

The Effect of Code-Switching on Iranian Elementary EFL Learners' Oral Fluency, Accuracy, and Willingness to Communicate

Saeid Noorbar*

Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Qazvin, Iran

Homa Jafarpour Mamaghani

Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Qazvin, Iran

Abstract

Regarding the issue of whether or not the use of L2 learners' mother tongue should be allowed in the classroom, there has been a discord among scholars, each giving reasons for their claim. Considering this lack of consensus, this study was an attempt to investigate the effect of code-switching (CS) on Iranian elementary English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' oral fluency, accuracy, and willingness to communicate (WTC). To carry out this study, a sample of 60 high-elementary level EFL learners was chosen to take part. After a Key English Test (KET) was administered to ensure homogeneity of the learners, they were divided into two groups of experimental and control. The study used a quasi-experimental design. The instruments used to obtain the needed data were a WTC questionnaire providing quantifiable data on learners' WTC both inside and outside the classroom, and the speaking section of a KET as pre-test and post-test to see whether the learners' oral fluency and accuracy changed significantly over the course of the treatment. The results of a Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) statistical analysis revealed positive effect of CS on the participants' WTC and oral accuracy and fluency. The results of the present study can contribute to the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) and be of use for practitioners and material developers.

Keywords: code-switching, willingness to communicate, oral fluency, oral accuracy

* Instructor Staff member of Tabriz University, Tabriz, Iran

-Received on: 25/01/2017

Accepted on: 16/04/2017

Email: saeid.noorbar@gmail.com

1. Introduction

A brief look at ethnologue.com website provides a clear image of the number of living languages around the world. Based on the summary report on the website, the world contains over 7100 living languages spread over more than 200 countries (Lewis, Simons, & Fennig, 2014). Knowing this fact leaves no room for surprise to know that the number of bilinguals is far greater than monolinguals (Gardner-Chloros, 2009). The phenomenon of code-switching is considered as one of the offshoots of communication between different language varieties (Cook, 2008), as well as bilingualism.

For decades after the advent of Direct Method, it was believed that the lesser the L1 is used, the better the L2 is learned. This commonly-held belief continued to be persisted upon through to TBLT (Task-Based Language Teaching) over decades –excluding the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) now solely used in Iranian mainstream education. It is sometimes believed that code-switching occurs when the speaker is demonstrating a poor knowledge of the L2, yet Cook (2013) sees it as something a highly-skilled L2 speaker would do. Likewise, Brown (2007, p. 139) argues that “often code-switching subconsciously occurs between two advanced (L2) learners with a common first language”.

However, the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom still remains a complex issue in that it heavily depends upon the “instructional context” (Ellis 2008, p. 801). Ellis further suggests that “from an interactionist perspective, for example, emphasis needs to be given to ensuring learners receive maximum exposure to L2 input, whereas from a sociocultural perspective the L1 can serve as a tool for scaffolding learner production in the L2” (p. 801).

A number of researchers found that using the learners’ L1 in L2 classrooms could actually have positive effects on different factors of L2 learning such as learners’ oral proficiency (Mirhasani & Jafarpour-Mamaghani, 2009) and accuracy, this study seeks to investigate if WTC may also be influenced by CS. As MacIntyre (2007) argues, WTC represents the psychological preparedness to use the L2 when the opportunity arises. This requires a focus on the specific moment of decision where a L2 learner chooses to become a L2 speaker. It is suggested that the choice to initiate communication in a L2 is one of the primary facilitators of language use, and as such, may be an important predictor of language survival.

Furthermore, a number of researchers (Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Meyer, 2008; Nunan, 1999) believe that using the student’s L1 is possibly the best way to make new material relatable to the learner’s structure of knowledge, especially at low levels. According to Lightbown and Spada (1999) most teachers and researchers do not doubt that students use knowledge of their first language (and other languages they may be familiar with) to decipher the target language.

Plenty of researchers have studied the functions of code-switching to find out why teachers and students sometimes switch to L1. Some of these studies have examined functions of code-switching by students in different contexts such as Antón and DiCamilla (1998) in beginning level Spanish as a Foreign Language class, Eldridge (1996) in the Turkish context, Reyes (2004) on immigrant Spanish-speaking children, Macaro (2001) doing a case study of six student teachers in secondary school in the south of England, where the L2 of the students were French, and a lot more (see Chapter II for a detailed discussion of these studies). Some other studies have also examined teachers' and students' attitudes towards this phenomenon (Redinger, 2010; Levine, 2003; Al-Nofaie, 2010).

Studies conducted in the Iranian context include the study by Rezvani and Rasekh (2011) who examined the types and functions of CS by 4 Iranian EFL teachers in elementary level EFL classrooms in a language school in Isfahan, Iran, and they found that CS is a frequently applied strategy and a valuable resource for bilingual teachers in foreign language classrooms, and its judicious and skilful use can boost the quality of teaching. They further found that EFL teachers tended to use the learners' L1 to serve a number of pedagogic and social functions, which contributed to better teacher-student classroom interaction.

Another study carried out by Momenian and Samar (2011) with the purpose of studying the functions of CS among Iranian advanced and elementary teachers and students, and the findings revealed that the elementary teachers and students, for most of the functions, ranked higher than their advanced counterparts, which is still quite indicative of the practice of the traditional methods in the classroom.

Furthermore, Mirhasani and Jafarpour-Mamaghani (2009) conducted a study on post-beginner female EFL students at a language school in Karaj, Iran, in which they examined the effect of CS on the participants' oral proficiency. The results indicated that the subjects in the experimental group had a significantly better performance in their speaking compared to the control group. They further concluded that the use of code-switching does improve the speaking skill of EFL learners and can be used as a technique to enhance this skill.

However, none of the studies inspected the effect of code-switching on learners' willingness to communicate, as well as their oral fluency and accuracy at elementary level. Therefore, the present study emphasizes code-switching which may affect students' oral fluency, accuracy and their willingness to communicate inside and outside the classroom.

This study is an enquiry to examine the effect of code-switching on high-elementary Iranian EFL learners' willingness to communicate and

speaking fluency and accuracy. In order to carry out the study, the following research questions are posed:

RQ1: Does code-switching have any statistically significant effect on Iranian elementary EFL learners' willingness to communicate inside the classroom?

RQ2: Does code-switching have any statistically significant effect on Iranian elementary EFL learners' willingness to communicate outside the classroom?

RQ3: Does code-switching have any statistically significant effect on Iranian elementary EFL learners' oral fluency?

RQ4: Does code-switching have any statistically significant effect on Iranian elementary EFL learners' oral accuracy?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Code-switching

Over the history of code-switching research, this phenomenon has been defined differently, depending on the appearance of language shift and extent of the inserted units. Some researchers differentiate between code-switching and code-mixing, or between code-switching and language transfer (Schweers, 1999). Some researchers believe that 'code-mixing' is the parent category of code-switching and borrowing (Rolin-Ianziti & Brownlie, 2002). The following definitions provide a brief insight into how the phenomenon is seen.

- "Switching between different language varieties in bilingual or multilingual speakers depending on the requirements of the communication situation, mainly the situational formality degree is decisive for the choice of a specific variety" (Piasecka, 1988, p. 99).
- "The alternative use of two or more languages in the same conversation by bilinguals" (Macnamara, 1969, p. 13)."
- "Code-switching is the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence or constituent" (Poplack, 1980, p. 583)."

2.1.1 Functions of Code-switching in an EFL Classroom

Code-switching has been studied in both bilingual and monolingual communities which lets us fully understand the functions of code-switching (Hoffmann, 2014). Although code-switching is usually associated with bilingualism, it also "happens in monolingual contexts" (Romaine, 1995, p. 170). From this, the conclusion can be drawn that code-switching can take place between different languages in monolingual communities when people have knowledge of several languages, such as in language teaching. This section will present and briefly define each function retrieved from different classifications of code-switching.

In recent years, a number researchers have focused on the different functions that teachers follow in their code-switching to L1 (Adendorff, 1996; Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Eldridge, 1996; Gumperz, 1982; Reyes, 2004; Sert, 2005; Scotton & Yule, 1977). These functions range from classroom management to explaining difficult task procedures and giving feedback to the learners. Some of these functions will be briefly touched upon in this section.

Message Qualification and Reiteration: This function, as Meyer (2008) suggests, characterises situations where a need in students for repetitions or clarifications is felt by the teacher, especially when they are faced with instructions or other statements that the teacher feels they have a hard time understanding. Based on this view, this function reveals itself when a teacher wants to ensure that students have understood the instructions, especially if they express that they remained somewhat unclear (Sert, 2005).

Insufficient Language Skills: The lack of language skills as a function of code-switching happens very often in the classroom and is in fact the most common function of the code-switching in learner speech (Eldridge, 1996). This is due to the fact that elementary-level students are still considered basic language learners. Moreover, Eldridge (1996) found that students often their mother tongues when they have problems communicating in English. “This type of code-switching is due to the lack of target language skills” (Macaro, 2001, p. 540). Here, the lack of expertise is closely linked with the self-confidence, because some students are afraid to use the target language, although their language skills would be relatively good (Olmo-castillo, 2014).

Change of Task: This function often occurs in the speech of the teachers and is used in elementary-level classes (Blom & Gumperz, 1972). Eldridge argues that “if the subject of discussion changes, the teacher expresses it to the students using code-switching to help them to define the situation again and understand” (1996, p. 98). Here is discourse functional code-switching, in which the speaker signals to the listener that the context of the discussion changes (Auer, 1998, p. 4).

Disciplinary Action: In a study done by Liebscher and Dailey–O’cain (2005) in German context, they contended that “it is also common that the teacher immediately changed into L1 if she wants the students to listen or stop the unwanted activity” (p. 69). This is due to the fact that, they argue, because the teachers are aware of their students and their knowledge in the target language, therefore they know that the use of the L2 for disciplinary action will be unsuccessful.

Language Anxiety: Some students, especially older ones may experience a certain level of anxiety while the unfamiliar is presented to them in the absence of their mother tongue. Actually, according to Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), language anxiety has a strong affective influence on second language acquisition. Language anxiety can be broken down into three

components: 1) Communication apprehension, arising from learners' inability to adequately express mature thoughts and ideas, 2) Fear of negative social evaluation, arising from a learner's need to make a positive social impression on others, 3) Test anxiety, or apprehension over academic evaluation (Horwitz et. al., 1986, p. 68). With regard to these components, Meyer (2008) believes that allowing the use of the first language in the classroom will alleviate all three.

2.2 Willingness to Communicate

Willingness to Communicate (WTC) is defined as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with specific person or persons using an L2," (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998, p. 547). To put it another way, WTC refers to the degree to which an individual is eager to participate in interaction with other people in various communication situations. MacIntyre and his colleagues (1998) also suggest that the ultimate and fundamental goal of language instruction should be to foster WTC in the L2. As MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Donovan (2002) suggest, the greater learners' WTC is, the more frequent communication in the L2 happens in the classroom. It can also encourage what Skehan (1989) refers to as a willingness to "talk in order to learn" (p. 48).

The two key components of WTC are 'communication apprehension' and 'perceived communicative competence' (MacIntyre, 1994) which will be discussed here. Communication apprehension (language anxiety) and perceived competence have been argued by a number of researchers to predict WTC in both the L1 and the L2. In the following section, a number of these studies and findings are presented in detail.

Communication Apprehension: Communication Apprehension (CA) is defined as anxiety associated with actual or anticipated communication events (McCroskey, 1977) and is usually referred to as language anxiety when it is experienced while L2 learning is taking place. Another definition of CA was proposed by McCroskey and Beatty as "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (1986, p. 65). This phenomenon, as they state, is associated with people who fear to communicate with people and are generally apprehensive about communicating in a given situation, in the case of the current study, the classroom. Thus, there is a common belief among many researchers that if an L2 learner is highly apprehensive about communicating in the second language, it is possible that they will avoid communicating in that language.

Self-Perceived Communication Competence: SPCC refers to a person's self-evaluation of their communication ability (McCroskey, 1982). Anyadubalu states that self-evaluative "beliefs are quite vital in deciding human activity especially [when they] tend to regulate the level and the distribution of effort spent vis-à-vis the effects expected from their actions"

(2010, p. 194). Furthermore, Deci (1995) believes that “people must feel sufficiently competent at the instrumental activities to achieve their desired outcomes” (p. 64). In a study conducted by Anyadubalu (2010), he found that those who had higher self-evaluative feelings, were more likely to experience lower anxiety and better performance. In the same vein, Hashimoto (2002) found that an “increased perceived competence will lead to increased motivation which in turn affects frequency of L2 use in the classroom” (p. 57).

Educational Environment: In order to promote SPCC, the learners should have clear understanding of the goals of the course, stated in the curricula and be aware of the purpose, as well as outcomes that they are supposed to have, both in short and long term (Palacios, 1998). Two tools that are known for doing this, are ‘learner logs’ and ‘reflection journals’. By using these tools, as Kitano (2001) stipulates, learners can have a record of their own progress and then compare it to the goals that have been provided to them in the beginning of the course. In doing so, a number of scholars believe that student-centred methodologies promote this feature by providing them with a supportive learning environment (Deci, 1995; Dörnyei, 2005). In such an environment, the very act of pair work and group work can significantly contribute to lessening the anxiety, which is more helpful in this situation than whole class activities (Anyadubalu, 2010), and this can be more beneficial for lower level learners (Andrade & Williams, 2009). Gradual enlarging of pairs to small groups and then to the whole class can reduce the chance of high anxiety in learners, which in turn increases student confidence and helps them to have a better and more accurate self-evaluation (De Saint Léger & Storch, 2009).

Teacher’s Views of the Learner: How a teacher views his students can be a source of variety in the L2 learner’s SPSS accuracy. However, Dörnyei (2005) believes that scientific work done on educator factors in motivation has been scarce, but at least we know that if learning does not take place or is hindered, self-evaluation will fall, anxiety will rise and, as a result, SPCC accuracy will suffer. A significantly contributing factor in this field is Dweck’s (2006) concepts of ‘fixed and growth mindset’. As defined by him, if an educator follows a growth mindset, they believe that an individual’s efforts is the criterion for evaluating their outcomes, whereas a fixed mindset represents the belief that inherent and personal qualities of the learner are superior to their efforts. Therefore, “promoting growth mindset would seem to be one way of improving self-evaluation and lessening anxiety through more meaningful learning and feelings of achievement” (Lockley, 2013, p. 192).

To wrap up, the notion of self-perceived communication competence can be considered a significant factor influencing willingness to communicate, ultimately leading to the success or failure of L2 learning. Both of the factors, self-evaluation and anxiety, can be subject to variation and change over time, based on cultural and environmental variables. The studies discussed above,

clearly suggest that L2 teachers can try to increase SPCC by measures they take to reduce anxiety and improve self-evaluation.

2.2.1 The WTC Model

To begin with, we need to look at different types of anxiety related to L2, namely classroom anxiety, test anxiety, and use anxiety. These types of anxiety have proved to negatively impact L2 achievement (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994). The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, et al. (1986) is designed to assess three main components of anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation.

The fact that communication apprehension is considered a component of anxiety tells us that communicating in the classroom can be a source of anxiety. As far as language learning is concerned, as communication increases, so does learning that language (Rubin & Thompson, 1994). Consequently, accounting for anxiety that is caused when communicating in an L2 is an essential part of the investigation of WTC.

Researchers interested in communication and its components have been busy studying communication apprehension in L1 and its negative influence on communication (McCroskey & Daly, 1984). As proposed by McCroskey (1992), WTC features the major implication that communication apprehension, introversion, reticence, and shyness have in communicative behaviour. Two years later, MacIntyre (1994) developed a model that hypothesizes that WTC is composed of a greater SPCC and a lower communication anxiety.

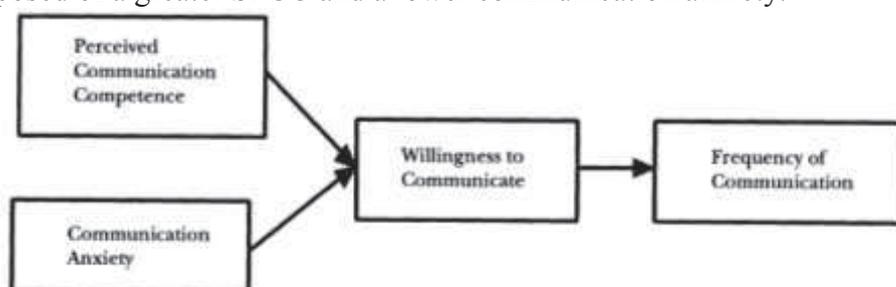


Figure 1. Portion of MacIntyre's (1994) Willingness to Communicate Model

By applying and examining this model, which was proposed for L1, to the L2 context, MacIntyre (1994) found that anxiety in L2 communication contexts and L2 SPCC had significant roles in predicting how willing to communicate L2 learners are in the classroom. A number of researchers combined this model with Gardner's socioeducational model in the Canadian context to find out whether there are significant relationships between WTC factors in an L2. They found that frequency of communication in second language can be predicted by the interlocutors' willingness to communicate,

whereas motivation was a predictor of WTC, frequency of communication in an L2, or both (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996).

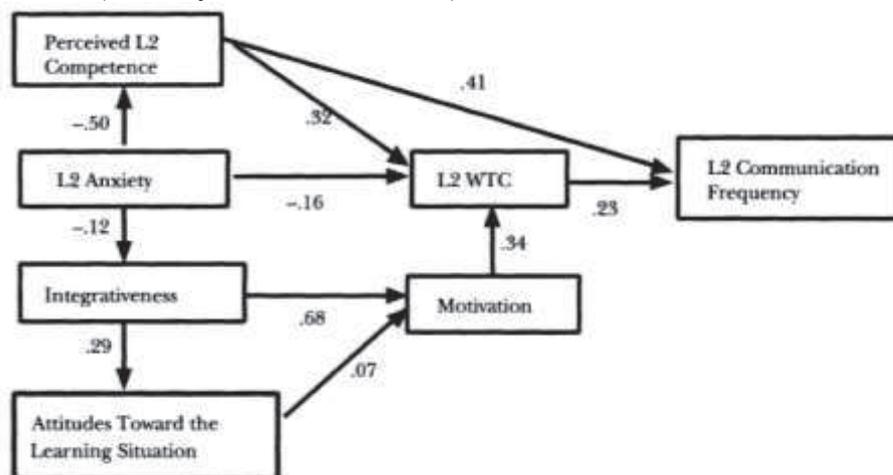


Figure 2. MacIntyre and Charos's (1996) Model of L2 Willingness to Communicate Applied to Monolingual University Students.

However, in MacIntyre's view, WTC in L2 was not regarded as a simple manifestation of WTC in L1. Learners in L2 contexts were regarded as having a much greater range of communicative competence than in an L1. In addition, "L2 use carries a number of intergroup issues, with social and political implications, that are usually irrelevant to L1 use" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 546).

2.2.2 WTC in L1

WTC in L1 is defined by McCroskey and Baer (1985) as one's stable tendency to communicate when they are free to choose to do so. Moreover, defined by McCroskey and Richmond (1990), WTC in L1 is a "personality-based, trait-like predisposition which was relatively consistent across a variety of communication contexts and types of receivers" (p. 75). To put it another way, even though variables in situation might affect one's WTC, they display regular tendencies in their WTC in different situations. They also stated that self-esteem, introversion, communication apprehension, cultural diversity and communication competence are factors leading to differences in WTC in L1.

2.2.3 WTC in L2

MacIntyre and Charos (1996) applied the WTC model described above to second language communication. WTC is an important factor in L2 learning in that interaction is considered to have a significant role in language acquisition, which has been justified from both linguistic and socio-cultural perspectives (Kang, 2005). Hence, WTC is considered as a factor that affects the frequency

of interaction (Clément et al., 2003), which can have a chief role in second language acquisition and is deemed to be a key component of modern L2 pedagogy (MacIntyre et al., 1998). In applying WTC to L2 communication context, MacIntyre et al. (2001) proposed a model, which was theoretical heuristic in nature, to account for how much individual and contextual variables affect WTC. They did this through combining both motivational and attitudinal factors. They believed that WTC is a situational variable affecting communication in the four language skills, i.e. speaking, listening, writing and reading. The pyramid model proposed by MacIntyre et al. (2001), integrates various social-psychological, linguistic and communicative variables as prerequisites to L2 communication (Peng, 2007).

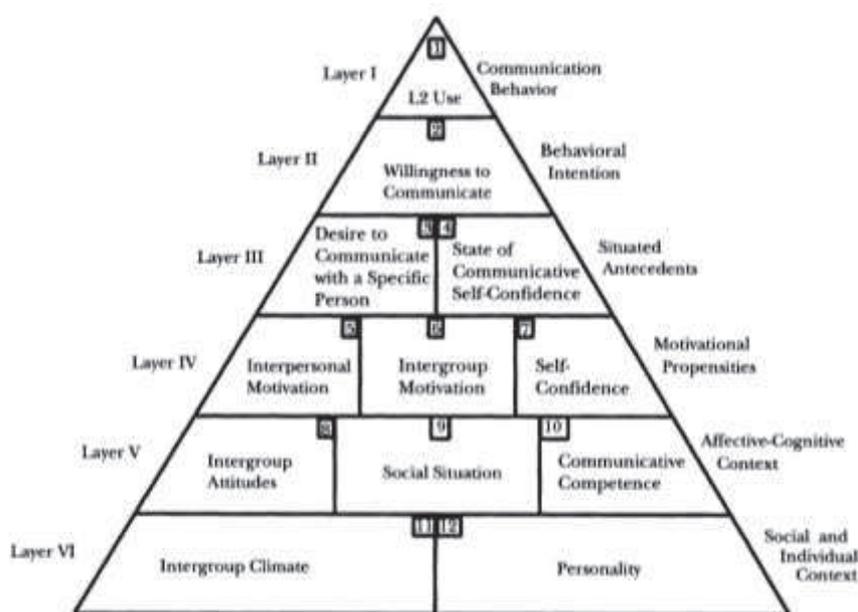


Figure 3. Heuristic Model of Variables Influencing WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

2.3 Related Empirical Studies

Since the 1980s, empirical studies have been carried out, the focus of which were on observing and analysing the use L2 and L1. The studies ranged from attempts in calculating the amount of the learners' mother tongue used by L2 teachers, to classification of different functional uses a teacher may have for using the learners' L1 analysed and found in teacher talk. This section is dedicated to briefly mention some of these studies.

Esfahani and Kiyoumars (2010) attempted to investigate the effect of code switching on learning ESP contexts in Iranian EFL learners. They chose two groups of 30 students from among university students majoring in

architecture in Shahrekord Azad University, Iran. One group was considered the control group in which code switching was forbidden and the other was the experimental group in which code switching was allowed. In the experimental group, the students were allowed to shift to Persian when they faced difficulty to express themselves. The results of their study indicated the positive effects of code switching on the development of L2 proficiency and the improvement of reading comprehension ability in Iranian EFL learners. They claimed that the findings of their study can provide support for the use of mother tongue in language classes. They also stated the “using first language in foreign language classes can be a communication strategy that helps students compensate for their deficiency in the second language” (p. 112).

Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) carried out a preliminary study of code switching in a French-as-a- Foreign-Language classroom. The study explored an extensive use of code switching in teacher’s interaction with students and defined different functions for code switching, which included: a) Linguistic insecurity, b) Topic switch, c) Affective functions, d) Socializing functions, and e) Repetitive functions. They suggested that “teachers switch code whether in teacher-led classroom discourse or in teacher-student interaction, may be a sophisticated language use serving a variety of pedagogical purposes” (p. 63).

Cipriani (2001), studied oral participation strategies in a beginner group and found out that code-switching was one of the strategies that fostered oral participation among the teacher and learners. She also found out that the teacher made use of code switching to clarify vocabulary, communicate tasks and to encourage learners to speak in English. The learners, on the other hand, used code switching as an oral strategy which enabled them to carry on speaking in English.

In her study on grammar and interaction in a pre-intermediate EFL classroom, Bergsleithner (2002), observed that the learners used code switching to better express themselves when interacting with the teacher and when negotiating form and meaning. She also found out that, in some moments, code switching arose from the need for a greater understandability of the grammar topics.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

To carry out the study, a sample of 60 Iranian high elementary EFL learners were chosen from among 100 EFL learners who were studying at Safir English Language Academy. The proficiency level of the participants was high elementary -i.e. A2 on the Common European Framework of Reference. They were only male students and their age range was between 18 and 25. The participants were either high school or university students. Regarding their L1

which is of interest to this report, they all shared the same mother tongue of Persian, the official language of Iran. In order to make sure of the homogeneity of the participants, a KET test was administered to them and the ones whose scores fell between one standard deviation above or below the mean were chosen to participate in the study. Regarding the grouping procedures, the participants were randomly assigned to two groups of experimental and control.

3.2 Instrumentation

This study used three instruments: A) Key English Test (KET), B) Willingness to communicate (WTC) questionnaire, and C) KET speaking pre-test and post-test.

3.2.1 Key English Test (KET)

In the present study, the Cambridge Key English Test (KET) also known as 'Key', was used for homogenizing the participants regarding their English language proficiency level. KET is a basic level qualification -A2 on the Common European Framework of Reference- that shows learners can use English to communicate in simple situations. It shows learners have made a good start in learning English. The KET test which was used in this study consisted of 80 questions divided in 3 sections of reading, writing, and listening.

3.2.2 Willingness to Communicate (WTC) Questionnaire

A modified version of the likert-type willingness to communicate (WTC) questionnaire developed by MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Conrod (2001) was used for measuring students' WTC both inside and outside the classroom. The scale comprised of 54 items which range from 1 to 5 (1 = almost never willing, 2 = sometimes willing, 3 = willing half of the time, 4 = usually willing, and 5 = almost always willing). Students were asked to indicate how much willing they would be to communicate during the class tasks and also outside the classroom. Since the English level of the participants was elementary and they may have had difficulty understanding the questions and, therefore, misinterpret them, the questionnaire was translated into their L1 which was Persian.

The validity of the WTC questionnaire was determined by five scholars in the field. Furthermore, values for face validity, content validity, criterion validity, predictive validity and concurrent validity are calculated and presented in McCroskey (1992). In order to determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire, a Cronbach's alpha was run on the obtained questionnaires, which were translated into Persian, and the results are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1
Reliability of the WTC questionnaire calculated through Cronbach's alpha

Cronbach's alpha	N of items
0.834	54

Based on the results of the Cronbach's alpha calculated by SPSS software, the value (0.834) shows that the questionnaire features high internal consistency.

3.2.3 Speaking Pre-test and Post-test

To test the learners' oral accuracy and fluency before and after the treatment, a Cambridge KET speaking test was administered to the participants. It is noteworthy that both the pre-test and the post-test had the same theme, but the questions and the topics for discussion were slightly different from each other. It is noteworthy that both pre-test and post-test were reviewed by two experts for the state of being parallel and they proved to be parallel tests, that is, based on common and shared specifications, the two tests were parallel. The questions were about different topics like a theatre school, asking and answering questions about a skateboarding competition, and the like.

The speaking test was administered to two participants at a time, consisting of two parts: 1) each participant interacted with the researcher-teacher, using the language normally associated with meeting people for the first time, giving factual information of a personal kind, for example, name, place of origin, study, family, etc. Participants are also expected to be able to talk about their daily life, interests, likes, etc., and 2) Prompt cards were used to stimulate questions and answers of a non-personal kind. The teacher-researcher read out instructions and gave a question card to one participant and an answer card to the other. After the participants asked and answered the questions, they changed roles and the researcher read out the instructions and gave a question card to participant B and an answer card to participant A.

Then they were assessed based on the scale developed by University of Cambridge. Furthermore, to test the speaking fluency of the participants in both pre-test and post-test, another scale was used. This study used the scale proposed and used by Freed (2000).

3.3 Material

The course book which was used in this study was English Result written by Hancock and McDonald (2008) and published by Oxford University Press which used to be the main course book being taught in the institute. The topics of the units which were taught during the treatment were 'house, home and environment' and 'planning the future'.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

In order to achieve the aim of the study, the following procedures were followed. Initially, to homogenize the participants, Key English Test (KET) was administered. 60 participants whose scores fell between 1 SD below and 1 SD above the mean were selected to participate in the study. Then the participants were divided into two groups of experimental and control.

Before the beginning of the treatment, MacIntyre et al.'s (2001) willingness to communicate questionnaire was distributed to all groups. Then they were given 45 minutes to fill them in. After this stage, the speaking pre-test was conducted to both experimental and control groups.

In the next phase, the treatment began and the participants in both experimental and control groups were taught two units of English Result during the classes. The number of sessions for each group was 20. It is noteworthy that the treatment i.e. course book, materials, audio-visual aids (AVAs), and activities were exactly the same for both groups. However, in the experimental group, the teacher-researcher code-switched to L1 when he was introducing the topic of the lesson and presenting the warm-up activity. On the side of the learners, they were allowed to code-switch to L1 whenever they felt they were coming short of finishing the sentence they started both in their pair/group work and asking for clarifications from the teacher.

After 20 sessions of treatment, MacIntyre, et al.'s (2001) WTC questionnaire was distributed to both groups again, having 45 minutes to fill it in. The results of this questionnaire was compared to the results of the same questionnaire which was given to the learners before the first session. There was also a speaking post-test in order to compare its results with the pre-test administered before the beginning of the treatment. Both pre-test and post-test were scored by two raters and inter-rater reliability was estimated the results of which are presented in Table 2 and 3.

Table 2
Inter-rater reliability for pre-test scores

		Rater 1	Rater 2
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.985**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.002
	N	60	60
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.985**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.
	N	60	60

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

The Pearson Correlation shows that there is a positive correlation between pre-test scores given by Rater 1 and those given by Rater 2, $r = .985$. $n = 60$, $p = 0.002$.

Table 3
Inter-rater reliability for post-test scores

		<i>Rater 1</i>	<i>Rater 2</i>
Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.894**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	60	60
Rater 2	Pearson Correlation	.894**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.
	N	60	60

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

The Pearson Correlation shows that there is a positive correlation between post-test scores given by Rater 1 and those given by Rater 2, $r = .894$. $n = 60$, $p = 0.000$.

Each of the pre-test and post-test yielded two different sets of results: a) speaking accuracy, and b) speaking fluency. In order to measure learners' speaking accuracy, the Key Assessment Scale was used for both pre-test and post-test. On the other hand, to measure their speaking accuracy, the researcher used Freed's (2000) proposed fluency-related factors.

4. Results and Discussion

In order to test the hypotheses of the current study which are formulated based on the above-mentioned research questions, a One-way Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was run to find out if the difference between the two groups, i.e. experimental and control, were significant in the effects of CS on the four dependent variables, namely WTC inside and outside the classroom, and oral accuracy and fluency.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

The participants of the current study aged between 18 to 25 years old. They were high school students and graduates, as well as university students and graduates.

4.3 Inferential Statistics

Four research questions were posed in this study. The first and the second research questions aimed at finding out if code-switching has any significant effect on high elementary EFL learners' WTC inside and outside the classroom. The third and the fourth research questions aimed at investigating if code-switching has any significant effect on high elementary EFL learners' oral fluency and accuracy.

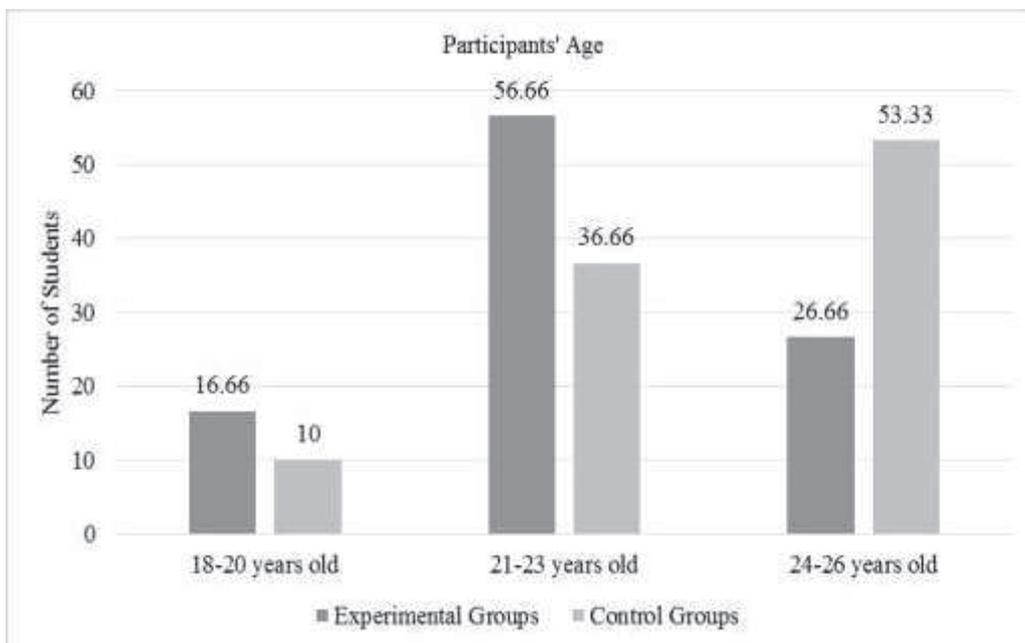


Figure 4. Graphic representation of participants' age range

In order to statistically investigate the research questions, a MANCOVA procedure was carried out. Descriptive statistics of the participants' responses to the WTC questionnaire, as well as their performance in speaking tests are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics

	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
WTC inside	Experimental	18.6333	4.55225	30
	Control	17.0000	3.24834	30
	Total	17.8167	4.00632	60
WTC outside	Experimental	20.6333	4.10621	30
	Control	17.0000	3.24834	30
	Total	18.8167	4.10247	60
Speaking fluency	Experimental	33.1333	5.65523	30
	Control	29.1667	5.47145	30
	Total	31.1500	5.86811	60
Speaking accuracy	Experimental	3.7333	1.08066	30
	Control	2.4000	.93218	30
	Total	3.0667	1.20545	60

Table 4 indicates that the mean scores of the experimental group ($\bar{x} = 18.6$) for WTC inside the classroom, ($\bar{x} = 20.6$) for WTC outside the classroom, ($\bar{x} = 33.1$) for fluency and ($\bar{x} = 3.7$) for accuracy were all higher than the mean scores of the control group ($\bar{x} = 17.0$) for WTC inside the

classroom, ($\bar{x} = 17.0$) for WTC outside the classroom, ($\bar{x} = 29.1$) for fluency and ($\bar{x} = 3.0$) for accuracy respectively.

In order to find the equality of covariance between the groups, a Box's M Test was used. The test examines the multivariate homogeneity of variances and covariances, as an assumption required for MANCOVA.

Table 5
Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's M	4.572
F	.731
Df1	6
Df2	129201.2
Sig.	.624

Table 5 shows that Box's M (4.58) was not significant, $p (.624) > \alpha (.001)$ – indicating that there are no significant differences between the covariance matrices. Therefore, the assumption is not violated and Wilk's Lambda is an appropriate test to use.

Table 6
Multivariate Tests

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis	df	Error df	Sig	Partial	Eta	Noncent.	Observed
							Squared	Parameter		Power ^c
Intercept	Wilks' Lambda	.923	1.068 ^b	4.000	51.000	.382	.077	4.271		.312
WTCi Pretest	Wilks' Lambda	.455	15.261 ^b	4.000	51.000	.000	.545	61.044		1.000
WTCo Pretest	Wilks' Lambda	.425	17.243 ^b	4.000	51.000	.000	.575	68.973		1.000
Fluency Pretest	Wilks' Lambda	.292	30.978 ^b	4.000	51.000	.000	.708	123.912		1.000
Accuracy Pretest	Wilks' Lambda	.632	7.435 ^b	4.000	51.000	.000	.368	29.739		.994
Group	Wilks' Lambda	.379	20.861 ^b	4.000	51.000	.000	.621	83.445		1.000

To determine whether the one-way MANCOVA was statistically significant, we need to look at the Wilks' Lambda value for the "Group" row. We can see from the table that we have a "Sig." value of .000, which means $p < .05$. It can be concluded that the learners' WTC inside and outside the classroom and their speaking fluency and accuracy were significantly affected by CS.

In order to test for one of the assumptions underlying MANCOVA, i.e. equality of error variances, a Levene's test was carried out. As this value is greater than .05 and therefore not significant, it suggests that the variance of

the dependent variables across the groups are not equal. In other words, the non-significant values of this test indicate that one of the assumptions of the MANCOVA procedure is met.

Table 7
Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
WTC inside	15.836	1	58	.065
WTC outside	11.727	1	58	.310
Fluency	2.345	1	58	.131
Accuracy	.995	1	58	.323

Table 8
Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^e
WTC inside Pretest	WTCi_Posttest	450.140	1	56.421	.000	.511	56.421	1.000
	WTCo_Posttest	.637	1	.092	.762	.002	.092	.060
	Fluency_Posttest	32.230	1	4.021	.050	.069	4.021	.504
	Accuracy_Posttest	.440	1	.666	.418	.012	.666	.126
WTC outside Pretest	WTCi_Posttest	3.646	1	.457	.502	.008	.457	.102
	WTCo_Posttest	395.422	1	57.284	.000	.515	57.284	1.000
	Fluency_Posttest	32.230	1	4.021	.050	.069	4.021	.504
	Accuracy_Posttest	.440	1	.666	.418	.012	.666	.126
Fluency Pretest	WTCi_Posttest	1.547	1	.194	.661	.004	.194	.072
	WTCo_Posttest	4.977	1	.721	.400	.013	.721	.133
	Fluency_Posttest	1023.633	1	127.712	.000	.703	127.712	1.000
	Accuracy_Posttest	.008	1	.012	.915	.000	.012	.051
Accuracy Pretest	WTCi_Posttest	5.676	1	.711	.403	.013	.711	.132
	WTCo_Posttest	3.521	1	.510	.478	.009	.510	.108
	Fluency_Posttest	19.425	1	2.423	.125	.043	2.423	.334
	Accuracy_Posttest	20.172	1	30.555	.000	.361	30.555	1.000

Table 8 indicates that code-switching has a statistically significant effect on all four dependent variables of WTC inside the classroom ($F(1, 54) = 4.22$; $p < .05$; partial $\eta^2 = .072$), WTC outside the classroom ($F(1, 54) = 26.59$; $p < .05$; partial $\eta^2 = .33$), speaking fluency ($F(1, 54) = 30.59$; $p < .05$; partial $\eta^2 = .36$) and speaking accuracy ($F(1, 54) = 39.79$; $p < .05$; partial $\eta^2 = .42$).

Table 9
Estimates

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>Group</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>95% Confidence Interval</i>	
				<i>Lower Bound</i>	<i>Upper Bound</i>
WTC inside	Experimental	18.566	.516	17.532	19.600
	Control	17.067	.516	16.033	18.101
WTC outside	Experimental	20.567	.480	19.605	21.529
	Control	17.066	.480	16.104	18.028
Fluency	Experimental	33.173	.517	32.136	34.209
	Control	29.127	.517	28.091	30.164
Accuracy	Experimental	3.729	.148	3.431	4.026
	Control	2.405	.148	2.107	2.702

Table 9 helps to get a better understanding of how the covariate has adjusted the original group means. This table indicates that the mean values have changed compared to those found in the ones presented in Table 6. These new values represent the adjusted means (i.e., the original means adjusted for the covariate).

Consequently, after finding out that there was a statistically significant difference between the adjusted means, a Bonferroni procedure was conducted to find out where the differences lie. This is reported in Table 10, as shown below:

Table 10
Pairwise Comparisons

<i>Dependent Variable</i>	<i>(I) Group</i>	<i>(J) Group</i>	<i>Mean Difference (I-J)</i>	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>95% Confidence Interval for Difference</i>	
						<i>Lower Bound</i>	<i>Upper Bound</i>
WTC inside	Experimental	Control	1.499*	.730	.045	.036	2.962
	Control	Experimental	-1.499*	.730	.045	-2.962	-.036
WTC outside	Experimental	Control	3.501*	.679	.000	2.140	4.861
	Control	Experimental	-3.501*	.679	.000	-4.861	-2.140
Fluency	Experimental	Control	4.046*	.731	.000	2.579	5.512
	Control	Experimental	-4.046*	.731	.000	-5.512	-2.579
Accuracy	Experimental	Control	1.324*	.210	.000	.903	1.745
	Control	Experimental	-1.324*	.210	.000	-1.745	-.903

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

The result of the post-hoc comparison using the Bonferroni procedure indicated that the mean difference between the experimental and the control groups in WTC inside the classroom was significant ($M = 1.49$, $p < .05$). Moreover, the mean difference between the experimental and the control groups in WTC outside the classroom was significant ($M = 3.5$, $p < .05$). The results of the Bonferroni test also indicate that the difference between the experimental and the control groups in oral fluency was significant ($M = 4.04$, $p < .05$). By looking at the last row of the table, it can also be inferred that the difference between the experimental and the control groups in oral accuracy was significant ($M = 1.32$, $p < .05$). These differences can be easily visualised by the plots generated by this procedure, as shown below:

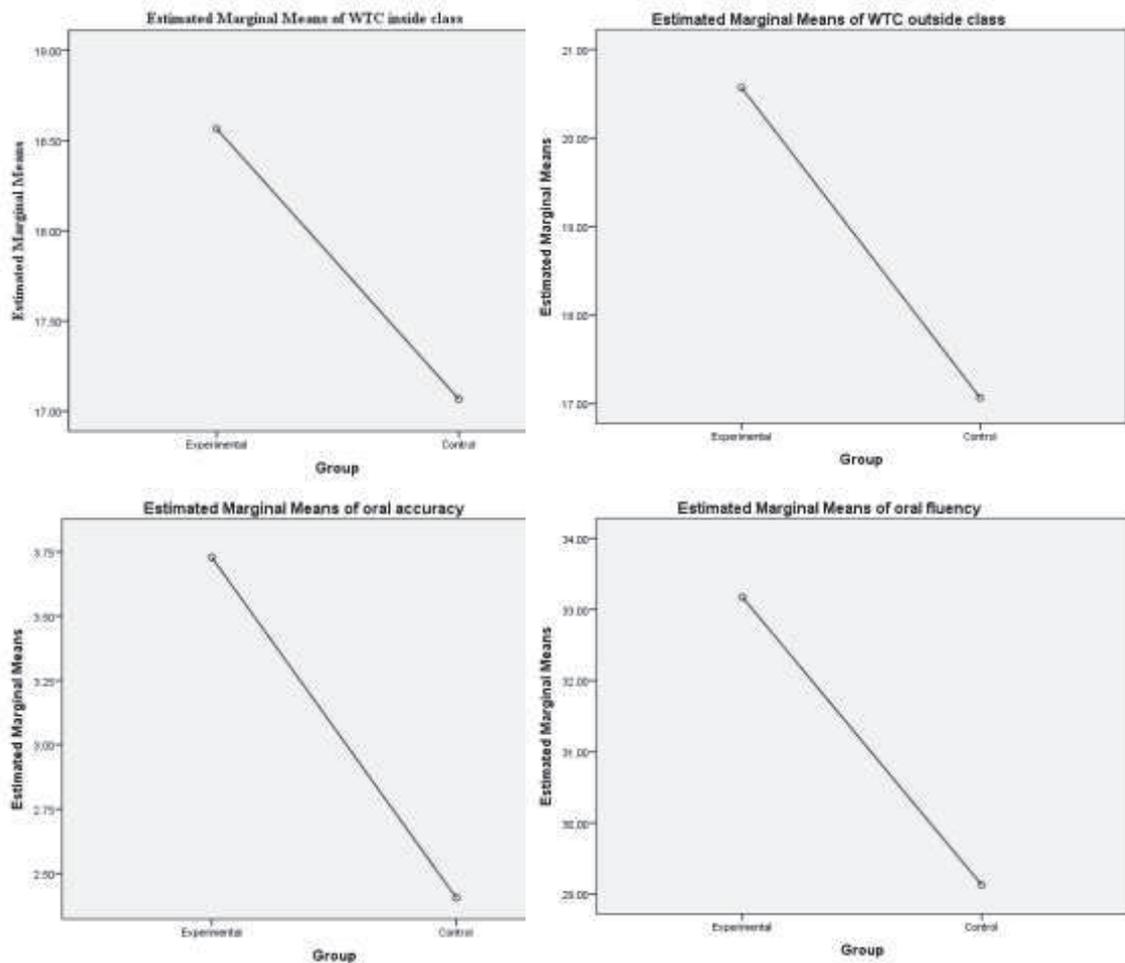


Figure 5. Mean plots of the difference in means of control and experimental groups in the dependent variables

The results of the current study were in consistence with the results of the study done by Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie (2002) which supports the use of L1 in the classroom. They concluded that the use of the native language was conducive to the correct understanding of the newly-input target language for the students by describing 4 high school classes.

In another study that supported the use of code-switching, Braga (2000) studied humour in a beginner EFL classroom and found out that code switching was used by participants as a strategy that signals humorous situations when correcting activities, that is, code switching contributed to creating a more relaxed atmosphere in the EFL classroom being investigated.

In a similar study, Eldridge (1996) described and analysed the code-switching of young learners in a Turkish secondary school. His study showed that there is no empirical evidence to support the notion that restricting mother tongue use would necessarily improve learning efficiency, and that the majority of code-switching in the classroom is highly purposeful, and related to pedagogical goals.

In the Iranian context, Mirhasani and Jafarpour-Mamaghani (2009) conducted a study as an attempt to understand if code-switching conducted as a communicative strategy leads to earlier entrance of the students into communication phase and consequently to the establishment of early oral proficiency. They found that the subjects in the experimental group (code-switching) had a significantly better performance in their speaking compared to the control group (no code-switching). They concluded that the use of code-switching does improve the speaking skill of EFL learners and can be used as a technique to enhance this skill.

On the other hand, there are other scholars and researchers who believe that code-switching can have detrimental effects on the L2 learners' achievements. One of these studies was done by Sert (2005) in which he argues that the frequent use of CS will have a long term undesirable influence on the speakers' L2 acquisition since it may cause loss of fluency in L2. He then argues that the more frequently L2 learners use code-switching, the higher chance for them to encounter fluency loss in learning the target language. As a result, learners might encounter demotivation and lack of confidence in learning the target language.

Sert (2005) highlights that recurrent use of code switching leads the students to lose their interest in acquiring the target language since they know that there is always a chance to code switch when they have difficulties in the target language so they will not try to master the target language proficiently. However, in comparing the results of the current study with that of Sert, one can discern that he has not considered the L2 learners' level of proficiency in the L2. Therefore, as the current study has mainly focused on elementary L2 learners, this could be a significant source of incongruence. Furthermore,

although the researchers of the current study conclude that L1 can be viewed a useful source at teacher's hand to foster learners' WTC, they rule out frequent resort to L1.

In the same vein, Olmo-castillo (2014) did a survey to determine the perceptions dual language teachers have on students' code-switching within the classroom. She found that the majority of teachers see code switching negatively affecting the growth of students specifically in their reading and writing skills and believes it hinders the acquisition of the students' second language.

Another similar study was conducted by Rukh (2014) who integrated quantitative research design to assess students' attitude towards code-switching/code-mixing to L1 by their EFL teachers using a close-ended questionnaire. He concluded that students of commerce hold a positive attitude towards EFL teachers code-switching/code-mixing to L1 but the students of English Department have somewhat negative attitude towards it.

Therefore, by comparing and contrasting the findings of the current study with the above-mentioned studies, one may conclude that code-switching can be used as an effective strategy in L2 classes, especially where the learners' are at the very preliminary stages of learning the target language. Certain functions of code-switching have been discussed in this research, the most common of them being strategies that the students follow, rather than that of the teacher. In other words, L2 learners' attitudes towards applying code-switching strategies in the classroom when they feel they are coming short of words or certain structures while experiencing difficulties during the class time has been found to be positive.

However, a teacher is suggested to be careful in applying code-switching strategies and functions. Excessive use of the students' mother tongue may hinder the learning process in that it reduces the excellent chance of L2 learners' exposure to the second language that has been adjusted to their learning pace. On the other hand, strictly prohibiting the learners from using their mother tongue increases the chance of high anxiety of the learners, especially when they are adults and they are more sensitive in using a somewhat unknown language.

As a result, second language teachers are urged to exercise moderation in using the learners' L1 in the classroom because, as stated before, the students' mother tongue is a powerful tool at a teacher's hand that can facilitate the process of L2 learning, if applied wisely and moderately. Therefore, teachers are advised to rise their awareness of the functions of code-switching that they can apply wherever they feel that the use of L2 is hindering its learning.

5. Conclusions and Implications

Results of the statistical procedure revealed that code-switching had a significant effect on the learners' WTC, both inside and outside the classroom, as well as oral fluency and accuracy. The results indicate that if one contemplates what influences can code-switching have on beginner-level L2 learners, they can draw the conclusion that it not only does not disrupt the learning process, but also expedites it.

However, this comes at an expense, highlighting the downsides of code-switching to learners' L1. The comparison made between the results of the current study and those of other studies points out that code-switching, i.e. using learners' L1 in an L2 class, limiting the opportunity of more exposure to the target language. To put it another way, the key point in the discussion of whether L1 should be allowed in L2 classes or not, is that code-switching deprives learners' of more exposure to the target language. Therefore, the researcher of the current study acknowledges this point, nonetheless urging the readers and educators to consider the benefits of using the learners' L1 as a facilitating tool.

Where learners' WTC becomes an issue for L2 educators and teachers, they can consider using learners' L1 to increase WTC levels which eventually leads to their oral fluency and accuracy, as the results indicate. Therefore, it can be concluded that L2 learners, especially in beginner levels, will feel more confident, at ease and stress-free when they know that their use of L1 will not be frowned upon and they will not be denounced over resorting to their mother tongue whenever they feel that they have not understood a point made by the teacher during the course of the L2 learning process. This, as stated before, will reveal itself more when we are dealing with adults with higher likelihood of affective filter rise. In addition to this, there are a number of pedagogical implications of the findings that will be presented in the following section.

To sum up, L2 institutes, teachers and curriculum developers are suggested to consider code-switching as a facilitator in the classroom. They are, however, advised to exercise care in using their students' mother tongue. Excessive use of L1 in L2 classes can be detrimental in that it deprives the learners of a weighty source of L2 exposure, i.e. teacher talk and student-student interaction. Hence, a moderate stance should be adopted with regard to the situations where the use of L1 should be allowed. Additionally, carefully-designed lesson plans with the inclusion of L1 use is the most ideal conditions for code-switching.

The findings of the current study can have a number of pedagogical implications for L2 institutes, teacher educators, and also materials developers. Second language institutes may benefit from the current study through its policy-making implications. They are suggested to maintain a more flexible view towards the use of L1 in their L2 classes and allow their teachers to use

the respective code-switching techniques, especially in lower level classes to increase their L2 learners' WTC and oral fluency and accuracy.

Other beneficiaries of the findings of the current study, as stated above, are L2 teachers who are concerned with increasing their students' WTC. They are recommended to include L1 use in their lesson plans and predict the areas of difficulty the learners may face with, using their mother tongue as a facilitating tool for overcoming hurdles on the path of learning the target language. However, as stated in the previous section, they should be careful not to use L1 excessively, which reduces the amount of L2 exposure the learners can have.

Moreover, materials developers can also exploit the findings of the study in developing course books and other supplementary materials to be taught in language classrooms. Fortunately, this has been observed in a number of course books, to the best knowledge and experience of the researcher of this study, such as 'English Result' series for adults and 'Project' series for teenage L2 learners. This trend can be applied to newer course books as well to maximise learners' grasp of the materials taught in the classroom through use of their first language, especially when it comes to fixed expressions.

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