

AM I ALLOWED TO USE ARABIC?

**A STUDY OF THE FUNCTIONS OF, AND ATTITUDES TOWARDS,
CODESWITCHING IN A SAUDI ARABIAN EFL CLASSROOM**

By

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Author's declaration

I certify that, to best to my knowledge, all the material in this thesis represents my own work and that no material is included that has been submitted for any other award or qualification.

Signature:..... Date:.....

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my mother, who showed an unlimited support during my PhD journey. It is also dedicated to my wife Munirah, for her great support, and to my son, Hakim. Special thanks also to my brothers, Ahmed and Naif, with my great love.

ABSTRACT

Am I allowed to use Arabic? A study of the functions of, and attitudes towards, codeswitching in a Saudi Arabian EFL classroom

There are a number of debates about the role a learner's mother tongue plays regarding the CS functions of teachers and learners in the English language classroom. Among both teachers and learners, there seems to be uncertainty about the use of the mother tongue, which is reflected in the absence of a clear policy about mother tongue use in Saudi universities. This study investigates the functions of teachers' and learners' CS in university English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) classroom contexts, at a university in the city of Alahsa. It further investigates teachers' and learners' attitudes towards CS in the classroom.

Data for the study was collected by video of university English classrooms and interviews. Transcribed video data was shown to interviewees to elicit their responses about the functions of their CS, and most participants were also interviewed about this. Teachers' and learners' CS were analysed thematically. It was found that both teachers and learners switched codes in class. However, the functions of teachers' CS differ to that of learners. While learners appeared to switch codes for reasons of linguistic insecurity, socialising and repetition, teachers, on the other hand, were found to switch codes for a wider variety of reasons including, reiteration or translation, clarifying vocabulary, giving instructions, attracting learners' attention, classroom management, praise, reprimanding disruptive behaviour, and for humour. The study also found that teachers and learners do not necessarily share similar attitudes towards CS. For teachers, it seems there is uncertainty about the policy of using Arabic, yet with the classroom, the data shows that all teachers have used CS.

List of abbreviations

EFL	English-as-a-Foreign-Language
ESL	English-as-a-Second-Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
CS	Code-Switching
CA	Conversation Analysis
Ave	Average
L	Level
“	Quotes from academic literature
‘	Participants’ quotations in Arabic or English
(‘ ’)	Translation /translations of participants’ quotations
()	Clarifications-comments
<i>Italics</i>	Non-English language features written in alphabetic form
(.....)	Unclear participants’ utterances
1-CS	Code for those who used CS (1-CS, 2-CS, etc.)
1-I	Code for those interviewed (1-I, 2-I, etc.)

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Chapter 1. Introduction

This chapter introduces the purpose of the study, followed by a foreword about the expansion of English in the context of the study, the functions of English and the existing use of CS in the literature. Next, the context of the study is clarified and presented, including the region's historical, economic and demographic characteristics, and a brief presentation of the social and educational development in the region that led to the emergence of English as a foreign language. The appearance and widespread use of English whether in everyday life or in schools, consequently led to the phenomenon of CS in a context where foreign learners may use English (the target language) alongside the first language (Arabic).

1.1 Purpose and target of the study

The Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia began teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in 1925 (Al-Ahaydib 1986), possibly as a result of English being the world's most widespread language (see 1.2). Today, the focus on English as a means of communication is growing rapidly and English has become the dominant language of business and politics. Global English is now "the medium of a great deal of the world's knowledge, especially in such areas as science and technology. And access to knowledge is the business of education" (Crystal 2003:110). As a result of the importance of learning English in Saudi Arabia (e.g. for business, communication in companies, tourism) there are a growing number of compulsory classes in the English language. Teachers in these classes usually share their first language with their students, which, along with factors such as language proficiency, may lead to CS as a natural phenomenon in these contexts. The importance of studying CS as a phenomenon in the classroom is shown by the fact that researchers, such as Greggio and Gil (2007), argue that L1 may have important functions in the EFL classroom (see 2.3). Therefore, this study will identify and discuss the functions of CS so teachers and students can judge whether CS should be reduced or controlled; particularly the unnecessary use of CS, which, according to many researchers, may negatively affect learning of English, especially in a foreign language classroom where, according to some researchers, English is supposed to be the only language of communication (e.g. Krashen 1982; Cummins and Swain 1986), or in contrast, supported and encouraged as a potential cognitive tool in L2 learning (e.g. Swain and Lapkin 2000; Cook 2001). This debate will be further discussed in chapter 2.4.1.

Li Wei and Martin (2009) report there is a growing literature about classroom language practice among language learners. In the Arabic context, few studies have paid attention to the functions of CS in the classroom, combining studies with the attitudes of teachers and students towards CS. In particular, most of these studies have focused on the quantitative use of L1 by teachers; the attitudes towards using Arabic in intermediate schools as a quantitative study (Al-Abdan 1993); employing Arabic as a tool in learning English in public schools (Al-Nofaie 2010); and the effect of learners' proficiency and task type on the amount of L1 used by learners (Storch and Aldossary 2010). This study aims to investigate the functions of CS between English and Arabic used by teachers and students in an EFL classroom at Imam University in Saudi Arabia, together with the attitudes of learners and teachers towards CS in the classroom (see research questions in 3.2). Participants were asked about what they thought were the functions of CS, along with other questions in the interviews (see appendices 5 and 6). Recognising these functions, and the attitudes of participants towards CS, may help to understand whether it is useful to encourage CS or, if CS is harmful, whether it should be avoided. It might also help to understand why, where and how CS is used.

1.2 Background

As a result of globalisation, "a process (or set of processes) which embodies a transformation in the spatial organisation of social relations and transactions - assessed in terms of their extensity, intensity, velocity and impact - generating transcontinental or interregional flows, and networks of activity, interaction, and the exercise of power" (Held et al. 1999:16), the world found itself looking for a language of communication. After the dominance for hundreds of years of Latin and French, the world was in growing need for a language of communication. Gradually, starting approximately from the Second World War, and following the expansion of the British Empire, English became the world's lingua-franca (ELF), defined as, "a contact language between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen foreign language of communication" (Firth 1996:240). This appeared to be the result of many political, scientific and economic factors. Colonization, developments in science and technology, the industrial revolution in the United Kingdom, and other later factors, such as globalisation in the media have helped spread the use of the English language.

The widespread learning of English has reached most areas across the world, including the Middle East. Saudi Arabia is one country that has recognised the importance of English as a

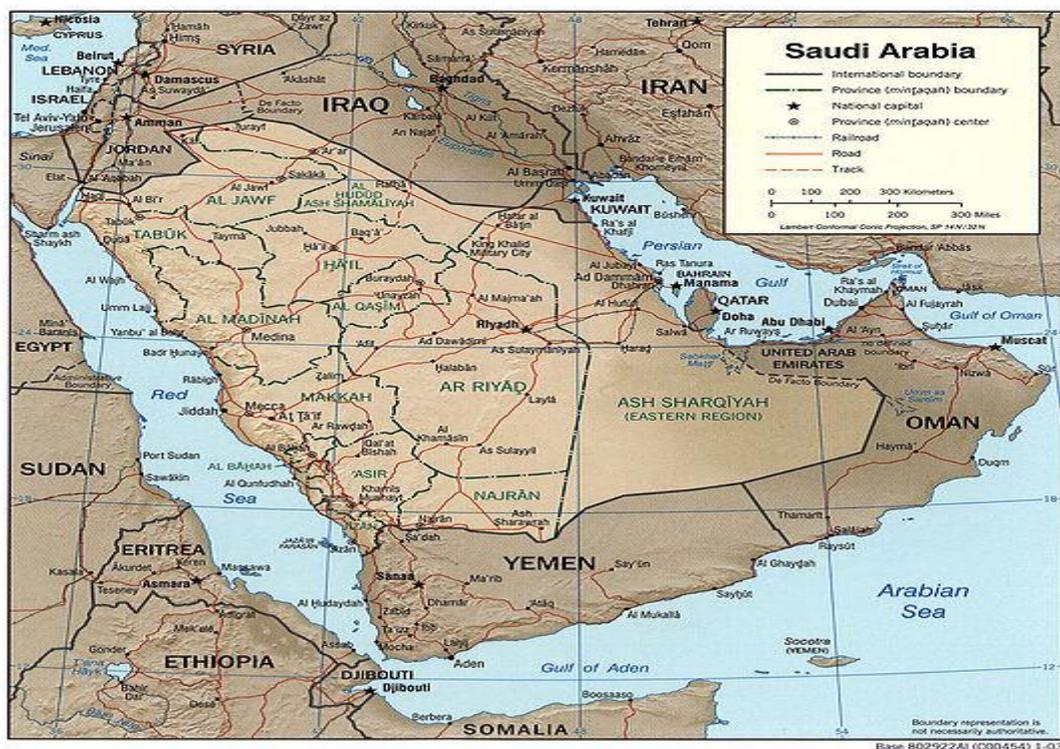
language for business and accessing knowledge and, as mentioned in (1.1), began to teach English in the 1920s. Bullock and Toribio (2009) argue that any bilingual individual has the ability to select which language to use in a given situation. Unconscious selection, however, seems to be excluded from the argument of Bullock and Toribio, as speakers are not always conscious of the language they speak. Therefore, in societies where English is taught and increasingly used, CS, the alternation between two or more languages (Eldridge 1996), tends to be a widespread phenomenon among bilingual speakers and learners of a second language. Language mixing is a natural phenomenon in contexts where speakers have access to two languages (Reyes 2004; Franceschini 1998), or more. The Saudi context is not an exception, and CS is seen and used by learners and teachers in the classroom.

Investigations into the use of CS began in the early 1970s among bilingual speakers of Spanish and English in the United States. According to Martin-Jones (1995), most of these studies were quantitative, and concentrated on the amount of time spent by L1 learners using another language. In the early 1980s, a linguistic approach (formal analysis) in which the structure of the language is investigated was developed (see 2.2.4), and aimed to analyse audio-recordings of discourse in the classroom. However, all of these discourse strategies failed to involve the social factor: the influence of society (e.g. power) that may influence bilingual speech in classroom communication in particular settings, for example, in Saudi Arabia. This led to an awareness of the need to follow a social approach in the analysis of communication (see 2.2.4) within the classroom, and to consider social and cultural factors in the study of CS. As in the social life of bilinguals, the classroom is an expected place to observe CS, as it includes users of more than one language, particularly low level learners, despite the report of Yao (2011), who remarks that researchers and teachers are mostly concerned in minimizing the use of CS, believing it might indicate failure in the learning of the foreign language or an unwillingness to learn that language. However, CS occurrence does not appear to refer only to such failure or unwillingness to learn the language, it might also serve a number of functions (e.g. social functions). Moreover, Jacobson (2001) remarks that CS tends to occur both inside and outside the classroom, and on a daily basis. This appears logical, as CS occurrence is not exclusive in a classroom context; it might also occur outside of an institutional context.

1.3 Setting of the study

1.3.1 History and demography of the region

In this section it is important to illustrate some relevant historical and demographic events in the region under study. Between 1950 and 1970, as a result of colonisation and the discovery of oil, huge changes took place in parts of the Arabian Peninsula, including Saudi Arabia (see map 1.1). Saudi Arabia was declared a kingdom in 1932 and many countries in the area, such as the United Arab Emirates, Qatar and Bahrain became independent in 1971. Political stability in Saudi Arabia allowed the government to improve infrastructure and, more importantly, improve levels of education for Saudis. Despite the importance of these historical changes, geographical and economic factors cannot be ignored.



Map 1.1 Saudi Arabia

http://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Saudi_Arabia_2003_CIA_map.jpg?uselang=fr

Economically, the exploration of oil, the biggest source of income was discovered in the 1940s in the eastern region of Saudi Arabia, creating an economic boom. Investors from the UK (the Eastern and General Syndicate), and the United States, were invited by King Abdul-Aziz and began oil exploration. Oil companies began to teach English to their Saudi

employees as the need for Saudi workers to communicate with foreign companies grew. Both English and French were taught in schools because of their importance. However, French was removed from the Saudi curriculum, possibly due to a decreasing need for it, and English, because of its dominance, was the only foreign language taught. Geographical factors may have also played a role in the awareness of the importance of English. Throughout history, the Arabian Peninsula has been one of the most important strategic areas for trade, as it is located in a region where business and commerce pass through different continents, especially the three straits: Hormuz, located between Arabian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman; Bab el-Mandeb, between the Gulf of Aden and the Red Sea; and the Suez Canal, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. This strategic location acquired greater importance after the discovery of oil. As a result, traditional maritime movements increased, and this part of the world became a target for investment.

1.3.2 Educational development and society

Educational development in Saudi Arabia, whether in teaching style, staff qualifications or school buildings grew rapidly. However, as a result of the difficult economic situation, the education process faced difficulties, as there was more interest in working rather than education. Picture 1.1 shows people in Al-Ahsa central market in the 1940s where many family members preferred trading and business over education to fulfil family needs. During that period, religion, mathematics, and only few of the sciences were taught in schools or *Katateeb* (an old style of teaching that was widespread in the area before the introduction of official schools). A greater focus was then made to teach the sciences, such as chemistry, physics and biology. This might be referred to the industrial revolution, with the need for these sciences developing learner's capabilities, together with an increasing awareness of the importance of science in daily life. As many of these sciences were developed in English, there was a focus on teaching in English so that learners could better engage in these fields. English became the dominant language decades ago in education, economics, politics and technology (Kachru 1978; Nartey 1982; McClure and McClure 1988), and this appears to be a result of its dominancy as a lingua-franca as mentioned in 1.2. This predominance, however, did not include religion, which appears to be highly associated with the language of its origin (i.e. Islam is always associated with Arabic).



Picture 1.1 Alahsa, in 1947 where many preferred trading and business to education

<http://daviderrick.files.wordpress.com/2009/04/hofuf.jpg>

As a result, in recent years, English has become more important than at any time before. It is an important tool used across the world in knowledge, business, politics, and even tourism. Thus, “to have English is to have access to the wealth of the world that is otherwise obscured behind linguistic barriers” (Sergeant 2009:8). In 1925 (Al-Ahaydib 1986), English was added as one of the required subjects in public schools, particularly in intermediate and secondary schools. In 2008, English was also added as one of the required courses in certain elementary schools as an experiment towards its introduction into all schools in Saudi Arabia, and it is now officially taught to learners at the last stage in elementary schools. Moreover, the language of teaching in many universities and colleges in Saudi Arabia is exclusively English (e.g. King Fahad University of Petroleum and Minerals and Prince Sultan University), except religion and Arabic courses. Its importance is also reflected in the fact that English is required for employment, especially in private sector companies such as ARAMCO, where the language is needed to communicate with non-Arabic speakers, both in Saudi Arabia and abroad. All of these stages reflect the increasing awareness of the importance of English in Saudi Arabia, as a rapidly growing language used for education, business and politics across the world. Therefore, English in Saudi Arabia is now the language of communication in many large companies, hotels, hospitals, and other areas where communication with non-Arabic speakers is needed. With such a wide exposure to English in areas such as schools, universities or even in social life, these are contexts where the linguistic phenomenon of CS can be observed.

It is important for the analyst to understand society in order to comprehend the occurrence of CS (Heller 1988). Gal (1988:260) clarifies that “different regions require different analyses, both of local communicative meanings and political economy, despite apparent similarities in CS.” However, more importantly for the analyst’s knowledge, is to be aware that a direct relationship exists between language usage and social context, and that each of these varieties has different functions (Gardner-Chloros 2009). Thus, it is important to understand the social context of this study (e.g. how English is looked at within society). In many countries and societies, the social attitudes of individuals, as well as their cultural beliefs, may change as a result of globalisation and modernisation. However, these changes, such as the acceptance of new technologies or allowing women to learn in schools, may occur gradually and not necessarily at the same level of speed and depth. Although changes in people’s beliefs may happen to the majority in society, those in larger cities may, in general, show a quicker response to changes compared to those from smaller towns, possibly as a result of daily routines that make their social correlation and values weaker. Social factors (i.e. power) and social changes, such as believing English speakers to be of a higher class might reflect people’s choices of codes, not only in their daily life outside the classroom, but even within the classroom among teachers and learners. These social, cultural and religious factors may influence a speaker’s choice of codes, and this should be considered in the analysis of the attitudes and functional aspects of CS.

1.3.3 CS in the Saudi context

It is important for the analyst to understand society in order to comprehend the occurrence of CS (Heller 1988). Therefore, contextual conditions should be considered when studying CS. Bullock and Toribio (2009) also argue that social and discursive factors influence bilingual speakers when they decide to switch codes, such as to reflect prestige, or serve as membership or group markers. In the Saudi context, greetings for example such as السلام عليكم (‘peace be upon you’) tend to be used frequently and preferred by teachers and learners in English language classrooms, as it represents their cultural and religious values. Power also is another contextual factor, reflected in the role of teachers, as teachers in many societies have a greater power over learners due to social or institutional factors. These factors are important as they may affect speakers’ choice of codes. Institutional rules (e.g. a policy of L1 use), if they exist, may also influence the use of CS as teachers, especially expatriate teachers in the Saudi context, who are unlikely to oppose the policy of the institution. In addition, there is a

certain level of homogeneity among students; the majority of them share similar cultural and social backgrounds, as well as the same L1 (Arabic) may affect their choice of codes, especially relating to cultural factors. Another issue that may distinguish the context of the study is the absence of clear policy towards the use of L1, although teachers are usually advised not to use Arabic. However, CS exists in English classes despite the advice towards what can be described as a “typical” practice of avoiding the L1. Surprisingly, although female teachers in Saudi Arabia reported a positive attitude towards employing Arabic in the classroom for specific reasons and in certain situations (Al-Nofaie, 2010), teachers’ actual practice of CS appears limited. Such a contradiction might reflect teachers cautious and possible uncertainty towards L1 use. Jenkins (2010) mentioned the restriction of classroom L1 use in Saudi Arabia, asking for a re-examination of the policy. These characteristics of the Saudi context should be considered when investigating CS in classroom.

1.4 Summary

This chapter outlined the purpose of the study, gave a brief clarification of how interest in the study of CS developed, and described the context in which the study will be conducted, including its social, historical, geographical and economic characteristics. It was mentioned that English has a foothold in many non-English speaking societies due to a number of factors (e.g. political, economic), and it is used by foreign learners in these societies. CS appears to be a natural phenomenon used by speakers who have an access to two or more languages, and society might be influential in a speaker’s choice of codes.

The next chapter (chapter 2) will review parts of the literature on CS studies. Chapter 3 will present and discuss the methods used for collecting and analysing the data of the study. Then, the data will be analysed and discussed in chapter 4, and finally the fifth chapter will present the conclusions of the study.

Chapter 2. Literature review

2.1 Chapter overview

This chapter includes an overview of CS. The first part of the chapter will review the underpinnings of studies on CS and its development. Then, definitions of CS in the literature will be stated and compared to the perspectives of researchers. The issue of society and its relationship with CS in the classroom will then be discussed. Next, approaches to analysing CS will be reviewed and compared. The different types of CS will be reviewed, including situational and metaphorical CS, the structural classification of CS and markedness theory (as one of the important contributions in the study of CS), followed by an overview of the emerging studies that discuss CS in the EFL classroom as a special context. The second part of the chapter will begin with a review of the functional studies of CS in classroom, including teachers' and learners' CS, and will discuss studies in the Arabic-speaking world. Then, suggested frameworks in the functional studies of CS will be reviewed. The final part of the chapter will review the use of L1 as a learning tool, followed by a review of studies on the attitudes of teachers and learners towards CS. Finally, studies that discuss the policies of using L1 in the classroom will be reviewed.

2.2 History of CS

2.2.1 Development in CS studies

The last 40 years has witnessed an explosion in the interest of CS (Gardner-Chloros 2009) leading to a rapid growth of literature (Muysken 2007). Studies into CS began in the 1950s and 1960s by researchers such as Blom and Gumperz (1972). In 1953, Weinreich discussed the effect of language contact on languages, claiming that to describe the practice of bilingual speech; anthropologists should look at linguistics as well as language acquisition and socialization in the community of bilingual speakers. Weinreich's claims appear to be logical, as socialising and language acquisition always tend to be related and might influence bilingual speech. Vogt (1954) argues that CS is a psycholinguistic phenomenon rather than a linguistic phenomenon (see 2.2.4), and its causes are extra-linguistic (e.g. social). Although such extra-linguistic factors exist, linguistic factors such as proficiency cannot be ignored as it might lead to CS in many circumstances. This, therefore, creates a chance to study CS as a phenomenon by considering non-linguistic factors rather than the exclusive linguistic

dimension. Previously, however, and, to some extent, until recently, the focus was on the structural characteristics of CS. Nilep (2006) remarks that most studies that used the term code switching were concerned with the syntactic and morphosyntactic constraints on language alternation (e.g. Sankoff and Poplack 1981). These studies did not answer the question of why CS occurs, or in other words, what are the functions of CS (Nilep 2006). If linguists regard CS as a product of a grammatical system, rather than looking at it as a production of speakers Nilep (2006:2) argues, then the analysis may tend to be “esoteric,” and might be inapplicable outside the linguistic field. Auer (1984) also states that such an analysis is insufficient, either for describing the reason for a particular switch, or its effect.

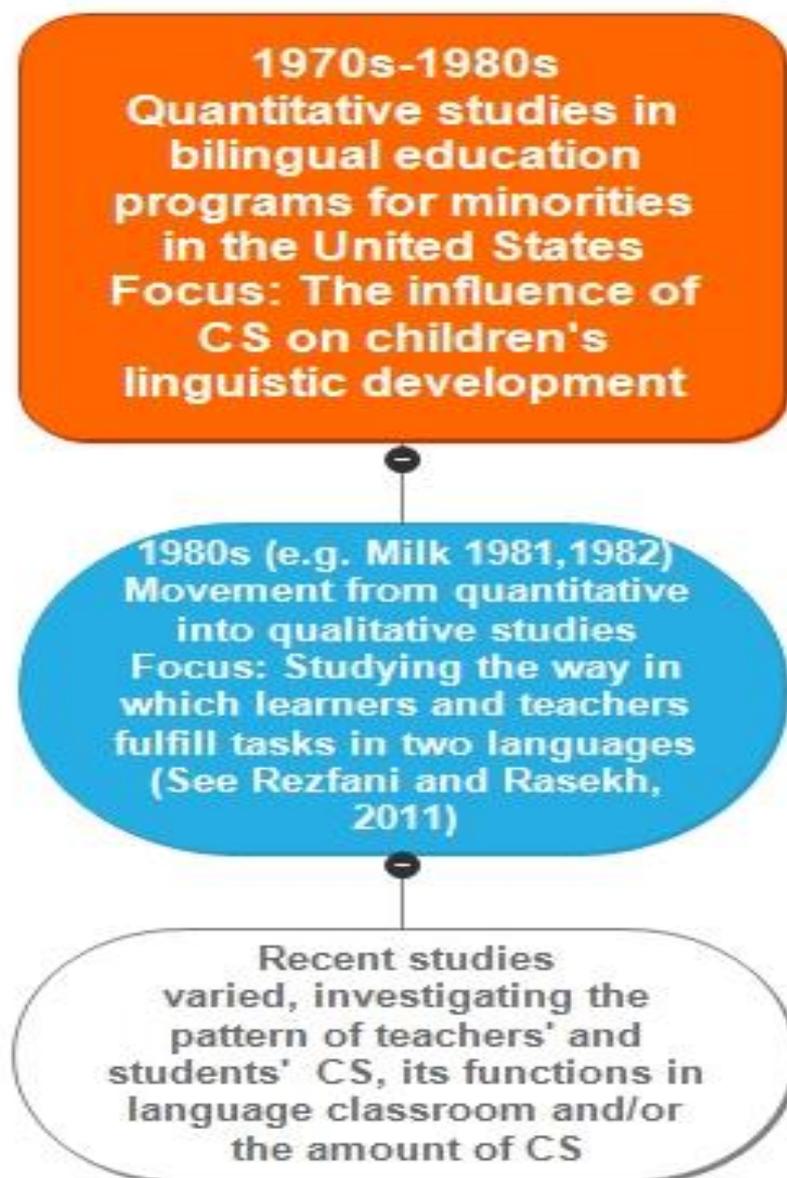


Figure (2.1) approximate trend of CS studies in the last 40 years

One of the early works to discuss CS is that of Goffman (1979; 1981) who discussed what he called footing: “a change of footing implies a change in the alignment we take up to ourselves and the others present as expressed in the way we manage the production or reception of an utterance” (Goffman 1981:128). Despite the difficulty of its definition it can, as part of its purposes, explain some of the functional aspects of CS. However, his own theory of footing differs from Gumperz’s theory, in that while CS includes shifting from one language to another, footing may include “pitch, volume, rhythm, stress or tonal quality” (ibid). In addition to its focus on the form of CS (as mentioned in 1.2 and discussed in 2.2.4), earlier studies about CS also focussed on bilingual education in the United States in the 1970s and the early 1980s (Martin-Jones 1995). These earlier studies were quantitative and focused on children’s linguistic development (Rezvani and Rasekh 2011). Later, researchers such as Milk (1981; 1982) started to look at the qualitative aspects of CS rather than the quantitative ones. There was a focus on audio recordings and frameworks on how to investigate the ways in which teachers and students practice CS in the classroom, and these might tell us more about why CS occurs, as well as how it occurs. Additional studies began to focus on the functions of CS (e.g. Eldridge 1996) and today the field has further diversified. Therefore, CS can be studied from several perspectives (e.g. social, psycholinguistic) (see 2.2.4), and requires deeper and closer analysis of the data (Gardner-Chloros 2009). It appears from the trend of studies in the field of CS (see figure 2.1) that the interest of researchers in this field is expanding, from explicit quantitative studies to qualitative ones, and from grammatical (formal) studies into functional ones, and from studies of daily life into more contextualised settings such the classroom or the media. This interest in the classroom context might refer to the spread of language teaching, on the one hand, and its special characteristics on the other hand (see 2.2.6). It might also refer to the importance of its consequences if used in the classroom. The tendency towards qualitative studies might also refer to the fact that qualitative analysis of CS, and participants’ motivations, justifications and attitudes towards it may provide researchers with profound understanding of CS rather than simply its quantity.

In sociocultural linguistics, where both social and cultural factors seem to be influential in linguistic behaviour, if considered, the part of studies through which CS is going to be investigated in this study, the history of the research is often ascribed to Blom and Gumperz (1972) (e.g. Nilep 2006; Rampton 1995). Historically, Gafaranga (2007) states that the orderliness of CS as an interactional phenomenon has been studied from two perspectives. The first examined language alternation from a grammatical perspective, and is included in

the work of Sebba (1998) and Myers-Scotton (1993a). The second phase found in Gumperz (1982), Auer (1984), and Myers-Scotton (1993b), investigated language alternation from a socio-functional perspective where CS is influenced by social norms. They argue that language alternation is not a random phenomenon and that it serves as an interactional tool by participants. Thus, it is used as a conversational strategy, or in Gumperz's words as "discourse strategies", which Sandoval et al. (1999:3) describe as "verbal strategies that people engaged in conversation employ to understand each other within the context of a particular conversation." In the field of sociocultural linguistics, John J. Gumperz might be the most important researcher. As one of the first researchers who qualitatively discussed CS, his work on CS and contextualisation has always been influential in the fields of sociolinguistics, linguistic anthropology and the sociology of language (Nilep 2006). Blom and Gumperz (1972) argue that social factors condition the separateness between standard and non-standard dialect, and by identifying the social factors as participants, setting and topic, suggest that CS can be functionally classified as situational or metaphorical. Gumperz (1982), however, claims that the analysis of language choice and identifying whether it is situational or metaphorical (see 2.2.5.1) are difficult, and suggests one of the first classifications of the functions of conversational CS (see 2.3.2).

2.2.2 Definitions of CS

Many researchers have defined CS in the literature, but CS does not share a specific definition due to the various interests of researchers. This tends to be inevitable as sociolinguists, philosophers, psycholinguists and anthropologists would find it difficult to share one definition (Nilep 2006; Bullock and Toribio 2009). The definitions presented by researchers, therefore, appear different, and this difference, as Milroy and Muysken (1995) state, is reflected even in the different spelling of the term; code-switching, codeswitching and code switching are all accepted spellings of the term. However, this study has adopted the abbreviation CS. The term "code" is taken from the communicative technology and it is a general word for languages and dialects, whereas the term "switching" clearly refers to the alternation between the different varieties that people speak (Gardner-Chloros 2009). Code, therefore, is more neutral and less constraining as it can cover both, languages and dialects. Auer (1984:1) refers CS to "the alternating use of more than one language", and is similarly defined by Grosjean (1982:145). CS has been also defined as a "discourse phenomenon in which speakers rely on juxtaposition of grammatically distinct subsystems to generate

conversational inferences” (Gumperz 1982:97), although this might be problematic as grammatical systems can be similar. The definitions above seem to clarify the structural aspect of CS.

Other researchers, on the other hand, tend to mention CS as a conversational act with a purpose. Myers-Scotton (1988:vii), for instance, describes CS as “the use of two or more languages in the same conversation,” whereas Carter and Nunan (2001:275) defined it as “a phenomenon of switching from one language to another in the same discourse.” Myers-Scotton and Carter and Nunan tend to describe CS with more focus on it being an interactional phenomenon. More profoundly, Myers-Scotton (2001:23) defines classic CS as “the alternation between two varieties in the same constituent by speakers who have sufficient proficiency in the two varieties to produce monolingual well-formed utterances in either variety.” An example of this would be two Chinese students who are proficient in English, along with their mother tongue, and have the ability to switch between these two codes in their speech. This implies, according to Myers-Scotton, that the proficiency of speakers who switch codes between two languages reflects their access to knowledge of the grammar of any two (or more) languages (e.g. trilingual CS).

Recently, Gardner-Chloros (2009:4) has also referred to CS as “the use of several languages or dialects in the same conversation or sentence by bilingual people”, whereas Bullock and Toribio (2009:1) define it as “the ability on the part of bilinguals to alternate effortlessly between their two languages.” This definition seems to include “bilingual” as a prerequisite of CS. It might be important therefore to mention what bilingual means. In the literature, there has been a long debate about who is considered bilingual (see Edwards 1995). Valdes (2001) argues that bilingualism is placed in a continuum of communicative and linguistic abilities. Thus, the bilingual place in the continuum seems to be related to the quantity and the quality of CS (Bullock and Toribio 2009). Depending on that assumption, a bilingual, as mentioned in (Bullock and Toribio 2009:7), is “an individual who has native-like control of two (or more) languages”; although native-like is difficult to define here, and depending on this assumption, learners in this study cannot be described as bilinguals. CS patterns therefore, can be used as a measure of a bilingual individual’s language ability. Thus, Bullock and Toribio (2009:7) argue that the “true bilingual” is one who was exposed to two languages in early childhood and who acquired and used the language in their “lifespan”. It might be argued, however, that being bilingual is not necessarily related to learning the second language in childhood, as there are many adults who become bilinguals. Regardless of this

debate, Cook (2012) suggested a new term arguing that an “L2 user,” is “someone who is actively using a language other than their first, whatever their level of proficiency” (cited in Cook 2013:45), and this might be a preferred term over an ‘L2 learner’ or ‘bilingual’. Cook (2013:45) comments that this is “a more neutral term for the multi competent user of more than one language, however much they know.” Despite the vagueness of what is meant by, in Cook’s words, ‘*actively using*’, this suggested term seems to cover participants in this study. In general CS can be described as an action in which speakers switch from one code to another/others, usually for a purpose (e.g. linguistic, social, or cultural). Hence, speakers’ CS in this study would be investigated taking into account sociocultural, institutional and linguistic factors that may lead to CS into consideration for better understanding of the functions of CS and reasons behinds it. Contextually on the other hand, CS might occur in a variety of contexts, and one of these contexts is the classroom. According to Lin (2008:1), classroom CS refers to the “alternating use of more than one linguistic code in the classroom by any of the classroom participants (e.g. teacher, students, teacher aide).”

2.2.3 Sociolinguistics, society and classroom CS

Sociolinguistically, Bullock and Toribio (2009) argue that both social power and historical events may influence code choice. Auerbach (1993) remarks that in British colonial policies an English-only policy in ESL education (e.g. in Uganda) was determined by the rule of power. Colonizers, therefore, may obligate colonized countries to teach their language instead of, or alongside, the population’s mother tongue. Social and cultural dimensions could also have been related to the functional aspects of CS. Timm (1975) believes that extra linguistic factors such as age, gender and group identity may influence whether to switch codes or not. The situation in the Saudi context is not exceptional and extra linguistic factors, such as group identity, still appear influential. For example, when speakers switch to English, especially outside of the classroom, this might be considered as a kind of prestige or the mark of membership of an elite group. Greetings also such as السلام عليكم (*Alsalamu alaikum*) (‘peace be upon you’) in Arabic appear to reflect such social influence for choosing codes, not only outside the classroom, but also within it. Blom and Gumperz (1972) suggest setting, social situation and social event, as three types of social constraints that could affect speakers’ choice of codes. Along with these factors, other factors (e.g. linguistic) may also influence code choice. Also, the findings of Hobbs et al. (2010) show that a teacher’s culture of learning might, and often does influence the CS of language teachers.

Bullock and Toribio (2009) also argue that social and discursive factors influence bilingual speakers when they decide to switch codes, such as to reflect prestige, or serve as membership or group markers. Greetings such as السلام عليكم ('peace be upon you') tend to be used frequently and preferred by teachers and learners in English language classrooms in Arabic and possibly Muslim settings, as it represent their cultural and religious values. Therefore, although CS tends to be functionally related to the teacher, student or pedagogy, social and cultural functions cannot be separated, as the classroom is itself a social context. Despite the influence of the classroom as a "special" context (see 2.2.6), social and cultural factors may also affect CS by teachers and learners in the classroom (e.g. Bullock and Toribio 2009). For example, CS has been used to express certain words describing emotions that might be more appropriate in one particular language (Panayiotou 2004). Parents, for example, might switch to their mother tongue for emotional expressions when talking to their children in a second language, and teachers or learners may do so to express these emotions. CS might also occur when speakers need to change a subject, specify an addressee, emphasize the identity of individuals or members of a group, draw attention, express emotions, and marking "asides from ongoing discourse" (Poullisse and Bongaerts 1994:36). As a result, the strategic use of CS might fulfil many social and pedagogical functions (Moodley 2007), and might also occur as a result of social factors. The role of power in the teacher-learner relationship is also one of these factors and will be further discussed in section 2.2.4. Therefore, the social dimension should be considered when CS is discussed, not only outside the classroom, but also inside, where social influence cannot be ignored.

2.2.4 Approaches to analysing CS

A number of different approaches have been used to study CS. Researchers such as Bullock and Toribio (2009) and Gardner-Chloros (2009), and many others, have discussed these methods. Ferguson (2009) remarks that a discourse analytic approach to CS tends to identify and describe the pedagogic functions of CS in the classroom, if the classroom is the focus. This method, he continues, could be associated with, and supplemented by, video recordings or lesson transcripts of teachers' performance and behaviour. Gardner-Chloros (2009) describes three main approaches. The first is a sociolinguistic description of CS situations. This approach represents most of the studies into CS and has strength in linking social factors to the observed aspects of CS. The second is a conversational analytic approach, where

meaning is identified from CS in conversation; for example, as preference organisation where, for example, the participant's language choice is followed or avoided. The third is a grammatical approach, where the focus looks for the patterns of particular rules and models. Bullock and Toribio (2009) also describe three approaches through which CS can be studied. First, the structural approach, which is concerned with grammatical aspects and its focus is on identifying the syntactic and morphosyntactic constraints on CS, "where switching can occur within the sentence" (Boztepe 2003:5). Second, the psycholinguistic approach, which aims to understand the mechanism of the production of bilinguals and is concerned with the study of language and mind, focusing on the process through which language is processed and produced, and its relation to age and proficiency; for example, as speakers' characteristics. The third approach is a sociolinguistic approach, which tends to focus on questions on how social meaning is created in CS and what functions it serves (Boztepe 2003).

The sociolinguistic approach and the CA approach seem to be preferred by analysers of functional CS. Within the conversational analytical approach, the focus is initially on organising the talk and the speaker, assuming that talk is an action (Gafaranga 2009). CS then must be considered a conversational activity (unless it occurs in writing), for the analyst to have an adequate study of its meaning (Wei 2003). The argument of the CA analyst is that "while code-switching is indeed a socially significant behaviour, the task of the analyst is to try and show how our analyses are demonstratively relevant to the participants" (Li Wei 1998:163). Stroud (1998:322) however criticises studies that are strictly based on a conversational analytical approach, suggesting that in non-western settings, the conversational analytical approach cannot provide sufficient analysis of language behaviour by analysing the conversation without ethnographic or macro-sociological evidence. Stroud argues that "conversational code-switching is so heavily implicated in social life that it cannot really be understood apart from an understanding of social phenomena." Nilep (2006) agrees with Stroud, adding that there would be a risk of missing important aspects of meaning and functions if the analyst ignores invisible social and cultural factors in the data.

The sociolinguistic approach, which links language and social factors, takes social aspects of the participants into consideration, a feature that might give the analysis strength, especially if the researcher/analyser belongs to the same social background (language, culture, society). In a sociolinguistic approach, which will be adopted in this study, the study of CS is concerned with social functions and meanings (Chan 2007). It is interested in investigating the influence of social factors that inhibit and produce CS, with greater focus on social

constructs, such as power, in analysing CS (Bullock and Toribio 2009). The factor of power might be reflected in role of teachers, as teachers in many societies have a greater role over learners due to social or institutional factors. Contextual or institutional rules (e.g. a policy of L1 use), if they exist, may also influence the use of CS. Despite criticism of sociolinguistics in its construction of a simplistic correlation between language and society (see Williams 1992; Cameron 1990), the sociolinguistic approach has good analytical power that may contribute a primary step in comprehending the importance of CS in social life (Gardner-Chloros 2009). In many studies (see Milk 1990; Merritt et al. 1992) a sociolinguistic approach has been adopted to analyse functions of classroom discourse by linking values and models to examples of communicative choices. Such linking appeared as it tries to pay greater attention to the role of context in language acquisition, as well as the way in which context may affect learning and the production of the second language (Ellis and Roberts 1987).

2.2.5 Typologies of CS

Within the discussion of CS in studies of bilingualism, many researchers have suggested a typology of CS. A definite characterisation of the types of CS, Bullock and Toribio (2009) argue, appears difficult for several reasons:

- (1) The linguistic manifestation might appear as a single word, yet it might also be much longer. Speakers may use one word in a full sentence (e.g. the future of laptops seems غامض ('vague'), or in a longer phrase (e.g. I can't stay in this room, الغرفة مظلمة ('the room is dark')).
- (2) The proficiency of the bilinguals who produce CS differs, which results in a variety of patterns of CS. Thus, the higher the learners' level, the less likely CS will occur. However, it should be considered that even proficient speakers of L2 may frequently switch codes, especially if they have the authority to do so.
- (3) CS can be deployed as a result of more than a function in the discourse (e.g. بـرحمك الله ('God bless you')) in a reply to someone sneezing. In such a case, switching to Arabic might fill the linguistic gap or express ethnic or religious identity.

As a result, Bullock and Toribio (2009) state that researchers found difficulty in classifying the types of CS. However, many researchers, such as Blom and Gumperz (1972) and Muysken (2000), have tried to classify the types of CS, whether from a grammatical perspective or a functional one, and some of these attempts will be discussed below.

2.2.5.1 Situational vs. Metaphorical CS

In the framework of interactional sociolinguistics, Blom and Gumperz (1972) classified types of CS into situational and metaphorical. In situational CS, language alternation is used as a strategy of change in particular aspects of the speech situation. Situational CS, according to Chan (2007:72), refers to the “alternate use of language varieties in accordance with a change in setting” such as court, home or school, and the audience such as students, friends or officers. The influence of setting on language choice tends to be related to social, institutional or cultural norms. For example, if a teacher is speaking in English and suddenly switches to Arabic to tell a joke, this can usually be described as situational CS. Metaphorical CS, on the other hand, tends to be a type of language use where speakers “build on their own and their audience's abstract understanding of situational norms, to communicate metaphoric information about how they intend their words to be understood” (Gumperz 1982:61). Metaphorical CS, Chan (2007) comments, is a kind of communicative strategy in Gumperz’s classification. In this example; ‘I like fruits, especially orange, mango, apple and الرمان (‘pomegranates’),’ the speaker here is counting fruits that he/she likes, yet misses the terminology of one of the fruits, and switches to the other code to utter it. This might be considered metaphorical CS, as the speaker’s switching here tends to act as a communicative strategy to fill a linguistic gap. Gumperz (1982:131) proposes that metaphorical CS is a shift in “contextualization cues” that is described as “any feature of linguistic form that contributes to the signalling of contextual presupposition.” Contextualization is described as “all the processes by which members construe the local and global contexts which are necessary for the interpretation of their linguistic and non-linguistic activities” (Auer 1990:80). Metaphorical CS, then, is a discourse strategy, based on the selectivity between the social situation and the language varieties where it represents a communication of meaning rather than aspects of speech (Gafaranga 2007). Gumperz (1982) classified metaphorical CS into quotations, addresses specification, interjection, reiteration, message qualification and personalization versus objectivation functions. These will be explained in (2.3.2). Functionally, whereas metaphorical CS tends to serve as a communicative strategy to fill linguistic gaps, situational CS may include classroom management, affective, social or religious functions. It is important, however, to remember that the distinction between these two types, as the distinction between the functions of CS which will be discussed in section 2.3 is not always straightforward; some cases of CS might be situational and metaphorical. One example would be someone who prefers to utter greetings in L1 for cultural reasons (situational CS), whereas he might not be able to say it in L2; CS as a communicative

strategy (metaphorical CS). Despite such possible conflicts, Gumperz’s classification appears to be the origin of many later functional studies of CS

2.2.5.2 Structural classification of CS

Many researchers have also classified CS both structurally and syntactically (see table 2.1). These classifications appear to carry the same types with different naming.

Researcher	Structural classification	Examples or Comments
Sankoff and Poplack (1981)	<p>(1) Tag-switching</p> <p>(2) Intra-sentential (Insertional in Muysken 2000)</p> <p>(3) Inter-sentential (Alternational in Muysken 2000)</p>	<p>E.g. The exam will be in the next week, فهمت؟ ('Understand?') (e.g. Chan 2007)</p> <p>E.g. I would like to eat سمك ('fish') and chips.</p> <p>E.g. I like fishing هذه هوايتي الوحيدة ('This is my only hobby').</p>
Muysken (2000)	<p>(1) Insertional</p> <p>(2) Alternational</p> <p>(3) Congruent lexicalization</p>	<p>“Separate constituents from language B are inserted into a frame constituted by the rules of language A.” (Muysken 2007:321), such as inserting the word “complicated” in an Arabic phrase: (E.g. أعتقد إن الموضوع مرة complicated.)</p> <p>A combination of “chunks” from both languages produced: (e.g. what a nice weather, اليوم لازم نطلع البحر).</p> <p>A grammatical structure is shared between two languages, and can be filled by lexical elements from each other. e.g. ‘Bueno, in other words, el flight que de sale Chicago around three o’clock.’ (‘Good, in other words, the flight that leaves Chicago around three o’clock.’) (Pfaff 1976:250, cited in Muysken 2000:6)</p>

Table 2.1 Examples of taxonomies of the structural types of CS

The above-mentioned classification by Sankoff and Poplacks, Qian et al. (2009) report, has been named (1) tag-switching, (2) emblematic switching, and (3) extra-sentential switching in Muysken (1995). The typology of Muysken (2000) (see table 2.1), on the other hand, was extended by Muysken (2007) into 13 types. This means that the classification of the types of CS seems to be open-ended, as researchers may classify these types from several perspectives. It might also be worth mentioning that intra-sentential switching, which refers to switching within the clause or sentence boundary (Qian et al. 2009), appears to be the most common. Miccio et al. (2009) believe proficient adult bilinguals produce intra-sentential CS. In this study, CS, regardless of its structural classification, will be functionally investigated, as the focus of this study is to address the functions of CS.

2.2.5.3 Markedness theory and CS

In the literature of social psychology, the Markedness model of CS is a suggested theory in the field of social interaction. The Markedness theory, according to Li Wei (1998), is the most influential theory in the pragmatic and social aspect of CS after Gumperz's distinction between situational and metaphorical CS. The analyst's interpretation is given here. Li Wei (1998) clarifies that its emphasis is on the analytical interpretation of the intention of participants in a bilingual conversation. The objective of Markedness theory Li Wei (1998) adds, according to its proponent (Myers-Scotton 1993b), is to explain the social motivations of CS. This theory argues that particular social rules, including rights and obligations, are related to the language, and that each speaker should have an understanding of these social meanings (Myers-Scotton 1993b), otherwise, the significance of each code would not be clear to the speaker without these bases. According to Myers-Scotton's theory, a teacher for example in a classroom should be aware of his role when choosing codes within that context (e.g. the classroom) as some languages might be more culturally accepted than other languages on occasions such as greetings. In the Saudi context therefore, where social and cultural values have a considerable importance among members of the society, Markedness theory seems to be applicable. Religious values (e.g. expressed through greetings) in society, cultural considerations as well as power (e.g. the power of teacher and the power of policy or institution) seem to be influential in the context of the study. Without considering such factors therefore, the analysis of the patterns of CS in the classroom might be insufficient. Li Wei (1998:158) points out that the Markedness theory of Myers-Scotton is claimed to be valid and universal for all bilingual communities and bilinguals. Li Wei also adds that it appears that the model of Myers-Scotton and Gumperz's distinction of situational vs.

metaphorical switching are similar to a large extent. In both, the meaning of CS is generated and interpreted in a “monodirectional” way. However, many researchers (e.g. Sercombe 2009) have shown that Myers-Scotton’s theory is not universal, and is not necessarily valid in all bilingual communities.

2.2.6 CS in EFL classroom contexts

This section will review a number of studies of CS in language classrooms, along with other studies that view the classroom as a special unique context. Despite the early existence of bilingual education in the literature (approximately from the middle of the 19th century (Baker 1996), research into CS as a classroom phenomenon is more recent (Aguirre 1988). This discussion has covered a variety of fields, such as the functions of CS, whether pedagogical or social, and whether it influences language acquisition. In the context of the classroom, the study of CS partly differs, as the classroom is an institutional setting where teachers teach a language and pupils learn (Yletyinen 2004). Martin-Jones (1995) studied CS in the classroom using a micro-ethnographic approach to explore pedagogical events in the classroom. Subsequently, many scholars (e.g. Eldridge 1996; Yletyinen 2004; Greggio and Gil 2007) discussed CS among learners of EFL.

It is more complex to deal with CS in an EFL classroom (Jakobsson and Ryden 2010; Simon 2001). The reason Simon (2001) remarks is because there is metalinguistic information to be conveyed, other than linguistic concepts (e.g. pedagogical, social, cultural and management). Therefore, CS can have one or multiple functions, and may occur due to more than one factor (e.g. social, pedagogical, management and learners’ level). Such a multi-level context makes the classroom different from other social settings (Simon 2001). Therefore, the analysis of language in a foreign language classroom, Qian et al. (2009) add, is difficult due to it’s being multi-layered as the language levels of the various speakers may differ. According to Greggio and Gil (2007), both teachers and learners make use of CS when communicating and interacting in the foreign language classroom. Despite this fact, it should be considered that the classroom as a context might influence learners’ choice of codes. Simon (2001) proposed that the foreign language classroom is a special CS context for many reasons. Yletyinen (2004:30-31) summarizes the reasons mentioned by Simon stating:

Firstly, foreign language classrooms can be considered as a multilingual community to the effect that the participants share knowledge about the pedagogical contract which governs code choice in different pedagogical situations. Secondly, the learners have limited knowledge of the foreign language whereas the teacher knows it well; this may increase the occurrences of codeswitching. Thirdly, teacher and the pupils have socially and institutionally predetermined roles: teacher-status is associated with the use of foreign language and learner-status is associated with the implicit obligation to use the foreign language.

It can be argued, however, that the second reason may not always be true; some learners may be advanced, and their level might be comparable to that of the teacher. The third reason might be partly true; although both institutional and social rules can change, these rules are not necessarily shared in all classrooms and in all societies. Although the classroom might be a microcosm of the outside community in terms of communication, if social rules exist within it, Simon (2001) adds, it has specific features, not only the social dimension that affects CS in it, but rather, the pedagogical dimension may also have an effect on the communication purpose in such a language learning context. As advanced level students exist in the context of the EFL classroom, students and non-native teachers could share an equal language level. Regarding language proficiency, teachers often know more than their students, and as the discipline is to talk in the foreign language, teachers are more likely to use it, especially in a university setting (Simon 2001).

2.3 Functions of CS in classrooms

2.3.1 Studies of functions of CS

This section will review some of functional studies of CS. Over the last three decades, Moor (2002) remarks, many researchers have extensively discussed the functions of CS in the classroom (e.g. Van Lier 1996). These studies focused on the functions and roles of CS from linguistic and interactional perspectives. The distinction between functions of CS in the classroom differs, as speakers may use CS for variety of functions. According to Li Wei (1998), the question of why bilingual speakers switch codes from one language to another during interaction or in conversation is a perennial question in research related to bilingualism. Initially, CS is a pragmatic phenomenon (Auer 1995), which indicates that CS generally occurs for a reason (e.g. communicative, social). Nation (2003) for example suggests that learners may refer to L1 as a result of their low proficiency (communicative), shyness (social) and lack of motivation to communicate in the target language. CS also seems

to be a universal phenomenon (DeBose 2005), which might indicate its occurrence among bilinguals worldwide. CS may also appear to be natural as breathing for some people, without thought behind it (Jakobsson and Ryden 2010), yet it does not necessarily appear among all bilinguals, or in all communities or social situations (Heller 1988; Bullock and Toribio 2009).

CS can be widely used as a tool to achieve interactional goals (see for example Auer 1998; Gumperz 1982; Heller 1988; Li Wei and Milroy 1995; Myers-Scotton 1993b; Shin and Milroy 2000; Cipriani 2001; Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain 2005; Dahl et al. 2010). In addition, Shin (2010) argues that CS often reflects the cultural and social identities of the speaker (e.g. Foley 1997; Myers-Scotton 1993b; Siegel 1995), for example, when used in greetings such as السلام عليكم (‘peace be upon you’). Moreover, CS also plays a scaffolding role in collaborative tasks (Wood et al. 1976; Anton and DiCamilla 1999; Yamat et al. 2011) if a teacher or a learner provides a learner with hints or words in L1, from which they benefit and continue speaking in L2 (e.g. ‘vegetables, you know vegetables?’ خيار ‘cucumber’ and ?’). CS, according to Uys and Van Dulm (2011), usefully fulfils many social and academic functions in the classroom (e.g. clarifying subject content, assisting students, confirming understanding, encouraging learners, managing the classroom and social functions (a bilingual identity marker or humour). Despite the various functions mentioned above, and others that will be discussed in 2.3.3, these functions are not exclusively educational. Some functions (e.g. humour) can be described as social, whereas greetings such as السلام عليكم (‘peace be upon you’) might be considered cultural or religious. It might also be important to note that deciding which functions each CS case serves is not necessarily easy; some examples of CS might accept more than one function and can sometimes be multifunctional (see also Eldridge 1996). If a learner for example talks in English in the classroom and says إن شاء الله (‘If God is willing’) in Arabic as in this example:

Teacher: You need to study harder to get better marks in Phonology.

Student: I promise i will try إن شاء الله (‘If God is willing’) to do my best.

Teacher: Good luck.

In this example, one might suggest the learner switches codes for a cultural or religious reason, yet it might also be considered a communication strategy if the learner cannot say it in English. It might also be multifunctional, i.e. cultural or religious in the sense that he prefers to utter this phrase in Arabic, and communicative, as he may not be able to say it in English. This shows it can be complex to decide which function CS serves.

In Arabic contexts, CS studies, such as the quantitative study of Al-Abdan (1993) have focused particularly on the teachers' amount of CS and attitudes towards using Arabic in intermediate schools. Al-Nofaie (2010) discussed using Arabic as a tool to learn English in public schools, while Storch and Aldossary (2010) investigated the effect of learners' proficiency and task type on the amount of L1 used by learners. They found that by working in pairs, learners mainly used CS for task management and to facilitate deliberations over vocabulary. L1, according to Storch and Aldossary (2010), has also been used as a social tool to reflect the relationship formed by the pairs, whether a collaborative, dominant or passive relationship. What can be implied from these studies was not an exception to studies in non-Saudi or non-Arabic contexts; the use of Arabic in English classes was observed, whether the purpose of the study was to (quantitatively) see how much participants switch codes or (qualitatively) see why they do. What can generally be understood from these studies is there seems to be an evolving or changing view, from a traditional cautious attitude towards possibly a more balanced view of such use, especially the way in which teachers view CS or the use of L1 in the classroom. This is not only in public schools, as in Al-Nofaie (2010), where learners' English proficiency is usually low, but also for college students, as in Storch and Al-Dossary (2010), where Arabic has been used for linguistic and non-linguistic functions as mentioned above.

2.3.2 Frameworks for studying CS functions

This section will review some of the frameworks and taxonomies of functional CS in the literature, and aims to show the development of these taxonomies and reasons for the difficulties in classifying CS. In the field of CS, many researchers have suggested functional taxonomies of CS. One of the earliest taxonomies is that of Gumperz (1982), who mentioned six functions in his discussion of the discourse functions of CS. These are:

- 1- Quotations, where a speaker uses CS to express what others have said.

E.g. John: I asked Paul but he said لا أستطيع ('I cannot').

- 2- Addressee Specification, where the speaker uses CS to direct his messages to one of several possible addressees.

E.g. when a bilingual (e.g. Ahmed), who speaks Arabic and English, talks in English to a group of listeners, one of whom (e.g. Saad) is monolingual (Arabic) and he (Ahmed) switches to Arabic to talk to Saad.

3- Interjections, where the speaker marks interjections or serves as sentence-filler by expressing emotions.

E.g. John: We need to travel to Rome tomorrow according to the manager.

Mark: مستحيل ('Impossible'), how can we travel tomorrow without preparation?

4- Reiteration, where the speaker repeats a word or a sentence in another language for clarification or emphasis.

E.g. Teacher: The exam will be next Wednesday الأربعاء القادم ('next Wednesday').

5- Message Qualification, where a topic is introduced in one language and then commented on or qualified further in another language.

E.g. Teacher: I have to omit some points النقاط غير الضرورية ('the unnecessary points') before starting my presentation.

6- Personalization versus Objectivization, "relates to things such as: the distinction between talk about action and talk as action, the degree of speaker involvement in, or distance from, a message, whether a statement reflects personal opinion or knowledge, whether it refers to specific instances or has the authority of generally known fact."

(Yletyinen 2004: 18)

E.g. Saad: Lack of sleep is a problem لم أستطع النوم البارحة ('I could not sleep yesterday').

Since the 1980s, a growing number of researchers have focused on the functions of CS in the EFL classroom. Ferguson (2009: 231-232), for example, suggests the functions of CS in the classroom can be placed into three categories: "(1) CS for constructing and transmitting knowledge (this would cover pedagogic scaffolding, annotation of key L2 technical terms, and the mediation of L2 textbook meanings), (2) CS for classroom management (this would cover CS to signal a shift of footing, to use a Goffmanian term, from say, lesson content to management of pupil behaviour), (3) and CS for interpersonal relations (this would cover CS to index and negotiate different teacher identities (e.g. teacher as didact, teacher as authority figure, teacher as community member), and CS to humanise the classroom climate)." The advantage of such taxonomy, Ferguson (2009) argues, is to clarify teachers' significant task of facilitating knowledge to students in a safe and comfortable classroom. Although less important, and continuously less focus is given to the linguistic details of CS patterns in the classroom, compared to the pragmatic and pedagogic functions, it still has significance, as different forms and intensities of CS may indicate a variety of attitudes, and thus, greater attention should be given to these identified patterns of switching.

It should be acknowledged that when looking at these functional taxonomies, the classification of CS could be complex and not necessarily straightforward. Raschka et al. (2009) refer the difficulty of categorising the types of CS to many reasons; including the locus and duration of the switch that can affect its function, as well as the nature of the switch when triggered by another speaker, especially teachers. In this case, learners tend not to change the language used by their teacher (Raschka et al. 2009); or they “reciprocate” the language used by their teachers (Liu et al. 2004: 632). CS may also occur as a result of more than one factor (e.g. Backus and Eversteijn 2002; Dahl et al. 2010). Intra-sentential CS, for example, may serve more than one purpose (e.g. Auer 1998), such as quoting persons and emphasizing points (Hughes et al. 2006), or for socialising and as a communicative tool as in this example where a learner enters the classroom:

Student: (knocking the door).

Teacher: Yes, come in.

Student: السلام عليكم ('peace be upon you').

Teacher and students: عليكم السلام ('peace be upon you too').

Teacher: OK, let us continue.

In this example, one may refer such a switch to religious reasons, yet it might be due to a lack of vocabulary. Therefore, participants in this study will be interviewed and asked about the functions of their CS, instead of the exclusive analysis of the researcher. One of the recent taxonomies for the functions of CS is that of Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999). Unlike some of the taxonomies mentioned above, which only include academic or linguistic functions of CS, the taxonomy of Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult covers a wider range of social, linguistic and management functions, under which the functions of teachers and students' CS can be classified. This taxonomy also differentiates social functions from affective functions, which despite the possibility of their overlap, may help to give deeper analysis of the social functions of CS. In addition to the five categories of Flyman-Mattsson (1999) (1-5 below), two more categories will be adopted from Eldridge (1996) (6 and 7). The adopted taxonomy of Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999:61) includes the following functions:

- (1) Linguistic insecurity, where speakers switch from one code to another due to linguistic difficulties (e.g. when teachers face difficulty relating new concepts (Raschka et al. 2009).

- (2) Topic switch, where a speaker switches from one code to another when the topic being discussed changes.
- (3) Affective functions, where teachers or students express emotional words.
- (4) Socialising functions, when speakers switch to L1 to express friendship (Raschka et al. 2009).
- (5) Repetitive functions, when speakers deliver the message in L1 and L2 for clarification.
- (6) Metalinguistic function, where a classroom task is conducted in L2, but comments and clarifications about the task are given in L1.
- (7) Classroom management (and/or questions), where teachers organise students' classroom activities in learners' mother tongue.

The taxonomy of Flyman-Mattsson, along with the 6th and the 7th categories from Eldridge (1996) mentioned above, were adopted and used in the study of CS by Raschka et al. (2009). In this study, cases of CS will be analysed under these seven categories. New categories will be data-driven and generated on the basis of data that do not appear to fit within these seven categories.

2.3.3 Students' and teachers' use of CS

This section will review studies of CS in the classroom to investigate the similarity or differences of CS used by teachers and learners in this study, compared to studies in the literature. Many researchers (e.g. Eldridge, 1996) have focused on learners' CS, probably because they are more likely to use CS than teachers, as learners are usually less proficient than their teachers. Learners, Prahbu (1987) reports, are likely to refer to their mother tongue when doing tasks and talking to teachers. Sert (2005) carried out further investigation into the CS of learners, who argued that learners tend to switch codes when using the target language to explain a specific lexical item; for example, when they do not have the linguistic ability to explain it in the target language. Jakobsson and Ryden (2010) stated this reflected the learners' mechanism of using a lexical item from the native language and to continue the communication. Bergsleithner (2002) also found that learners use CS when interacting with teachers and negotiating meaning to better express themselves, perhaps when they feel the teacher will accommodate this, as in the following example:

Teacher: What courses will you study in the foundation year?

Student: English, Math, Chemistry and فيزياء, المواد الأساسية ('Physics, the main courses').

Teacher: You mean Physics.

Student: Yes, Physics.

Lehti-Eklund (2013) describes language learning in the classroom as a process in which participation in collaborative work may accomplish a gradual change in language use. CS might then be a strategy used collaboratively by learners for a change in learners' use of the language. Also, learners may use L1 for reiteration "when the students receive information in the target language and display their understanding or lack of understanding of the received information, they tend to repeat it in their L1" (Jakobsson & Ryden, 2010:10-11). For example, the teacher may ask learners:

Teacher: Are you ready for the exam?

Student: هل أنا مستعد للإختبار؟ ('Am I ready for the exam?').

Teacher: Yes.

Student: Yes, hopefully.

In such a case, Sert (2005) argues, CS might be referred to teacher's inexact transfer of his message, which leads the learner to repeat it in his L1, or the learner believes it is better to switch codes to indicate a complete understanding of the teacher's message. A study by Braga (2000) (cited in Greggio and Gill 2007) on humour in a beginner EFL classroom showed that participants switched codes in humorous situations when correcting activities. Such humorous use of CS may reflect attempts to create a relaxed atmosphere. Greggio and Gil (2007:386) reported that students used CS in grammar explanations, when receiving instructions, when requesting assistance and when correcting activities, concluding that learners switched codes:

(1) "To maintain the flow of conversation or fill a linguistic gap" (ibid).

E.g. I like many fruits such as apple, mango and... الرمان ('pomegranate').

(2) "to provide equivalent meaning(s) in L1/to translate vocabulary" (ibid).

E.g. if a learner speaks to his colleague saying: (Car means سيارة ('car')).

(3) "to ask equivalent meaning(s) in L1 or L2" (ibid).

E.g. if a learner asks: ما معنى ريفر؟ ('What is meant by river?').

(4) “to ask about grammatical rules or structures” (ibid).

E.g. if a student asks: ما الفرق بين اس الجمع واس الملكية (‘what is the difference between the plural (S) and possessive (S)’).

(5) “to clarify understanding of grammatical rules/structures” (ibid).

E.g. when a student says: فهمت .. تقصد أن الجمع غير المفرد (‘I understood.. you mean plural differs from single’).

In some of the examples above (1, 3 and 4), CS appears to fulfil communicative and/or metalinguistic functions; communicative, as speakers in examples 1 and 3 seem not to understand the L2 and switch to L1 as a communicative strategy; or metalinguistic, in example 4 where the learner uses L1 to ask about L2 rules or structures. In examples 2 and 5, the speakers tend to switch to L1 to translate (as in example 2) or confirm understanding (as in example 5). This may indicate the speakers’ understanding and ability to deliver their messages in both languages.

In a discussion of learners’ CS, there seems to be a correlation between a speaker’s proficiency in the target language and the type and amount of CS he/she uses (Bullock and Toribio 2009). It seems the amount of CS correlates to the speaker’s proficiency. This inverse relationship is reflected in the argument of Poulisse and Bongaerts (1994), i.e. the occurrence of students’ language switching tends to be related to their level of proficiency in English, (or another language), and the more proficient the speaker, the less likely unintentional CS will occur (see also Genesee et al. 1996; Kasper 2004). The findings of Momenian and Samar (2011) also show that teachers and students at elementary levels rank higher (use more) with regard to functions of CS use compared to their advanced colleagues. This might indicate learners’ lower proficiency and the teachers’ need for greater switching due to the weaker proficiency of learners. It might also refer to teachers’ teaching at too high a level because of the potential disparity between learners’ levels. Setting may also influence the frequency of CS. Storch and Aldossary (2010) report that in an EFL classroom, learners’ use of L1 might be greater as all share the same language (teachers and learners). In general, it appears that learners’ CS can serve many academic and social functions; however, learners may switch codes unnecessarily, especially if they feel they are allowed to do so.

Within the classroom, teachers also switch codes (Jakobsson and Ryden 2010). Although teachers might switch codes consciously or unconsciously, their switch tends to serve a purpose of message meaning delivery (Sert 2005), which students’ CS may also serve. Cipriani (2001) remarks that teachers switch codes to clarify vocabulary, communicate tasks

and to encourage learners to speak in L2. Then and Ting (2011) also found that one function of teachers' CS is reiteration, where teachers translate to bridge comprehension gaps, give instructions, and mark salient information and quotations, rather than address specification, objectivisation or personalisation. Mujiono et al. (2013) report that English teachers switched codes for unpleasant feelings and humour, and used repetition for clarification. Many studies have also shown that CS is a strategy used by teachers for classroom interaction and classroom management (Merritt et al. 1992; Polio and Duff 1994; Kim and Elder 2005; Qian et al. 2009; Rezvani and Rasekh 2011). In addition, the findings of Rezvani and Rasekh show that teachers use CS to serve many pedagogical and social functions including explanation, translation and praise (see also Mitchell 1983; Duff and Polio 1990; Hobbs et al. 2010).

Greggio and Gil (2007:376) report that teachers switch codes to explain grammar, give instructions, monitor/assist students, to correct activities, and to “clarify words, expressions, structures and rules of the L2, and to make sure the learners understood her utterances” (teacher's utterances). The teachers of beginners also switched codes to provide equivalent meaning(s) in L1, to translate unknown vocabulary items, or when learners asked for the meaning of L2 words in Portuguese (Greggio and Gil 2007). It is important to mention, Greggio and Gil (2007:378) add, that there are instances when the teacher provided the meaning of L2 words or expressions using synonyms or gestures, yet there are also several occasions when the teacher used CS (L2→L1) to translate vocabulary. Greggio and Gil concluded that teachers switch codes for the following functions:

- 1- “Marking the beginning of the class (L1→L2)” (ibid)
(e.g. if the teacher says (Ok, now we should begin by reviewing what we have said yesterday) after greeting learners in L1.
- 2- “Attracting learners' attention (L2→L1)” (ibid)
(e.g. if teacher says: شباب استمعوا لي ('guys, listen to me'), during his speech in English.
- 3- “To facilitate/clarify understanding of grammatical rules and structures (L2→L1)” (ibid).
(e.g. if the teacher says: Ok, هذه القاعدة تستعمل مع الفعل الماضي فقط ('this grammatical rule is to be used with the past verb only').
- 4- Translating or providing equivalent meaning (L2→L1)
(e.g. if the teacher says: the meaning of galaxy? Galaxy means مجرة ('galaxy').

5- In giving advice (L2→L1).

(e.g. the teacher asks learners in L1 to listen to the tapes provided with the textbook to improve their listening skills).

In addition to the functions of CS mentioned above, L1 may be used by teachers to explain new words (e.g. Kharma and Hajjaj 1989; Franklin 1990), due to learners' low proficiency (e.g. Kharma and Hajjaj 1989; Franklin 1990; Dickson 1996), to give instructions (Franklin 1990; Macaro 1995), for clarification or enhance participation (Bach Baoueb and Toumi 2012), and to explain grammar (Kharma and Hajjaj 1989; Franklin 1990). This supports the notion of Cook (2001) who states that when L1 is employed to explain grammar, advanced learners made good progress. Teachers' experience and proficiency might also indicate the degree to which they refer to the L1; the less proficient the teacher, the greater the reference to L1 (Crawford 2004). Macaro et al. (2012) remarks that teachers' bilingual assistance may help learners express what they might not have said, and can help in scaffolding their oral production and possibly contribute in reducing the anxiety of less proficient learners. Therefore, teachers are reported to switch to learners' L1 for a variety of reasons, all of which seem to serve academic, linguistic and social functions. However, teachers' switching to L1 is not always useful; many researchers have cautioned about unhelpful use, reflected in the overuse of learners' L1 (see 2.4.1).

2.4 Attitudes and policies towards CS in classrooms

This section contains a review of the literature that discusses teachers' and learners' attitudes towards CS. The section begins with a review of studies that discuss the use of L1 as a potential learning tool, and might help understand whether L1 could be deployed and legitimised as a positive tool for learning English or, in contrast, could be an obstructive behaviour to be minimised or prohibited. Next, studies that mention teachers and learners' attitudes will be reviewed. This may help to understand the factors that make speakers switch codes and whether participants view CS as a positive phenomenon or not. Finally, the section will review some studies that discuss the policy of using L1, as well as researchers' thoughts concerning the optimal amount, time and context in which L1 might be used, and factors that could determine when and how it might be allowed.

2.4.1 L1 use as a learning tool in EFL classrooms

One of the issues discussed in the field of CS is the employment of the first language as a potential facilitating tool to teach or acquire the second language. Hall and Cook (2012) remark that until recently, it was assumed for many, the monolingual way of teaching and learning new languages was better without reference to the learners' language. However, Hall and Cook (2012) state, this monolingual assumption, and teaching new languages with the use of learners' language, is being re-evaluated and increasingly questioned. Many researchers indicate that L1 might need to be avoided in the classroom (e.g. Willis 1981; Cummins and Swain 1986; Krashen 1982). Beginning with Chomsky's theory (1965), which states that language acquisition originates from inborn properties and function in the brain, and Krashen's claim (1985) that evidence was provided in that pre-modified input helps to acquire aspects of second language, by the interactionally modified input in (Ellis et al. 1994; Long 1981) and many other researchers who did not clearly state that first language should be banned, yet their thought is that first language is not necessary for second or foreign language acquisition.

Cummins and Swain (1986) argue that progress in L2 is facilitated if only one code is used, whereas Chaudron (1988), Krashen (1982) and Macdonald (1993) suggest that only English should be used in classroom, adding that learners should be exposed to sufficient target language to develop their proficiency, and L1 in this case deprives them from such needed input. Chen and Hird (2006) also report that even functional CS might limit English communicative outcomes needed in group work; this is not necessarily true although overuse may limit English communicative outcomes. Li Wei and Martin (2009) also remark that CS in many classroom contexts is considered unacceptable and inappropriate. It seems CS occurs even if people pretend it does not, and the policy of allowing L1 use in France is an example of such a declaration of its inevitable occurrence. Banning L1 might be referred to what Macaro (2009) stated: some researchers believe the second language can be only learned in that language, and the exclusive use of the second language provides a kind of "virtual reality", adding that those researchers considered the use of the first language as a sin, and this make speakers feel guilty about using it. However, learners can sometimes learn an L2 through L1, for example, learning L2 grammar in L1.

Despite the common occurrence of CS in the context of language teaching, Pan and Pan (2010) also report that CS is criticized for its possible interference with the acquisition of the

target language. Gardner-Chloros (2009) reports that to some, it might be seen as an easy lazy option, and even those who practice it generally disapprove. However, L1 use is not necessarily a lazy option; CS is usually functional, and studying CS may allow us to study when, where and why CS occurs, and consequently when it might be pedagogically invalid and less useful (cf. Raschka et al. 2009). Amorim (2012:187) argues “it is sometimes impossible, even unrealistic, for students to shut out or switch off their own language as it is an important part of their identity.” This school of researchers still seems influential, perhaps in many language learning institutions worldwide. However, this policy of L1 avoidance seems to be unrealistic for beginners as L1 is used by many learners, especially, though not limited to, those at lower levels of proficiency. In addition, although employment of the target language is important and necessary in the language classroom, this does not necessarily mean that switching to the mother tongue is harmful for language learning. It can also be noted that many, if not most, of these studies, which argue against using L1 in L2 classrooms, are generally older, and may reflect a change in the views of researchers in the role of L1 in the classroom. Time, as well as research findings, seems to be the reason for a change of opinions with regard to L1 employment in classroom. Many recent studies tend to support the use of L1 in contrast to many older studies, and there seems to be greater awareness of unrealistic rules that prohibit L1.

The L2-only policy seems to be derived from, or an application of, the direct method that emphasises using the foreign language as a medium of instruction for learners and an avoidance of translation (e.g. Larsen-Freeman 2000). Many recent studies (e.g. Jenkins 2010) question and criticize an English-only policy in the classroom, and advocate multilingual practice (Sampson 2011). Many researchers argue that L1 can be beneficial as a potential cognitive tool to aid second language learning (e.g. Stern 1992; Anton and DiCamilla 1999; Brooks and Donato 1994; Cook 2001; Swain and Lapkin 2000, Gauci and Grima 2012; Anselmo and Williams 2012). According to Macaro (2009), many researchers have found that using L1 has some value at certain moments during teaching or learning; L1 might enhance learning more effectively than the exclusive use of L2. Atkinson (1987) also states that in monolingual language classrooms, ignorance of the first language may mean that teaching takes place with less than maximum efficiency. This decrease of efficiency refers to the lack of advantages that L1 sometimes offers in language learning. Cook (2001) also considers CS a natural phenomenon in a setting where the speakers share two languages; teachers should therefore not discourage switching to L1 in the classroom, if it appears

useful. An example in a Saudi context is where learners and most teachers share the same L1 (Arabic). In addition to the suggested maximum use of the target language, Turnbull (2001) suggests this does not necessarily mean that using L1 is harmful. Cook (2002) also suggests that teachers develop their systematic use of L1 with the use of L2, which may help in students' learning. Results obtained by Arnfast and Jorgensen (2003) go beyond this, and show that L2 learning is developed by the use of CS and that CS may be used as a learning strategy. Gunn (2003) also agrees, adding that adults with lower levels of proficiency particularly need the use of L1. In bilingual classes, Zabrodska (2008) argues that students' use of L1 with L2 may improve their academic performance. Ustunel and Seedhouse (2005) also show that learners use CS for pedagogical focus, adding that learners' choice of codes seems to be related to their alignment with the teacher's pedagogical focus. They provide an example of a learner who repeats in English the teacher's question, which was asked in Turkish (L1), clarifying that the learner is showing his alignment with the pedagogical aims. Macaro (2005) also argues that such L1 avoidance may lead students to use more input modifications such as slow speaking, using complex words instead of basic ones and simplifying syntax, although this assumption seems strange as low level learners are unlikely to be able to produce complex words in L2.

Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) also found that learners used CS as a useful strategy due to the function it has in the English language classroom. Raschka et al. (2009) add that English-only is a lazy and unrealistic rule, as in such a situation, it is impossible to discuss where and when the usefulness of CS can be found, and when it might appear pedagogically invalid in the classroom, and teachers' strategic use of CS might indicate a high level of language competence. Qian et al. (2009) add that a suitable quantity of CS could reinforce good habits in learning and may also create a closer relationship between teacher and students. However, it is difficult to define the 'suitable' quantity, unless situations where CS can help facilitate understanding and potential learning are specified. Therefore, identifying and discussing occasions and situations where CS occurs seems to be the solution, and an indicator of whether CS is useful depending on its possible negative influence on students' learning. What might be meant by a suitable quantity of CS could also be simplified by excluding any switch that appears unnecessary, and including switches that can fulfil pedagogical, social, cultural and management functions. The findings of Rezvani and Rasekh (2011) suggest that CS strategy is a good resource for teachers in EFL classrooms, and its skilful use might boost the quality of teaching. Tian and Macaro (2012) argue that teachers who use CS may sometimes

be slightly superior to teachers who provide L2-only information because of certain benefits (e.g. in defining, paraphrasing) when compared with L2-only use. In this example:

Teacher: In the second semester, you will also study Anatomy course.

Student: What is the meaning of Anatomy?

Teacher: It is a medical science which ... It is علم التشريح ('Anatomy').. is it clear?

Student: Yes, I understand.

In this example, it might be better, quicker and, most probably not harmful, for the teacher to provide the learner with the Arabic equivalent of the word 'anatomy' instead of explaining such a complex word. Wei (2013:191) found that "proper tolerance of using both students' native language and English in TEFL classes in the way of code-switching may help students more than the implementation of English-only policy in a tertiary TEFL context."

Pan and Pan (2010) mention other researchers who suggest that the use of the mother tongue helps students to increase their confidence in understanding the target language and reducing effective barriers in the learning process (Atkinson 1987; Auerbach 1993; Cook 2001; Harbord 1992; Kang 2008; Kern 1989). Seng and Hashim (2006) show that learners with lower proficiency found it difficult to express their thoughts accurately and confidently in English. Thus, Liao (2006) found that when only the target language was allowed, students remained silent because of a lack of competence or nervousness. As a result, allowing students to use L1 may result in an increasing willingness by students to express their ideas and communicate in the classroom (Atkinson 1987; Auerbach 1993; Cook 2001). Willis and Willis (2007) believe that the avoidance of L1, especially with beginners, is almost impossible, adding that teachers mentioned better progress by learners who did tasks in L1 before doing it in the target language. Brooks-Lewis (2009) also remarks that prohibiting using L1 in the L2 classroom might prevent learners from using an important tool. An example of this is students who are learning English phonology. Here, the teacher's use of L1 might be helpful for learners when trying to clarify the way in which some sounds in Standard English are normally uttered. Macaro (2009:49) also mentions the increasing possibility that banning L1 use in communicative second language classrooms may reduce the cognitive and metacognitive opportunities for learners, exemplifying that some vocabulary items might be better provided by an equivalent in L1 by the teacher, as this may "triggers deeper semantic processing than might occur by providing second language definitions or paraphrases." As mentioned above, it seems that most recent studies are either

implementing a positive view of the role of CS in the classroom (e.g. Tian and Macaro 2012), or calling for a re-evaluation of its role (e.g. Hall and Cook 2012). This might imply researchers' awareness of the potential advantages of CS on the one hand, yet know the prohibition of L1 is unrealistic option on the other hand. However, there might be some concerns in allowing or legitimising L1 use in the classroom, reflected in a substantial or unnecessary use of L1, or teachers' possible loss of control regarding learners' switching to L1, and these may affect the achievement of the pedagogical aims.

Despite the encouragement of using the mother tongue in specific situations, Pan and Pan (2010) report that some researchers (Atkinson 1987; Auerbach 1993; Cook 2001; Harbord 1992; Kang 2008; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie 2002; Storch and Wigglesworth 2003; Swain and Lapkin 2000; Turnbull 2001; Van Lier 1995; Weschler 1997) have warned about the excessive use of L1 (possibly as if the class was taking place in L1), yet suggest using it in suitable situations such as eliciting language, assessing comprehension, giving instructions, and explaining grammar. It should be noted, however, that it is difficult to decide what excessive use is. Translation, for example, which might differ from CS in the sense that it tends to be intentional and/or preceded by a hint or sign of use (e.g. 'I will translate,'), enables learners to discover vocabulary and style of texts in both the first and the target language (Petrocchi 2006). However, overuse of translation may result in a student avoiding reading, writing and thinking in the target language, and it might be a problem when students do not share the same L1 (Cunningham 2000). Therefore, L1 should never be used as L2 in the classroom, and teachers should help their learners benefit from L1 to facilitate their L2 learning (Pan and Pan 2010).

Palmer (2009) adds that CS is natural among bilinguals, yet students are expected to speak one language where appropriate. Thus, many researchers suggest careful and limited use of the mother tongue (Yao 2011). Carless (2008), for instance, suggests teachers should have a balanced and flexible reaction towards students' switch to L1. It can be suggested that despite its advantages, teachers particularly need to control their and their learners' CS, in order to avoid overuse of L1, which may affect the pedagogical aims. Lin (2012:376) concludes that:

- (1) a total reliance on L1-coded mediation may be efficient in activating learners' noticing and prior knowledge, but it reduces L2 exposure in the immersion classroom;
- (2) a complete exclusion of L1-coded mediation maximises learners' exposure to L2, but it may fail to engage learners' noticing and prior knowledge for a successful intake and it may also pose a challenge to the teacher's knowledge of the

target L2.....; (3) a mixture of maximised L2-coded mediation and minimised L1-coded mediation optimises not only learners' exposure to the target L2, but also enables the teacher to capitalise on the effect of comprehensible instruction on activating learners' noticing and prior knowledge for learning.

Lin's conclusion appears to reflect an awareness of the teachers' required balance of L1 use in the classroom, in addition to the awareness of when and how they can use L1.

2.4.2 Studies of attitudes towards CS

This section will review some of the literature on teachers' and learners' attitudes towards CS in the classroom, whether they support it or not, and what factors or motivations might be associated with their attitudes. The attitudes of teachers and learners are important, as two essential and valuable elements in the learning process. Until recently, the literature seemed to contain limited studies that discussed the attitudes of teachers and learners. Hall and Cook (2012), for example, report one problem was teachers' feeling of guilt when using learners' L1 (e.g. Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain 2009; Littlewood and Yu 2011). Macaro (2005:69) remarks that such feelings are "not a healthy outcome of a pedagogical debate." Chowdhury (2013) also reports that many teachers considered they should not have switched codes in the classroom. Simon (2001), however, reports that an analysis of classroom practice shows signs of CS without feelings of guilt from teachers and learners. It seems, therefore, that there are differences in teachers' attitudes; although some might feel guilty about the use of L1, others may not necessarily show signs of guilt. This contradiction of attitudes towards CS seems to be motivated or influenced by what is thought to be the ideal practice of L2 only. Accordingly, teachers, and even policy makers should be updated with recent research findings that show both the advantages and the disadvantages of CS rather than directing teachers to follow the institutional policy of L2 only use, which may lead teachers to either avoid CS unconvinced, or use it with a feeling of guilt. It might also be beneficial to remark that CS does not necessarily mean that teachers' proficiency in L2 is low, although this might sometimes be the case; decision makers should be aware that teachers may switch to learners' mother tongue for variety of linguistic, social and management purposes despite their ability to use L2 in these situations. Therefore, teachers' CS might be a choice that they go for, usually for a positive learning purpose, rather than an indicator of failure or inability to use L2. Teachers also were reported to view CS as helping their students to understand terminology and to give instructions in classroom activities (Then and Ting 2010). This reflects the metalinguistic value of CS, such as teacher's reference to L1 to ask learners فهمت؟

(‘understand?’). Instructors, Rahimi and Eftekhari (2011) adds, stated their belief that using CS with learners of a low level of English is an effective learning strategy, perceiving the usefulness and the functions that it serves in Iranian EFL classrooms. Yao (2011) remarks that teachers and students mostly share similar positive attitudes towards CS in the EFL classroom. Al-Nofaie (2010) reported a positive attitude from teachers and students towards employing Arabic in the classroom for specific reasons and in certain situations in Saudi Arabia. For example, 70% of female students preferred their teachers’ employment of Arabic in the classroom. She also argued that CS is an unavoidable phenomenon, although teachers’ use of Arabic appeared limited probably due to their awareness of the possibility of it hindering language learning. Al-Nofaie’s finding may reflect teachers’ awareness of the importance of Arabic. However, such an attitude does not seem to be reflected in their actual practice, as she mentioned their use of Arabic is limited. This might either indicate that teachers only refer to Arabic when it is needed, or they might sometimes be hesitant to use it even if needed, especially in intermediate school settings where learners are usually beginners and where the need of Arabic can be higher. Gauci and Grima (2012) found that teachers perceive CS as a useful tool with younger and weaker learners, yet they advised caution when used with more advanced learners. Nadeem (2012) reported teachers’ preference of mixing English and Urdu rather than the exclusive use of English in the classroom. It seems that teachers’ attitudes differ; while some reported feeling guilty about their CS, others had positive attitudes towards it. This may reflect a disparity in teacher’ attitudes towards CS, and might possibly be referred to the varied extent awareness of the situations in which CS can be used or avoided. This raises the need for further investigations into the functions of classroom CS and attitudes towards it.

Until recently, studies that discussed learners’ attitudes towards CS in classroom tended to be limited in the literature. Cook (2008) (cited in Hall and Cook 2012) mentions the lack of research that discusses learners’ perceptions of L1 use. However, a few studies have appeared recently, such as Chowdhurey (2013) and Khassawneh (2011) who reports that many low-level Jordanian students generally possess a positive attitude towards using L1. Burden (2001) reports that students and teachers view using L1 as it appears sometimes appropriate. CS also appears to be preferred by students in many learning situations in English language classrooms, in translation for example (e.g. Atkinson 1987), as it might save time; when thoughts are difficult to express in L2 (Kharma and Hajjaj's 1989); when learners need help from peers or teachers (Cameron 2001); and for classroom management and to reduce the

anxiety of learners (Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney 2008). The findings of Macaro and Lee (2012) also suggest that university students in South Korea tend to prefer teachers' instructions in English language classrooms to be given exclusively in English, which might be refer to their greater language learning experience, without excluding a possible reason of their higher proficiency. Students' attitudes towards CS are important as learners are an essential part of the learning process, and the importance of their attitudes is reflected in their being influenced by some factors, on the one hand, yet being influential on the other hand. The study of Bailey (2011) for instance shows that language anxiety might affect learners' attitudes toward CS, clarifying that the more language anxiety students have, the more positive attitude they have towards their teacher's CS. However, Hall and Cook (2012) report that the extent and functions of L1 in the classroom might be affected by learners' attitudes towards CS. Learners' attitudes mentioned above seem to support L1 use, whether for academic purposes (e.g. translation) or what appears to be socialising functions, which, according to learners, may help in reducing anxiety. Due to the limitations of studies in the literature, the attitudes of learners' towards CS in English classroom needs further investigation. Learners should be given the opportunity to express their feelings and talk about their needs in a democratic way to deal with their learning needs, and away from teachers' dominance in the classroom. An awareness of learners' attitudes may help teachers and policymakers decide whether CS should be allowed and in what situations. This may benefit learners, by hearing from them about the situations where they think using Arabic is necessary. This study attempts to do this by including their voice when discussing attitudes towards CS.

2.4.3 Policies about L1 use in EFL classrooms

This section will review studies concerning policies of L1 use in the classroom and suggest an optimal amount of time for CS. In the field of language teaching, there seems to be uncertainty whether L1 should be allowed or not. Hall and Cook (2012) report that some researchers (Turnbull and Arnett 2002; Stern 1992; Meiring and Norman 2002; Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain 2009) seem to look for a balanced use of the mother tongue, and when and why learners own language might be used, (a use that is called "appropriate" in Stern (1992), "purposeful" in Edstrom (2006), or "judicious" and "optimal" in Hall and Cook (2012)). However, it is difficult to define what is meant by 'balanced' use; is it a specific percentage for instance? What seems to be meant by balanced use could probably include: the switch to

L1 when it appears necessary; when the message cannot be understood in L2; or in situations where CS is socially or culturally motivated, such as greetings, yet exclude other situations where L2 can be understood. Moreover, what might concern researchers, Turnbull and Dailey-O’Cain (2009) argue, is that due to a lack of research findings, teachers might consequently adopt their own rules with regard to CS. In contrast, McMillan and Rivers (2011) argue that the suitable use of the mother tongue tends to be typically decided by teachers and learners in their classroom. Thus, Hall and Cook (2012:294) state:

The extent to which own-language use occurs in a language classroom will in many ways depend on the teachers’ and learners’ perceptions of its legitimacy, value and appropriate classroom functions. It is to these attitudes and beliefs that we now turn.

Hence, the importance of studying teachers’ and learners’ attitudes appears necessary to legitimise the use of L1 according to what teachers and learners consider appropriate. If teachers and learners, for example, consider the use of L1 helpful for clarification or explaining English grammar rules to beginners, then these attitudes should be considered when making policies of L1 use in the classroom, as both teachers and learners, as main elements in the learning process, might be the best to judge the value of such references. To help teachers make a decision of whether L1 should be used or not, Lee (2012) suggested four factors (which she called a model), the consideration of which might judge the effectiveness of teachers’ CS: (1) Learners’ ages and proficiency level; (2) Learners’ attitudes towards CS and TL-only instruction; (3) Target language areas and required information categories; and (4) Practical considerations (e.g. class size). This model appears feasible and balanced, in the sense that it takes more than one aspect into consideration (students’ need and level, target language requirements and contextual aspects) when judging the effectiveness of CS. However, it might not be easy to take all these factors into consideration as this might require teachers’ awareness of all the contextual and educational means. Willans (2011:23) states that “since code-switching conflicts with school language policy” (except in France for instance where CS is allowed), “such useful practices are often carried out covertly, and learning may actually thus be hindered by the language policy.” It seems however, that CS policies in the classroom are not changing, although many scholars ask for a re-examination of the role of L1 in the L2 classroom (e.g. Cook 2001; Macaro 2005; Cummins 2009; Ferguson 2009). Recently, and in an Arabic context, Jenkins (2010) mentioned the restriction of classroom L1 use in Saudi Arabia, asking for a re-examination of the policy. Despite these suggestions to re-examine the role of L1 in the classroom, policies

are not changing and, as far as I know, only France has legalised bilingual education. This may reflect a gap between the findings of some recent research, on the one hand, and actual policies on the other hand. Policies of L2 use in language learning institutions do not appear updated, and the need for updating these policies emerge as a result of two factors. The first, is the findings of many recent research which found many advantages for CS in some settings. Second, the L2-only policy seems to be unrealistic and not feasible, especially with beginners and in contexts where teachers and learners share the same L1. Hence, it is important for these policies to be updated according to both, the findings of recent studies and the views and attitudes of teachers. Considering these two factors when re-examining policies of L1 use may help identifying what Hall and Cook (2012) describe as an “optimal” use of L1. This study will discuss, along with functions of CS, teachers’ attitudes regarding the policy of using L1, the extent to which they are familiar with the policies, and their attitudes towards the issues mentioned in other interview questions (see appendix 6).

2.5 Summary

This chapter reviewed the history and development of CS, its definitions, types, approaches to its analysis, its relation to sociolinguistics and its characteristics in the EFL classroom. Functional CS studies were also reviewed, including teachers’ and students’ use of CS, and an assessment of the frameworks used to study functional CS. Studies that discussed the use of L1 as a potential learning tool were then examined, followed by a review of studies of teachers’ and learners’ attitudes towards CS, and policies of L1 use in the classroom. However, questions are still asked about CS in the classroom, with on-going questions about the functions of CS and whether switching could be harmful or not, and consequently a debate on whether L1 should be allowed or not. Finally, a tendency for the literature seems to change, with the views of some researchers who are ‘against’ CS from generally older studies, while the views of more recent studies are ‘with’ CS. This raises questions about teachers’ and learners’ attitudes towards CS in the English language classroom as two important and essential elements in the learning process. As far as I know, none of the studies in the Arabic context have qualitatively discussed the functions of CS by teachers and learners using video recording in the classroom and investigated the attitudes of teachers and learners towards it. Hence, this study, using a thematic approach (see 3.5.5), and from a sociolinguistic perspective (see 2.2.4), will study the functions of CS used by teachers and learners in the classroom and their attitudes towards it. Video recording through a non-

participant observer will be used; teachers and learners will be video recorded conducting a provided speaking task. From the recordings, selected extracts that contain teachers' and students' CS will be transcribed, thematically classified, analysed and discussed under the function they belong, by adopting the taxonomy of Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) and Eldridge (1996). Students and teachers who switch codes will be interviewed and asked about the function of their CS in each individual case. A video recording of these moments will be shown to answer the first and the second research questions: what functions does the CS of teachers and students serve in the classroom? The study also aims to investigate teachers' and students' attitudes toward CS in the classroom. After the first interview question about their CS, participants will be asked additional questions: four questions for learners (see appendix 5) and ten for teachers (see appendix 6). The answers will be translated, and selected relevant thoughts and ideas will be paraphrased for analysis, along with selected quotes from the participants' responses. Quotes from participants, whether in Arabic or in English, will be written as follows: 'مثال' or 'example', whereas the translation of the quotes will be written as follows ('example'). The paraphrased answers and quotes will be thematically analysed and discussed (see 3.5.5). Finally, implications that emerge from the data will be presented and discussed.

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1 Overview of the chapter

The aim of this chapter is to explicate the methodological framework of the present study based on a combination of a sociolinguistic and a thematic approach (see 2.2.4 and 3.5.5). First, the chapter will present the methodological framework of the study, followed by stating the research questions and reasons for choosing them. Then, the methods used in collecting data, whether classroom recording or interview, will be clarified. This will be followed by a clarification of issues surrounding validity, reliability and ethics. Finally, the procedure of data collection and analysis will be described, including context, population, the task, classroom recording, interviewing and analysis of the data.

3.2 Ontology, Epistemology and research methodology

According to Silva and Leki (2004:7), there are three components for the research design in the applied linguistic field. These components are (1) ontology, what we believe to be constituting social reality, (2) epistemology, the structure of knowledge and (3) methodology, the way(s) in which we acquire knowledge. Ontology according to Blaikie (2007:3) refers to “the claims or assumptions that a particular approach to social enquiry makes about the nature of social reality - claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other.” It is, in this research the assumptions of the researcher about the context and the components of the research (participants, society) and elements that may condition the issue being investigated (CS). Epistemology on the other hand is the researcher’s perception of how knowledge is understood and acquired as well as the way it is produced and communicated (Cohen et al., 2011). It is in this study, the way in which CS is being understood when uttered by speakers, along with understanding how it is produced and practised. The methodological framework used for studying CS in this study is explanatory, where the nature of CS cases is analysed functionally to answer the question of why CS occurs. Hence, as a result of absence of sufficient research, the study aims to explore the functions of CS. For investigating attitudes towards CS, an interpretive method is used. ‘interpretivism’ attempts to account for the immense complexity of the phenomena in the social sciences, and that its established research conventions and emphasis on the rigour of inquiry have an important bearing on educational research methodology (e.g. Dörnyei 2007).

Participants' CS and attitudes are being functionally explained taking contextual characteristics of participants and setting into consideration.

3.3 Research questions

The present study aims to address four research questions:

Q1- Does CS occur, to what extent, and what functions do teachers' CS have in the university English language classroom?

Q2- Does CS occur, to what extent, and what functions do students' CS have in the university English language classroom?

Q3-What are the attitudes of teachers in this study towards CS in the English university classroom?

Q4-What are the attitudes of students in this study towards CS in the English university classroom?

The first and second questions deal with the functions of CS in the classroom. They try to answer what makes students and teachers switch codes, whether these switches appear as a terminological switching, or does switching appear as whole sentences or phrases (see 2.2.5.2). It aims to see what types of functions they rely upon using a thematic approach. To classify the functions of the participants' CS, the study will adopt a functional thematic classification (see 3.5.5), adopting the taxonomy of Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) and Eldridge (1996) (see 2.3.2). A social approach where social factors are linked to the observed aspects of CS will also be used (see 2.2.4), as the classroom is a social context where CS might be affected by the social norms and rules in the context of the study. The researcher also shares the same context as the participants. This may help to understand society and culture, and its possible influence on participant behaviour, as some participants (non-Saudi teachers) may tend not to oppose institutional policy due to issues of power (see 3.5.1). The third and fourth research questions concern teachers' and learners' attitudes towards CS. Some teachers and students will be interviewed and asked about their attitudes towards CS (see appendix 5 and 6). Their responses and thoughts about it, along with their attitudes towards it, will be thematically classified, analysed and discussed.

3.4 Methods

This section will introduce the methods used to collect data (non-participant observation and interview). The advantages and the strengths of these methods in answering the research questions will also be discussed.

3.4.1 Observation and recording

Observation (non-participant) is the first method used in this study. Participant observations, as well as interview, are the most prominent methods of data collection for qualitative research (Bryman 2008). They can provide the researcher with rich data and are usable and efficient to collect data in the social sciences. Video recording allows the researcher to clearly see participants' behaviour (participants' interaction and their CS), with the ability to watch it more than once, which strengthens the validity of the data. According to Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2007), language behaviour, where the content of speech or the structural characteristics of talking is looked at, is one of the behaviours usually investigated via observation in the social sciences. In observation, the researcher might be a participating observer, where the researcher is setting and observing in the context, or a non-participant, where other tools such as video recording are used. The aim of using observation in this study is to observe the performance of teachers and students in the classroom, particularly participants' CS, as it allows us to see naturally observed phenomenon and the setting where CS is used, which might be relevant to its functions. Also, observation provides us with an opportunity to see what happens during, before and after participants' CS, which might also be relevant to the functional explanation of CS. Video recording, which represents non-participant observation, would help to detect most actions in the classroom where CS takes place.

Also, as the researcher shares the same L1 as the teaching staff, video recording was chosen to observe CS as it occurs naturally, and may help to prevent the observer's role of power. Therefore, to not to affect the behaviour of teachers and students, I decided not to remain in the classroom while recording. "Audiovisual recording provide unique access to the details of social action", and one type of recording is the interaction between teachers and students in the classroom (Heath et al. 2010:1). This might be relevant to the study of functional CS. Recording also provides the researcher with the sequence of the behaviour being studied, although analysis might be difficult when events occur rapidly and frequently (Foster 1996). Video recording gives a unique advantage in catching many of the actions in comparison to

the ordinary data (Bottorff 1994; Foster 1996). As well as a very rich source of data (Bottorff 1994), video recording provides the researcher with many other advantages. Audio-visual recording is increasingly used in research to examine interactional organizations where skills and knowledge are discussed (Heath et al. 2010). In addition, video helps to reveal how critical it is to understand visible conduct of the social environment within formal educational environments (Heath et al. 2010:8). Technologies such as video recording are used as a solution to not obstruct participants, and prevent stressful situations as a result of observer attendance (Foster 1996).

Heath et al. (2010) mention that video recording captures the event as it happens by providing opportunities to record aspects of social life in real time, as well as the visible tools and technologies. It allows the researcher to re-check the data (see also Foster 1996) unlike other types of data. The researcher can replay the recordings whenever needed, to refocus or re-evaluate, and this forms a strong tool in the analysis of different issues on different occasions. Repetition also allows the researcher to unpack details that may not appear at the beginning. It allows the researcher and the analyst to replay recordings and makes the researcher more analytical (Gillham 2000). In addition, the researcher can discover how participants perform social actions including gestures and emotion. Moreover, it enables the researcher to recognise how the tools and technologies used may (or may not) affect participants' performance. The technology also has the advantage to zoom-in, allowing the researcher to analyse unseen events (Heath et al. 2010). Finally, as sections of the recordings need to be put in writing, video recording is easier to transcribe (Gillham 2000).

3.4.2 Interviews

The second method used to collect data is the interview. According to Weiss (1994:1), the interview provides an opportunity to understand “the nature of social life.” This might be reflected in the nature of the interview as a social interactional setting where interviewees are expected to talk about their beliefs in their own words. This might indicate or reflect their own thoughts or emotions about the discussed idea. Interviewing, where views may clash, seduce and enchant, is not a simple tool, as it is an inter-view where opinions, arguments, accounts and declarations can be heard (Schostak 2006). However, as some teachers are non-Saudi temporary workers, there could be a possibility of carefulness on their part. This may lead them to avoid opposing the policy of the department, if such a policy exists. Rubin and

Rubin (2005) described the interview as a conversation between partners that may be extended, in order to seek in-depth information about a certain topic or subject. The purpose of an interview is not only to gather data, but also to assess a person, to test hypotheses, and sample respondents' opinions around a topic (Cohen et al. 2007). Therefore, the primary method used in the study is the interview. As it is the most used method in qualitative research, and the most prominent (Bryman 2008), it might be the best way to discover participants' attitudes towards CS. An interview could also help to answer the question of why participants use CS in the classroom by showing selected videos of CS behaviour and asking about the functions of CS, if participants are not intimidated by the researcher to adopt specific policy. The interview can provide us with an opportunity to listen to participants' attitudes and the possibility, in a semi-structured interview, of rephrasing questions to ensure the interviewees understand the questions. Interviews also may help to obtain richer materials as participants may find it easier to talk rather than respond in writing on a questionnaire. Gillham (2000) states an interview helps in getting rich and vivid materials, if semi- or unstructured, as well as being more interesting. Interviews help the researcher understand what is reflected in the data (Gillham 2000).

Interviews in this study will be video recorded. Video, when compared with an audio recording, has many advantages, such as the ease of recognising the participant whose behaviour is being analysed, which reduces any difficulty in identifying the participant. It also allows the researcher to see how motivated/unmotivated participants might be, and other interactional details that may carry some indications as contributions are analysed. Wilson (1996) remarks that a face-to-face interview in a free format is usually recorded for later analysis. Interviews that are video or audio-recorded offers researchers the opportunity to listen to the "raw data" many times (Berg 2007). A review of the data in this way may help researchers to produce a more accurate analysis. Silverman (2006) lists four main types of interview: (1) structured interview, (2) semi-structured interview, (3) open-ended interview, and (4) focus group. A semi-structured interview will be used in this study. In the semi-structured interview, the researcher plans to ask series of questions on a specific topic, which often appear as a regular interview, yet the researcher or interviewer has the ability to change the sequence of questions (Bryman 2008), or adapt to the respondents' answers. In addition to a semi-structured having more general questions than a structured interview, the interviewer has a flexibility of removing or adding questions when significant replies appear (Bryman 2008). According to Berg (2007), semi-structured interviews have many advantages such as:

- 1- Wording of questions is flexible. This made it easier for me as an interviewer to repeat and rephrase questions if the interviewee did not understand a question.
- 2- The level of language can be adjusted. This advantage made it easier for me to adjust the level of language used with teachers and students, although all of these interviews were in Arabic.
- 3- An interviewer may answer questions and make clarifications. As interviewees might ask questions to check their understanding, the semi structured interview gave me the opportunity to clarify questions, and reply to questions and comments; i.e. question 6 in appendix 5 where clarifications and examples were needed for some participants.
- 4- An interviewer may add or remove questions during the interview. As many of interviewees' answers were included in their responses to other questions, this helped to omit previously answered questions. Interesting ideas or comments from the interviewees also encouraged me to add sub-questions for deeper analyses, asking for examples or clarifications.

The semi-structured interview allowed me to repeat or rephrase questions to check interviewees' answers and ensure they meant what they said. The interview was conducted in the learners' and teachers' mother tongue (Arabic), as it appears to be more convenient, especially for learners, and gave them a better opportunity to speak fluently without facing possible linguistic problems. Due to their language competence, interviews in English might lead beginners to misunderstand questions, lead to wrong, incomplete or insufficient answers, or possibly avoid answering if interviewees, especially students, feel shy or wary of committing mistakes. However, interviewees were not consulted regarding the choice of Arabic, which despite its advantages mentioned above may not necessarily be the preference of some participants who may prefer English.

3.5 Validity, reliability and ethics

It is essential for the interviewer to ensure the validity of the interview and observation by considering a number of factors. Validity, according to Bryman (2001), can be classified into internal and external validity. Internal validity is described as including the integrity, soundness, as well as the credibility of the researcher's findings. External validity, Bryman (2001:30) explains, is concerned with "the extent to which the findings can be generalized

beyond the specific research contexts.” For classroom observation, validity refers to the extent to which observation accurately records the behaviour in which the researcher is interested (Foster 1996); whether video recording catches the moments when CS occurs. Therefore, two video cameras were used to ensure the speech and CS of both teachers and students were captured. Instances of CS were then discussed under the different themes by asking participants about the reason for their CS, together with researcher analysis and some links to studies in the literature. For participants’ attitudes towards CS, interviews were also video recorded to ensure that most participants’ contributions would be captured.

Issues over the reliability of the interview itself, as well as the transcription and analysis of data, have been discussed in studies such as Kvale and Brinkmann (2009). Reliability refers to the consistency of observations, whether the same observer on separate colocations, or other observers studying the same behaviour would obtain the same data (Foster 1996). In order for reliability in the research process to be controlled, interviewers should structure interview questions carefully (Silverman 2006). Peräkylä (2004) identifies the key factors in relation to reliability as: (1) the selection of what to record; (2) the technical quality of recordings; as well as (3) the adequacy of transcripts. Another aspect of reliability, Bryman (2001:29) adds, is whether the results of a study are repeatable or replicable. This means that other researchers will reach the same conclusions if they collect the same data. Reliability might also be met through multi observations and multi samples, which is reflected in this study via observing more than 12 different classrooms.

One issue that could be raised, due to reflexivity within a researcher’s practice as an interviewer, is whether participants were cautious, or chose to agree or disagree on the issues under investigation depending on the policy they expect the researcher or institution to adopt. This, however, does not appear to be the case. Both teachers’ and learners’ attitudes were varied and did not necessarily reflect the policy of the institution (if such a policy exists). For example, teacher 13-I argued that for English department learners, an English-only atmosphere is suggested, but sometimes we (the teachers) need to refer to Arabic, according to the level of students, so the situation does not become a one-sided talk. ‘Don’t keep the rules, but don’t kill the spirits’ the teacher states, adding that in other departments, Arabic might be used. This example, and others that will be discussed in 4.3.2, show how teachers’ attitudes do not necessarily reflect the policy of the institution. Rather, it can indicate that teachers may switch codes even if an English-only policy is suggested, as in the example

above, and this may, to some extent, indicate a reduction of the likeliness of the researcher's or interviewer's occurrence of power over the participants.

Ethically, a university setting seems to be closed setting. Bryman (2008) describes a closed setting as an organisation, such as a school or a company, while a public setting refers to any other public setting. Gaining access to such settings is a difficult issue that requires planning, hard work and some luck (Van Maanen and Kolb 1985). Therefore, a formal acceptance was obtained from the college administration as well as the school (see appendix 15). Participants in the research field, Heath et al. (2010) remark, should not be pressured to participate. In this study, all the participants were adults who agreed to participate in the video recording. They were all advised of their right not to participate and this would not affect them. Therefore, one or two students, who participated in the classroom video recording, preferred not to be interviewed later on and their refusal was respected. Also, to ensure the process of video recording was ethically checked, some issues suggested by Heath et al. (2010) were discussed with the participants before beginning:

- 1- The fact that the data will only be used for research.
- 2- That fact that nothing will be publically broadcast.
- 3- The data is exclusively for the research team.
- 4- The data will only be used for research and teaching.

The participants were told that recordings would only be available to the researcher, his supervisors and the person who checked translation from Arabic to English, and would never be broadcast to the public. With regard to video recording, all of the points mentioned above by Heath et al. (2010) were discussed with the participants. Regarding the teachers and their desire to take part, all of the invited teachers agreed to be observed and/or interviewed except for one. This teacher did not clearly refuse to participate, but also did not show an interest to do so; therefore, he was not interviewed. The others, however, agreed to participate. Many of the teachers were, to a large extent, enthusiastic and interested, especially in the interviews, where many of their detailed and explanatory answers may reflect their interest in the subject of CS. This might also be referred to their awareness of the researcher's need for his colleagues help for data collection, a situation that might have happened to many of them during their post-graduate studies as university teachers.

3.6 Procedure

In this section, the setting of the study will be introduced, followed by a discussion of the speaking tasks used by teachers in the classroom. Then, detailed procedures that explain how the data was collected, organised and then analysed will be clarified.

3.6.1 Setting and population of the study

Data collection started in September 2011 for three months, and lasted until mid-December 2011. During this period, both interviews and recordings in the classroom took place. Data was obtained at the College of Sharia and Islamic Studies at Imam Muhammad bin Saud University in Alahsa, in the eastern region of Saudi Arabia. This college was chosen because it was the institute where the researcher originally worked. This made it easier for the researcher to access the college, its staff and administration for data collection, although some may argue this may increase the possibility of bias. The college previously contained few departments. The Islamic studies department is one of the major departments, and the college is a branch of the main University in Riyadh and has recently increased the number of departments, e.g. the Law department. Participants in this study were students from non-English departments. They studied English as a requirement or optional course. The aim is to obtain greater opportunities for the occurrence of CS when compared, for example, to English department students, as low-level learners are more likely to switch codes, together with their teachers. Therefore, English department students were excluded.

Approximately 200 students were video recorded, and about 141 students from 12 classrooms participated in the tasks and interaction within the classroom; five teachers were video recorded. All of the students were studying EFL and were from different departments such as geography and computer sciences. Most classes contained learners, who can be generally described as beginners, and a few other classes included both beginners and intermediate learners (see table 3.1 below). All of the students are Saudis, though only three of the five teachers are Saudis (see appendix 12), while five of the 16 interviewed teachers are Saudis. The rest, however, are from other Arab countries such as Jordan, Egypt, Syria and Sudan (see appendix 14). As some of the expatriate non-Saudi teachers are under contract, issues of power will be considered in the analysis. All participants (teachers and learners) in the classroom recordings and interviews share the same first language (Arabic), but not necessarily the same variety.

Classroom	Classrooms and Majors	No of students	Which teacher?	Duration (mins)	Ave Level
1	Computer sciences L1	12	1	36:49	Beginners-Intermediate
2	Geography L5	16	2	35:38	Beginners
3	Geography L7	11	2	34:31	Beginners
4	Management L1	12	3	28:50	Beginners
5	Management L3	10	3	26	Beginners
6	Management L4	12	3	29:53	Beginners
7	Management L6	12	3	27:24	Beginners
8	Foundation A	15	3	56	Beginners-Intermediate
9	Foundation B	12	4	44:51	Beginners-Intermediate
10	Foundation C	12	4	44:25	Beginners-Intermediate
11	Islamic studies 5	9	5	30:21	Beginners
12	Islamic studies 6	8	5	27:36	Beginners
Total	12	141	5	420(mins)	

(Table 3.1) List of recorded classrooms

3.6.2 The task

The task, (adopted from www.eslgold.com - full details of the tasks are in appendices 1, 2, 3 and 4), was provided by the researcher for the teachers to practise in the classroom. It was a speaking task in which each group of students are asked to choose two out of four subjects; in each task the teacher starts to ask and interact with students regarding the subject. The researcher chose a speaking task, as its aim was to increase interaction, and consequently a greater likelihood of CS in comparison to grammar tasks, as these might be teacher-fronted where interaction and CS is less likely to occur. The researcher chose to provide teachers with the task to save time, as speaking tasks are not common in a context where the focus is on grammar, especially for learners from the geography, administration and Islamic studies departments. The students were given the opportunity to talk about four varied and popular

subjects: Food, Transportation, Sports and Hobbies (see appendices 1, 2, 3 and 4). The duration of each class was originally 45 minutes; however, students and teachers sometimes arrived late, therefore, the average period of each class was around 35 minutes. Some other classes lasted for more than 45 minutes due to two lectures following back-to-back (90 minutes). When possible, the recording started just after the teacher's arrival and before practising the task.

3.6.3 Classroom video recording

The data analysed are video recordings of classroom activities and interviews (see appendices 7 and 8 for transcribed extracts of most teachers' and learners' use of CS, and appendices 9 and 10 for transcripts of a full translated interview of one teacher and one learner). The video recording aims to monitor CS during the task, and interaction between teacher and students in the classroom. To achieve a natural classroom session, neither teachers nor students were told about the aim of the study, or the subject under discussion, until the end of both the recordings and the interviews. Participants were told that the camera was to record the classroom and study a specific issue in the classroom. The researcher tried to set the two cameras before the beginning of the class to save time. The first camera recorded teachers' behaviour (see picture 3.1), while the second recorded students' behaviour (see picture 3.2). The sound and video quality of both cameras were tested, especially the sound quality, as difficulties could be expected in detecting students' speech if many students spoke at the same time. An external microphone was used instead of the built-in microphone in students' camera to obtain good sound quality, and to capture participants' whispers or voices if they were not close to the camera. The picture quality was set to HQ to easily recognise students' faces in the lowly lit classrooms, as the faces of some students had to be identified for interviews at a later time. No serious difficulties were found, except a very few occasions when students were whispering while interacting in the classroom. The researcher was not in the classroom during the recording to reduce the possibility of the teachers' anxiety due to peer observation.



Pic 3.1 (Camera 1 recording the teacher's behaviour during the task in an English class for geography department students, L7)



Pic 3.2 (Camera 2 recording students' behaviour during the task in an English class for foundation year students)

3.6.4 Interviewing

Following the recordings in the classroom, the researcher played the videos to find occasions when CS occurred. The majority of these recordings that contained examples of CS, except those that took place before the class or video recording began, were transcribed by the researcher. All teachers, and most students, who switched codes were interviewed, except for

two or three who either refused to be interviewed or disappeared after the classroom recording. Thirty-seven students were individually interviewed, as most had already switched codes and were questioned about their functions of CS (see appendix 13). Eleven further English teachers were interviewed, not just the five teachers who participated in the original recordings, and this may possibly help increase the validity of the data by interviewing greater number of participants. Sixteen teachers were interviewed in total (see appendix 14). The question we aim to answer is what function does CS serve? Therefore, this was the first question that interviewed students and teachers who switched codes were asked. The interviewer played specific sections of the videos, showing moments when participants switched codes, and interviewees were asked if they noticed anything in the clip. Then, participants were asked, “why did you switch codes in this case?” Video records are authentic, as recordings show what really happened, whether for the interviewee during the interview, or for the researcher who will analyse participant behaviour. Using photographs, Harper (2002) argues, may help interviewees engage in the situation and remember events. As a consequence, playing back video recordings should be more interesting and memorable. Such a procedure might make it easier for the interviewee to remember and answer the question of why he switched codes in the classroom.

During the interview, participants were asked about the function or reason(s) behind their CS in each case, and were given the opportunity to comment upon it. The rest of the questions in the semi-structured interview were open-ended questions. These aim to investigate and study the attitudes of teachers and students towards CS from more than one dimension. However, the teachers were asked different questions (see appendix 6) to the students (see appendix 5). These questions were developed by the researcher and were varied aiming to obtain considerable amount of information from participants regarding their practice of CS, as well as their attitudes towards it. Participants were generally given enough time to answer the questions without interfering. All interviews were video recorded, which gave the researcher a richer material for more in-depth analysis, and greatly helped in returning to the data whenever needed. Selected participants’ responses, represented on the basis of ideas that recur throughout the categories in the recorded interviews were then translated from Arabic. The transcripts of these records include quotations, paraphrased ideas or the shortened thoughts of interviewees that appear relevant to the study and the research questions. Despite being a time consuming process, Barnes (2008) comments on her experience, “It keeps me close to the data and encourages me to identify themes and access differences and similarities

between participants” (cited in Bryman 2008:218). Heritage (1984) also suggests transcribing interviews has many advantages. First, it helps to correct the limitations of our memories that might add to what participants say and also allows a more in-depth examination of a participant’s speech. In addition, participants’ speech can be repeatedly examined. Moreover, it allows other researchers and the public to see the transcript and analyse it. Consequently, the accusation that the analyst might be influenced can be countered. Finally, it allows the researcher to use the data for different strategies of analysis. Bryman (2008) also remarks that as digital audio recording is of superior quality today, transcription would become easier.

3.6.5 Analysis of the data

The data were analysed using a thematic approach that involves adopting a framework. A thematic analysis is one of the most common approaches to qualitative data. This can be discerned in most approaches to qualitative data, such as discourse analysis, grounded theory, qualitative content or narrative analysis (Bryman 2008). Thematic analysis, according to Joffe and Yardley (2003), pays greater attention to the qualitative aspects of the analysed data. Themes are defined as “bringing together components or fragments of ideas or experiences, which often are meaningless when viewed alone” (Leininger 1985:60), or “a specific pattern found in the data in which one is interested” (Joffe and Yardley 2003:57). Generally, Bryman (2008) adds, thematic analysis in qualitative research is conducted via the strategy of adopting a framework. A framework is described as “a matrix based method for ordering and synthesising data” (Ritchie et al. 2003:219). The strategy begins with constructing themes and subthemes; these will be clarified below. These themes come from the transcripts of the data, and then the framework can be applied to the data. However, it should also be mentioned that more than one framework or thematic classification could be applied. Ryan and Bernard (2003) remark that theme identification does not only return one acceptable solution. Dey (1993:110-111) clarifies that “there is no single set of categories (themes) waiting to be discovered. There are as many ways of ‘seeing’ the data as one can invent.” Some researchers, Ryan and Bernard (2003) comment, have used more than one technique to set themes for the same data and all of them have had useful results. In the process of identifying data as themes, Bryman (2008) suggests mentioning where the data comes from, i.e. the line number, question number or time. It has also been suggested that participant’s language should be kept as far as possible. Quoted materials, Bryman (2008) adds, should not be too much, and abbreviations should be used in tables to avoid full cells.

A framework from Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) and additional categories from Eldridge (1996), where CS is classified under seven themes, was adopted (see 2.3.2). This was to study and discuss the functions of CS within the category they belong to. Occasions when teachers or students switch codes will be classified under one or more of the themes, then analysed and discussed. This classification will be based on the response of the interviewed participants regarding the functions of their CS (main source), and the researcher's analysis of these moments when CS occurs (secondary source). This will then be related to what has been mentioned in the literature. Functions that do not appear to fall within any of these categories will be given separate themes and analysed separately. The attitudes of participants revealed in the interviews will be qualitatively analysed using a thematic approach. An attitude, according to Ajzen (2005:3), is "a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution or event." Although each interview question was to be given a theme under which participants' answers would be discussed, answers to some questions were either too short to be categorised thematically, or irrelevant. Therefore, themes were reorganised, and are clarified in 4.3.1 for students' attitudes and in 4.3.2 for teachers' attitudes.

3.7 Summary

This chapter introduced the methodological framework of the study followed by the research questions and then, an illustration of observational and interview methods used to collect data. Then, validity, reliability and ethical issues were introduced and discussed. Context, the population of the study, as well as the tasks, were then clarified, followed by an explanation of the procedure through which data were collected and analysed. The next chapter will analyse and discuss the data.

Chapter 4. Data analysis and Discussion

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will introduce the collected data, selected transcripts of the classroom recordings followed by an analysis and discussion of the interviews. Most of the videoed extracts containing the participants' CS were translated and transcribed (see appendices 7 and 8), together with responses in Arabic from the interviews (e.g. appendices 9 and 10). The first part of the chapter introduces and discusses the functions of participants' CS. Selected representative transcripts of the classroom video recording of learners' and teachers' CS will be presented, analysed and discussed under their appropriate themes. The aim is to answer the first and second research questions and discover what functions CS serves. The transcripts were shown to the participants who switched codes (teachers and students), together with video recordings of these occasions, so participants could remember when they switched into Arabic in each individual case. The second part of the chapter will address the third and fourth research questions "What are the teachers' attitudes in this study towards CS in the English university classroom," and "What are the students' attitudes in this study towards CS in the English university classroom?" This will be done by presenting, analysing and discussing the attitudes of teachers and students about CS in the classroom as revealed in the interviews. The students were asked four questions (see appendix 5), whereas the teachers were asked ten questions. This was because concerns regarding policies of using L1 and issues of power might only apply to the teachers (see appendix 6). Selected relevant answers from the interviews were translated, paraphrased or quoted, analysed and discussed.

4.2 Functions of CS

As found in many studies (e.g. Greggio and Gil 2007), the observational data (video recordings) show that both teachers and students use CS, which seems to serve many pedagogical, social and management functions. By adopting the taxonomy of Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999), and other categories from Eldridge (1996) (see 2.3.2), examples of CS by teachers and students will be categorised and analysed. However, any functions that do not appear to fall under these categories will be discussed and analysed separately under new added themes. The analysed extracts are numbered individually; each extract begins with line 1. This numbering aims to simplify tracking line numbers in the

extracts during analysis, and does not mean it is the beginning of the class, unless otherwise stated. Chosen examples are represented on the basis of ideas that recur throughout the categories, and the speakers' utterances in Arabic in the analysed extracts are translated by the researcher and then checked by a PhD student colleague to be as verbatim as possible.

4.2.1 Functions of students' CS

4.2.1.1 Linguistic insecurity

In the data, one of the most noticed functions of CS among students is linguistic insecurity, a tool used to achieve interactional goals and mentioned by several researchers (e.g. Auer 1998; Gumperz 1982; Heller 1988; Li Wei and Milroy 1995; Myers-Scotton 1993b; Shin and Milroy 2000; Sert 2005). Extract 1 and 2 are examples of where CS is used for linguistic insecurity (the data contains many examples where CS is used for the same function). Extract 1 shows how learner 25-CS, a preparation (foundation) year student, attempts to convey his message or idea in English. However, when the teacher asked for further details in line 5, the learner switched to Arabic.

Extract 1

1 Teacher: Which new hobby would you like to learn?

2 Student: I hope learn learn discover.

3 Teacher: Discover?

4 Student: Yes.

5 Teacher: Which discover?

6 Student: هذي ... الصيد .. الإكتشاف هذي ('This . the hunting. The discovery. This').

When asked in the interview about his switch to Arabic in line 6 “why did you switch to Arabic?” participant 25-CS replied that he could not deliver the message or word in English, possibly due to his low level of English. This shows that learners may use L1 as a communicative strategy to deliver their messages. During the conversation between the teacher and learner in extract 1, English was used until the teacher in line 3 asked the learner ‘discover?’ and the learner replied ‘yes’. Then the teacher asked for further details and explanations, but the learner appeared to be linguistically unable to explain in English; thus he switched to Arabic. Therefore, the learner’s switch reflects a linguistic insecurity function; the learner seems unsure about his ability to explain in English and switched to Arabic. This might refer to the learner’s limited proficiency in English. Sert (2005) clarifies that the learner might switch codes when using the target language to explain a specific lexical item if he does not know the word in the TL. This function, Jakobsson and Ryden (2010) comment, might reflect a defensive mechanism from the learner by using L1 lexical items as a

communicative strategy. What might be meant by defensive mechanism is possibly the learner's choice to avoid being silent or utter incorrect answers. Dahl et al. (2010) also mentioned that CS appears when speakers lose L2 words. This example, where the learner utters the full answer in Arabic in line 6, may also reflect an absence of the teacher's power and influence, as the teacher shows no objection towards such a switch. The learner possibly knows that the teacher accepts the use of Arabic, otherwise, he might have tried to avoid such a reference. However, it might also be argued that the learner used Arabic not to lose face or to show his understanding of the question.

In another example, a student also used nonverbal communication strategies (gestures) together with verbal ones when attempting to deliver his message, i.e. in extract 2 where learner 26-CS tries to mention the word kidney. However, due to a lack of vocabulary, which reflects a linguistic insecurity function, he becomes silent for a few moments. The learner then started to gesture and points his fingers to the location of his kidney (see pic 4.1).

Extract 2

- 1 Teacher : Maybe one like 2 litre, but six litre (.....).
- 2 Student (1): In TV Doctor speak Doctor TV speak six litre very good, no six litre maybe..... (Gesturing and
- 3 signalling to his kidney).
- 4 Student (2): كلية ('kidney') or.
- 5 Student (1): كلية كلية ('kidney, kidney').. (Students laughing).



Pic (4.1) Student 26-CS signals to his kidney

While a learner's silence may indicate his attempt to remember the word in line 2 of extract 2, which reflects a linguistic insecurity, signalling, which does not seem to be often used in the data, may either reflect the learner's preference to use this communicative strategy rather than switching to L1, or the teacher's preference to use L2. At this moment another student interrupted saying 'كلية' ('kidney') in line 4. Student 26-CS in line 5 then confirmed the correctness of his colleague's interruption by mentioning the word twice in Arabic. Student 26-CS justified his use of nonverbal strategies as he lacks the vocabulary for the word in English. This seems to reflect the reference to Arabic as a communicative strategy after using a non-verbal strategy. When extracts 1 and 2 are compared, the learner in extract 2 used gestures as a non-verbal strategy that might substitute or complement the language. The learner tried to explain the word using gestures without switching to Arabic, although he lacked the vocabulary word (kidney) as he mentioned above, whereas the learner in extract 1 seems to be unsure about his ability to answer in English and thus he switched to Arabic.

4.2.1.2 Socialising functions

Learners in the classroom also use CS for socialising. An example of this is greetings, which are important, and socially and culturally motivated. In extract 3, one of the learners enters the classroom after finishing the task, and before teacher starts his lesson, and says 'السلام عليكم' ('peace be upon you'). The teacher and other learners reply 'عليكم السلام' ('peace be upon you too'). This example (extract 3), which will be further discussed in 4.2.2.2, shows how learners, as well as teachers, use L1 for socialising.

Extract 3

- 1 Saad : السلام عليكم ('Peace be upon you').
 2 Teacher and Students: عليكم السلام ('Peace be upon you too').

4.2.1.3 Repetitive functions

CS has also been used among learners for the function of confirming understanding via repeating utterances in L1 after an L2 synonym. In extract 4, for instance, the conversation takes place in the target language (English).

Extract 4

- 1 Student : I want always eat eat eat eat.
 2 Teacher : Pasta?
 3 Student : (Shakes his head agreeing).
 4 Teacher : Do you like Pasta?
 5 Student : Sure أكيد ('sure').

However, student 8-CS used the word 'أكيد', which means ('sure') in Arabic. The learner in line 5 repeated the word in Arabic after uttering it in English. When asked about the reason behind his repetition and use of Arabic, student 8-CS replied that he is used to using Arabic; it is society, he adds, which makes him use Arabic. Other students also gave a similar reason in their justifications to switch to Arabic. The learner's answer here seems to carry a kind of guilty feeling about such use, and is reflected by blaming society. It might also reflect the influence of society's power: the influence of society that does not encourage and motivate learners to use L2. What appears here is that the learner's switching in line 5 is simply used as a repetitive function, as it followed the English word 'sure', which might indicate that the learner repeats the word for emphasis or to confirm understanding. This was also found in other examples in the data. This example supports what Uys and Van Dulm (2011) found, that CS might be used as a tool to confirm understanding.

4.2.1.4 Other functions

Apart from those mentioned above, students' CS appears to serve many other functions in the classroom (collaborative functions, asking for confirmation, as fillers or slips of the tongue, and as a result of language transfer). These functions do not seem to come under any of the functions in our adopted taxonomy, and therefore, they will be discussed below separately.

A- Collaborative functions

Together with the occurrence of the communicative competence in teachers-to-learners' talk, this has also been noticed in student-to-student talk, which appears to serve a collaborative function. Extract 5, for instance, shows how learners 28-CS and 29-CS try to help each other through translation. This appears to be a use of L1 for collaborative learning purposes, but not cooperative, as learners help each other in the same task for the same target, but do not carry out tasks individually as in cooperative work. Their collaborative work might also imply the teacher's informal legitimisation of Arabic use, as the teacher shows no objection towards its use or participation in the interactional event. Student 28-CS, from a foundation year class who is possibly a beginner or at an intermediate level, in line 7 seems to seek help from his colleagues saying 'قطار كيف؟' ('train? how?'). When interviewed, the learner referred such request as a lack of vocabulary. Since my teacher would not help me, student 28 adds, we (students) usually look for assistance from our colleagues.

Extract 5

- 1 Teacher : What types of transportation do you use when you are in hurry in a hurry?
- 2 Student (29) : ؟ أترجم ('Can I do the translation?')
- 3 Student (28) : آخر كلمة ('the last word').
- 4 Teacher : Hurry!! (Gesturing).
- 5 Student () : what do you mean hurry?
- 6 Teacher : (.....) I am hurry because (gesture to his watch) (.....).
- 7 Student (28) : yea yea yea yea.. ؟ قطار كيف ('Train? How?')..... by car.
- 8 Teacher : Yes Hashim.
- 9 Student (29) : أو : بمعنى أنه مواصلات العامه في السرعه ؟ أو ('which means public transport in terms of speed, or ?')
- 10 Teacher : Train, Subway, public transportation.
- 11 Student (29) : هذا ('This'), Metro station.

However, it is not clear if looking for colleagues' assistance is common among learners. If it is common, then this is likely to stimulate CS, as learners are likely to switch codes in their interaction when help from their teacher is not available. This example may also indicate that learners switch codes for collaborative purposes, and a learner's claim that his teacher would not help him (in Arabic possibly) may indicate the teacher's exclusive use of L2. Subsequently, although the teacher used gesturing (line 4), learner 28 asked his friend (29), in Arabic 'قطار كيف؟' in line 7, for the English word (train). This might also show how learners could use the first language to possibly avoid a breakdown in communication (e.g. Liebscher and Daily-O'Cain 2005).



(Picture 4.2) Teacher 5-CS repeats the word 'hurry' along with gesturing by moving hands, an understood gesture in both Arabic and English

The teacher's use of gestures (see picture 4.2) with learners in this foundation year class, which includes beginners, may indicate the teacher's attempts to use non-verbal communication, i.e. gestures associated with the word 'hurry'. The teacher's possible aim is

to deliver the message without the need to use Arabic, and this may suggest the teacher does not allow Arabic to be used, at least by himself, and that learners may not necessarily understand the word 'hurry'. This would justify associating the word with a gesture, a strategy that may help learners understand the teacher's words if accompanied with a recognised gesture. The teacher in line 8 then allowed student 29-CS to answer instead of his friend. Learner 29 also switched to Arabic. When asked 'Why did you switch to Arabic?' and say 'بمعنى أنه مواصلات العامه في السرعه؟ أو'، as you appeared to understand teacher's question, the learner clarified 'ايه..كنت أتأكد' ('Yes, I was checking to make sure'), which seems to reflect the learner's switch to Arabic for the sake of asking for confirmation (discussed in 4.2.1.4 –B).

This example may also indicate that the teacher does not allow learners to use Arabic, and might be reflected by the request of student 29 to the teacher in line 2, asking 'أترجم؟' ('Can I do the translation?'). This suggests that learners are possibly prohibited from using Arabic and the learner is asking for the teacher's legitimisation or permission to use Arabic. A request asking permission to translate, rather than switching to Arabic without permission, may reflect the role of the teacher's power in the classroom. Here, teachers might have the power to decide whether L1 can be used or not. However, this might not be the case with all teachers in all classes; it might only concern this particular teacher, who appears to prefer L2 in certain classes (e.g. this foundation class) where students may require English in their future studies. In contrast, learners in the geography department (mostly beginners and would not need English in their future studies) may cue their teachers to use Arabic via asking them in Arabic (as in extracts 33 and 34 in 4.2.2.6-B) and where the teacher appears to respond to their cueing directly. This may indicate that the reaction of teachers may, to some extent, depend on contextual facts (e.g. the learners' level or possibly the aspirations of learners). Also, this example may simply indicate the learner's interest in assisting his colleague or a request for his turn. However, it is not clear if there is a specific turn order, or a queue for learners' and teacher's talk, specified by the teacher in the task. It should also be noted that the translation requested in this example might differ from CS in the sense that it is always intentional; the speaker here asks for permission to switch codes or gives a signal indicating that he intends to switch, instead of switching to L1 directly.

In extract 6 the conversation also takes place in a foundation year class, with learners at a beginner or intermediate level, between the teacher and two students. The teacher shows participants the paper (the students also have a copy) containing pictures of many sports and asks the learner about which sport he wants to try.

Extract 6

- 1 Teacher : Which one do you like to try?
2 Student (1) : وش يقول؟ ('What is he saying?')
3 Student (2) : شفههم ('look at them') (.....).
4 Student (1) : I like football and swimming.
5 Teacher : To try?
6 Student (1) : To try? أسويها يعني؟ ('I practice it you mean?').
7 Student (2) : ايه ('yes').
8 Student : Yes, football and.
9 Teacher : You can't play football ?
10 Student (1): Yes I can.
11 Teacher : I need a new game to try to play.
12 Student (2) : ماجربتھا. ('You didn't try it') (.....).
13 Student (1) : اووه (oh) hockey.

Student 26-CS switches to Arabic in lines 2 and 6, and while he justified his reference to Arabic in line 2 saying: 'والله حنا ماكننا ماخذينها على محمل الجد..مرة .. بصراحة يعني' ('*Wallah* ('I swear to God') we did not take it seriously...that much...honestly'), it seems that the learner was insecure regarding his ability to understand the teacher's speech, which is indicated in his questioning 'وش يقول؟' ('what is he saying?'). Therefore, he tries to seek for help from his friend, which may reflect a collaborative function in learners' CS. In the interview, learner 26-CS also mentioned that he and his friend were whispering, and referred that to the fact they did not want the teacher to hear them speaking in Arabic. This may indicate that learners may use CS as a collaborative strategy, as well as the teacher's potential preference of learners' exclusive use of L2, indicating his power that prohibits learners from switching to Arabic. Lehti-Eklund (2013) describes language learning in the classroom as process in which participation in collaborative work may accomplish a gradual change in language use. Hall and Cook (2012:291) add that, "own-language use by learners is regarded as a cognitive tool for learners through which learning is scaffolded." This can be noticed in the conversation between student 26-CS and his friend in extract 6 (lines 2-7), where learner 26 asks his friend in Arabic about his teacher's question saying 'وش يقول؟' ('What is he saying?'), and his question in line 6 after repeating his teacher's hint ('To try? أسويها يعني؟' ('I practice it you mean?'), and his friend's answer in line 7 'ايه' ('yes'), which resulted in learner 26 answering the question in line 8 saying ('Yes, football and'). These all show how learners seem to be collaboratively using Arabic. Scaffolding, according to Davis and Miyake (2004:266) "implies that given appropriate assistance, a learner can attain a goal or engage in a practice otherwise out of reach." It might also be indicated, that here, the teacher's approach is English-only, and this is reflected in learners' whispering rather than talking loudly. Learners' switching to L1 in their speech with each other and with the teacher, may support what Bergsleithner (2002) found; learners use CS when interacting with teachers and when

negotiating meaning to express themselves better when they do not know how to utter some sentences in English. Storch and Aldossary (2010) also mentioned CS in providing explanations to peers and in private speech. In line 6, however, student 26-CS referred his use of L1 saying ‘أنا عارف بس بتأكد’, (‘I know it, but I wanted to make sure’), which shows his request for confirmation, a function that was also found in other cases in the data and is discussed in the category below.

B- Asking for confirmation

Students also used CS to ask for confirmation. In this case, speakers can switch to L1 for confirmation of L2 utterances. For example, in extract 7 learner 3-CS from the computer science department (where learners are either beginners or intermediate) seems to understand the teacher’s question though appears to be unsure. In interview, learner 3-CS said the teacher did not clearly convey the question, thus he wanted to make sure he understood. This might indicate a learner understands the question. Jakobsson and Ryden (2010) clarify that learners may refer to the L1 to represent misunderstanding of the received information in the target language by repeating it in their mother tongue. This seems to be the case with learner 3 in line 2, who repeated the question in Arabic and then in the interview said that he switched to Arabic because the teacher did not convey the message clearly. It might also imply that the learner may know that the teacher does not mind such use of Arabic.

Extract 7

- 1 Teacher: What kind of food do you like to cook?
- 2 Student: ؟ اللي اطبخهم (‘those which I cook?’)
- 3 Teacher: Yeah.
- 4 Student: كبسة (Kabsah) (Traditional rice dish).

Extract 8

- 1 Teacher: Why do you play football? Why?
- 2 Student: Ah.... متعة... مع مين يعني ؟ (‘enjoyment?... With whom do you mean?’)
- 3 Teacher: لا (‘no’), why?
- 4 Student: ابيه (‘I see’) Happy.

In extract 8 line 2, learner 23-CS from the management department (where learners tend to be beginners) asks the teacher, after thinking for a moment, ‘متعة.. مع مين يعني؟’ (‘Enjoyment?...with whom do you mean?’). The teacher then clarified, mentioning that it is a ‘why’ question after the learner’s question (‘with whom do you mean?’) although the learner provided a fair answer (‘enjoyment’). However, his following question (‘with whom do you mean?’) may indicate his uncertainty in understanding the teacher’s question and thus asked the teacher. In the interview, the learner mentioned that he does not know the word

‘enjoyment’ in English. However, his use of Arabic seems to be a request for assistance (e.g. Greggio and Gil 2007) when communication breakdown occurs, most probably to check his understanding or sometimes due to a lack of understanding. Learner 23-CS asks the teacher in line 2 ‘متعة.. مع مين يعني؟’ (‘Enjoyment?...with whom do you mean?’), in order for teacher possibly to confirm the learner’s understanding or to ask for clarification in case of his misunderstanding. In line 3, the teacher clarified that it was a ‘why’ question; thus, learner 23 in line 4 showed his understanding of the question saying ‘ايه’ (‘I see’ or ‘I just realized’) followed by his answer ‘Happy’. CS in extracts 7 or 8 appears common, as learners are mostly beginners and may not understand some L2 utterances. Learners thus request help or confirmation to understand these utterances and this may reflect learners’ and teachers’ negotiation of meaning.

C- Fillers and slips of the tongue

On many occasions in the classroom, students were noticed to use Arabic spontaneously, as many reported in the interview. These cases are reflected by the use of famous Arabic fillers, “using filling words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think” (Dornyei 1995:58), such as ‘مثلا’ (‘for example’) or ‘طيب’ (‘well’). In extract 9, learner 21-CS from the management department (where most learners are beginners) referred his use of the word ‘مثلا’ (‘for example’) to the fact that English is not used exclusively which led him to use Arabic if English terminology did not come smoothly. This might reflect the fact that the teacher (teacher 4-CS) in this classroom is switching codes, which was found in many cases (e.g. extract 27 in 4.2.2.5), and that is why the learner argues that English is not used exclusively. It appears in such cases, where teachers switch to Arabic or where learners know or feel that teachers allow such reference, that the reference is likely to occur.

Extract 9

- 1 Teacher : Do you know how to cook to make food?
- 2 Student : Yes.
- 3 Teacher : What kind?
- 4 Student : And(.....) مثلا(‘for instance’).....
- 5 Student : Rice.
- 6 Student : Rice.

In other examples (extracts 10 and 11), learner 30-CS, a foundation year student who may either be a beginner or at intermediate level switched to Arabic. The learner said his use of Arabic was unintentional, which possibly indicates that CS is usually, but not necessarily, intentional. I am a beginner, learner 30-CS added, and so it is expected to be confused and refer to Arabic, although I know it in English. This statement shows how the learner’s level

might be related to CS; as the learner is a beginner, this leads to what he called an "expected" reference to L1.

Extract 10

- 1 Teacher: How many of these sports do you know?
- 2 Student: Football,
- 3 Teacher: Football.
- 4 Student: swimming.
- 5 Teacher: swimming.
- 6 Student: this basketball, لا (no), no no no.

Extract 11

- 1 Teacher: Why do you play sport?
- 2 Student : Enjoy يعني ('I mean').

In another example, (see extract 12), learner 24-CS from the management department (where students are mostly beginners) explained his CS in line 5. The learner stated he did not wish to interrupt or slow the flow of his speech as he was hurried, although he was aware of the English word for 'بس' ('just'). This may indicate, in the learner's opinion, that flow of speech has priority over the medium (i.e. being in English).

Extract 12

- 1 Student : Which one?
- 2 Teacher: Playing football.
- 3 Student : Uh...yea.
- 4 Teacher : Do you think you are good at?
- 5 Student : No no no no,not good بس ('just') I have fun.
- 6 Teacher: Uh, fun.

In their discussion of slips of the tongue, Poulesse and Bongaerts (1994:17) described slips of the tongue as "characterized as incidental language switches" or "accidental speech errors". They mentioned Giesbers' (1989) study, which considered these types of switching as unintended, describing them as "performance switches" and argued they were not produced as a result of linguistic or contextual factors, but tend to occur as a result of language interference. What may support this argument is that these slips of the tongue include words like 'لا' ('no') as in extract 10, or 'بس' ('just') as in extract 12. These tend to be simple words, most probably well-known to the students, which consequently reduces the possibility of these slips being referred to weaknesses in the learners' language. The examples discussed above (9, 10, 11 and 12) show that learners may use Arabic fillers spontaneously as pauses, and these words or prepositions usually come in the form of fillers or coordinating conjunctions. These fillers tend to take place either at the beginning of speakers' turns, or between two ideas, which probably suggest they are used by speakers to avoid

communication breakdown and as a time-filling technique before continuing their speech. According to Nakatani (2005), this is a time-gaining strategy, used frequently when the interlocutor is having difficulties in conveying the message and needs more time to organise a way of expressing his/her idea while still keeping the communication process open; this might be the case in the learner's switch in extract 12. Sometimes this might be true, but in many cases, speakers use these fillers or spontaneous production of words, without facing these difficulties, especially in cases such as extract 10 where the English equivalent of the Arabic word 'لا' ('no') is easy; the learner is most probably aware of it. Therefore, specifying the functions of these uses, such as differentiating fillers from slips of the tongue, can sometimes be difficult.

D- Language transfer

It is widely known among linguists that language transfer is a noticed phenomenon among language learners or bilinguals. In language transfer, learners use the grammatical or syntactic rules from one language in their utterance in the second language/languages. Faerch and Kasper (1983) distinguished between production data such as slips, which are considered interference behaviour, and transfer, in which learners make errors and use their L1 linguistic knowledge to solve problems in L2 communication. The data shows that learners may switch to Arabic, probably as a result of the language transfer of grammatical rules (e.g. the grammatical rules of coordinating conjunctions in Arabic into their English utterances), structures, or even use Arabic words thought to be English. In extract 13, student 9-CS from the geography department (where most learners are beginners) justified his use of the Arabic coordinating conjunction 'و' ('and') by stating that due to insufficient exposure to English, he unintentionally used it, and that was why he followed it by the English one. However, producing connectors in L1 might be a transfer or interference strategy, which may have a positive role in language learning (Liao, 2006).

Extract 13

1 Teacher: What is your favorite sport to watch?

2 Student : Football و ('and') and basketball.

In addition, in extract 14, learner 16-CS mentions fruit in English and uses the Arabic conjunction 'و' ('and') between each variety. He also used the Arabic article 'ال' ('the'), with the word 'apple'. When interviewed, and asked about his use of the Arabic word, learner 16 from the geography department (where learners are often beginners) said it was spontaneous. However, the learner seems to transfer syntactic Arabic rules into English. He seems to

transfer two rules; the use of the coordinating conjunction between words, which is acceptable in Arabic but not in English, and the article ‘ال’ (‘the’), which should be used when counting the fruits in Arabic, but not in English. This use seems to be an attempt to solve L2 communication problems (Faerch and Kasper 1983).

Extract 14

1 Teacher: What kind of food do you eat every day?

2 Student : Orange و (‘and’) banana, والأبل (welapel) (‘and the apple’).

Extract 15

1 Teacher: Do you usually eat?

2 Student : Yes, I do.

3 Teacher: Yes what kinds?

4 Student : Fruit, طماط (temat) (‘tomatoes’), potatoes, tomatoes, potatoes.

In extract 15, learner 28-CS (a foundation year student where learners are either beginners or intermediate) counts some vegetables and mentions the word ‘طماط’ (temat) (‘tomato’). When asked why he used this Arabic term, he replied that it is very similar to the English word and that is why it was said in Arabic. Although no syntactic rule seems to be transferred here, and despite the slight similarity of the sound of the words (‘طماط’ (temat) in Arabic and ‘tomato’ in English), the learner is interestingly using the sound of the Arabic word. Similar sounding words appear to be a logical reason for a speaker to use one instead of the other, most probably spontaneously, yet possibly intentionally, if the speaker forgets the L2 word and remembers how similar these two words are.

The frequent use of coordinating conjunctions, especially the conjunction ‘و’ (‘and’) as in extract 14, may explain and clarify the differences of how these conjunctions are used in Arabic and English. Grammatically, the conjunction (and) can normally be used once only when more than two things in English are mentioned; in Arabic, the conjunction ‘و’ (‘and’) can be used more than once to express ideas or elements. This might explain why learners use conjunctions frequently, as they might be transferring Arabic structural rules into their English utterances, and associating this with CS. Except for extract 15, it can be noticed that the context in extracts 13 and 14 is English for geography department students, where learners can generally be described as beginners. This may, or may not, indicate that low-level learners are more likely to transfer structural rules than advanced learners.

4.2.2 Functions of teachers' CS

This section analyses and discusses the CS functions of the teachers. Learners do not exclusively use CS; teachers also switch codes in classroom (Jakobsson and Ryden 2010). Teachers used CS for affective, socialising, repetitive, metalinguistic, classroom management and many other functions.

4.2.2.1 Affective functions

In most cases, the classroom has contextual, pedagogical and social specifications. This makes it appear different from other contexts when studying CS. One specification is the teacher and his role in the classroom. While teaching, teachers may face difficulties in delivering certain ideas or information, such as difficult words or expressions. These difficulties appear to affect teachers, and being human, the teacher, whether inside or outside the classroom, is exposed to these effects. "A common reason for code-switching among people who speak one standard language along with another language in a more vernacular style is to use one of the languages for affective functions" state (Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult 1999:65). Affective functions of CS are those where teachers or students express emotional words or feelings, for example, anger. This might refer to the stronger influence of this language for these affective functions. The data in this study shows how teachers can be affected, and how their reactions manifest in their mother tongue rather than the target language, as in extract 16.

Extract 16

- 1 Teacher : How often?
- 2 Student (2): ا (laughing).. كم مرة عشان تشرب ماي ('how many times in order for you to drink water').
- 3 Student (1): عشان نعرف تجاوب كم مره؟ (In order for us to know how to answer, how many times?) اوه (oh)
- 4 because....
- 5 Teacher : Because ايه بس؟ ('but why?')

In extract 16, teacher 5-CS, an Egyptian teacher who teaches foundation year students, who are either beginners or intermediate learners, repeats his question twice while a student translates to help his friend. However, the learner began his answer with 'because', but the teacher in line 5 appears to lose his patience as the learner does not seem to understand 'because ايه بس؟' ('but why?'). When interviewed, the teacher laughingly said, ('this is a shock'), as I have repeated that many times, it is ('unconscious'), he added. This example shows how teachers may use the mother tongue for affective function when they feel angry, shocked or lose patience. During discourse with students, these functions might appear within the teacher's spontaneous expression of emotions and emotional understanding (Flyman-

Mattsson and Burenhult 1999). Mujiono et al. (2013) also report that English lecturers switched codes for unpleasant feelings (e.g. anger). In these situations, where teachers show emotions like anger, L1 appears to be more powerful and influential as it is their mother tongue, although such switch for affective functions seems to be rare within the data of this study. Despite his affective CS, the teacher in line 5 appears to interrupt the learner in Arabic. This seems to reflect the teacher's power over his learners in the classroom, although the teacher's interruption as part of his interference is not always constructive, it might be obstructive (Walsh 2002), especially if associated with expressions of anger.

4.2.2.2 Socialising functions

CS was also found used in functions of socialising. For example, teachers might use the first language to break down barriers and create a friendly, comfortable atmosphere for learners by using the mother tongue for specific social functions such as humour. In this study, the teachers' CS to Arabic that reflects anger or loss of patience was analysed under affective functions; switching to Arabic for humour and greetings were analysed under socialising functions. However, it is important to declare that affective and socialising functions might overlap and are not easy to differentiate. In extract 17, for instance, teacher 1-CS, a Saudi teacher of computer science students spoke after a period of silence when learners appeared to read or revise the task by asking 'finish يا شباب؟' ('Guys?').

Extract 17

1 Teacher: Finish يا شباب؟ ('Guys?')

In this case the teacher commented on his use by saying it was similar to giving instructions. It seems, however, that the teacher's use of Arabic might be to attract learners' attention (e.g. Greggio and Gil 2007); use of the word 'شباب' ('Guys'), which seems to be polite and plays a socialising role, may attract learners' attention. What might make this example reflects a social function of CS is the way the teacher politely talks to the learner. If the same word was uttered with signs of anger (e.g. shouting), then the function might appear as an affective rather than a socialising function. This explains how affective and socialising functions may overlap and become difficult to differentiate, unless some contextual and actual facts (e.g. the intonation of the speaker) are considered, and shows the value of video in observing participants' behaviour. It might also be argued that the use of Arabic in extract 17 plays a management function, indicated in the teacher's describing his use as, giving instructions. In another example (see extract 18), teacher 4-CS also uses Arabic with the learners; his use of Arabic seems to be for humour and to create a light-hearted atmosphere (see the translation).

The teacher spoke to the students perhaps to motivate them to participate in the task. The teacher asks learners to try and become four players instead of two, to play Belote, a traditional 4-person game of cards. This card game is common among many Saudis, and the teacher's mentioning of the game may indicate his attempt to create a funny atmosphere by likening his call for learners to participate in the task to that of calling friends to play Belote.

Extract 18

1 Teacher: كملوهم اثنين... طيب بلوت اثنين ... يجون هالحين ('complete the number you two, OK two for belote.....now
2 they are coming').

When asked about his use of Arabic, the teacher mentioned that it was like a funny moment. If I talk about obesity, the teacher adds, I (teacher 4-CS) like to create a nice atmosphere, so they (learners) become enthusiastic and refreshed. The teacher adds that they (learners) like a light-hearted stress-free atmosphere, and that the number of students also makes him use Arabic. Some researchers (e.g. Uys and Van Dulm 2011; Mujiono et al. 2013) report that teachers have used CS for humour, and this is also my experience in English classrooms. Using humour in L1, to reduce students' stress while learning a foreign language as part of socialising, may help create a comfortable learning environment for learners, and help them engage with the teacher and the course. Also in extract 18, it might be noticed that along with CS being used for humour, it seems to play a classroom management function. This is because the teacher's joke tends to indicate a kind of giving instructions to motivate learners to come forward and participate, and this makes such a switch to Arabic appear multifunctional (humour and classroom management). This kind of switching can be classified as a situational CS rather than metaphorical, as the teacher seems to switch to L1 when a situation changes (applying the task into humour or classroom management).

Extract 19

1 Teacher: Today إن شاء الله ('If God is willing') we are going to have this sample of questions and we would like
2 you to participate into this research and I hope إن شاء الله ('If God is willing') you will do well (Teacher
3 continues).

In another example (19), the teacher of students from the Islamic studies department uses the term 'إن شاء الله', which means ('If God is willing') at the beginning of the class. Teacher 3-CS comments on this use and states that some terminologies like this would help remove obstacles in the relationship between him and his students. It appears this type of switching is religiously motivated and globally shared among Muslims. The phrase is considered necessary by many Muslims when talking about future intentions, and may reflect the influence of religious and cultural values in code choice. The teacher's use of the term (with

students from the Islamic studies department, who might be keen on religious terminologies), however, may reflect the teacher's awareness of his learners' cultural values. This leads him to switch to his students' mother tongue in order, as the teachers above argues, to remove obstacles in the teacher-learner relationship. CS was also used at the beginning of the class for greetings. In extract 20, for instance, a student entered the classroom after finishing the speaking task and, before teacher began his lesson, said 'السلام عليكم' ('Peace be upon you'). The rest of students and teacher 1-CS replied, 'عليكم السلام' ('peace be upon you too').

Extract 20

1 Student: السلام عليكم ('Peace be upon you').

2 Teacher and Students: عليكم السلام ('Peace be upon you too').

The teacher explained that Arabic, as well as English, is usually used for greetings. This example and others (see appendix 6) show how Arabic is used for greetings, usually at the beginning, but even during the class. In this case, the class had already begun, but it might be considered the beginning of the class for students who arrive late, and this may reflect its value and importance to participants as a sign of meeting new members of the group because of its significance in representing their identity. Uys and Van Dulm (2011) found that CS might usefully be employed as a classroom strategy to fulfil social functions, such as being a bilingual identity marker. This marker of identity, however, may appear more clearly in multilingual societies, although it might also take place in a society where all members share the same linguistic background but with different cultural varieties, such as the Saudi context. Socially, a greeting, regardless of when it occurs during the class, is an essential social action that many teachers and learners usually utter in L1, whether inside or outside the classroom. It is also global, and not limited to certain contexts, and is used by all Muslims who are aware of its value. Greetings also seems to be the key through which speakers open doors for conversations or meetings with members of the group, and make the relationship between the teacher and the foreign language from one side, and the learners from the other side, more comfortable. Therefore, such use of greetings in learners' L1 may take place by non-Arabic teachers who may use Arabic to greet students in order to remove obstacles and to be accepted by learners. On the other hand, from a cultural or religious dimension, greetings, as many participants during interview mentioned in 4.3.1 and 4.3.2, are related to their culture and religion. For example, initiating the above mentioned greeting 'السلام عليكم' ('Peace be upon you') is valued among Muslims, and replying to this greeting is obligatory; thus, they prefer it in Arabic. It appears then that the influence of culture and religion does exist, as both learners and teachers can use alternative greetings in English, yet they usually use Arabic for

greetings. Therefore, teachers frequently initiate the use of CS for socialising. In this study, the use of CS for socialising seems to occur often, which does not seem to be the case in many other studies. Such frequent use may show the extent to which such switches to L1 (Arabic) tend to be valued for the functions they serve (e.g. greetings), and have been noticed more than once in the data, mostly at the beginning of the lesson. This importance of CS for socialising, however, might lead to greater use of CS, including what might be considered as an unnecessary use. Teachers' initiating CS for humour, for instance, might be followed by learners' comments that may take place in L1. Thus, teachers should be aware of such possible consequences so as to not to lose control in the classroom.

4.2.2.3 Repetitive functions

Teachers also used Arabic for repetitive functions. Different to social or affective functions, however, these uses of Arabic appear to serve linguistic (e.g. extract 22) or classroom management purposes (e.g. extract 21). In extract 21, teacher 1-CS (a Saudi teacher who holds a BA) gives instructions in English but then repeats these in Arabic. The teacher justified such a reference as the need to repeat instructions in Arabic for the students. The teacher's repetition probably aims to ensure that learners understand instructions that could be important. The majority of learners in this computer sciences class are likely to be at beginner or intermediate level. L1 use here, therefore, might refer to the disparity in the level of learners' English within the group, as not all can easily understand instructions in English. Therefore, the teacher may need to use Arabic, along with English for the beginners, to ensure they understand what he says, as the teacher's repetition may indicate. In addition, teacher 1 organises the seating plan for learners to start the lesson after applying the task. This shows how teachers may switch to L1 for management purposes by repeating instructions, possibly to ensure learners understand what is said. Greggio and Gil (2007) mentioned that teachers have used CS, particularly moving from L2 to L1 to provide equivalent meaning, or for translation (e.g. Rezvani and Rasekh 2011).

Extract 21

- 1 Teacher: يا شباب ليتكم تسوون القروبات اللي سوينها الأحد الماضي ('Guys could you make the groups that we created
- 2 last Sunday').
- 3 Someone: السلام عليكم ('Peace be upon you').
- 4 All: وعليكم السلام ('peace be upon you too').
- 5 Teacher: Make the groups you made in the last (day?) please.....Just قروبات ('groups').
- 6 ياالله يا شباب واللي غايب الله يستر عليه ('come on guys and those who are absent (Teacher Supplicates)').

Extract 22

- 1 Teacher: Is the food you eat the best for your health? يعني هل الطعام اللي انت تاكله صحي؟ ('which means is the
- 2 food you eat healthy?')
- 3 Student : Yes,
- 4 Teacher: Ha? Yes Why.
- 5 Student : House.
- 6 Teacher : Ok,(.....) thank you very much.

Commenting on another case (extract 22, line 1), teacher 2-CS argues that clarification in Arabic might be necessary and important. This supports the findings of Cipriani (2001), which show that teachers switch codes to clarify vocabulary (e.g. via providing explanations of L2 words in L1) and communicate tasks. For example, teacher 2, a Saudi teacher of students in the geography department repeated and summarized his question asking 'يعني 'صحي' ('which means...healthy?'). The teacher explained his justification stating that the learner in extract 22 appeared not to understand, and if there is no translation, he (the learner) will just look at me. I (the teacher) need to translate in order to engage them, the teacher adds. This seems similar to what Uys and Van Dulm (2011) show, that teachers switch codes to assist students through interpretations and comprehending materials. Mujiono et al. (2013) also report on lecturers who use switching to repeat and clarify. In addition, Bach Baoueb and Toumi (2012) show that clarification is one of the most noticed motivations for CS. Teachers' CS for clarification shows us how learners, and probably learners with lower proficiency in the target language, may need translation or clarifications to understand, and to engage and focus on the lesson.

4.2.2.4 Metalinguistic functions

The data shows that teachers have used CS for metalinguistic functions. Metalinguistic refers to the learners' reference to the mother tongue, when talking about a task, commenting upon it or evaluating it, although the task itself is in the target language (see Raschka et al. 2009). In extract 23, for instance, teacher 3-CS tells the learner that he will ask him the question in Arabic, and that he (the learner) should answer in English. The teacher then continued, asking half of the question in English and the rest in Arabic.

Extract 23

- 1 Teacher: طب انا حقولها لك بالعربي وانت تجاوب بالانجليزي ('Well, i will say it in Arabic, and you answer in English')
- 2 Student : كيف؟ (what?) (.....).
- 3 Teacher: فقالو لك والله اللي موجود حاليا هو ده اللي (i will say it in Arabic) (the teacher explains in Arabic) حاولك بالعربي ('and they told you that what is available now is what is in front of you') which one of them will
- 4 قدامك ('and they told you that what is available now is what is in front of you') which one of them will
- 5 you choose?
- 6 Student : Football.

In his statement ‘طب انا حقولها لك بالعربي وانت تجاوب بالانجليزي’ (‘Well, i will say it in Arabic, and you answer in English’), the teacher talks about the question or the task where his statement is not part of the task itself. The teacher commented on his use of Arabic mentioning that many students are weak and they would not understand him, adding that he likes to start speaking in English, but returns to Arabic to ensure that learners understand. CS, therefore, seems to serve as a function of explanation (e.g. Rezvani and Rasekh 2011) or reiteration, where teachers translate to bridge comprehension gaps, as in Then and Ting (2011). Here, the teacher intends to translate and tells the learners he will do so. This might be due to the students’ weaknesses, which requires the teacher to translate to ensure they understand the task. The teacher’s translation may also indicate the teacher gives priority to the target (the learner’s answering of the question or doing the task) over the medium, the use of L2 (English in this case). This prioritization is understood in this example, or in other examples where teachers need to convey an idea in a limited time, and especially with beginners. In addition, in extract 24, teacher 2-CS, (a Saudi teacher holding an MA) is teaching learners in the geography department. In line 3, after the learner’s silence, the teacher asks ‘فهمت السؤال؟’ (‘Did you understand the question?’). This may indicate the learner did not understand. The teacher also checks the learner’s comprehension in Arabic when asking about the task. In this example, the teacher explained his use of Arabic as his willingness to check the student understands. Teachers, according to Greggio and Gil (2007), may refer to the learner’s mother tongue to assist students and when trying to ensure the learner has understood the teacher’s utterance. The teacher’s justification of his question in Arabic appears logical, especially with the group of geography department students who are mostly beginners, and as Arabic is sometimes needed to ensure that learners understand.

Extract 24

- 1 Teacher: What kind of food do you eat every day?
- 2 Student : (Silence).
- 3 Teacher: فهمت السؤال؟ (‘Did you understand the question?’)
- 4 Student : um.
- 5 Teacher: فهمت السؤال ولا؟ (‘Did you understand the question or not?’)
- 6 Student : لا (‘No’) (.....).

Extract 25

- 1 Teacher: طيب سوال للجميع (‘Ok, a question for everybody’), for all, question, which famous athletic would you
- 2 like to meet?
- 3 Student : لاعب؟ (‘A player?’)
- 4 Teacher: Ah.
- 5 Student : Messi.

In extract 25, however, the same teacher (2-CS) seems to be giving instructions saying ‘طيب علشان سؤال للجميع’ (‘OK, a question for everybody’). The teacher commented in the interview ‘لما تشوف الواقع تتصدم’ (‘Because.. I mean they...I try to attract...draw their attention’), adding that caution and punishment do not work in the target language, and they have a better effect in the mother tongue. Arabic, according to the teacher, in a cautioning context seems to be more influential than English, where according to the teacher, these functions may not work. If Arabic is used suddenly in an English class ‘كلهم ينتبهون’ (‘they all pay attention’), the teacher adds. It appears, according to the justification of the teacher, that caution and punishment may not be influential if carried out in the target language, and learners may take it more seriously if given in the mother tongue. In this example, the teacher’s CS may also function as classroom management. The teacher seems to change the way of applying the task from a teacher-student conversation, into a group conversation between him and the group by saying in line 1 ‘طيب سؤال للجميع’ (‘Ok, a question for everybody’). Extract 25 is an example of what Then and Ting (2011) found, that teachers switch codes for reiteration for the sake of giving instructions. Hence, switching to Arabic for metalinguistic functions appears useful in a number of ways. It may allow teachers to ensure that learners understand their utterances in English and help save teachers’ time. It may also help to attract learners’ attention should they lose concentration. This example, and others that will be discussed under the classroom management functions below, explain how some teachers argue that Arabic might sometimes be needed in the classroom.

4.2.2.5 Classroom management

The data show that many teachers often use CS for classroom management in most, if not all, classes, which were mentioned in many studies (e.g. Merritt et al. 1992; Polio and Duff 1994; Kim and Elder 2005; Qian et al. 2009, Rezvani and Rasekh 2011), especially to discipline learners who talk without the teacher’s permission. The utterances used usually indicate commands for learners, or even to warn them about the possibility of removal from the classroom. Extract 26, for example, shows how teacher 4-CS (a Saudi teacher holding a BA) teaching students in the management department, uses L1 to ask students to stop talking, while waiting for another group to come forward and participate in the task. This may indicate the need to use L1 for the sake of classroom management, especially at the beginning of lessons, during pauses and when topics or tasks change. When interviewed, the teacher stated that he previously used English a lot, but later on, ‘لما تشوف الواقع تتصدم’ (‘if you see the

actual situation, you will be shocked’), the teacher adds. When students do not understand in certain situations this leads him to use Arabic.

Extract 26

1 Teacher: شباب اللي ورا لو سمحتوا بدون صوت قلنا (‘Guys in the back, please we said no sound’).

It is interesting that teacher 4-CS talks about a change in his CS behaviour due to learners’ limited ability to understand some L2 utterances. This change appears not to be related to this particular example, but a general change in his CS behaviour, although here, he is applying a provided speaking task and his behaviour in actual teaching may differ. This may indicate that the teacher should, depending on the situation, judge and decide whether or not to use Arabic. Moreover, the teacher pointed out that, in general, he uses Arabic for instructions. It can also be noticed that the teacher is talking to a group of learners who seem far away, yet his call seems to be quiet; no signs of anger appear, as can also be seen in extract 29. This contrasts with extracts 27 and 28 where the teachers appear serious and their words stronger. Also, the teacher’s use of the word ‘قلنا’ (‘we said’) in extract 26 may indicate an agreement between the teacher and the learners to be silent. This contrasts with extract 28 that indicates a direct instruction, or a direct instruction with a threat, as in extract 27. Extract 27 shows how the same teacher (4-CS) cautions students and those found talking will be sent out of the classroom; an example of when teachers use CS to reprimand disruptive behaviour (e.g. Uys and Van Dulm 2011). General instructions, the teacher comments, are very important and that is why they are delivered in Arabic, so the teacher can guarantee students’ understanding.

Extract 27

1 Teacher: شباب اي شخص بشوفه يتكلم تطيح عيني عليه بيطلع بره
2 asked to dismiss the class’).

Extract 28

1 Teacher: مش عايز أسمع صوت ولا إستهزاء ولا أي شيء (‘I don’t want to hear any sound, mocking or anything else’).

In extract 28, another teacher used Arabic for the same purpose (classroom management) when some learners were talking to each other. When asked about the purpose of his CS, teacher 5-CS stressed that it was nervousness, as he agreed with them to be silent. Without being strong, students would not listen to me, teacher 5 adds, and stressed that if he punished them in English, it would not be so influential, but if delivered in Arabic, the learners would know what was being said was important. Thus, to maintain learners’ attention as a form of classroom management, teachers were found to refer to the L1 (Uys and Van Dulm 2011). Gauci and Grima (2012) also argue that L1 plays a classroom management rule.

Extract 29

1 Teacher: جوالك الله يعافيك... مشاري... ('Meshary, your mobile -May God provide you with health-').

In extract 29, teacher 1-CS, (a Saudi teacher holding a BA, teaching students from the computer science department) politely alerts one student whose mobile phone is ringing. The teacher described the function of his use of Arabic, as delivering instructions, which, the teacher adds, would take place in Arabic. Greggio and Gil (2007) mention that teachers were found to switch from L2 to L1 when giving advice. Moreover, while a teacher saying 'your mobile') may implement a management function, his supplication to the learner, which is common among some Muslims, appears to be an indication of politeness as well as valuing the learner. The teacher's use of the request in Arabic, with a supplication, may be more influential in Arabic than in English. Here, the teacher's management of the classroom in Arabic seems to be associated with a sense of socialising; thus, switching into Arabic seems to be for functions of classroom management and socialising.

Extract 30

1 Teacher : إن شاء الله المحاضرة الجاية إليه؟ ('If God is willing, the next lecture is what?').

2 Students: الإختبار ('the exam').

3 Teacher : الإختبار ('the exam').

In extract 30, teacher 5-CS gives instructions to learners by talking about the date of the exam. Teacher 5 commented on his use of Arabic in this example stating 'ده لازم' ('this is a must'), adding, 'ده مهم... ضروري جدا... ماينفع نقوله بالإنقليش' ('this is important, very important, it is not beneficial if we say it in English'), as students may claim they do not understand. They are weak, the teacher continues, and in this level (beginners), I start in Arabic, yet only English will be asked and used with them later. Extract 30 is an example of what Ting and Ting (2011) found, that teachers switch codes to mark salient information. This function might be important for significant announcements such as talking about exams, where the primary focus is message oriented rather than the medium. Also, it might help to attract learners' attention; for example, when learners lose concentration. It is also interesting how the teacher uses the term 'إن شاء الله' ('If God is willing'), which, as mentioned in (4.2.2.2), shows how CS may be culturally or religiously motivated. These examples show how teachers use L1 to manage classrooms, a reference many teachers argued for, as will be discussed later in this chapter.

4.2.2.6 Other functions

A- Slips of the tongue

Teachers also reported their spontaneous use of Arabic (as a slip of the tongue). The use of such words (e.g. pauses) is often, though not necessarily, unintentional. In extract 31, teacher 2-CS used the word 'طبعاً' ('of course'), and described his use of Arabic when interviewed as spontaneous.

Extract 31

1 Teacher: طبعاً ('of course') today we have three different topics I am going to ask you about.

Extract 32

1 Teacher: طيب ('Well') I ask you what kind of food do you eat every day?

2 Student: كبسة (kabsah) or barbeque.

3 Teacher: What barbeque?

4 Student: كبسة... همبرغر... فول ('Kabsah, Burger, bean').

Also in extract 32, teacher 5-CS used the word 'طيب' ('well'), and described such use as 'اللازمة' (a verbal or oral habit that the person commits accidentally or unconsciously), arguing that even native speakers might conduct such use. These utterances, however, appear to be fillers used by teachers, as well as students (as discussed in 4.2.1.4-C), as a time-gaining strategy before continuing their speech.

B- Cueing

Another function for which teachers switch to Arabic is when they respond to learners' CS. Cueing can be described as a speaker (usually the learner) when questioning in L1, leads and directs his teacher to talk in L1, and may result in the teacher's switch to the learner's mother tongue. Extracts 33 and 34, which both took place in the English class of geography department students (who are mostly beginners), shows how teacher 2-CS, (a Saudi teacher holding a BA) in line 5, extract 33, and line 3, extract 34, responds and accommodates to the learner's question in Arabic in line 4, extract 33, and line 2, extract 34. This may reflect the learner's lower proficiency, which leads to the use of Arabic. In both cases, the learner appears to ask for confirmation and check comprehension in Arabic.

Extract 33

1 Teacher: do you usually eat fruits and vegetables?

2 Student: yes.

3 Teacher: What Kind?

4 Student : يعني الفواكه ولا ؟ ('It means fruits, doesn't it?').

5 Teacher: ايه ('yes').

6 Student : aaah...orange, apples.. aah.... Bananas.

Extract 34

1 Teacher: Which famous athletic do you like to meet?

2 Student: شخصية؟ ('Character' or 'person?')

3 Teacher: ايه ('yes').

4 Student: ولا احد ('No one').

5 Teacher: No one?

6 Student: No one.

However, it might also be argued that the learner's CS is multifunctional; it might carry an asking for confirmation function, and might also reflect a cueing technique used by the learner. In both cases, teacher 2-CS who, regardless of the quantity, appeared to switch to Arabic more than the other teachers, replied in Arabic, possibly because most learners were beginners. When interviewed and asked about these two cases, the teacher declared that he was supposed to answer in English, but because the learner asked in Arabic, I used Arabic, the teacher adds. It seems here that the learner(s) are cueing the teacher to use Arabic via asking in Arabic in extract 33, line 4, and extract 34, line 2. The teacher appears to respond to this cueing by also answering in Arabic in extract 33, line 5, and extract 34, line 3. However, it is not clear if the learners know their teacher's CS behaviour, and if he is likely to respond to cueing, or because the learners are actually beginners and this may explain their request for confirmation. What appears in these examples of learners' questions is that they are repeating and asking about the correct meaning. This may indicate their understanding of their teacher's English utterances, and their cueing strategy might refer to their awareness of their teacher's CS behaviour by responding in L1; therefore, the teacher might accept the learners' use of L1. These examples, which show how teachers may respond to learners' cueing, also show how learners may have a lead in organising the conversation within the classroom. This might be considered abnormal in contexts where teachers usually have the power and the role of organising interaction. Consequently, this may imply that the teacher's role of power is, to some extent, less influential in this case, or that he (the teacher) allows learners to interact in a more democratic way.

C- Reinforcement

CS also appears to be used for reinforcement purposes. In extract 35, and after the teacher's question for an explanation from the learner, reflected in his question 'why' in line 3, the learner in line 4 appears to struggle to explain the reason behind his choice, repeating the word 'because' twice, together with fillers.

Extract 35

1 Teacher: Lionel Messi?

2 Student : Yes.

3 Teacher: Why?

4 Student : Mmmm,, because aaaah (Laughing) ,, because he is aaaa,, aaaa

5 يعني على .. انسان طبيعي يعني . لا نتفاخر ولا شايف نفسه زي اللاعبين ...بسيط ('Simple, like.....normal person I

6 mean... he is not showing off like the players ').

7 Teacher: ... زين ('Well') that's good.

However, the learner switched to Arabic in line 5 to justify his choice, which seems to be a use of CS for communicative purposes after a breakdown in communication. Then, in line 7, the teacher replied 'زين' ('good' or 'well'). Teacher 2-CS comments on his use of the word 'زين' ('good' or 'well') in extract 35 saying that he used this word for 'تعزيز' ('reinforcement'). The teacher seems to be reinforcing the learner from the geography department (mostly beginners) to appreciate his effort. These findings support those of Rezvani and Rasekh (2011) who found that teachers use CS for praise. Therefore, it could be understood that the use of the mother tongue may indicate that, for some teachers, Arabic, or the first language, could be more influential and effective when appreciating learners' efforts in the target language, especially those less proficient in the target language.

To conclude, it seems that the functions of teachers' and learners' CS are not necessarily similar. In general, students used CS for the following functions (not ranked):

- 1- Linguistic insecurity: (e.g. using an Arabic word when lacking English terminology, which reflects a need to achieve interactional goals (e.g. Dahl et al. 2010).
- 2- Socialising functions: (e.g. using Arabic for greetings).
- 3- Repetitive functions: (e.g. where students use an Arabic equivalent along with the English word, a case in which Uys and Van Dulm (2011), for example, found that CS might be used as a tool to confirm understanding.
- 4- Collaborative functions: where learners switch to the mother tongue as part of their collaborative work in the classroom (e.g. Anton and DiCamilla 1999).
- 5- Asking for confirmation or help: where students ask in Arabic to check their understanding of an utterance produced in English, or when they need help from their teacher or colleagues. Cameron (2001) mentions that when learners need help from peers or teachers, they prefer to use their mother tongue.
- 6- Fillers or slips of the tongue: where learners utter a word/conjunction either spontaneously or as a time-gaining strategy.

- 7- Language transfer: (e.g. when learners use an Arabic coordinating conjunction in an English sentence; the production of which in L1 is considered a transfer or interference strategy and may have a positive role in language learning (Liao 2006).

Teachers, on the other hand, switched codes for the following functions (not ranked):

- 1- Affective functions: such as using words that express anger or losing patience.
- 2- Socialising functions: such as using Arabic for greetings or humour.
- 3- Repetitive functions: such as repeating English utterances in Arabic for clarification.
- 4- Metalinguistic functions: such as switching to Arabic to give explanations about a speaking task, give announcements and give instructions.
- 5- Classroom management: (e.g. asking learners to be silent or changing seating plan).
- 6- Slips of the tongue: such as teachers' use of Arabic words either spontaneously or as fillers.
- 7- Cueing: where teachers refer to Arabic as a result of learners' cueing.
- 8- Reinforcement: such as teachers' use of Arabic to praise learners.

4.3 Attitudes towards CS

This section will analyse and discuss the attitudes of students and teachers towards CS, with reference made to their practices. Sixteen teachers and approximately 37 students (see appendices 13 and 14) were interviewed after the classroom video recording. Along with the first and second questions, where participants discussed what functions their CS served in the extracts analysed in 4.2, they were also asked further questions, the answers to which might explain how teachers and students look at CS in the classroom and their attitudes towards it. The semi-structured interview contained four additional questions for students (see appendix 5) and ten questions for teachers (see appendix 6). As the interview was semi-structured, clarifications and paraphrased questions were provided when necessary (see 3.3.2). This was to increase the likelihood of participants' understanding the questions, and obtain as many accurate and relevant answers as possible. The chosen attitudes for analysis are represented on the basis of ideas that recur throughout the categories.

4.3.1 Students' attitudes

Students who were recorded switching codes were asked to participate in the interview, and the majority (approximately 35 students) agreed to participate. Apart from the question that aimed to investigate the functions of their CS, which was discussed in (4.2), learners were asked four additional questions (see appendix 5). Responses to these four questions will be discussed under three themes: (1) Motivations to CS; (2) Classroom CS and L1 as a potential learning tool; (3) Participants' society, culture and CS. Although it was intended to give each question a theme under which answers would be discussed, some answers were either too short to be given a theme or did not reveal very much. Therefore, some themes were joined with others: the answers to question 3 will be analysed in 4.3.1.1, the answers of questions 4 and 5 will be discussed in 4.3.1.2, and answers to question 6 will be discussed in 4.3.1.3.

4.3.1.1 Motivations to CS

CS is a pragmatic phenomenon (Auer 1995) in a conversational sense when used in speaking, and participants' CS is mostly functional and motivated. Thus, the first question in the students' interview was about motivations towards CS. In other words, what makes the learner switch codes in the classroom. The data shows that many learners agreed with the need to use Arabic when delivery of the message in English became difficult, such as a learner's lack of vocabulary due to a low proficiency in English. This may indicate a problem with regard to Saudi learners, as university level students should have studied English for at least six years (it has recently been added as a new subject in the last stage of primary schools, which totals seven years of learning English). Learners' weakness, after years of studying, raises questions about why outcomes seem weak, as many learners of English at university still appear to be beginners. Learner 1-I described such use as natural (normal or expected), possibly in the sense that some learners might be beginners in the context of his computer sciences department, the learner reminds us that speech should initially be in English, arguing, 'لكن ممكن في بعض الأحيان ما أقدر أعبر' ('But possibly sometimes I cannot express'), here the teacher should clarify in English, the learner adds. The learner's description seems to reflect the actual system of the teachers' role. Another respondent (2-I) agrees with this notion, suggesting that reference to Arabic would be the 'worst case' (a final option). Learner 8-I adds that sometimes 'انت ما وصلت إلى مرحلة التعلم الكامل' ('you did not achieve the highest level of learning'), and that is why you were sometimes 'تضطر' ('forced') to refer to Arabic. Teachers, the learner argues, should then reply to us in English.

Interviewee 7-I, a student from the geography department (where learners are usually beginners) adds that 'صعوبة الفهم' ('understanding difficulty') would make you 'تضطر' ('forced') to use Arabic. What can be implied here is that in order for communication to occur, Arabic is needed. It was also mentioned in learners' contributions, that the motive towards CS is missing words or terms. Student 4-I from the computer science department (learners are beginners or intermediate) suggests that motivation towards CS is a lack of 'words'. Another student (32-I) who studies in the foundation year (either beginner or intermediate) adds that he might use Arabic when talking to his colleague to explain something to him. 'Although I prefer English in such a case', student 32 adds, but, you know, we are in the foundation year.

Many learners claimed that teachers use Arabic, and this may lead them to use it as well. This seems true as all teachers switched to Arabic, as discussed in 4.2.2. Respondent 21-I, for instance, mentions that all students and most teachers use Arabic, adding that, this would force me to use it. Interviewee 6-I from the computer science department (who might be a beginner or intermediate) also argues that teachers explain in Arabic, as do students, adding that, when I was studying in an English-only university context before, we were talking only in English, but in this college, many teachers use Arabic, as do students. The learner adds that he wished to speak only in English but most students speak in Arabic. It is not clear in this situation why the use of Arabic take place in this university, while it was not the case in the learner's previous university. Although the learner did not mention the previous university where English was exclusively used, it might be one of the universities where most courses are taught in English. In addition, the learner seems to acknowledge his response to his colleagues' (peer) pressure, or his institutional context where Arabic is used. It might also be implied that the learner is either not convinced with the use of Arabic or feels guilty about using it. Generally, many learners described their reference to Arabic as a natural response (expected unsurprising responses), and explain such responses to their weakness and lower proficiency. In this case, CS seems to reflect its use as a communicative strategy (e.g. Dahl et al. 2010) that was found in learners' CS in 4.2.1.1. It is due to weak English establishment, student 15-I argues. Student 19-I adds that we (students) are not so professional to the extent that allows us to speak only in English, or that we use it in our daily life. It is not an English-only atmosphere, student 20-I from the management department (where learners tend to be beginners) adds, stating, I remember one of my teachers who never used Arabic, even when taking attendance. The learner's statement here might indicate that the remaining teachers

may use Arabic, and this teacher might be an exception to the rule. It is also possible that by mentioning the teacher who never used Arabic, this may indicate the learner's pride in his teacher's behaviour, and the teacher's practice of only using English.

Students' lower proficiency, however, was not the only reason to switch to Arabic. Student 16-I argued 'أخاف أخطيء في أسلوب أو التعبير' ('I feel afraid of committing a mistake in style or expression'), and a learner's fear of making mistakes in his utterances might make him use Arabic. Student 33-I adds that some learners refrain from answering in English to avoid mistakes. Making mistakes, according to many learners and teachers, as will be discussed later, may lead to embarrassment. Many learners and teachers have mentioned embarrassment and argue that many learners avoid speaking in English in the classroom, as they are afraid of committing mistakes that would make their friends laugh. This may socially imply that peer pressure among learners might be influential in the English language classroom, as discussed above. This may push learners into switching to Arabic, especially when they are uncertain about their L2 utterances. It might also imply that peer pressure, which may lead learners to switch into L1, refers to the social context in which individuals' errors may appear embarrassing, and for some male learners at least, this has been also noticed in my short experience as a learner and as a teacher. Interestingly, learner 10-I suggests that an English-only classroom would be boring, which will consequently make me (the learner) feel that I would not understand. This would then make me stop talking, the learner adds.

Interviewee 26-I mentioned that he (the interviewee) might use Arabic when talking to a colleague, or in case of not knowing a word, and this is only to a friend and not the teacher with whom I only use English, the interviewee clarifies, adding that it is not worth hearing something bad from him (laughing). Learners, according to Cameron (2001), switch to L1 when they need help from peers or teachers. Interviewee 31-I also argued that Arabic might be used when asking about exams, adding that although he (the learner) might be able to ask him (the teacher) this question in English, I ask him (the teacher) in Arabic in order for all students to understand. The need to use Arabic when talking about exams might indicate learners' awareness of the importance of the message rather than the medium, which may not be fully understood if uttered in English, and that is why learners may prefer Arabic in such situations.

To conclude, functionally, although most students agreed with the need to use L1, it appeared interesting how their expressions differ. Many used terms such as ('urgently', 'if necessary', 'in the worst case,') others used ('of course') and ('natural',) referring to the use of L1 when answering the first question in the interview. This indicates a variety of opinions towards CS, and while some view it as a final option, it does not appear to be a final option for others. According to Simon (2001), inequality in learners-teachers proficiency or learners L1-L2 proficiency are the most common reasons for switching to their first language. Such a fall-back to the mother tongue, Simon adds, takes the learner to a safe zone when the linguistic level exceeds students' level of competence. Despite linguistic insecurity being the dominant function in the data, during the interviews, the learners suggested they may switch to Arabic, (1) when certain L1 expressions are needed, (2) in peer conversation, (3) and when asking about exams, referring their use of Arabic to (4), their low proficiency and weak establishment, (5) teachers' use of Arabic, (6) the context, (7) and fear of committing mistakes.

4.3.1.2 Classroom CS and L1 as a potential learning tool

The fourth question of the interview ('What do you think about CS in the classroom?') asked learners about their attitudes towards CS. Generally, learners' attitudes differ, and thus can be divided into four groups. The first group appears to suggest an English-only context with no reference to Arabic, while the second suggests the use of Arabic together with English. The third group suggests the use of English initially, and think that Arabic might be used when necessary and in specific occasions, whereas the fourth argued that there are factors to consider before encouraging or discouraging the use of CS, such as the course being taught, the students' major, and the judgement of the teacher in the classroom.

The first group of learners mention that only English should be used. Student 1-I mentioned that CS is a natural phenomenon, yet it was not good, stating that teachers and students should only talk in English. The learner here seems to be criticizing CS, which might indicate and imply his negative attitude towards it, possibly due to a general atmosphere that discourages CS and views it as a destructive behaviour. Student 2-I agrees with his colleague claiming that the use of Arabic is wrong arguing, the evidence is that when an American monolingual taught us last summer, we were really improving in the language (English). Together with their thoughts on the importance of using English, many other learners criticized the use of the mother tongue (Arabic). From learner 7-I, who argued that 'we

should only speak in English', to learner 4-I who stated that he never encourages the use of Arabic at all, justifying his view that when Arabic is used, we might lose the sense of dealing with our subject (computer science), in which everything is in English. This group of learners seem to support what many researchers (e.g. Willis 1981; Cummins and Swain 1986; Macdonald 1993) argue, that L2 should be exclusively employed with no reference to L1. Moreover, learner 8-I blames his teachers, stating that unfortunately they use Arabic a lot. Such blame might carry a defensive attitude that may indicate a learner's feelings of guilt towards CS, and this might refer to the feeling held by many learners: CS is not good. Learner 8 adds, that in order for us (learners) to achieve a specific level in the target language, everything must be in that language. Interviewee 12-I agrees with his friends, stating that in an English class, it is time for conversation, adding that we as learners need to improve ourselves through the teacher, who might be allowed to use Arabic if students need Arabic, but not ourselves as students. Teachers, interviewee 13-I argues, may occasionally need to use Arabic, adding that it sometimes saves teacher's time, which I would agree with. Respondent 26-I also criticised the use of Arabic and encouraged English-only use, likening this situation to a learner who goes to a country to learn English, but lives in an area where all residents are Arabs or Saudis, adding that this is like doing nothing. This group of learners argued that using Arabic is unhelpful, and they generally disagree with its use by teachers and/or learners. Some of those students provided examples of experiences or strategies that may support their thoughts. In addition, as mentioned above, it seems that some learners think only teachers should use Arabic, if needed. Others think only learners might need to use Arabic, but not the teacher, who should reply in English. It might be argued that learners' preferences and attitudes tend to adopt what they suppose the researcher is suggesting or adopting (the exclusive use of L2). Learners, due to power issues from the researcher's side, are unlikely to oppose what they think the researcher (their potential future teacher) is adopting. In addition, the learners' attitude might refer to their preference not to oppose the potential default policy of L2-only use in the university. However, other learners' attitudes, which tend to support the use of L1, and will be discussed below, may indicate that those learners might be convinced with an L2-only policy. Their attitudes might also reflect their need for English in their future studies or careers, which may justify their preference for L2-only use. This is in contrast with the attitudes of other learners, which are discussed below.

In contrast with the first group, who generally suggest an exclusive use of English, the second group of learners appear to suggest the use of Arabic in the classroom. Learner 14-I, for

example, stated that he strongly agreed with the teachers' use of Arabic. Student 15-I also initially described such use of Arabic as good, adding that the use of both languages is good and Arabic should be used when learners do not understand. Student 35-I argued that Arabic would simplify understanding a little, adding that English was an optional course for him, and that Arabic may help to deliver the information more easily for students. Therefore, those respondents appear to support the use of Arabic arguing that it might be helpful in the classroom. Learners' attitudes (learners 14, 15 and 35), which appear to contradict the attitudes of those who suggested an English-only policy, may indicate they are most likely beginners from departments where English would not usually be needed for their further studies or careers (e.g. geography and Islamic studies), and are conditioning their attitudes depending on their actual needs of the language. This may explain why learner 35 said that English was an optional course for him.

A third group of students explained that their attitudes towards CS depend on many factors. They said that Arabic might need to be used on some occasions, yet the majority argued that English should be used initially. Interviewee 5-I implied that Arabic is needed in the first steps of learning English, and suggests the use of Arabic if needed. Another participant (19-I) adds that it depends on the level of the learners, yes if they are weak, although it is better to use English, the learner recounts. Beginners may need CS, participant 25-I also suggests, adding that in level 2 it is preferable to avoid Arabic. One of his colleagues (33-I) agrees with the need for Arabic with beginners, but for advanced learners there is no need for Arabic. Another respondent (29-I) clarifies that difficult ideas should be presented in Arabic, whereas the rest should be in English. Participant 21-I also supports that English should be used initially, except with those who do not understand. Some learners also suggested that teachers should speak in English and only difficult terminology should allow the use of Arabic. Learner 18-I, for example, mentioned that learners should try their best to speak in English, yet teachers should speak in English. It seems here that participants generally recommend using English, yet they do not totally disregard or advocate banning Arabic. This can be also implied in the opinion of participant 20-I, who said that in the classroom, 'I hope we can make it more English,' adding that more use of English may help.

The fourth group of learners suggested several factors should be considered before CS was encouraged or discouraged within the classroom. Participant 36-I, for instance, suggested that teachers are in a position of judgment. He clarifies that if the teacher knows that students understand, then English should be used, whereas if he knows that learners do not

understand, then Arabic might be used. A group of learners also raised the issues of the course, the context and the curriculum being taught, together with the learners' practice of English. Learner 23-I mentions that 'of course' talking in English is better, we mostly study grammar for only two hours but without practicing outside the classroom, the learner continues, criticising that what we are studying is not English, frankly, and repeats that it is better for students and teachers to speak in English. Participant 30-I also argues that the use of Arabic should not just be when necessary, but when extremely necessary. However, this should be step-by-step because we (learners) have just graduated from secondary school where English teaching is so bad. Learner 24-I suggests differentiating those who study English as a major course, from others who study it as an optional course. He clarifies that for those who study English as a secondary course, and will not depend on it in their future, it might be OK, adding, for me, however, I try my best to use English, yet I do not have problem with using Arabic. Some interviewees suggested there were advantages and disadvantages in using Arabic. Starting his answer with ('good and bad at the same time'), interviewee 9-I claims that the use of Arabic is good as it tells us the meaning in Arabic; however, it is bad as it is an obstacle in our language improvement. Learner 10-I describes the use of Arabic saying, ('Frankly, it is nice and bad'). It is nice, the student continues, when used, sparingly and not extensively for important things, things that are unknown and difficult for students, whereas it would not be good if it was used excessively and when mentioning easy things. To conclude, it appears that this group of learners show a good level of awareness with regard to CS; they neither completely agree with it, nor completely reject it. Rather, they appear to recognise the advantages and disadvantages of CS. They also appear to be aware of context and its importance in the decision of when, where and how often CS might be used.

All in all, students' attitudes towards CS differ, and the debate in the literature regarding the use of L1 can be seen to reflect some of the learners' attitudes. These differences in attitudes show how important it is to study classroom CS from the functional perspective to address when, where and how CS is used or avoided. While many learners suggested an English-only environment with no reference to Arabic, a few others suggested and encouraged the use of Arabic. A third group suggested an initial use of English with reference to Arabic if needed, and on specific occasions. The fourth group of learners, however, argued that factors such as the subject being taught, the students' major, and the teacher's judgment in the classroom should be considered before encouraging or discouraging the use of Arabic. They explained

that Arabic might be allowed for learners who study English as a secondary or optional course, but not for those who study it as a primary course, and in case of teachers' thought that Arabic might be better used on specific occasions in the classroom. It seems not only researchers and teachers have different attitudes towards CS, but even learners disagree regarding the use of L1 in the classroom. What is interesting, however, is that some learners (the third and the fourth group) show a high level of awareness regarding when and how L1 should be used. This may indicate that learners might be aware of their linguistic needs in the classroom. Also, learners' attitudes here might, in a way, reflect their future needs; learners who are likely to need English in their future life or career may, to some extent, be more enthusiastic towards an L2 only environment. For example, learner 4-I, who showed his fear of losing the sense of dealing with his major (computer science) where everything is in English. This is in contrast to interviewee 35-I who supported switching to Arabic as English was an optional course for him and the use of Arabic may help to deliver the message more quickly. This, however, does not necessarily mean it is better to learn L2 by adapting an L2 only policy, rather than allowing the occasional use of CS

This study also investigated another issue regarding the use of CS in the classroom: learners' attitudes and thoughts about the effect of CS on second language learning, and whether they look at it as a beneficial tool, or an obstacle towards language learning (Q5 in appendix 5). Students' attitudes towards this question were varied, and can generally be divided into three groups. The first group of students appear to accept the notion that the use of Arabic (L1) might help in learning English. Of course, participant 9-I replied, adding that because Arabic is my first language, there should be a link in order to understand questions in Arabic first, and then in English. Learner 10-I also states that ('yes, of course beneficial'), adding that if Arabic is used extensively it would not be good for us, yet if used sparingly for important information in order for students to understand and focus, then it is beneficial. Respondent 19-I also agrees with his colleagues claiming that the use of Arabic would help, as it delivers information more quickly. One of the students (14-I), however, differentiated the teacher from learners and argued that, teachers' use of Arabic is good, whereas we as students are weak and therefore, nobody would blame us for the use of Arabic. Those learners appear to come from the same direction as most recent studies, which generally support helpful and functional CS (e.g. Cook 2001; Swain and Lapkin 2000, Gauci and Grima 2012; Anselmo and Williams 2012) in a controlled and rationalised way. Their awareness of factors such as time limitations, the advantage of linking the two languages and comparing them while

learning the second, and the use of L1 for important announcements seems to reflect learners' awareness of the potential advantages of L1 use. However, it may indicate that L1 is actually being used and they are not necessarily convinced with the potential default policy of L2 only use; in contrast, they seem to clearly support the use of L1.

The second group of learners, however, disagree with the idea that using Arabic would be helpful in the classroom, and may represent the thoughts of some researchers regarding the exclusive use of L1 (e.g. Willis 1981; Cummins and Swain 1986; McDonald 1993). Learners' attitudes might refer to the adoption of what they think is the institution's policy: an L2 only policy or the negative attitudes of some teachers towards the use of Arabic. There is a possibility that their attitudes as adult learners represent an accumulation of their experiences of learning English in different settings, where the policy of L1 use differs. Using words such as ('no' and 'of course no'), those participants expressed their attitudes towards the supposed benefit of using Arabic in an English language classroom. Interviewee 7-I, for instance, suggested that an only English context would be beneficial for us. Another learner (18-I) claims that in cases of using Arabic, we would not benefit. Two more participants (4-I and 13-I) suggest, ('English is better'). Another student (6-I) also argues that, as a computer science student, I do not think that Arabic is useful, as everything in our studies is in English, and that is why I prefer English. More enthusiastically, participant 8-I criticizes his context claiming that, sometimes, some learners say that we will never understand English, trying to make an Arabic atmosphere in the classroom. ('I do not like that,') he comments, arguing that the teacher should never allow this to happen. Learners' attitudes here may reflect their actual beliefs about the use of Arabic. However, these attitudes may also indicate that some teachers may massively (unnecessarily) use Arabic, and such overuse may lead some students to oppose the use of L1 to prevent what might be considered an excessive use of Arabic.

The third group of learners, who appeared to be the majority, were more analytical and specific towards the effect of using Arabic in language learning, as they discussed how much Arabic should be used, the context, learners' level and other factors that could decide whether Arabic might be appropriate in each particular case. This implies that many of the learners show a good level of awareness and is reflected in their detailed attitudes towards the use of L1, not simply agreeing or disagreeing with its use. Learner 2-I, for example, argued that the use of Arabic might be good for some issues, but not for others, whereas learner 1-I suggested that using Arabic to translate words might be good, but not during the lesson that should be in English. Learner 16-I also suggested the use of Arabic to clarify issues.

Participant 24-I claimed that Arabic might be useful, but only after a learner's attempt to use English. Student 22-I supports his colleague in the use of Arabic for translation, but argued there was no need to use Arabic for presentations or grammar. Learner 25-I also cautions that Arabic would be completely unhelpful in listening and speaking courses, whereas it might be useful for explaining and for grammar courses. Learner 33-I stated that it depends on the course being taught, clarifying that a course in study skills, for instance, is best explained in Arabic, whereas a course in grammar required the use of English. Participant 35-I also suggests that Arabic might be useful in the early stages (for beginners) of language learning, but not in the longer term, and commented that English should be employed on a step-by-step basis.

Surprisingly, some students place the onus on teachers. ('It depends on the teachers' methodology') learner 12-I suggests, adding that some teachers' methodologies need the use of Arabic, whereas others do not. Respondent 30-I also suggests that Arabic might be good when the teacher finds himself forced to refer to it, and to clarify for students who do not understand. Interestingly, participant 37-I raised the issue of teachers' skills, arguing that some teachers do not need to refer to Arabic as he has the skills and methods of teaching that make learners understand, even if he only talks in English. Other teachers, on the other hand, do not have such skills, and thus treat the course as a ('dry') course where only grammar is taught and learners do not understand, learner 37 clarifies.

In conclusion, the response of students was varied regarding their attitudes about the influence of using Arabic when learning English. Some learners argued that Arabic would be beneficial (1) if used sparingly, (2) as it delivers information quickly, and (3) it reflects teachers' use of a link between the two languages by using them together. This possibly supports a group of researchers who state that L1 might be a potential cognitive tool (e.g. Cook 2001; Swain and Lapkin 2000). Other students show a varied-extent refusal of the use of Arabic, using words like ('I don't think so'), such as the learner from computer science department who argued that Arabic is not at all useful in his context. This group appears to support a number of researchers (e.g. Willis 1981; Cummins and Swain 1986; Macdonald 1993) who, in general, prefer the exclusive use of L2. A third group of learners, the majority, tried to be more analytical and specific discussing the amount of Arabic used, the context, learners' level and other factors that may decide if Arabic is useful or not in each particular case. Those learners showed a level of awareness of when and how L1 might be useful, and in which context or course. These questions, according to Hall and Cook (2012), have been

raised recently in a number of studies that call for a balanced use of L1 (e.g. Turnbull and Arnett 2002; Meiring and Norman 2002; Turnbull and Dailey-O’Cain 2009). Those particular learners stated that Arabic might be helpful for translating the words of teachers, which may save time, and for clarification. Some learners argued that although English should be adopted initially, reference to Arabic should happen in cases when English based strategies are unsuccessful. A number of learners also added that such use of Arabic should not occur during communication, or in listening and speaking classes, where, according to learner 25-I, it might be completely unhelpful. It was also suggested that Arabic might be helpful when used, step-by-step, in the early stages of beginners’ language learning. Interestingly, some learners placed the onus on teachers, arguing that as methodologies differ, it should be the teacher’s decision whether or not to use Arabic. Finally, another learner blamed teachers, arguing that some did not have the skills to use English-only methods or techniques, and this led them to use Arabic.

4.3.1.3 Participants’ society, culture and CS

This section will analyse and discuss students’ answers to question 6 ‘Do you think that there are social or cultural factors, which may encourage or discourage CS in EFL classroom?’ This question aims to investigate if students view social and cultural factors as potential influences in their choice of codes. Shin (2010) states that CS often reflects the cultural and social identities of the speaker (e.g. Foley 1997; Myers-Scotton 1993b; Siegel 1995). Auer (1998:322) also states that “conversational code-switching is so heavily implicated in social life that it cannot really be understood apart from an understanding of social phenomena.” Nilep (2006) adds that there would be a risk of missing important aspects of meaning and functions if the analyst ignores invisible social and cultural factors in the data. Thus, learners were asked in the interview whether factors such as power, shyness or religious factors might encourage learners to switch codes. Despite the fact that CS in the classroom may differ from CS in daily life, the classroom is a context that cannot be isolated from the influence of society and culture, and these factors may influence the choice of codes. However, although some participants agreed that culture and society might influence their choice of codes, others said that society and culture would not have such an influence. Some participants argued that social and cultural factors would not decide the code used in the classroom. Participant 8-I, for example, argues that if these social and cultural factors appear, then we should avoid it, and we need to use English outside our communities. This attitude may indicate learner’s

awareness in the importance of creating an English environment within the classroom to help them learn.

Another group of learners argued that social and cultural factors do influence their choice and this leads them to use Arabic on specific occasions, mentioning embarrassment, shyness and fear of committing mistakes, as well as religious and cultural values as motives in their use of Arabic. My friends, student 2-I argues, do not accept my use of English and ask me to speak in Arabic, as they feel afraid of not understanding my utterance. It is a psychological factor, learner 22-I adds, reflected in shyness from the learner himself. Interviewee 3-I also adds that fear is the factor which makes learners avoid English. Other students add that they may refrain using English to avoid mistakes. If I doubt a word, respondent 14-I argues, I sometimes feel embarrassed or shy to say it, although I think sometimes that it is the right word. Student 26-I also criticizes this situation arguing that students are my friends and there is no reason to worry or feel afraid, but it is shyness, the learner comments. Some learners, interviewee 23-I adds may probably avoid English in order to avoid his colleagues laughing or what his colleagues might see as showing off, which makes the learner revert to Arabic. Respondent 24-I adds that it is a mixture of shyness and fear of people thinking I am showing off. It appears, according to learners' attitudes, that shyness, or what can be described as being afraid or hesitant to speak in English, is a real obstacle and may prevent learners from talking in English, especially when learners are unsure of their ability to say what they mean in L2 (English). Such embarrassment or shyness can be seen as a reaction or an expected result of peer pressure, and seems to reflect the power of peer pressure as a social factor. This may lead some learners to switch to Arabic as a safe haven, instead of accepting what learners may consider it a challenge to utter words or sentences in English, but with the possibility of committing mistakes, as part of a function of linguistic insecurity (e.g. Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult 1999). Learner 17-I, however, suggests the use of Arabic for greetings, saying 'إحنا والله..ودنا نحافظ على شعائرننا وعلى مقوماتنا وعلى مبادئنا الإسلامية' ('We *wallah* ('swear') hope that we keep our Islamic rituals, principles and elements'), ('it is our custom') learner 30-I also adds. As the data in 4.2.2.2 shows, teachers' and learners' use of Arabic for greetings such as 'السلام عليكم' ('Peace be upon you') reflects that some participants cling to Arabic for greetings. This implies and reflects the importance of social and cultural values, and their relation to the speaker's choice of codes, even in an institutional context such as an English language classroom.

To conclude, social and cultural influence was a point of debate in students' thoughts. While a few mentioned that these factors may not influence their choice of code in the classroom, others argued that such social and cultural factors do exist, mentioning embarrassment, shyness, and fear of committing mistakes along with religious and cultural values (e.g. greetings) as motives for the use of Arabic. Nation (2003) suggests that learners may refer to their L1 due to their low proficiency or shyness and lack of enthusiasm to communicate in the target language.

4.3.2 Teachers' attitudes

This section will discuss the attitudes of teachers towards CS. Sixteen teachers were interviewed; the five who were recorded in the classroom and eleven additional teachers. The teachers were asked 10 questions (see appendix 6), the answers of which may help to understand their attitudes towards CS in the classroom. Answers to question 1 will be discussed in 4.3.2.1, answers of question 2 will be discussed in 4.3.2.2, answers to questions 3, 4 and 5 will be discussed in 4.3.2.3, responses to question 8 will be discussed in 4.3.2.4, and finally the answers to question 9 will be discussed in 4.3.2.5. Answers to questions 6, 7 and 10 were not analysed or given themes, as they appeared to have less importance with regard to their content, although a few of the answers to these questions might have been used to discuss the analysed questions.

4.3.2.1 Teachers' understanding of CS

The first question in the interview was about the background of the teachers and their awareness of the concept "Codeswitching". This aimed to identify the teachers' understanding of the concept and its applications. Teachers' answers varied from the majority who provided a definition of the term using words such as ('mixing') or ('shifting') and those who provided longer definitions and clarifications of the concept, to others who declared they had not heard the English term itself, yet understood once it had been translated. The first small group of teachers declared that the concept was new to them. 'Code?' teacher 16-I wonders, ('it is the first time I've heard about it'). Respondent 10-I also replied, ('to be honest, I haven't heard about the term CS, but I know what you mean'). This may indicate that although some teachers are not aware of the term CS, due to their unfamiliarity with the literature of CS in the academic field, the concept of CS seems to be well-known.

Most teachers provided what might be considered definitions or descriptions to reflect their understanding of the concept. Teacher 1-I defines CS as mixing, or shifting, which is the attempt to borrow from Arabic or any language in general. Teacher 3-I also describes CS as mixing English, Arabic and German in his Syrian context, or borrowing a word from the mother tongue to the target language. Teacher 4-I also describes CS as what happens when a teacher or learner needs to use a word that would not be understood in English. In addition, teacher 7-I describes his understanding of CS as shifting to the speakers' language from the target language. I heard one of the teachers talking about it as shifting from one language to another, interviewee 9-I states, asking, ('it might be a teaching method? I don't know'). CS, according to respondent 12-I, is a terminology that indicates the speaker's use of L1 in L2 and vice versa, whereas teacher 13-I describes it as a movement or transfer from one language to another, from Arabic to English for instance, which needs skill. Interviewee 14-I also describes CS as ('the use of the target language, English in my case, along with some use of the teacher's mother tongue, which is Arabic'), adding that code means language and switching means change. It seems here, (except for teacher 16 who said he had not previously heard the term CS, and teacher 10 who said that he had not heard the term but knew what it meant), that the majority of teachers were aware of the term and its meaning, and supported their answers with definitions and interpretations, or a general description of the concept. The contributions of the teachers might reflect their awareness of the phenomenon, whether from previous studies in higher education or, for some of the teachers, from research experience, including those who might not be aware of the term, but know the concept. Therefore, the teachers' awareness of the phenomenon seems also to influence their contributions, not only in this interview question, but also in their answers to the other questions that appeared critical, analytical and in-depth.

4.3.2.2 Teachers' attitudes towards CS

Teachers' attitudes towards CS in the classroom varied, and their responses to explain and discuss the context and its influence were detailed and specific; this may reflect their awareness of the concept and its applications. Their awareness, however, seems unsurprising, as all teachers are qualified and specialise in English teaching. Most teachers showed that they support the use of English most of the time; some, however, suggested an exclusive use of English. Teacher 3-I, for instance, suggests no reference to Arabic at all, likening the learner's situation to that of a child acquiring his first language through continuous listening despite his probable lack of understanding that might gradually help the learner develop his

English learning. The attitude of teacher 3 appears similar to teachers who consider, as in Chowdhury (2013), that they should not switch codes in the classroom. Teacher 5-I, however, suggested that Arabic needed to be used, but only for a limited time, adding that if used when it appears to be needed, it might remove the obstacle of students' fear when learning a new language as they may feel worried when learning a new language, which then makes me minimise the use of Arabic gradually. The attitude of teacher 5 does not seem to carry feelings of guilt, as found in Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009) and Littlewood and Yu (2011); in contrast, no guilty feelings appear, and this has also been reported in the findings of Simon (2001). Here, the teacher provides situations in which he seems to be convinced that the use of Arabic is appropriate.

Another group of teachers stated that their attitudes depend on the course being taught. Teacher 4-I suggests that Arabic should never be used in speaking classes, whereas other courses may need such reference. 'والله أنا يعني مش من أنصار أنه نستخدم الكود سويتشينو.. خاصة للمدرس' ('I swear I am not from the supporters of using CS, especially for the teacher'), participant 14-I states, adding that for students, however, we are more flexible. For English major students, the teacher clarifies, I encourage them and push them to use only English, whereas for learners in other majors, it is allowed. For teachers, I agree with it for reinforcement or explaining difficult things, teacher 14 adds. Surprisingly, however, interviewee 6-I argued that for students in non-English departments, the default is Arabic, arguing that learners in the geography and Islamic studies departments do not understand; however, for learners in the English department the situation differs, as level 1 differs from level 8, the beginning of the semester differs from its end, and the speaking course differs from the grammar class. Teacher 6 continues that for me, I use Arabic, especially with learners in level one, where Arabic should be used for joking, comments and new words which might be difficult to explain in English.

A third group of teachers argued that their attitudes depend on the learners' level, and appeared to agree with what teachers have mentioned in previous studies; L1 use might be helpful with low level learners (e.g. Rahimi and Eftekhari 2011; Gauci and Grima 2012). It is necessary, teacher 16-I claims, arguing that because of the variety in learners' level, we need it for weak learners. Teacher 15-I also discussed learners' level arguing that advanced learners need very little Arabic in comparison with low-level learners who need more Arabic. The teacher surprisingly adds that he does not recommend low-level learners to switch codes, as they are here to learn, whereas it is OK for advanced learners to switch codes as they have

some knowledge. Respondent 13-I also argues that it depends on learners' level, from beginners to intermediate, clarifying that beginners sometimes need English, whereas learners in intermediate levels need simple English and Arabic only when necessary, such as the need to ensure that learners understand important information or theories. For an advanced learner, however, teacher 13 continues, I do not agree with using Arabic because it is the only place where they can practice English.

A number of teachers gave an in-depth discussion of situations within the classroom, and suggested strategies and solutions for learners to avoid using Arabic. Teacher 11-I argues that the first element is the difficulty in delivering information unless L1 is used. The second (element) I am afraid, the teacher adds, is the teachers' limited ability to use English for long periods in the class, and the easiest way out is to use L1. Respondent 12-I also suggests that the use of Arabic has advantages and disadvantages, adding that there are reasons for the use of CS: (1) students' weakness, which leads teachers to translate; (2) teachers' weakness as they might not be able to explain in English; (3) teachers' laziness to save time; and (4) the difficulty in explaining some English terminology, such as 'courage'. The last reason in this teacher's view is similar to the findings of Then and Ting (2010); teachers use CS as it helps their students to understand terminology. Teacher 10-I, who specialises in methodologies of teaching English adds that my friends and I are aware of the old and new teaching methods. In the English department we (teachers) are asked not to refer to Arabic. However, we find ourselves compelled to use it, especially for explaining. Teacher 10 continues, learners sometimes ask us in Arabic in order for us to reply in Arabic, whether about exams or other things where the information is important. Teacher 7-I, however, suggests that Arabic would be necessary in specific cases, such as students' weakness, praise, announcing, promoting and blaming, as in these occasions, it would more effective for students, such as the word 'اجلس' ('set down') or 'بعد الحصة' ('after the class'). If these expressions are said in English it would look like fun, teacher 7 warns. Teachers, according to Then and Ting (2010), view CS as a helpful tool when giving instructions in classroom activities.

In conclusion, it appears that most teachers support the use of English, with few supporting its exclusive use. This is similar to the findings of Yao (2011) who mentioned that teachers mostly show positive attitudes towards CS in the EFL classroom, and Nadeem (2012) who reported teachers' preference to mix English and Urdu, rather than the exclusive use of English in classroom. In discussing their attitudes towards CS, teachers explained that it depends on many factors. While it should never be used in speaking classes, it might be used

to teach other skills, to explain difficult words, to translate for weak students, joking, comments, praise, announcing, promoting, blaming, and for non-English majored students, whereas learners sometimes switch to Arabic to ask about important topics such as exams. Some teachers also demonstrated that their use of Arabic depends on the learner's level. While advanced learners do not necessarily need Arabic, beginners might need teachers' reference to it, including English majored students. Other teachers, however, suggested teachers' weakness, laziness and interest in saving time as reasons for using L1. One teacher surprisingly blamed teachers, arguing that some do not have the ability to speak in English for a long period. These attitudes reflect teachers' awareness of when L1 might be acceptable or helpful, and a broader awareness of when, how and where CS should be used in the classroom. Teachers' detailed attitudes appear similar to what Al-Nofaie (2010) reported regarding the positive attitudes of teachers in using Arabic in an English language classroom for specific reasons and in certain situations.

4.3.2.3 Teachers' perspectives on functions of CS

Teachers were also asked about the functions of CS in the classroom. Respondents reported that the CS of teachers and learners serves many pedagogical, social, cultural and management functions in the classroom. Teacher 1-I, for instance, argues that CS is at the end, delivering information, whereas respondent 2-I describes his use of CS at the beginning of the course as a motivation strategy, in order for learners not to be surprised or misunderstand. Instructions and objectives, teacher 2 adds, need to be in Arabic for learners to understand. Teacher 4-I adds that yes, when students are divided into groups, some may need to use Arabic during their interaction in order to ensure that he negotiates and interacts correctly. Teacher 11-I remarks that learners use Arabic when asking or when asking for translation. According to teacher 5-I, CS simplifies communication between him and the students, as well as using a few cultural words in Arabic to show the learner there is no 'جفاء' ('estrangement') between their mother tongue and the language they are learning, adding that translation may benefit learners as they acquire new vocabulary.

In addition, respondent 10-I, a Jordanian teacher holding a PhD, who taught an English methodology course for students in the English department, argues that in the English department I use Arabic only outside the teaching period, adding that learners may have little confidence in their abilities, which sometimes leads them to ask me questions about exams in Arabic, although I mentioned that a lot in English. Respondent 13-I, however, refers learners'

CS to a lack of vocabulary or an inability to produce a sentence in English, however, the teacher is required to deliver information and should be done in English, or Arabic when English is not understood by the learners. Teacher 3-I also argues that CS sometimes occurs unconsciously because of Arabic culture. Respondent 6-I, however, argues that as a teacher, I use Arabic when I feel learners start to feel bored to attract their attention. Also, according to respondent 9-I, the lack of an English environment, in addition to learners' weakness and their large number, forces me to use Arabic; thus, in smaller classes I can ask learners to speak in English. Interviewee 15-I also mentions that learners employ Arabic because they are not accustomed to using English. Respondent 16-I, however, argues that he needs to deliver information at the end of the day, yet everything should then be translated into English except 'اللازمة' (*ellazmah*) like the word 'طيب' ('well'), or when showing anger or for greetings.

To conclude, teachers reported that they may switch codes to: (1) deliver information and simplify communication (communicative strategy); (2) mark important information (e.g. talking about exams); (3) give instructions and objectives (classroom management) (e.g. organising the learners' seating plan as in extract 21, line 1); (4) translation (e.g. translating new vocabulary); (5) attract learners' attention (as in extract 25, line 1); (6) as a motivational strategy at the beginning of the course; (7) for affective functions such as anger (as in extract 16); and (8) for greetings (as in extract 20), due to students' weakness, lack of an English environment, and a large number of students according to teacher 9.

Teachers were also asked about their reaction towards learners' CS. CS was considered a practice to avoid in a foreign language classroom, if not forbidden (Simon 2001), because of its believed harmful influence on foreign language learning. Ironically, however, CS in the work of researchers has been seen inevitable; teachers who switch to the mother tongue may feel guilty about doing so. Thus, CS was seen as intrusive in the classroom when it comes to developing communicative competence (Simon 2001). Therefore, our aim here is to investigate teachers' reaction towards learners' CS. Many teachers indicated that they would try to minimise learners' use of CS. Teacher 10-I, for instance argues, of course I try to minimise it in the teaching period, in contrast with other times where I think it is not a problem. Teacher 3-I also states that of course I don't encourage it; I do not accept it, but at the end, I suffered 'الطبع يغلب التطبع' ('old habits die-hard'). Respondent 4-I also claims that he tries to minimise it as much as possible, because the less CS, the more evidence appears of students' greater understanding and comprehension. Respondent 11-I began his answer by

saying that he wished CS would completely disappear, arguing that in writing, for example, they need to think in English, not in Arabic; ‘fail faster, succeed sooner,’ the teacher comments. These attitudes tend to discourage L1 use, whereas teacher 5-I said he would encourage it, but with the minimum amount, adding that overuse of Arabic, which learners prefer, would remove them from an English speaking environment. Interviewee 13-I also adds that some cases force us to refer to Arabic; I have to go down to the students’ level, and English-only is suggested for advanced learners.

Most teachers, however, confirmed their reaction would depend on the level of the learners. Respondent 16-I, for instance, mentions that he would do both, encourage and discourage CS, clarifying that I would encourage it if I need it, and discourage it with advanced learners; it depends, the teacher comments. Teacher 14-I also says that he prefers an English speaking environment, continuing that in his MA research he found that learners get used to Arabic and become lazy if they are exposed to it a lot, and that English-only is better, especially for English department students. Interviewee 1-I also suggests that CS should be limited, adding that learners actually differ; while some of them come from urban areas, others are from civil areas, and continues that this is a very important point as it might indicate the extent to which learners are exposed to the foreign language. Students in civilized areas (big cities), teacher 1 adds, are exposed to the Internet and new mobile phones, so their motivation for the language is higher, whereas learners from villages have less motivation. Teacher 2-I also remarks that it depends on the level, adding that with native teachers, no way for Arabic, yet if learners and teachers share the same language, CS is OK in the beginning (e.g. for instructions). However, teacher 2 adds, overuse of Arabic may lead them to use an Arabic structure in English, continuing, my reaction would depend on the intentionality of the use of Arabic and whether the learner has English strategies, where I would help him with English strategies. Teacher 7-I also argues that of course I would limit it and use it only in limited situations, and this is for the English department students, but for others, it would depend on learners’ level.

To conclude, many teachers reported that they prefer not to use Arabic and would try to minimise its use. This appears similar to what Yao (2011) argued, that researchers and teachers are concerned with minimizing the use of L1, believing it might indicate failure in the learning of the foreign language or unwillingness to learn that language. However, some teachers reported occasions when Arabic might be needed and its use would not be avoided, such as using Arabic with learners from urban areas whose exposure to English differed to students from civil cities, with beginners, or with non-English department students to ensure

that learners understand. This supports the findings of Rahimi and Eftekhari (2011) and Gauci and Grima (2012) that the attitudes of teachers indicate that using the L1 can prove useful for low-level learners. However, some teachers did not hide their hope to create an English-like atmosphere, but, as one teacher argues, the situation pushes towards the use of Arabic.

Teachers were also asked about their awareness of the department/college's policy regarding the use of L1, if such a policy existed. Some teachers were also asked about what they expected the policy to be, if they were not aware of it. A few teachers mentioned that they had not heard of the policy, whereas others were unsure they knew it, or had heard about it. A third group, however, showed their awareness about the existence of such a policy. The first group of teachers remarked that they were unaware of any such policy. Respondent 3-I stated that he had not heard anything. Interviewee 6-I also reported that there was no policy, adding that there was some caution or advice in department meetings, but no written policy. With regard to the policy, however, I have no idea about it, teacher 5-I replies, continuing, I do not think there is a policy; I didn't hear anything, he adds. Other teachers, however, were not completely sure about the policy, such as teacher 7-I who claimed that depending on what he studied; it was not allowed in the English department, unlike other departments. Respondent 9-I mentioned that he thinks that the university would recommend the typical strategy, which is English based, although those persons, the teacher comments, may find themselves using Arabic if they are in my position. Teacher 1-I said that universities of course have a policy for this, adding, I heard an advice in courses advising avoiding it (L1), but not as a policy. However, teacher 1 adds, the actual situation would determine whether to use it or not. Respondent 8-I also says that what I am aware of in our English department is that they advise us not to refer to Arabic at all, and I agree with them. Respondent 15-I reports that what I heard is that it is neither allowed for English department learners nor for others. Teacher 11-I also says that from my experience in five universities, I think that they encourage English use, although they do not prohibit L1 use, and each teacher can use his way and approach of teaching.

The third group of teachers appeared to be aware of the university or school policy. Interviewee 10-I reports that in medical, computer science and pharmacy schools, we are advised to use only English, whereas the actual situation, however, is not like this and teachers use Arabic. Teacher 13-I also states that for English department learners, an English-only atmosphere is suggested, but sometimes we need to refer to Arabic according to

students' level in order for the situation not to be a one sided talk; 'Don't keep the rules, but don't kill the spirits,' the teacher states, adding that in other departments, however, Arabic might be used. Also, according to respondent 16-I, the head of the school advise English-only, but I don't think that is acceptable, teacher 16 argues, adding, that in Egypt for example, they encourage it (Arabic), but when and for whom? the teacher wonders. They encourage it only in the first three months, teacher 16 replies, and they encourage it in courses like Essay, Grammar or Phonetics, but not in Literature or Conversation just for learning.

To conclude, there seems to be uncertainty among teachers regarding the policy of using L1 in the classroom. Merritt et al. (1992:118) mentioned four factors that control the use of CS in the classroom, with "official school policy" being one. In addition, many recent studies on the functions of learners' CS question and criticize an English-only policy in the classroom and advocate multilingual practice (Sampson 2011). Thus, theoretically, policy might influence, or may even be an indicator that puts behaviour under control. The data shows that while some teachers report they had not heard of a policy, another group insisted they did know or had heard of it, whereas a third group were unsure if a policy existed. Some teachers, however, reported that advice is sometimes given in department meetings, but there is no written policy. It also appears that some who are aware of the policy do not necessarily adopt it, or are even convinced by it. A number of teachers, who knew the policy, stated the advice was to use English for both students of the English department and the non-English departments. Others argued that the exclusive use of English is suggested only for English department students. Regardless of their awareness of the policy, many teachers said that while they were advised or forced to use English, it was not always possible to apply the policy in every situation, adding that students' level, the course being taught, and the time of the year are all factors to consider before suggesting or applying the policy. This may imply the existence of a gap between the policy of the school or department on the one hand, and teachers' actual practice on the other hand. While the policy may suggest English-only, at least for English-majored learners, some teachers argued that they might need to switch to Arabic, even for English-majored students. Therefore, it is suggested that when discussing the decision of whether Arabic needs to be used or not, teachers should participate in making these decisions. A question that might also be raised within the context of the language classroom is the reason behind a hesitation of policymakers to change the policies of L1 use, after recognising a gap between theory and practice. What seems to be preventing

policymakers from such decisions is the potential overuse of L1, whether by teachers or learners, which can be difficult to control. Therefore, policymakers seem to evade changes in policies and prefer to keep the status quo, although they know that CS is very likely to occur, and that prohibiting L1 is an unrealistic rule (e.g. Raschka et al. 2009).

4.3.2.4 CS and potential language learning

Many researchers (e.g. Chaudron 1988; Krashen 1982; Macdonald 1993) suggest that only English should be used in classroom, adding that learners should be exposed to a sufficient amount of the target language in order to develop their proficiency, and L1 in this case deprives them from such needed input (further issues discussed in 2.4.1). Despite the common occurrence of CS in the context of language teaching, Pan and Pan (2010) add that CS is criticized for its possible interference with the acquisition of the target language. Many researchers, however, state that L1 use can be a cognitive tool that may aid in second language learning (e.g. Brooks and Donato 1994; Cook 2001), and this leads them to argue about the appropriate alternation between the first and the second language in an EFL classroom (Liebscher and Daily-O’Cain 2005). Thus, teachers were asked about their thoughts of the relationship between CS and foreign language learning; whether CS or L1 use might help students learn the foreign language (English), or could it be an obstacle that prevents or disrupts foreign language learning.

The data shows that some teachers tend to support the notion that CS has a positive effect in learning English, possibly when necessary, and because of its potential useful functions, especially for beginners in the English language classroom. Teacher 1-I says ‘ اتوقع انه يعني له ‘ (‘I expect that, I mean, it has, I mean a positive effect, but still limited’), adding that according to my experience, it might not be required in some good learning cases, whereas it is required varyingly in other situations. I think the use of Arabic would not negatively affect his learning, teacher 1 summarises his attitude. Teacher 5-I adds ‘أعتقد أنه ممكن يكون فيه أثر إيجابي’ (‘I think there might be a positive output’) because the avoidance of Arabic, the teacher justifies, may cause some worry to learners and this fear may lead them to lose their abilities to learn English. However, teacher 5 reminds, this should be ‘في إطار محدود’ (‘limited’). By saying ‘في إطار محدود’, the teacher seems to be excluding unnecessary use, probably in cases where English is expected to be understood by learners. Respondent 10-I also started his answer saying ‘أنا ما أحب أبالغ’ (‘I do not like to exaggerate’) clarifying that using a little Arabic would not necessarily affect their learning in my opinion,

but in contrast, it might help learners sometimes, as in translation and phonetics, where I think it is positive in their learning, responsibly however, the teacher adds.

Other teachers, on the other hand, disagreed with the notion that using Arabic would help in learning English. Teacher 8-I, for example, argues that using Arabic would not make them learn English because they would not be exposed to the system (English); it is a use of a different system (Arabic). Teacher 3-I also argues that of course it has a negative effect, arguing that in my opinion, it is not good for teachers, in order not to forget the language, and for learners, to build their linguistic abilities. Teacher 4-I adds that it affects your confidence, clarifying that if you have less confidence in English, then you would refer to Arabic, arguing that it has a negative effect on learning. In addition, teacher 11-I says that 'كثرة استخدام اللغة العربية داخل الغرفة الصفية .. يآثر سلبا على تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية' ('the abundance of Arabic use in the classroom would negatively affect English learning'), arguing that there are no pluses in my opinion, and even the oriented message should be in English in my opinion.

A third group of teachers argued that the use of Arabic has both advantages and disadvantages. Teacher 6-I, for example claims there are positives and negatives, arguing that positives appear in using Arabic for grammatical rules, whereas the negatives in using Arabic are clear, as an English learner should learn English, and if he uses Arabic, how he would learn, the teacher adds. This necessity teacher 6 continues, leads us sometimes to use Arabic. For advanced learners however, the teacher suggests, it might be used just outside the subject, or sometimes for a comparison of phonetics between Arabic and English. Teacher 7-I also mentions that advantages appear when they (students) need it to help them in their study, because some situations force us to refer to Arabic, whereas what is negative is the excessive use of Arabic, because if he (the learner) get used to listen to Arabic, this would affect his listening skills. Other teachers were more specific when judging the influence of CS. Teacher 9-I raises the issue of learners' level, arguing that for advanced learners English would be better, whereas for beginners, Arabic might be better because they don't understand English. Teacher 12-I also claims that it depends on the course, clarifying that if it is a comparison course, Arabic might be allowed. Teacher 15-I argues that for English department learners, it has a negative effect as the more they practice English, the more they learn, whereas reference to Arabic appears to be flexible with others, and might be good for clarifying things. Teacher 16-I also states that it is a matter of quantity, arguing that too much use has a negative effect and a controlled use has a positive effect.

To conclude, as with arguments in the literature about the role of L1 in the English classroom, the responses of teachers towards the influence of Arabic in teaching English varied. Some argued that it might be a good tool in the L2 learning process; others said the use of Arabic would not benefit learners. A third group, however, showed that in its relation to language learning, CS has both advantages (e.g. teaching grammar and phonetics, and when teachers feel it is needed), and disadvantages (reflected in the excessive use of Arabic in the English class). Other teachers were more specific, arguing that its pluses or minuses depend on factors such as: (1) students' level, it might be useful with beginners, not with advanced; (2) the course being taught, it might be useful in courses that need comparison, but not when used in other courses; (3) students' major, it might be unhelpful for students in the English department in contrast to learners from other departments where Arabic might be beneficial when used for clarification; and (4) the quantity, while overuse of Arabic might be obstructive, its controlled and aimed use might have a beneficial influence. When these attitudes are compared with the data of the study that discussed the functions of CS, the reader can see some situations where CS potentially appears useful, especially for the learners participating in this study who are mostly beginners. Repetitive functions (4.2.2.2), metalinguistic functions (4.2.2.4), and reinforcement (4.2.2.6-C) seem to support what some teachers' attitudes in this study indicate: there is a potential benefit in the use of CS, especially with beginners. Some of the teachers' detailed answers above tend to reflect a noticeable amount of argumentative and critical sense when discussing CS and its relation to language learning. Therefore, teachers, as an essential part of the language learning process, should be engaged in decision making with regard to the policy of L1 use.

4.3.2.5 Teachers' thoughts of social and cultural motivations for CS

Although the classroom is an institutional context that has specific characteristics that differ from outside the classroom context (see 2.2.6), social and cultural motivations and their influence cannot be isolated from teachers' behaviour, including their speech and choice of codes. The findings of Hobbs et al. (2010) shows that teachers' culture of learning might, and often does, influence the CS of language teachers. Thus, to address and clarify these factors if they exist, the interviewees were asked whether society or culture might motivate teachers or learners to switch codes in the classroom. Some teachers stated that social and cultural factors are unlikely to influence CS in the classroom, yet the majority mentioned occasions when CS could quite possibly be influenced by social or cultural factors. The first group of teachers argued that such an effect is unlikely. Teacher 15-I replied ('no, I do not think so'), therefore,

he thought such an affect was doubtful in his opinion, and teacher 3-I reported that he did not believe that such factors led to an avoidance of English. Teacher 2-I added that such an influence is negligible and that previously people considered it as showing off, whereas now, English is available everywhere. Teacher 14-I excludes such an influence, arguing that he believes it is more academic than social or cultural, adding that greetings would not affect learning as they are outside the academic context. I use Arabic in greeting, teacher 14 adds, and culture or religion cannot be isolated from learning.

Many other teachers, on the other hand, mentioned social, cultural or religious factors might influence the choice of codes. Many respondents reported examples of social occasions that might influence CS. The general atmosphere in society, according to teacher 4-I, does not encourage speakers to talk in English although speakers have a great desire to do so. Respondent 6-I also reports that shyness sometimes, as well as what we call showing off as a higher-class person are factors that may prevent learners speaking English. When such students asked, teacher 6 continues, they reply, my friends in the classroom think that I am flexing my muscles in front of them and that is why I avoid it. Interviewee 10-I also describes shyness as a big problem in Saudi Arabia, whereas teacher 9-I argues that some learners feel embarrassed and afraid of committing mistakes. Teacher 11-I also reports that students avoid English because they do not have enough confidence, and teacher 16-I mentions that he intentionally makes errors to be corrected by learners to show them that everyone makes mistakes. Teacher 16 continues that Ahmed (another teacher) only speaks in English in and outside the classroom. Religiously and culturally, teacher 4-I argues that our pride in our language might be reflected in an avoidance of English. Respondent 7-I adds that sometimes we feel cautious in saying words like ‘girlfriend’, which is not accepted in society. Greetings, teacher 7 adds, might have a better effect in Arabic. In addition, teacher 10-I says that greeting I think in Arabic are OK, adding that I cannot imagine a student saying ‘hi’ on entering the classroom. It is the culture, the teacher adds, arguing that even when an American Muslim comes here and offers a greeting, he would say (*Salam*). Teacher 16-I also states that there is some Arabic terminology such as ‘الله المستعان’ (‘God is the helper’) that is regularly spoken in Arabic, whereas teacher 5-I remarks there are some words like ‘إن شاء الله’ (‘If God is willing’), that are likely to be unconscious and understood by foreigners, and learners may also use these words.

To conclude, teachers’ thoughts regarding social and cultural factors, and their influence on code choice, varied. Some teachers argued that social and cultural factors are unlikely to

influence the choice of codes, believing it might be academic rather than social or cultural factors, and that using English is no longer considered showing off as it is used everywhere. Other teachers argued that such influences might happen, providing social and cultural occasions when CS might be influenced. The social occasions were: (1) the general atmosphere; (2) learners looking at each other; (3) fear of being considered a show-off; (4) shyness; (5) embarrassment; (6) fear of committing mistakes, and (7) lack of confidence. The cultural and religious occasions mentioned were: (1) pride in the mother tongue; (2) sensitivity of using specific words; (3) greetings, and specific religious or cultural terminologies, as factors or occasions when speakers might switch into Arabic.

4.4 General discussion

It seems that the functions of teachers' and learners' CS are not necessarily similar. In general, students used CS for linguistic insecurity, socialising functions, repetitive functions, collaborative functions, asking for confirmation or help, as fillers or slips of the tongue and as a result of language transfer. However, despite these functions being varied, the frequency of when they occur differs. Unsurprisingly, the linguistic insecurity function of CS seems to be used often, and may possibly reflect students at beginner or intermediate levels, and gives itself significance and priority for analysis and discussion. Although students in the Saudi context should ideally have studied English for more than six years before university, many can be described as beginners, and this may also play a role in their greater use of CS. This supports what has been suggested in the literature: there seems to be a correlation between speakers' proficiency in the target language and the type and amount of CS (Bullock and Toribio 2009). According to Poulisse and Bongaerts (1994), the occurrence of language switching tends to be related to proficiency in English, the more the speaker is proficient, the less likely unintentional CS will occur (Genesee et al. 1996; Kasper 2004). This has been noticed in extracts 1 and 2, as discussed in (4.2.1.1), as well as many other examples where learners are most probably beginners. Context is also suggested to affect how often L1 use occurs. Rababah (2002) remarks that in an Arabic context, owing to lack of sufficient vocabulary, Arab learners (beginners) cannot sustain a conversation for extended periods in authentic communicative situations. However, this is not necessarily true. Arab learners, are generally good, if not among the best learners, at least when compared with many learners of English whose L1 is not Arabic, and it also depends on the level of students. Contextually as well, Storch and Aldossary (2010) add that a higher use of CS in EFL classroom might refer to learners' sharing the same L1. Therefore, it can be concluded that placing learners, who are

generally beginners, in a context where they and their teachers share the same L1, might be an expected setting where CS is common among learners. Although other functions, such as repetitive functions and asking for confirmation, were detected many times in the data, the majority of CS cases among learners fall under linguistic insecurity. This result would be expected and logical, and in the same vein of many studies in the literature where CS has sometimes been considered a tool to achieve interactional goals (e.g. Auer 1998; Gumperz 1982; Li Wei and Milroy 1995; Myers-Scotton 1993b; Shin and Milroy 2000).

Teachers, on the other hand, switched codes for affective functions, socialising functions, repetitive functions, metalinguistic functions, classroom management, as slips of the tongue, as a result of cueing and for reinforcement. Teachers' functions of CS generally fall under the above eight functions (discussed in 4.2.1), and while students used CS for linguistic insecurity (discussed in 4.2.1.1) more often than any other function, none of teachers' functions (discussed in 4.2.2) appeared much more frequently than the others. Also, these tend to cover social, pedagogical and management functions, while repetitive, metalinguistic and responding to cueing tend to serve the pedagogical function, through which the use of Arabic appears to be part of the teachers' method to teach English, affective and socialising functions tend to serve or reflect a social dimension, whereas classroom management functions reflect the management function of CS. It might be argued that when looking at the teachers' CS, except those thought to be slips of the tongue, these functions may directly or indirectly serve the pedagogical aims; from those that appear to directly serve pedagogical functions (repetitive, metalinguistic, responding), to most of what might be seen as social functions (e.g. greetings), as well as classroom management functions. Teachers, for instance, may use Arabic for social functions to create a friendly atmosphere to gradually engage beginner learners into classroom activities.

When compared, there are both similarities and differences between teachers' and learners' functions of CS (see figure 4.1). These differences might be expected; for teachers, it might be unusual if they use their mother tongue due to linguistic insecurity (the function most used among learners). Teachers are expected to have a minimum level of proficiency in the target language, allowing them to speak exclusively in that language without a breakdown in communication forcing them to refer to their mother tongue. Therefore, no examples in the data show teachers' reference to Arabic due to linguistic insecurity. The same applies to language transfer, which might be understood if used by beginners, but not English teachers. Also, there are functions such as praise, which may represent the teachers' role of employing

L1 in the classroom in a positive way, to encourage learners to talk in L2. Both teachers and learners switched codes for socialising functions and values. This may indicate their importance, not only for learners, but also for teachers, and not necessarily because teachers and learners share the same L1, but perhaps they consider these social or cultural utterances, such as greetings, an important part, or markers of their identity (e.g. Uys and Van Dulm 2011).

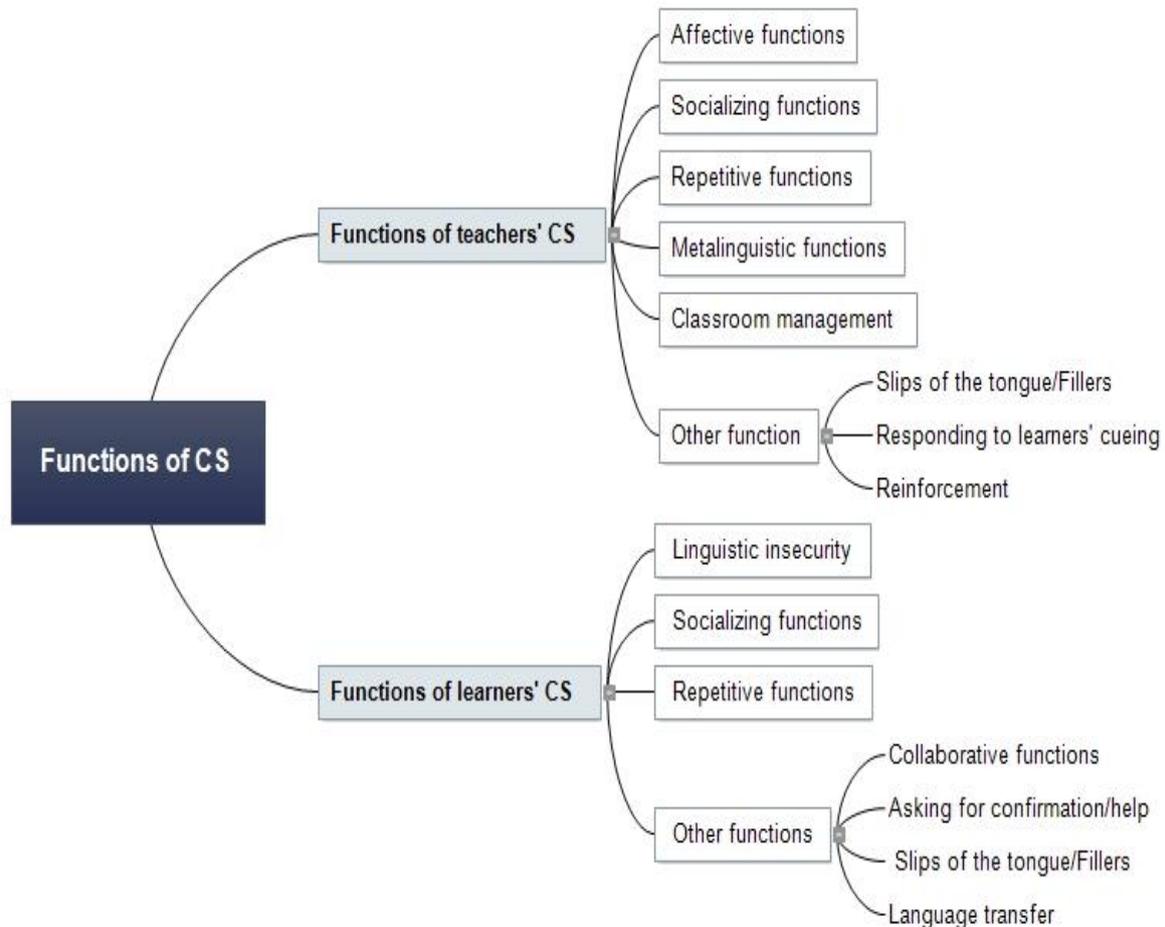


Figure 4.1 Functions of teachers' and learners' CS

With regard to the attitudes towards CS, functionally, although most students agreed with the need to use L1, it appeared interesting how their expressions differ. Many used terms such as ('urgently', 'if necessary', 'in the worst case,') others used ('of course') and ('natural,') referring to the use of L1 when answering the first question in the interview. This indicates a variety of opinions towards CS, and while some view it as a final option, it does not appear to be a final option for others. For students also, social and cultural influence was a point of debate in students' thoughts. While a few mentioned that these factors may not influence

their choice of code in the classroom, others argued that such social and cultural factors do exist, mentioning embarrassment, shyness, and fear of committing mistakes along with religious and cultural values (e.g. greetings) as motives for the use of Arabic. Nation (2003) suggests that learners may refer to their L1 due to their low proficiency or shyness and lack of enthusiasm to communicate in the target language.

For teachers, some reported occasions when Arabic might be needed and its use would not be avoided, such as using Arabic with learners from urban areas whose exposure to English differed to students from civil cities, with beginners, or with non-English department students to ensure that learners understand. This supports the findings of Rahimi and Eftekhari (2011) and Gauci and Grima (2012) that the attitudes of teachers indicate that using the L1 can prove useful for low-level learners. However, some teachers did not hide their hope to create an English-like atmosphere, but, as one teacher argues, the situation pushes towards the use of Arabic. A gap however appears here between teachers' actual practice of CS and their counting of advantages for CS on the one hand, and their hope to create an English only atmosphere in the other hand. Also, as many teachers reported that reference to L1 is usually not preferred by the department, the same contradiction or gap appears between the policy on the one hand, and teachers' actual practice on the other hand. While the policy may suggest English-only, at least for English-major learners, some teachers argued that they might need to switch to Arabic, even for English-major students. Such contradiction might be referred to teachers' view of the exclusive use of English as an ideal way of teaching.

Proudness of the mother tongue; sensitivity of using specific words; greetings, and specific religious or cultural terminologies, were factors or occasions mentioned by teachers when speakers might switch into Arabic. When comparing the data outlined in 4.2.2.2 regarding teachers' use of CS for socialising (e.g. greetings), to the elements mentioned above by teachers, it appears that many teachers support such a reference. This shows the value of these cultural and religious terms and justifies their use. The use of Arabic greetings by those in this study is essential. They are required and represent the speakers' identity, and their use is the norm. Neglecting to use such greetings, or neglecting to reply, is unacceptable and even deplored. The Markedness theory of Myers-Scotton (1993b) therefore seems to be applicable in the Saudi context and social motivations mentioned above appear to be explaining the functions of CS. As a result, it can be said that in such a context where learners share the same L1, the social and cultural motivations for CS seems to be influential in speakers' choice of codes. Hence, the importance of these cultural terms appears, and one justification

or reason for such an importance, in this study, is that teachers and learners share the same L1, and to some extent the same culture.

This chapter presented, analysed, and discussed selected extracts from the classroom of teachers' and students' CS under their respective themes, in order to recognise the various functions of CS of both teachers and students. Subsequently, the attitudes of teachers and students revealed in the interviews were presented and discussed to address their attitudes towards CS in the classroom. The next chapter will contain a summary of the findings, limitations, implications, recommendations and contributions of this study.

Chapter 5. Conclusions

5.1 Overview of the chapter

Following an analysis of the functions of CS and attitudes towards it, discussed in chapter 4, this chapter begins with a summary of the study's findings. Next, the study's limitations will be presented and clarified, followed by a discussion of the contextual, social/cultural and linguistic implications, together with the consequences of using L1 within teaching and policy-making. Recommendations will also be presented, and finally, contributions of the study.

5.2 Summary

This study aimed to investigate the functions of teachers' and students' CS in the EFL classroom, and the attitudes of teachers and learners towards it. To answer the first and the second research questions regarding what functions does the CS of students and teachers serve, analysis from video recordings and interviews shows that students switched codes for: (1) linguistic insecurity; (2) socialising functions; (3) repetitive functions; (4) collaborative functions; (5) to ask for help/confirmation; (6) slips of the tongue; and (7) as a result of language transfer. Teachers, on the other hand, switched codes for: (1) affective functions; (2) socialising functions; (3) repetitive functions; (4) metalinguistic functions; (5) classroom management functions; (6) slips of the tongue; (7) to respond to learners' cueing; and (8) for reinforcement. However, some examples of CS in the data seem to be multifunctional, and can be listed and discussed under more than one of the functions above (e.g. asking for confirmation and queuing). Also, there are cases when the functions seem to overlap (e.g. affective and socialising functions; they may look similar and difficult to distinguish). In addition, some functions of teachers' and learners' CS are different; learners used CS for functions not used by teachers and vice versa (e.g. linguistic insecurity for learners and classroom management for teachers). This may reflect participants' awareness of the functional dimension of their CS. Finally, despite interviewing and asking participants about the functions of their CS, there are cases when the functions of CS overlap, or are unexplained, and this reflects the difficulty of studying CS functionally.

To address the third and the fourth questions, regarding the attitudes of teachers and students towards CS, interview analysis shows that students suggested they might switch to Arabic: (1) in case of the need of certain expressions from L1, (2) in peer conversation, (3) when asking about exams, and referred their use of Arabic to (4), their low proficiency and weak establishment, (5) teachers' use of Arabic, (6) the context, (7) and their fear of committing mistakes. Students' attitudes towards CS appear different. While many suggested an English-only atmosphere with no reference to Arabic a few students encouraged the use of Arabic. A third group recommended an initial use of English with reference to Arabic if needed, and on specific occasions. The fourth group of learners, however, argued that factors such as the course being taught, the students' major, and the teacher's judgment in the classroom should be considered before encouraging or discouraging the use of Arabic. Furthermore, while some learners thought Arabic would be beneficial: (1) if used sparingly, (2) as it delivers information quickly, and (3) as it reflects teachers' use of a link between the two languages by using them at the same time, other students show an objection towards potential benefits, using words like ('I don't think so' - 'not at all'). A third group of learners, however, who were the majority, tried to be more analytical and specific towards the effect of using Arabic in language learning; they mentioned the amount, the context, learners' level and other factors. Finally, some learners stated that social and cultural factors do not influence their choice of codes in the classroom, whereas others argued that such social and cultural factors do influence their choice of codes, mentioning embarrassment, shyness, fear of committing mistakes, as well as religious and cultural values, such greetings, all of which are motives for switching to Arabic.

With regard to the teachers, most were aware of the term "codeswitching" and its meaning, and gave explanations or definitions for the term, which may reflect their awareness of the phenomenon. Most teachers also support the use of English, with a few supporting its exclusive use. Some teachers were more specific arguing that it depends on the aim of CS, and while it should never be used in speaking classes it might be used in other cases (e.g. explaining difficult words and translating for weak students). In addition, some teachers showed that their use of Arabic depends on the learner's level, the course being taught or the audience. Functionally, teachers reported that CS might be used on many occasions (e.g. delivering information, giving instructions, translation), and as a result of many factors (e.g. the weakness of students or their large number). Some teachers also stated that students might use Arabic for several reasons (e.g. shyness, fear of committing mistakes, and a lack of

vocabulary). Many teachers also reported they prefer not to use Arabic and would try to minimise its use. Others reported some occasions when Arabic might be needed and thus not be avoided, such as using Arabic with beginners. Other teachers argued that their reaction would mainly depend on learners' level, arguing they may encourage the use of Arabic with beginners. A number of teachers also appeared uncertain of any policies regarding the use of L1. While some reported they had not heard about any policy, another group insisted that they knew or had heard about the university's policy, while a third group were unsure if a policy existed. In addition, some argued that CS might be a helpful tool in the L2 learning process; whereas others thought the use of Arabic would not benefit learners. A third group, however, believed that CS has advantages and disadvantages. Advantages include when teaching grammar and phonetics, and when needed; disadvantages would include its excessive use in an English class. A fourth group argued that such pluses or minuses would depend on factors such as its quantity, students' level, and the major of the students. Finally, while some mentioned the unlikelihood of social and cultural influences on choice of codes, many other teachers argued that such an influence might affect learners on occasions such as greetings, their fear of being considered a show-off, shyness and fear of committing mistakes.

5.3 Limitations of the study

The study has some limitations that need to be acknowledged. With regard to the participants, and as a result of cultural, social and institutional policies, all who took part in the study, whether teachers or students, were male. There were no female students at this male only college. Contextually, this study took place in one university in Saudi Arabia, and studied CS among university EFL students in the Arabic and English languages. It is suggested, therefore, for future studies to include other settings such as primary or secondary schools, to conduct studies in other countries, between other languages, and include more than two languages (e.g. a trilingual setting). Also, had there been more time for this study, I would have included participants from secondary or primary schools in order to compare their CS and their attitudes with the results found in the university setting. It is also important to acknowledge that some of the questions in the interviews are general and need to be more focussed to obtain more accurate answers. Although many of the participants' contributions are rich in content and detail (e.g. differentiating English majored classes from non-English majored classes with regard to switching behaviour), some questions need to be more specific. Thus, if I were to repeat the study, I may narrow some of the questions down by

contextualising the situations about which teachers' and learners' responses are analysed, in order to discuss the issues being investigated with a consideration of the specific elements included in these questions. If I had a longer time, I might have tried to record each skill within the English classrooms (reading, writing, listening and speaking, grammar), to see if there were any differences in teachers' and learners' behaviour regarding CS. Technically, although two cameras were used with good microphones in the classroom, I would have used pre-installed microphones and cameras to minimise installation time, and attached microphones to ensure that the cameras and microphones captured all actions relevant to the study. Also, if I had the chance, I would have used very small cameras to disrupt the teachers and students as little as possible.

5.4 Implications of the study

Following a discussion and summary of the study's findings in 5.2, there are a number of contextual, social, cultural and pedagogical implications that should be mentioned, together with implications for the practices of teachers within the classroom and policymaking.

5.4.1 Contextual implications

According to some learners and teachers, the context (e.g. city-classroom) might influence their functional CS and their attitudes towards it. Teachers' and students' sharing of the same L1 (Arabic) is one of these factors. Teacher 13-I, for example, argues that greetings or sneezing in Arabic might be unconscious, adding that if an English person is here, I would not say it, but we share the same L1 with learners. L1 use, according to Cook (2001), is natural in a classroom where teachers and learners share the same L1. Storch and Aldossary (2010) go further, reporting that in the EFL classroom, learners' use of L1 might be greater as all share the same L1. Another factor that appears to influence the participants' performance, especially students, is the context of the city or country. As English is neither a first nor a second language, the use of English is limited. Therefore, speaking tasks might be one of the few situations (either within or outside the classroom) where some learners speak English. Learner 19-CS justified his use of Arabic in the classroom arguing that he switched to Arabic because he was not accustomed to using English. Student 20-I agrees, describing the classroom as a non-English environment. The teachers' use of Arabic might also impact on learners' use of CS. Student 6-I, for instance, argues that many teachers explain in Arabic, as do students. Moreover, learner 8-I blames his teachers, stating that unfortunately they use

Arabic a lot. Such blame may reflect a defensive attitude and indicate the learner's feeling of guilt about his CS. This might refer to institutional policy and a feeling that many learners have: CS is not appropriate. It appears then that teachers' overuse of Arabic may motivate learners to do the same, and these factors may have a direct or indirect influence within the context of the learners' CS.

5.4.2 Social and cultural implications

According to Myers-Scotton (2001) (cited in Nilep 2006), each language in a multilingual community is associated with particular social roles. The data shows no exception, and social factors appear to influence the choice of codes; speakers take account of their values, beliefs and goals (Myers-Scotton 2001). These sociolinguistic factors, according to Gardner-Chloros (2009) are the key to understanding why CS takes a form in each case. While some of the factors are related to the speakers as individuals, others might be shared among the community group or sub-group. In extracts 19 and 20, for instance, in situations where the community share well-known words or terms such as ('إن شاء الله – السلام عليكم – وعليكم السلام'), CS appears to be religiously influenced. Despite participants' arguments of whether these terms should be used in Arabic, or whether English alternatives should be used, the use of these words, according to many participants, represent the culture to which participants belong and where they live; thus, some of the participants (teachers and learners) accepted using these terms in Arabic. Learner 17-I for instance suggests the use of Arabic for greetings arguing that we should keep some cultural values, whereas teacher 7-I argues that greetings might have better effect in Arabic. It can be argued, therefore, that these religious and cultural factors may influence participants' choice of codes. Also, power seems to be an influential social factor in the teacher-learner relationship. This can be found, for example, in the teacher's interruption of the learner's utterances in extract 16 ('Because 'ايه بس؟' ('but why?')), which may reflect the teacher's use of power to interrupt the learner.

Interestingly, other factors that appear to be influential in some learners' decisions to switch codes are embarrassment, shyness and a fear of committing mistakes. These might refer to an Arabic culture in which, although speakers tend to be talkative, committing mistakes might be considered embarrassing, and may justify some speakers in switching to L1 to avoid mistakes. Learner 3-I describes fear as a reason to avoid English, whereas learner 24-I adds that it is a mixture of shyness and being afraid of people thinking I am showing off. Some

teachers also agreed with students, such as teacher 10-I who describes shyness as a big problem in Saudi Arabia, and teacher 7-I who consider shyness the main reason for students' use of Arabic, as well as students' fear of their friends' comments, despite the ability of some of them to speak in English. Therefore, learners might be influenced by social factors, and consequently CS might take priority in order to convey meaning, rather than achieve linguistic goals.

5.4.3 Pedagogical implications

Many participants indicate that pedagogical aims might be affected when switching into the mother tongue, probably in unnecessary and uncontrolled cases. Moreover, learners in the classroom may be affected by their linguistic background together with the possibility of being influenced by social and contextual factors. Such linguistic repertoires may influence code choice (Myers-Scotton 2001). Many low-level learners, for instance, choose to refer to L1, probably without an attempt to use L2 based communication strategies, and this might indicate that a learner's low level may affect the diversity and quantity of their CS. However, this use of CS (discussed in 4.2.1.1) as a function of linguistic insecurity, appears natural and logical in classrooms where most students tend to be beginners. Also, it was found that some teachers might apply an English-only policy, at least in some occasions, which might reflect student 29-CS asking for legitimization or permission to use Arabic when asking the teacher 'أترجم؟' ('Can I do the translation?'), although the teacher and the learners used CS in this classroom. The attitudes of some learners, such as student 1-I who mentioned that CS is a natural phenomenon, yet was not good, also implied a criticism of the use of CS within the classroom. This may reflect their negative attitude towards it, and might refer to the general and institutional atmosphere that considers CS a destructive behaviour about which they feel guilty. In contrast, the different attitudes of learners and their deep analysis of situations where CS might be beneficial, such as learner 31-I who mentioned switching to Arabic when talking about exams, may indicate a high level of awareness in learners with regard to their needs, of when and how CS might be helpful or needed. It was also mentioned by a learner and teacher that one teacher applied an English-only policy, and this may indicate that the rest of teachers use Arabic; this teacher was an exception to the rule. Finally, the learner's comments about his teacher might indicate his pride and support of the teacher's policy.

5.4.4 Implications for teachers' practice in classroom

The data shows that teachers used CS in the classroom, and it is usually functional. Teacher 4-CS, for example, commented on his switch to Arabic in extract 26, mentioning a general change in his behaviour after recognising that students did not understand and this led him to use Arabic. It appears interesting that the teacher talks about a “change” in his CS behaviour, not necessarily in this example, but in general. This indicates that teachers, depending on the contextual and linguistic situation, should judge when and why L1 might be needed or accepted, via a better understanding of the pedagogical aims. Also, teachers should pay attention when learners' reference to L1 seems significant or unjustified. However, teachers should avoid switching to L1 in a way that might be harmful to learners; for example, in extract 16, where the teacher seems to interrupt the learner in Arabic, and feels surprised about his wrong answer. A teacher's interjection with the L1, as part of his general interference in the classroom, should be constructive and not obstructive (Walsh 2002) and should be done at suitable times and in an appropriate way. Therefore, the use of teachers' CS might be suggested in specific situations as mentioned in the data. For example; to explain a word or convey a message when using L2-based strategies becomes difficult, especially with beginners; to save time; in phonetics, where comparing sounds with Arabic might be useful (according to teacher 10-I for instance); to attract learners' attention; when talking about exams; for socialising (e.g. greetings, humour); and for classroom management.

Bearing the above situations in mind, and accepting the judgement of teachers of when to switch to Arabic, teachers' and learners' CS should not be overused; it needs to be controlled and functionalised in order not to affect the pedagogical aims. To control L1 use, teachers can employ several methods, such as using L2-based communication strategies and coaching learners in how to apply them, which despite the debate surround their teachability (e.g. Lam 2006), if taught and subsequently used, may help to decrease learners' undesirable switch to L1. In general, and according to most learners, teachers are advised to use the maximum amount of L2, whether with beginners or advanced students, and use the minimum amount of Arabic. However, and despite learners' desire, teachers may need to consider learners' levels. While some beginners may need teachers' use of L1 on specific occasions, advanced learners may not; thus, with advanced learners, teachers are advised to use the minimum amount, which is suggested by many learners in the data, and is the preferred option to receive maximum exposure to L2.

5.4.5 Implications for policy making

Many teachers argued that the policy of the department or college was English-only, (especially with advanced or English-majored students, though this was not confirmed by the head of the school), whereas others were either unaware or unsure of the policy. Many teachers, however, argue that although the policy is English-only, the actual situation imposes reference to Arabic, and this may reflect a gap between the policy of the school or department on the one hand, and teachers' practice on the other hand. While the policy may suggest English-only, at least for English-majored learners, some teachers argued that they may need to switch to Arabic, even for English-majored students. A question that might be asked, regarding any gap between the theory and practice of policies concerning the use of L1, is why policymakers are resistant to change, following recent studies that indicate CS is inevitable and occurs even in contexts where L1 use is prohibited. What appears to prevent policymakers from making changes is the potential for teachers and learners to use L1 excessively. It might be suggested, however, that teachers should decide when they or their learners switch to L1, and the English department, where English teachers usually work, should participate in formulating the L1 policy. This may help to prevent non-specialist staff from making such decisions; for example, teacher 16-I stated that the dean of the college, who was not a specialist in English teaching, made a policy to ban L1 and requested that teachers follow it. However, it is not clear if this was the dean's decision or if the dean simply approved an official departmental suggestion.

5.5 Recommendations

For future studies investigating CS in classrooms, I firstly recommend researchers widen the population of the study by including secondary school students in addition to university students. They should, for example, conduct a cross national study, or conduct a study in countries that have languages other than Arabic and English. It might also be of benefit for researchers to include female participants in their studies if possible, which could not be applied to this study due to social, cultural and institutional limitations. Such future considerations may help to establish a greater degree of accuracy in the findings. In addition, there are many questions that need further investigation, such as the questions concerning the policy of L1 use in the classroom, who is responsible for making the policy, and how such policies can be adopted and applied by teachers if they exist, assuming, as data in this study show, there is a gap between institutional policies and the practice of some teachers. This

issue, and other issues about the policy of L1 use can be investigated by interviewing teachers and policymakers (Ferguson 2009), whether in universities or ministries of education. Also, it might be worth conducting a comparative study to investigate CS in the classroom and its functions, taking into consideration the departmental aspect (geography, computer science, medicine), the academic year (first, second or third year) and the type of course (e.g. grammar, reading, writing) to discover qualitative and quantitative differences in the use of CS by teachers and students in each context. Although the interviews and video recordings from the classroom in this study do not show signs of the camera's influence, it might also be of benefit for researchers to assess the effects of using video cameras on participants, and whether they appeared mistrustful.

5.6 Contributions

For the field of linguistics, the study has several contributions. First, the findings of the study show that CS is inevitable; both teachers and learners use it for a variety of pedagogical, social and cultural functions. This supports the notion of Amorim (2012:187) who argues that “it is sometimes impossible, even unrealistic, for students to shut out or switch off their own language as it is an important part of their identity,” and the argument of Raschka et al. (2009) who remarked that English-only is a lazy and unrealistic rule and in such situations, it is impossible to discuss when and where the usefulness of CS can be found, and when it might appear pedagogically invalid in the classroom. Thus, instead of discussing the unrealistic rule of prohibiting L1, researchers need to discuss the questions of when, where, why and how, such inevitable use can help in the classroom. The study also shows that some functions of teachers' and learners' CS are different, as mentioned in 5.2. Learners used CS for their own functions not used by the teachers, and vice versa. This may reflect that some of their use of CS can be functional and fulfils the needs of teachers and learners. The study also shows signs of uncertainty among teachers with regard to the policy of using L1 (see 5.4.5). This possibly indicates the absence of a clear policy. Finally, there appears to a gap between institutional policy, on the one hand (if such a policy exists), and teachers' practice on the other hand. Many teachers use and support CS, although many of them know that it might be institutionally discouraged or even prohibited. This gap may either indicate that teachers are not convinced the policy works and the department turns a blind eye over teachers' practices, or that the policymakers who formulate the use of L1 may not be from the English teaching

staff. This ensures the need to engage teachers in policymaking decisions regarding the use of L1 in the English classroom.

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Task 1 Sport http://www.eslgold.com/speaking/topic_sports.html

Task 2 Transportation http://www.eslgold.com/speaking/topic_transportation.html

Task 3 Food http://www.eslgold.com/speaking/topic_food.html

Task 4 Hobbies http://www.eslgold.com/speaking/topic_hobbies.html

List of Appendices

Appendix 1 Task 1 Sports



Look at these pictures:

- 1- How many of these sports do you know?
- 2- Which one(s) do you like best?
- 3- Which one(s) would you like to try?
- 4- Who do you usually play sports with?
- 5- Why do people play sports?
- 6- Do you like to watch professional sports on television?
- 7- What is your favourite sport to watch?
- 8- Which famous athlete (sportsman / sportswoman) would you like to meet?

Talk

- 9- When and where did you learn the sport?
- 10- How often do you play it?
- 11- Why do you like it?
- 12- Who do you play/do the sport with?
- 13- Are you good at it?

Appendix 2 Task 2 Transportation



- 1- How do you usually get to work or school?
- 2- How do people in your country get to where they want to go?
- 3- Do you often take public transportation?
- 4- What is your preferred means of getting around?
- 5- What kind of vehicle would you like to drive?
- 6- What type of transportation do you use when you are in a hurry?
- 7- How do you travel when you go on vacation?

Appendix 3 Task 3 Food



What kinds of foods do you eat every day?

Do you usually eat fruits and vegetables? What kinds?

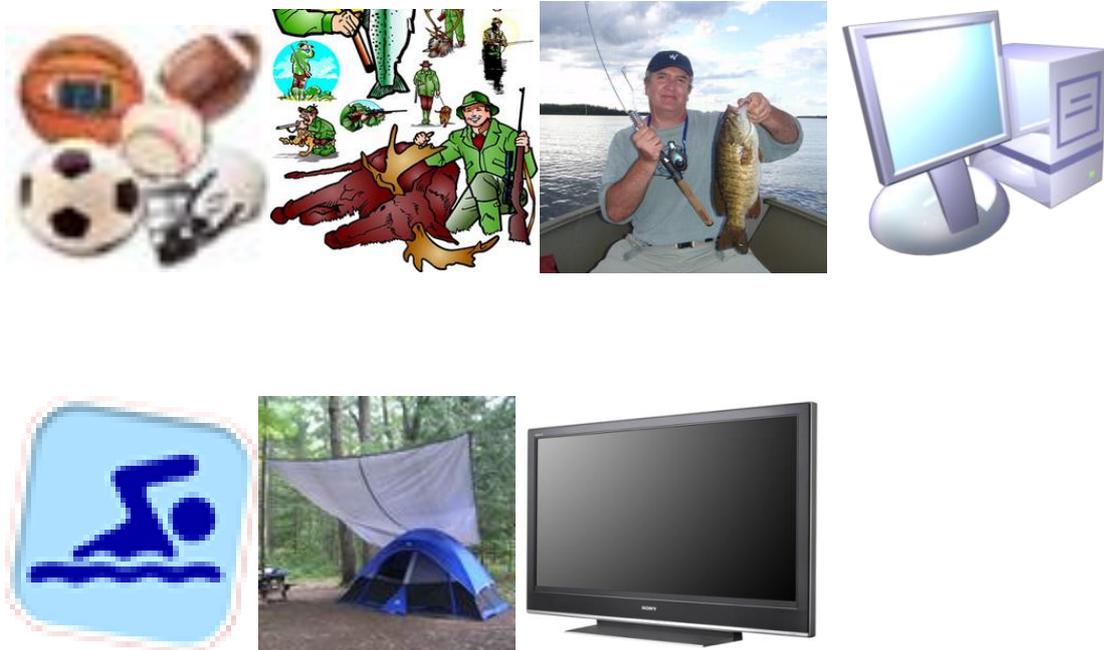
How often do you drink milk or water?

What kinds of food do you like to cook?

Where do you usually buy your food?

Is the food you eat the best for your health? Why or why not?

Appendix 4 Task 4 Hobbies



1-Do you do any of these hobbies?

2-Which one(s) is/are the most interesting to you?

3-What kinds of hobbies do your friends have?

4-How much time every week do you spend on your hobby(-ies)?

5-What are the benefits of doing something you enjoy every day?

6-Which new hobby would you like to learn? Why?

Appendix 5 Students' interview questions

Q1	<p>Q1- Can you notice anything in this short clip. Did you notice any CS?</p> <p>س1 هل تلاحظ أي شيء في هذا المقطع القصير؟ هل لاحظت وجود تبديل بين اللغات؟</p>
Q2	<p>Q2- Why did you switch codes in this situation?</p> <p>س2 لماذا قمت بالتبديل بين اللغات في هذا المقطع؟</p>
Q3	<p>Q3- What motivate you to switch codes?</p> <p>س3 هل من عوامل تحفزك على التبديل بين اللغات؟</p>
Q4	<p>Q4- What do you think about CS in classroom?</p> <p>س4 ما رأيك بالتبديل بين اللغات في الفصل الدراسي؟</p>
Q5	<p>Q5- Do you think that CS or using L1 while teaching may be positive for English learning process? And how?</p> <p>س5 هل تعتقد أن التبديل بين اللغات في الفصل الدراسي مفيد لعملية التعلم؟ وكيف؟</p>
Q6	<p>Q6 Do you think that there are social or cultural factors, which may encourage or discourage CS in EFL classroom?</p> <p>س6 هل من عوامل ثقافية أو اجتماعية تشجعك أو تمنعك من التبديل بين اللغات في الفصل الدراسي؟</p>

Appendix 6 Teachers' Interview questions

Q1	Q1-What is CS in your point of view? س1 ماهو الكود سويتشينق من وجهة نظرك؟
Q2	Q2-What do you think about it? س2 مارأيك فيه؟
Q3	Q3- What functions does it serve in the classroom? س3 ماهي وظائفه وأهدافه في الفصل الدراسي؟
Q4	Q4- Do you encourage it, discourage it or accept it as it is? س4 هل تشجع عليه ؟ نحاول التقليل منه؟ أو تقبله كماهو؟
Q5	Q5- Do you have any idea about the university or the department policy toward CS? And what do you think it is if you do not know the policy? س5 هل لديك فكره عن رأي الجامعة فيه ؟ وماذا تعتقد إن لم يكن لديك فكره؟
Q6	Q6- Does it occur a lot in the classroom, and who do switch codes? س6 هل يحدث بكثرة في الفصل الجامعي ؟ ومن قبل من؟
Q7	Q7- When does it usually occur? س7 متى يحدث غالبا؟
Q8	Q8- Do you think it has an effect on English language learning? س8 هل تعتقد بوجود أثر له على تعلم اللغة الانجليزية؟
Q9	Q9- Do you think that there might be reasons or motivations other than the pedagogical ones (social, cultural), which might lead to CS? س9 هل تعتقد بوجود ثمة أسباب غير تربوية (اجتماعية دينية الخ) تؤدي الى الكود سويتشينق؟
Q10	Q10-Anything to add about CS? س10 أي تعليق آخر بخصوص الموضوع؟

Appendix 7 Extracts of teachers' CS

Teacher 1

Classroom: Computer Level 1

10: 31

Teacher is taking the attendance name in Arabic.

.....

14:22

Student: Sportsman.

Teacher: Who is?

Student: Tennis

Teacher: لا لا (No, no) No, Person.

Student: Person آه (ah) Federer and Cristiano Ronaldo.

.....

26:47

Teacher: Finish يا شباب ؟ (guys?)

.....

28:27

Teacher: جوالك الله يعافيك (Meshary, your mobile -May God provide you with health-)

.....

30:09

Teacher: هل هذي أفضل ولا؟ (Is this better or?)
What do you think if you are eating fruits and vegetables instead of Kabsa?

Student: لا (no) this كبسة (kabsah) good .

Teacher: Kabsa is the best?

Student: Yes,

Teacher: Your discussion.

Student: No Kabsah I am bad بعدين (then) no kabsah.

.....

36:36

Someone get into the classroom: السلام عليكم (Peace be upon you)

Teacher and Students: عليكم السلام (Peace be upon you too)

.....

36:40 (approximately)

Teacher: يا شباب لاتنسوا القروبات اللي سويناها الأحد الماضي (Guys do not forget the groups that we made last Sunday).

Someone: السلام عليكم (Peace be upon you)

All: وعليكم السلام (peace be upon you too)

Teacher: Make the groups you made in the last (day?) please.....Just قروبات (groups)

يا الله يا شباب واللي غايب الله يستر عليه (come on guys, and those who are absent.. (Teacher Supplicates).

Teacher 2

Classroom Geography Level 5

00:13

Teacher: بسم الله والحمد لله والصلاة والسلام على سيدنا رسول الله (With name of Allah and Prophet Muhammad May peace be upon him) today we have topics مواضيع متنوعه يا شباب (various subjects guys) I am going to ask you about several questions.

.....

07:41

Teacher : وين؟ (Where?)

Student : بروح الحمام (I am going to the toilet).

Teacher : طيب بسرعه (Ok, quickly)

.....

7:50

Teacher: Is the food you eat the best for your health?؟ يعني صحي (I mean.. healthy?)

Student: Yes.

Teacher: Why.

Student: house.

Teacher: ok, thank you very much

.....

18:20

Teacher: What kind of food do you like to cook?

Student: I can cook the ..rice,

Teacher: Speak up please

Student: I can cooking the rice or eggs,, or بشميل (béchamel)

Teacher:؟ بشميل (béchamel?)

Student: maybe, Yes sure.

.....

24:00

Teacher: طيب سؤال للجميع (Ok, a question for all)..which famous athletic would you like to meet ?

Student: ؟ لاعب (a player?)

Teacher: Ah

Student: Messi.

.....

27:33

Student: Burger

Teacher: Burger

Student Bread

Teacher: Bread

Student: لحم (meat)

Teacher: Meat مب لحم (not meat)

Student: رز (rice)

.....

35:16

Teacher: Thank you very much. See you next time إن شاء الله (If God is willing).

Classroom Geography Level 7

1.00 Teacher is starting with (Salam), and taking students name in Arabic.

.....

1:46 Teacher: طبعاً, (of course) today we have three different topics I am going to ask you about.

.....

2:19

Teacher: Naif?

Student: Naif?... Muhammah.

Teacher: Muhammad, شف عندك طيب (Well, look at what you have got), you can see the picture, it talks about food.

.....

2:28

Teacher: What kind of food do you eat every day?

Student:.....um .

Teacher: فهمت السؤال ؟ (Did you understand the question?)

Student: لا (No)

Teacher: معناها .. وش أنواع الأكل اللي أنت تاكله,,, (Ok, let us say) what kind of food طبيب خلنا نقول ... كل يوم ؟ (It means, which kinds of food do you eat every day?)

Students: Salad... cake... سمك (fish)

Teacher: What is the meaning of سمك(fish) in English?

Student: Fish

.....

4:32

Teacher: do you usually eat fruits and vegetables?

Student: yes

Teacher: What Kind?

Student: يعني الفواكه ولا ؟ (It means fruits, doesn't it?)

Teacher: ايه (yes).

Student: aaah...orange, apples.. aah... bananas

.....

19: 40

Teacher: Which famous athletic do you like to meet?

Student: شخصية ؟ (A character?)

Teacher: ايه (yes)

Student: ولا احد (No one)

Teacher: No one?

Student: No one.

.....

21:15

Teacher: What kind? How?

Student: Train.

Teacher: Train? و (and?)

Student: Train... و (and) car.

.....

28:55

Teacher: What is your favorite sport to watch?

Student: جمباز (Gymnastics)

Teacher: جمباز ؟ (Gymnastics?)

Student: Yes.

Teacher: Which famous athletic you would like to meet?

Student: Messi

Teacher: Lionel Messi?

Student: Yes

Teacher: Why?

Student : Mmmm,, because aaaah (Laughing) ,, because he is aaaa,, aaaa

بسيط (Simple, like.....natural person
I mean... he is neither showing proudness nor conceited)

Teacher: ... زين (Well) That's good.

Teacher 3

Classroom 11: Islamic studies 5

00:33

Teacher: Today إن شاء الله (If God is willing).. we are going to have sample of questions.

Classroom 12: Islamic studies 2

16:30

Teacher: Ok طب انا حاولك السؤال بالعربي وجاوبني بالانكليزي وقالو لك والله الموجود هو اللي قدامك

Well, I will ask you the question in Arabic and you answer it in English.. and they told you that what is available is what is in front of you), which one will you choose ?

Student: Football.

Teacher 4

Classroom 4: Management Level 1

7:01

Teacher: Silence please (Until they finish, then no problem... I mean the whole lecture) لين يخلصون بعدين مب مشكلة يعني كل المحاضرة

.....

8:50

Teacher: (Those who are next) I hope all of you come. اللي بعدهم

Classroom 6: Management L4

00:51

Teacher: (The questions in page 31) we have some questions. الأسئلة اللي في صفحة 31

Classroom 7: Management Level 6

7:15

Teacher: (Guys in the back, we said no sound.... Ok, the group in the back) شباب اللي ورا بدون صوت قلنا... طيب المجموعه اللي ورا

Classroom 5: Management Level 3

5:07

Teacher: شباب... اي شخص بشوفه يتكلم تطيح عيني عليه بيطلع بره (Guys: any of you will be caught talking he will be sent off).

.....

17:30

Teacher: كملوهم اثنين.. طيب بلوت اثنين ... هالحين يجون (complete the number you two, OK two for belote.....now they are coming).

Teacher 5

Classroom 8: Preparation A

2:12

Teacher: مش عايز أسمع صوت ولا أي شيء (I don't want to hear any sound or anything else).

.....

3:17

Teacher: السلام عليكم (Peace be upon you).

Students: وعليكم السلام (Peace be upon you too).

.....

7:30

Teacher: How often?How often?

Student (2): عشان تعرف تجاوب: كم مرة ... (How many times? In order for you to know how to answer)

Student (1): اوه (Oh) because...

Teacher: Because ايه بس؟ (What because?)

.....

18:00

Teacher: إن شاء الله المحاضرة الجاية الإختبار (The exam will be in the next lecture -If God is willing-)

Classroom 10: Preparation b

1:53

Teacher: أستغفر الله العظيم (Forgiveness, my almighty God)

Classroom 9: Preparation L1 (c)

31:21

Teacher: Discuss it يا بني (son) discuss it with your friend.

.....

33:07

Teacher: طيب I ask you what kind of food do you eat every day?

Student: كيسة... همبرقر... فول

Appendix 8 Extracts of students' CS

Classroom: Computer Level 1

19:19

Teacher: What kind of food do you eat every day?

Student: Chicken with رز (rice)

Teacher: Chicken With?

Student: Rice.

Teacher: Rice Ok,,,and?

Student: همبرغر بعد (hamburger as well).

Teacher: همبرغر (hamburger) OK.

.....

19:59

Teacher: What kind of food do you like to cook?

Student: اللذي اطبخهم ؟ (which I cook ?)

Teacher: Yeah.

Student: كبسة (Kabsah)

.....

23:40

Teacher: What is the benefit of doing something you like every day? The benefit: الفائدة (the benefit?)

Student: قلت (I said) healthy.

.....

30:09

Teacher: What do you think if you are eating fruits and vegetables instead of Kabsa? هل هذي أفضل ولا ؟ (Is this is better or?)

Student: لا (no) this كبسة (kabsah) good.

Teacher: Kabsah is the best?

Student: Yes,

Teacher: Your discussion.

Student: No Kabsah I am bad بعدين (then) no kabsah.

.....

36:36

Someone get into the classroom: السلام عليكم (Peace be upon you)

Teacher and Students: عليكم السلام (Peace be upon you too)

Classroom: Geography Level 7

2:28

Teacher: What kind of food do you eat every day?

Student:um .

Teacher: فهمت السؤال ؟ (Did you understand the question?)

Student: لا (no).

Teacher: معناها .. وش أنواع الأكل اللي أنت تاكله كل يوم ؟. طيب خلنا نقول ... (Well, let us say) what kind of food. (It means, which kinds of food do you eat every day?)

Students: Salad.... Cake.... سمك (fish)

Teacher: What is the meaning of سمك(fish) in English?

Student: Fish

.....

4:32

Teacher: do you usually eat fruits and vegetables?

Student: yes

Teacher: What Kind?

Student: يعني الفواكه ولا ؟ (You mean fruits or?)

Teacher: ايه (yes)

Student:..... aaah...orange, apples.. aah.... bananas

.....

6:30

Teacher: How many of these sports do you know?

Student: Tennis, football, Hokey, Baseball..... ما أعرف (I do not know).

.....

16:40

Teacher: Do you think the food you eat is good for your health?

Student: Good, أكيد (sure)

Teacher: Why?

Student: الصحة لازم (health... necessary)

.....

19: 40

Teachers: Which famous athletic do you like to meet?

Student: شخصية ؟ (character?)

Teacher: ايه (yes).

Student: ولا احد (No one).

Teacher: No one?

Student: No one.

.....

21:15

Teacher: What kind? How?

Student: Train.

Teacher: Train? و (and?)

Student: Train... و (and) car.

.....

25:10

Teacher: What kind of food do you eat every day?

Student: Orange و (and) banana, والأبل (welapel) (and the apple)

.....

28:55

Teacher: What is your favorite sport to watch?

Student: جمباز (Gymnastics)

Teacher: جمباز ؟ (Gymnastics?)

Student: Yes.

Teacher: Which famous athletic you would like to meet?

Student: Messi

Teacher: Lionel Messi ?

Student: Yes

Teacher: Why ?

Student : Mmmm....because aaaah (Laughing)... because he is aaaa...aaaa

يسيط (Simple, like.....natural person I mean... he is neither showing proudness nor conceited)

Teacher: ... زين (Well) that's good.

Geography Level 5

03:48

Teacher: Do you know what it means, professional?

Student: محترف (professional) yeah.

Teacher: Yes.

.....

07:41

Teacher : وين ؟ (Where?)

Student : بروح الحمام (I am going to the toilet).

Teacher : طيب بسرعة (Ok, quickly)

.....

7:50

Teacher: Is the food you eat the best for your health?؟ يعني صحي (I mean. Healthy?)

Student: Yes,

Teacher: Why.

Student: house.

Teacher: ok, thank you very much

.....

14:44

Teacher: What is your favorite sport to watch?

Student: Football و (and) and basketball and tennis.

.....

18:20

Teacher: What kind of food do you like to cook?

Student: I can cook the ..rice,

Teacher: Speak up please

Student: I can cooking the rice or eggs....or بشميل (béchamel)

Teacher:؟ بشميل (béchamel?)

Student: maybe, Yes sure.

.....

19:20

Student: I want always eat Pasta.

Teacher: You like Pasta?

Student: Sure أكيد (sure).

.....

24:00

Teacher: طيب سؤال للجميع (Ok, a question for all) which famous athletic would you like to meet ?

Student: ؟ لاعب (a player?)

Teacher: Ah

Student: Messi.

.....

27:33

Student: Burger

Teacher: Burger

Student Bread

Teacher: Bread

Student: لحم (meat)

Teacher: Meat مَب لحم (not meat)

Student: رز (rice).

.....

30:00

Teacher: How often do you drink milk or water?

Student: لبن (Yoghurt milk) Juice

Management Level1

7:25

Teacher: Every day or every hour?

Student (1): No every day.

Student (2): Every day آيه (yes).. Every day.

.....

11:02

Teacher: Do you know what is this?

Student: Deskball أو (or)....

Teacher: What?

Student: Deskball ?

.....

12:35 (2)

Student: Every one hour

Teacher: or you don't drink ?

Student: لا (no) No.

Management Level3

1:30

Teacher: Breakfast.

Student: Breakfast..ammm

Teacher: What do you have for breakfast?

Student: Egg bird

Teacher: Egg?

Student: ايه (yes)

.....

2:10

Teacher: What kind of food and vegetables?

Student: aaah....والله يا استاذ ما اعرف اسمهم بالانقليزي بس فاهم السؤال (I swear teacher I do not know their names in English, but I understood the question).

.....

10:43:

Teacher: do you know what is this or this (in pictures) ah?

Student: Just football

Teacher: football

Student: football and اللي هو (what is it -filler-) table tennis.

Teacher: table tennis, nice.

.....

15:00

Teacher: Do you know how to make food?

Student: Yes

Teacher: What kind?

Student: andchickenمثلا (for example) Rice.

Management Level 4

5:00

Teacher: With families, friends?

Student: Ah... لا (no) brother.

.....

10:04

Teacher: Why do you play football? Why?

Student: Ah.... مع مين يعني ؟ متعة ... (Entertainment...with whom you mean?)

Teacher: No...why?

Student: ابيه (I see)Happy.

.....

22:08

Teacher: For you car or bus?

Student: لا (no) Bus.

Management Level 6

5:55

A student gets into the class: السلام عليكم (Peace be upon you).

Some students: عليكم السلام (Peace be upon you too).

.....

6:47

Student : Which one?

Teacher: Playing football.

Student : Uh...yea.

Student: Do you think you are good at?

Student: No no no no,not good بس (but) I have fun.

Teacher: Uh, fun.

.....

19:40

Teacher: How much time do you spend playing football?

Student: In the day ولا (or) in the week ?

Preparation L1 (b)

3:17

Teacher: السلام عليكم (Peace be upon you).

Students: والسلام عليكم (Peace be upon you too).

.....

7:30

Teacher : How often?How often?

Student (2): عشان تعرف تجاوب كم مرة ... (How many times? In order for you to know how to answer)

Student (1): اوه (oh) because...

Teacher : Because ايه بس؟ (What because?)

.....

8:10

Student: after food dinner 2 litres, and after night

Teacher: After night?

Student: مو (not) after night, last night, last night 3.

.....

8:45

Teacher : Maybe one like 2 litre, but six litre (.....).

Student (1): In TV Doctor speak Doctor TV speak six litre very good, no six litre maybe.....
(Gesturing and signalling to his kidney)

Student (2): كلية (kidney) or.

Student (1): كلية كلية (kidney, kidney).. (Students laughing).

.....

10:10 Students talk in Arabic explaining for their friends one of the questions

.....

11:00

Teacher: For vegetables?

Student: For vegetable, خيار (cucumber)I don't خيار (cucumber) in English.

.....

13:00

Teacher : Which one do you want to try?

Student (1) : وش يقول ؟ (What is he saying?)

Student (2) : شفههم (look at them)

Student (1) : I like football.

Teacher : To try?

Student (1) : To try?؟ أسويها يعني (I practice it you mean?)

Student (2) : ايه (yes)

Student : Yes, football.

Teacher : You can't play football?

Student (1): I can

Teacher : I need something to try

Student (2) : ماجربتها. (You didn't try it)

Student (1) : اووه (oh) hockey.

.....

16:18

Teacher: Where? Where did you learn playing football?

Student: Play in Cornish in thirty شسمه (what is it called? –filler).

.....

25:04

Teacher: What hobbies would you like to learn?

Student: I hope learn discover.

Teacher: Discover?

Student: Yes.

Teacher: Which discover?

Student: الإكتشاف هذي .. الصيد ... هذي (this...hunting...exploring, this)

Preparation L1 (c)

33:07

Teacher: طيب (Well) I ask you what kind of food do you eat every day?

Student: كيسة... همبرغر... فول (Kabsah...hamburger... beans).

.....

34:47

Teacher: Where do you usually buy your food?

Student: من (from) Hyper Panda.

Preparation L1

2:50

Teacher: How often you drink milk or water?

Student: من ذيلي ؟ (who are they?)

Teacher: How often?

.....

15:25

Teacher: Why you aim to learn it?

Student: Ah..... تقوي العضلات يعني (It strengthen the muscles I mean)

Teacher: Because to be?

Student: Because to be fit.

.....

22:20

Teacher: Do you usually eat?

Student: Yes, I do.

Teacher: What kinds?

Student: Fruit, طماط (tomatoes), potatoes, tomato, potatoes.

.....

26:35

Teacher : What kind of vehicle do you use when you are in a hurry?

Student (29) : أترجم ؟ (Can I translate?)

Student (28) : آخر كلمة (the last word)

Teacher : Hurry!! (Gesturing).

Student (28) : قطار كيف؟ (Train? How?)..... by car .

Teacher : Yes Hashim

Student (29) : أو (which means public transport in speed or ?)

Teacher : Train, Subway, public transportation.

Student (29) : هذا (This), Metro station.

.....

6:40

Teacher: How many of these sports do you know?

Student: Football, swimming,, this basketball, لا (no), no no no,

Teacher: Basketball?

Student: ايه (yes) basketball.

.....

9:18

Teacher: Why do you play sport?

Student: Enjoy يعني (I mean) –filler-

.....

15:43

Students whisper in Arabic

.....

16:25

Teacher: Where? Where.. I speak about the place, When, I speak about the time

Student: This, home, أو (or) Supermarket and.....(???????????????????? -Whisper in Arabic with other student-) Restaurant.

.....

18:25

Teacher: You have Potatoes.

Student: Potatoes bananas, and orange, فراولة (strawberry)

Islamic studies 5

6:04

Teacher : Is your mother or the servant cooking your food?

Student (2): تطبخ لك (Does she cook for you?)

Student (1): Yes, Rice.

.....

12:25

Teacher : With home do you usually play football?

Student (2): مع مين تلعب ؟ (With whom do you play?)

Student (1): With my friend

.....

21:34

Teacher: Do you go online and surf the internet?

Student: ايوه (Yes) .. yes.

Islamic studies Level 6

20:10

Teacher: What are the benefits of practicing these hobbies?

Student: يعني المكان اللي؟ (You mean the place which?)

Teacher: No, I am talking about the good things that you can find in these sports.

.....

At the end, the teacher started talking about the exam in Arabic.

.....

Appendix 9 Example of an interview with a teacher

Interview with teacher 15

- 1 **Interviewer:** Dr, if we began with a general question.. what an idea do you know about CS in the
2 classroom?
- 3 **Teacher:** CS is the movement from a language to another language, so if you are lecturing in
4 English and felt that your students have got what.. misunderstanding, the idea did not
5 reach them correctly, so you do “codeswitching”, to the language that you speak, so
6 you deliver the information to the student.
- 7 **Interviewer:** Nice, very nice,,aa .. your opinion about it? In the classroom.
- 8 **Teacher:** In the classroom, it depends on the learner’s level.. so if you have students who are in
9 high level or advanced in the language, aaa , the CS would be very few, so maybe one
10 word or two in the lecture, whereas if students’ level is low, and you felt that you are
11 talking to yourself, you will be forced to move to CS.
- 12 **Interviewer:** Nice,, what about learners’ side?
- 13 **Teacher:** Learners’ side, I think that for students, if you switch codes, how I would say it, you
14 make him a bit relaxed if his level is weak. If the learner is advanced, you would feel
15 that he feels upset.
- 16 **Interviewer:** But do you agree with learners codeswitching as well, or it is only teacher’s right to do
17 so?
- 18 **Teacher:** CS for weak learners, I do not recommend it, because he is coming to learn a language.
19 So, what is better is what, is to practice the language in order to get use to practice it.
- 20 **Interviewer:** Aha
- 21 **Teacher:** Whereas the advanced learner, even if he does switch codes in some occasions, it is
22 normal, why? Because “he has some knowledge”
- 23 **Interviewer:** Very nice,,aaa, its functions, according to your experience in the classroom? why CS is
24 being used? For you as a teacher and for learners,, according to what you see.
- 25 **Teacher:** I told you, for the teacher, it is only for clarifying purposes for some vague points,
26 which the students could not understand.
- 27 **Interviewer:** Nice
- 28 **Teacher:** In the lecture.
- 29 **Interviewer:** That is it only, no other reasons?
- 30 **Teacher:** Yes, only, no other reason.
- 31 **Interviewer:** and the learners? Why they use Arabic sometimes? According..

32 **Teacher:** Because he is not used to practice the language.. he is still what,, learning, so you find
33 him unconsciously moving from English to Arabic.

34 **Interviewer:** Ah

35 **Teacher:** or from Arabic to English.

36 **Interviewer:** Ah,, completely pedagogical and learning functions then?

37 **Teacher:** Pedagogical reasons, yes.

38 **Interviewer:** Very nice, aa... do you encourage it, he CS, You accept it as it is, or you try to address it
39 (discourage it)?

40 **Teacher:** Wallah, how would I say it, you encourage it as I told you if the learner level is weak,
41 you would be forced to use it, using CS, but if the learner level is advanced, no, I don't
42 recommend it.

43 **Interviewer:** Nice, so if the learner's level is weak, you say that you would be forced..

44 **Teacher:** Forced, for clarifying

45 **Interviewer:** and if his level is OK, you don't encourage it?

46 **Teacher:** I don't encourage, no no, because he is a language learner. There is a difference
47 between a language learner (English majored learner), and a learner from another
48 major.

49 **Interviewer:** Ok, let us suppose that he is a learner from another major

50 **Teacher:** A student from another major, like a student who is studying accounting, and another,
51 who is studying..., the CS is very natural,

52 **Interviewer:** Very natural

53 **Teacher:** Yes, because, how I would tell you, because his practice of the language in the everyday
54 life would not be like the practice of the student who is studying the language
55 (English).

56 **Interviewer:** Very nice.

57 **Teacher:** Yes.

58 **Interviewer:** Ok, do you have an idea about the policy of the University, or the department about it
59 (CS), or did you receive,, what,,,, any decision with regard to using it?

60 **Teacher:** Here for example?

61 **Interviewer:** Here for example

62 **Teacher:** Here, as I understood, CS is not allowed at all

63 **Interviewer:** Aha

64 **Teacher:** with learners

65 **Interviewer:** the department students?

66 **Teacher:** Students in the department

67 **Interviewer:** Or all students in general?

68 **Teacher:** No, all the students in general.

69 **Interviewer:** Generally?

70 **Teacher:** Generally.

71 **Interviewer:** Even, with other than the departments students (English department)?

72 **Teacher:** Even if they are not from the department.

73 **Interviewer:** Aha

74 **Teacher:** As far as I know, (unclear two words)

75 **Interviewer:** Nice, aa, according to your noticing recently, does it happen a lot? With regard to

76 quantity?

77 **Teacher:** you mean,,,, here

78 **Interviewer:** aha

79 **Teacher:** I do not think so, because even,, most lectures here as I told you in the beginning, try

80 to what,, try to make students used to practice the language.

81 **Interviewer:** Nice.

82 **Teacher:** And the more the student practices the language, the more his language learning

83 becomes better.

84 **Interviewer:** Aha ,, nice,, Ok, you said that it does not happen a lot?

85 **Teacher:** Aha

86 **Interviewer:** If it occurs, does it happen from teacher's side usually or from students' side more?

87 **Teacher:** Wallah,, it is expected from teacher's side, because ,, especially the teacher who has

88 an experience in the teaching field, aha,,and all Cs, even if he would do switch codes,

89 most of his switching is related to what? to the lesson,

90 **Interviewer:** Aha

91 **Teacher:** You find sometimes, you find sometimes, sometimes you ask, if the subject of the

92 lecture is long, aha, and the person want to do a refreshment for students, he might

93 do switch codes.

94 **Interviewer:** Aha, this is a new use, in the beginning it was for pedagogical purposes.

95 **Teacher:** Use for Pedagogical purposes, but

96 **Interviewer:** So there are other uses(functions)?

97 **Teacher:** Yes there are other uses. For example if he (the teacher) found the lecture boring, or

98 found for example that students, how would I tell you, their psychologist situation

99 towards the lecture is not that much, then he (the teacher) may try to do switch

100 codes, aha, in the form of fun, in the form of joke, in the form of something, and then

101 he gets back to the lesson.

102 **Interviewer:** as a kind of refreshing

103 **Teacher:** as a kind of refreshment.

104 **Interviewer:** Aha, very nice.. aaa when does it occur, is there a specific time for it? You feel that it

105 happens in a time more than others, in a class rather than another, in the beginning of

106 the class when compared with the end of it? Or t does not matter?

107 **Teacher:** No, it does not matter.

108 **Interviewer:** Aha, so in the same level (of occurrence)

109 **Teacher:** in the same level

110 **Interviewer:** In the same level,, aaa the question before the last, do you think that there is an effect,

111 whether positive or negative in students' learning of English?

112 **Teacher:** The codeswitching

113 **Interviewer:** with regard to CS?

114 **Teacher:** The CS for the language learners (English majored learners), I think that there is a

115 negative effect,

116 **Interviewer:** Aha

117 **Teacher:** As I told you, the student is coming to learn the language, so the more he practices the

118 language, the more his learning of the language becomes what?,, better.

119 **Interviewer:** Nice

120 **Teacher:** Yes.

121 **Interviewer:** and other than language learners? (English majored students)

122 **Teacher:** The non-English majored students, the other majors, I told you, the learner is not

123 required to have the language like the English majored learner. So, if you go to the

124 everyday life, his practice of the language would be very simple(limited), if he saw a

125 foreigner friend by chance for example, it is required for all to practice the language,

126 but most graduate students in the –UNIVERSITY EDUCATION?- will go where? To the

127 teaching field.

128 **Interviewer:** Very nice, with regard to those, if you use Arabic with them, non-English majored

129 learners, do you think that it would be beneficial for their learning? Or unhelpful? or?

130 **Teacher:** Helpful in clarifying some points

131 **Interviewer:** Aha

132 **Teacher:** Only.

133 **Interviewer:** So sometimes?..

134 **Teacher:** As you suggested a while ago “it seems to be during the informal chat with teachers

135 when preparing for the interviews and scheduling teachers interviews times”, if you

136 would add, if you will teach for example a new –unclear word-grammatical?- case,

137 aha, if you don't write the structure, and know how to build the structure of the
138 grammatical rule, things might be what, difficult a bit to be understood. So you may
139 try to introduce it or explain it for him in Arabic, or any other language in order for
140 him to understand it better.

141 **Interviewer:** Very nice: final question Dr, do you think there are cultural, social or religious factors,
142 or related to customs, that prevent the teacher sometimes, or make the teacher or
143 the learner sometimes use Arabic?

144 **Teacher:** No.

145 **Interviewer:** I mean some of them for example..

146 **Teacher:** As a kind of proudness of his L1?

147 **Interviewer:** No, I mean some of them might say for example I would not say (salam alaikum) In
148 English, sorry, if I would enter a location, I would greet in Arabic. In excusing for
149 example, I would not say for example: Excuse me, I would like to go to the toilet, I
150 would not say it in English. Do you face the same issue? Or you think that these
151 cultural and social factors do not have influence?

152 **Teacher:** No, of course these factors are not related. –Unclear two words- . As said, as said
153 Prophet Muhammad: if you want to be avoid some peoples evil, then learn their
154 language.

155 **Interviewer:** Aha

156 **Teacher:** So, learning a language is something positive, not negative.

157 **Interviewer:** nor from students' side? You do not notice?

158 **Teacher:** nor from students' side, as I told you, with regard to students who I taught, I did not
159 face any problem.

160 **Interviewer:** Very nice. Thousand thanks Dr, thanks for your time, you cooperation, and God bless
161 you.

162 **Teacher:** God bless you.

Appendix 10 Example of an interview with a student

Interview with student (3)

Starting at 18:45

- 1 **Teacher:** Are there specific reasons which make you use Arabic sometimes in the classroom?
- 2 **Student:** Of course.
- 3 **Teacher:** For example?
- 4 **Student:** If the Doctor himself could not deliver the information to me, or I could not understand
5 the meaning, of course I will use speak in Arabic, if the teacher is Arabic of course.
- 6 **Teacher:** But some might say no. Let me try to say what I want to say in English, and let the
7 teacher try to say what he wants in English until we reach a solution for understanding.
8 **Student:** Right, in the beginning it might be difficult, but later on.
- 9 **Teacher:** So you support using Arabic sometimes?
- 10 **Student:** No, I do not support it, only when necessary.
- 11 **Teacher:** If necessary?
- 12 **Student:** Only.
- 13 **Teacher:** Ok, nice,,, Do you think that using Arabic sometimes is beneficial in your learning of the
14 language?
- 15 **Student:** No.
- 16 **Teacher:** You don't feel that it is beneficial at all?
- 17 **Student:** Never.
- 18 **Teacher:** Some might say that in explaining and (unclear word) for example, we prefer using
19 Arabic?
- 20 **Student:** It is right that it is beneficial, but not as beneficial as English.
- 21 **Teacher:** you think that when it takes place (explaining) in English, then it would be more
22 beneficial?
- 23 **Student:** Much more beneficial.
- 24 **Teacher:** More beneficial, very nice. The final question: Dou you think there are reasons... some
25 learners have cultural, social or religious factors which prevent him from using English
26 and makes him use Arabic sometimes?
- 27 **Student:** In the course itself?
- 28 **Teacher:** In the course itself.
- 29 **Student:** (wallah) Myabe maybe the fear,, maybe.
- 30 **Teacher:** Aha.

- 31 **Student:** Only.
- 32 **Teacher:** The fear of committing mistakes for instance?
- 33 **Student:** Of course.
- 34 **Teacher:** Some might say that for (Salam), I want to get into the classroom and say (alsalamu
35 Alaikum), I don't want to say it in English?
- 36 **Student:** He might be convinced (Two Unclear words).
- 37 **Teacher:** So you think there might kind of learners who support that?
- 38 **Student:** Yes.
- 39 **Teacher:** Are you one of them? or you support the opposite like greeting in and saying good
40 morning and going out saying goodbye?
- 41 **Student:** (Wallah) it depends on the course, and your own habits, but if all students get in and say
42 (Alsalamu Alaikum), I would not be odd among them and say.....
- 43 **Teacher:** If you want to say that you need the bathroom, (went bkaramah), would you say (abgha
44 alhammam), or you would say "I need the bathroom".
- 45 **Student:** No, (dawrat almeyah).
- 46 **Teacher:** (Dawrat almeyah)..You would use Arabic?
- 47 **Student:** I would use Arabic.
- 48 **Teacher:** Ok,,, so in times like these, you might use Arabic.
- 49 **Student:** Yes, I use Arabic.
- 50 **Teacher:** Although you may know the English alternative?
- 51 **Student:** Yes I know it. It depends, if the Doctor asks for the lecture to be in English, but if he
52 explains in Arabic, what is the (mane3) of my use of Arabic?
- 53 **Teacher:** Nice, So if the teacher uses Arabic, then the student might say that I would like to use
54 Arabic?
- 55 **Students:** Yes
- 56 **Teacher:** But if he does not allow you, you can use English?
- 57 **Student:** Yes, we can.
- 58 **Teacher:** Very nice... Many thanks (Thanking learner for his time)

Appendix 11 Students who used CS

Student number	Nationality	Department	Language average level
1	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
2	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
3	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
4	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
5	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
6	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
7	Saudi	Geography L5	Beginners
8	Saudi	Geography L5	Beginners
9	Saudi	Geography L5	Beginners
10	Saudi	Geography L5	Beginners
11	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
12	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
13	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
14	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
15	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
16	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
17	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
18	Saudi	Management L1	Beginners
19	Saudi	Management L1	Beginners
20	Saudi	Management L3	Beginners
21	Saudi	Management L3	Beginners
22	Saudi	Management L4	Beginners
23	Saudi	Management L4	Beginners
24	Saudi	Management L6	Beginners
25	Saudi	Preparation A	Beginners-Intermediate
26	Saudi	Preparation A	Beginners-Intermediate
27	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
28	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
29	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
30	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
31	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
32	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
33	Saudi	Preparation C	Beginners-Intermediate
34	Saudi	Islamic studies 2	Beginners
35	Saudi	Islamic studies 5	Beginners
36	Saudi	Islamic studies 5	Beginners

Appendix 12 Teachers who used CS

Teacher	Nationality	Department of his students	Qualification
1	Saudi	Computer sciences	BA
2	Saudi	Geography	MA
3	Egyptian	Islamic studies	PhD
4	Saudi	Management	BA
5	Egyptian	Preparation (Foundation)	PhD

Appendix 13 Interviewed students

Student number	Nationality	Department	Ave of E level
1	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
2	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
3	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
4	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
5	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
6	Saudi	Computer L1	Beginners-Intermediate
7	Saudi	Geography L3	Beginners
8	Saudi	Geography L3	Beginners
9	Saudi	Geography L3	Beginners
10	Saudi	Geography L3	Beginners
11	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
12	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
13	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
14	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
15	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
16	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
17	Saudi	Geography L7	Beginners
18	Saudi	Management L1	Beginners
19	Saudi	Management L1	Beginners
20	Saudi	Management L3	Beginners
21	Saudi	Management L3	Beginners
22	Saudi	Management L4	Beginners
23	Saudi	Management L4	Beginners
24	Saudi	Management L6	Beginners
25	Saudi	Preparation A	Beginners-Intermediate
26	Saudi	Preparation A	Beginners-Intermediate
27	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
28	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
29	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
30	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
31	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
32	Saudi	Preparation B	Beginners-Intermediate
33	Saudi	Preparation C	Beginners-Intermediate
34	Saudi	Islamic studies 2	Beginners
35	Saudi	Islamic studies 5	Beginners
36	Saudi	Islamic studies 5	Beginners
37	Saudi	Islamic studies 5	Beginners

Appendix 14 Interviewed teachers

Teacher	Nationality	Qualification
1	Sudani	MA
2	Syrian	MA
3	Syrian	MA
4	Saudi	BA
5	Egyptian	PhD
6	Saudi	MA
7	Saudi	MA
8	Jordanian	MA
9	Saudi	BA
10	Jordanian	PhD
11	Jordanian	PhD
12	Saudi	PhD
13	Jordanian	MA
14	Jordanian	MA
15	Jordanian	MA
16	Egyptian	PhD

Appendix 15 Department approval for data collection

الرقم:			المملكة العربية السعودية
التاريخ:			وزارة التعليم العالي
المشروعات:			جامعة الإمام محمد بن سعود الإسلامية
الموضوع:			كلية الشريعة والدراسات الإسلامية في الأحساء
			قسم اللغة الإنجليزية

سعادة المشرف على المبتعث / فهد بن خليفة الملحم
في الملحقة الثقافية في بريطانيا
السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ، أما بعد :
فإشارة إلى الرسالة الالكترونية التي أرسلها إلى القسم المبتعث /
فهد بن خليفة الملحم بخصوص طلب موافقة القسم على قيامه برحلة
علمية إلى الكلية للقيام بإجراء الدراسات وجمع المادة العلمية المتعلقة
ببحثه :

وظائف التبديل بين اللغات في الفصل الدراسي للغة الانجليزية

The functions of codeswitching in EFL classroom

وبإذن الله سيقوم المبتعث بالرحلة العلمية في الفصل الدراسي الأول من
العام المقبل بالتحديد من السبت تاريخ 26 / 10 / 1432 هـ

الموافق 24 سبتمبر 2011 وحتى الأربعاء 1433/1/26 هـ

الموافق 21 ديسمبر 2011

عليه فإن القسم لا مانع لديه من قيام المبتعث / فهد الملحم بقيامه بهذه
الرحلة العلمية في الكلية .
شاكرين ومقدرين اهتمامكم

رئيس قسم اللغة الإنجليزية

د. ناجي بن إبراهيم العرفج

كلية الشريعة والدراسات الإسلامية بالأحساء، ص ب: 1730، الأحساء: 31982،
فاكس: 5869488 (03) هاتف 5820441 (03)