter texts restricted to business
professional transactions rather than social talk. In the present study, however, service encounters are seen not just in isolation but in relation to the other parts of the operation of a small business.

Moving to the discussion of academic texts, we will review some of Swales' studies (1987, 1988, 1990) which dealt mainly with academic texts. Central to his book in 1990, for example, were "the concepts of discourse community, genre and language-learning tasks" (p. vii), which provided a framework to describe the nature of academic discourse. After a lengthy discussion on the concept of "genre", he finally arrived at a working definition of genre as

a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style ... In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience. (p. 58)

With this understanding of the nature of genres, academic texts, for example, would share similar structures, styles and content when the intended audience (in this case the academic discourse community in Swales' term) is the same. The purpose is academic. The area would be EAP (English for Academic Purposes).

In his 1990 book *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*, Swales listed the work of "expert members" and studies various types of academic genres. His textual overview of
the research article (RA), for example, disclosed that the overall organization of the research paper, according to Hill, Soppelsa and West (1982), is that it consists of the Introduction (from general to particular), Procedure and Discussion (from particular to general) (p. 134). The graphic representation of this genre is illustrated by Figure 2.1.

**Figure 2.1.** Overall Organisation of the Research Paper (Hill et al., 1982). From Swales, 1990, p. 134.

One of the approaches Swales (1990) proposed is to view RA introductions as "an encapsulated problem-solution texts" (p. 138). He first cited Zappen's (1983) model which includes the Goal, Current Capacity, Problem, Solution and Criteria of Evaluation. (See Figure 2.2.)
In the recent past, Neelakantaswamy et al. (1–4) developed a class of microwave radiators termed as ‘Gaussian-beam launchers’ to produce a focused exposure field in biological experiments for partial-body irradiations. These compact and simple structures with their ability to focus the microwave energy in a very small region indicate their practical utility, in the areas of biological researches and medical applications of microwaves, such as for selective heating of diseased/cancerous tissues. These launchers can also be used in noninvasive beam-wave reflectometric and spectrometric instrumentations for measuring complex permittivity of biological material at microwave frequencies, as indicated by Neelakantaswamy elsewhere (5–7).

When compared to the microwave beam-launching system described in (8), which consists of a plane-wave irradiated dielectric sphere (lens), the launcher formed by combining a scalar horn and dielectric sphere (1) is a more practical source of microwave Gaussian beam. However, the use of a dielectric sphere as the focusing lens results in a significant amount of spherical aberrations in the focal field, as indicated by Neelakantaswamy et al. in (9)...

In the present work, a Gaussian-beam launcher is formed by placing a dielectric hemisphere (instead of a full sphere) at the aperture end of corrugated circular waveguide (scalar horn). This enables a reduction in the path length of the ray in the lens-medium, and hence the spherical aberration effects are relatively minimized. Further, by using a hemisphere in the place of a full sphere, the launcher structure becomes less massive and smaller.

He then proposed a revised "Create a Research Space (CARS)". This includes three moves: Move 1: Establishing a territory; Move 2: Establishing a niche; and Move 3: Occupying the niche (pp. 141-142). (See Figure 2.3). Each move is made up of different steps. His sample "Move-step analysis" is illustrated by Figure 2.4. What follows in his descriptions are the sections for Methods, Results, Discussions and Conclusions (pp. 167-176). The structure of each section is detailedly illustrated and carefully described. At the end of his book, he moves on to analyze other research-process genres including abstracts, presentations, grant proposals, thesis and dissertations, and books and monographs (pp. 177-231).
Figure 2.3. A CARS Model for Article Introductions
(Swales, 1990, p. 141)

Move 1 Establishing a territory
Step 1 Claiming centrality
   and/or
Step 2 Making topic generalization(s)
   and/or
Step 3 Reviewing items of previous research

Move 2 Establishing a niche
Step 1A Counter-claiming
   or
Step 1B Indicating a gap
   or
Step 1C Question-raising
   or
Step 1D Continuing a tradition

Move 3 Occupying the niche
Step 1A Outlining purposes
   or
Step 1B Announcing present research
Step 2 Announcing principal findings
Step 3 Indicating RA structure

Declining rhetorical effort

Weakening knowledge claims

Increasing explicitness
Figure 2.4. A Sample Move-Step Analysis

(Swales, 1990, p. 143)

I Introduction

(1) The increasing interest in high-angle-of-attack aerodynamics has heightened the need for computational tools suitable to predict the flowfield and the aerodynamic coefficients in this regime. (2) Of particular interest and complexity are the symmetric and the asymmetric separated vortex flows which develop about slender bodies as the angle of attack is increased. (3) The viscous influence on the separation lines and the unknown three-dimensional (3D) shape of the vortex wake are some of the main flow features that must be modeled in the construction of a computational method to properly treat this problem. (4) Among the many potential flow methods developed in attempting to solve body vortex flows are early two dimensional (2D) multivortex methods, 2-4 2D time-stepping vortex models that include boundary-layer considerations, 5-8 and a quasi-3D potential flow method 9 that uses source and vortex elements. (5) Linear, unseparated potential flow models as well as purely viscous models, are not mentioned here. (6) A survey of the various methods may also be found in Ref. 10. (7) The potential flow methods are of special interest because of their ability to treat 3D body shapes and their separated vortex flows using a simple and relatively inexpensive model. (8) However, the previously mentioned methods suffer from some limitations mainly concerning the treatment of the vortex wake formation and its interaction with the body. (9) The first group of methods 2-4 cannot treat 3D flows and is limited to very slender bodies. (10) The second group of computational methods 5-8 is time consuming and therefore expensive, and its separation prediction is not sufficiently accurate. (11) Both the methods in this group and the method in Ref. 9 suffer from the dependency on too many semiempirical inputs and assumptions concerning the vortex wake and its separation. (12) The steady, 3D nonlinear vortex-lattice method, 11-12 upon which the present method is based, eliminates many of these limitations by introducing a more consistent model, but it can treat only symmetrical flow cases. (13) The present work extends the use of the last model to asymmetric, body-vortex flow cases, thus increasing the range of flow problems that can be investigated. (14) In addition, an effort is made to improve the numerical procedure to accelerate the convergence of the iterative solution and to get a better rollup of the vortex lines representing the wake.

One of the significant elements emphasised in this business
and language training program is the theory/practice dynamic. It is
crucial to the learners that the educational components relate to
actual practices on the job. This becomes the focus of the business
owner development process and the prime directive of the program
(for details, see program objectives in Appendix I). The purpose of
the present study is to reflect this relation. It is, therefore,
essential to analyze the functional variation of discourse in the
program to be able to capture the way in which different texts are
related. For example, the academic discourse of the management
class may be related to the operation of the service encounter. The
purpose of the analysis, then, is to investigate whether certain
particulars that are discussed in the management class play a role
in the service encounter. An obvious relationship will be
established if, for instance, a pricing strategy presented in the
management seminar is practised over the counter where the business
owner sets prices and negotiates the amount his/her customers are
going to pay. A difficulty with the genre theory presented by
Swales (1990) is that it deals with the differences between
discourse types rather than the relation between different
individual discourses, and hence does not necessarily illuminate
the type of relation the above example discloses. It tends to treat
the different texts as separate types. The genre theory, for
example, distinguishes between text or discourse defined as
"academic text" (or "expository text") and text or discourse
defined as "service encounter". However, it is not obvious in
which way genre theory would illuminate how a particular expository
text discussed in the management class has some connection with
another particular text dealing with a service encounter. Yet the
educational program assumes that learners will relate the
management classes to the daily operation of their businesses. The
question is: "Is there "ecological support" relation between
service encounter and the management classes?" In other words, we
need to relate actual discourses rather than contrast genre types.
Future development in genre theory may throw light on this relation
in more detail.

Task in the LSP Theory

Task is defined as "One of a set of ... goal directed
activities ... relatable to the acquisition of pre-genre and genre
skills ... " (Swales 1990:76). This theory suggests that tasks in
the language class are related to the acquisition of the genre the
learners are pursuing. However, Swales' approach does not actually
suggest in what ways tasks might be functionally related to genres.
As he himself states

Further, I have - evasively enough - proposed that the
activities be relatable to genre acquisition. It would,
on the other hand, be premature to claim that the
activities and their associated procedures are conducive
to genre skills; relatable, on the other hand, allows the
task-designer some freedom to experiment with various
kinds of analysis and to explore unusual combinations of
texts and tasks (Swales 1990, p. 76).
What is missing, it seems, is the actual "natural classroom discourse" which would illustrate the relation between the learning task and the target genre. Moreover, without going into the actual "practical" situation, it would be impossible to tell if learning has occurred and the learners are actually performing the "target tasks" on the job. In his book, Swales does present a teaching situation. He quotes his personal experience in assisting NNS graduate students to acquire the written genres such as memos to dissertation committee members, request letters to academics working elsewhere, and application letters for fellowships, etc. However, he does not display the teacher/student interaction discourse, which the present study proposes to explore.

Summary of this Section

As mentioned earlier in the present review, the ESP literature has indicated a division between EAP and EOP (i.e., background of the job and actual performance of the job). The field tends to treat EAP and EOP separately rather than looking at them as different dimensions of a "situation" or an "activity" as in Mohan's term (1986). A lack of that connection within ESP is the sign of a greater problem of the lack of theory that handles this relation. The genre theory presented by Swales (1990) does not seem to relate EAP discourse with EOP discourse; other models need to be reviewed.
Language Socialization

Language Socialization (Ochs, 1988) is a view of learning which goes beyond language learning alone. Essentially, it regards learning language and learning subject matter or culture as a process in which both elements occur simultaneously. This view has emerged from research in first language acquisition. What is typical in mother-and-child interaction is that the child is learning about the world and learning language at the same time, rather than learning language alone. In her recent study, for example, Ochs (1988) explored the complex interaction of socialization and language acquisition in a Samoan village. She discovered that

as children are learning to become competent members of their society, so also are they learning to become competent speakers of their language. In other words, socialization and language acquisition take place at the same time. (p. iii)

She also believes that

acquisition of linguistic knowledge and acquisition of sociocultural knowledge are interdependent. A basic task of the language acquirer is to acquire tacit knowledge of principles relating linguistic forms not only to each other but also to referential and nonreferential meanings and functions (see Slobin 1986). Given that meanings and functions are to a large extent socioculturally organised, linguistic knowledge is embedded in sociocultural knowledge. On the other hand, understandings of the social organization of everyday life, cultural ideologies, moral values, beliefs, and structures of knowledge and interpretation are to a large extent acquired through the medium of language. Schieffelin & Ochs (1986) call this process language socialization ..., i.e. socialization through language and socialization to use language. (p. 14)
One element of the Language Socialization theory is the notion of activity. According to Ochs (1988),

activity is both a behavioral unit, in the sense of a sequence of actions associated with particular motivations and goals (Leontyev 1981), and a process, in the sense of praxis (Marx 1959 [cited in Feurer, 1983]; Vygotsky 1962). (pp. 14-15)

Other terms for activity in this sense are "social practice", "social situation", or "situation". These will be used interchangeably below. In Och's (1988) model of Language Socialization, "activity mediates linguistic and sociocultural knowledge" and "knowledge and activity impact one another" in that "knowledge structures activity and activity structures knowledge" (p. 15). Figure 2.5 represents the model she proposed.

**Figure 2.5. Ochs' Model of Language Socialization**

Linguistic knowledge \[\rightarrow\] Activity \[\rightarrow\] Sociocultural knowledge

Taking a similar position, Mohan (1986) suggests that the situation (or activity) enacts the background knowledge of the situation (or activity). Ochs (1988) believes "these structures of knowledge are created in part through the children's participation in ... practices/ activities" (p. 17).

If activity mediates language and sociocultural knowledge, then it is inadequate to analyze discourse without considering its
context of activity and sociocultural knowledge. Hence the appropriate analysis of verbal interaction "goes well beyond questions of linguistic correctness" (Mohan, p. 56). Knowing the appropriate procedures in setting up an account, for example, is part of a dialogue generated from that specific situation. Mohan further explains that

This is contextualized dialogue. Dialogue is now seen as part of effective (or ineffective) action in a situation which requires contextual knowledge ... Talk is seen as an integral part of an activity such as setting up an account. Analysis of the contextualized dialogue then requires the analysis of talk in relation to activity. (p. 56)

In other words, it is necessary to understand how the activity gives rise to the verbal interaction within it.

In summary, in Ochs' (1988) theory there are two major points that demonstrate how the notion of a social practice or activity is central to an integrated theory of language acquisition. First, language activities are structured by linguistic and sociocultural principles which are acquired hand-in-hand. Second, "the sociocultural contexts that language activities engender or reflect become part of the pragmatic or social meaning of particular linguistic structures carrying out these tasks" (p. 17).

**Activity as Theory and Practice**

An important point about activity is the idea that an activity is theory and practice (Mohan, 1986; Ochs, 1988).
According to Mohan,

all activities have a practical and theoretical aspect. Both aspects are important in teaching. Without the practical, students cannot apply what they know; without the theoretical, students cannot understand what they are doing, nor transfer what they know. (p. 43)

Engaging in an activity is not simply "doing something": it is being able to understand what one is doing within some framework of interpretation for the activity. This notion of activity assumes that knowledge creates activity and activity creates knowledge. As Ochs (1988) stated,

sociocultural and linguistic knowledge structures activity, and activity creates (in the case of the novice/acquirer) and recreates (in the case of the member/competent language user) knowledge in both of these domains. (p. 16)

This notion of activity involves dynamics between "theory" and "practice" in that as the participants in an activity know more, they understand their practices more, and as they increase their knowledge, they are able to improve their practices. As for children, they "construct their own development through their actions in the world they experience" (Ochs, 1988, p. 15).

How is the theory/practice distinction reflected in the discourse associated with an activity? Mohan (1987) attempted to connect discourse analysis with the analysis of activity or situation. Following the distinction between the theory of an activity (the situation type) and the practice of an activity (the
situation instance), he distinguished between theory discourse and practical discourse. Theory discourse "explicates a situation type" while practical discourse operates instances of a situation. He then analyzed several examples of theory discourse including parliamentary procedure and statistical analysis.

An example may illustrate the theory/practice differences in a business context. Here is a piece of data from the baker's case in the pilot study. The theory text refers to generic "customer service" and the practice text refers to specific ways to handle customer complaints. The baker's choice of language (discourse) in dealing with customers depended on his knowledge of customer service theory which is generic for all customers. However, what he said to one particular customer was specific at a certain place in a specific time. In other words, the principles (in the theory) of customer service explain service encounters and the language used in handling customer complaints. The theory/practice relation may be a possible theoretical framework for relating EOP and EAP. A more in-depth analysis of additional discourse is needed before any claim can be made.

Figure 2.6 summarises the language socialization theories discussed above. In the Language Socialization Activity approach, activity is theory and practice (Mohan, 1986). An activity blends language knowledge and sociocultural knowledge (Ochs, 1988). These two elements form the background knowledge that applies to the activity. The situation/activity enacts the background knowledge (Mohan, 1986).
Summary of Findings in the Review of Literature

The review of related literature in this chapter seems to reveal issues in several areas. First there is the problem of the separation of EOP from EAP, reflecting a more general issue of links between the language of theory and the language of practice. Then, there is the "genre" theory presented by Swales (1990), its concept and method of analysis and the issue of its ability to address the issue of "ecology" of texts. Thirdly, bilingual code-switching studies reveal differences in the roles of the two languages (L1 and L2) in the functional variation of the classroom discourse. Finally, there is the language socialization model (Mohan, 1986; Ochs, 1988) which has been developed around the idea that an activity or situational social practice has a theory/practice dimension to it and finally, there are differences in discourses that match up with theory discourse and practical discourse.
Chapter Three
The Investigation

Purposes of the Study

There are two purposes in the present investigation:

(1) To conduct a study of the functional variation of discourse in the educational program and the operation of small business, and

(2) To investigate the importance of the functional variation of discourse in code-switching.

The research questions are:

(1) What is the functional variation of discourse in the educational program for immigrant entrepreneurs, (i.e. the management classes, the language classes and the business operational tasks?

(2) In light of the functional variation described in Question (1), what are the roles of the first language (i.e., Cantonese) and the second language (i.e., English) as seen in the language class?

This is a study using qualitative research methods such as observations, interviews, and document analysis as well as quantitative such as log linear analysis. The qualitative approach was used for the exploratory study of the functional variation of
discourse in the educational program. This method was used because it was an exploratory study of an area which had not been investigated before in any detail; therefore, it was particularly important to cast a wide net. The quantitative pattern of the study was used for code-switching material and it was used when it became clear that the quantitative language variation approach was appropriate for analyzing the data. In other words, data revealed regular code-switching patterns. Since the variables were binary, they then fitted into the chi-square and log-linear models.

Methods of Investigation

Case Studies, ESP and Bilingual Discourse

As the review of ESP literature in Chapter Two has indicated, issues raised in ESP have been generally based either on student-centred or skill-centred approaches (Swales, 1985; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Both approaches assume that the learners themselves are the best informants for their learning experiences, problems and language needs. This belief has been well documented by extensive research in the form of surveys and case studies (Schmidt, 1981; Ostler, 1980; Kroll, 1979; Cohen, Glasman, Rosenbaum-Cohen, Ferrara and Fine, 1979). Richterich (1983), for example, has reported eleven case studies in identifying LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) learner needs for the Council of Europe. In critiquing the publishing and reporting of case studies of curriculum development, Connelly (1978) explained that "a case
study describes a particular event with its own special circumstances" (p. 78). In ESP, the development and the study of programs are mostly related with a "particular" occupational or academic situation to meet "specific" needs (Mackay & Mountford, 1978). A case study approach seems to be an appropriate method of investigation for the issues raised on bilingual code-switching and ESP discourse, which are "special" and "specific" in many ways.

Bilingual code-switching is a sociolinguistic phenomenon arising from different "domains" (Fishman, 1972; Heller, 1988) or "situations", or "social practices" (e.g., social interactions such as a service encounter in Heller (1982). Similarly, ESP discourse varies according to the context of situation relating speaker and audience, and that is, according to the field (or topic of discourse), the tenor (or role of the participants), the mode (or function of the language), and style (Halliday & Hasan, 1985). It seems natural that issues relating these two specific areas (i.e., bilingual code-switching and ESP) could be initially investigated, as an exploration, in case studies in a specific situation.

Selection of Setting

Regarding the selection of setting, Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) have pointed out that

The research problem and the setting are closely bound together. Often, it is advisable to 'case' possible research sites with a view to assessing their suitability, the feasibility of carrying out research there, and how access might be accomplished should they be selected ... The role of pragmatic considerations must not be under-estimated in the choice of a setting. (p. 40)
The selection of the Small Business Owner Development Program for immigrant entrepreneurs as the setting for the present study has followed the principles recommended by Hammersley and Atkinson (1983). It was considered a suitable setting for the present study because it provided valuable data on the relation between "academic knowledge" and "occupational" practice in various ways. First, there were the business content and language components in the program. Second, this program was "in-service training" and the application of the "academic" knowledge in business management to the "actual operation" was immediate. Third, the learners were practising independent business owners/managers who had full authority to operate their businesses in light of the program. And finally, both L1 and L2 were used in the management and low level EOP classes; hence, they became useful sources of data for bilingual code-switching.

With regard to pragmatic considerations, access to the education program was made possible because of the openness of the institution to insights upon the innovative nature of the program. Access to the business sites was made easier since on-site visits were already a significant part of the education program. Most of the players were "sponsors" in Spradley's (1980) terms. The researcher's involvement in the initial studies leading to the development of the program was an "asset" regarding access to the field (Wong, 1985b).
Selection of Informants

Three couples were selected from the volunteers for more intensive study. This selection was based on three major dimensions along with sampling within cases: time, people, and context (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1983). As it was not feasible to follow the language and business development of the informants over time prior to the program, a different criterion was adopted. The first couple, C1 and C2, were new to the country, had limited English proficiency, and had business experience in Asia but were unfamiliar with the local business world. They had a lot to learn. The second couple, N1 and N2, had business experiences in both North and South America, were fluent but inaccurate in their oral skills, and were desperate for "breakthroughs" in their business practices. They were outspoken and were eager to communicate. The third couple, T1 and T2, had been in the country for over eighteen years. They were professionals who had just started to venture into entrepreneurship with little business experience but advanced English skills. The nature of the business provided three different contexts for observation. C1 and C2 were bakers; N1 and N2 owned a flower and gift shop; T1 and T2 operated an import/export business with an office and show-room set-up. The first two businesses required few written skills but demanded many customer services. The third business was far more sophisticated in both language use and business transactions. Most of the possible variations of time, people and context were included in the selection of the three couples.
Role of the Researcher

As the key researcher, I was the observer and attended all sessions where data were collected. One research assistant assisted me with video-taping while I observed and took field notes. I interviewed the students and the teachers, collected documents from the field, visited business sites, transcribed the video and audio tapes and finally analyzed them. A second research assistant assisted me with the transcription of Cantonese texts. All three of us were fully bilingual in English and Cantonese. I was not a stranger to the program and its set-ups since I had conducted a pilot study before the present full scale ten-month investigation began. The camera crew was there, in the classrooms and seminar rooms, from day one. We became part of the natural scene. Data from the business operations were collected by observation and interviews only. With as little disturbance to the natural scene as possible, I sat or stood quietly at the business sites (i.e., the bakery, the flower and gift shop and the import/export company) and became one of the customers in the informal observations. However, I had to reveal my identity when I had to get permission from the "other" customers to tape their speech in service encounters. Where audio recording was not possible, I slipped back to a customer's role. The owners, of course, were fully aware of my existence and my purpose in the shop.

Time was taken to establish rapport between the business owners and myself. Since confidentiality was assured regarding all information about their businesses, the business owners felt
comfortable being observed and interviewed by me. It took a while for the instructors to get used to being observed and video-taped by me as a colleague. However, they said that they felt less uneasy when they found me non-threatening in my role as a researcher. For me, the field experience was exciting, pleasant and enjoyable for most of the time. At times, I was overwhelmed by the richness of the data revealed in the field.

Validity and Reliability

A significant issue in the present investigation was the control of validity and reliability of the findings. The internal validity in the study was strong because of the fact that the data collected spoke truthfully as it reported the discourse 'here and now'. For instance, the video tapes, supplemented with field notes, provided accuracy and rich details of the data. What we discovered was "genuine" and "first-hand". For external validity, thirty two entrepreneurs from eighteen businesses were observed in general and three couples were studied in particular so that a pattern could be generalised to a certain extent.

For reliability, the measures were repeated. Ten percent of the sample data were coded by a second coder and the inter-coder agreement was 94%. The differences between the two coders, the researcher and a trained assistant, were discussed and a final agreement was reached. Transcriptions, both English and Cantonese, were checked twice for accuracy. The bilingual data for the second part of the study was compared and cross-checked for any
discrepancies. The differences were minimal.

Following the recommendations of Dean and Whyte (1958), Hammersley and Atkinson (1983) and Spradley (1980), interviews were conducted with the informants to validate (or disprove) observations made in the classes or at the business sites. The informants' reports were also checked regarding their "implausibility", the reliability of the informant, and his or her mental state, and were cross-checked against other information from the field. In other words, what was observed was confirmed or disproved by the interview while at the same time data collected from observation was used to counter-check what had been said. By so doing, the reliability of the interview data as well as the observation were secured.

Like any other research tradition, observation methodology should and can meet requirements for scientific standards such as "objectivity" as long as the researcher "remains open and unprejudiced in apprehending and reporting about their (the subjects') way of life" (Bruyn, 1963, p. 231). This was the position the present study has assumed.

What has been discussed above are the principles and the rationale behind the investigation. What follows are the details of the investigation.
Context of the Study (The Setting)

This study was conducted in a western province in Canada, where recent immigration policy has resulted in a growing number of immigrant entrepreneurs. The educational needs of these immigrant entrepreneurs are different from other adult English as a Second Language (ESL) learners. On the one hand, they require information about doing business in Canada. On the other hand, they need the English for operating their businesses (Wong, 1985b). For many of them, their language proficiency does not match with the subject requirement in a regular business management training program, which usually requires a grade twelve level of English or its equivalent. The subject matter may be beyond immigrant entrepreneurs' level of understanding in English, and the knowledge of business management required for their jobs might be extremely advanced. In response to these special educational demands, an alternative to the regular business and ESL programs was suggested by a group of small business educators and an innovative pilot project was initiated in one of the community colleges. It was a bilingual small business program with an EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) component. The objective of this program was "to provide training, developmental and informational services, on an on-going basis, to owners and managers of the small business community" (program pamphlet, 1988). A small business is defined as "a business hiring fewer than one hundred employees and operating with a capital of under two million dollars" by government agents.
Figure 3.1 illustrates the program. There are three components: the management class, the language class and the on-site sessions at the business site. The management class is further divided into two areas: (1) a series of seminars led by bilingual professionals in the field (e.g., accountants, bankers and lawyers); and (2) a series of workshops led by a bilingual small business consultant who also acts as an advisor/coach. During the on-site sessions, the advisor/coach actually goes into individual business sites, sits down with the owners, and reviews with them the seminar/workshop materials and their performance in the past month. The language class is divided into two groups: a high level group taught by an English speaker; and a low level group taught by a bilingual instructor who is also a retail shop owner.

This bilingual small business program consisted of L1 small business seminars and workshops (fifteen 4-hour sessions, meeting
weekly or bi-weekly), bilingual ESP classes (forty hours in ten to thirteen sessions, meeting weekly with breaks in between) and on-site visits conducted by bilingual advisors (ten 2-hour sessions, meeting monthly). The training program was structured so that there was a seminar followed by a workshop. Then there were ESP classes clustered towards the end of the program. The first language of these entrepreneurs was Cantonese and the second language was English. There were thirty-two participants from eighteen different businesses, most of which were service-oriented in nature. The setting selected for the present study included the business-sites and the classrooms, where learning situations (tasks) and business situations (tasks) were available for observation. For the scope of the present investigation, three businesses were used as cases for detailed study. Permission to have access to the classes and firms was granted by the educational institute, the instructors and the business owners (the participants). A letter, in Chinese, was sent to the group, explaining the purposes of the study and asking volunteers for participation. A consent form was then sent to those who agreed to participate (see Appendix II). The participants were assured of confidentiality. (All data collected will be destroyed as soon as the investigation is completed). For reporting purposes, name codes are used instead of the participants' or their companies' actual names.
Research Procedure

To test the feasibility of the research methods, a pilot study was first conducted on a much smaller scale. One case was studied for a shorter period of time. The subject was observed in his classes and on his business sites. He was also interviewed. Data seemed to indicate that there was a pattern in the functions of the discourse and there was a relationship between bilingual code-switching and the functional variation in discourse. However, some difficulties were encountered, such as getting the consent of the instructors to be observed and helping the participants adapt to the presence of a camera in the classroom or seminar room for video-taping. These two problems were later solved in the present study. To solve the first problem, the instructors were again assured of the confidentiality of the data collected and the potential contribution of the findings to future research. The second problem was solved by incorporating the camera into the research environment as a "component" of the natural scene from day one of the program. After permission was formally granted by the educational institute, the instructors, and the participants in the program, data collection commenced. The research crew was made up of the researcher and a research assistant.
The Subjects

Volunteers in the bilingual business and language programs were observed as a group performing their general classroom tasks. Despite the fact that there were eighteen different types of businesses represented in the class, the group was homogenous in that they were mostly retailers or their businesses were of a service-oriented nature. However, it was impossible to observe all thirty-two participants at their business sites; therefore, three couples from the volunteers were studied more intensively. The participants for this program were usually enrolled in couples as both spouses were involved in the operation of the business. It was anticipated that the study of couples would reflect individual differences under the same work and study environments. Among the volunteers, two couples were selected from the Limited English Proficiency (LEP) group, one of which had been in the country for a long period of time and one of which had newly arrived in Canada. A third couple was selected from the advanced language group, a couple with limited experience in business operations. The focus of this study was on the LEP couples. The third case was studied as a contrast to or comparison with the others to explain diversities in the findings. A summary of their backgrounds is given in Appendix III.

Data Collection

The bulk of the data was used for the first part of the study
(i.e., the description of the functional variation of discourse). The second part of the study (the code-switching analysis) was conducted mainly in the bilingual ESP classes, where most of the bilingual code-switching utterances occurred. Data from the advanced ESP class were not used to address research question two since there was very little (close to nil) bilingual code-switching going on.

Observation of L1 Content Classes

The L1 content classes included business seminars and workshops, conducted by the advisor/coach and other experts in different areas of management, e.g. lawyers, bankers and accountants, who were guest speakers. With prior consent from the students and the instructors or speakers, these sessions were video-taped. The focus of observation was on the student activities and the information presented. Field notes were made by the observer as references.

Observation of ESP Classes

Both the bilingual and the advanced ESP classes were videotaped and observed. The focus of the observation was on the participants as a group and on the case-study informants as individuals. Field notes were made in both Chinese and English. Where sessions were simultaneously held, the advanced level group was observed and video-taped by a trained research assistant and the low level group was observed and video-taped by the researcher.
Observation on the Job

Observation at the business sites was arranged directly with the six informants. An informal observation was conducted first in order to collect general information about the business setting. A second and more formal visit at a later date then focused on activities of interest to the researcher. Only brief field notes were made on the spot so as to avoid unnecessary disturbance to the scene. The details were completed off the site but immediately following the observation. The focus of the observation was on the use of English during service encounters and other managerial tasks. With approval from the informants and their customers, some samples of the service encounter were audio-taped. There was a possibility that the naturalness of the interactions might be distorted because of the presence of the tape-recorder. However, the data collected did not seem to show any evidence of such distortion. (For sample field notes, see Appendix IV).

Scheduling of the Observations and Sample Size

The program was seven months long. The informal observations were scheduled in the first month of the program. The formal observations were scheduled regularly during the subsequent six months. There were two formal observations scheduled for each of the classes at the beginning, the middle and the end of the program, totalling eight sessions of seminars (67%) and 5 sessions of workshops (50%). Eight of the ten EOP classes (80%) were observed. There were three visits (including three interviews) for
each of the three cases at the business sites.

**Interviews in L1**

Data collected at the observations were checked during interviews with the informants. A half-hour interview was conducted after each observation at the business site privately at a time convenient to the informants (e.g., after the stores were closed for the day). With permission from the informants, these interviews were audio-taped. At the beginning of the interviews, confidentiality of the informants' identity and the data collected was again assured. The interview was conducted in Cantonese so that a more in-depth discussion could be conducted. In the present study, for analysis and presentation purposes, the audio-tapes were first transcribed in Chinese and then translated into English.

**Documents (On-site Visit Reports and Seminar Outlines)**

As part of the program, on-site one-on-one visits were conducted by the informants' advisor/coach, who was also bilingual (Cantonese and English). These visits were usually used to review information presented in the seminars and workshops and to discuss their application to the participants' businesses. The details of these meetings were recorded by the advisor on "on-site visit reports", which became a data source, as not all on-site sessions were available for observation. Other documents included the seminar and workshop outlines which were used to supplement the sessions video-taped or audio-taped. Class notes or hand-outs
collected from the EOP classes were available for reference as well.

**Transcription**

Firstly, a map was made of all the data collected, including interviews, classroom discourse, and observations. The tapes were surveyed by listening to them. For the EOP class materials, a twenty-minute segment of each class was transcribed. Illustrative samples were collected from materials from seminars, workshops, interviews and the business sites. These samples of audio-tapes, video-tapes or interviews were transcribed in both Chinese and English. Utterances in Cantonese were transcribed with Wong's (1938) system "A Chinese Syllabary According to the Dialect of Canton" and presented with the Yale Romanization System. The meanings of the utterances are included in < > parenthesis. Before the English translation was made, the Cantonese transcription was checked by a native speaker of Cantonese with extensive research experience in Cantonese phonological studies. After the English translation, a second check was conducted to ensure accuracy in the interpretation of the Cantonese data.

**Analysis**

The analyses were based on the data collected from observations, interviews and documents i.e. in the audio-tapes, video-tapes, field notes, field diary, interview notes and documents. The appropriateness of categories for coding emerged as
patterns of regularities were detected. The data were then coded accordingly. Ten percent of the coded data was checked by a separate trained researcher. The inter-coder agreement was 94%. The data was then analyzed qualitatively for the first part of the study and quantitatively for the second part of the study. The "quantitative variation in language" approach (Rousseau and Sankoff, 1978) was used in the second part of the study. Two by Two (2x2) contingency tables were constructed and chi-square tests for each of the combinations of factors were computed (i.e., a global two-way analysis was completed). To investigate whether there was a three-way interaction, the log-linear model was then used.

Presentation of Findings

Since there are two parts to this study, the findings will also be presented in two separate chapters: the Functional Variation of Discourse; and the Roles of the First and the Second Language. The former part will address research question number one: What is the functional variation of discourse in the educational program for immigrant entrepreneurs (i.e., the management classes, the language classes and their attendant operational tasks)? The latter part will address research question number two: In light of the functional variations described in Question One, what are the roles of the first language (i.e., Cantonese) and the second language (i.e., English) as seen in the low level EOP classes?
Chapter Four
Results of the Investigation: Part One
The Functional Variation of Discourse

The Analysis

This chapter presents the findings of the first part of the study (i.e., the functional variation of discourse of thirty-two immigrant entrepreneurs learning linguistic and managerial skills in English and Cantonese). It is an investigation of the relations between activity, task, and discourse in the educational program and the operation of small businesses. An important focus of this bilingual program was for students to relate management and linguistic knowledge to their business operations (i.e., to relate management and language "theory" to business "practice"). This case raises problematic questions for both LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) research and bilingual code-switching research. These questions will be addressed separately in two parts of the study. Part One of the study analyzes the program and business operation from both the Language for Specific Purposes perspective and the Language Socialization perspective. Part Two of the study, which explores the relation of this analysis to Bilingual Code-switching, will be presented in the next chapter.

Specifically, the purpose of the analysis is to compare the Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) approach with the Language
Socialization approach by describing

(i) the functional variation of discourse in the program,

(ii) the relation between the program and the business practice and

(iii) the relation between the learning of language and the learning of content.

The aim of this chapter is to present a holistic view of the program as a complex activity. The term "activity" is used in a technical sense. The microcosm of all the elements that make up the full education program will be presented and then analyzed in detail. In other words, the analysis will show an ecology of tasks and discourses.

From a theoretical standpoint, this part of the study will present a case for viewing the program as an activity, followed by a development of the inter-relations between different discourses. This view will then be contrasted with the Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) view.

**The Rationale**

*The Language Socialization and Activity Model of Analysis* (Mohan, 1986; Ochs, 1988)

A general overview of the program reveals that the Language Socialization perspective is a possible perspective to apply to the small business program. Language Socialization (Ochs, 1988) is a
view of learning which regards learning language and learning subject matter or culture as a process occurring simultaneously. (For a detailed description of the theory, see Chapter Two: A Selective Review of Literature.)

Figure 4.1. Language Socialization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sociocult. Knowledge</th>
<th>Language Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theory</td>
<td>Practice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.1 summarises the language socialization theory discussed above. In the Language Socialization Activity approach, activity is theory and practice (Mohan, 1986). An activity blends language knowledge and sociocultural knowledge (Ochs, 1988). These two elements form the background knowledge that applies to the activity. The situation/activity enacts the background knowledge (Mohan, 1986).

A closer look at the conceptual picture of the activity theory and the small business program in the present study (as shown in Figure 4.2 next page) reveals resemblances between the two in various areas: (i) the theory/practice box matches up with the operation of the small business; (ii) the sociocultural knowledge side parallels the management class; and (iii) the language knowledge side parallels the language class.
Small Business as a Social Activity or Practice

In her exploration of the complex interaction of socialization and language acquisition in a Samoan village, Ochs (1988) discovered that these two processes took place at the same time. The language and content learning situation of the immigrant entrepreneurs in the present study seems to resemble that of the native children of the Samoan village in several ways. As the ethnic business owners are learning to become competent members of the Canadian business community, so also are they learning to become competent speakers of the language for business. In other words, learning the Canadian business culture and learning the language for conducting business in Canada take place at the same time.

Using Language Socialization as a theoretical point of view, in the investigation of discourse in interaction, it will, therefore, seem natural to study learning language and learning about the world at the same time. How one forms the natural context
of the other becomes a significant focus of observation. In Halliday's terms (1975), this is a study of "learning language" and "learning through language" concurrently.

Language Socialization illuminates the mutual learning of language and subject (i.e., the content) in the present study. More specifically, the learners in the program are not only learning language, they are learning business management and learning about Canadian small businesses simultaneously. In language learning, they are not simply learning sentences or grammar but are learning how to participate in social practices or activities. In this example, the learners in the program are learning how to participate fully and skilfully in businesses, in a context which is obviously different from the business culture of Hong Kong, from where they originally migrated. Therefore, the program is initiating them further into Canadian business practices, social practices with specific culture-bound values.

A significant aspect in the Language Socialization Model is the notion of an "activity". An example of an activity would be running a business, whereas particular kinds of businesses such as import/export firms or bakeries would be particular types of activities. The learners in a business management program are learning to participate in an "activity", to become part of a community of enquirers or a community of practitioners. They are not only learning business theories; they are simultaneously operating their own businesses. They are hoping to improve their "practices" in light of these "theories". This is experiential
learning. The entrepreneurs are learning by operating their own businesses in a real workplace environment. This notion of "learning" and "learning through doing" is a contrast to the point of view of education which tends to view content learning and language learning separately, the former being considered only as learning separate skills or individual facts and the latter as "linguistic correctness". It is, therefore, more holistic to study educational events and investigate what social practices are actually being learned. Managing and learning about small businesses as a social practice then becomes an appropriate setting for this type of research to begin.

Tasks and Genre in LSP Analysis

The program can also be viewed from the LSP perspective. With reference to Long's definition of "learning tasks and target tasks" (Long 1985), the learning tasks of immigrant entrepreneurs are linguistic and managerial skills for small businesses. Their target tasks are tasks required for business practices. The focus of the program is to relate their learning tasks to their target tasks.

Therefore, the language class, which can be seen as an English for Occupational Purposes class, highlights certain learning tasks which are relatable to the target tasks of the small business such as service encounters. As mentioned earlier, that is the intent of LSP Theory as outlined by Swales (1985, 1990). However, Swales' approach does not actually suggest in what ways learning tasks might be functionally related to genres. One approach may be to
observe, in a program, some of the ways in which that relation is being worked on. Figure 4.3 illustrates how an LSP Analysis might appear in relation to the program the present study is investigating.

Figure 4.3. Genre and Task in Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) Analysis

To summarise the issue on LSP analysis: the language class includes learning tasks; the business includes the genre of service encounter; but Swales (1990) gives no clear indications of how the tasks might relate to the service encounter.

Conclusion to this Section

To conclude, the Language Socialization/Activity Theory, as demonstrated above and illustrated by Figure 4.2, provides a possible basis for an overview or a holistic view of (i) the various elements of the education program and the small business operations; and (ii) their relation to one another. Therefore, the use of this model as a basis for the analysis of functional variation of discourse will be explored.
Results of the Analysis of Discourse

Service Encounter and the EOP Class

The last section suggested that the LSP approach has so far done little to illuminate the relation between genre and task. The service encounter and the task in the language class have been used as examples in the discussion. These discourses are two distinct genres unrelated in the LSP theory. The next step is to propose an alternative approach using the Language Socialization/Activity view as the theoretical basis of analysis.

The purpose of the investigation in the present section then is two-fold. Firstly, based on the Language Socialization/Activity Approach, it presents an analysis of actual data in service encounters collected from the business site and samples of tasks recorded from the EOP language class. Secondly, it evaluates the appropriateness of the model in defining the functional variation of discourse in the program under study. Figure 4.4 shows conceptually where service encounters in the business practice and tasks in the language class are initiated in the research context.

The analysis starts with the service encounter itself which is an example of discourse practice as in Figure 4.4.
Service Encounter Text. Text (1) was collected at the bakery (C2's shop). C2 was the owner. "A" was the customer, a Chinese Canadian who did not speak Chinese.

Text 1

C2: Hi!
A: Do you have any chāsiū bāau (barbecue pork bun)?
C2: How many do you want?
A: Four.
C2: Four for GST. Six you don't pay GST.
A: Give me six then.
C2: Six the same, OK?
A: Same?
C2: They are same price.
A: And ... What other bāau (bun) do you have? Galēi bāau (Curry bun)?
C2: Yes.
A: Yes, can I take that?
C2: Six each?
A: Six chāsiū (barbecue pork), and ....
C2: Chāsiū (barbecue pork), right? (put buns in a paper box.)
A: Four you pay GST. Six you don't pay GST?
C2: Yes.

Text (1) is the initial part of a service encounter. (For the complete text, see Appendix V). Service encounters have been the
focus of various studies (e.g., Churchill & Grey, 1974; Halliday and Hasan, 1980; Hasan, 1979; Merritt, 1976; Ventola, 1987). Ventola's analysis (1987), for example, discussed the "sequence" and "elements" from the perspective of a linguist viewing the service encounter as a "genre". According to Ventola's definition, Text (1) has the elements of a service encounter. There is a sequence of functional elements: the Greeting (Hi), the Sale Request (Do you have any chāsiu bāau <barbecue bun>?), the handing over of the goods (e.g., put buns in a paper box) etc. The purpose of the present study is not to debate over "obligatory" and "optional" elements and their sequencing, as Ventola has attempted in much greater detail, or to assess the different terms used by different linguists. However, the present question is: What is the functional relation between this discourse of service encounter and the tasks in the language class?

Tasks in the Language Class (EOP)

Data were collected by observing tasks being performed in the EOP language class. There are several notions emerging from the observation: the notion of examples of service encounter; simulation of service encounters (i.e., learners enacting or role-playing service encounter, and examples being scaffolded). The instructor is helping the learners to work through cases of service encounters, helping them to see the relation between customer service theory and service encounter practice and work on those connections in the form of role-playing and discussions.
Enacting (Role-playing) service encounter (Scaffolding examples of service encounter). In the following text, the students are discussing a customer complaint: the sofa she bought was not delivered to her although she has already phoned three times. She wants her money back. PT is the instructor. The rest are students. They have had some aural and oral practice in the speech laboratory. They are now discussing the situation as well as the language.

Text 2

JL: I will find out why the sofa was not delivered. Maybe, she's not home or maybe our men left a card and somebody took it ... We have to dig deep into the problem.
PT: So, would you show her all the sofas again or ... ?
JL: She knows the sofa is a good buy.
LC: (acting as the customer) Of course, I know the sofa is good. Otherwise I won't buy it.
PT: (to JL) What's your argument?
JL: (to LC) That's why I say, 'You have the best buy'. You know our product because our product is the best. You've come to the right place. You've so smart. We deserve a second chance.
LC: But I've already phoned three times.
JL: I'm terribly sorry but I will personally guarantee this time.
Ti: This time, as the manager, I will personally deliver it myself.
LC: Right now?
JL: Within half an hour and I'll throw something else in as a compensation.
LC: O.K. (The class laughed)
JL: (to the instructor) Right now, we have turned it around. At least she accepted certain things: half an hour.

It is worthwhile pointing out that a fair amount of research work has looked at scaffolding in teacher-student interactions but
a lot of the earlier work on scaffolding involved the teacher putting the learners through fixed steps (e.g., Faerch, 1985). What seems to be happening here is much more of an open discussion that includes: an opening up of what goes into the service encounter; what some of the strategies are; what some of the decision points are; and what some of the deliberations that operate behind it are.

The listening task in the speech laboratory opens up an issue for discussion. JL, the business owner, views the customer complaint as a sign of management problems in the company but still wants to win the customer back. The instructor, PT, then challenges him with his next logical move by saying, "So, would you show her all the sofas again or ...?" JL replies by simply stating that the customer knows the sofa is a good buy. It is at this point that LC, acting as the customer filing the complaint, goes back into the simulation of the service encounter by saying, "Of course, I know the sofa is good. Otherwise I won't buy it." Before JL relies, the instructor gets into the discussion about the situation again by asking JL, "What is your argument?" Instead of continuing with the discussion, JL moves right back into the role-playing by beginning to address LC, the customer directly, "You know our product because..." From this point onward until LC finally agrees to JL's suggestion for a solution, the participants are simulating the handling of the customer complaint, which is an "after-sale" service, a type of service encounter which is more complex than the regular "over-the-counter" talk. LC's remark "O.K." ends the enactment. Within the simulation, T1, assuming the role of the
manager, joins in the conversation and personally guarantees the improvement of the delivery service. JL then steps out of the role as the president of the company with pride and convinces the instructor of the merits of his performance in his role by concluding: "Right now, we have turned it around. At least she accepts certain things: half an hour". In other words, he has shifted from a "participant's role" back to an "observer's role" in Spradley's terms (1980). In this advanced class, PT's role as an instructor is to assist the learners in scaffolding the language by simply giving them hints at appropriate decision-making points.

The discourse in Text (2) therefore varies functionally. The discussion of the service encounter seems to serve the function of providing a theoretical interpretation of the "theory" part while the simulation seems to provide a "practice" run-through of the service encounter.

**Discussing the "rules" of service encounters.** There is evidence in the data collected from the EOP language class that part of the discourse corresponds to the "theory" of the service encounter while part of the discourse corresponds to the "practice" of the service encounter in the business operation. (See Figure 4.4. Language socialization analysis: Discourse).

The following text was collected from the Low Level EOP class. CM is the language instructor. She also owns a retail shop. N1 and N2 are students. They are owners of a gift and flower shop. CM is reviewing with the class the six steps of a business deal (service
Text 3

CM.: We have six steps but we have discussed five, right? O.K. six steps. What are the six steps? First one. (M. wrote on the board.) What is the first one? Introduce the offer, right?

N1: Introduce the offer, yeh.
CM: "Introduce the offer" (wrote on the board). Number two nê? <What about number two?>

N2: Number two ...
CM: "Gather information" (wrote on the board). Number one "Introduce the offer" jikhaih ... <that is ...> "Hello, what do you want? Can I help you? We have flowers for sale." Haih mhaih a? <Isn't that so?>

N1: Some specials.

Here, the class is reviewing service encounter rules by stating the first three of the six basic steps: (1) Introducing the offer; (2) Gathering information, (3) Giving incentives, suggestions etc. Language examples are being scaffolded during the discussion of the rules, i.e., introducing the offer: "Can I help you? We have flowers for sale"; gathering information: "What would you like?"; and giving incentives or suggestion: "How about red flowers? How about roses? We have specials". Hence, it is not surprising that one can easily discover some of the similarities between the steps introduced in the language class and the actual service encounter...
text, (i.e., Text 1), that was collected at the baker's shop after the EOP class. In place of the linguist's terms, there is the introduction of the offer or general introduction (line 1): "Hi"; gathering of information (Line 5): "How many do you want?"; Confirmation of the deal (line 15): "Cha-siu" (barbecue pork, right; and giving of incentives (line 16): "Four you pay GST. Six you don't pay GST" etc.

After analyzing Texts (1) to (3), the functional relation between "class talk about the service encounter" and the actual "Service Encounter" is now clearer. The learners are both practising service encounters and discussing the "rules" of service encounters. With the perspective of the Language Socialization/Activity approach, role-playing in the class relates to the practice of the service encounter (S.E. in Figure 4.5) and the discussing of rules relates to the theory of service encounter as illustrated by Figure 4.5.

![Figure 4.5. Relation between EOP class and Service Encounter](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DISCUSS RULES OF SERVICE ENCOUNTER</th>
<th>THEORY OF S.E.s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ROLEPLAY SERVICE ENCOUNTER</td>
<td>DOING AN S.E.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary of the Section

To conclude this section, Figure 4.4 illustrates the main findings resulting from an analysis of discourse in the language class and in the business practice. In the service encounter, for example, there are instances of customer-server interactions as
well as a background understanding of service encounter rules. In the EOP language class, there seem to be parallel elements to the theory/practice relation. Specifically, there is a discussion of rules and a scaffolding of examples. It would be an overgeneralized conclusion to claim that this is a simple rule for all. What this portion of the study has explored is the link between learning task and genre, and the relationship between the language class and the actual operation of the business. The examples and the rules illustrate a possible range of patterns in which the language class relates to the service encounter. While the LSP analysis gives no suggestion as to the genre/learning task relation, the evidence in this study suggests that the relationship between genre and learning tasks is illustrated by the Language Socialization perspective.

Business Management Analysis

The purpose of this section is to analyze the discourse in the management class of the program and the actual operation of the business. While the LSP approach is silent regarding the relation between the management class and the business operation, the Language Socialization perspective suggests that this may be helpfully seen as theory/practice relation. Data in this part of the study seems to indicate that the variation in patterning which has been exhibited between the language class and the service encounter may also arise between the management class and the
operation of the business. The first phenomenon worth mentioning is the general broad relation between the management class where the theory is being studied and the business operation where practice of management principles takes place. Essentially, evidence indicates that there is dynamic interplay between the topics in the management class and the business operations - a relation between theory and practice in Mohan's terms (1986) or a relationship between sociocultural knowledge and activity as stated by Ochs (1988). This relationship is illustrated by Figure 4.6.

**Figure 4.6. Language socialisation analysis: Management and Classes**

Management Classes and Business Practices

In this sub-section, a topic will be identified in the management classes. This topic will then be located in an observed business practice. In the present example, the topic identified will be marketing. The "practice" will be advertising as part of the sales transaction. Data collected from both management classes and business sites will be analyzed. This analysis of the discourse
in a seminar and at the actual business site aims at revealing the relation between the theory in the academic discourse and the practice in the business transaction.

The following is an extract from a three-hour seminar on the topic "Selling and Sales Staff Training". YF, a marketing consultant, is the seminar leader. After reviewing the stages of buying, he proceeds to the identification of markets and the analysis of customer profiles. The original text is in Cantonese. This is the English version with the original words in English underlined.

**Seminar Text**

YF: Now let's come to the selling side. The most important thing in advertising, like what CY has just reviewed, is to have a target. In Marketing, there are two targets... The most important is the primary target, your central target. For instance, for MX Restaurant (addressed to LC, the owner), you also run a bakery. What kind of people are your target? Chinese or Canadians? Does MX Restaurant aim at Chinese customers?

LC: Yes.

YF: Alright, Chinese. Middle-aged people or young people? What age are most of your customers?

LC: Middle age.

YF: Middle age. And that means those who are married with children. Single people only buy one or two pieces. They won't give you big volume of business. Central target. As for K's Market (addressed to KW and NL), you are on G. Island. Among fruit buyers, have you found them mostly Chinese or other Canadians?

KW: Other Canadians.

YF: Other Canadians. ... Most Canadians need to
purchase fruit. (To KW) On G. Island, are they young people or old people?

KW: Young people.

YF: Mostly young people. They are single. Even if they are married, they do not have kids. This group is your central target...

YF goes on discussing the market trend in health awareness and quotes a personal case. He has been advised by his doctor to watch out for his diet and "health". Y. writes this term on the flip-chart. The diet trend is in "low cal" and "low choles.". Y. adds these terms to the flip-chart. There is also a trend in the awareness of environmental concerns (e.g., the ozone area). This trend has led on to marketing strategies in superstores (e.g., green products). The meaning of "green" is that these products are "environment friendly". Such products include those which are "biodegradable", with less plastic and with little or no phosphate. Y. explains these terms in Cantonese and explains the policies of GVRD (Greater Vancouver Regional Districts) in "recycling" and the use of "blue boxes". He then concludes that to follow the market trend is to be aware of health concerns in food and environmental concerns in other consumable products.

There are two clear important messages in the extract of the seminar: firstly, the need to identify the market; and secondly, the significance of "being aware of health concerns" in marketing and sales.
The relation between management topics and business operations. In this sub-section, the theme of "marketing" is examined as it appears in the reflections of the previous topic in business practices in an actual business case, particularly a baker and his wife who are operating and managing a bakery. In other words, the evidence is based on the baker and his wife who are owner-operators. Data collected from interviews and observations will be used. These two informants had lived in Canada for only six months at the time of the data collection.

The couple's designing and putting up of signs was one example of further arrangements of tasks in relation to the marketing strategies and was a result of practising what they had learned from the marketing and selling seminar. They had told their customers that their products were "wholesome" foods. The idea of "health awareness" worked well in his business. After the sign "All bread and pastries contain no preservatives" had been put up, sales increased. The customers were also assured that the products were lard free. When their customers still showed some doubts, the owners showed them the ingredients they were using and said, "Our products are lard-free. Please look at these boxes. The label says 'vegetable oil'."

In addition to the above examples, the baker and his wife performed a series of other tasks in relation to the seminar material. This part of the data was revealed by the on-site reports which outlined their business management practices. Data indicated that they analyzed the regional competition, discussed the essence
of small business marketing with the advisor and established positive images. Consequently, they designed and put up promotional signs. After further analyzing the customer profile, they started to develop methods of introducing new products.

Examples of tasks covering the Management Topic "Personnel Management" include the following: finalizing the decision to run only one business without expanding due to the lack of trustworthy help; reviewing potential problems because of a lack of staff in both the baking and selling areas; employing one part-time baker as suggested by the advisor; and finally solving the problem temporarily by having C1 help with the selling at times. An example of a task related to the management topic "Strategic Planning" is the reviewing of company performance, especially the reviewing of company sales volume, which showed a forty percent increase after the baker and his wife joined the course.

The above analysis reveals that there is a dynamic interplay between the business operations and business management topics such as "Sales and Marketing", "Personnel Management" and "Strategic Planning". There is a dynamic interplay between "theory" in the management classes and "practice" at the business sites.

This relationship resembles that of the Language EOP class and the service encounter in the business practice, in that the rules are discussed in the classes and the examples are identified in the business operations. The particular actions the business owners take as part of their business practices give specific cases drawing on general principles, which have been discussed either in
the seminars or in the language classes.

The Relationship between the Seminar and the Workshop

The previous section discussed the relation between management classes in general and business practices. This section will now examine some relationships between the seminars and the workshops. Figure 4.5 further illustrates that there are two types of management classes in the program. There is a series of seminars and there is a series of workshops. The present question is about the relationship between the two. There are general indications from the data that the seminars are related to the theory of business and the workshops are related to the practice of business.

The seminar text. The following is a summary of the seminar on the management topic "How to Make Your Advertising Make Money". JP is the seminar leader. He is also an advertisement designer and marketer. The original script is in Cantonese. This is the English version. However, all his hand-outs and outlines are in English. The original words in English are underlined in the text.

JP: You may be surprised now if I say to you that in fact, small businesses don't need to advertise. But by the end of this seminar, I hope you will begin to understand what I really mean. (He then introduces the topic by defining [promotion].) Promotion consists of five areas. They are: advertising, personal sales, sales promotion, personal sales, sales promotion, public relations and publicity. Personal sales include telephone manners and after-sales service or product. ... Promotion is only one part of marketing, which includes the three P's: Product, Place, and Price.

He lists four basic decisions when the owner/operator decides to
advertise, namely the target market, the media, the budget and schedule and the creation of the advertisement itself: format, copy, offer. After going over the elements of media planning, he spends a considerable time on "rules to make your ads believable". This is what he suggests:

**JP:** (Reads from his hand-outs) "Use a testimonial in your headline." If you have a customer who has used your product before, include in your headline a sentence from what his comment about your product. People will believe more in what he says than what you say.

Regarding the proper length of an ad, he offers the following suggestion:

**JP:** How long should an ad be? My answer is, "Long enough to hold the self-interest of the readers." The length is not important. As long as it is appealing to the readers' self-interest, it's O.K. ...

... (goes on reading from his hand-outs) "The other important thing to remember is that every advertisement should be a complete sales talk." Don't forget you're selling a fridge at Hudson Bay. You don't just stop talking to your customer after saying five sentences. You don't expect him to come back the next week and let you finish the other half of your presentation, right? As a salesperson, you won't do this, neither should you in your advertising. Chances are: he may not read part two of your ad in another day. ...

Here are his final remarks:

**JP:** Let me go back to my statement in the beginning of to-night's session. I have said that small businesses need not advertise. What seems to be more important is to be able to assess your present situation before you decide if you really need to advertise. It is only then that the "how to" would make any sense to you.

The material presented in the seminar is further discussed by the
group and their advisor in a separate form of a business class: the follow-up workshop.

Will any relationship be established between the seminar and the workshop? Before this issue can be addressed, an analysis of the workshop discourse is necessary.

The workshop text. In the management program, a workshop is usually scheduled between every two seminars, more for staffing reasons than on purely educational grounds. The following text was collected by video-taping one of these workshop sessions. PH is the advisor/coach, a consultant who acts as the facilitator of the workshop and a tutor at the business site. The original script is in Cantonese. For the convenience of the readers, the English version is presented here.

Text 4: The Workshop text

PH: The purpose of our workshop is to review the seminar on "Advertising". Why did JP (the seminar leader) say that small businesses didn't need to advertise? What do you think? How do you do advertising in your business? ... RY, you're new. You're just starting a new business. How would you like to do your ad.?

RY: I'm in the garment business. Here, it's unusual because it's seasonal. People only buy when goods are on sale. It's quiet in the malls in other days. They shop on Boxing Day when there's a big sale. So, for my industry, I think advertising is not very important.

PH: ... How about you, JL?

JL: I have two lines, fluffy dolls and mink coats. If I need to advertise, I'll probably market the fluffy dolls in shows.
PH: Do you think advertising will help your business?

JL: I think so. At least, when they see you, they know you are around. Otherwise, they (the customers) won't come.

PH: How about you KL? You are opening a branch pretty soon.

KL: Promotion for the opening period only. In my case, I will follow the joint marketing direct mail campaign organised by the mall especially when it is low season.

PH: What about others?

EC: Depends on what business. Maybe wholesalers don't need advertising.

KL: No, I don't agree. Wholesalers do marketing too, for example, big ads for Japanese mandarin oranges and new laser discs.

PH: What do you think, wholesalers?

(Participants go on discussing why wholesalers need to market for their new products too.)

What seems to be occurring in the workshop session is that the business owners are discussing the general principles (or theories) presented in the seminar on "Advertising" and they are applying the principles to their actual business experiences. Each business seems to be different from the others with regard to its need for advertising. This can be shown by two cases. The garment factory owner, RY, does not view advertising as important while JL favourably considers marketing his fluffy dolls through business shows as a means of exposure. New businesses like KL's branch will need to advertise. There is also a difference between the advertising needs of retailers and wholesalers.
In the second part of the workshop, the group moves on to discuss designing an advertising campaign for KL's new branch. The purpose of the campaign is to create awareness. The participants in the group come up with different suggestions (e.g., presenting to customers free gifts like baskets to be used as shopping bags, developing public relations with the media to obtain free media coverage, and placing advertisements in community papers). They further refer to the seminar content with regard to using press release as marketing in a non-advertising manner. PH the advisor continues to act as the moderator, summarises the discussion and raises questions. This case study has now become the centre of the tasks. A similar pattern of participant interactions is found in other workshop sessions.

The relationship between the seminar and the workshop is now clearer: the former deals with background knowledge (sociocultural knowledge or theory) while the latter deals with the practice in the small businesses themselves.

From the LSP standpoint, the genre of the management classes is similar to that of the EOP classes and that is generally a combination of "report" and "procedural". An analysis of a chapter in the assigned reading text also seems to indicate that the genre of the text resembles that of a management seminar, which is a component of the management classes, and is again a combination of "report" and "procedural". In both types of texts, there is usually the Title, the Introduction, the General Classification, the Description and the Conclusion. (For a detailed genre analysis
of the sample chapter, see Appendix VI). But while the LSP approach helpfully raises the question of the genre of the management class, it does not raise the question of the discourse relation between the management classes, workshops and business practices; it does not raise the question of how much of the theory in the academic discourse is related to other parts of the program, including the workshops and actual business practices.

Summary of the Findings of the Section

Figure 4.4 and Figure 4.6 mirror each other in the functional variation of discourse. On the language side, in the EOP class, there is discussion of the rules of service encounters, which can be considered as theory discourse, and there is scaffolding of examples, which can be considered as closely related to practice discourse. On the management class side, there is the seminar which studies the theory of business management, and the workshop which works on the discussion and simulation of business practices in the form of case studies. The management seminar/workshop relationship and the language rules/examples appear to be reflections of the theory/practice relationship.

Language Socialization: Business and Discourse

An examination of the total program (Figure 4.7) reveals the parallel relationship between (i) the language classes to the language side of the business, and (ii) the management classes to
the business side of the business. A global view of the whole program leads to the need for a further step -- an examination of the link between the business side of the business and the language side of the business. This link is not generally considered in the LSP approach. LSP analysis tends to take into account only the language side of tasks. For example, it looks only at the language tasks in the class and particularly at that part of the discourse in the business which can be seen as the "genre" of events -- as a genre type. It tends not to look at the content side of the business - the sociocultural side. In addition, it tends to treat the genre, such as the "service encounter" genre, as a matter of discourse only, which may be inadequate. The purpose of this section of the study, therefore, is to concentrate on looking at the link between the business and the language sides in the discourse. In order to do that, the focus of the observation will be particularly on ways that management and business theories discussed on the business side apply to service encounters and are apparent in actual service encounters.

Figure 4.7. Language socialisation: business & discourse.
Application of Management Theory to Service Encounters

Data collected from the on-the-job observations and documents describing the tasks of the business owners on a monthly basis, provide detailed information about the business practices of the entrepreneurs. This evidence indicates that the business owners apply business principles from the management seminars (e.g., tax laws including Goods and Services Tax, pricing, and health awareness in marketing) to their service encounters, and that these principles affect the discourse of service encounters in ways that need to be accounted for by discourse analysis.

The following sub-section is an examination of a topic within the management class and an investigation of its relationship to part of the service encounter. The topic identified is a new tax law introduced to business transactions during the time the data was collected.

Impact of Goods and Services Tax (GST) on Small Business Practices

THEORY in seminar. The management theory introduced in the seminar was on Tax and Tax Planning. C2, the owner of a bakery as well as the server applied her knowledge of the Goods and Services Tax (GST) in two different aspects of her business. Firstly, she related this to her service encounter, as illustrated by Text (5).

PRACTICE in bakery service encounter. The following text is an extract from Text (1). Here, the customer is informed that if he buys six buns, he will not have to pay GST. C2 is the owner and A is the customer, a young man.
Text 5:

1. C2: Hi!
2. A: Do you have any *chāsīu bāau* (barbecue pork bun)?
3. C2: How many do you want?
5. C2: Four for GST. Six you don't pay GST.
6. A: Give me six then.

Line 5 of the text "Four for GST. Six you don't pay GST" serves two purposes. Firstly, C2 refers to a tax law when she explains its application to the situation to the customer. Secondly, she tries to "up-sell" by providing an incentive: if the customers buy more, they will save more. Thus, the basic pattern of the service encounter has naturally expanded to a brief explanation of the taxation issue.

The Prussian writer Clausewitz once suggested that

> fighting is to war what cash payment is to trade, for however rarely it may be necessary for it actually to occur, everything is directed towards it, and eventually it must take place all the same and must be decisive. (quoted in Keegan, 1978, p. 28).

Payment is a central element in a service encounter. Payment in a service encounter is directly related to pricing. The pricing (of bread and pastries, for example) reflects the owner's marketing strategy. The baker and his wife (C1 and C2) once explained to the researcher that there was a slight "quantity discount" if customers bought six or more pieces. Moreover, GST would not apply. Consequently, the sales volume was increased. C1 and C2 were able to benefit from the practice of the new tax law by turning a disadvantage into an advantage.
What has been illustrated then is how the basic pattern of the service encounter discourse expands to incorporate discourse relating to the business operation and the server's selling skills. Viewing service encounters as a restricted rather than an open-ended pattern of discourse would fail to account for what actually happens in the discourse. Management information about business (i.e., business theories) does surface at various points in the service encounter. This fact ultimately has to be dealt with in a broad theory of service encounters. A LSP approach tends to overlook the resources of knowledge which support and sometimes surface in the service encounter. Therefore the relation between business theory discourse and business practice discourse needs to be addressed when giving a description of the program as an activity.

Additional Examples of the Rules Forming the Background Knowledge (Theory) for the Service Encounter

Data collected from the language class, the management class, and the business site reveal that business rules (related to the seminar/workshop material) are being applied in service encounters. In other words, the service encounters draw on business knowledge as well as language knowledge. Hence a pure LSP approach is inadequate for analyzing the service encounter discourse.

One of the business rules which may affect a service encounter is the store policy regarding the cashing of cheques. This specific rule is discussed in the EOP class when CM, the instructor, brings
out the issue of acceptance of cheques and cheque cashing as the customer's payment. This is illustrated by Text (6), collected from the bilingual EOP class. N1 and N2 own a flower and gift shop.

**Text 6**

CM: O.K. Have you ever had a customer coming to you, give you a cheque, or government cheque. Váuh móuh a? Sigwo meih a? <Have you? Have you had it?>

N1: Meih. <No>

CM: Chyúhnbouh důuhaih government cheque? <Are they all government cheques?>

N2: Váuhdí government cheque, family allowance cheque, yáuhdí váuh. <Some government cheques, some family allowance cheques.>

CM: Néih jáau mhjáau chín bái kéuihdeih? <Do you give them change?>

N1: Jáau <change>, daahn viu I.D. <but require I.D.>

N2: Check kéuih ge <his> signature.

CM: Actually, it's cheque cashing. He is not paying you with a personal cheque but another cheque.

N2: Right. I have an idea. Just a cheque. If somebody gave you a company cheque, you don't accept it. If the company cheque, you go to deposit, the bank won't allow it. You must be careful.

It is obvious from the text, that the participants are discussing cheque acceptance and cashing policies. This issue is brought up when they are going over the different steps in a service encounter (a business deal as it is commonly called in the business field). After closing the deal and handing over of the goods and packing, the next step is payment.

Payment by cheque is common in businesses. However, for small firms, the owners are extremely cautious for fear of suffering from losses due to stolen or "bounced" (NSF, non-sufficient funds) cheques. Some stores' company policy is to simply refuse to accept
cheques. According to Canadian business practice, these policies are usually clearly stated, typically in the form of signs posted in the shop. Some sample signs are: "There is a $10.00 charge for each NSF cheque."; "Cash Only"; "No refund on Sales Items"; "All sales final"; "Free delivery with minimum purchase of $25.00"; "We accept credit cards with limitations," etc.

These signs become "information" for potential customers. They are an important element in communication. These rules or "policies" govern the "payment" in a business deal, and are generally revealed in the final step of the service encounter before the courtesy of bidding "farewell".

Summary of this Section

To summarise: the payment step of the service encounter serves to illustrate how business knowledge about taxation, pricing, and cheque cashing can enter into the business transactions. This knowledge may be discussed in the encounter, may be reflected in mandatory signs, and may enter into the decision making of both the customers and the owner-operators.

Corroboration of Data: Flow of Data from Point of Sale

The above analysis has concentrated on the service encounter and its background of theory, because service encounters have been a focus of the previous research literature. But it needs to be said that service encounters are only one part of the operation of
a small business, that there are a number of other small business
transactions which often involve the use of discourse, that the
data collected for this thesis includes evidence of these
transactions and their background of theory, and that these
transactions, like the service encounter, are involved in
theory/practice relations.

Service encounters are essential to retail businesses since
all business transactions are centred around completing the sale.
Hence, the point of sale (P.O.S.) generates a series of language-
related tasks and business related tasks in the business practices.
Figure 4.8 illustrates how data flow from the point of sale and
relate to all the supporting acts surrounding the sale. It is a
graphic representation from a computerized accounting point of
view. It is included to show the major business operations which
can flow from the point of sale and are likely to be relevant in
some form or other to many service encounters. It is not intended
as a precise description of all the small businesses in the present
study, since few had a point-of-sale computer operation. For
example, most of these businesses did not give credit to customers
and therefore did not have "accounts receivable" and the new ones
did not have "accounts payable" if they did not receive credit from
suppliers. Where a computer system was not in use, inventory would
be updated manually and periodically.
Figure 4.8. Flow of Data from Point of Sale

Keyboard

Scanner

POINT OF SALE
COUNTER
P.O.S. S/W

Receipt
Printer

Regular dot
matrix invoice
printer

Bar Code Reader

SALES

GST, PST
COLLECTED

PURCHASE

GST PAID

STOCK-OUT
Update Inventory

SALES - RETURN

PURCHASE REFUND

PURCHASE STOCK-IN

UPDATE INVENTORY

ACCOUNT RECEIVABLE

ACCOUNT PAYABLE

GENERAL LEDGER
Computerising for Small Business is one of the seminar topics in the SBOD (Small Business Owner Development) program. (See Appendix I: Program Pamphlet). However, where a computer system is not in use in the store, all the other related tasks will be manually operated. The data flow process in Figure 4.8 starts with the spoken discourse of service encounters in the shop and finishes with the written discourse of the general ledger in the book.

The following is a description of sample data collected from the present study, which is related to the theories and practices in operating a small business, using the point of sale as a point of reference.

After the service encounters, data are keyed in either through the keyboard, the scanner, or the bar-code reader at the counter. The POS software (s/w) activates a receipt printer or a regular dot matrix invoice printer. A receipt or an invoice is then produced. Language-wise, this generally involves writing tasks which become part of the curriculum in an EOP class. If orders are handled over the phone, the server needs special listening skills. The following are sample recorded messages from the advanced EOP class.

Text 7:

Message 2.1   Time: 12:00   Date: March 20
Barb Gardino of the Better Ware Hardware Store. My telephone number is 771-1211, Extension 422. I will call again. I want to know when I'll be getting my new adding machine.

Message 2.2   Time: 12:15   Date: March 26
Berth Carter of the Big "V" Supermarket. My telephone
number is 882-8444, Extension 515. It's urgent. I need 12 boxes of 1/2 gallon milk cartons, 4 cases of butter, and 4 cases of sour cream.

The first message is a reminder for the delivery of goods, a form of customer complaint. The second message is a phone-in order. Data regarding the handling of customer complaint have already been presented and discussed in the previous sections. This is more related to "after-sale" services. Phone-in orders take the place of service encounters and should be handled with equal care.

After the point of sale, data go to both the sales side and the purchase side of the business. At this point, the operation involves both Revenue Canada (Tax and Excise) and the provincial tax department. GST (Goods and Services Tax) and PST (Provincial Sales Tax) are collected from the customers and then paid to the relative tax departments. Tax laws affecting small business operations are the owners' concerns. These were dealt with in the seminar "Tax and Tax Planning". This concern was revealed in the on-site sessions. C1 and C2 (the bakery owners), for example, spent a considerable amount of time going over tax implications with the advisor/coach (cf. Appendix VII: Operating a bakery as an owner/manager). This topic was also discussed in one of the EOP (Low Level) classes (cf. ESP-9B in Appendix VIII). The impact of the GST on service encounters has been discussed in detail in a different section "Impact of Goods and Services Tax (GST) in Small Business Practices" under the topic "Language socialization analysis: Business Management."
After the sale, two different tasks need to be carried out: the stock should be checked, and the inventory should be updated. If credit is involved, it becomes "accounts receivable". Credit collection is another concern of the business owners. This becomes a "store policy". N1 and N2, for instance, would not accept credit payment in their gift shop. This topic was discussed in one of their EOP classes (cf. Appendix VIII: ESP-6B). Text (8) was collected from that class.

Text 8

CM:  váuhmóuh mátyéh <Do you have any> policies a <or not>?

N2:  ngóhdeih váuh "mhsái check lā, , visa or master (cards); ngóhdeih gódi sínfā no exchange, return lā". <We have, "No checks, visa or master cards; no exchange or return for fresh flowers."

Refunds and returns are also handled at the POS counter. On the sales' side, returns affect the inventory, which needs to be updated. They also affect the accounts receivable, which needs to be debited. Refund, return and payment policies need to be written up and displayed in the store. For a detailed discussion of these store policies, see the section "Additional examples of the rules forming the background knowledge for the service encounter".

On the purchase side, if an item is returned because of manufacturing defects, the owner will have to deal with the suppliers and the accounts payable will be updated. The sales volumes of certain items are good indicators of their acceptability
in the market. Certain items are more popular than others. The selection of items for purchase of stock needs to be market-driven. This decision has to be constantly revised at different points of the business cycle, before sale and after sale. The studying of "the market" and "market trends" is undoubtedly an important topic to cover in any business program. In the present study, these were dealt with in seminars and workshops. In the seminar titled "Marketing in the 90's", the seminar leader described the consumers of the 90's as follows:

1. Their disposable income is up.
2. They require better services.
3. They demand good quality.
4. Their knowledge as consumers is rich.
5. They are sophisticated.
6. They demand warranty of goods and services.
7. Their education standard is up.

This is what he called "consumerism". Other aspects in the theory and practice of marketing have been presented in the section "Management classes and business practices".

All data flowing from the POS are recorded to different entries in the general ledger. The ledger is the basis for the preparation of accounting reports such as "financial statements", "balance sheet" and "Profit/Loss statement". These reports create difficulties even for native speakers of English. This topic was therefore discussed and explained in one of the low level EOP classes (cf. Appendix VIII). The objective of the class was not to arrive at an accountants's level of proficiency. It was hoped that the owners would at least understand what these terms meant when the reports were presented to them by their own accountants. Text
(9) is a sample of the discussion in the class (ESP-9B). CM was the instructor. BB was one of the more experienced business owners.

**Text 9**

CM: sáausín góng néih dī sāangyi, pūhn sou giujouh mātyēh? <First, we will talk about your business. What is the accounting part of it called?>.

BB: Financial Statement.

CM: (writes on board) Financial Statement. jíkhaih "chōihjing bougou syū", bāaukwut dī mātyēh? <It means the report of finance. What does it include?>


(They then went on discussing other terms on the balance sheet. Except for the terms, most of the interaction was in Cantonese.)

I have presented, with the POS graphic, a description of the language-related as well as business-related tasks in the business cycle generated by the service encounters. They are invaluable data collected in the present study. What has not been presented though is the "personnel" aspect, which is equally important. In the program under study, the seminar "Selling and Sales Staff Training" emphasised staff training while the seminar "Personnel Management" stressed the significance of human resources. Effective personnel management involved personal respect, recognition, team work, responsibility, accountability, performance standards, evaluation, appraisal, positive reinforcement, feedback and profit sharing. In the workshop session, CH, a manager of a window frame store, brought up the management problem of conflicts among employees from different ethnic backgrounds (cf. Appendix VIV: Seminar/Workshop
Relation). This led on to discussion on values, expectations, and cultural differences between the "Chinese" way and the Canadian way of management styles.

Some language tasks in the EOP classes were also related to personnel management. For example, after the students had finished role-playing a service encounter, in which the server's attitude was the cause of customer complaint, the class moved on to discuss the "problem" and to recommend solutions. Text (10) illustrates what happened after the role-playing. PT was the instructor.

**Text 10**

PT: What do you think of this employee? What do you think about her?
EW: She's not polite.
T1: She needs training. (Class laughs again.)
PT: She needs training. How do you help her?
T1: Maybe her pay is just below minimum pay.

(The class then started discussing staff management theories, wages, incentives etc. They referred to the workshop and seminar materials on Sales and Staff Training.)

PT: (refers to text) This is step one in customer service: Send a positive attitude to others. Did the employee send a positive attitude? ... If your employee is not happy, then she shows it in her work.

Other related tasks before the service encounter (the POS) include Advertising and Marketing and the hiring of staff. In the low level EOP class (cf. ESP-10B in Appendix VIII), a lot of language was generated when they were involved in the discussion and then in the writing up of job descriptions. The business owners then prepared
an advertisement for the hiring of new staff.

After the sale, there is usually an evaluation of business performance. This is where strategic planning comes in. In the present program, the advisor/coach first presented the theories in the seminar, discussed them with the owners in the workshop and then worked with individual cases at the business sites. (For a description of these tasks, refer to the three cases in Appendix VII.)

Summary of this Section

With the flow of data from the point of sale, before the sale, and after the sale, I have demonstrated the complexity of the tasks involved in both learning about the job and operating the job of an owner/operator in the small business sector. I have also illustrated the richness of the data in the present study and the need for a global perspective for discourse analysis.

Conclusion: (Part One of the Study)

(1) This chapter provides a case study of an integrated content and language learning program for small business entrepreneurs, showing relations of the parts to the whole, relations which appear to be important for the learning processes of the students in the program. It is not clear how an LSP approach would accommodate business knowledge but a Language Socialization approach will naturally accommodate it.
This case study has illustrated a more general language socialisation model which situates language learning in the context of content learning and "real-world" action. The Language Socialization model given in Figure 4.2 has guided the analysis of the data which is summarised in Figure 4.6. The data indicates that the theory/practice dimension of the business as an activity is reflected in the discourse of both the language classes and the business classes.

Compared to the LSP model of genre and language learning tasks, the language socialisation model illuminated the link between the learning of language and content clearly observed in the service encounter. Activity theory pointed to important dynamic theory/practice relations in business operations, in the language program, and in the management program. The theory/practice dynamic appears in contrasts between business rules and business practices, seminar discourse and workshop discourse, EOP class and service encounter discourse, metalanguage and language.

In this language socialization model, activity is a major unit of analysis. Occupational tasks and discourse genres like service encounters are linked to the "action" of the activity. Academic tasks and discourse genres, like seminars, are linked to the "knowledge" of the activity. Activity forms the larger context within which discourse genres and tasks play a systematic role, creating a complex "ecology" which needs to be addressed by future research.
Chapter Five

Results of the Investigation: Part Two

The Functional Roles of L1 and L2 in the EOP class

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the second part of the study. This part of the study investigates the relationship between functional variation of discourse and bilingual code-switching. Specifically, it is an attempt to answer research question two: In the light of the functional discourse variation described in Question (1), what are the roles of the first language (i.e., Cantonese) and the second language (i.e., English)? To address the second research question, this part of the study will

1. report an analysis of a sample lesson with two models relating to "functional variation of discourse": (1) Guthrie (1983) - which looks at speech act functional variation; and (2) Faerch (1985), which focuses on meta-language/language functional variation of discourse;

2. assess both models in relation to the functional variation of discourse and bilingual code-switching; and then

3. apply the Language Socialization model used in the previous chapter.
General Distribution of L1 (Cantonese) and L2 (English) in the Program

A general examination of the data in the various components of the Small Business Owner Development Program reveals broad patterns in bilingual code-switching. What follows is a description of these tendencies.

As illustrated by Figure 5.1, the content classes (i.e., the management seminars and workshops) are mostly conducted in L1 (Cantonese). However, the written discourse (i.e., the texts and outlines) is all in L2 (English). In the language classes, L2 is used in the advanced level class and both L1 and L2 are used in the low level class. At the business sites, L2 (English) is mostly used.
Bilingual Code-switching in the Low Level EOP Class

Observation of the different classes reveals that bilingual code-switching is most obvious and frequent in the low level EOP class. Some questions are: is there a pattern in the code-switching? Is the code-switching related to the functional variation discussed in the previous chapter? In other words, is it related to the activity and the tasks? If so, how? Is the pattern static? These questions will be answered by an analysis of the data collected over time from the low level EOP class.

Models in Analyzing Functional Variation of Discourse and Bilingual Code-switching

Code-switching research makes a distinction between "inter-sentential" and "intra-sentential" code switching, which are rather different phenomena. The present study concentrates on inter-sentential code-switching. Only "inter-sentential" code-switching is counted and the units of counting are utterances. The following is an analysis of a sample lesson with two models relating to functional variation of discourse.

Guthrie (1983)

A sample (Sample CS-1 in Appendix L) from week two of the 10-week EOP Low Level class was analyzed, using Guthrie's (1983) six broad functional types. Guthrie studied the classroom discourse of
a group of Cantonese-speaking children in their bilingual English classes and analyzed the data using six broad functional types, which were further categorized into different conversational acts. He defined these types as follows: (1) Assertives, which reported facts, stated rules, conveyed attitudes, etc.; (2) Organizational Devices, which controlled personal contact and conversational flow; (3) Performatives, which accomplished acts (and established facts) by being said; (4) Requestives, which solicited information or actions; (5) Responsives, which supplied solicited information or acknowledged remarks; and (6) Special Speech Acts, which were prescribed utterances expressed in a special way (e.g., Translation, which coded conscious, direct translations).

**Findings**

The total sample size was three hundred and twenty-six (326) utterances collected from week 2 of the low level EOP course where most of the bilingual code-switching occurred. Table 5.1 summarizes the number of utterances in each type.

**Table 5.1. Analysis of Week 2 data with Guthrie's (1983) Functional Types**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assertives</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational D.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performatives</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requestives</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsives</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>187</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the present data, bilingual code-switching does not seem to be related to the function types in a specific pattern. The number of utterances in L1 surpasses that of the L2 in a ratio of 4 to 1 (187 vs 43). The number of assertives is the highest, making up slightly more than forty-five percent (45.2%) of the total coded utterances (104 out of 230). L1 is used in seventy-seven percent (77%) of the assertives (78 out of 102). Requestives are the second highest in the sample, making up around eighteen and a half percent (18.5%) of the total coded utterances in the sample (43 out of 230). Close to eighty-five percent (85%) of the requestives (i.e., 43 out of 51) are in L1. Responsives make up close to fourteen percent (14%) of the total coded utterances (32 out of 230). Close to sixty-nine percent (69%) of them (22 out of 32) are in L1. There are twenty-four organizational devices, making up close to ten and a half percent (10.4%) of the total coded sample (24 out of 230). Close to ninety-six percent (96%) of the organizational devices are in L1. There are no performatives in the sample. Translation only occurs in L1 (Cantonese) since L2 is the target language. They made up slightly more than nine percent (9.1%) of the total coded utterances (21 out of 230).

Two hundred and twenty (220) of the three hundred and twenty-six utterances can be categorised into the above-mentioned six broad functional types. However, there are some doubtful cases. Ninety-six (96) of the L2 (English) utterances cannot be classified under any of Guthrie's categories because they are not conversational acts. These are unsolicited examples quoted from the
text or suggested by the instructor or the students. In other words, Guthrie's model of analysis has left out a great portion of "target language" samples (Bowers, 1980), language which is cited and is an important element of discourse in a language class. This issue will be addressed in the next section.

**Meta-language and Language in Faerch (1985)**

Faerch (1985) analyzed seven foreign language classes and proposed a different model of analysis from Guthrie's. His discourse analysis differentiated between two categories: META-LANGUAGE and LANGUAGE. He defined "meta-language" or "meta-talk" as "portions of FL lessons in which teacher and students focus on the linguistic code rather than on content" (p. 185). He further described the proportion and the nature of "meta-talk" as follows:

Meta talk occupies varying portions of FL classroom discourse. It may take up as much as the entire lesson, e.g., if this is devoted to discussing ways of solving a translation exercise; or it may be restricted to a single move, as when the teacher replying to a student's content-oriented contribution, corrects a grammatical error and then continues on the content level. Often, however, Danish FL lessons are structured into transactions (using the terminology of Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975) which are characterized by either having a focus on the FL code (meta transactions), or on the content, e.g. a literary text or aspects of the FL society (content transactions). Meta talk thus occurs either within meta transactions, in which there is a (primary) focus on the FL code, or within content transactions whenever there is a shift of focus from content to meta level. (p. 185)
In the present study, utterances relating to meta-linguistic materials are categorised as "language rules". According to Bowers' (1980) definition, this term includes "all talk about the target language, or about the mother tongue in so far as it relates to the target language or to the task of learning it" (p. 90). One example of meta-language or language rules is a discussion of syntactic features such as tense, concords, etc. If meta-language discusses language rules, then the target language is illustrated with "language examples". Faerch's (1985) definition of meta-language and language follows the standard definition of meta-linguistic and linguistic differences (p. 105). Details of the linguistic rules and examples will be analyzed in the present section.

To test if Faerch's model best describes what is happening in the low level EOP class, the same sample data (Sample CS-1) was analyzed and the findings are summarised in Table 5.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.2. Analysis of sample data with Faerch (1985)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LANGUAGE RULES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LANGUAGE EXAMPLES</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are seventy-nine (79) utterances which can be categorised as meta-language and forty-seven (47) utterances which can be categorised as "language". In Faerch's original study the roles of L1 and L2 were not specifically discussed although bilingual code-switching was clearly present in Faerch's data. In his examples, the meta-talk was in Danish (L1) in a Danish/English
translation lesson and similarly the meta-talk was in Danish (L1) in a German lesson. The target language in the former example was English and the language in the latter was German. In other words, Faerch looked at language and meta-language but did not comment on bilingual code-switching, although the data he used definitely illustrated a switch.

In the present study, to illustrate the functional variation in relation to bilingual code-switching, a slightly different approach was attempted with Faerch's method of analysis in adding its relation to bilingual code-switching. The result is summarised in Table 5.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language rules</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language examples</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.3 reveals a strong pattern. Ninety-six percent (i.e., 76 out of 79) of the language rules are in L1. All the language examples are in L2. It is clear that L1 is mostly used for language rules and L2 is mostly used for language examples. L2 is also used for language rules but only a small number (3 utterances out of 79). L1 is not used for language examples in this sample.

What is note-worthy here is the treatment of the remaining two hundred utterances which cannot be categorised strictly as "language rules" or "language examples". This issue will be
addressed in detail separately in a later section. The same sample can also be classified into "teacher talk" and "student talk". Code-switching is likely to be affected by the second language competence of the speaker, so we should be careful to distinguish between code-switching by the teacher and code-switching by the student. The results will be used to account for the language variation of speakers -- the teacher versus the student.

The role of L1 and L2 in linguistic rules and examples in Teacher Talk. The instructor's use of L1 and L2 in the discussion of linguistic rules and the generation of examples in Sample 1 is summarised in Table 5.4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the teacher talk, there are fifty-two utterances of rules in L1 (Cantonese) and three in L2 (English). All thirty-two utterances of examples are in L2. The data seem to indicate that the instructor uses mostly L1 in discussing language rules and uses L2 in giving language examples, as illustrated by the following example extracted from the same sample (Sample CS-1). CM is the instructor. She is explaining to the students the rules used to form a yes/no question.
Text S1

CM: yûhgwô néih haih owner néih wûih wah <If you are the owner, you would say> "You like red roses" haih ma? <right?> "Like" nîdî jih gâ go "do" jih lohkheui sîn. <Add "do" in front of the word "like"> (writes on board), "You do like red roses". yinhhauh jêung go "do" jih bûn lâih chihnmihn, <Then move the word "do" to the front"> transfer, transpose, bûn gwoheui, <Move to the front> "Do you like red roses?" (writes on board).

Here CM is explaining to the students how to change "You like red roses" into a question. The rules are: "Like" nîdî jih gâ go "do" jih lohkheui sîn. <Add "do" in front of the word "like"> and yinhhauh cheunggo "do" chih bunnai chihnmihn, <Then move the word "do" to the front"> They are explained in L1 (Cantonese). The language examples are: "You like red roses"; "You do like red roses" and "Do you like red roses?". The target language is English and the examples are in English.

Students' use of L1/L2 in language rules and language examples in the sample. The students' use of L1 and L2 in discussing language rules and language examples is summarised in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5. L1 and L2 in Student Talk (linguistic): Week 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
is used for language rules (24 out of 24) and L2 is used for language examples (15 out of 15).

Text S2 is an extract from Sample CS-1. The instructor, CM, is now asking her students to change a statement into a question.

Text S2

CM: go haak wah <The customer says>, "I would like some more coffee." néih go mahntâih dîmyéung mahn a? <How do you ask the question?>

N2: go haak gám mahn? <Does the customer ask this?>

CM: go haak gâmyéung góng. <The customer says this.> néih seung go haak gám góng, <You want the customer to say this.> daih yâtgo bouhjaauh haih màyêh a? <What's the first step?> jêung noihmihn go sânfân jêung kéuih diughjyun sin <First change the persons in (the sentence).> (writes on board), "You .."

N2: "You like any more coffee?" (with a rising tone).

CM: (goes on writing on board) "would like some more coffee" gänjyuh nè? <What is next?> jêung go "would" put heui chîhnmihn <Put "would" in the front.> O.K.? (writes on the board) "Would you like some more coffee?"

N2: (reads along) "Would you like some more coffee?"

CM: tâuhsin N2 wah ge <Just now N2 said>, "You need any more coffee?" (with a rising tone)

N2: dāk mhdāk a? <Is it alright?>

CM: néih wah nè ? <What do you think?>

N2: ngôh mhî jî nè <I don't know.> ngôh mei'h joughwo kêihtôi, ngôh mhsîk nîdì. <I have not been a waitress before, I don't know this.>

CM: yânwaih néih ge yûhhei hâih <Because your intonation is>, "You need any more coffee?" (with a rising tone). dong néih ge yûhhei hâih <When your intonation is>, "any more co - ffee " (with a rising tone). gám yânhdêih dôu jlodu néih hâih mahn mahntâih <People will also know you are asking a
The student, N2, is clarifying the rules with the instructor by asking, "go haak gám mahn?" <Does the customer ask this?> and "dāk mhdāk a? <Is it alright?>" She also explains why she is not familiar with the rule by stating, "ngóh mhjì nē <I don't know.> ngóh meih jouhgwo kéihtraditional, ngóh mhsík nìdí. <I have not been a waitress before, I don't know this.>" Her language examples are, "You like any more coffee?" (with a rising tone) and "Would you like some more coffee?". She is not familiar with the proper question form. Nevertheless, she uses a rising tone to indicate that it is a question. The instructor discovers N2's error and therefore restates the rules and steps in forming questions.

Similar to the instructor, N2 is using L1 to discuss the rules and L2 to give the examples.

Summary of Findings in Analysis of Linguistic Rules and Examples in Week 2
1. Faerch's (1985) model of analysis accounts for a portion of the utterances in the sample. They are related to language rules and language examples.
2. L1 is used for language rules in the sample.
3. L2 is used for language examples in the sample.
4. The only exception is that the instructor uses L2 for some of the language rules.
Language Socialization and Bilingual Code-switching

As mentioned in the discussion on the analysis of the first sample data (Sample CS-1) in the beginning of this chapter, a problem arises with Faerch's (1985) approach. If there is only "meta-language" versus "language" in a language class discourse, then only one hundred and twenty-six (126) of the utterances can be categorised. One hundred and forty-one (141) non-language rules and fifty-nine (59) non-language examples cannot be accounted for. Faerch's approach accounts only for the functional variation of a portion of the discourse. A further analysis reveals that these rules and examples are related to business theories and business operations. In other words, Faerch's model would then miss the "meta-business" discourse and "business examples". Although Faerch mentioned "content transaction" in his 1985 study, he did not further propose other categories in analyzing that specific portion of discourse. A different approach is needed to account for all the functional variation in the sample data.

In light of the findings in the previous chapter, the Language Socialization/ Activity model (Mohan, 1986; Ochs, 1988) is therefore proposed to address the issue mentioned above. Operating a small business is a social practice. The Language Socialization/ Activity model, which views language learning as learning both linguistic and sociocultural knowledge, might be able to account for the functional variation of discourse in the EOP class which aims at learning business language tasks. The purpose of this part
of the study, then, is to apply the Language Socialization/Activity model to the same sample data. The findings are presented in the following sections.

**Language Socialization Analysis: Sample (1)**

Based on the Language Socialization model, Sample CS-1, with a total size of three hundred and twenty-six (326) utterances, was analyzed.

**Sociocultural knowledge and examples: Teacher Talk.** What was missed in the analysis of the same sample with Faerch's model (Faerch 1985) was the large number of utterances regarding business rules and business examples. In the Language Socialization approach, these rules and examples are described as "sociocultural knowledge". The instructor's use of L1 and L2 is summarised in Table 5.6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.6. Teacher business talk in Week 2

In the present sample, data seem to indicate that the instructor tends to use more L1 than L2 when discussing business rules. Seventy-three percent (73%) of the business rules discussed (80 out of 110) are in Cantonese. There are only ten business
examples, making up close to 8.3% of the teacher talk dealing with sociocultural knowledge. The business examples are all in L2. The teacher spent over ninety-percent of her talk in explaining business rules, as revealed in the following example (Text S3), which is a transcription of natural data collected by video-taping.

The following class was the second session on the topic "Communication fluency in a 6-step Business Dealing". The instructor first distributed five pages of hand-outs to the students. Nine participants were present in the class, including bakery owners C1 and C2, flower and gift shop owners N1 and N2, home appliance retailer CK, garment retailer and wholesaler RY, dry cleaner CB, meat store manager TT and corner-store owner EP.

Text S3:

CM: In business dealing, we come up with six steps. (Students refer to page one of hand-outs.) Right, six steps. The first step is "introduce the offer". What's the purpose? Purpose jîkhai yûnhyân <means reason>, muhkdiêk <aim>. First step: "introduce the offer". (CM. writes on the board). yiû wah bêî di haak têng <have to tell the customers>. To tell the customers that we have some service or we have some goods for sale. "Introduce the offer". yiû gaaaiyu hûng yâû gêî jûng fông-faat. <There are several ways to introduce.> ngôh gaaîjyu hûôdî. <Those I have underlined.> (Participants referred to page 1 of hand-outs.) ... Tell them strict forward what you're selling: "special on red roses". gôngchôih gô geui <In the previous sentences> "How are you today? It's a nice day." yâuh mhhaih maaihyêh <You're not selling anything> You're not selling. yâuh mhhai service. <You don't have any service either.> but it's to start a conversation. haîh hôîchi yâî go conversation. <It's to start a conversation.> But whether it's a question to start or a statement, mûôhleuhn haîh <whether it's> question waahkjê <or> statement, it's a general sense (wrote on board), right?
Relating to your goods or service. For example: "Can I help you?" This you say it's 'general'. You can also say "specific". If it's "general", you are not telling them what kind of service or a product you're selling.  

There is a mixed use of L1 and L2 in the instructor's discourse. Some business rules are in L1, e.g., yiu gaa siuh tūng sēuhng yāuh gēi jūng fōng-faat <There are several ways to introduce>. and  

"néih móuh wah béi kéuih tēng néih maaih fā waahkjé maaih sāam <You don't tell him whether you sell flowers or clothes>". The service encounter examples, however, are all in L2, e.g., "Can I help you?" and "We specialize in one day delivery service". Some of the business rules are reviewed in L2, e.g., step one of the business deal "introduce the offer"; and "to tell the customers that we have some service or we have some goods for sale".

In summary, the instructor discussed the steps in a service encounter mostly in L1, reviewed them in L2, and illustrated them with service encounter examples in L2, the actual language used in the students' daily business practices.

**Business Rules and Business Examples: Student Talk.** The students' use of L1 and L2 in relation to sociocultural knowledge and examples (in this case business rules and business examples) is summarised by Table 5.7.
Table 5.7. Student business talk in Week 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data in the sample clearly indicate that in student talk, L1 is used for business rules and L2 is used for business examples. There are more business examples than business rules (49 vs 31). The students do not use L2 to work on the rules and do not use L1 to give examples in the present sample.

Text S4 is an extract from Sample CS-1, which was collected in the second week of the EOP course.

After the instructor finished reviewing past materials, she started teaching step 4: confirm the deal/no deal, step 5: provide after sales service and step 6: maintain customer relations. There was more student participation in this teaching part.

**Text S4**

CM: *gâmyaht ngóhdeih gaijuhk gông* *yûhgwô kêuih séung máaih, go haak wuíh dimyêung?* <Today we continue with: if the customer wishes to buy (something), what would s/he do?>

N2: *gó haak séung máaih, tûngsêuhng wuíh yât yahplâih jauh wuíh mahn yiu mâtvéh. <(If) the customer wishes to buy (something), (I) would ask what s/he wants as soon as s/he comes in.>

CM: *yûhgwô yât yahplâih yíhgg gôngjô?* <What if (s/he) has told (you this) as soon as s/he comes in? >

N2: *ning làih bêichin.* <(S/he) would take his/her money and pay.>

CM: *ning làih bêichin* <(S/he) would take his/her money
and pay > (wrote on board), yūgwó máaih common dī yēh <if s/he buys something common.>

N2: bāai háidouh yáuh, jauh nīng làih bèichín lō. ning làih bèichín, hain mā? <If the item is on display and is accessible, (s/he) then takes it over and pays. S/he takes it over and pays, right?>

CM: go customer wūih pay. <The customer will pay.> (wrote on board). néih dīm tūhng kēuih gōng a? <What would you say to her/him?>

N2: móuh māt, jauh bau hōu kēuih. jauh dāhōi ngangwaih mahn kēuih lōchín lō. <Nothing. I then wrap it up, open the cash register and ask her/him to pay.>

The rules in this text are all new service encounter rules and they are all discussed in L1. At first, the business owner N2 does not see the need for further verbal communication after the initial contact with the customer. She believes if the item is on display and is accessible, the customer will simply take it over to the counter and pay. Therefore, her response to the instructor's question "néih dīm tūhng kēuih gōng a" (meaning "What would you say to him/her?") was, "móuh māt, jauh bau hōu kēuih. jauh dāhōi ngangwaih mahn kēuih lōchín lō." <Nothing. I then wrap it up, open the cash register and ask her/him to pay.> However, the instructor was able to elicit some language used for service encounters by referring to additional business rules.

(The following business rules and examples in Text S5 were solicited towards the end of the same section.)

Text S5

M: gām néih sēung kēuih máaih dōdī yēh, jauh yiu gōng dī yēh. <But if you want him to buy some more
items, you will have to say something.>

N2: jauh mahn "You need any card today?", waahkjé "You need a balloon today?". <Then I'll ask "You need any card today, or "You need a balloon today?»>

CM: (writes on the board) "Is that all for today?", haih mhaih a? <isn't that so?> haih mhaih gâmyaut jihnhaih máaih gamdô yéh ja? <Is that all that you want to buy today?>

N1: haih lô. <That's right.>

N2: "Is that all?"  

CM: (writes on the board) "Do you need anything else?" yùhgwé go haak wùih wah <If the customer would say, "No, that's all. I don't need anything else", néih yauh hóyíh wah <then you could also say> "Do you need a card? Do you need a balloon?"

N1: "Do you need a bowl?"

In this text, CM is leading N2 to realize the significance of verbal communications in a business deal. These business rules are simple. If N2 wants to increase her sales, she will have to initiate a conversation with the customer by saying, "You need any card today?" or "Is that all for today?". These examples become business examples rather than simply language examples. The teacher's elicitation and explanation of these examples are in L1 and the business communication examples, which form part of a service encounter, are all in L2 (English).

Text S4 and S5 clearly suggest a general pattern of variation that L1 is used for discussing theories and L2 is used for actual business language examples. These examples in fact form the "practising part" of service encounters where the rules of service
encounters are being applied.

Summary of Findings in the Analysis of Sample CS-1

1. The Language Socialization approach accounts for all the utterances in the sample.
2. The linguistic rules are introduced or discussed mostly in L1. In the present case, these rules have emerged from a shift in the discussion about the business content to a discussion of specific grammatical features arising from the business tasks.
3. L2 is used for both language examples and business examples.
4. Only the instructor uses L2 for some of the business rules. These rules in L2 are mostly found in the review. New business rules are mostly introduced in L1.
5. The students tend to use L1 for rules and L2 for examples, both in linguistic and business knowledge cases.

However, it should not be assumed the pattern identified (from point 1 to point 5 above) is a static pattern. To answer the question whether there are developmental changes in the bilingual variation in the data, more data analysis is necessary. The following sections will present analysis of data collected at later dates (from week 3 to week 9).
Linguistic Rules and Examples in the Sample Data (Weeks 1-9)

Data Sample Size

In order to investigate whether the pattern of bilingual code-switching changes over time, samples were collected from weeks 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8 and 9 from the ten-week EOP course. Data from week 6 was not available for collection because of disruptions. Data from week 2 has already been presented and discussed in detail in the previous sections. There were a total of forty (40) hours in the bilingual EOP classes. Eighty percent of the sessions (i.e., eight weekly sessions) were observed and video-taped. A total of one thousand six hundred and fifty-five (1,655) utterances were coded and analyzed. To investigate a possible change of pattern, an overview of the data and sample texts from Week 3 in the beginning of the EOP program, and sample data from Week 9 towards the end of the EOP program, will be discussed in detail in the following sections. Sample texts with detailed analysis for the weeks other than weeks 2, 3 and 9 are displayed in Appendix XIII for further reference.

An Overview of Teacher Talk (Weeks 1-9)

Table 5.8 summarises the teacher's use of L1 and L2 for linguistic rules and examples. The number under each week is the total sample size of the corpus collected from that week.
Data seem to indicate a pattern that the instructor used mostly L1 for language rules and mainly L2 for language examples. The use of L2 for rules did not seem to follow a fixed pattern. A chi-square analysis indicated that $p < .05$ in all weeks except for week 8 where there were no language rules and no language examples in the discourse. This might point to a relation between bilingual code-switching and functional variation of discourse. However, the pattern was not static. L2 was sometimes used for rules. In summary, for teacher talk (linguistic) there were insufficient data to conclude that this was a transitional phenomenon from a near total use of L1 to a near total use of L2.
An Overview of Student Talk (Weeks 1-9)

Table 5.9 summarises the students' use of L1 and L2 in language rules and language examples.

Table 5.9. Student Talk (linguistic): Weeks 1-9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rules</th>
<th></th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L1</td>
<td>L2</td>
<td>L1</td>
<td>L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>week 1 (264)</td>
<td>week 2 (326)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X^2=34.89</td>
<td>p=.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p&lt;.001</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>*X^2=5.00</td>
<td>p=.0253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>n.s.</td>
<td>p=.0005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X^2=12.00</td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>week 5 (137)</td>
<td>week 7 (62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X^2=4.98</td>
<td>p=.0256</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
<td>n.s.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X^2=10.00</td>
<td>p=.0016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p&lt;.05</td>
<td>p&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of L1 and L2 for language rules and language examples in student talk seemed to follow a similar general pattern in teacher talk: mostly L1 for rules and L2 for examples. The students started using some L2 for rules in week 5. However, there were insufficient data to indicate that this was a transitional phenomenon. The chi-square analysis indicated that p < .05 in all weeks except for week 8 when there were no language rules or language examples.
To illustrate the use of L1 and L2 in relation to language rules and language examples, samples from week 3 and week 9 are presented below.

**Language Rules and Language Examples: Week 3**

There were a total of 231 utterances in this sample from week 3. The instructor's and the students' use of L1/L2 in language rules and language examples in sample from Week 3 is summarised in Table 5.10 and Table 5.11 respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.10. L1/L2 in Teacher Talk (linguistic): Week 3</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5.11. L1/L2 in Student Talk (linguistic): Week 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pattern of code-switching is clear, though the data sample is small. L1 was mostly used for rules and L2 was mostly used for examples in both teacher talk and student talk. However, the instructor tended to use L2 for linguistic rules in a higher proportion (7 out of 17) than in the previous week (i.e., 3 out of 55 in week 2). There was very little student participation in working over language rules and language examples. Therefore, the
language rules and language examples in this sample were not easily identifiable. The instructor did not specifically deal with language tasks. However, there were still some examples of language rules. In the following example (Text S6), the instructor was reviewing the different steps in a service encounter and eliciting examples.

**Text S6**

CM: jihauh dim a? <Then what next?> "How about red roses?" "O.K." [Then], what do you say?

N1: How much do you want?

CM. How many? Confirm a má <To confirm>. Confirmation. (CM. writes on the board.) yiu <Have to> confirm the deal. O.K. yiu géidō a? <How many do you want?> How many do you want? O.K. Is that all you want?

After CM had mentioned the "red roses", she led on to the next logical interaction by asking, "(Then) what do you say?". N1 responded by saying, "How much do you want?", which would be correct if he was referring to an "uncountable" item like "milk". However, in relation to what they had been discussing in the context, the question should refer to the "red roses", which were "countable" in grammatical terms. Instead of explaining the rules explicitly, CM simply replied by saying, "How many?". This was a linguistic rule. What is note-worthy is what CM then said, "yiu géidō a? <How many do you want?>" followed by the same expression in English, "How many do you want?" The first example was in L1 and the second example was in L2. The question "yiu géidō a?" could be
both a confirmation and a language example. The English equivalent still referred to the "red roses" and therefore the question phrase "How many" was still used. In Cantonese, "yiu géidō a?" can refer to both the "uncountable", meaning "How much do you want?", or the "countable", meaning "How many do you want?"

Language Rules and Language Examples: Week 9

The total sample size from week 9 was 317 utterances. The instructor's use of L1 and L2 in discussing linguistic rules and examples is summarised in Table 5.12.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.12. L1/L2 in Teacher Talk (linguistic): Week 9

The code-switching pattern of teacher talk seemed to have remained the same through all the weeks. The instructor used mostly L1 for rules and L2 for examples. The students followed a similar pattern. The students' use of L1/L2 in language rules and language examples is summarised in Table 5.13.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.13. L1/L2 in Student Talk (linguistic): Week 9

In the student talk, the use of L1 and L2 followed the same pattern developed since week 3. 12 out of 15 of the language rules
were in L1 and 3 out of 15 were in L2. All five language examples were in L2. This seems to have followed the instructor's pattern of use of the two languages in the same sample. With 317 utterances in the present sample, the proportion of language use for language rules and examples, including both teacher talk and student talk, was comparatively small (around twenty percent, or 64 out of 317 utterances). The following is an example of the language use.

Text S7 was collected from a language learning task. CM and her students were going over a reading passage. The passage was about "Hiring of a manager's assistant".

**Text S7**

CM: (Starts reading from the text) "Hiring a manager's assistant", *chêng yâtgo manager ge johsâu manager's ge johsâu* <hiring a manager's assistant, a manager's assistant>. "Mr. and Mrs. Lou own" .. "own" jîkhaih mâtyêh? <What do you mean by "own"?

N1: *jihgêi ge* <possess it yourself>

N2: *kêuih yûngyáuh ge* <He owns it himself.>

CM: *kêuih yûngyáuh* <he owns> "a ladies' clothing store". *yâuhmôuh táidou "l - a - d - i - e - s'"* <Have you seen 1-a-d-i-e-s'?"> pit yät pit <with an apostrophe>, dîmgâai wûih haih gâm gé? <Why is it so?>

N1: *jîkhaih hóudô*. <It means there are many (ladies).>

CM: *jîkhaih hóudo* ladies ge clothing fuhkjông store dim. <That means many ladies' clothing store.> "In Vancouver, business has been quite good". ...
highlighting and explaining the use of the punctuation mark "the apostrophe" after the word "ladies" as soon as she identified this language feature in the text. She asked the class in L1, "dímgáai wûih hajìh gǎm gé? <Why is it so?>". N1 then responded, also in L1, "jikhaigh hóudo. <It means there are many (ladies)>." It was clear that the teacher and the students were then involved in the discussion of the rules in the use of the apostrophe in L1.

In conclusion, data collected from week 3 to week 9 seem to have indicated a general tendency in bilingual code-switching in that L1 was mostly used for language rules and L2 was mostly used for language examples. (Additional data are presented in Appendix XIII.)

Summary of Findings (First Part of Chapter)

The first part of this chapter has presented quantitatively and qualitatively an overview of the analysis of eight weeks of sample data from the Low Level EOP class in the small business program. The focus of this part of the analysis is on data related to linguistic rules and linguistic examples. Data seem to indicate a general tendency in the patterning of functional variation in relation to L1 (Cantonese) and L2 (English). The result of the analysis has suggested that L1 was mostly used for linguistic rules and L2 was mostly used for linguistic examples in the data. Faerch's study (1985) presented data in both L1 and the target language but did not comment on the bilingual code-switching. Neither did Faerch present his data quantitatively. This part of
the present study has investigated this specific area with both statistical analysis and qualitative descriptions.

Another issue was raised in the initial analysis. Faerch's model did not account for a significant portion of data which was related to the sociocultural aspect of the language (i.e., the business management knowledge). Data also suggested that the Language Socialization/Activity Model seems to have accounted for the portion of the sample which dealt with business rules and business examples.

The next issue is: "Is there a developmental pattern in the use of the first language (Cantonese) and the second language (English) relating to sociocultural rules and examples (in the present study, business rules and business examples)"?
Data Analysis: Sociocultural Knowledge

To investigate if there were any developmental changes in patterning in the use of L1 and L2 for business rules and business examples, data collected from Weeks 1 to 5 and 7 to 9 were analyzed. Data from Week 2 has already been presented and discussed in an earlier section. For discussion purposes, only an overview of the data and text examples from Week 3 and Week 9 will be presented in the following sections. Additional sample texts with detailed analysis are displayed in Appendix XIV for further reference.

Business Rules and Business Examples in Teacher Talk: Weeks 1–9

Table 5.14 summarises the instructor's use of L1 and L2 for business rules and business examples. Except in week 1, the instructor seemed to be following a similar pattern in all other weeks. He used mostly L1 for rules and mostly L2 for business examples. There were occasionally business examples in L1 but this did not seem to follow any specific pattern. The use of L2 for rules seemed to have increased over time but there were insufficient data to indicate that this was a transitional phenomenon from near total use of L1 (Cantonese) to near total use of L2 (English). The chi-square analysis indicated that the relation between bilingual code-switching (Cantonese and English) and the functional variation of discourse (business rules and business examples) was significant (p < .05). Week 1 was unusual
because there were forty-one (41) L1 (Cantonese) utterances for business rules and only fourteen (14) L2 (English) utterances for business examples. All one hundred and forty-six (146) business rules in this week were in L1.

Table 5.14: Teacher business talk: Weeks 1-9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>week 1</td>
<td>(264)</td>
<td>week 2</td>
<td>(326)</td>
<td>week 3</td>
<td>(231)</td>
<td>week 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X²=36.11</td>
<td>p=.0000</td>
<td>X²=18.67</td>
<td>p=.0000</td>
<td>X²=22.58</td>
<td>p=.0000</td>
<td>X²=4.38</td>
<td>p=.0363</td>
<td>p&lt;.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>X²=11.21</td>
<td>p=.0008</td>
<td>(cannot be computed with only one non-zero row)</td>
<td>X²=26.85</td>
<td>p=.0000</td>
<td>p&lt;.001</td>
<td>X²=18.20</td>
<td>p=.0000</td>
<td>p&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Business Rules and Examples in Student Talk: Weeks 1-9

Table 5.15 summarises the students' use of L1 and L2 for business rules and business examples.
Table 5.15: Student business talk: Weeks 1-9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rules</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L1</td>
<td>L2</td>
<td>L1</td>
<td>L2</td>
<td>L1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>week 1</td>
<td>(264)</td>
<td>(326)</td>
<td>(231)</td>
<td>(227)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(X^2=75.84)</td>
<td>(p=.0000)</td>
<td>(p&lt;.001)</td>
<td>(X^2=2.70)</td>
<td>(p=.1006)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In student talk, the use of L1 and L2 for business rules and business examples seemed to follow a similar pattern to the teacher: mostly L1 for rules and mostly L2 for examples. Some L2 was used for business rules in weeks 3, 4, 5 and 9. However there were insufficient data to conclude that this might be a transitional phenomenon from near total use of L1 to near total use of L2. The weekly chi-square analysis indicated that there might be a relation between bilingual code-switching (Cantonese and English) and the functional variation of discourse (business rules and business examples). \(P < .05.\)

To illustrate the use of the two languages in the business rules and business examples, sample texts from week 3 and week 9 are presented below.
Business Rules and Business Examples in Week 3

The total sample size from week 3 was 231 utterances. The instructor's use of L1 and L2 in discussing business rules and examples is summarised in Table 5.16.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rule</th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The pattern of code-switching was not as clear as with language rules and language examples. However, data still indicated that slightly over fifty percent of the business rules (51 out of 98) were given in L1 while the rest (47 out of 98) were given in L2. Compared with week 3, the proportion of L2 use for rules has increased over time in teacher talk. The business examples, as in other weeks, were still mostly in L2 (35 out of 37). These examples included business practices such as the actual handling of customer complaints, the hiring of staff, the serving of customers, and the marketing and advertising of the business, etc. The theories behind all these practices were business "rules" which governed these tasks.

The Students' use of L1/L2 for business rules and examples followed that of the instructor and is summarised in Table 5.17.
Table 5.17  Student business talk in Week 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rules</th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data indicated that L1 was mostly used for business rules in student talk (29 out of 40 utterances of rules). However, the examples were distributed almost evenly between L1 and L2 (10 in L1 and 11 in L2). This did not follow the pattern started in week 2 when only L1 was used for business rules. In the present sample, the students also used L2 in the discussion of business rules. Text S8 illustrates such a change of phenomenon.

In this class, the instructor started the class with a review of the service encounter rules again, mostly in L2 and partly in L1. The class then proceeded to the discussion of related services. They started talking about policies in accepting cheques.

Text S8

CM: ... O.K. Have you ever had a customer coming to you, give you a cheque, or government cheque. "yäh móuh a? sigwo meih a? <Have you? Have you had it? >

N2: meih. <No>

CM: chyùnhbouh dōuhaih government cheque? <Are they all government cheques?>

N1: yâuhdí government cheque, family allowance cheque, yâuhdí yâuh. <Some government cheques, some family allowance cheques.>

CM: néih jâau mjáau chîn béi kéuihdeih? <Do you give them change?>

N1: jâau <change>, daahn viu I.D. <but require I.D.>
N2: Check *kéuih_ge* <his/her> signature.

CM: Actually, it's cheque cashing. S/He is not paying you with a personal cheque but another cheque.

N1: Right. I have an idea. Just a cheque. If somebody gave you a company cheque, you don't accept it. If the company cheque, you go to deposit, the bank won't allow it. You must be careful.


N1: *mhyahp dâk_ngânhhôhng* ga! <[You] can't put [it] into the bank!>

CM: If that's a company cheque.

N1: If company cheque. If personal cheque is O.K. If company cheque, the bank will not accept.

What is note-worthy in this text is that N1, the flower and gift shop owner, talked about his policy in accepting cheques in both L1 and L2. The policy was that he would need to check identification and would accept only personal cheques. Despite the fact that his language structures were not all correct, his message was clear, "If personal cheque is O.K. If company cheque, the bank will not accept." He was able to state his position clearly. For him, trying to discuss theories in English was a gigantic leap. Compared with N2 (his wife), he was able to communicate more actively in L2 than she was in the present sample.

CM used both L1 and L2 to discuss cash checking rules, e.g., "*néih_jáau_mhjáau_chên_béi_kéuihdeih* ? <Do you give them change?> and "Actually, it's cheque cashing. S/He is not paying you with a personal cheque but another cheque."
What follows is an extract from the same sample as Text S8. This illustrates the use of L1 for business examples. In this example, the participants were discussing reasons for the return of goods.

**Text S9**

CM: "Cannot use" (writes on the board). mhhahp yuhng lā. <Not suitable to be used.>

N1: waahkjé mhhah gěi hōu yuhng lā. <Maybe it is not very good to be used.>

CM: waahkjé mhhah gěi hōu yuhng âh ? (Maybe it is not very good for use ?>

N2: mhhah gěi hōuyuhng lā. hōucharh seunng yātchi ngōh go néui mãaihjō go seuivuhkgēi, mhhah gěi hōuyuhng, jauh teuifāan běi kih lō ! <Not very good for use. For instance: last time my daughter bought a blender. It's not very good to use. Then [she] returned it.>

CM: "Cannot use, not good" (writes on the board). Anything else?

N2: waahkjé ngōh mãaihjō yātga, yāhndeih vauh sungjō yātga, māi teuifāan yātgo lō. <Or I've bought one and someone has given me one too; then I return one.>

The two business examples in this discussion were quoted from N2's own personal experiences. One example was that her daughter returned a blender. Her exact words were, "hōucharh seunng yātchi ngōh go néui mãaihjō go seuivuhkgēi, mhhah gěi hōuyuhng, jauh teuifāan běi kih lō ! <For instance: last time my daughter bought a blender. It's not very good to use. Then [she] returned it.> The other instance was taken from another situation when she herself
had to return the merchandise: "waahkjé ng póh máaihjó yátga, yâhndeih yawh sungjó yátga, maih teuifâan yátgo lô. <Or I've bought one and someone has given me one too; then I return one.>"

**Note-worthy Findings in Week 3**

1. The students started to use L2 in discussing business rules (11 in the whole sample as compared to 0 in week 2). The increase is obvious.

2. Student participation also increased when discussing business rules in L1 and L2 (41 out of a total corpus of 231, or 17.7%, as compared to 32/326, or 9.8%, in week 2). However, the examples in L2 dropped considerably from 49/326 (or 15%) to 11/231 (or 4.7%). Both the students and the instructor used L1 for some examples (2 for the instructor and 10 for the students).

3. The instructor's use of L1 vs L2 for rules changed from a ratio of 80:29 (or 2.76:1) to almost even in proportion (50:47 or 1.06:1). This was possibly because the instructor tended to use more L2 in reviewing rules and the sample happened to capture some review sessions.

To compare and contrast data from the beginning and towards the end of the 10-week EOP class, sample text from Week 9 will be presented and discussed in the following sections.
**Business Rules and Business Examples in Week 9**

The total sample size collected from week 9 was 317 utterances. The lesson in week 9 was the second last session of the low level EOP class.

The instructor's use of L1/L2 in business rules and business examples is summarised by Table 5.18.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Examples</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The final sample indicated a clear pattern of code-switching. There were as many as 85 utterances (out of a total of 317) about business rules in L1. The number of these in L2 was comparatively smaller but was still the highest in number and in proportion (66 out of 317) in all weeks except week 1. The examples were all in L2 in the present sample (18 out of 317). This was a small number in proportion. The ratio of L1 vs L2 use for the rules (1.3:1 or 85 vs 66) is also worth noting. There was an obvious increase of rules discussed in L2.

The students' use of L1 and L2 in business rules and business examples is summarised in Table 5.19.
In the student business talk, the pattern in the functional variation remained constant: L1 was used mainly for rules, and L2 for examples. By proportion, the use of L2 vs L1 for rules has increased from a ratio of 3:12 (1:4) in week 5 to a ratio of 18:60 (1:3.3) in the present sample. The number of L2 utterances for examples was relatively smaller in the sample (6 out of 317; only 1.9%) as compared to week 8 (6 out of 90; 6.6%). Nevertheless, the broad tendency for the bilingual code-switching pattern remained the same.

The data collected from Week 9 was heavily laden with language referring to business rules and business practices. The topics discussed in the class were related to financial terms and business management tasks such as the hiring of personnel, which included the working on job titles and job descriptions. Text S10 was collected from the initial part of the lesson.

The instructor began the class with a review of the business terms the students had learned from the previous class. They were working on Income - expenses statements.

Text S10

CM: Income, expenses, Income - expenses, Income Néih ge säuyahp minus nei ge <your> cost (wrote on board), jouh retail, wholesalers, jouh sale yätdihng yäuh
For retailers and wholesalers, there must be a cost for sale: how much you pay when you buy, right?. That will be your cost. vihnauh neih ge gross profit minus neih ge expenses ne <then your gross profit minus your expenses,> (wrote on board), that will be your profit. ... What does a budget include?

KO: Rental.
CM: Utilities
KO: Utilities
RR: gas
CM: gas (writes on the board)

Compared with the data collected in week 2 and week 5, the students and the instructor used an increased amount of L2 for restating business rules and business examples in Week 9. The budget plan included many items. The instructor went over them one by one; included were such items as rental, utilities, and gas, etc.

In the second part of the class (Text S11), the group began to discuss job titles and job specifications. They then performed simulated tasks related to personnel management skills.

Text S11
CM: yānwaih haih <Because we are> small business, normally we don't have a lot of employees. viu myiu houdō a? <Do we need many?> jeui honàhng sing ge <most likely> most likely employee, yatgo <one>. What does this person do? kéuîh joh mátyêh <What does s/he do?>
N1: sales
CM: sales (wrote on board) juhnq váuh nē ? <what else>
In this text, the instructor was asking the class who should be the most likely person to be hired in a small business. The answer from N1, the flower and gift shop owner, was "sales". However, RY, who owned a clothing factory said that what he needed would be "workers". In the discussion on the hiring of personnel, the students began by going over some job descriptions and job titles. Finally, C1, the baker, mentioned his preference for women workers in his retail shop. This immediately generated eager responses from the rest of the group regarding "human rights" in the labour force. These examples are illustrated in Text S12.

**Text S12**

**CM:** (writes on the board) discrimination. néih mhboyih váuh jungkinh kêisih <You cannot have racial discrimination.> race, sex, age discrimination.

**C1:** oh, sé chëutlāih váuh jungkinh kêisih ge làh ? <If I list this out, then there is racial discrimination ? >

**N1:** néih mhñàngggau wah mhcheng nàahmjái ga, faanlahi ga <You can't say you don't hire men. It's against the law.>

**N2:** gám jouh faanlahi ga. jëkhaih néih wah "Ngóh jihnghaih chéng Jënggwokyânh, mhcheng loufâan", nîdî jauh jungkinh kêisih lô.<This will be breaking the law. If you say, "I only hire Chinese and not westerners," then this is racial discrimination.>
For this part of the discussion, the students used L1 for both the human rights laws and human rights cases. Compared to the rest of the group, N1 and N2 were more familiar with the labour laws because of their extensive Canadian business experiences. C1, who was new to the country, was ignorant of these rules. The students were presenting two cases as examples: the hiring of "women only" and "Chinese only". This was an important sociocultural issue in the labour force. The business owners were anxious to learn about the regulations concerning the hiring of staff in a proper and acceptable way, as required by Canadian labour laws.

Note-worthy Features in the Week 9 Analysis

1. The students started to use L2 for discussing business rules: 18 in the total sample of 317 in Week 9 (5.6 %) as compared to 3 out of 136 in Week 5 (2.2%). The increase is obvious.

2. Student participation also increased when discussing business rules in L1 (63 out of a total corpus of 317, or 19.8%) as compared to Week 5 (10 out of a total sample size of 136, or 7.3%) in the middle of the course.

3. The instructor's use of L2 when discussing business rules increased even more in proportion: 65 out of 317 in Week 9 (20.5%) compared to 6 out of 136 in Week 5 (4.4%).

4. The use of L1 for discussing business rules (145) was still greater than the use of L2 for discussing business rules (83).
Summary of Weekly Findings

If we step back from the bilingual EOP class and view the educational program as a whole, we see that in the business management classes, L1 was used for discussing both rules and examples, whereas in the advanced EOP classes, L2 was used for discussing both rules and examples. These two classes, management and advanced EOP, seem to be at the two ends of a continuum: on one side a nearly total use of L1 to a nearly total use of L2 on the other side. The bilingual EOP class seems to be in the middle of the continuum and may be transitional. In the bilingual EOP class, the code-switching pattern was not a static one. However, there is insufficient data to indicate a transitional phenomenon. The ten-week period was insufficient to detect transitional changes over time. (See Appendix X for a presentation of the weekly data in a temporal sequence.) For the students, eighty-six percent of the linguistic rules were discussed in L1 while all the linguistic examples were given in L2. It is natural that the teacher would be likely to use more L2 in discussing rules because of differences in L2 proficiency between that of the teacher and the students.

Chi-Square Analysis

Since we have analyzed the data week by week, we now turn to the analysis of the data as a whole, of all the weeks taken together. To examine the statistical significance of relation between the two variables (rule/example and L1/L2), 2 x 2
contingency tables were constructed and chi-square tests for each of the combination of factors were computed, i.e., a global two-way analysis was completed. The results are summarised in the overall two-way tables (Tables 5.20 - 5.23).

**Table 5.20. Teacher: Sociocultural**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rule</td>
<td>484</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>72.1</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>81.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>63.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>30.6</td>
<td>69.4</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>532</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>64.3</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 93.86  
P-value < .0001

**Table 5.21. Teacher: Linguistic**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rule</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>64.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>99.5</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>99.2</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>75.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 205.76  
P-value < .0001
Table 5.20 is read in the following way: the first percentage line gives the percentage of rules in L1 (72.1%) compared to rules in L2 (27.9%). The second percentage line gives the percentage of rules in L1 (91.0%) compared to examples in L1 (9%). About seventy-two percent (72.1%) of the teacher's sociocultural (business) rules were discussed in L1 and about sixty-nine percent (69.4%) of the sociocultural examples were given in L2. The chi-square results were significant (chi-square = 93.86; P-value < .0001).

Table 5.21 is read in the following way: the first percentage line gives the percentage of linguistic rules in L1 (81.5%) compared to linguistic rules in L2 (18.5%). The second percentage line gives the percentage of linguistic rules (99.5%) compared to language examples in L1 (0.5%). Eighty-one percent (81.5%) of the teacher's linguistic rules were given in L1 while close to one hundred percent (99.2%) of the language examples were given in L2. The chi-square results were significant (chi-square = 205.76; P-value < .0001).

In the Teacher Sociocultural data, the ratio of rules in L1 to rules in L2 is 484:187 (i.e., L1 rules are about 2 1/2 times as frequent as L2 rules). L1 Teacher Linguistic rules are about 4 times as frequent as L2 rules (181:41). For the example data, L2 frequencies are about 2 times as many as L1 (109:48) in the Teacher Sociocultural area. The difference is even greater with Linguistic data where L1:L2 examples are of a ratio of 1:124.

The conclusion is that the data seem to indicate that the relation between rule/example and language choice (i.e., L1 vs L2)
varies between Sociocultural and Linguistic cases. This needs to be examined.

Table 5.22. Student: Sociocultural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rule</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>85.4</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>68.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>85.0</td>
<td>32.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>222</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>353</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 160.02
P-value < .0001

Table 5.23. Student: Linguistic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>L1</th>
<th>L2</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rule</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>63.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>36.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-square = 85.11
P-value < .0001

Likewise, in the Student data, the same findings are true but not as strong (see Tables 5.22 and 5.23). For L1 Sociocultural rules, there is a ratio of about 6:1 in L1 vs L2 (205:35). Close to
eighty-six percent (85.4%) of the student sociocultural rules were given in L1 and eighty-five percent (85%) of the sociocultural examples were given in L2. For Student Linguistic rules, the factor is about 7:1 (L1:L2 = 70:1). The Student Linguistic examples are almost the same (L1:L2 = 17:96). Under Student Linguistic examples, the difference between the ratio of L1:L2 is stronger (0:46). For the students, over eighty-six percent (86.4%) of the linguistic rules were discussed in L1 while all the linguistic examples were given in L2. It is natural that the teacher is likely to use more L2 in discussing rules because of differences between the teacher's L2 proficiency and the students' L2 proficiency. It still appears that for the students, as with the Teacher, there seems to be a three-way interaction between Rules vs Examples, L1 vs L2 and Sociocultural vs Linguistic, although the interaction is not as great as with the Teacher.

**Log-Linear Analysis**

To investigate whether there is a three-way interaction, a different analysis technique was needed, an extension of the chi-square analysis and contingency tables to cover more dimensions. The log-linear model was therefore used. It was appropriate to apply this method to the present situation where all the variables are categoric and binary, i.e., Rules vs Examples, L1 vs L2 and Sociocultural vs Linguistic dimensions.

Log-linear analysis has been used in VARBRUL analysis
(variable rule analysis), a well known technique used in sociolinguistics for the analysis of variable linguistic phenomena (Horvath, 1987; Rousseau and Sankoff, 1978). The log-linear analysis will enable us to see the relation between Rule/Example x L1/L2 x Sociocultural/Linguistic. In other words, this will enable us to ask, "Is the Rule/Example contrast the sole significant variable or is the Sociocultural/Linguistic dimension important in code-switching?"

For both the Teacher data and the Student data, saturated log-linear models were fitted to three binary variables: Rule/Example, L1/L2, and Sociocultural/Linguistic dimensions. The result was that, in each case, the three-way interaction term was required in the model. That is, the (reduced) model without the three-way interaction gave a statistically significant poorer fit to the data than the saturated model. In other words, the Sociocultural/Linguistic dimension should not be eliminated from the account.

In the Teacher Talk, the Rule row percentages are 72.1 vs 27.9 for the Sociocultural dimension compared with 81.5 vs 18.5 for the Linguistic dimension. Similarly, the Example row percentages are 30.6 vs 69.4 for the Sociocultural dimension compared with 0.8 vs 99.2 for the Linguistics dimension. There is a clear "reversal" in the row percentages from Rule to Example: this is Rule/Example x L1/L2 interaction. Additionally, the magnitude of the "reversal" is much greater for Linguistic than for Sociocultural dimensions; this reflects the three-way interaction of Rule/Example x L1/L2 x Sociocultural/Linguistic. In other words, the size of the two-way
interaction of Rule/Example x L1/L2 depends on whether Sociocultural or Linguistic topics are at issue.

The results obtained for Students also show a significant three-way interaction but the magnitude of this interaction is less than for the Teacher. That is, the size of the two-way interaction of Rule/Example x L1/L2 does not change dramatically from Sociocultural to Linguistic topics.

Tests of Partial Associations

Is the Rule/Example contrast the most important variable in this data? This question can be determined by tests of partial associations. It is, of course, a different question than whether the Rule/Example contrast is the sole significant variable. The test results are listed in Table 5.24 and 5.25.

Table 5.24. Partial Associations (Teacher)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect Name</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Partial Chi Square</th>
<th>Prob</th>
<th>Iter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RULEEXAMPLE*L1L2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>285.374</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RULEEXAMPLE*SOCLING</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>23.686</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1L2*SOCLING</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.605</td>
<td>.4365</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RULEEXAMPLE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>333.858</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1L2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>54.905</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCLING</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>202.808</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5.25. Partial Associations (Students)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect Name</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Partial Chi Square</th>
<th>Prob</th>
<th>Iter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RULEEXAMPLE*L1L2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>270.157</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RULEEXAMPLE*SOCLING</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.123</td>
<td>.7262</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1L2*SOCLING</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.728</td>
<td>.1886</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RULEEXAMPLE</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>55.764</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1L2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22.714</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOCLING</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>110.737</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The partial association of Rule/Example x L1/L2 compares a model having all two-way interactions with a model having only the other two two-way interactions. Using this approach one sees that the Rule/Example x L1/L2 interaction is stronger than the Rule/Example x Sociocultural/Linguistic interaction or the L1/L2 x Sociocultural/Linguistic interaction in both Teacher and Student data. Thus the Rule/Example distinction is important in code-switching between Cantonese and English, even though the Sociocultural/Linguistic interaction is significant.

**Conclusion**

The data seem to indicate that when the teacher or the students are talking about rules, the probability is that they are more likely to use the first language than the second language. When they are talking about examples, the probability is that they are more likely to use the second language than the first language. These probabilities are stronger if they are dealing with linguistic rules and examples than with sociocultural rules and
examples.

In the partial association (two-way), the most significant interaction is the Rule/Example x L1/L2 interaction. In other words, the issue of "rules vs examples" is the strongest "predictor" or "differentiator" of language choice (L1/L2) whether we look at Sociocultural data separately from Linguistic data or look at both together. To my knowledge, this issue has never been investigated in other code-switching studies before.
The business education program in the present study involves both language learning and content learning and raises questions about functional variation of discourse and bilingual code-switching. The present study was devised to answer the following questions:

(1) What is the functional variation of discourse in the educational program for immigrant entrepreneurs, i.e., the management classes, the language classes and the operational tasks? and

(2) In light of the functional variation described in Question One, what are the roles of the first language and the second language?

The Models of Analysis: The Language Socialization/Activity Model versus Language for Specific Purposes Model

I have explored the functional variation of discourse in the sample data using an LSP model of analysis and a Language Socialization/activity Model. Two issues were raised in regard to the LSP theory. Firstly, the data seemed to indicate that the
"genre analysis" as used by Swales (1990) in the LSP approach did not illuminate the relation between the academic discourse and the occupational discourse. Secondly, it did not account for the connection between tasks in the language classroom discourse and genres in the business practices. If the education program was viewed as the "theory" component of small business management, then the business operation could be considered the "practice" side of the "activity". In other words, the LSP approach failed to account for the theory/practice dynamics of a business activity. The Language Socialization/Activity model (Mohan, 1986; Ochs, 1988), however, views an "activity" as an "ecology" of discourses and tasks and tasks as subparts of an activity. Language Socialization (Ochs 1988) is a view of learning which goes beyond language learning alone; language learning is viewed as acquiring linguistic and sociocultural knowledge at the same time. Figure 6.1 acts as a reminder of the concepts in the Language Socialization/Activity Model.

Figure 6.1. The Language Socialization/Activity Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sociocultural Knowledge</th>
<th>Language Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Theory</td>
<td>Practice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Review of Summary of Findings: Research Question (1)

Part one of the study addressed research question number one, which was "What is the functional variation of discourse in the educational program for immigrant entrepreneurs (i.e., the management classes, the language classes and the operational tasks)?" Figure 6.2 summarises the findings.

![Language Socialisation Analysis of the Program](image)

**Figure 6.2. Language Socialisation Analysis of the Program**

**Language Socialisation Analysis: Discourse (Service Encounter and the EOP Class)**

Analysis of texts collected from the EOP class and the business site reveal a clear functional relation between "class talk about the service encounter" and the actual "service encounter". The business owners are both practising service encounters and discussing the "rules" of service encounters. This relation is missing in the LSP theory because the LSP approach does
not specifically discuss the relation between the service encounter genre and the tasks in the language class. Using the perspective of the Language Socialization/Activity approach, role-playing in the class relates to the practice of service encounters and the discussion of rules relates to the theory of service encounters.

Language Socialisation Analysis: Management

The management classes and business practices. The analysis shows how the service encounter discourse incorporates both language knowledge and background business knowledge. Viewing service encounters as "language only" would fail to account for the fact that management information in business (i.e., business theories) does surface at various points in the service encounter and ultimately has to be dealt with in a broad theory of service encounters rather than by way of the LSP approach. Therefore the relation between business theory discourse and business practice discourse needs to be addressed in describing the program as an activity.

The relation between management topics and business operations. This part of the analysis reveals that there is a dynamic interplay between business operation and business management topics such as "Sales and Marketing", "Personnel Management" and "Strategic Planning". There is a dynamic interplay between "theory" in the management classes and "practice" at the business site.
This relationship resembles that of the Language EOP class and the service encounter in the business practice in that the rules are discussed in the classes and the examples were identified in the business operations. The particular actions the business owners take as part of their business offer specific cases to draw on general principles which have been discussed either in the seminars or in the language classes.

The relationship between the seminar and the workshop. The relation between the seminar and the workshop is that the former deals with background knowledge (sociocultural knowledge or theory) while the latter deals with practice in small businesses.

From the LSP approach, the genre of the management classes is similar to that of the EOP classes, which is generally a combination of "report" and "procedural". The LSP approach, which focuses on format rather than on content, would not reveal how the theory in the academic discourse is related to other parts of the program including the workshops and actual business practice.

As illustrated in Figure 6.2, the "Language socialization: Discourse", and "Language socialization: Management" seem to mirror each other in the functional variation of the discourse. On the language side in the EOP class, there is discussion of the rules of service encounters, which can be considered as theory discourse. There is also scaffolding of examples, which can be considered as closely related to practical discourse. On the management class side, there is the seminar which worked on the theory of business
management, and the workshop which worked on the discussion and 
simulation of business practices in the form of case studies. The 
management seminar/workshop/relationship and the language 
rules/examples appear to be reflections of theory/practice 
relations in small business activities.

Language Socialization: Business and Discourse

Application of management theory to service encounter. Data 
collected from on-the-job observations and documents describing the 
tasks of the business owners on a monthly basis provide detailed 
information about the practices of the entrepreneurs. Evidence 
seems to indicate that the business owners have applied business 
theories from the management seminars to the service encounters in 
their businesses (e.g., tax laws, pricing, and health awareness in 
marketing.

Additional examples of the rules forming the background knowledge (theory) for the service encounter. Data collected from 
the language class, the management class and the business site 
reveal that business rules (related to the seminar/workshop 
material) were applied to service encounters. In other words, the 
service encounters draw on business knowledge as well as language 
knowledge. Hence a pure LSP approach is inadequate for analyzing 
the discourses.

For instance, the payment step of the service encounter serves 
to illustrate how business knowledge about taxation, pricing, and
cheque cashing can enter into the encounters. This knowledge may be discussed in the encounter, may be reflected in mandatory signs, and may enter into the decision making of the participants.

Conclusions: Research Question (1)

Firstly, this case study has illustrated a more general language socialisation model which situates language learning in the context of content learning and "real-world" action. The data indicate that the theory/practice dimension of the business as an activity is reflected in the discourse of both the language classes and the business classes.

Secondly, compared to the LSP model of genre and language learning tasks, the Language Socialisation Model illuminates the link between the learning of language and content clearly seen in the service encounter. Activity theory pointed to important dynamic theory/practice relations in business operations, in the language program, and in the management program. The theory/practice dynamic (not handled by the LSP model of genre) appears in contrasts between business rules and business practices, seminar discourse and workshop discourse, EOP class and service encounter discourse, meta-language and language.

Thirdly, the Language Socialization Model uses activity as a major unit of analysis rather than discourse or isolated tasks. Occupational tasks and discourse genres, such as service encounters, are linked to the "action" of the activity. Academic tasks and discourse genres, such as seminars, are linked to the
"knowledge" of the activity. Activity forms the larger context within which discourse genres and tasks play a systematic role, creating a complex "ecology" which needs to be addressed by future research.

Review of Findings: Research Question (2)

To address research question two, which was to investigate the roles of L1 and L2 in the functional variation of discourse in the low level EOP class, where bilingual code-switching mostly occurred, the Language Socialization Model was compared with two models in code-switching. These were Guthrie's (1983) language functions and Faerch's (1985) meta-language/language differences (which can also be termed language rules/examples). Both models were compared by applying them to a sample of data.

The analysis using Guthrie's model indicates that the model misses a large proportion of L2 "language examples". When Faerch's model was applied to the same data, it was found that the language rules/examples distinction accounted for a portion of the discourse including the language examples. However, it failed to account for data which could be labelled as business rules and business examples in the sample.

The Language Socialization approach, however, describes more adequately the functional variation of discourse in the samples analyzed. It illuminates four variation types in the EOP class: language rules and language examples, business rules and business
examples. The rule/example difference is a theory/practice difference. The data seem to indicate a systematic use of L1 and L2 in relation to rules and examples. The Language/Socialization model, therefore, was able to illuminate the relation between theory, practice and bilingual code-switching.

Bilingual Code-switching and the Language Socialization/Activity approach

As mentioned earlier, the Language Socialization/Activity approach views language learning in the context of learning both "language" and "sociocultural knowledge". In the present case study, the language is English for business, and the sociocultural rules of interest are small business management rules. It was found that the pattern of the relationship between functional variation of discourse and bilingual code-switching was illuminated by the Language Socialization model. L1 was mostly used for rules and L2 was mostly used for language or business examples. In other words, the "theory discourse" was mostly in L1 and the "practice discourse" was mostly in L2 in the EOP class. The log-linear analysis indicated that this tendency was stronger when the teacher or the students were dealing with linguistic rules and linguistic examples than when they were dealing with sociocultural rules and examples.
Conclusions: Research Question (2)

Firstly, the Language Socialization approach illuminates four functional categories of discourse in the EOP class: language rules and language examples, business rules and business examples. It thus illuminates the relation between theory and practice discourse: theory in the form of rules and practice in the form of examples. Analysis using the Language Socialization Model seems to have accounted more adequately for functional variation of discourse in the samples analyzed.

Secondly, the Language Socialization Model seems to be able to describe the relation between bilingual code-switching and the functional variation of discourse in the samples. It is most obvious in the low level language class. L1 was used for discussing rules which include both business rules (sociocultural knowledge according to Ochs, 1988) and language rules (linguistic knowledge according to Ochs, 1988). L2 was used mostly for both business examples and language examples. In other words, there is a systematic connection between the major dimensions of the functional variation of theory and practice (or rules and examples) and code-switching between the first language and the second language.

Thirdly, the log-linear analysis indicates a three-way interaction. Data seem to indicate that the relation between rule/example and language choice (i.e., L1 vs L2) varies between sociocultural and linguistic cases. This needs to be examined further.
Fourthly, the issue of "rules/examples" is the strongest "predictor" or "differentiator" of language choice (L1/L2) whether we look at sociocultural data separately from linguistic data or whether we look at both together. This issue has never before been investigated in other code-switching studies.

However, what has been described is a general tendency only. It is not an absolute pattern because there are areas in which L2 is also used for theory learning. This occurs in the review section rather than when the rules are introduced to the class for the first time. L1 is occasionally used for examples as well. There is also insufficient data to indicate the nature of a transitional phenomenon from total use of L1 to total use of L2 in the four functional categories of discourse identified in the present case study.

Implications of the Investigation

Research Implications

The findings of the present investigation have various research implications. First, the concept of "Activity Theory" in language socialisation is a productive model for revealing the dynamic between the theory and the practice of an activity.

Second, applying the "Activity" model to the data provided support for a Language Socialization approach through analyzing a total program in operation, which brings together the language learning components and the content (subject matter) components. It
addresses the mutual learning of language and content holistically rather than concentrating on language alone.

Third, discourse evidence suggests that the activity theory perspective and the genre perspective may be complementary, in that different genres (e.g., the management class genre or the service encounter genre) played roles in the operation of the total activity of the education program and small business.

Fourth, the "ecological" relations between discourses within an activity appear to contribute to the social construction of the activity; discourse operates business, builds business knowledge, and comments on the relation between the two.

Fifth, the relation between functional variation and bilingual code-switching needs to be further investigated. Historically, the two are related as the uses and users of languages in a language community. Recent studies seem to have diverged from one another. There is still a lack of research relating ESP (functions of language) and bilingual code-switching (the users of language). This is despite the fact that the work of researchers such as Cummins (1991) in bilingual education indicates the vital importance of relating these areas.

Sixth, in the code-switching discourse, there is evidence suggesting that the theory/practice or rule/example dimension may be an important one in code-switching as far as educational context is concerned. This is an issue which needs to be further researched.

Seventh, the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods
is productive in investigating the "functional variation" of discourse with relation to code-switching. Findings using one method supplement findings using the other.

Finally, there are interesting issues that can be raised regarding academic language proficiency versus conversational language proficiency (Cummins 1991). In the present study, the closest analogy to the contrast between these two types of language proficiency is the contrast between the service encounter at the business sites on the one hand, and the classroom communication in the business and language classes on the other hand. Interpreting the data through Cummins' (1990) theoretical constructs, is it possible that under certain circumstances, academic language use tends to be associated with the L1 and conversational use tends to be associated with L2? This question needs to be explored, with due regard to the learner's stage of development in the L2, the learner's conceptual knowledge of the topic at hand and many other conditioning factors.

With an ESP perspective, the discourse of theory is usually dealt with in EAP while the discourse of practice may be handled in EOP. In the genre theory, it has been generally assumed that the former is more associated with written discourse (e.g., Swales 1990) while the latter is more related with spoken discourse (e.g., Ventola, 1987). The findings in the present study, however, seem to have diverged from these assumptions. The management seminars, for example, deal with business theories in oral presentations given by seminar leaders. The aspects of "practice" in small
business also require written texts, e.g., the refund policies displayed in the store, the receipts and the invoices. Cummins further points out that

an intense intellectual discussion with one or two people can be just as cognitively demanding as writing an academic paper, despite the fact that the former is contextualized while the latter is relatively decontextualized. (1991, p. 79)

More research is needed to address the complexity of the relations between theory and practice on the one hand, and written discourse and spoken discourse on the other hand, and their relationship with EAP and EOP.

The findings in the present study also imply that the acquiring of business communication skills seems to be more complex than regular inter-personal communication skills. Arguing with customers about refund policies, for example, requires advanced communication skills. There is also the decision between strictly following the rules, or compromising in order to maintain good customer relations. These are difficult tasks which even native speakers may be struggling to perform well. The complexity is compounded when the learner has to face cultural differences and has to handle tasks in an acceptable Canadian way. The learners would need more time to reach the required proficiency. More research is necessary to address issues relating to the acquisition of these skills.
Educational Implications

The educational implications of the findings can be summarised as follows:

The students' and the teacher's use of the first language seems to have contributed to the learning of theory in both language and content learning areas. The bilingual approach for immigrant entrepreneurs in the present case study seems to have had a positive impact on both learning and teaching small business management. This impression has been reinforced by a separate study which evaluated results of this program (Witter et al., 1992; Wong, 1992).

The present study calls for a greater awareness of the roles of the two languages (L1 and L2) acting together in the classroom. It raises the question of how best to capitalize on these roles in a complementary fashion through educational policies so that one can pursue goals which were previously thought to be contradictory, such as the use of the first language along with the acquisition of the second language. It is worthwhile investigating further how far this will operate in other educational situations.

The combination of theory and practice in a business program is an important dimension of training. Managing a small business is helpfully viewed as a sociocultural activity. This may have an impact on curriculum and instruction for Small Business.

An "ecological" view of discourse contributes to a better understanding of the language and content learning process of learners. This may shed light on future curriculum planning.
Limitations of the Study

Since the present investigation is one of the first exploratory studies relating ESP to bilingual code-switching and viewing the domain of small business management training as an "activity", it calls for further research in many different dimensions. Limitations of the study are that the present case-study serves only as an exploratory study. Many questions remained unanswered. To take one case, the use of L1 and L2 for discussing sociocultural rules, for example, could be further investigated. For instance, the factors of "review" versus "new rules" may have contributed to the use of the two languages. More research is needed to explore this area. There is insufficient data to indicate a transitional phenomenon. The ten-week period is insufficient to detect transitional changes over time.

This is only a business case. Other subject areas could be investigated to explore the findings suggested about the relation between theory/practice, and bilingual code-switching. In a number of other courses, one finds a theory/practice dimension, e.g., fire-fighters' class and the actual practice; science lectures and science labs (Hodson, 1988). There may be relations between "learning science, learning about science and doing science" on the one hand, and "learning small business, learning about small business, and doing small business" on the other hand. The scope of the present case study does not cover areas for comparison between these two.
Language groups other than Cantonese speakers have not been investigated. Furthermore, non-educational settings have not been investigated.

In summary, the present study is not an attempt to address all related issues in the areas of ESP and bilingual code-switching. Instead, it raises questions in areas such as the need for more research in global discourse analysis, in relating theory and practice, and in the roles of L1 and L2 in the educational domain of entrepreneurs.
References


Objective
The program aims at providing small business owners and managers the latest managerial expertise and information essential for today's business survival and expansion. The program will take a hands-on approach in working along with owner-managers to solve their real-life problems thereby improving the company's corporate performance.

Program Structure
- 40 hours of seminars
- 20 hours of tutorials
- 20 hours of on-site consultation
- 40 hours of business communication skills

The above sessions will be spread over a period of one year. Upon completion of the program, participants are expected to have gained in-depth knowledge in the following designed core-topics:
- Advertising
- Business Law (Leasing and Purchasing Commercial Properties)
- Financing and Government Funding
- Computerizing in Small Business
- Contracts and International Trade
- Inventory Control and Management
- Marketing
- Marketing Yourself Inside Out
- Networking for Small Business
- Personnel and Operational Management
- Selling and Sales Staff Training
- Tax and Tax Planning

Prominent Features
- Seminars conducted by leading Chinese professionals (such as bankers and accountants) who provide practical solutions for everyday problems.
- Flexible on-site sessions coached by the program instructor who will help participants apply the principles and techniques presented at seminars, diagnose their unique problems and monitor their company's performance.
- Participants are eligible for 75% fee rebate under governmental subsidy. Balance of fees is tax-deductible.
- Basic fee paid entitles two persons from each business to participate in the training.

Past operation of the program in various Canadian small business communities led to a significant 40% to 80% increase in sales in participating businesses, the return-on-investment of which was nearly TRIPLED in two years' time while still showing continuing growth.

For further information, please contact:

Information and application for C.E.I.C. (Manpower) fee rebate can be obtained and processed at:
INITIAL CONTACT LETTER

(TRANSLATED FROM THE CHINESE ORIGINAL)

TO: 
Participants in the Small Business Owner Development (SBOD) Cantonese Program

FROM: 
Alice S. P. Wong

DATE:

Dear Participants:

The College has kindly given me consent to conduct research work on the roles of Cantonese and English in your business classes, language classes and business situations. I am writing to invite volunteers who will be willing to take part in this project. I will conduct observations in your regular classes and at your work-place at regular business hours without affecting your studies or business. The focus will be on your use of Cantonese and English in these situations. A total of two (2) hours will be needed for volunteers who agree to be interviewed with the same focus.

Your identity will be strictly confidential. The information collected will be only used by me for my research project at the University of British Columbia. You have the right to refuse and also withdraw at any time. If you do so, there will not be penalty of any kind. I will be happy to answer questions about the procedure and any related matters at any time. Please contact me at 123-4567 should you decide to participate. A separate consent form with more detail will be sent to you individually for your final approval and signature.

Thank you very much for your co-operation.

Yours very truly,

Alice Siu-ping Wong
敬啟者：

本人已獲校方批准，將進行一項研究有關中文在商業班，
商用英語班及生意上之用途，現徵求自願參與此計劃之同學
。參加者只須同意本人記錄上課之進行情形，觀察生意中
英文之應用，及只須接受合共兩小時之個別訪問，回答有關
上述兩項之問題。所有資料只供本人在卑詩大學之研究工作
所用，一切均絕對保密，並可以隨時退出，不會受任何處分
。凡願意加者，請與本人聯絡（電話：123-4567）。同意
書將於日後另行個別寄上，多謝合作。

此致

小型商業擴展課程全體同學

黃陳小萍敬上

日期：
SUBJECT CONSENT FORM

(TRANSLATED FROM THE CHINESE COPY)

PROJECT: The Role of Chinese and English in the Tasks of Immigrant Entrepreneurs

INVESTIGATOR: Mrs. Alice S. P. Wong (Tel: 123-4567)

PURPOSE: The aim is to investigate the use of the first language (i.e. Cantonese) and the second language (i.e. English) in the learning situation and working situation of a business owner/manager.

PROCEDURES: We will record how people use Chinese and English in business and language classes, and in their jobs as business owner/managers.

IDENTITY: The identity of volunteers will be confidential. Your name will not be used. A number will be used instead.

TIME: This research will take approximately two (2) hours of your time in interviews. The observation will be done during your regular class time and regular business hours without interfering your study or business.

REFUSALS: You have the right to refuse to participate. You can withdraw at any time. If you do so, there will be no penalty of any kind.

QUESTIONS: Mrs. Alice S.P. Wong will be happy to answer any questions about procedures or any other matters at any time.

CONSENT: I consent to take part in this project and I acknowledge that I have received a copy of the consent form.

Signature: _______________________
Date: _____________________
同意書

研究題目：中文與英文在移民東主中之應用

研究者：黃陳小萍（電話：123-4567）

目的：研究中英在學業及工作上的應用

程序：我們將會記錄中英文在商業班、英語班，及在商業上的應用。

身份：被訪者之身份及一切資料均絕對保密，不會顯露你的名字而只用代號。

時間：觀察會於正常上課及生意時間內，被訪者則只需用兩小時的時間。

拒絕權：你有權不同意參加，或在任何時間中退出，不會受到任何處分。

問題：陳小萍女士將會樂意隨時回答任何有關問題。

同意：本人同意參加此計劃，並同時已收到一份同意書。

簽名：

日期：
### Appendix III: Summary of Background of Informants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Own</th>
<th>Work History</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JU</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>College</td>
<td>Infant’s</td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>Family Business in HK</td>
<td>new business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td></td>
<td>EOP LL, no govt sub.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RY</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Newspaper</td>
<td>Marketor</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>Development co., HK</td>
<td>interested in other businesses, EOP Adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FY</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td>Exp. in Singapore</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>U. Grad.</td>
<td>Dental Ass.</td>
<td>Office/man. Assistant</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>9 yr. teacher, + 1 yr. DA</td>
<td>Excel. comm. skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CC</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td></td>
<td>Dental Ass.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>EOP Adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JL</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>College</td>
<td>Fur wholesale</td>
<td>V.P. Sales Man.</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>Sales for Xerox Tel. Co. staff</td>
<td>EOP Adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>College</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>wife of JL, EOP adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GC</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>U. Grad.</td>
<td>Meat Store</td>
<td>President</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>owned two stores 2.5 yrs in the co.</td>
<td>Adv. comm. skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CT</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>EOP LL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KL</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Window frames</td>
<td>Manager Book + adm</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>8 weeks in the co. 3 yr. in the co.</td>
<td>EOP LL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CH</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>EOP adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SM</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>College</td>
<td>Window blinds</td>
<td>Owner/man Partner</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>3 years in the co. same time</td>
<td>EOP adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JM</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>College</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40%</td>
<td></td>
<td>EOP adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KW</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>Produce</td>
<td>Owner/man Manager</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.5 years in business n/a</td>
<td>EOP adv., bus. expanding good comm. skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NL</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>U./China</td>
<td>Grocery store</td>
<td>Owner/man Partner</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>4 years in the co.</td>
<td>EOP LL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TP</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40%</td>
<td></td>
<td>EOP LL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LC</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Bakery &amp; Restaurant</td>
<td>Director</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>2 years in the co. 11 years in the co.</td>
<td>EOP adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JS</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Director</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adv. Comm. skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FT</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>B. Com.</td>
<td>Seafood wholesale</td>
<td>Owner/man manager</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>4 years in the co.</td>
<td>adv. comm. skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JY</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>U. grad.</td>
<td>Drugstore</td>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>3.5 years in the co.</td>
<td>adv. comm. skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CB</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Dry-cleaning</td>
<td>Owner/man</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>1 yr. garment retail, 8 yr. in co.</td>
<td>LL EOP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Secretary</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td></td>
<td>wife, not active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EW</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Ch. Restaurant</td>
<td>Owner/man</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>4 yr. in the co.</td>
<td>EOP adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CK</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Home appli.</td>
<td>Owner/man</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>6 months in co.</td>
<td>EOP LL.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Bakery</td>
<td>Owner/bak</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>8 mths, 12 yrs/HK 3 yrs restaurant</td>
<td>EOP LL., literacy EOP LL., active</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Owner/sale</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N1</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Flowers &amp; Gifts</td>
<td>Owner/man</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>2yr. + exper. in grocery, bakery</td>
<td>EOP LL literacy, Exp. in Trinidad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N2</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Owner/sale</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T1</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td>Import: gifts, silk flowers, toys, etc.</td>
<td>Owner/man</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>15 yr. 1 yr. in co. Family business</td>
<td>Lab. Techn. EOP adv P/T restaurant, EOP adv.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T2</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>High sch.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**KEY:**  
- man = manager  
- exp = experience  
- comm = communication  
- sale = sales person  
- appl = appliances  
- adv = advanced  
- sch = school  
- ch = chinese  
- LL = Low Level  
- bak = baker  
- techn = technician  
- p/t = part-time
Appendix IV: Sample Field Notes

Protocol Number: OS-C-PT2  Time: 12.35 p.m. - 2.00 p.m.
1. This observation was arranged directly with
2. the informants. It was a hot Wednesday
3. afternoon. The time was suggested by the
4. informants because that was a busy time of the
5. day. The business site was the same bakery
6. store which I visited last month. Only C1 and
7. C2 were in the store. Their second child, an
8. eight-year-old, came back for lunch and then
9. returned to school again. C1 and C2, the
10. informants, greeted me warmly in Cantonese. I
11. was their customer too. We had developed
12. excellent relationship. I told them that my
13. focus of observation was on what they did in
14. the shop and assured them again that
15. everything I noted would be strictly
16. confidential. They were volunteers from the
17. owner development program, who had consented
18. to be observed and interviewed. I first went
19. into the rear part of the shop. This was the
20. bakery. C1 was working busily on a long table.
21. He was making some bread. It was messy in
22. certain parts but on the whole things seemed
23. to be in good control. I told C1 that he would
24. need to put a sign up in the washroom to
25. remind food-handlers to wash their hands after
26. going to the toilet. It was required by health
27. regulations of the city. After chatting with
28. him and looking around in the bakery for ten
29. minutes, I moved to the front part of the
30. store which was the retail section. C2 was the
31. only person working. The bakery was located at
32. a busy street. There were banks, offices and
33. other retail stores near-by. It was originally
34. a low-income area but with the increase of new
35. residential buildings in this part of the
36. city, the consuming power had been improved.
37. The make-up of the clientele varied from bank
38. and office workers at lunch time and
39. housewives and other customers from the same
40. neighbourhood. Their prices were very
41. reasonable and had attracted a growing number
42. of customers from other areas as well. The
43. lay-out of the store was simple. There were
44. showcases on three walls, a fridge dividing
45. the store front from the bakery and shelves
46. for day-old's on one side of the wall near the
47. entrance. There was a coffee-table near the
48. fridge. They also sold coffee and pops in
49. cans. I sat mostly on the table. Many of the
1. customers greeted me with a smile, assuming I
2. was one of the staff or one of the family
3. members. I blended naturally with the rest in
4. the scene and was not causing any alarm. I
5. watched every customer who came in and tried
6. to write down what he or she said to C2. I was
7. unable to note all. I did not use a tape-
8. recorder to tape the conversations this time
9. because it would disrupt the naturalness
10. of the scene and it would not be ethical to do
11. so without prior permission from the
12. customers. Customer 1 came in, purchased some
13. pastries and asked if she could come back
14. later for them.

15. Customer 1: I must leave that. I'm going to
16. the bank. Can I come back later?


18. It was 12.40 p.m. Another woman came in,
19. looked around and then left. An East-Indian
20. man came in and purchased some pastries. While
21. C2 was busy counting the money he gave her, a
22. woman who was neatly dressed came in. She
23. looked like a bank worker.

24. The lady: Is this curried beef? (pointing to
25. the showcase)


27. The lady: Are they flour or buns?


29. The lady: I'll have one of each.

30. C2 talked to C1 in Cantonese and asked there
31. were any curried beef buns left. C1 replied,
32. "Mo-la! (No more!)" C2 came back to the lady.

33. C2: Sorry. Curried beef all gone. Sausage buns?

34. The lady: O. K. Can I pick them up later?

35. C2: Yes. One-seventy, please.

36. The lady left. An elderly woman came in and
looked at the day-old's. (End of sample notes)
Appendix V: Sample Service Encounter Text (At the Bakery)

Dialogue SE1: At the Bakery (C2's shop). C2 is the owner. A is the customer. He is a Chinese Canadian who does not speak Chinese.

1. C2: Hi!
2. A: Do you have any cha-siu-bou (barbecue pork bun)?
3. C2: How many do you want?
5. C2: Four for GST. Six you don't pay GST.
6. A: Give me six then.
7. C2: Six the same, OK?
8. A: Same?
9. C2: They are same price.
10. A: And ... What other bou (bun) do you gave? Gar-lei-bou (Curry bun) ?
12. A: Yes, can I take that?
13. C2: Six each?
14. A: Six cha-siu (barbecue pork), and ....
15. C2: Cha-siu (barbecue pork), right? (put buns in a paper box.)
16. A: Four you pay GST. Six you don't pay GST?
18. A: That's strange. Can I have one apple muffin?
19. C2: O.K. Lai-yau-bou (cream bun) ?
20. A: I like them but I can't eat them all!
21. C2: One apple, one blend apple?
22. A: Right.
23. C2: (put buns in the paper box.) Anything else?
24   A: No. How much?
25. C2: Eight sixty. Do you have sixty cents?
27. C2: (took money and gave change). Thank you. Bye!
28. A: Bye!

(End of SE1)
Appendix VI: Genre Analysis of Sample Chapter


CHAPTER 13
Advertising and Promotion

"Running a business without advertising is like winking at a pretty girl in the dark—you know what you're doing, but she doesn't.‖ The president of one of the largest advertising companies in New York concluded a formal address on the billions of dollars spent on advertising each year in the United States by saying, "We know that half of these billions were wasted. The only trouble is we don't know which half."

These two statements point out the importance of advertising and the size of the advertising bill in this country every year, and should caution all business people to make their advertising effective. This warning is even more true for small firms that normally cannot absorb wasteful expenditures as well as larger firms.

THE NATURE OF DEMAND

The total demand for the goods or services offered by any small firm can be divided into (1) established demand and (2) promoted, or newly created, demand.

Established demand is the volume of sales that comes without conscious outside promotion by the firm. It assumes that the firm is established with some degree of attractiveness and relies basically on that fact to bring customers to the firm to buy products or services. Reliance is also placed on the fact that people see the store and think of it, perhaps, when products or services are considered. It is recognized that pedestrian traffic is already in the area and that some of the people will stop en route to other places. Distance from competitors will usually assist in bringing in established demand for most types of merchandise.

Promoted demand, by contrast, is the volume of sales which results from the firm's engaging in all types of activities to draw people to the firm. Promoted-demand customers, if pleased, can become established customers.

It is not true that small firms cannot operate profitably when they rely solely on established demand. However, those firms which supplement their established demand with promoted demand show much better sales volume and profits. Too many small firms restrict their operations by ignoring the possibilities of creating more sales. Case studies often show that the reasons are a lack of working capital to pay expenses of promotion, a belief that their market is inelastic, or a lack of knowledge of how to design a sales promotion program.

All the activities that go into the development of sales can be grouped under the title sales promotion. Sales promotion can use either direct or indirect methods. There are no guarantees that any one method will show a precise dollar return in sales, but the effectiveness of each can usually be measured with some degree of accuracy. Every small firm owner should think about using some of the following types of sales promotion:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct promotion methods</th>
<th>Indirect promotion methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Advertising</td>
<td>1 Public relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Publicity</td>
<td>2 Customer relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Displays</td>
<td>3 Customer services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Special event sales</td>
<td>4 Product styling and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Manufacturers' aids</td>
<td>packaging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Personal selling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**DIRECT SALES PROMOTION**

**Advertising**

It must be recognized that advertising is essential to almost every business. Large-scale advertising has made possible the benefits of mass production by creating a demand for the increased flow of products and services that mass production has made possible. Unit costs have been reduced in most

**Types of Advertising Media**

Among the media generally used in advertising are:

1 Television
2 Radio
3 Newspapers
4 Magazines

**MEASURING ADVERTISING EFFECTIVENESS**

Whenever possible, every advertising program undertaken should be checked for its effectiveness. Some of the ways the small firm can do this are:

1 Advertise one item in one ad only. Have no references to the item on the sales floor. Then count the calls and requests which result.
2 Place identifying marks in an ad which appears in two separate publications. The reader is asked to bring the ad to the firm to obtain a special price or prize. See how many ads come in from

Are your judgments based on what you know or what you hear?

**The Man Who Sold Hot Dogs**

There was a man who lived by the side of the road and sold hot dogs. He was hard of hearing so he had no radio. He had trouble with his eyes so he read no newspapers. But he sold good hot dogs.

**QUESTIONS FOR CLASS DISCUSSION**

1 How would you describe established demand as contrasted with promoted demand?
2 How would you define advertising?
3 Is advertising as important to small firms as to large ones?
4 How is the problem of choosing the advertising media different for

**Projects for Home Assignment and/or Class Discussion**

1 Do you know of a product you or your family prefer because of its packaging and styling? Explain such a case and why you prefer it.
2 List what you think would be the best advertising media for your own hardware store in a suburban area. Prepare a specific ad for the store.

**Follow-up Projects (Case Studies)**
## Appendix VII: Case Studies

**CASE 1: OPERATING A BAKERY AS AN OWNER/MANAGER (C1 & C2)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PUTTING THEORY INTO PRACTICE</th>
<th>THEORY IN SEMINARS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>(PRACTICE ON SITE)</em></td>
<td>Marketing &amp; Advertising (S2, S3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Analyzed the regional competition.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Discussed the essence of s/b marketing. Suggested image establishment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Designed sign for promotion. Promotion sign set up.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Analyzed customer profile.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Suggested methods of introducing new products.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Suggested running a sole business with one site due to the lack of trustworthy hands.</td>
<td>Personnel &amp; Operational Management (S4,S5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Reviewed potential problems of the lack of hands in both the baking and the selling area.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Suggested the participation of &quot;job entry&quot; program.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Reviewed own company's performance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Reviewed sales of company which shows an increase of 40% as per before joining the course.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- One part-time baker is employed as suggested. The problem with the short of hands is temporarily solved with Mr. C1 helping with the selling at times.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Discussed the possibility of expanding in the bakery and restaurant business. Discussed the advantages & disadvantages of: a) Running a restaurant and a bakery; b) running merely a restaurant.
- Designed pricing strategies.
- Explained the application of the discussed goal/objective setting.
- Practical implication of the 3C's in connection to the company.
- Discussed the viability of buying a business from a neighbouring owner. Suggested the points of consideration and given own opinion in terms of the risk involved. Inspected the actual location.
- Further discussion on the purchase of the neighbouring business. Derived conclusion that it is not a viable business to buy. Overhead too high for restructuring the site and that customer potential is not too promising.
- Discussed the possibility of business starting in one particular location.
- Raised the necessity to consider the financial viability in expanding.

- Discussed tax problems related to the existing Hong Kong business.

- Discussed the tax concerns with buying equipments from abroad.

- Discussed the calculation of inventory in conjunction to tax planning.

- Introduced the concept of depreciation, the formation of a trust fund, and various tax deduction options.

- Business plan for loan application to start one more business.

- Calculation of cost/profit analysis. Determination of cost structure for various products.

- Analyzed product line.

- Reviewed the production capacity as per sales ambition.

- Discussed the opportunity in exploring the cookie market.

- Introduction of new products - more kinds of bread/cookies.

- Discussed the benefits and liabilities of registering the company as a sole unlimited and limited company.

- Discussed the effect of Constitution on the Canadian economy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Financing and Tax Planning (S7, S12)</th>
<th>Others: Business Laws (S8, S9)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Cost accounting</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>- Production</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
PUTTING THEORY INTO PRACTICE: CASE 2

(THE FLOWER AND GIFT SHOP OWNERS)

COUPLE 2 (N1 & N2)

Type of Business: Flowers and Gifts

English Proficiency: Limited (Beginners' Level)

Tasks performed in "on-site sessions":

Code: OSN1.

Reviewed overall operation of the company. Understood the company's structure. Discussed past history of the co.

Analyzed customer profile. Analyzed market niche thereby designing an image for the company.

Topics discussed and goals set:
   a) Displaying / Shelving
   b) Product line selection
   c) Pricing strategy - to maximize profit
   d) Public relation - selling / research

Code: OSN2.

Reviewed the necessity of advertising in parallel to seminar's teaching in-depth discussion on small business's position towards: a) Vulture niching for survival
   b) Various types of niche marketing
   c) Developing of USP / Image

Suggested various of price setting and testing methods.

Discussed window decoration. Discussed interior decoration and display to eliminate the negligence of existing stocks carried at the back of the store.

Discussed the necessity of putting up a new sign for customer attraction.

Code: OSN3.

Possibilities of starting other businesses in Canada discussed. Pointed out the options' pro's and con's.

Contrasted the advantages & disadvantages of starting own
business and buying an existing one from others.

Discussed various investment options and their risk/return ratios.

Preliminary introduction to tax and tax planning.

Code: OSN4.

Comments: ESL lecturers very helpful.

Discussed the various evaluation criteria bankers and other financial managers employed in issuing business loans. Discussed the various financial sources and their pro's and con's.

Discussed the viability of introducing the "balloon-wrapping" machine.

Discussed equity/debt financing and their pro's and con's.

Discussed the inter-relation between interest rate, inflation and other economic activities.

Code: OSN5.

Bought the "Balloon-wrapping" machine.

Further discussion on the advantages & disadvantages of buying an existing business as compared to starting a new one.

Discussed the opportunity in importing various porcelain vases and kitchen utensils from China. Discussed the viability of the related warehouse purchase or rental options. Discussed the scope of insurance coverage as required.

Further discussion on tax and tax planning. Discussed difference in operation under the introduction of the GST tax. Discussed the operational structure of the GST tax itself.


Reviewed porcelain products import.

Comments: Strategic planning irrelevant to this specific company.

Further discussion on the relevance of strategic planning to all businesses and its practical application.
Further explanation on GST mechanism.

Examined on the sourcing structure - reviewing on all wholesalers.

OSN7.

Comments: ESL very helpful

Diagnosed the viability and concern of accepting a deal with the "Wall International Business Consultants Limited" in terms of a local floral delivery service. Pointed out the necessity to consider:
   a) Terms of joining
   b) Way out
   c) Contract details to protect own company.
Suggested viable if there is no hidden terms to be fulfilled before joining.

Code: OSN8.

Reviewed contract with the Consultant Limited. Contract established.

Further discussion on GST's application and registration.

Discussed local floral market and the advantages & disadvantages of moving location.

Discussed the option of selling presently owned premises in the perspective of investment return. Discussed possible development in Metro Vancouver.

Discussed customer handling: Compared department store's practice and that of other chinese shop owners.

Discussed rental law and legal action against breakage.
PUTTING THEORY INTO PRACTICE: CASE 3

(THE IMPORTERS)

COUPLE 3 (T1 & T2)

Type of Business: Importing, wholesaler of many lines; a trading company

English Proficiency: advanced

Tasks performed in "On-site sessions":

Code: OST1.

Reviewed overall operation of the company. Understood the practice of the industry.

Goal setting: a) Distributive network establishment  
               b) BC market familiarization  
               c) Local Canadian characteristics  
               d) Time Management

Code: OST2.

Reviewed inventory condition, diagnosed product line viability and carried out sensitivity analysis.

Discussed small business's approach to market research.

Discussed the method of obtaining finance and their pro's and con's.

Suggested various ways of establishing local distributive network.

Illustrated trade show displaying and pricing structure.

Discussed the danger of the company's product supplier meeting with the distributing agent of the same.

Code: OST3.

a) Meeting between company's supplier and distributing agent cancelled.

b) Further inventories ordered to improve on stock-out condition.

c) Arranged two trade shows for promotion.

Discussed direct marketing and its required assertive approach.
Discussed the pro's and con's of employing own sales force and drafted ad. for recruitment.

Reviewed on the practical application of the market mix matrix.

Discussed market strategies for introducing an exclusive product of the company and suggested various appropriate outlets and tactics.


Approach various banks, currency exchangers, supermarkets, department stores and BC Tel in connection to distributing the company's exclusively carried product.

Two trade shows scheduled to be held in BC Place and Pharmasave buying show respectively.

Discussed Canadian business practice.

Discussed methods of researching the details of a company.

Discussed practical steps and cautions in approaching big companies, using BC Tel as a vivid example.

Drafted business letter to initiate contact with the above mentioned and suggested personal approach.

Further discussion on trade show display and tailored a few ideas for the specific product.

Code: OST5.

Promising replies from various banks and BC Tel. Those with currency exchangers show negative.

Response from trade shows are slow.

Established contacts within BC Tel and undergoing departmental selling.

Carried out local customer profile analysis and raised the possibility of exporting rather than merely importing.

Considered side-line trading of exporting carpets and wallpaper back to HKG.

In-depth analysis of power structuring within company to approach the problem of split decision on company's direction.
Under-capitalization surfaced.

Opened remedial options for considering, which include:
  a) Selling out of neighbouring warehouse (P&C's)
  b) Expansion & c) Let out present warehouse (P&C's)

Discussed the viability of a deal from a financial viewpoint in relation to the adaptability of the company's liquidity.


Direction of company still under consideration by various partners.

Response to ad call for the structuring of interviews. Techniques of interviewing discussed.

Further discussion on the defensive actions that should be taken to solve the present financial situation.

Discussed the nine circles of the strategic planning as discussed during the workshop hours.

Code: OST7.

Reviewed particulars of interviewees for the position posted.

Further up-keep with the condition of the warehouse sale/rent condition.

Reviewed the necessity of further sales force. Gave suggestion on employee selection.

Reviewed on the present stock condition. Corrected for its stock-out problem.

Suggested GST registration and underwent brief explanation on its structure.

New product line introduced: a) Canned bouton mushroom; b) Silk flowers and plants
# Appendix VIII: EOP Low Level Class

## THE LANGUAGE LEARNING TASKS IN THE EOP LOW LEVEL CLASSES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLASS CODE</th>
<th>THEORY</th>
<th>PRACTICE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ESP-2B</td>
<td>Informal observation</td>
<td>group work in developing dialogues for service encounter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| ESP-3B     | Part 1: Six steps in a business deal  
Language examples in L2  
Explanation in L1 & L2  
Part 2: Language only - Making of questions | Students went over the written dialogues and underlined the question words |
|            | Reviewed some of the steps in a business deal. Reviewed questions. | Classified statements, objections, questions |
|            | Students discussed theories in business deals in L1. | Use of dialogues (content) |
|            | Language rules: use of comparatives  
Difference between ‘in fact’ and ‘I think’  
Business Rules: Confidence of the server.  
Student’s Remark: If you don’t have confidence yourself, the customers won’t have confidence either. | Remarks by C2: I’ll use them tomorrow. (cf. observation Os-C1) |
| ESP-5B     | Dealing with customers’ objection: a follow-up of customer service  
Business rules: Refund policies, return policies etc. (half in L1, half in L2). | Writing/Reading ‘signs’ to put up in the store, stating store policies |
|            | Real cases:  
Instructor quoted her own business experience in refunding customers. N1 & N2 quoted their own examples and their refund policies. | |
|            | Worked on hand-outs 522.1 (Worked on vocabulary items in groups). | |
| ESP-7B | Instructor explained when business owners had to 'give presentations' about 'location, type of business, size of business, style of business, clientele, source of supply, sales volume, profit/loss profile' etc.  
The instructor's questions were asked in L1 in scaffolding.  
Customer's use of credit cards (acceptance) in business practices | Writing tasks given;  
Difficult for the group but they still tried.  
C2 read her work out and the instructor corrected it and wrote it on the board.  
C2 commented on the 'ingredients' she used and explained why her bakery was special.  
The meat store manager (clerk) did his writing.  
Language task: N2 read out her work with help from instructor. N2's questions were in L1.  
Student reported work of the appliance store owner.  
Reading yellow-page ads for florists, bakeries, meat stores and appliance servicing.  
Task assigned : writing up of ads. |
|---|---|
| ESP-8B | Handling language for emergency: Break-in, Robbery and shop-lifting.  
Group discussed about tax and banking. | Instructor told class a true story about her competitor, and her own experience (customer shop-lifting in her store).  
Real cases: N2 told the class how a car ran into her flower shop. C1 & C2 also told their stories.  
Writing task: answering comprehension questions. A difficult task for N1 & N2. |
### ESP-9B

**Objectives of the class:**
1) To learn Taxation terms
2) To develop a business plan

Students learned concepts about the following terms: Financial Statement, Balance Sheet, Profit/Loss Statement, Income & Expenses Statement,
Income - cost - bad debt = gross profit
G/P - expenses = net profit

**Assets and Liabilities**

Instructor explained terms in Chinese and asked students their goals.

**Difference between long term and short term goals.**

Language rules: difference between "within", "by", to "run" a company or "manage" a company.

C1’s goal: to start a new branch and therefore needed to apply for a bank loan.

C1’s remark about N1 & N2’s goals: Yours is Canadian style. Mine is Hong Kong style.

N1 & N2 said that they didn’t know how to write a "business proposal".

C2 read her assignment out aloud.

### ESP-10B

Class discussed about ‘job descriptions’; a lot of L2 used for the descriptions; explanation mainly in L1.

Discussed about medium size or more than 1 staff member in business; started to get into personnel management skills.

simulated tasks: drafting of an ad. for hiring new staff

### ESP-11B

Class discussed impact of GST

Class talked about franchising.

Instructor commented on different kinds of hardship in running a small business.

Worked on hand-outs 626: 1-3

N1 & N2 commented on their experience in Trinidad.

C1 & C2 commented on their experience in Hong Kong.

N1 & N2 talked about how they auctioned flowers.
### Workshop Case Studies (PRACTICE)

- Application of market competition: Flanking
- Worked on marketing strategies for KW's produce shop (new branch)
- Follow-up action: the group put together a joint ad. to announce the grand opening of KW's new branch as a joint marketing effort.

- Designed an Advertisement for KW's new branch. KW liked the idea of "progressive" sentence in the newspaper ad.
- EC reported on the usefulness of the 11 ways to write effective headlines (positive)

- Importance of phone manner, frontline people
- Media used for KW's new branch: Chinese newspaper. The marketing manager of that paper was one of the participants. Good example of networking.

- CH's management problem: conflicts among different ethnic employees
- More problems in personnel management
- The use of "awards" to encourage staff, pro's and con's and its technicality
- Discussion on values and expectation, cultural differences between Chinese and western ways
- Style of management: Chinese owners do not like to sell out their businesses

### Related Seminar Topics (THEORY)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Related Seminar Topics</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Marketing in the 90s</td>
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<td>S3</td>
<td>Advertising</td>
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<td>S4</td>
<td>Selling and Sales Staff Training</td>
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<tr>
<td>S5</td>
<td>Personnel and Operational Management</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
- Collected information about the company for evaluation purposes
- How do you deal with your competitors?
- Strategic planning for investment: shares and stocks
  Study on "Catering"
- SM’s question about expansion and increase of expenses
- Analyze factors affecting co. performance
- Worked on Decision-making tools using N1 & N2’s flower shop as a real case. Should they develop/expand their flower line or gift line of their business? Use of a decision tree (flow-chart). Part of strategic planning.
- Strategic planning for pricing
- Stages of business development

| S6 | Strategic Planning |
Appendix X: Weekly Results (Bilingual Code-switching Analysis)

Table A1: Teacher talk (linguistic) weeks 1-9

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Table A2: Student talk (linguistic) Weeks 1-9

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Table A3: Teacher business talk Weeks 1-9

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Table A4: Student business talk Weeks 1-9

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</table>

The following tables present a summary of the data analysis of all eight weeks of sample in linguistic knowledge and sociocultural knowledge.

A5: Linguistic -: Teacher Talk

Weeks 1-9

\[ X^2 = 205.76 \quad p < .0001 \]

A6: Linguistic -: Student Talk

Weeks 1-9

\[ X^2 = 85.11 \quad p < .0001 \]

A7: Sociocultural: Teacher Talk

Weeks 1-9

\[ X^2 = 93.87 \quad p < .0001 \]

A8: Sociocultural: Student Talk

Weeks 1-9

\[ X^2 = 160.02 \quad p < .0001 \]
Appendix XI: Sample Text CS-1

CM: In business dealing, we come up with six steps. (Students referred to page one of hand-outs.) Right, six steps. The first step is "introduce the offer". What's the purpose? Purpose jikhai yûñhûmj <means reason>, muhkdik <aim>. First step: "introduce the offer". (M. wrote on board). Yui wàh bêî di haak têng <have to tell the customers>. To tell the customers that we have some service or we have some goods for sale. "Introduce the offer". Yiu gaaîsiuh tûngsêuhngvâuh qêî jûng fông-faat.<There are several ways to introduce.> Ngôô qaanîyuq gôôî. <Those I have underlined.> (Participants referred to page 1 of hand-outs.) The offer can be introduced by a question. (M. wrote on board). ... For example: "Is there anything I can do for you today?" Give me others.

N1: How are you today?
CM: Some more.
N2: It's a nice day today.
CM: Question! Question!
N2: You need any help today?
CM: "Can I help you today? What can I do for you?" Or you can give a statement (wrote on board). Question jauhhaih mahnthâih <means question>. Statement jauhhaih yâtgo jikhjip ge geei <is a direct sentence>. For example: "We are ahving a special on red roses today". Tell them strict forward what you're selling: "special on red roses". Gôngchôîh qô geei <In the previous sentences> "How are you today? It's a nice day." Yauh mhhaih maaîhyêh <You're not selling anything> You're not selling. Yauh mhhainêîh váûh yêh service. <You don't have any service either.> But it's to start a conversation. Hâîh hôîchî yâtgo conversation. <It's to start a conversation.> But whether it's a question to start or a statement, môuhaîuhn haih <whether it's> question waahkiê or> statement, it's a general sense (wrote on board), right? Relating to your goods or service. For example: "Can I help you?" This you say it's 'general'. You can also say "specific". If it's "general", you are not telling them what kind of service or a product you're selling. Nêîh môûh wàh bêî kêuîh têng néîh maaih fâ waahkiê maaih sâm <You don't tell him whether you sell flowers or clothes.> But something you can help them. Or it can be "specific" (wrote on board). Gôngdou chînchînh chôôchô mingming baahkaahk ge <State very clearly>. "We specialize in one day delivery service." For example, ngôôdeih vât yâht gâaufo sungfo ge <we deliver in one day>. Nîdouh hû chînchînh chôôchô mingming baahkaahk <Here's very clear>. Very clear, very specific kind of service. ...

CM: Gàmyaht ngôôdeih qaijuhk gông: Yûhqwô kêuîh séung mâaih, go haak wûih dîmûeûng? <Today we continue with: if the customer wishes to buy (something), what would s/he do?>

N2: Gô haak séung mâaih, tûngsêuhng wûîh yât yahplâîh jauh wûîh mahn viu màiyêh. <(If) the customer wishes to buy (something), (I) would ask what s/he wants as soon as s/he comes in.>

CM: Yûhqwô yât yahplâîh yihqî.goodjô? <What if (s/he) has told (you this) as soon as s/he comes in? >
**N2:** Ning làih bêichîn. <(S/he) would take his/her money and pay.>

**CM:** Ning làih bêichîn <(S/he) would take his/her money and pay > (wrote on board), yûhowó màaih common dî yêh <if s/he buys something common.>

**N2:** Bāai hâidouh vâuh, jauh nîng làih bêichîn lô. Ning làih bêichîn, haih ma? <If the item is on display and is accessible, (s/he) then takes it over and pays. S/he takes it over and pays, right? >

**CM:** Go customer wûih pay. <The customer will pay.> (wrote on board). Nêih dîm tûnh kêuìh gông a? <What would you say to her/him? >

**N2:** Môuh mât, jauh bau hou kêuìh. Jauh dâhôi nngwâih mành kêuìh lôchîn lô. <Nothing. I then wrap it up, open the cash register and ask her/him to pay.>

**CM:** Yiu wah Kêuíh têng how much. <(You) have to tell him/her how much.>

**N2:** Gachîhn vâuhsaa hâidouh. Mhsái gông. <The prices are all there. There is no need to tell (him/her the prices).>

**CM:** Yiu mhyiu mành kêuìh haih mahaih gâmô a? Juhnq yiu mhyiu dî daidôi vêh a? <Do you need to ask him "Is that everything? Do you need anything else?"? >

**N2:** Môug ge la. <No>

**M:** Gâm nêih sêung kêuìh màaih dôôî yêh, jauh viu gông dî yêh. <But if you want him to buy some more items, you will have to say something.>

**N2:** Jauh mahn "You need any card today?", waakhîé "You need a balloon today?". <Then I'll ask "You need any card today, or "You need a balloon today?">

**CM:** (wrote on board) "Is that all for today?", haih mhaih a? <isn't that so?> Haih mhaih gâmvaute jînhnhaîh màaih gâmô vêh ja? <Is that all that you want to buy today?>

**N1:** Haih lô. <That's right.>

**N2:** "Is that all?"

**CM:** (wrote on board) "Do you need anything else?" Yûhowó go haak wûih wah <If the customer would say> "No, that's all. I don't need anything else", nêih vauh hôyìh wah <then you could also say> "Do you need a card? Do you need a balloon?"

**N1:** "Do you need a bowl?"

**CM:** "Do you need a bowl?"

**N1:** "Do you need it wrap? Wrap it?"

**CM:** "Do you need a wrap?"

**N1:** "Do you need a wrap?"

**CM:** "Do you need a bag? Do you need ...." Hôu dô yêh. <Many things> Yînhnauh nê? <What next?>

The instructor went on eliciting from the class language examples for service encounters.
CM: We have six steps but we have discussed five, right? O.K. six steps. What are the six steps? First one. (M. wrote on the board.) What is the first one? Introduce the offer, right?

N1: Introduce the offer, yeah.

CM: Introduce the offer (wrote on the board). Number two ne? <What about number two?>

N2: Number two ...

CM: Gather information (wrote on the board). Number one "Introduce the offer" jikhaih ... <that is ...> "Hello, what do you want? Can I help you? We have flowers for sale." Haih mhaih a? <Isn't that so?>

N1: Some specials.


N1: How much do you want?

CM: How many? Confirm a mā <To confirm>. Confirmation. (M. wrote on the board.) Yiu <Have to> confirm the deal. O.K. Yiu gěidō a? <How many do you want?> "How many do you want? O.K. Is that all you want?" Dīmgāi yiu gāmgōng a? <Why do you have to say that?>
## Appendix XIII: EOP Advanced Level Class

### THE LANGUAGE LEARNING TASKS IN THE EOP CLASSES (ADVANCED)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLASS CODE</th>
<th>PRACTICE</th>
<th>THEORY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| ESP - 1A   | Working on business terms  
Working on business writing  
Practice telephone skills and techniques  
Practice in the audio lab. | Background knowledge (Meta-linguistic)  
1) What should you consider when writing a letter for business?  
2) How should your letter be laid out on a page?  
3) What did you need to include?  
4) What can you do to make your letter easier to read?  
Discussion on telephone techniques (Ref. hand-outs) |
| ESP - 2A - 1 | Office Oriented Material  
worked on recorded messages as PRACTICE  
Students in groups of 3 compared notes and then wrote messages on board  
Role-playing: Dialogues for service encounter | What to look for in a recorded telephone message:  
Who, Phone #, maybe date, who it is for, the message.  
How to ask for information missed (i.e. how to ask the other party to repeat information) Theories on hand-outs |
| 2A - 2     |          |        |
| ESP - 3A | 1) Listening tasks - taking messages  
2) Spelling of Names  
3) Listening comprehension  
4) Role-playing: How do you handle angry customers. Three roles: The customer, the sales manager and the manager  
5) Viewing of the role-playing recorded in the previous section  
(Teacher made use of the researching procedure for teaching purposes, excellent idea, check other references for more detailed discussion if necessary) | Discussion about the situation in the service encounter: handling of the customer complaints  
PT: Did you talk about the refund policy?  
JL: I would find out why we have made this mistake. There is something terribly wrong with my staff. (The instructor's view was different from that of the business owner. The students asked her how she would handle this situation. She replied,"I don't know because I'm not in business.") |
|---|---|
| ESP - 4A | Worked on pronunciation of problematic sounds e.g.  
/v/ and /f/  
Pair work on vocabulary items  
Pair work on problematic sounds | Pronunciation rules  
Problems sound contrasted Tongue positions, e.g.  
T: For /sh/, how do you feel in the tongue. Where does the air go? Does your tongue curl?  
In pairs, students used L1 to discuss the theory about the above questions  
Meanings of business terms. |
| ESP - 5A | Pair work on vocabulary items (business terms)  
error correction  
Evaluation of ads. in newspapers and magazines, find examples of good ads. and bad ads.  
Presentation and Explanation for the classification  
Instructor showed overhead for students to feed in their opinion. | SS. had to utilize theory in marketing and advertising background knowledge to answer the following questions:  
1) What is advertising?  
2) How do you advertise?  
(Related to Seminar 3)  
The ads.:  
1) What do you like? dislike?  
2) What is it in the ad. which is appealing? disagreeable?  
3) Why is the ad. presented in this media?  
4) Who's the target audience?  
5) Is it clear what's being advertised?  
Psychology of customers:  
Human needs that the ads. are appealing to:  
e.g. Common needs & desires: Health; Word Appeals: Break fever of colds and flu in 30 minutes; Products: Aspirin (see instructor's notes) |
Appendix XIV: Weekly Sample Texts and Analysis

(EOP Low Level Class)

Language Rules and Language Examples

Sample Data from Week 5

Text A1 was collected from week 5 of the class. CM is assisting B1 and B2 to prepare a text for a presentation in a business exhibition. CM has identified a linguistic rule which she needs to explain. In the text before the present one, B1 has just asked CM how to say "start a business" in English. B2's question is in L1 (Cantonese). CM then responds.

Text A1

CM: ฮอง vihp dim gōng? 〈How do I say "to start a business"〉? "It's started ..."
B2: One and a half. หāi hāsēuhn bīn, mī dīm gōng 〈It's at the tip of my tongue. I don't know how to say it.〉
CM: "one and a half years ago" (writes on the board). chūńmǎn ngədei wà hōi vihp vāt nǐnh būn, dāhn yǐngmǎn ngədei wà vāt nǐnh bēn jīlǐn hōi. 〈In Chinese we say, "It started for one and a half years"; in English we say, "It's started one and a half years ago".〉
B2: Aman? CM: jįkhaǐ jǐlǐhın, jwọhuijō ge 〈That is "before", what's past.〉
B2: əh, jwọhuijō ge. 〈oh, what's past.〉
CM: "one and a half years ago". "Ago" jįkhaǐ nqąmŋnaąm jwọhuijō ge vāt nǐnh bēn hōi. 〈"Ago" means just started in the past one and a half years.〉

CM is explaining the use of the expression "one and a half years ago" in L1. She is trying to illustrate the difference between L1 and L2 in expressing this time phrase by saying, "chūńmǎn ngədei wà hōi vihp vāt nǐnh būn, dāhn yǐngmǎn ngədei wà vāt nǐnh bēn jīlǐn hōi. 〈In Chinese we say, "It started for one and a half years"; in English we say, "It's started one and a half years".〉 "Ago" also indicates a "past" element in time. As B2 shows doubt again by repeating the word, "Ago?", CM further explains, "jįkhaǐ jǐlǐhın, jwọhuijō ge 〈That is "before", what's past.〉" In Cantonese, the words "ago" and "before" have almost the same meaning.

Sample Data from Week 7

CM is discussing the term "sick customers" with the class. B1 wishes to find out the differences between "poisoned food" and "poison in the food".

Text A2

B1: sihkmaht yāu duhk hāi hīh m̀hāiḥ "poison food" 〈If there is poison in the food, is it poison food.〉
CM: Poisoned food (writes on the board), poison in the food (writes on the board).
B1: "Poison in the food", mōu vāhŋ quaísīkgwō ngōh tēng 〈Nobody has ever explained that to me.〉
CM: nįko hāi 〈This is〉 "poison in the food", sihkmaht lēuihmīn yāu duhk. 〈There is poison contained in the food.〉
Here, CM is trying to clarify two terms, "poisoned food" and "poison in the food". There is not much difference in their lexical meanings. However, structurally, the word "poisoned" is an adjective while the phrase "poison in the food" is not. The students are now working on a confusing linguistic rule in syntax. It is note-worthy that all the discussion, i.e., the meta talk, is in Ll for both the teacher and the students. B1 then asks if it is food which is overdue, "iikhaih bâisi6 qwosih q6di sihkmâht <That means food which is overdue.>" This leads to a third term, "food poisoning". CM and the class then spend time working on the difference between "poisoned food" and "food poisoning", which is not presented in the above text. B1 is eager to find out these differences because she owns and runs a bakery. Food safety is her major concern.

**Business Rules and Business Examples**

**Sample Data from Week 4**

The objective of this week's class focused on policies and signs. The sample data covers several tasks including discussions about shop return policies, the acceptance of checks, the reading of signs and the matching of signs with the correct businesses.

Text A3 illustrates one of the tasks. CM is eliciting shop policies from the group.

**Text A3**

CM: yâuhmôuh mâyêh policies a <Do you have any policies?>
N2: ngôhdeih yâuh "mhsâî cheque la, visa or master la. ngôhdeih gôdi sînfâ no exchange, return la". <We have (policies like) "no cheques, visa or master card." "No exchange or return for our fresh flowers." >
CM: no cheque (writes on the board)
N2: No cheque, yeah.
CM: "No payment by cheque" (writes on the board).
N2: ngôhdeih ñi sînfâ móuh return, móu exchange la. <No return or exchange for our fresh flowers.>
CM: (writes on the board), "No return."
N2: gôdi, iâajujuhk ne, jauh yiu dôngmîn sôguvo sîn. <Regarding change, (customers) should count in front of us.> Check the change before you go, la, right? mhhaih fânâlih yauh wah bêi mhnâam. <Otherwise, they might return and say that the change is wrong.>
In this context, CM is listing the policies on the board in the form of "signs" to be posted in the shop. N2 is giving examples of her policies partly in L1 and partly in L2. "ngóhdéih váuh "mhsái cheque lâ, visa or master lâ. ngóhdéih gôdî sînfâ no exchange, return lâ". <We have (policies like) "no cheques, visa or master card". "No exchange or return for our fresh flowers." > Regarding the handling of change, her policy written on the sign is, "Check the change before you go", which she mentions first in L1, "gôdî iâaujuhk nê, iauh yiu dôngmîn gôquvo sîn. <Regarding change, (customers) should count in front of us.>" These policies govern the service encounters; the signs displayed inform the customers of such policies, which become a kind of mutual agreement between the customer and the owner of the business. These are usually recognised as social rules in a shopping situation.

One of the instructor's business examples in L1 is illustrated by Text A4

Text A4

CM:  
... If it's a statement, you have to check it, "acknowledge" (writes on the board) wah bêí kéuih têng "ngôh têngdôu lâ".  
... yûhgwô nêíh têngdôu iîhauh, nêíh tûnh kéuih gông "mhaih a", yauh tûnh kéuih bok a, <tell him "I have heard that." ... if after hearing it, you say to him, "No, it isn't", you argue with him. > argue, what is it going to become?

The citation represents what the owner or server may say, "ngôh têngdôu lâ. <I have heard that.>; "mhaih a" <No, it isn't.> This in return will bring about "argument" between the owner (or the server) and the customer. "Acknowledging" a customer's statement is a rule. The former example is a positive one and the latter is a negative one which may end in dispute.

The student's next task in the class was to work from a hand-out listing a number of other signs, signs they usually found in different businesses. The participants' task was to find out which signs would likely to be found in which business or businesses. The signs were all in English.

Text A5

The instruction for the task is printed on the hand-out. It reads:

Reading

Many times when service employees handle complaints, they must explain store rules or company rules. Store and company rules are also called "policies". Sometimes, policies are listed on signs so that customers are aware of them.

Read the following signs as fast as you can and decide where you might find such a policy. More than one answer is possible. Work as fast as you can.

The reading text here serves two purposes. On one hand, it provides the students with material to read in a language task. On the other hand, the text also explains the business theory behind the need for posted signs to exhibit the shop policies. The examples are all in L2 while the discussion is mostly in L1. The sociocultural rules are embedded in the language. As the business owners are learning about the signs, they are also learning both the language and the sociocultural rules for the business world.

Sample Data from Week 5

The objective of the lesson in Week 5 was to prepare business owners to do
presentations to the Canadian general public so that the contribution of Asian Canadians towards the Canadian economy could be recognised. The instructor used an exhibition organised by a bilateral business association for Asians and Canadians as the "situation" for the presentations.

In Text A6, the group is discussing the contribution of Asian Canadians:

Text A6

N2: haih mhahih sān yihmahn contribute? <Do new immigrants contribute?>
CM: mhahih wah sān yihmahn contribute, jauh haih yān waih dī gauh yihmahn contribute, sōyih dī sān yihmahn kihdeih yātveuhng dōu contribute. (Not only new immigrants contribute, because old immigrants contribute, new immigrants also contribute.
N1: jowh gwüdung ā ma, daai chin yahp-lāih tūnh nēih mā fān gāmyēuhng. <They become directors. That means they bring in money and share partnership with you in business, that is.>
CM: neuhnq dou yāuh, nīgō jinlaāhm wūi jauh mhahih dī sān yihmahn, yihhah wah saht joih A-Jau yihmahn lāih Ğānāhdaaīh nē, saht joih kēuīhoeih nē deui Ğānāhdaaīh yān yāuh hōuđō qungäh, sahp nīn chihnh, nōergarten chihnh, waāŋkē vāt nīn chihnh dōu yāuh yānh lāih. <Yes, this is included too. However, this exhibition is not about new immigrants but about Asian immigrants, who have moved to Canada and have had immense contribution to Canadians. People came ten years ago, five years ago, two years ago or one year ago.>
N2: Open more business, open more factories, make more jobs for the people.
CM: haih lōh! sōyih viu yāuh jinlāanhmwūi, nēih hih daaih dī jīliu heui. <Right! So there has to be an exhibition. You can take some information to it.>

In this sample text, the group is discussing a social issue: the contribution of immigrants towards Canada, Canadians, and the Canadian economy. Here, a social issue is brought into the classroom. How the immigrants view themselves is revealed in the discussion. N1 and N2 are not "new immigrants". They have been in Canada for seventeen years. However, they are still not aware of the fact that other Asian business owners have been attempting to communicate with the "mainstream". "New immigrants contribute and so do old immigrants," is the message the instructor wishes to convey. Both groups create businesses and jobs. This aspect of sociocultural knowledge is mostly introduced in L1. N2 is able to discuss the issue in L2, "open more business, open more factories, make more jobs for the people." As for the simulation of the presentation itself, it is in L2. It will be useful for trade meetings, business association meetings etc. This task (simulation) aims at "easing" the business owners into the English-speaking business world.

The presentation includes the following information: the name of the business owner, the age of the business, the type of business, the size of business, the style of business, the clientele, sources of supply, sales volume, profit/loss profile comment etc.

Sample Data from Week 7

This is a small sample containing two different tasks. The objective of this class was to learn the "language for emergencies" as well as the handling
of emergency situations. Before the formal teaching started, N1 and N2 told the class their own stories. They were almost robbed by a customer who was wearing a costume with a mask on Halloween night. When he was caught, he defended himself by saying that it was simply a "joke" meant for a "trick". They let him go free since no money was taken. They all had stories to tell before formal class session began.

In the following example, CM is eliciting "emergency situations" from the class.

**Text A7**

CM: How about "fire"? "Broken windows"? (writes on board), yâuh sâm waahk móu̇h sâm <intentional or unintentional>, How about "threats"?

N1: "Threats" jikhaih hûnggâak <means threaten>.

CM: Yeah. How about quarrels (writes on board), quarrelling.

N1: Quarrelling jikhaih dîmgââi <What does quarrelling mean?>

CM: nqaaigâau <disputes>

N1: nigo ngóh yauh mhsik wo. <This one, I don't know.>

CM: uhnavauh mat heinahng sing <What are the other possibilities?> How about "undesirable customers? jeuijâu <drunks>, "drunks", "kids". iuhnqvauh di mâyâv <What else are there?> "Suspicious people (writes on board)."

The instructor seems to be lecturing most of the time. She is not able to elicit sufficient responses from the group. Emergency is again a social phenomenon. A knowledge of the law and the use of common sense are both important in handling emergency situations. These circumstances are also related to other aspects of a business such as insurance policies and security measures. There are many possibilities which may create emergencies: fire, broken windows, threats, quarrels, drunks, kids, suspicious people .. the list goes on. The business owners have many stories to tell as they have seen events happening in their shops or in the neighbourhood they serve.

**Sample Data from Week 8**

The objectives of the class in the following sample are three-fold. The instructor wishes to (1) introduce accounting terms; (2) explain taxation terms; and then (3) develop a business plan for the business owners (the students). This is one of the most technical lessons in the EOP class. The instructor has had proper training in filing business tax returns and ample experience in working with financial statements. In this class, she spends the first part of her class time going over the financial terms. The terms (examples) are in L2 and the explanation is in L1. In Text A8, CB is a dry-cleaner and B1 is a baker.

**Text A8**

CM: sâusin gông néih di sâângvi, pûhn sou qiujuh mâyâv <First we talk about your business, what do we call your accounts?>

BB: "Financial Statement"

CM: (writes on the board), "Financial Statement", jikhaih "chôîhjîng bougou svû" <That means a financial report.>

BB: báavukvit di mâyâv ? <What does it include?>


They then proceed to other terms like "Profit/Loss Statement", "capital loss allowance", "net profit" etc. Next, they work on the terminology on the tax form "Statement of Income and Expenses". Most of the rules are explained in L1
(Cantonese). Afterwards, they start working on business planning. Their first task is to set their business goals.

**Text A9**

CM: So today, we are going to do some planning, a budget. Before we do a budget, meih jough budget jichihn <Before we do our budget>, ngöndeih yiu vâuh dî véh giuijouh <we have to have something called> "goal" (writes on the board). Before we do a budget, we have a goal. So let us see.

CM starts to elicit information from CB, who is the most advanced student in that class. He is later asked to come up with a long term goal and a short term goal. The scaffolding is in Ll. The examples are sometimes in Ll and sometimes in L2. Text A10 is an example of this interaction.

**Text A10**

CM: Is that all?
CB: gêidô nihn hauh vauh höi dô gân <Open another one after some years>. (Class laugh.)
CM: (writes on the board), "Another goal is to open..." gêidô gân a ? <how many?>
B1: (To CB) gêidô nihn höyih dô höi yâtgân <How many years do you need to open another one?>
CB: sâm nihn <three years>, höi dô yâtgân <open one more>.
B1: höi dô yâtgân gau la <Opening one more is enough.>
CB: "another branch or store"
CM: O. K. (writes on the board), "another store in .."
CB: five years.

There are many interesting features in the text. The goal-setting task is a business task. The final "product" is expected to be in L2 (English), which is to be included in a business plan and used as a guideline for budgeting. However, the students first discuss their goals in Ll and then the instructor assists them in translating these goals into L2. CB's goal is "gêidô nihn hauh vauh höi dô gân <open another one after some years>. This business example translated into L2 (English) finally becomes, "Another goal is to open another store in five years." The scaffolding is partly in Ll and partly in L2. When the students share their business ideas, they usually use Ll. CB is a more experienced business owner than B1. "gêidô nihn höyih dô höi yâtgân <How many years do you need to open another one?>, B1 asks. CB replies, "sâm nihn <three years>" B1 is considering opening a new branch of his own. This is only his first year in Canada but he is eager to set a long term business goal.