

University of Southampton Research Repository

Copyright © and Moral Rights for this thesis and, where applicable, any accompanying data are retained by the author and/or other copyright owners. A copy can be downloaded for personal non-commercial research or study, without prior permission or charge. This thesis and the accompanying data cannot be reproduced or quoted extensively from without first obtaining permission in writing from the copyright holder/s. The content of the thesis and accompanying research data (where applicable) must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the copyright holder/s.

When referring to this thesis and any accompanying data, full bibliographic details must be given, e.g.

Thesis: Author (Year of Submission) "Full thesis title", University of Southampton, name of the University Faculty or School or Department, PhD Thesis, pagination.

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF LAW, ARTS, & SOCIAL SCIENCES

School of Humanities

**Contesting Monolingual Policies in the Multilingual Classroom:
a Case Study of a language center at a Mexican state university
on the border with the U.S.**

by

Tatiana Estefanía Galván de la Fuente

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

April 2019

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

Abstract

FACULTY OF LAW, ARTS, AND SOCIAL SCIENCE

School of Humanities

Doctor of Philosophy

**CONTESTING MONOLINGUAL POLICIES IN THE MULTILINGUAL
CLASSROOM: THE CASE STUDY OF A LANGUAGE CENTER AT
A MEXICAN STATE UNIVERSITY ON THE BORDER WITH THE
U.S**

By Tatiana Estefania Galvan de la Fuente

The aim of this study is to identify the forms of participation and the ways both teachers and students negotiate meaning as well as reveal the patterns of the multilingual classroom in the Mexican context. This thesis brings to the floor many contextual issues and attempts to link them to what happens in the higher education environments where English becomes a compulsory subject for all disciplines. This descriptive case study focuses on EFL teachers and students in a higher education context in beginning and intermediate levels. This study used a qualitative method research design to gather and analyze data. Audio-recorded classroom observations, field notes and teacher semi-structured interviews were used to capture an emic perspective on what takes place in these EFL classrooms regarding the multilingual resources that these teachers and students use. By examining transcripts of audio-recorded interactions using an applied Conversation Analysis approach of teachers and students, I identify and describe the multilingual resources that are being used to communicate. Semi-structured teacher interviews were used to delve into their views and reasons for certain classroom practices such as code-switching (CS) which was the dominant practice used for diverse communicative purposes as well as other relevant issues such as the ‘English only policy’ as it challenged some internalized ideas within the institutional level. The data reveals that both teachers and students draw on CS to reiterate concepts and words, express equivalence, establish group solidarity and discuss procedural protocols to name a few. I will argue that CS is a resource available to participants and

that both teachers, policy makers, school authorities and material developers as a more holistic approach in language teaching and learning that takes into account all of the languages in the learners' repertoire.

List of Contents

Contents	Page
Abstract.....	II
List of contents.....	III
List of tables.....	IX
List of figures.....	IX
Declaration of authorship	X
Acknowledgements.....	XI
Abbreviations.....	XII
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.2 General motivation and significance of the study.....	1
1.3 Background of the study.....	3
1.4 Aim of the study and research questions.....	4
1.5 Research design.....	5
1.6 Thesis structure.....	8
1.7 Summary.....	10
Chapter 2: Research Context	11
2.1 Introduction	11
2.2 Research context.....	11
2.3 The role of English in Mexico.....	12
2.3.1 English for Mexico... ..	13
2.4 Linguistic Imperialism.....	15
2.4.1 English in Higher Education-University of Baja California (UABC).....	15
2.5 Education Philosophy.....	16

2.6 The site: CELEX.....	20
2.6.1 The second language classroom.....	23
2.6.2 Teachers profile.....	24
2.6.3 Students profile.....	26
2.7 Summary.....	27

Chapter 3: The literature review 28

3.1 Introduction.....	28
3.2 CLT in foreign language teaching.....	29
3.3 Towards a definition of CLT.....	29
3.3.1 Brief history of CLT.....	30
3.3.2 Critiques of CLT.....	33
3.4 Socio-cultural theories of learning.....	34
3.5 Turning-point: we learn in interaction with others.....	36
3.6 Some features of the second language classroom.....	38
3.6.1 Teachers control of the interaction.....	38
3.6.2 Speech modification.....	39
3.6.3 Elicitation techniques.....	40
3.6.4 IRF/IRE exchange structure.....	42
3.7 Empirical CLT research in EFGL contexts.....	45
3.8 Summary.....	51

Chapter 4: Literature review 52

4.1 Introduction.....	52
4.2 Separation of languages.....	52
4.2.1 Language.....	53

4.3 The multilingual classroom: a space for many languages.....	55
4.4 Defining code-switching: an overview.....	55
4.5 Code-switching in the second language classroom: braiding content and languages.....	58
4.6 Multilingual resources for the contemporary second language classroom: six conversational functions of CS.....	60
4.7 Empirical research studies on CS in the second language classroom.....	62
4.7.1 Empirical research studies against English-only policies.....	62
4.7.2 Studies in favor of an English-only policies.....	71
4.7.3 The call for a release from monolingual instruction to a flexible multilingual approach.....	80
4.7.4 Multilingual practices.....	82
4.8 Towards a more balanced and holistic approach to the study of multilingual practices.....	84
4.9 Summary.....	86

Chapter 5: Methodology **87**

5.1 Introduction.....	87
5.2 Interpretive Approach.....	87
5.3 Researching teacher-student language practices in the second language classroom through a Descriptive Case Study.....	89
5.3.1 Descriptive Case Study.....	89
5.4 Research aim and research questions.....	91
5.5 Research design and data collection instruments.....	92
5.5.1 Observation as gaining insight into teacher practices.....	92
5.5.2 Interviews.....	95
5.6 The researcher's role.....	96
5.7 The research context and participants.....	97

5.7.1 Teachers.....	97
5.7.2 Students.....	99
5.8 Data Analysis.....	101
5.8.1 Analyzing interviews through content analysis.....	102
5.8.2 Analyzing classroom observations through an applied Conversation Analysis Approach.....	104
5.9 Triangulation.....	107
5.10 Limitations of the research.....	108
5.11 Ethical issues.....	109
5.12 Summary.....	110

Chapter 6: Teacher's ways of participating in situations of negotiation of meaning in the EFL higher education context111

6.1 Introduction.....	111
6.2: A view into teacher's teaching practices in the EFL context... ..	113
6.3 Summary.....	138

Chapter 7: Teacher's reasons and use of linguistic resources in the EFL classroom 141

7.1 Introduction.....	141
7.2 The second language classroom and the English-only policy.....	142
7.3 The use of linguistic resources in the second language classroom.....	143
7.4 The reasons behind their teaching practice.....	144
7.5 Summary.....	168

Chapter 8: Student's use of Code-switching for diverse classroom situations	171
8.1 Introduction.....	171
8.2 Student's code-switching: a widely observed phenomena in the EFL classroom.....	171
8.3 Gaining insight on learners' CS practices.....	173
8.4 Summary.....	196
 Chapter 9: Discussion and Conclusions	 198
9.1 Introduction.....	198
9.2 The need to re-examine ELT in regards to multilingual terms.....	199
9.3 The search for the appropriate method in EFL teaching in Mexico.....	200
9.4 The call for a multilingual class.....	203
9.5 A greater sensitivity to the use of linguistic resources in the EFL class...	206
9.6 Contributions of the study.....	207
9.7 Study conclusions.....	210
 Appendices	 231
Appendix 1 Descriptive field notes from observations.....	231
Appendix 2 Semi-structured interview.....	240
Appendix 3 Consent form.....	243
Appendix 4 Informed consent form.....	244
Appendix 5: Transcription conventions.....	246

List of Tables

Table 1: English courses offered at CELEX..... 22

Table 2: Teacher Profiles.....25

Table 3: Classroom Observation Information..... 94

Table 4: Overview of teacher participants.....98

Table 5: Student participants.....100

List of Figures

Figure 1: Basic Components of the Educational Model-“Education for Life”...17

Figure 2: Characteristics of CLT.....31

DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, Tatiana Estefania Galvan de la Fuente, declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

Contesting Monolingual Policies in the Multilingual Classroom: the case study of a language center at a Mexican state university on the border with the U.S.

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission.

Signed:..

.....
Date:

Acknowledgements:

First and foremost, I would like to thank God for his generosity, his compassion and love.

Second, I would like to express my special appreciation and deepest gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Adriana Patiño, for her valuable guidance, critical comments, support, and kind understanding throughout the writing process of this work. Thank you for being my mentor and encouraging my research and for allowing me to grow as a researcher.

I am also very grateful to the participants of this study who devoted their valuable time to be observed and interviewed that provided useful data in order for this work to be completed. Their cooperation and insights, points of view provided this research to take place. I also thank the students for collaborating in the study: their willingness to cooperate always proved to be refreshing.

A special thanks to my parents, who have always moved me to go beyond what is expected and pursue my goals. And to my brothers, thank you for always being there and count on your support and words of encouragement.

At the end, I would like to express my appreciation to my beloved children, Alex and Juan Pablo, for their love, understanding and patience. And to my husband, Victor, words cannot express how grateful I am for your words of encouragement, support, and love that allowed me to complete this challenging and long journey.

Abbreviations

CELEX	Centro de Lenguas Extranjeras
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CO	Classroom observation
COTE	Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English
CS	Code-switching
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
SEP	Secretaría de Educación Pública
SCT	Social Cultural Theory
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter 1: Introduction

An investigation that aims to gain insight into the language practices that both teacher and learner engage in in order negotiate meaning in the second language classroom of a language education center at a state university on the border with the U.S.

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a general overview of this study. It begins by describing the significance of identifying the interactional resources that both teachers and students draw on in order accomplish the business of social interaction in the classroom. This chapter also provides the background of the study, which includes the aim of the study and research questions that underlie and construct the research design. Finally, this chapter concludes by providing a sketch of the structure of the rest of the thesis.

1.2 General motivation and significance of the study

My interests in what takes place in the second language classroom regarding the manner teachers and learners use diverse interactional resources to communicate has always intrigued me. Throughout my career, first as a classroom language teacher and now as an academic, it has been my constant belief that language teachers perform complex and demanding interactional and pedagogical work in the classroom. However, pedagogical and research literature has often conceptualized teachers as mediators or “transmitters” who should deliver the pedagogy devised by theorists or learners without no reflection of the pertinence of these theories or approaches in the second language classroom. Therefore, the case of the use of L1 in the second language classroom has been a persistent criticism in second language teaching and second language acquisition studies. Currently, as a teacher-trainer in Mexico, I can point out diverse observed aspects from my own experiences as well as feedback from both in-service and former second language teachers to sustain my foregoing suppositions. A main anticipated cause for this is the monolingual tenet which holds that the teaching of English as a second or foreign language should be entirely through the medium of English (Phillipson, 1992) which in turn, these internalized ideas are challenged

at the institutional level, where the norms ‘Only in English’ is questioned by teachers. This, in turn, does not permit for the content of the programs to be easily embraced by teachers in their teaching repertoire or gain a closer understanding of their local contexts as arguments on the use of the target-language (TL) only contradicts others views that favor monolingualism in the EFL classroom. Moreover, educational authorities hinder teachers in developing a closer understanding of classroom discourse as there is an intricate relationship between language and interaction. What is more, everyday teaching pressures, such as teachers having to abide to a strict syllabus and textbook even though they have no relation to content specific needs. Other aspects are the diverse teaching contexts where these teachers work and complying with institutional norms and supervision, play a pivotal role in the understanding of interaction, which is regarded as being essential to effective teaching and learning (Walsh, 2011), as a call for a more holistic approach to language teaching that considers diverse languages (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011; Ferguson, 2009; Lin, 2008; Lain & Martin, 2009).

As a teacher trainer, becoming aware of this reality, I was therefore obligated to question the components that are taught and discussed in teacher-training programs that had failed to recognize the use of the first language in the second language classrooms as opposed to implementing a more holistic approach to language teaching and learning where the languages in the learners’ repertoire are taken into account.

Nevertheless, as a researcher, I viewed this as an opportunity to gain insight and an understanding of this situation by systematically studying the elements through an interpretive approach as it is fundamental in understanding in the classroom context. Hence, an *Interpretive approach* serves to be adequate as I focus on gaining insight on teachers classroom and language practices; their reasons and accounts of these as well as the learners’ as they communicate (Buchel, 1992; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Maxwell, 2012).

Furthermore, the personal and contextual aspects previously mentioned, which are for the most part overlooked “in one-size fits all” pedagogy as the focus in second language methodologies in Mexico should respond to both the global

context and the local EFL environment by examining English language use in terms of bilingual, bicultural, and multilingual language uses rather than trying to replicate inner-circle teaching methods (Holliday, 1994: 2005).

1.3 Background of the study

Along with this perceived reality, a literature review on the use of multilingual resources in English language teaching-the theoretical baseline of this study-, which is thoroughly discussed in Chapters 3 & 4, revealed a lack of empirical studies pertaining to the Latin American context contemplating all of the above situations and constraints. For the most part, the empirical studies in the field of EFL research pertaining to code-switching (CS) studies have been carried out in contexts such as Europe, Asia, Middle East, and USA (Brooks-Lewis 2009, Macaro, 2005, Eldrige, 1996; Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005; Carless, 2007; Cook, 2002 Cenoz, 2007; Canagarajah, 2004, 2006; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Shohamy, 2006; Kramsch, 2006; Martin-Beltran, 2010; Van Lier, 2004; Lin, 2008; Ferguson, 2009; Lin & Martin, 2005; Li Wei & Martin, 2009; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; van der Meij & Zhao, 2010; Garcia, 2009; Li Wei, 2010, Unamuno, 2008). CS studies in the Mexican context have not been accounted for even though Mexico's close proximity to the U.S. border greatly influences people in their day-by-day interactions. These in turn legitimize English, and the representations of it that arrive through media and exchange, a need for shared commerce, entertainment, life-style and mostly of all education. Learning English then, is perceived as a social obligation.

In regards to the use of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT), research has been carried out in diverse contexts around the world such as Asia, Europe and Europe, (Chowdhry, 2010; Ramanathan 1999; Wei 2011; Li 1998; Vasilopoulos 2008; Liao's 2000; Guangwei Hu 2005; Ahmad & Rao's 2013; Ahamad Shah & Othman(2006; Musa 2011; Mohd Sidek 2012; Lee's 2001; Martini Mustapha & Aizan Yhaya's 2013; Arkram & Mehmood 2011). With regards to Latin American, CS and multilingual studies have been carried out in diverse contexts such as municipal schools and not necessarily higher education contexts (Acosta & Cajas, 2018; Muñoz, Baeza & Campos, 2013). To the present, there are not any accounts of similar studies carried out collaboratively in the EFL context, or in Mexico overall, the country where this

study was carried out. The research context will be discussed in –depth in chapter 2 of this study as it entails complex aspects that need to be discussed thoroughly in a separate chapter and not in a brief manner.

1.4 Aim of the present study and research questions

This **descriptive case study** emerging from my own teaching context was proposed to ten in-service English language teachers from an ELT undergraduate teaching program pertaining to the Language Faculty of a large state-run public university on the border with the U.S., to participate in this study that seeks to identify the interactional resources that both teachers and students draw on to accomplish the business of the social interaction in the classroom. This was made possible by permitting me to carry-out classroom observations as by creating the appropriate spaces for discussion, (semi-structured interviews) throughout this case study in order for teachers to verbalize about their teaching practices and for me as a researcher, to gain insight of these practices. Accordingly, the study was positioned on a **qualitative, collaborative, and interpretivist research paradigm** by drawing on classroom observation field notes, semi-structured interviews, and classroom transcriptions.

Research Aim

To gain insight into the language practices that both teacher and learner engage in in order to negotiate meaning in the second language classroom of a language center at a state university on the border with the U.S.

Research Questions

RQ1: *What are the teachers' ways of participating in situations of negotiation of meaning in the higher education EFL classroom?*

RQ2: *What are the code-switching interactional patterns that teachers are using and for what interactional purposes in the classroom?*

RQ3: *What are the code-switching patterns that students are using to participate in the higher education EFL classroom?*

1.5 The research design

The previous research questions were answered by means of 3 data collection instruments as will now be illustrated. Nonetheless, for the analysis and end results of the study; a methodological triangulation method (see section 3.9) of all the data obtained was used as to expand the transferability of research outcomes and procedures to other similar research conditions.

Research question 1

This question establishes the baseline for his study as it demonstrates that teaching and learning are complementary activities in which each participant (teacher and learner) plays a role. This question was answered by means of a descriptive case study; specifically through audio-recorded classroom observations and field notes, which was prompted on theory driven features from Robert Yin's (1984, 1994) descriptive case study method, naturalistic classroom observations (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011), and classroom transcriptions using an applied CA approach (Walsh, 2013), suited well to answer the research question.

The most salient topics were the following: In regards to classroom observations: the main practices that were observed were *IRF interaction patterns*, the use of the *target language* (TL) for both teaching and learning, avoiding the use of the L1. What called my attention is that the data from classroom observations challenged some internalized ideas at the institutional level, where the norm '*Only in English*' is challenged as it is evidenced through these observations that the teacher carried out the opposite, (see Chapter 6) as he/she used L1 for diverse pedagogical purposes. In addition, the teacher was visibly in charge of orchestrating the interaction as revealed in classroom data; where he/she needs to step out of the limelight to cede the role to the student in developing and going through the activities, to be tolerant to diverse opinions, to engage in genuine communication, or "engage in clarifying dialogue to reach the desired understanding" (Wells & Arauz, 2006:385).

Classroom interactional data also revealed that the predominant linguistic resource used by teachers was **(CS)**. In order to examine language switching

in the classroom context, it was necessary to undertake a detailed analysis of the practical activities speakers engage in, focusing on the use of their linguistic repertoires Unamuno (2008). Even though audio-recordings were used to gain insight teachers' practices, there was no intention to give direct feedback, but to notice through classroom observations, field notes, and classroom transcriptions; linguistic practices or discontinuities that otherwise would not be uncovered from field notes. Overall, the classroom audio-recordings as supporting evidence allowed for an overall, holistic insight of what take place in the classroom regarding their teaching practices and facilitated the gathering of comparative data between my classroom observations, field notes and classroom transcriptions. The use of an applied CA approach for classroom transcriptions attempts to account for the practices at work which enable participants in a conversation to make sense of the interaction and contribute to it (Walsh, 2013). Combining two sources of data together for a detailed description aided me in seeking balance and accountability for presenting and later analyzing the data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011).

Research question 2

In regards to research question two, it is answered through audio-recorded classroom observations - field notes, classroom transcriptions, as well as a semi-structured teacher interview. The reasoning behind the use of audio-recorded classroom observations was guided by previous research in the field that used the same approach (Brooks-Lewis 2009, Macaro, 2005, Eldrige, 1996; Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005; Carless, 2007; Cook, 2002 Cenoz, 2007). I was guided by how these studies triangulated the information by also taking into account the teachers' voices as they provide the reasoning for their perceptions, thoughts, and insights on their teaching practice.

The triangulation of these instruments for data collection was relevant since it provides an *emic* perspective of what is taking place between teachers and learners in the business of negotiation of meaning which is classroom communication. Due to methodological reasons, I have decided to separate the two main participants (*e.g.* RQ #2 and RQ #3) in order to observe in detail the manner in which the participants use linguistic resources at their disposal to

negotiate meaning. Teachers draw on diverse multilingual resources to accomplish diverse communicative goals in the interaction to communicate, Galindo (2006), Reyes (2004), Unamuno (2008), Masats and Unamuno (2001) as clearly evidenced in analytical chapter 7 of this study.

The use of a semi-structured personal interview (see Appendix 2), held with each one of the teacher participants took place once the audio-recorded observations were carried out. The use of this instrument was to consolidate the reflective practice of teachers regarding their practice as this action is similar to other studies (Brooks-Lewis 2009, Macaro, 2005, Eldrige, 1996; Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005; Carless, 2007; Cook, 2002 Cenoz, 2007). My argument for choosing an oral tool for data collection over a written one is based on the fact that it is a process of choosing pertinent details of experiences, reflecting on them, thereby making sense of them (Seidman, 2013). Therefore, interviews serve as a meaning-making experience for the participants involved.

Additionally, given the personal nature of inquiring about their classroom practice, the interview was carried out in Spanish in order to make it easier for the participants to express themselves freely, as well as allowing space for emerging and pertinent information jointly co-constructed by the participants teaching practice.

Vast research in the field has highlighted that the interviewer and the interviewee jointly co-construct the discussions in order to generate information that otherwise would be demanding to access (Mann, 2010; Hellerman, 2008; Pekarek-Doehler, 2010). The semi-structured interviews were recorded with previous consent from the participants.

Research question 3

The final research question was answered through the same tools as in RQ#2 (audio-recorded classroom observations-field notes and classroom transcriptions). As discussed in RQ#2, the aim was to gain insight into what the (CS) interactional patterns teachers were using to communicate for diverse purposes. Deriving from the data in RQ#3, what was revealed was how students draw on CS for the following communicative purposes: *reiteration* and *socialization* just to name a few. The analysis of these latter two questions

permitted me to observe amongst many other issues that CS emerges as a way to socialize newcomers in the new education system as schools are important socio-cultural contexts where interaction is essential in ultimately shaping of learners language development (Hall and Walsh (2002).

1.6 The thesis structure

This thesis is structured as follows. The introduction sets forth background information in order to comprehend the whole of the study. It briefly presents the both the motivation and significance of this research as well as the aim and the research questions.

Chapter two discusses in detail the context where this research takes place. This chapter needed to be separated from the introduction chapter and methodology chapter since central aspects to the background need to be thoroughly described and discussed in order to make sense of the data that derives from this study. These aspects include the context and its educational philosophy, participants and specific details about the teaching and learning environment.

Chapter 3 discusses the first section of the literature review; I decided to separate the literature review due to methodological reasons as I wanted to observe in detail the manner that both teacher and learner use their array of linguistic resources to communicate in their classrooms. This first section focuses on the **Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT)** and its immersion in the field of second language teaching along with its critiques and its current state of art in the teaching of English. Accordingly, the epistemological shift towards socio-constructivism and interactionism in second language teaching is also addressed that sets the foundation to chapter 4 where the call for a multilingual approach to language teaching is addressed.

Chapter 4 reviews literature pertinent to **the use of multilingual resources in the EFL classroom** context as I focus on the multilingual shift and its implications within the classroom context. Furthermore, I center my attention on CS as the predominant multilingual resource deriving from the data. This is of vital importance not only to understand the orientation of this study, but also to

understand how these multilingual resources are used by both teachers and learners the second language classroom has developed over time to its current status, thus recognizing the principle behind the introduction of these linguistic resources in English language teaching. Chapter 4 also sets forth a section with recent empirical studies where it is revealed that most of the research in multilingual classrooms has been in other contexts around the world and very little research carried out in Latin American contexts.

Chapter 5 discusses the methodological approach adopted in this study; it describes the participants of the study, the data collection instruments, and research procedure and data analysis. The chapter concludes by addressing the possible limitations of the research.

Chapter 6 describes the major findings that emerged from the analysis of the data obtained from the audio-recorded classroom observations-field notes and classroom transcriptions. An *insider-emic* perspective helps me describe the ways in which the teachers participate in their daily practices as well as the general lay-out and dynamics of these EFL classrooms. Accordingly, the data obtained in this chapter provides a basis for the sub-sequent chapters in this descriptive case study.

Chapter 7 discusses some of the most salient and valuable findings derived from the analysis of the audio-recorded classroom observations, and semi-structured teacher interviews. Dominant teacher practices such as (CS) as the most used multilingual resource to negotiate meaning is put forward. Important insights on how these teachers use CS for diverse purposes within their classrooms are also addressed. In regards to the data obtained from the teacher interviews, the most salient aspects were their views on teaching (e.g., their challenges, teacher-training received), other central aspects such as what these teachers did in class such as the roles assumed, teacher talking-time and the interaction they had with their students were also taken into account. Further, challenges representative of the dilemmas faced with the use and role of the L1 in class were also discussed providing a comprehensive outlook of their teaching practices.

Chapter 8 helps to bring closure to this descriptive case study by illustrating how students use CS for diverse communicative purposes. A comprehensive description of the use of this resource to facilitate classroom interaction was described thoroughly and discussed using audio-recorded classroom observations and classroom transcriptions. This last chapter triangulates the findings from the previous chapters.

Finally, Chapter 9 concludes the whole investigation by summarizing the most significant outcomes resulting from this research and their impact to current EFL contexts and Second language acquisition literature in the field of English teaching.

1.7 Summary

The main aim of this chapter was to set forth the context of this research into gaining insight of the language practices that both teacher and learner engage in negotiate meaning in the second language classroom. This was achieved by providing background information and presenting both the general motivation and significance of the study within the specific research context. The chapter also provided the research questions and aim, which determine and construct the research design. This study identifies the need for more studies in the second language context that focus on the nature of the use of multilingual resources to communicate.

Chapter 2: the research context

2.1 Introduction

Since my main aim is to provide an account of how teachers and students carry out their teaching and learning practices in the L2 classrooms, some key contextual issues are needed to understand fundamental aspects of this research. This chapter starts by presenting a brief overview of the demographic region of the **research context-Mexico**. Secondly, I explain the role of English in Mexican education, especially in the higher education context where this study takes place. Thirdly, I present a detailed account of how the research site, education philosophy and teaching are viewed amidst the current teaching trends. Accordingly, the participants of this study are also described –teachers and students. Finally, a summary is presented in order to understand what is to come in subsequent chapters, where I explain my theoretical stance to this study as well as the empirical studies relevant that inspired me to approach my research as I did.

2.2 Research Context

The **University of Baja California (UABC)** is situated in a rich multicultural site approximately 100 kilometers from the Mexico-U.S border. This particular region of Mexico, the English language is utilized for many purposes such as commercial, academic and social as there is an increased population of migration not only from within the country, but from all over the world. There are diverse scientific centers that receive both scholars and students alike from diverse parts of the world; business is done in many languages such as English, Japanese, and Chinese as there are many factories established statewide from those countries. In short, for locals, being immersed in a multicultural context is now new; it is a way of their everyday lives. Mexico's geographical territory is very vast spreading southeast from its northern border with the United States to the Caribbean Sea and from the Pacific Ocean on the West and south to the Gulf of Mexico on the east. Mexico has a vast territory since it covers almost 2 million square kilometers (460,000 sq. mi.) and also shares borders with the countries of Guatemala and Belize. The current population (Census, 2016) is about 127, 500,000 million inhabitants.

2.3 The role of English in Mexico

For the last thirty years, English has had a central role in the education system. There was a large reform due to the following factors: The use of textbooks or methodologies that by teachers that follows a prescribed method for teaching which is, the **Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)** approach and is actively promoted by the Secretariat of Public Education (SEP). In the Mexican context, needs analysis are rarely carried out, or if they are, “they are given lip service since most teachers have to follow a pre-determined set program and use pre-selected textbooks and supplementary materials. The Mexican reality is that teachers are in an extremely limited position to respond to learners needs. While a well-structured curriculum and thought-out curriculum is central to the teaching of English, in Mexico it is often the textbook that has oriented and nourished everyday practice (Sampson, 2014, Mugford, Lengley, Crawford, and Garcia, 2006: Clemente, 2006). This practice is generated not considering the local context and the context of the educational system in this country, not even the balanced use of the material(s) and the official proposed curriculum (Villarreal Ballesteros& Olave Moreno, cited in Ramirez Romero, 2015).

Textbooks are based on fixed methods and aims, which in turn pre-determine teacher tasks, objectives, and content. They are produced by international publishing houses and they have played a role in the spread of certain teaching methods. For that reason, I want to focus on a discussion on the presence of textbooks in the Mexican education system. I believe that the history of the implementation of textbooks in Mexico goes hand in hand with recent reforms on language education in basic and higher education. In past decades, the textbooks at secondary and high school levels produced by the *Secretariat of Public Education (Secretaria de Educacion Publica-SEP)*, were based on the Grammar Translation Method or translation derived from the traditional teaching of Latin. This content centered on the study of grammatical structures and the activities consisted on the manipulation of sentences based on grammatical rules learned through a deductive method.

Decades later, in the mist of the seventies and eighties, much of the textbooks used both in the public and private schools were based on the Audio-lingual

Method which adhered to a Behaviorism theory of learning and a structural theory of language. This method consisted of a hypothesis of a contrastive analysis of the language developed by Robert Lado (1975). Lado argued that the comparison between the mother-tongue and the target language were key to the learning of L2, therefore, the programs should emphasis these elements. In the same lines, by following a Behaviorist theory the primary activities are the tasks based on repetition that intended to substitute the habits of the mother-tongue with the habits of the L2. As clear examples, books based on this method were used (e.g., Lado English Series-Pearson; Ingles Alfa-Houghton Mifflin) focused on oral repetition of dialogues and sentences.

During the decade of the nineties to the present time, there has been an increased introduction of the Communicative Method in the textbooks utilized in schools as well as a vast commercialization of both printed and electronic material adhering to this method (Villarreal Ballesteros & Olave Moreno, cited in Ramirez Romero, 2015). Many publishing houses such as Oxford University Press and Cambridge University Press have come to be known within both the private and public schools as books such as Headways, Interchange, and In Touch are used at different levels and for different purposes. This calls for a move or shift, from the “imposed” methodologies dictated upon us by inner circle countries to a more local approach (Clemente, 2006).

2.3.1 English for Mexico

There is a certain “prescribed” method for teaching in Mexico and this context where this research is carried out is no different. I content that not only is there a need for the use of methodologies or approaches that “fit” with the local realities and needs of the learners. Other Mexican scholars (e.g., Ramirez, 2015; Villarreal Ballesteros & Olave Moreno, 2015; Mugford, Mora Pablo & Clemente, 2006;) have also debated that teaching a foreign language in Mexico needs to respond to the local needs and mirrors the use of English as local practice (Pennycook, 2010). These methods often fail to respond to local needs as they are heavily influenced by teaching practices promoted by BANA (Holliday, 1994, 2005) culture “located in the private sector or in commercially-run language centers in universities and colleges in Britain, Australasia and

North America” (Holliday, 2005:3), and what Widin (2010) discusses in terms of “NABA (North American, British and Australian) language teaching methodologies” (2010:20). The use and learning of English has often been explained in relation to concepts like inner circle, outer circle, and expanding circle countries (Kachru, 1992, 1995). This particular division has had far reaching implications for the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language as constraining EFL methodologies that try to promote “a one-size fits all” pedagogy is not adequate in an expanding circle country such as Mexico.

Mexico belongs to Expanding circle countries such as Japan, China, and Brazil where English is taught and learned as a foreign language (Kachru, 1992). Therefore, expanding circle countries “more often refer to inner circle language users to validate their teaching and learning processes” (Mugford, 2014: 42). However, the risk is that both teachers and school authorities may not be fully aware of the aims and objectives of these methodologies that do not necessarily take into account the particularities of each context. What I would like to reveal is how the influence of inner circle countries regarding the setting and preservation of English-language norms has firmly shaped the teaching of English as a Foreign language (EFL). In this sense, Holliday (2005) argues that EFL teaching (and by implication its practices) needs to be viewed through the lens of political terms. Therefore, inner circle countries may have to a certain extent, very specific aims, as expressed through BANA interests which may be a “*mismatch*” with English language teaching in countries such as Mexico. Given the concept of both the Inner circle, outer circle, and expanding circle countries, as well as the BANA/NABA teaching cultures and methodologies, I contest whether these respond adequately to the language learning needs of Mexican EFL users and, specifically to these university students (Formal population as identified in this study) who require English to graduate, engage in business activities in L2 and seek postgraduate studies abroad. In this next section, I will revisit the concept of linguistic imperialism as I attempt to argue that the method(s) used by diverse language centers around Mexico and specifically in CELEX, could be structured more accordingly to the learners’ needs.

2.4 Linguistic Imperialism

A methodology that responds to Mexican EFL needs and objectives would be complemented by taking into account the educational aftermath of linguistic imperialism. Linguistic imperialism accounts for the understanding of how English is used to promote one language over and above other possible contenders. Both Canagarajah (1999) and Phillipson (1992) argue that in the particular case of English, linguistic imperialism focuses on making sure that inner circle English provides and maintains norm through which all other languages users are encouraged to adhere to. Therefore, as argued by Phillipson (1992:185), “linguistic imperialism involves using English teaching to subject language users to external norms and beliefs which benefit the inner circle countries at the expense of the interests of expanding circle countries”.

In the case of Mexico, Phillipson’s (1992) tenets or fallacies are still relevant in current Mexican language teaching practices as they are still present in many EFL classrooms. (Mugford, 2011). Even though these fallacies were presented some twenty years ago, two of these five tenets predominate in this EFL higher education context in Mexico. Both the monolingual fallacy and the maximum exposure fallacy are still relevant in many EFL classrooms (Mugford, Higareda, 2009). The monolingual tenet maintains that “English is best taught monolingually and this involves the rejection of the experience of other languages along with attempts to impose a single lens on the world” ([Phillipson, 1992:189). This view of always utilizing English in the classroom is especially prevalent in both private and public sector EFL teaching in Mexico even though there is no evidence that English is best taught monolingually (Mugford, & Higareda, 2009). The maximum exposure tenet affirms that “the more English is taught, the better the results” (1992:199). So in other words, if other language as are used, there is a preconceived idea that the standards of English will drop (1992). This idea has long been held accounted for in many educational institutions, as well as with teachers who try to minimize the use of Spanish in the classroom or in the syllabus as a whole. This idea can be demonstrated in both classroom observations and teacher interviews (analytical

chapters 6, 7 and 8) of this thesis which appear to be determining attitudes towards the teaching of EFL in this language center as they as they “struggle” with an invisible, but tangible “English only policy”.

2.4.1 English in higher education –University of Baja California (UABC)

I do not want to delve into the entire higher education system due to space, but rather focus and highlight aspects that will permit me to push my argument further and characterize the research context suitably in order to give way to my research design and questions.

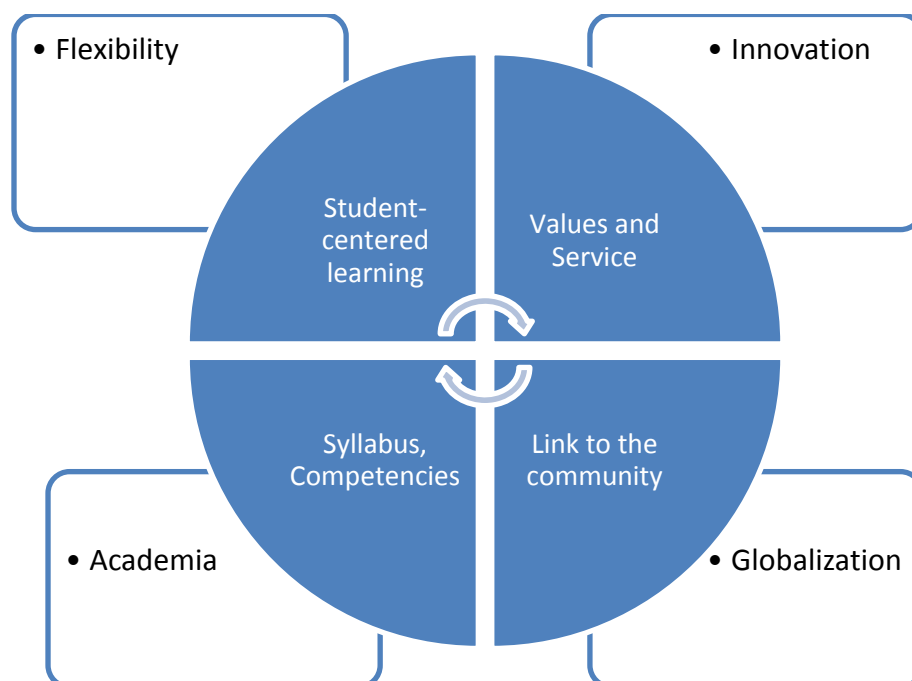
In order to comply in forming citizens that have the necessary competencies for a globalized world and in constant transformation, the Mexican state has developed projects geared towards enhancing the quality of education. This is done through seeking that learners obtain and both plurilingual and pluricultural competencies in the belief that these will enable them to encounter communicative challenges and build an overall perspective of the linguistic and cultural diversity at a global level (Hernandez Alarcon, 2014). In a similar vein, the University of Baja California (UABC), has diversified and emphasizes that “education is for life” as this philosophy is seen in diverse documents at all educational levels that orient contexts towards a more universal education (Hernandez Alarcon, 2014). This next section describes the university’s educational philosophy and how the educational system should at different levels; work together to provide learners the adequate linguistic competencies to be able to work towards seeking new knowledge and be able to incorporate it into their specific contexts.

2.5 Educational Philosophy

The university’s educational philosophy centers the learner at the heart of the teaching-learning process emphasizing the need for learners to acquire and develop critical thinking skills and intellectual competencies as the teacher to implement the adequate teaching methodologies that ensure this. Therefore, both the learner and teacher play important roles in the co-construction of knowledge. The learner is motivated to develop processes such as assimilation and appropriation as they are considered essential in the working environment

as an education based on competencies is perceived as “knowing what to do with knowledge” (Educational Model UABC, 2016) is considered evidence of this process. According to this philosophical principle (See *Fig. 1*), UABC acknowledges the importance of education for life and impulses its programs that promote and adhere to this principle. Furthermore, according to the university’s educational model considers learning as a process of construction by the student that not just learns knowledge, but develops abilities and has reasons to act as these are produced in social interaction based on individual and group experience(s) (Gonzales, 2000).

Figure 1: Basic Components of the Educational Model-“Education for Life”



Thus, learning is perceived as an activity of personal construction that meaningful representations of an authentic situation that develops as a product of the activity and the learner within it (Diaz, 2002). This means that learners construct their knowledge through interacting with their socio-cultural and

natural context based on their previous knowledge. The role of the instructor or facilitator is a guiding element in this process as they act as effective cognitive mediators capable of orienting the learners learning processes.

Learning then, is the set of intentional roles and actions that is developed by the facilitator through interaction with their students and pragmatic content in order to create learning opportunities that enable them to enrich and cultivate their personal capacities throughout their learning process (Educational Model UABC, 2016).

Alongside both student and teacher roles in the learning process, globalization is a basic component of this model as a guiding factor where the learner will be interacting professionally with diverse people and contexts as set forth by the UNESCO (2003).

The Language Center (CELEX) considers these before-mentioned principles as vital in the learning-teaching process as the diverse faculties from the university, need to adhere to the Educational Model of the university. There is a symbiotic relationship as both faculty and the sole educational model work together to develop in the learner and “education for life”. The curriculum focuses on a “continuing process of construction” that enables on one hand, the intention to reach the institution’s goals, and on the other, to put in practice the knowledge acquired (Educational Model UABC, 2016). In short, these principles crystalized in the educational model of the university are not just part of a curriculum, but a part of a society, culture and educational policies that adhere to the needs of this globalized world. Part of belonging to a globalized world means that the learner is able to utilize English or any other language for that matter, as a multilingual strategy to compete with others in diverse contexts. In this case, the use of English by the students at UABC is a must in order to pass the exit exam in order to graduate. The importance of the English inclusion in the university’s curriculum is based on the demands of globalization and that is why it must be considered as part of the learners’ instruction as future professionals that will contribute to the overall development of the country (España Chavarria, 2010).

Even though the constant demands of globalization require students to develop efficient linguistic competencies that facilitate optimal communication, the methodologies that are implemented in classrooms to teach may not respond to the local needs of the context (Lethaby, 2006). I will further this argument by emphasizing that despite the efforts of the different levels and higher education system in Mexico to incorporate English in their curriculum and work on the belief of an egalitarian perspective as mentioned in *Sections 2.4 and 2.4.1*; the reality is that a “one-size fits all pedagogy” is still promoted by school authorities and textbook and material writers (Clemente, 2006).

This next section will focus on describing the site where the study will be conducted to gain an overall perspective and understand the need to delve into what takes place between teacher and student regarding the multilingual strategies they employ to communicate in the EFL classroom. Given the close proximity of Mexico to the U.S. border, “transnationalism” and certain particularities of language use “create a set of challenges for EFL teachers as language is no longer limited to geographical borders” (Mugford, 2011:81). Multilingual use is marked by code-switching as language users may not see the need to adhere to any particular language or may use one over the other for different circumstances and purposes as evidenced in the analytical chapters (Chapters 6, 7 and 8) of this thesis.

As can be demonstrated through this brief sketch of the Mexican Education System higher education levels (UABC), there have been recent modifications that have had a positive impact on second languages in Mexico, especially English. The study of foreign languages is starting to be “viewed as a vehicle for achieving comprehension, international collaboration and economic welfare” (Moore, 2013: 13). The study of foreign languages is no longer perceived as a meaningless activity, but rather acquiring a tool that is worthwhile learning. The use of two or more languages (e.g., Spanish or an indigenous language or English), for diverse purposes is constantly expanding, especially in the academic field. At university level, students in the diverse BA programs from an array of disciplines are expected to learn and utilize English as an exit requirement or for distinct reasons associated to their discipline. More and more students have the opportunity to study abroad, meaning that the demand for

English courses increases since the level of language competence that they require is high.

In Baja California, the particular context demands students to be “multilingual”; especially the ones that enter the BA program in language teaching, where the requisite is for them to be “multilingual”. Being multilingual in this context means that university students use more than one language either spoken or written for communication. There are distinct fields of study, each with its own academic requisites, but the common ground is the use of English to exit their programs.

There are many scientific research centers in the city, so English is the predominant language of scientific publication, particularly in the hard sciences like Chemistry, natural sciences, and Physics. Students at a BA and graduate level from diverse disciplines attend English classes offered at the language center in the university since the need for them to comprehend and publish in English is a requisite as well as an exit exam for their distinct field of study (España Chavarria, 2010: Educational Model UABC, 2016). In short, the context that these students are immersed in is rich in culture and languages.

2.6 The site: CELEX

This next section lays out the details of the research site, class schedules, as well as teaching method(s) utilized in their classes.

The Language Center (CELEX) has been part of the Faculty of Languages for over 40 years now. CELEX is a site for a relevant and interesting case study as it represents the meeting place for students from all over the northeast and California region. The student population is national and international. The language center receives more than 16,000 students from diverse nationalities and more than 18,000 users in its Self-Access center. The vast majority of the staff has a teaching background and is up-to-date with the latest innovative EFL methodologies. These methodologies benefit the efficient learning of languages as well as work with documents and real-life situations that develop interaction and creativity in the classroom. The use of new technologies applied to teaching

languages is also implemented. CELEX specializes in language teaching following a method that offers:

- ✓ *Language courses for all levels in distinct schedules as stated in Table 1.*
- ✓ *Reading and writing workshop in English*
- ✓ *Certification courses for French AND English (DELTA AND TOEFL)*
- ✓ *Preparation course to present the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT)*

As can be evidenced, CELEX is the meeting place of more than 16, 00 students at both the national and international level. This multilingual context is rich in nature and these characteristics make it a sound and solid site to conduct research as I attempt to describe these multilingual practices that teachers engage in to communicate with their students (*See Chapter 1 for research aim and questions of this study*). I will now focus on describing the Mission and Vision statements of the research context.

The center offers diverse language courses to the community as stated below in the main objectives, mission and vision statements. The main objectives of the center are:

“El Centro Universitario de Lenguas Extranjeras” (CELEX), The University Center of Foreign Languages has diverse objectives:

“Design, offer advice, and teach educational programs oriented to the teaching of foreign languages as well as professional development programs such as: seminars, conferences, classes, workshops and other activities related to foreign languages. It is offered to the diverse sectors in the community that will enable the professional and personal development of the participants”.

Mission:

“To professionalize people interested in the learning of foreign languages, offering quality service and strengthening multiculturalism in the state”.

Vision:

“To be a language center that is a leader in a high academic level in the training of students in language teaching. These services are offered to the general community with a solid foundation in values and an efficient academic level” (My translation).

Below is a timetable of the courses offered at the Language Center:

Table 1: English courses offered at CELEX

Type of course:	Schedules:	Days of the week:	Hrs. Per week Total
Weekly	7, 9, 11, 15, 17, and 19 hrs.	(Varies) 3 days a week	6 96
Saturdays	8:00- 13:00 hrs. and/or 15:00- 20:00 hrs.	Saturdays 5	80
	8:00-12:00 hrs and/or 15:00- 19:00 hrs.	Monday through 20 Friday	80

The English groups that will approximately be opened for this coming 2014/1 semester are 32 groups from Monday through Friday and 20 groups for Saturdays. There are six levels of English opened in each time slot. The students are exposed to the target language 6, 5, or 20 hrs. per week depending if they attend classes weekly or on Saturdays for twelve weeks which is the duration of the semester. There are two semesters per year, Semester 2014/1 initiates February 4th and culminates May 30th, 2014. Semester 2014/2 initiates on the 18th of August and finishes the first week of December 2014.

The courses offered at CELEX are oriented to both the **general public** and for students from diverse fields within the university (I will refer to them as the *Formal* and *Informal* categories. This is addressed in depth in (Chapter 5), and is varied such as: English, French, German, Chinese, Japanese, Spanish, Italian, and indigenous languages, Mixteco and Pai Pai. The English courses offered are English for General Purposes (EGP) as there are no English of Specific Purposes (ESP) courses offered by CELEX to attend to the needs of the students from diverse disciplines of the university. There have been requests from fields such as Engineering, Marine Science and the School of

Law and Accounting to impart ESP courses to their students since they argue that they already have some linguistic competence of the L2 and would like to see content related to their specific discipline as this motivates them to take English. Students that enroll in English classes have two motivations: 1) to learn English for diverse reasons, and to take an exit exam to be able to graduate from their different fields. The exam is called EXPAI (Exam to Accredite the English Language- My translation), designed by scholars from the faculty statewide. Students from other faculties have to obtain a B1 (CEF) and the students from our faculty (B.A. in English Language Teaching and Translation), have to reach a B2 (CEF) level in order to exit their programs successfully and graduate. Since this university is a public state-wide university, students have diverse social economic backgrounds.

For some students, taking language classes at the university is new, meaning that formal are being socialized into a new academic culture, and for the informal students using English in a formal and compulsory manner that they do not know and will learn to adjust and navigate within this new discourse. CELEX then helps them prepare for the challenges of what is to come in their distinct fields as well as taking their exit exam to obtain their degree to travel abroad for business.

2.6.1 The second language classroom:

Similarly to other learners in the Caribbean and Latin American region, the learners in the Mexican context have been exposed to a particular style or mode of teaching and learning a foreign language which is the “*traditional manner*” (e.g., teacher-led, little use of the target-language (TL), heavy emphasis on grammar translation and memorization), Mora Pablo, Lengeling, Rubio Zenil, Crawford Y Goodwin, 2011; Higareda, Lopez & Mugford, 2009; Mugford, 2011). This predominant teaching style in Mexican school systems prevails from primary and secondary through university level. This way of teaching where the teacher transmits the content and the learner(s) receive it through the Initiated-Respond-Evaluate(IRE) or in Initiate-Repsond-Feedback (IRF) (Sinclair and Coulthard 1975) sequence, is popular in EFL classes in Mexico (Candela, 1999), as well as other studies carried out in other contexts (e.g., Luk and Lin

(2007), Wells and Arauz (2006), Abd- Kadir and Hardman (2007) and Nassaji and Wells (2000) where this IRE/F sequence is used to teach a foreign language.

“English only” classroom policies is also prevalent today in this EFL higher education context. CELEX encourages teachers and learners to use L2 as the sole means of interaction, appears to date back to the widespread discrediting of the Grammar-Translation method, the decline of contrastive analysis in language teaching (Atkinson 1987:242) and the increase in popularity of the Direct Method. Despite the calls for a more balanced view of learner L1 use in classrooms, the “reality remains that even in many of today’s most sophisticated learning centers, “English only” wall signs can be found alongside the interactive whiteboards, and systems of forfeits for “rule-benders” form part of everyday class routines” (Sampson, 2011). Jenkins’ (2010:459) study reports on the strict prohibit of L1 as a normal characteristic of Saudi Arabian classrooms, advocating that research findings are taking a while to permeate through to day-to-day classroom pedagogy. The current CLT that is utilized by teachers at the Language Center is the *Top Notch Fundamentals series by Pearson-Longman*.

This method is used from the beginning level to the advanced levels during both the weekday and Saturday classes. The reality of the Mexican L2 classrooms is that the Only-in-English policy is interpreted and negotiated in the on-going interactions between both teacher and students, my study will show, amongst others, how this policy mismatches with everyday life practices. In the next chapter, I will discuss in further detail what the multilingual classroom entails as this section focused on providing the floor-work of what and how English is viewed and taught in this language center.

2.6.2 Teachers’ profile

This next section describes in detail, the teacher participant population. These ten EFL teachers have diverse characteristics ranging from experience, pedagogic backgrounds, fields, ages, and gender. There are six females and four males. The rationale for teacher selection is explained in detail in the

methodology chapter 5 (section 3.7.1) as this chapter's focus describes the research site.

TABLE 2: Teacher Profiles

Teacher Ricardo	Teacher Manuela	Teacher Fabiola	Teacher Julian
Ricardo is a 27 year-old English Language teacher with one year and a half teaching experience. He just recently graduated and is currently teaching EFL at both primary and university levels (undergraduate). Ricardo is interested in pursuing a Master's degree in the not too distant future. Ricardo learned his English in school (Bilingual private school) at primary, secondary and university levels.	Manuela is a 24 year-old English language teacher that graduated two years ago from the B.A. program in Language Teaching. She has two and a half years teaching experience since she participated as a teacher's aide the last semesters of her program. She has additionally taken diverse teacher-training courses offered at the university by both editorials and university scholars. She studied many years (high-school) in the United States and returned to Mexico to study at the university. She is currently teaching English at a private high-school. She plans on entering a Master's program in Modern Languages.	Fabiola is 46 year-old English language teacher with vast experience in teaching. Even though her professional background is oceanology, she has taken an array of teacher-training courses at both primary, secondary and university level in EFL methodologies. She is currently teaching at both secondary and university levels (undergraduate), General English, reading/writing in English and ESP courses for Oceanology students. She studied her high school in the U.S. and later came back to study Oceanology at the university. She has recently been accepted in the Modern Languages Master's Program.	Julian is a 45 year-old English language teachers but has diversified into different areas. Even though he is an accountant, he has an M.A. in Education and is also an official translator in the state. He has been teaching English for 25 years at the Language Center and also at graduate level in both the Translation and the Language Teaching BA. Julian also had the opportunity to be an exchange program student for two-years of his high-school education. Of all the ten participants of this study, Julian is the only one that has a tenured teaching position in the university.

Teacher Ana	Teacher Sofia	Teacher Manuel	Teacher Pamela
Teacher Ana is a 65 year-old English language teacher. She studied her B.A. in ELT at an advanced age (55 years old) since she had married early. She enjoys teaching English in beginning levels. Even thugh she was offered the opportunity to teach in the B.A. program	Teacher Sofia is a 56 year-old English language teacher. She has worked at the Language center for more than 13 years. Sofia has had no formal training in ELT, but has taken diverse English teacher-training courses offered both within the university (Language Center) and elsewhere. Sofia learned English in a bilingual school, where	Teacher Manuel is the youngest participant in this section. Manuel is an ELT graduate from our program. He is currently teaching English at both primary and secondary levels in both public and private institutions. He has no preference in teaching a determined level of English. Even though he finished his B.A.	Teacher Pamela is an EFL teacher with a background in Secondary Education. She has worked at different levels in the educational system, but has decided to venture into teaching at university level. She has received diverse teacher-

in ELT at the university, she declined the offer because she felt that it she preferred teaching the undergraduate population. She has only worked at the Language Center and is not interested at the moment in enrolling in a Graduate Program.	her favorite subjects were reading. She prefers to teach Beginning levels only. She has no plans to enter any formal training programs to teach English.	program, he pursues diverse teacher-training courses to continue his professional development. He would like to continue with his graduate studies in the not too distant future where he would like to stay within the field of Applied Linguistics. He would very much like to study abroad as he believes he needs to still perfect his English competency.	training courses with different editorials, but has decided not to pursue any graduate studies. She would like to teach in the B.A. program in the not too distant future subjects related to writing in English.
---	--	--	---

Teacher Laura	Teacher Rosario
Teacher Laura is the oldest of the teacher participants. She studied her B.A. at an advanced age as she became a widow. She only teaches at the language center and is interested in taking teacher-training courses. She is interested in pursuing graduate studies, but she mentions that she is realistic as she believes that due to her age, she will retire soon.	Teacher Rosario is an EFL teacher that began her studies in English Language Teaching, but did not finish. She finished the COTE teacher-training course offered by the British Council. Rosario is not interested in pursuing her studies in ELT or any other field. She has taught English and Japanese at all levels at the language center as that is her only job. She loves to read different genres and would love to teach a reading and writing course in English and Japanese.

2.6.3 Participants: Student Profile

The students of the CELEX attend English classes to either present the English exit exam needed to obtain their degree or to simply learn the language as mentioned in previous sections. This next section provides the description of the student-participants of this study.

The student profile at the Language Center at a Mexican University can be divided into two sections and one sub-section. The first section consist of the students that do not belong to the university community; that is, this student

population is mainly made up of housewives, businessmen, high school students as well as the local Ensenada community. Their ages range from 16 to approximately 45 years old. This information regarding the students' profile was retrieved from: www.admisiones.celexbc.com.mx. I refer to them as the *Informal* population as briefly summarized in Chapter 5. To ensure student privacy, pseudonyms were used.

The second section is made up of the students that are enrolled in the array of BA programs (www.uabc.mx) that are offered at the university, their ages ranging from 18 and older. The second sub-section is the student population that enters our BA program in Teaching Languages. These students come from different states all over the country and more and more students are coming from the city of San Quintin, Baja California with diverse indigenous backgrounds. These students have had limited exposure to English in Primary and secondary schools in the city of San Quintin, B.C., as these do not offer EFL. Therefore, the students that are interested in our BA program are in a difficult position since they look for remedial English courses once they enroll in the B.A. Program. I will refer to this group as the *Formal population*, as will be explained in detail in Chapter 5 (Methodology section) as this chapter was aimed at describing the research context of this study.

2.7 Summary

This chapter presents and frames the groundwork for this research. The research context and the role of English in the Mexican higher education system were discussed as well as the participants of this study. It is crucial to clarify how English is viewed in Mexico, as this is the stepping stone upon which diverse aspects of my research, such as methodologies, and interpretation/description of data rest.

Chapter 3: The Literature Review

3.1 Introduction:

To accurately describe the findings of a research project, it is vital to understand the disciplinary orientation in which the research takes place. This first section of the literature review chapter introduces the notion of the **Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT)** which is the approach since the Mexican context in which I am conducting this research, imposes over the teachers to follow a communicative approach to language teaching. An explanation of what it is and how research has been conducted around this approach becomes relevant. Therefore, the literature review chapters are separated due to methodological reasons as I seek to describe this ‘shift’ in teaching and learning a second language that can no longer be confined to a particular prescribed method, but a more multilingual approach that encompasses other linguistic resources.

Accordingly, this chapter reviews literature related to two intertwined fields of study which is the context of *Second Language teaching* and *Second language Acquisition*. Firstly, section 3.2 discusses CLT in Foreign Language Teaching. Secondly, section 3.3 sets forth the definition of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). This section also includes sub-sections such as a brief history of this approach as well as the most salient critiques of using it in the teaching of English.

Next, the concept of *Socio-Cultural Theories of Learning* is referred to as a fundamental component of second language teaching. Furthermore, different concepts of learning and teaching are advanced placing an emphasis on a re-conceptualization of what teaching and learning a second language entails within this socio-cultural shift. Finally, a detailed description of salient empirical CLT studies is presented with the purpose of framing the present study’s aim and research questions, as well as how others scholars in the second language context have approached the views here discussed and how the present research has built on them.

3.2 CLT in foreign language teaching

The increasing demand for suitable communication in the English language has significantly escalated the responsibility of the English language teacher. The CLT approach which started back in the 1980s is now being applied in many non-native countries where English has a foreign language orientation (Thirumalai, 2000; Ismail, 2011; Martini Mustapha & Aizan Yahaya, 2013). The proponents of the idea of English as a foreign language claim that though English is the language of business, court, military affairs, education, etc., it is not necessarily a means of communication among the masses.

Even though there are diverse contexts that have shifted toward the CLT approach as a favorable teaching approach for their countries to develop learners' communicative competence, empirical studies show a gap between desired teaching approach and actual practices (Nunan, 2003; Ansarey, 2012; Chung & Yi- Yeng, 2009; Asassfeh & Al-Shaboul, 2012; Karim, 2004). While some scholars such as Holliday (1994), argue that resistance to a specific teaching method is due to cultural and contextual differences, others claim that the CLT approach should be replaced by a contextual approach since CLT ignores the context that is a vital aspect of language teaching (Bax, 2003). Therefore, scholars need to expand their lens towards a more nuanced understanding of what takes place in the classroom and how the CLT approach fits into the equation. However, there is dearth of literature and research on the implementation of CLT in this context, and there are many ways to explore and determine the nature of CLT implementation in universities such as the teaching methods employed, the EFL policy adopted, evaluation mechanisms conducted, or teaching resources utilized in classes. In the following sections I will address the concept of CLT and its attributes in the teaching and learning processes.

3.3 Towards a definition of CLT:

CLT as defined by Candlin and Breen (1984:108) in the following manner: "We take the term *"communicative"* to mean geared to the competence and expectations of those participating in the learning process. In other words, a communicative approach is based on negotiation between all the parties concerned". A developmental view on CLT sees the language learner as no

longer an empty vessel that must learn a new language by means of a new set of stimulus/response characteristics, but a problem-solving person, with an extant communicative competence in a first, a second or third language. The learner therefore, brings to the classroom experience and knowledge which is valuable to the learning process (Holliday, 1994). In essence, CLT is also an approach which proposes that language learning should be done in a meaningful setting with authentic language as the input. It is an umbrella term which consists of an array of methods and techniques (Parrish, 2004).

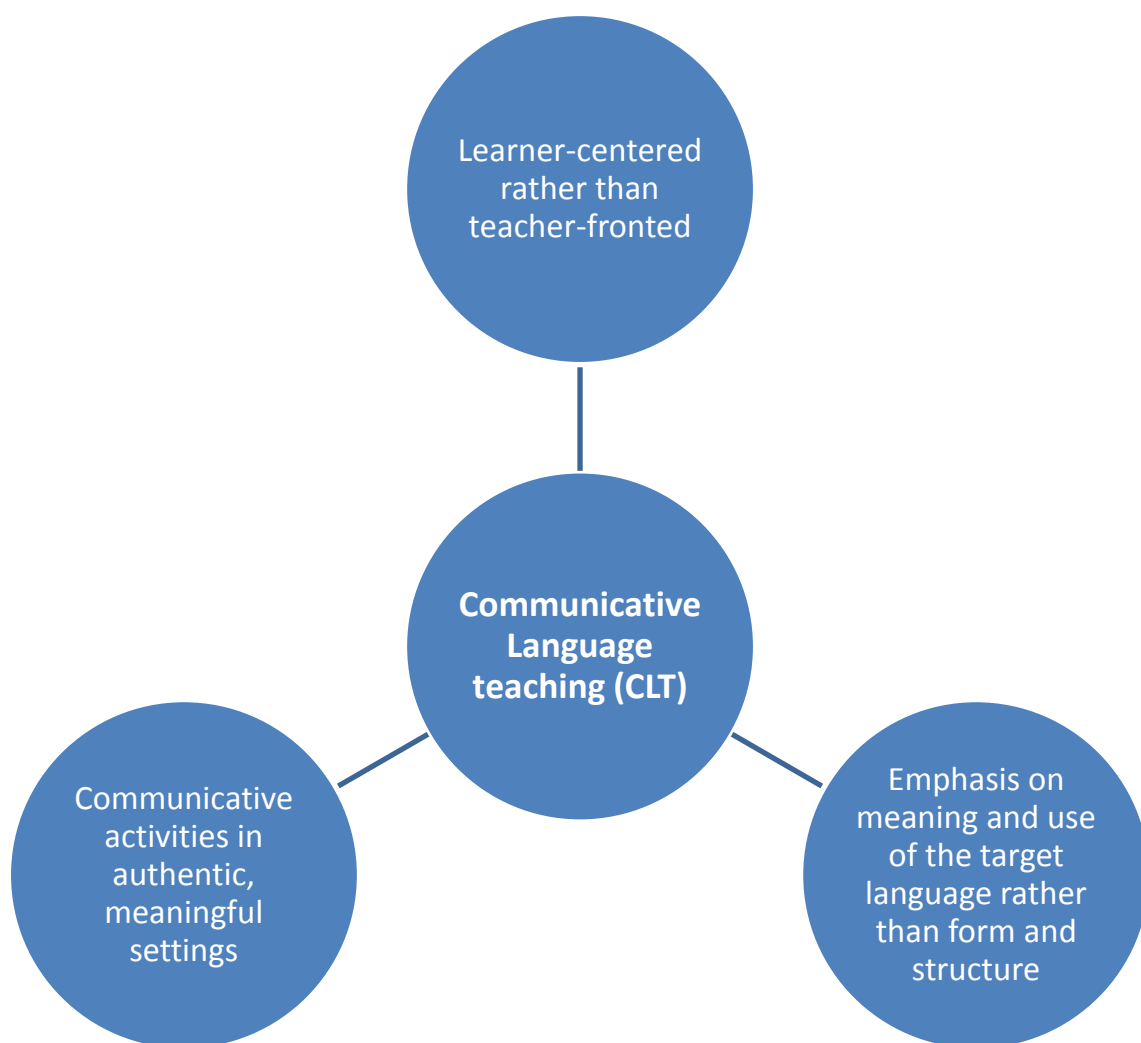
As described by Richards (1986), CLT is based upon the functional view of language which holds that language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning and highlights the pragmatic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical components of language. Describing CLT in this manner, there is clearly an emphasis placed on the communicative competence that surfaces from the learner's production of the target language (Brandl, 2008).

3.3.1 Brief history of CLT:

This CLT approach to second language teaching began in the late 1970s and was inspired by Hymes (1972), based on his ideas of communicative competence of language (Brown, 2000; Savignon, 2001; Lindsay and Knight, 2006). It was developed in Europe due to the language needs of groups of immigrants and guest workers which led the Council of Europe to develop a syllabus for learners based on notional –functional concepts of language use (Savignon, 2001). According to Lindsay and Knight (2002, p. 20), this approach is based on the view that language is learned in order to communicate effectively “in the world outside the classroom”. It emphasizes the meaningful use of language for communication, rather than the form and structure; hence the term “real-life” communication in the classroom (Brown, 2000). Or as Richards highlights, “communicative language today refers to a set of generally agreed principles that can be applied in different ways, depending on the teaching context, the age of the learners, their level, their learning goals and so on” (2006, Pg.22).

Pedagogically, CLT highlights the importance of fluency and ability to communicate in a variety of settings and in a variety of ways. Its potential in promoting communication has been discussed and studied vastly, (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Brown, 2001; Parrish, 2004; Lindsay and Knight, 2006; Nguyen, 2010). The **characteristics of CLT** are summarized in the figure below:

Figure 2: Characteristics of CLT



CLT focuses on developing learners' communication skills (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Lindsay and Knight, 2006; Nguyen, 2010). Larsen-Freeman (2000: p. 129) points that with CLT, 'almost everything is done with a communicative intent' (Nguyen 2010: p. 209) believes that the "notion of communication is

accordingly central in CLT: and CLT advocates learning through communication". CLT stresses more on meaning rather than structure, and students practice to communicate in the language through several types of communicative activities, such as role-plays, games and problem-solving activities and dialogues (Lindsay and Knight, 2006). Because of the requirements for the learners to practice communication, CLT places importance in an array of activities in the classroom where the learners are exposed to the use of the L2 in a meaningful, authentic setting. It provides the learners "a repertoire of communicative activities and opportunities" for learners to practice language skills in the classroom context (Littlewood, 2007). Larsen-Freeman goes on to suggest that there are three characteristics of CLT: a) communicative activities; b) the use of authentic materials; c) small group activities by the learners.

Therefore, since first introduced, the CLT approach has gradually overtaken other traditional methods of language teaching such as the Grammar Translation Methods or Audio-lingual Method, primarily because the centrality of grammar in language teaching and learning was questioned (Richards, 2006). Scholars such as Richards and Rodgers (2001) and Brown (2015) all contain major sections of the CLT approach. Notably, the increased research focus on English language instructions has also prompted in increased professionalism among English language teachers (Richards, 2008). As such, CLT denotes a shift in the language teaching focus. In terms of its principles, CLT is not a list of strict teaching methods; it is recognized as an approach rather than a method (Brown, 2015). A method is characterized by a finite set of described rules concerning linguistic features; an approach on the other hand, is dynamic and subject to amendments based on student learning or teachers' experiences (Brown 2015). Richards goes on to argue that "even though there is no single syllabus model that has been universally accepted, a language syllabus today needs to include systematic coverage of the many different components of communicative competence, including language skills, content, grammar, vocabulary and functions" (2006, pg.26).

3.3.2 Critiques to CLT

Like other approaches in language teaching, CLT has not been spared from criticisms. Swan (1990) views the communicative approach to language teaching as having weaknesses in terms of meaning and use, appropriacy, skills and strategies, syllabus design and methodology. A CLT approach is seen to full of confusion and uncertainty and results to conflict with teachers (Medgyes, 1990). According to Mangubhai's study (2007), teachers are uncertain and confused about the **meaning and use** of CLT. CLT places importance in providing learners with opportunities to practice language in meaningful, authentic settings. Nonetheless, Morton (1988, pg. 41) views that there is no genuine communication that takes place in the classroom because, "language classrooms can only imitate real-life situations".

Inconsistency between teaching beliefs and actual teaching practices provides additional evidence of teacher confusion over CLT. Parrish (2004, pg. 31) views that "although teachers throughout the world would describe their approach to teaching CLT as walking into classes that look very different in terms of activities, materials, and interactions". One might have expected the communicative approach to have embraced a more complex, sophisticated and dynamic view on communication in the L2 classroom. Seedhouse (2004:67) emphasizes that this approach has "adopted a monolithic, static, and invariant perspective on classroom interaction". Furthermore, the communicative view on L2 classroom interaction is not founded on any sociolinguistic or communication theory, but rather on a distinct, equal pedagogical concept.

Although the CLT approach has been widely adopted in many contexts around the world, it has come under criticism from some scholars (Bax, 2003; Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005, Kumaravadivelu, 2006). These argue that even though the CLT approach serves a useful function on correcting drawbacks in traditional approaches, it overlooks the importance of the learning context, including the culture of both the students and teachers involved in the language instruction (Bax, 2003).

Nonetheless, such criticisms focus on the dogmatic attitude of CLT proponents rather than the sources of resistance to the CLT approach. Other critics of CLT

argue that theoretical aim on interaction is rarely implemented even though many classrooms contexts consider their aim as communicative, the functional components remain largely grammatically focused (Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005; Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

3.4 Socio-cultural Theories of learning:

The communicative approach (CLT) is one of the methods directly connected with the **socio-cultural theory (SCT)**, as it emphasizes the function rather than the form of the language. The main objective of this approach is to engage learners in active communication that permits them to develop their communicative competence. In order to interact with each other, both learner and teacher utilize multilingual resources as it is part of this approach where it functions as a tool for communication between classroom members. Through the teacher's active participation or teacher-talk, where it involves "giving instructions, explanations, giving corrective feedback or error correction, questioning to initiate student responses" (Mesthrie, 2009:348), and the use of multilingual resources, as in this case code-switching; the teacher can provide clarification, explanations and meaning. This in turn, guides the learner to respond accordingly, interpreting and negotiating meaning of the target language skills which lead to a more communicative classroom (Hedge, 2000; 43-47). The goal of the teacher is to shift from teacher-centered to student-centered as they actively engage in meaningful content and activities as they collaborate (Ur, 2012:8, Yule, 2012; 190)

Learning theories have been developed and used in educational contexts for some time now. One of the most influential theory developers is the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978) as he argued that learning is primarily **social**, as humans develop necessary skills. Therefore, learning a language is achieved through social interaction as it requires joint collaboration, that is, if communication is achieved it will result in useful co-constructed knowledge. Hence, "learning is thought to occur when an individual interacts with an interlocutor within his/her **Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)**.

Nevertheless, to ensure development in the ZPD, the assistance or guidance received must have certain features and one of these is "**scaffolding**". The scaffolding metaphor is used extensively in language teaching and it is defined

as an instructional strategy that supports learning in its early phases through such techniques as providing leading questions, giving hints regarding to the best solution to a problem or answer to a question, and demonstrating how a task or tasks should be accomplished (Snowman and Biehler 2000). Thus, it is the process that enables students to move from their actual development level to their potential developmental level is referred to as “scaffolding” (Wood, Bruner, and Ross 1976). The consequent aim of scaffolding is that, when it is removed, the building will then stand on its own- “learners become more capable of working independently” (ibid.). Scaffolding can be carried out by both teachers and students alike (termed “peer assistance” in Ohta 2001, p.88).

Socio-cultural theories of learning emphasize the **social nature of learning**, which happens as students interact with the “**expert knower**” in a context of social interaction aiming to achieve some sort of understanding (Rohler and Cantlon 1996:2). From this stance then, together, learners actively build their own knowledge and understanding by associating, constructing concepts and mental schemata through joint meaning making. Sociocultural learning then, emphasizes the social, dynamic and collaborative dimensions of learning; both Vygotsky (1978, 1986, 1999,) and Bruner (1983, 1990) emphasize its interactional origin , whereby learning takes place in the first instance through interaction with others, who have the expertise to guide and support the **novice learner**. During this part of the development, “language is as a symbolic tool to clarify and make sense of new knowledge, with learners relying heavily on discussions with the “expert knower” (Walsh, 2013, p: 8).

This theory helps learners learn the target language skills in a social context. However, teachers need to be aware of the role of language in communication, which is to express ideas, thoughts, and feelings thus enabling the learners to be part of a particular speech community. As learners are learning to navigate with this new language, teachers aid them in developing strategies to help them understand each other and then co-construct and produce language output through speech and writing (Creese, 2005; Levine, 2011:33). Teachers are the other more competent interlocutors as they conduct the learner to next level of development.

Thus, as new ideas and recently acquired knowledge are incorporated, students use the language to exchange ideas and comment on what they have learnt: oral communication is the means to both transmit and clarify new data and then to reflect on and internalize what has been acquired. **Teaching and learning** are complementary activities in which each participant (teacher and learner) plays a role. Teachers can do this by facilitating interaction and learning opportunities in the classroom. In order for interaction to take place, the teacher needs to step out of the limelight to fully cede the role to the student in developing and going through the activities, to be tolerant to diverse opinions, to engage in genuine communication, or “engage in clarifying dialogue to reach the desired understanding” (Wells & Arauz, 2006:385).

Therefore, my position regarding teaching and learning in this study is that both teachers and learners collaborate in the construction of opportunities for learning as well as collectively maximize meaning through an enhanced understanding of L2 classroom interaction.

3.5 Turning point: We learn in interaction with others

The 1980s and 1990s was influenced by a “socio-cultural turn” as research focused more on studies that explored both “context” and “interaction”. Nonetheless, for some scholars (Block, 2003; Cook, 1999; Jenkins, 2006a, b; Kramsch, 2006; Seeley and Carter, 2004, Doughty & Long, 2003) research in this area has been static, that is, the native speaker continues to govern as the “baseline” or “target” that learners should seek to imitate; learning is perceived as a cognitive process that is basically context-neutral; and competence is still largely based on the learner’s grammatical competence (Markee & Kasper, 2004).

In the past two decades, there have been two directions in this socio-cultural, socio-interactional area, for example Lantolf and other scholars (e.g., Lantolf & Apple, 1994; Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Thorne, 2006; Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000) engaged in SLA theory building in the Vygotskian tradition which has been denominated as the “socio-cultural approach to SLA”. At the center of Vygotskian learning theory, experiential stages are first mastered with the help of others in the social context as the pathway to learning is thus through social

practice. To date, the social practice in which learning has been studied is in second or foreign language classrooms. In sociocultural theory: “Communication, including the instructional conversation of the classroom and the learning development that emerges from it, arise in the coming-together of people with identities (which entail more than simply whether one is a native speaker), histories and linguistic resources constructed in those histories.” (Dunn & Lantolf, 1998, p.427). Other scholars such as Hall & Verplaetse, (2000), Ohta (2001), and Hall (2002) mainly focus on classroom interaction and Vygotskian ideas of learning with an emphasis on data-driven research as well. This next direction in research emphasizes the social, contextual, and interactional in this particular situation as well as utilizing Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology. By bringing together scholarship that draws on both CA and SLA is taking both SLA and CA into new and undiscovered territory, thus enabling “the impetus for a whole new generation of empirically grounded research into how cognitive SLA might be respecified into sociocultural terms” (Markee & Kasper, 2004, p. 491).

This particular research focuses on the classroom context as well as other formal learning environments and is basically interested with the topic of second or foreign language learning through an interactional perspective (He, 2004: Hellerman, 2006; Kasper, 2004; Koshik, 2005; Lazaraton, 2002, 2004; Markee, 2000; Markee & Kasper, 2004; Mondada & Pekarek-Doehler; Mori, 2004a, b; Seedhouse 2004).

A social-interactional approach to learning, which is only just beginning to become established that focuses on *learning-in-and-through social interaction*, though absent from cognitive support. This approach can be described as follows: Learning is an integrated part of on-going activities and therefore positioned in both social practice and social interaction (see Leve & Wenger, 1991; Wagner & Pekarek-Doehler, 2006; Gardner & Wagner, 2004; Egbert, 2004; Mondada, 2006). Research adopting this approach may have the potential to visualize notions of learning as well as substantial consequences for SLA. Consequently, SLA’S acknowledgement of such theories or approaches would, “have major implications for SLA as a field of inquiry, as well as S/FL

pedagogy and only hints at possible developments that might have occurred in SLA, modern language teaching, and learning” (Firth & Wagner, 2007, p. 22).

3.6 Some features of the second language classroom

Seedhouse (2004 p.229) this defines the extensive relationship between pedagogy and interaction as “the L2 classroom has its own interactional organization which transforms the organizational focus (task-as work plan) into interaction (task-in process)”. This means that whoever is taking part in the L2 interaction and whatever the particular activity during the interactants are speaking the L2, they are always displaying to one another their analysis the current state of the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction and acting on the basis of these analyses (ibid). In this study, this particular feature will be demonstrated through the analysis of data extracts (Chapters 6, 7, and 8).

Walsh (2013) argues that there are distinct features of the second language classroom discourse since they typify much of the interaction that takes place in classrooms and are prevalent in many parts of the world. These features are: a) teachers’ control of the interaction, b) speech modification, c) elicitation, d) repair, e) student-student interaction. I will explain them briefly in this next section to understand how these features of the classroom influence what shapes and takes place in the on-going interaction between both parties (Cazden, 2001; Tsui, 1995). For this study, not all of these features were used obtained from the observational data, but I do have to delve into each one to help us understand the unique features of the second language classroom.

3.6.1 Teachers’ control of the interaction:

As in any institutional setting, the roles of the participants are not equal, they are asymmetrical. This means that one party is usually in a position of power or authority over the other by controlling the patterns of interaction that take place as well as manage and direct the interaction as deemed necessary. In second language classrooms, the teacher usually controls the patterns of communication by both the turn-taking mechanism and the topic of conversation. Students in turn, typically take their indication from the teacher

through whom they conduct most of their answers. Even in most learner-centered classrooms, the teachers usually decide who speaks, to whom and when, as well as interrupt when they consider necessary, switch topics, hand over a turn, cede the floor, and direct the discussion. Even though there has been a shift in the past twenty years or so to more learner-centered teaching, students still do not have the same freedom or level of control of the interaction patterns of communication. There will be some situations where the interaction patterns will be more symmetrical, allowing learners' more space to participate and more turn-taking to take place. In sum, teachers have a very unique status in the classroom context, thus through the authority they assume, control both the content and the manner a certain lesson will be taught, as well as who will participate and when. But it is ultimately a joint venture between teachers and students alike, as they control "the structure and content of classroom communication, and students, as they interpret and respond to what teachers say and do" (Johnson, 1995:145). In short, the patterns of communication that are carried out in each classroom context will regulate the manner in which second language learners utilize language for classroom learning and second language acquisition.

3.6.2 Speech modification:

One of the most distinguishing features of classroom discourse is teachers' modification of their spoken language. This happens for a three main reason as these modification strategies are not accidental, they are conscious and premeditated. The first reason, and most important is that if learners are to learn, then the teacher must modify his/her discourse on order for the students to understand what is taking place. The second reason is that in most cases, the teacher models the language for the learners as they utilize the appropriate intonation, pronunciation, word stress, etc., in order for them to have the opportunity to hear the sounds of the L2. In certain cases, the teachers' use of the L2 is the only exposure to the L2 that learners receive, and therefore, the target language should be modelled appropriately.

The third and last reason for speech modification is due to the teacher ensuring that the learners do not get lost in the unfolding interaction, so he/she makes

use of these interactional resources to guarantee that the class is understanding and does not get lost. In addition to how teachers modify their speech as discussed in the before-mentioned, other subtle strategies to check or clarify meaning also include confirmation and comprehension checks, repetition, clarification requests, reformulation, and rephrasing a learner's contribution just to name a few. In short, these strategies help constitute the "cooperativeness" of classroom interaction as both teacher and learner help co-construct meaning and guarantee that the classroom discourse flows accordingly.

Transition markers such as "right", "now", "so", "alright", and "ok" are typical discourse markers that are crucial in signaling changes in the interaction at hand. If the use of transition markers is not utilized by the teacher, it will not aid them in channeling the learners through discourse, signal a change in the activity at hand, maintain their attention, as well as highlight the beginning or end of a lesson stage. In sum, the use of transition markers in the classroom will help the class be cohesive, meaning that the flow of the class transcends without any inconveniences. Arguably, by permitting the learners to request information, to seek clarification, by reiterating their contributions, by paraphrasing and extending students contributions and by "molding" what learners express, the teacher is no doubt aiding the learners language development. In conclusion, modified speech is a crucial factor in classroom interaction. Adequate speech modification not only guarantees the learners feel at ease and included, but gives them the confidence to be a part of the classroom interaction.

3.6.3 Elicitation Techniques:

Elicitation techniques can be defined as the strategies usually used by teachers to elicit the learners' responses. This usually entails asking questions as classroom discourse is monopolized by question and answer routines where the teacher typically asks the questions and the learners respond. It is by asking questions that the teacher is able to control the discourse and at the same time receive feedback on the learners' performance regarding what they understand and do not understand. The teacher recurs to asking questions which can be

either display or referential questions to check their understanding or as mentioned above, to get feedback on learners' work. Display questions serve an array of functions such as eliciting responses, checking understanding, promoting involvement, and concept checking, therefore, the characteristics of display questions is to check or evaluate: learning, understanding, concepts, learning, previous knowledge ,etc. Learner responses are usually very simple, restricted as opposed to creating the space for more elaborate answers and learning; it tends to be narrowed down to an automatic type of interaction which is seldom depicted in IRF/IRE sequence. Referential questions result in more "natural" responses by learners which are characterized as more complicated and longer as the end result may be a more conversational type of interaction.

Referential questions often begin with a *-wh* question such as *why, what, who*, etc. To further this argument, Seedhouse (2004) emphasizes the extent of classroom discourse as not being 'oneness", but a thriving, constantly changing series of micro-contexts which are constructed both through the task-of-the-moment and the subsequent interaction. Another issue which needs to be noted in this next section is the prevailing exchange structure present in classrooms around the world, one which cannot be disengaged with the goal(s) of the lesson at hand and the general features of discourse structure Mehan (1979), as well as the relationship of the structure to the function Wells (1986), in each specific context. Learning opportunities are also heightened by the fact the teacher needs to seize the floor to the learners as a more dialogic classroom atmosphere is created in which the learners feel free to take risks, negotiate meaning and participate in the on-going interaction. It seems that in discussions concerning this IRF/IRE structure, the arguments are shaped in regards to its inability to stimulate genuine communication similar to the one found outside the classroom context (Kasper, 2001, Seedhouse, 1997). Similarly, other researchers (Walsh, 2006; Seedhouse, 2004) argue that the classroom is a social context and needs to be characterized and accepted like any other context. In the last two decades or so, there have been studies (Alexander, 2008; Mercer, 2009) that rely actively on sociocultural theories of learning and it does seem relevant to point out that there is a relation between IRF and sociocultural theories of learning, especially in the "F" move in this exchange

structure as the teachers' feedback on a learner's contribution or response is deemed to guide or help learners (e.g. scaffolding) as well as promote more expense and elaborated responses. Therefore, the assumption that the IRF exchange structure is still the most common discourse structure in classrooms in different contexts still holds some truth and how scholars (Nassaji and Wells, 2000; Cullen, 1989) argue for its relevance to be challenged. This poses an interesting question as the classroom structure in diverse contexts around the world has actively changed as the dominant frameworks for teaching second languages is oriented to teaching learners to be more communicative both inside and outside the classroom context.

3.6.4 IRF/IRE exchange structure:

This section focuses on presenting a brief description of the prevalent IRF exchange structure which can be identified in classrooms around the world. This three part exchange structure was first put forward by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and is a dominant feature of classroom discourse and consists of three parts: a teacher Initiation, a student Response, and a teacher Feedback, most commonly known as IRF, or IRE as set forth by other scholars, Initiation, Response, Evaluation, as they argue that most of the time, the feedback provided by the teacher is in the form of an evaluation of a learners contribution. It is also referred to as a recitation script or triadic structure.

Classroom lessons can be described as classroom speech events where there is a certain appropriate behavior and rules of both the teachers and students communicative performance in classroom events. The basic structure of classroom lessons are a sequence of acts; initiation act, a response act, followed by an evaluation act (IRE) (Mehan 1979; Sinclair & Clouthard 1975). The IRE sequence is the most common interactional sequence of classroom lessons. Thus, the teacher initiates with a questions, the student(s) responds and the teacher then provides an evaluation. These discourse patterns are easily identified in classrooms.

The IRF sequence is helpful in the language classroom since it enables teachers to comprehend its special nature. An appreciation of this pattern

enables the teacher to consider how they might go about varying the interaction carried out in the classroom as well as introduce alternative types of sequence.

Sinclair & Clouthard's work helped many researchers understand the complexities of the classroom in a sense in which both teachers and learners' interact with each other that led to growth in the field of teaching, and in turn, were able to make four key observations about this exchange structure. The first observation reveals that all classroom discourse is goal-oriented, that is, the main responsibility for setting goals lies mainly with the teacher. Both the language used and the pedagogic objectives used to achieve them are closely related. Secondly, it is the teacher who controls the student participation through his/her authority in the classroom and through their control of the discourse as well. They control who may speak, when, to whom, for how long, and on what topic. They also have control of the turn-taking through the use of IRF by initiating a response or providing an evaluation further evidencing their tight control of the classroom interaction. Another note-worthy observation is that the students take their prompts from the teacher and seldom initiate a response. Walsh argues that students roles, "one which they are socialized into from an early age, is to answer questions, respond to prompts and so on" (2013; 42). While in some contexts; as in university contexts where learners play a more active and responsible role as they manage the discourse by normally responding to the teacher.

Mehan (1979) argues that the IRE sequence is embedded within three broader phases that build the general structure of classroom lessons. The first phase is the a) opening; its main purpose is to guide the students to the content that will be dealt with, as well as give the learner the procedural information about what is expected from their participation in the task; an b) instructional phase, which include instructional activities that highlight specific areas of the content being taught; and finally; the closing phase, which gives informative and procedural information as what is to be expected from the students to do with the content that is being learned.

Observations of the exchange structure of classrooms:

- ✓ All classroom(s) discourse is goal-oriented. The responsibility for establishing goals and setting the agenda lies largely within the teacher. Pedagogic goals and the language used to achieve them are very closely related, even intertwined.
- ✓ The prime responsibility for what is said in the classroom lies with the teacher. They control turn-taking through the use of IRF, not only do they initiate a response, they offer an evaluation.
- ✓ Learners take their cues from the teacher and rarely initiate a response. Their role, one which they are socialized into from a very early age, is to answer questions, respond to prompts, and so on.

Thirdly, by studying the IRF sequence facilitates the teacher to understand the complex nature of classroom interaction as well as obtain a heightened awareness of how we can modify or introduce an alternate type of sequence. By adhering solely on an IRF sequence may result in a jagged, automated type of interaction allowing very little interactional space for the learner(s) to participate. Finally, it is evident that this exchange structure provides us an awareness of the manner that basically all spoken communication unfolds, therefore; this has an impact on the importance of how classrooms tasks and activities are designed, drawing attention, for example, the necessity for dialogues that contain three, rather than two parts as well as point out the most spoken interaction adheres to a three-part structure. It should be noted that I am not going to argue that this type of structure is prevalent in all classrooms around the world and that it is the only interaction that takes place; rather point out the need to “democratize” or “free-up” classroom talk as argued by (McHoul, 1985) decades ago for a call to re-organize any given classroom’s interaction patterns. Again, it is important to note however, that the IRF is not the only type of interaction that unfolds in the classroom (Cazden, 2001); or it is the single sequence type. In this sense, the “initiation” move of the IRF accomplishes different types of actions, and the third turn from the teacher may have as end result in an array of teaching activities and resources that can be maximized by both parties (Lee, 2007).

In this section, I have described some of the main features of the second language classroom discourse presented under three main lines: teacher's control of the interaction, speech modification, elicitation techniques, as well as the IRF sequence. These themes or topics have been chosen since unfortunately, space does not permit a more in-depth discussion of these definitions.

What I would like to highlight here is that even though adhering to an interactional approach of the second language classroom through observations, it is simply not sufficient in capturing and describing the collaborative and intricate nature of classroom discourse. This is the reason why I decided to utilize an applied conversational approach, as I will borrow tools of CA. Even though I will not do "pure CA", CA is considered "well –suited to accounting for the interaction, patterns of a specific institutional setting (such as the L2 classroom) where goals are predetermined and the interaction is multi-layered" (Walsh, 2006:61). Both classroom observations and teacher interviews will permit a triangulation as I will attempt to explain more fully, the complexities of the second language classroom and teachers' language practices in this EFL context.

3.7 Empirical CLT research in EFL contexts

Among diverse scholars' research on CLT, the following empirical studies were selected for three main reasons. Firstly, they were within a second language context using a **CLT approach**, which as reported by all, facilitated teacher's insights and knowledge on the methods and techniques employed which are reflected in the teacher's actual classroom practices. Secondly, the authors provided evidence that supported that **teacher reflection** will lead to a clearer understanding of the suitability of the CLT approach and will lead to further investigation on factors that could make the approach more suitable in diverse contexts around the world. And thirdly, the **proposed methodology was clear and suitable for collecting and analyzing classroom data embedded within a CLT teaching paradigm**, which served as framework for this PhD research.

Empirical research on the use of CLT approach in the second language classroom

With the advent of globalization, the 'ideal native speaker' belief has been on rapid decline. The English language is supposed to serve the purpose of non-native English speakers who now outnumber native speakers. Since its point of departure, the proponents of CLT have been constantly trying to prove its efficacy in ELT. Chowdhry (2010) argued that "when CLT was introduced, the English as a foreign language (EFL) context in which inevitably be applied was not considered". As Ramanathan (1999, pg. 212) asserted, "the much professed and popular theories (e.g., CLT) devised in the inner-circle of countries may or may not be compatible with the teaching conditions in the outer-circle countries". This highly westernized methodology of ELT was foreign to the locally sanctioned teacher-centered system where the authority of the teacher has local and cultural approval. Despite the fact that teaching should never be dormant, paradigmatic shift in teaching methodology can cause a downfall in language teaching. The context of ESL/EFL necessarily takes a cross-national and multi-cultural aspect, which has to take into account local needs and socio-economic conditions. Wei (2011) stated that "given the gap between the theories of communicative competence and the task confronting EFL teaching and learning, most of the previous research studies maintained that EFL countries should carefully study their English teaching situations and decide how CLT can best serve their needs and interests".

In contexts such as Vietnam for example, a study conducted by Li (1998) identified class size, grammar-based examinations, and the instructors' lack of exposure to authentic language as constraints on using CLT. In another study carried out by Wei (2011) in South Korea, on English teachers' perceived difficulties in adopting CLT suggested that EFL countries like the before-mentioned, need to change their fundamental approach to education before CLT can be adopted. This is partly due because of the predominance of text-centered and a grammar-centered practice in Korea does not provide a basis for the student-centered, fluency-focused, and problem-solving activities required by CLT. Vasilopoulos (2008, pg; 66) goes on to add that "many years have passed since the introduction of CLT approach in Korea, however despite curriculum reform and passage of time, many remain skeptical of the

effectiveness of communicative methodology in the Korean English teaching classroom”.

In contexts such as China, Liao's (2000) study also resulted in a call for the adoption of CLT as it derived from an educational problem that needed to be solved. This particular problem was the existing unsatisfactory teaching results of the traditional grammar-oriented method. Another aspect that was also detected was that the implementation of the CLT approach faced many obstacles as teachers believed that it was not feasible to adopt CLT because of its particularities. These particularities included the teachers' inability to teach communicatively and grammar-focused examination pressure as China is a vastly different English language teaching environment from the one that spawned and nurtured CLT.

Therefore, the government's educational policies and a special aim on increasing the students' communicative competence paved the way for the CLT approach in this context. Wenjie (2009) concurs with Guangwei Hu (2005, pg. 637) as he argues that “despite a lack of consensus among researchers regarding the appropriateness of CLT for China, the Ministry of Education was impressed by the high profile that the methodology enjoyed internationally and was convinced that it would provide the best solution for the wide-spread problem of students' low competence in using English for communication even after years of formal instruction in the language”.

Ahmad & Rao's study (2013) is a first part of their research carried out to investigate the comparative usefulness of the Grammar-Translation Method and CLT approach in teaching English at the intermediate level. A pre-test, post – test group design was used to measure achievement and attitude of the students. The second part of the researcher consisted of a survey study to investigate the Pakistani teachers' perception of the CLT approach and their perceived impediments in its application at the higher secondary level. A semi-structured questionnaire was used for this purpose, and ten teachers were interviewed. The data suggested that all in all, the implementation of the CLT approach is a harbinger of new era for non-native speaking countries, if the attainment of communicative competence in the target language is the goal.

Further research is needed on a larger-scale as the application of CLT should be tested on different levels of education, such as primary, elementary, secondary and higher education contexts. All the four language skills should be included in language assessment as further work in syllabus design for the CLT approach is also essential.

In Malaysia, Ahamad Shah & Othman (2006) investigated learners' modified output in CLT classrooms. In this study, the researchers examined teacher's questions and students' answers during classroom interaction. Their study revealed that teachers do not provide sufficient opportunities for the students' production of modified output.

Musa (2011) investigated the potentials of project-based learning in developing students' language and communication skills. They report that project-based learning approach has succeeded in developing students' language and communication skills in all four skills, primarily listening, speaking, reading, and writing. However, the findings also reveal language and communication problems faced by the students. Mohd Sidek (2012) studied English language curriculum for secondary school in Malaysia in relation to CLT. The aim of the study is on EFL reading instructional approach based on Communicative Task-Based Language Teaching (CTBLT) characteristics. The findings of the study demonstrated that the curriculum is highly lacking communicative task-based approach characteristics.

Lee's (2001) study focused on the relationship between beliefs, practices, reflections, and teacher reflectivity as in a similar vein, Nam's (2005) study aimed at discovering the perceptions of university students and teachers in Korea on CLT and her findings reveal that teachers have positive opinions on CLT. However, her findings also demonstrate that students display negative opinions on CLT. In contexts such as Turkey, Ozsevik (2010) delved into researching the challenges and difficulties faced by teachers implementing CLT. His findings show that teachers are not very optimistic about CLT as the participants have very different opinions and understandings on CLT and the application of the CLT approach in their teaching practices.

Martini Mustapha & Aizan Yhaya's (2013) study aims at investigating teachers' pedagogical approaches in implementing CLT in the classroom practices in selected community colleges in Malaysia. The study provides insights on teachers' knowledge on CLT and the methods and techniques employed by the teachers which are reflected in the teachers' actual classroom practices. Data revealed that the successful implementation of CLT in English language teaching community colleges depends largely on the lecturers' understanding and beliefs on CLT which was reflected through their actual teaching practices in the classroom.

This was evidenced from their methods and techniques applied in the classroom, in the manner they designed the activities for the learners and the materials used in the activities. The findings also highlighted the characteristics of CLT as evident from the observations as well as the non-characteristics of CLT that existed in the lecturers' classroom practices. The findings proved to be valuable as they gave insights that can contribute towards the improvement of English communication skills among community college students.

In Pakistan, Arkram & Mehmood (2011) report on an experimental study conducted to know the importance of introducing the communicative approach in ELT in teacher training programs. Their data revealed that CLT enhances the learners' confidence and it gives a sense of satisfaction to the teacher as well, in the sense that she/he is successful in making the learners use the target language in their conversation. CLT provides clarity to the expression as the CLT approach is better than all the other methods in language teaching in general and Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in particular because the GTM is more concerned with teaching about language rather than language itself whereas the communicative approach establishes a direct link between the experience and the expression.

In the Latin American context, only a few studies have taken place, these are the few that stand out. Acosta & Cajas' (2018) study looked at how CLT is implemented in Ecuadorian universities through the analysis of teaching resources that teachers use in classes. A survey was conducted through the administration of a questionnaire to 65 teachers. The results indicated that in

developing productive skills, group-oriented activities such as pair-work and share scheme and role-plays are frequently conducted, and the use of worksheets, translator applications and audio materials were often used in developing students' receptive skills. The analysis of frequently used resources showed that teachers tried to develop students' communicative competence, one of the core principles of CLT; however, most of these resources were not teacher-made but support materials of textbooks produced by publishing houses abroad. In sum, too much dependence on these resources influences teacher interaction with students and also diminishes the role of the teacher as the main source of language input especially when audio-recorded material is used.

In Chile, Muñoz, Baeza & Campos' (2013) study revealed poor results in terms of student performance when using the English language. They argued that a communicative curriculum does not assure the use of the language communicatively. The study attempted to determine the degree of congruence between the methodologies used within English classrooms and the tenets proposed by the CLT approach in three municipal schools in Chile. Data was collected from three English classrooms and five students randomly selected as well. A semi-structured interview was used for the teachers and a focus interview with the latter. The data revealed that despite the use of different proposals of the CLT, communicative competence is not being enhanced among students who do not have the possibility to use the English language as a communicative tool.

3.8 Summary

As set forth in the beginning of the chapter, this section has reviewed literature related to two intertwined related fields of study which is the context of *Second Language teaching* and *Second language Acquisition*. Accordingly, different concepts of learning and teaching were discussed in order to understand how learning and teaching a second language within a socio-cultural shift encompasses. Finally, important empirical CLT studies were presented with the purpose of framing the present study's aim and research questions. It was established that the goal of this research was to look into the ways that both teachers and students use their multilingual resources to negotiate meaning. The aim is reporting on how by collaborating with these resources in the classroom, the participants involved can negotiate meaning. All this with a focus on gaining a more emic perspective stance adopted for this study.

Chapter 4 The Literature review

4.1 Introduction

This chapter will focus on the second part of the literature review. Firstly, I will delve into theory related to **Code-switching (CS)**, which is the predominant **multilingual resource** utilized by both teachers and students to negotiate meaning in this study. Secondly, I consider the implications of the use of CS in **second language education** for example, if languages are no longer viewed as separate entities in separate linguistic boxes, (why) do language educators and certain higher education policies still prohibit the use of L1 in the second language classroom and are encouraged to use **English only**? Lastly, I review **recent scholarship** in the field of the interdependence among language and the separation of these in the EFL classroom, as I look at how teachers and learners use more than one language to negotiate meaning in the language classroom. Rather than assuming that regularity and balance represent the accepted criterion, we look at how the **mixing** and **mobility** is now a primary concern in the study of languages, communication, and language groups (Bloomaert & Rampton, 2011). Or as argued by Creese & Blackledge (2015, p. 20), “as large numbers of people migrate across multiple borders, and as advances in digital technology make available a multitude of linguistic resources, so communication is in flux and in development”.

4.2 Separation of languages

As these conditions are present, the assumption of separate languages as bounded systems of very specific linguistic characteristics may not be enough in order to analyze language in use and in action (Jorgensen, Karrebaek, Madsen & Moeller, 2011). Therefore, the concept of *a language* may be relevant as a social construct, but it may not be enough or appropriate as an analytic lens through which we perceive and understand certain language practices.

Thus, what is needed is pedagogy that incorporates the sophisticated and itinerant multilingual repertoires of their learners To delve into investigating this answer, I consider the potential of the use of multilingual resources (CS,) as pedagogy and practice. Therefore, in order to understand this, I must delve into

what is understood by the separation of languages at a macro level to go on to what actually happens in the multilingual classroom when both teacher and learner deploy a range of communicative resources to engage in interaction.

4.2.1 Language

In recent academic circles, the sociolinguistic study of multilingualism has shifted from an absolute view of languages as separate, bounded identities (Creese & Blackledge, 2015), to perceiving communication in which language users may recur to diverse resources at their disposal to achieve their communicative objectives successfully (Jorgensen, 2011). More recently, a number of terms have materialized as scholars have sought to describe and delve into the linguistic practices in which meaning is made by utilizing signs in an adaptable manner. These include, for example flexible bilingualism (Creese & Blackledge, 2010), Codemeshing (Canagarajah, 2011), Polylingual languaging (Jorgensen, 2011, Madsen, 2011), trans-lingual practice (Canagarajah, 2013), and translanguaging (Garcia, 2009; Creese & Blackledge, 2011).

These common views on the usage of these terms consider meaning-making or negotiation of meaning is not restrained as an entwined set of linguistic resources. In other words, signs are present and available to be used for meaning-making in communicative repertoires that expand well beyond the constraints of languages and varieties belonging to specific territories and social groups (Rymes, 2010). These diverse terms share some common ground amongst each other in the sense that they perceive language as a social resource without any set boundaries, placing the learners at the center of the interaction.

Blommaert (2012) pushed this argument further as he advocated that “ a vocabulary including “multilingual”, or “pluri”, “inter-“, “cross”, and “trans”, notions all suggest an a priori existence of separable units (language, culture, identity), and they suggest that the encounter of such separable units produces peculiar new units: “multilingual “ repertoires, “mixed” or “hybrid” identities and so forth ((Blommaert, 2012, p.2).

In this sense, language whether monolingual or bilingual, transmits social meanings through grammatical, phonological, lexical, and discourse level forms as these “forms index various aspects of individuals and communities’ social histories, circumstances, and identities (Bailey, 2012, p. 506). Canagarajah & Liyanage (2012) have recognized that even monolinguals alternate between codes, discourse and registers so therefore cannot be denominated as monolinguals. This is similar to distinction of language as it is not sustainable anymore, the same happens with the distinction between mono- lingual, bilingual, multilingual as well. Instead, Canagarajah (2013) embraced the term “translingual practice” to illuminate the complex process of communicative modes. He also highlighted that further research is needed in order to fully grasp the communicative strategies that conform translingual practice as to explore the ramifications for social relations, language acquisition, and meaning construction. He also emphasized those pedagogical implications of translingual practice need to be addressed further as translingual practice is related to the assumption of translanguaging.

Garcia and Wei (2014) argued that the term translanguaging offers a way of delving and interpreting how the complex practices of speakers endure amongst different societal and semiotic contexts as they collaborate with diverse speakers. As can be noted, diverse scholars in the field advocate for a new concept of language as it is not sufficient and sustainable in today’s globalized world. In the following section I consider some ways that CS has been studied from different perspectives and for different purposes in various contexts around the world. Even though I use the term “codeswitching”, I understand the language as many another scholars do (Creese, & Blackledge 2015; Bloomart & Rampton, 2011; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Garcia, 2009).

This next section is divided into themes that I find relevant as they aid in understanding the recent research such as the ones carried out by other scholars who have directly called for or hinted at the need for a broader, multilingual and flexible approach to pedagogy (Cummins, 2005; Anderson, 2008; Lin & Martin, 2005; Arthur & Martin, 2006; Garcia, 2007; Makoni & Mashri, 2007; Bailey, 2007).

4. 3 the multilingual classroom: a space for many languages

Bilingual education has often and traditionally argued that languages should be kept separate in the learning and teaching of languages. It is often hinted that teachers should compartmentalize and teach languages as autonomous and discrete linguistic entities as this benefits the learner. To date, this discussion is brought up in the theory behind duality of bilingual immersion programs of the United States, which are described as “periods of instruction during which only one language is used”(Lindholm-Leary, 2006, p.89).

Encouraging translation in L2 teaching is perceived as a reversion to the criticized grammar/translation method or concurrent translation method. As languages are kept separate in teaching of learning languages, Cummins coined this as “two solitudes”. Other scholars in recent literature similarly captured it as “parallel monolingualism” Heller (1999), Swain (1983) used the phrase “bilingualism through monolingualism” (p.4); Creese & Blackledge (2008) used the term “separate bilingualism” to describe the language learning classroom contexts in complimentary schools where the teacher prefers and insists on the use of the L2 only. These terms describe the constraints put up around languages as they represent a position of the multilingual/bilingual teacher and student as “two monolinguals in one body” (Gravelle, 1996, p.11). Therefore, a **Socio-cultural theory of learning** (see Lantolf, 2000) encourages both teachers and learners to interact and co-construct meaning as learning is a socially mediated process and includes communicative activities as previously explained (chapter 3-section 3.4).

4.4 Defining Code-switching: An overview

This study acknowledges that CS can be used by monolinguals when changing styles, (Martin-Jones, 1997; Milroy and Muysken, 1995; Auer, 1984, 1988a) but here the scope of is narrowed down to the alternation between two languages, specifically Spanish and English in Mexico for this study. The alternation of L1 and L2 in the classroom is generally known as code-switching (Martin-Jones, 1997; Milroy and Muysken, 1995; Auer, 1984, 1988a). While this is an **umbrella term** used in a range of ways, it does speak of a certain position on language. Other terms such as *translanguaging* (Garcia, 2007), percolate in diverse

academic circles. Therefore, I adhere to the definition that code-switching since it takes into account the abilities that multilingual speakers have to switch within or between sentences from and to the codes in their repertoire (Corcoll-Lopez & Gonzalez-Davies, 2015). Another question seems to be whether or not it is imperative to make a distinction between *codeswitching* and *borrowing*. Furthermore, if the distinction is made between the two, what will the criteria be? (Kovacs 2001) *Borrowing* refers to lexicon only and usually one word items are borrowed from another language into bilingual speech (Kovacs 2001). In comparison, *codeswitching* is “a juxtaposition of two varieties which operate under two distinct grammatical systems” (Gumperz 1982, p.66). Accordingly, Myers-Scotton (1993) argues that the distinction between the two is not vital to the analyses of bilingual speech. Or as argued by Garcia (2009), the term CS is pertinent if viewed from a monolingual angle, which is the view of how both the institution and teachers perceive second language education as they separate languages in their instruction in this research context.

This study adheres to a **social approach**, as interaction in the second language classroom can be regarded as a communicative event. Research on CS in the classrooms has tended to focus on the role of language alternation in the restructuring of the participants’ linguistic and communicative repertoires (Nussbaum & Unamuno, 2001). Therefore, CS has thus been viewed as a resource available to both learners and teachers as it serves to address issues related to the management and completion of tasks. I begin with an overview of CS theory which sets forth the discussion of CS as a multilingual resource in the EFL classroom. Martin-Jones (1995) examines two areas of CS research in classrooms:

1. The first were earlier studies where the first attempts were made to conduct classroom discourse analysis in bilingual contexts. This research’s primary focus is on the communicative functions of CS in teacher-led talks and on the frequency in which particular languages were employed to perform different functions.
2. The second area consists of recent studies which examine in more detail the sequential flow of classroom discourse and of the manner in which CS contributes to the shared interactional responsibility that teachers and

learners carry out in the bilingual classroom. This research incorporates the elements of a conversational analytic approach to CS and is grounded in ethnographic observation.

In this study, the research that has been carried out falls into the **second strand of CS**. The study of language and discourse has been a vastly researched area for some time now. The study of discourse has developed in a variety of disciplines- sociolinguistics, anthropology, sociology, and social psychology, thus discourse analysis takes different theoretical perspectives and analytical approaches: speech act theory, interactional linguistics, ethnography of communication, pragmatics, conversation analysis, and variation analysis (Schiffrin, 1994). Although each approach emphasizes different aspects of language use, they all view language as social interaction. Thus, language can be viewed from a critical perspective as Heller (2007:2) perceives it:

“As a set of resources which circulate in unequal ways in social networks and discursive spaces, and whose meaning and values are socially constructed within the constraints of social organizational processes, under specific historical conditions”.

In this sense, Heller's (1999) proposal marks a shift in CS studies as she proposes a framework that situates the study of CS within the macro plan of study of the protocols of language. Thus, CS allows speakers to gain or deny access to symbolic or material assets of different sorts. Therefore, CS is not simply a conversational action, it aids participants “to engage in the creation, exercise, and fulfillment or change of power relations” (Nilep, 2006, p.13). Context is essential in shaping the interaction and the language used in certain settings, apart from the bilingual ability in the person's use of their two languages. That is, what use is made of the participants two languages: when, where and with whom? This emphasizes the importance of considering domain or context. A bilingual progress from one situation to another so may the language utilized in terms of kind (e.g. Spanish or English), style, or content (e.g. vocabulary).

The linguistic system of a speaker is made up of personal linguistic aptitudes which in turn, have been acquired through interaction in the course of the

individual's biography (Franceshini, 1996). Moreover, types of interaction are shaped by the background/history of societies. Languages are then formed by groups of speakers who utilize recurring linguistic characteristics in the same manner. Furthermore, along with other symbolic systems such as (e.g. posture, gestures, clothing, etc), language serves to set apart the speaker from others by labeling the speakers belonging to a certain community by means of a parallel use of language. Henceforth, shaping linguistic disparities also has an identity function (Gumperz, 1982b, Lepage and Tabouret Keller 1985). By the manner that the participants use specific recurring linguistic features, we are able to perceive each other as members of a community.

In their discussion of CS, sociolinguists have focused their attention on CS in conversations mainly between bilingual adults in informal settings (Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Gumperz & Hernandez-Chavez, 1971), the study of conversation has also expanded to include conversation (Jorgensen, 1998; Zentella, 1982, 1997) between young bilingual children , as well as in more academic settings (Aguirre, 1988; Benjamin, 1996), and more precisely, second or foreign language classrooms (Ludi & Py, 1986; Pekarek, 1999; Nusbaum, 1909; Nusbaum & Unamuno, 2001; Uamuno, 2003). As can be noted, CS studies have transcended from diverse contexts as before-mentioned, to the origin of this study which is to describe and analyze the language practices that teacher and learner engage in order to negotiate meaning in the EFL higher education classroom in Mexico.

4.5 Code-switching in second language learning classrooms: Braiding content and languages

A social perspective on language acquisition positions CS outside a conventional focus on “communicative contexts to including exolingual contexts in which the participants’ competences are uneven or asymmetrical, to bilingual contexts in which participants using more than one language have language competences that are comparable or symmetric” (Unamuno, 2008, p.2). This characteristic between bilingual and exolingual can aid in understanding the diverse uses of language switch in the classroom. Though I emphasize that these are not isolated contexts, but a rather a sequence along which the learners learn to navigate depending on the task –at-hand which they are

currently carrying out (Ludi, 1999; Pekarek, 1999; Py, 1997). Furthermore, much of the research on CS between classroom peers depends on data obtained from bilingual populations for whom the objectives of the interaction is to develop competence in one of the two languages. Other studies have dealt with data obtained in foreign language classrooms, especially in EFL classrooms. Nonetheless, data from research oriented towards foreign languages other than English, are studies carried out by (Apfelbaum 1992; Griggs 1997, 1999; Masats and Unamuno (2001); and Nusbaum (1999) that are worthy to be noted.

This research contributes to existing conversations regarding the context of English as a Foreign language, as it examines the language practices among both teachers and learners in the higher education context who are currently attending EFL classes to simply learn the language, or to be able to graduate from diverse fields as they have to take an exit exam in English. The languages in which they code-switch is from their mother-tongue (Spanish) and the target language (English) as it focuses on two languages only. I also need to relate this study to other research which has advocated that the analysis of CS must consider the understanding of these contexts by the participants (Mondada, 2001), and the balance between their linguistic competences, (Py, 1999) and the tasks or on-going interaction they are attempting to carry out (Pekarek, 2005).

My research has common ground with social perspectives on language acquisition that contend that CS can be understood either as a strategy for the acceptance of the target language (Pekarek, 1999), as a communicative strategy, or as evidence of a multilingual competence (Pekarek, 1999). To date, there has been no systematic description of the role played of CS in affective or socialization processes, though diverse research (Castelloti & Moore, 1997: Cook, 2001: Kramsch, 1995: Levine, 2003: Moore, 2002) has demonstrated that the use of more than language in the classroom permits the learners to exemplify two aspects: the learning context and the language learners' identity. In other words, the multilingual classroom shapes and becomes a context where the learners' bilingual or multilingual identities are accepted as this can make a positive contribution to the learning atmosphere.

Once the learners perceive the classroom as a community of practice, where CS is considered a legitimate practice, it becomes one of the activities accepted by the participants of that community (Leibschner & Dailey O’Cain, 2005: Pekarek, 1999).

Like these studies, this research calls for the possibility of taking advantage of CS as a **valuable resource for learning languages** and participating communicatively in classroom interactions. My research is grounded on the assumption that CS between languages functions benefit the practical activities, such as the need to accomplish an assigned activity. Furthermore, there are restrictions in regards to the limited resources available in a determined language and the willingness to cooperate in terms of conversation and alignment towards the social task, etc. Likewise, CS can be viewed as resource which the participants can utilize to lead to diverse roles or identities; such as those of a colleague, classroom peer, student, etc., that are convenient for the performance of social activities such as learning.

Altogether, (CS) has been vastly researched. An earlier study by Bailey (2000:165-166), emphasizes that (CS) research has focused on the following aspects. There are two main ways that CS can be studied: the linguistic and social approach (Winford 2003). The linguistic approach deals with a sentence, the attempt being “to identify the linguistic principles and restraints that rule the production of codeswitched utterances” (Winford 2003,p. 126). The social approach focuses on the motives and social meanings of code-switching. This approach views CS as a communicative event where CS is happening between speakers (Winford, 2003: 125).

4.6 Multilingual resources for the Contemporary second language classroom: Six Communicative functions of Code-switching

This study follows a **social approach**, as interaction in the second language classroom can be regarded as a communicative event. Accordingly, the study acknowledges the functions of CS as being a part of the social approach. Thus, the CS functions or labels used in this study are based on Eldridge’s (1996) classification system and are described as follows: **equivalence, meta-language, floor-holding, reiteration, socializing, L2 avoidance.**

Equivalence: “Equivalence” code-switches are those that appear to be provoked by the absence of the lexical item in the learners’ inter-language.

Meta-language: This switch happens because even though the learners perform the task(s) in English, the discussion about and them and other concerns regarding procedure are carried out in their L1.

Floor holding; This occurs when it is used by learners who want to continue with the on-going interaction without pausing or being interrupted, so the switch from L2 to L1 takes place because the item can be recovered faster in L1.

Reiteration: This CS function happens when the messages have already been articulated in the target language, but are clarified or highlighted in L1, especially when they are perceived to not have been understood by either party.

Socializing: These switches seem to develop a sense of group solidarity, generally occurring in jokes or gossip.

L2 avoidance: These take place when a learner seems to have the linguistic resource(s) to communicate the message in L2, but prefers to do so in L1. Even though the utterance produced maybe related to the task at hand, it usually reveals disparity from the task focus.

These CS functions are used to analyze the classroom interactional data as both the learner and student may draw from one or more for diverse motivations within the classroom context. These functions serve as a framework of motives of CS in a communicative event in the second language classroom. My view of CS is that it is both learning and a communicative strategy, as they hold a positive place in language learning by connecting all languages through informed practices to hinder efficient language learning (Corcoll-Lopez & Gonzalez-Davies, 2016). Therefore, moving from instruction in “English only” to instruction in the “target language mainly” (Corcoll-Lopez & Gonzalez-Davies, 2016:76) is needed to shift from the notion of teaching multilingual students through monolingual instruction as evidenced and discusses in the analytical chapters (Chapters 6,7, and 8) of this study.

4.7 Empirical research studies on CS in second language teaching

Given the extensive development of CS studies in past decades and recently, I focus on both studies that favor and oppose language mixing in the second language classroom. I separated these studies as to provide an extensive account of the prevalent research in the field as to reveal the impact of these in this study. Therefore, this next section is concerned with discussing the monolingual bias, both in research and language teaching. I will first focus on empirical studies that are against an “**English-only policy**” that regards the separation of languages is ideal in the teaching and learning of languages. The methodological stances of these studies that I analyze are somewhat similar to the methodology of my study where I borrow tools of Conversation Analysis to explore how **code-switching (CS)** in EFL classroom interaction can illuminate interactional phenomenon and reveal its systematic properties.

4.7.1 Empirical research studies against English-only policies:

Recent studies argue whether the official “English-only” policy in place in this and other classrooms around the world is pedagogically justified, or instead advocate for more multilingual practices. The much debated issue of the use of the first language (L1) in the classroom when teaching English continues to appeal to researchers in diverse contexts around the world as confirmed in various studies, (Brooks-Lewis 2009, Macaro, 2005, Eldrige, 1996; Ustunel & Seedhouse, 2005; Carless, 2007; Cook, 2002 Cenoz, 2007; Canagarajah, 2004, 2006; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Shohamy, 2006; Kramsch, 2006; Martin-Beltran, 2010; Van Lier, 2004; Lin, 2008; Ferguson, 2009; Lin & Martin, 2005; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Van der Meij & Zhao, 2010; Garcia, 2009; Wei, 2005; Unamuno, 2008). In academic conversations, the interest has geared towards a judicious use of the L1 to aid in the teaching and learning of L2 to the use of how L1 can be used to maximize learning in the L2 (Butzkamm, 2003; Brooks-Lewis *ibid.*) The discussions surrounding L1 is quite relevant with bilingual teachers’ speech, especially those that share a first common language with their learners. These teachers have the opportunity to recur to their shared language as a resourceful tool over other teachers who only speak the L2. There is still much debate on the use of L1 in the foreign language classroom

some condemn it, some not (for a discussion on the topic, see: Helot and O' Laorie 2011; Levine 2011).

Inside the classroom, teacher talk is the main source of language input as the teacher is the most influential factor and serves as an important model of L2 discourse features, grammar and pronunciation. Thus, input is considered the primary/raw L2 data for students to establish contact with the target language (Gass, 1997). Teacher input in the target language through an interrupted manner is still considered the essential medium of instruction (Krashen and Terrell 1983, 2000). Other research reveals that codeswitching (CS) is a useful pedagogical resource (Camilleri 1995; Heller and Martin-Jones 2001).

Practical explorations on this topic have been found such as Copland and Nikolaou's (2010) study, as they tried to unravel the complexities and contradictions related to making decisions about L1 use in the English language classroom. Analysis of data obtained from classroom observations and interviews in a Cypriot context, a number of functions for using L1 and teachers' criteria for doing so are identified. This paper attempts to research into the use of L1 in private language schools in a Cypriot context. Analysis of classroom interaction and interview data provide insight into when teachers use L1 in the classroom, why they do so, and how they feel about their teaching practice. The study demonstrates that classroom language choice is quite complex based on both the language learning and the affective truth of their language learning context. It is revealed that teachers recognize this complexity, though they seem less aware of the amount of L1 they use in class and for what purpose and not reporting the use of it or not fully "explaining" the use in the classroom. The article concludes by suggesting that even though the debate still prevails in academic conversations in various contexts around the world about the use of L1, these teachers still need to feel more reassured about adopting a more post-modern method in their teaching. Teachers need to reach their own conclusions about L1 use in the classroom, thus gearing future research in the field. The study also suggests that teachers should be supported in finding solutions to the problems and challenges they face in their specific contexts, so that they are fully aware of the choices and exploit the resources within their grasp.

This next research extends existing conversations about teacher code-switching in the second language classroom. Camilleri Grima's (2013) and Gauci's (2011) two-part study addresses the issue of teacher code-switching in the teaching of Italian in Malta. The data from this study demonstrates that the learners' first language (L1) - Maltese, is used as a pedagogical resource to enhance language learning. Teachers usually resort to Maltese to elicit oral responses from the learners, provide more learner-friendly explanations of certain grammatical or other language points, as well as involve them more in classroom activities. This study is based on lesson transcriptions, in-depth interviews with teachers and Italian professionals, as well as a student questionnaire.

Gauci's (2011) study examined a secondary school in Malta during the year 2009, learners ages were between 12 and 15. The study has three phases: a) lesson audio recordings and transcriptions; b) in-depth interviews with teachers and teacher educators of Italian; and c) the administration of a questionnaire to two groups of learners. The main aim of this study involves the audio-recording of Italian lessons taught by three different teachers. The teacher participants had a minimum of four years teaching experience and were qualified by the University of Malta. Two teachers are female and one is male. The objective was to make sure whether they recur to CS during their classes and subsequently to explain why and how this is happening. A total of 18 lessons were audio recorded, though the analysis is based on only two lessons by each teacher. Once the transcription process was carried out, an in-depth interview was done to each teacher participant to decipher their comprehension of code choice in their classroom. The conclusions can be categorized into those that favor the complete use of the target language, the ones who acknowledge the exclusive use of the target language but find it difficult to do so, and those who deem the usefulness of the L1 in the classroom context. All the participants of this study (e.g., teachers, teacher educators, and students), fall into the second or third category of Macaro's (2005) groups. In sum, no participant categorically mentioned that the target language must solely be used.

Teacher educators were most comfortable stating that the use of L1 was a necessity, and that a greater need of the target language was advisable. When

bilingual speakers are conscious that they share two or more languages there is a high probability that CS will happen. In the teaching context, “the classroom itself often becomes a codeswitching situation” (Cook 2008, pg. 179) because it is not a monolingual L2 context. Other researchers highlight that the excessive use of L1 in the communicative classroom into a content one, as the L2 classroom would “be downgraded to the status of subject-matter only, and would simply be discussed, commented on and assessed” (Nizegorodcew 2007, p.37), as opposed to being used as a tool.

Teachers reported that aspects such as the ability and the age of the learners was a vital role in deciding which language would be the medium of instruction and that similarly, the L1 was used for learners with lower proficiency because they found it “more difficult to infer meaning” (Macaro 2005, p. 68). In short, CS is viewed by both professionals and learners alike as a resource that provides the content of the lessons more accessible to learners who have difficulties understanding the L2. It is also stated that CS is a two-way street that should be chosen wisely as well as avoiding the abuse of it. Relying heavily on CS can be counterproductive for both students and teachers alike since it can be used as a shortcut, thereby minimizing the time that would be spent interacting in authentic communicative events in L2. Finally, all the participants of this study seem to agree that CS can be both an aid or a hindrance as stated by Macaro (2005) and Mezzadri (2003), and it is ultimately the choice of the teacher to decide on the adequate strategy needed as well as the appropriate CS strategy in order to fulfill the students’ needs in the classroom.

The research of Unamuno (2008) dug deeper into CS in the second language classroom using conversation analysis and sociolinguistic perspectives. This research examines interactions between 10-12 year old language learners of immigrant origin and locally born learners as they are interacting in verbal pair work. All the learners attending language classes in state primary schools in Barcelona in which Catalan is the official language of the classroom context. In this case, Spanish is the common language of interaction among students, and English is taught as a foreign language. Unamuno examined transcripts of the recorded classroom interactions between student pairs where she analyzed the part played by both Catalan and Spanish CS in the context where Catalan and

English is being studied. Results demonstrate that language alternation indexes practical issues related to both the completion and management of tasks. Even though CS seems to be a resource available to learners in this multilingual context; rather than viewing it as a misconstrued element, the implicit educational policies cannot be undermined. This further shows that the outcomes from more recent and specific studies on L2 in monolingual settings are more diverse and have a greater tendency to diverge than those from earlier studies, calling for a more flexible pedagogy in the foreign language context.

The findings from Creese & Blackledge (2010) set out to describe a flexible bilingual approach to language teaching and learning in Chinese and Gujarati community language schools in the United Kingdom. They argue for liberation from monolingual instruction approaches and instead advocate teaching through bilingual instruction strategies to bilingual children in which the use of two or more languages are prevalent in their teaching repertoire.

Other studies investigating why and what multilingual resources are used for within the second language classroom is Ustunel and Seedhouse's study (2005). This study focuses on code-switching in a Turkish university EFL class that identifies that L1 use is "orderly and related to the evolution of pedagogical focus and sequence" (ibid: 302). Data also reveals that learners' language preference relates to their intensity of alignment and misalignment with the teacher's pedagogical aim: learners tend to CS when they are engaged in classroom interaction that is different from the teacher's intended objective(s) at that stage of the lesson, such as when the learners are encountered with procedural issues. In Carless's (2007) report on teacher interviews in Hong Kong secondary schools, CS functions pin-pointed include expressing meaning, identity and humor. Likewise, Careless (2007: 331) argued that teachers should adopt a "balanced and flexible view of students use of the other tongue" states that classroom tasks can only develop students' interlanguage if they are able to interact with each other mostly in L2 and reposts on teacher strategies for encouraging target language use, (e.g., rehearsing tasks in L1 before producing final L2 versions).

Bonacina and Gafaranga's (2011) study attempted to account for the language choice and alternation phenomena that were observed in a French complementary school classroom in Scotland. A complementary school is also referred to as a "heritage language school". In Britain, these are "voluntary, community organizations, aiming primarily at literacy teaching in the heritage languages to the British-born generation of young children" (Wei and Wu 2009, p.196). This is basically done because ethnic communities request this as a means to maintain their linguistic and cultural heritage in a society where the school system is failing to meet their needs (Creese and Martin 2006, p.1; Wei 2006, p. 81). In this classroom context, there were three possibilities to conduct interaction as social action :a) interaction in French, the prescribed medium of instruction, b) in English, the other language in contact, c) as well as using both French and English. Once the learners make a choice in which language to interact in, the learners could diverge from it for certain practical effects. Data collection was carried out over a three-month period in the academic year 2004-2005 through participant observation in the five classes. Interviews were also done to the stakeholders and parents alike; as well as audio-recordings of classroom interaction in the advanced levels. Adhering to an ethno methodological/conversation analytic perspective, only transcripts of the classroom interaction data were acknowledged. The question which arises is therefore whether the model that is proposed in this study undermines or improves the belief that in bilingual classroom contexts, CS is a resource for learners. Based on the data obtained, this stance improves the belief that CS is evidently a resource in the bilingual classroom since it contributes to a more enhanced understanding of what exactly happens in this context. Even before CS can be claimed to be a resource in the classroom, it must be clear and understood where it comes from and what it is switched from. Since it is not wise to make generalizations from a single case study or conclude for that matter, an invitation is made for more research of language choice in bilingual settings.

More recently, Nordin, Rashid Ali, & Syed Zubirs' (2013) study aimed to uncover the attitudes of ESL learners towards the functions of code-switching employed by English language instructors at tertiary level. The study addresses

two research questions: 1) What do ESL learners think CS in the English classroom? 2) When does CS best function in the English classroom for the ESL learners? Forty-five students were randomly selected to participate in this study. A survey questionnaire was applied which focused on the learners' attitudes, usage, and opinions towards CS in the classroom was used to gain insight on this topic. It was discovered that most of the ESL students have positive attitudes towards CS. It was also reported that the learners believe that CS facilitates them in understanding the target language. The data also suggests that the use of CS is necessary when the situation requires the use of the mother-tongue in the classroom to enable the students to become more confident in excelling in English.

Ismail Azlan & Narasuman's (2013) work sought to investigate how CS functions as a communicative tool in English as a second language teacher education class in a tertiary institution in Malaysia. Surveys, observations, and interviews were carried out to elicit relevant data. Qualitative data was gathered using an observational framework. The findings revealed two aspects: 1) The study was able to ratify several systematic reasons for CS in the classroom, 2) and it was also found that English was the dominant language of communication, whilst CS was used to convey ideas in particular situations and to increase solidarity in the first language. Research on language classroom CS varies from describing both teachers' and learners' first language and target language use to making associations between CS and student learning. Very few studies have focused on the differences between native and non-native speaker teachers and culture of learning is considered even less.

Hobbs, Matsuo, & Payne (2010) pointed out some potential differences in teaching styles and background explanations behind these outcomes and consider the need to explore this in outcomes in further studies set in similar contexts and with the same variables. The results of this study document how three Japanese teachers, one of British and two of Japanese origin, differed in their use of classroom language delivered in the target language as opposed to the students' first language. Data reveals that the language teachers' CS practices can and often differ considerably motivated by the teacher's culture of learning. By including examples from data in the form of classroom observation

field notes and semi-structured interviews, this study contributes to the discussion encompassing the importance of teacher language education programs which consider teacher's background and teaching context in course content.

Eldridge (1996) analyzed the functions of learner code-switching in ESL classes in Turkey order to explore if the proscription of L1 encouraged by the directives of the school does in fact have pedagogical value as well as debate if this has any practical classroom consequences for teachers. The data results from the interviews show that seven of the ten participants thought that L1 served a useful purpose in the class, though they were not able to identify any particular function of CS except lexical equivalence. This suggests that both teachers and learners can discuss the possible functions of CS and together decide if there is an L2 alternative or which CS functions to use. It also important for teachers to have knowledge of why learners are studying the language in order to make informed choices regarding how much L1 to encourage in the classroom. To conclude, the results of this study suggest that CS is not directly associated with the learners' ability level and it does not represent the learners' avoidance to interact in L2. Therefore, it aids communicative classroom functions such as reiterating concepts, floor-holding, equivalence, discussing procedural concerns, and forming group relations. Another aspect to highlight from this study is the fact that any attempt to avoid L1 use in the language classroom would be destructive to the quantity of communication and learning taking place.

Parallels amongst bilingual realities and classroom interaction have hinted at the support of multilingual practices. In his study, Cenoz (2007) alleges that bilinguals have more developed meta-linguistic awareness as opposed to monolinguals as this encourages teachers to constraint L1 knowledge in order to carry-out contrastive analysis between L1 and English. This approach is also encouraged by Meiring and Norman (2002, 2003) in their study into UK school's views on learners' L1 use. Similarly, Macaro's study (2005) contends that an L1 restriction reduces the array of language learning activities that are at teacher's disposal and as an example emphasizes the benefits of cultivating the ability to translate; a skill that is vital in the outside world (p.75). Such parallels also

affirms Cook's (2002:232) support for multilingual classroom practices - observing that language learners are focusing in becoming competent L2 language learners and not native speakers of the language as competent L2 users CS in their daily practices.

Some contemporary literature, while recognizing the classroom purpose of L1, also attempts to acknowledge the use of encouraging L2 practice. The aim of the discussions now is geared to how and when learner L1 should be fostered. Researchers advocate a more balanced learner L1 use, though the harsh reality is that in most learning centers and university contexts around the world, "English only" policies still prevail. The use of L1 is still punishable; for example, as a system of forfeits for the learners that are "sneaking in" the mother-tongue for classroom tasks.

Meiring and Norman (2002) argue that there is clear evidence that pupil use of TL positively affects learning. They advise for a plan of action for increasing learners' L2 output, and one way of doing so could be through presenting helpful classroom language on poster boards displayed around the room. To date, there has been no systematic description of the role played in by other (non-target) languages in second learning interactions (Unamuno, 2008), nor has it been demonstrated that the use of other multilingual resources such as code-switching is per se a supporting factor or language learning. However, it appears to be progressively accepted among the academic community that CS does not play a negative part in the second language acquisition protocol (Liebscher y Dailey- O 'Cain, 2005, p. 245).

According to diverse scholars, (Ludi, 1999; Nussbaum & Unamuno, 2001; Py, 1991; Vasseur, 1991), its importance in the second language acquisition process depends and varies on the manner that linguistic objects are presented within the interaction. Other studies such as (Castelloti & Moore, 1997; Cook, 2001; Kramsch, 1995; Levine, 2003; Moore, 2002), have demonstrated that the use of more than one language in the classroom allows the learners to carry two things: re-define the learning context and the language learners' identity (Unamuno, 2008). Therefore, the multilingual classroom becomes a context

where the learners either bilingual or multilingual identities are acknowledged as this can be of positive assistance to how they learn.

4.7.2 Studies in favor of an English-only policy

With much focus placed on the importance of mastering the English language, language educators are burdened with the responsibility of teaching the learners to achieve native-like qualities of a language user (Maishara & Dieba, 2013). Many scholars (Cook, 2001; Gower, Phillips, and Walters 1995; Johnson, 1995; Richards & Rogers, 2001; Widdowson, 2001) are concerned or feel the need to carry-out an English only policy in their classrooms. While this justification differs from teachers and regions alike, many support English only classrooms because they are concerned with maximizing learning opportunities for their learners to use English. For example, in some FL contexts an English only policy may be prevalent since it is the only space to use English outside of their classrooms. However, Jenks and Seedhouse (2015. p.216) argue, “enforcing this rule presents several challenges such as: what should a teacher do when having the responsibility to teach students with low proficiency in English? Should the use of first languages be encouraged if it facilitates the comprehension of difficult academic concepts?” While it is beyond the scope of this research to answer these and similar questions, findings have hinted at the fact that classrooms possess unique pedagogical challenges that shape just how teachers manage English-only policies. While most mainstream English language approaches and methods in the 20th century, notably the Audio-lingual method, the Natural approach, and the Communicative Teaching approach subsequently relied exclusively or primarily on the target language (Cook, 2001, 2002a; Cummins, 2007; Richards & Rodgers) with the L1 used only as a final resort if at all (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Rationales for monolingual teaching and the avoidance of translation included the need to maximize time by efficiently focusing on the L2, avoiding interference from the L1, and the unique origin of each language rendering translation inappropriate in providing meaning (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).

Therefore, first and foremost language was conceived as a natural process, similar to the process a child acquiring his/her L1, where there is technically no space for reference to another language (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004).

Nowadays, a strongly monolingual orientation to second language teaching continues in the 21st century (Cook, 2010, Mugford, 2009; 2011; Lethaby, 2006; Pablo, Lengeling, Zenil, Crawford, & Godwin, 2011). The use of monolingual teaching strategies has been greatly supported not by their effectiveness per se, but more of as a solution to the problem of teaching students from diverse linguistic backgrounds by native English speakers in English language classrooms in English speaking countries (Cook, 2002; 1999, 2008; Hall & Cook, 2012; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Monolingual teaching is also advocated by a textbook industry situated in English-speaking countries and producing English-only textbooks and other materials (Canagarajah, 1999), as well as the influence of methodologies and approaches that are developed in English-speaking countries (Halliday, 1994). This fusion of factors “constitutes one of the reasons behind the sanctification of, and the demand for monolingualism in the classroom” (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009:22). In recent decade, there has been a call for a reconsideration of monolingual teaching on methodological, political, and other grounds (Cook, 2010; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009; Cook, 1997, 2001; Levine, 2011; Widdowson, 2003; Deller & Rinvoulcr, 2002; Forman, 2005, 2007; Swain & Lapkin, 2005; Turnbull & Arnett, 2002), which hints at the fact that the argument of first and second language use is far from settled in the EFL context. As Brooks-Lewis (2009, p. 217) also argues, “the debate on L1 use in EFL teaching is enigmatic, with controversy arising and subsiding with varying intensity but never approaching resolution”. The enigma is that the use of L1 has been theoretically justified; corroborated by research and pedagogically recognized, while its rejections have been based on unexamined assumptions (Auerbach, 1993). However, the debate on the incorporation of the L1 continues, even though inherent question for second language education persists as “the very subject we teach is, by definition, bilingual. How then, can a bilingual subject be taught through a monolingual pedagogy?” (Widdowson, 2003, p. 154).

In spite of such legitimate questions and feasible research results, “the belief that the use of the learner’s native language interferes with the learning of English and hampers the process of second language development has now passed into the realms of pedagogical common sense and professional

orthodoxy" (Canagarajah, 1999, p.126), and in practice "the dominant pedagogy remains determinedly monolingual" (Widdowson, 2003, p.152). While literature presented in the past section, (Section 4.4) recognizes and attempts to reaffirm the benefits of advocating L2 practice, as well as the debate of the fact that tends to be not just of, but when, and just how much learner L1 should be encouraged. This next section reviews studies that are in favor of English only policies.

Other studies investigating the impact of the use of the target language as the sole means of teaching have considered its impact in the second language classroom. Ching- Yi Tien (2009) study deals with the concept of "English-only" teaching-learning method as the best in the foreign language classroom in the context of Taiwan. The aim of this study is to examine the use of CS in two Freshman English classes in a university in Taiwan. The two primary objectives of this study are to explore the nature of classroom talk, focusing specifically how teachers and learners use more than one language to discuss monolingual textbooks and to study the conflict and use between teachers and learners in the use of languages. The belief that "English-only" is the best teaching-learning method has led researchers as well as education policy makers in Taiwan to highlight the importance of the English-only teaching methods in this context. As a consequence, the use of L1 is viewed as negative. The data of this study suggests that it is not feasible to only use English on the classrooms (particularly when learners are at a beginner's level) instead; the use of CS would appear to be a vital strategy. The findings from this research demonstrate that in order to increase learners' understanding or to shape learners' lack of linguistic competence in English, teachers' switched from English to Mandarin. Evidently, there is a clear conflict between the school's "English-only" policy and the actual use of the languages in the classroom context as this situation cannot be overlooked. This paper builds on the research of Lin and Martin (2005) in order to look at how teachers and learners use more than one language to talk around monolingual textbooks to attempt to achieve objectives, as well as to investigate the conflicts and accommodation in the use of languages in the English context.

The findings for this study demonstrate that when teachers used a monolingual textbook, they switched codes to explain linguistic forms, to cue classroom instructions and management, as to establish and maintain classroom solidarity. Teachers stated that based on their classroom experience, learners understand grammar rules better when they are taught in Mandarin and not English. Regarding cultural issues, it was found that when teaching these; a switch is made from English to Mandarin. Both of the teacher participants switched from English to Mandarin to accommodate learners' linguistic needs as well as help them develop their English learning. Lastly, this study notes that CS plays a role as an accommodative act for both learners and teachers alike to facilitate learning and teaching in English as well as to establish classroom solidarity.

Shin (2005) described attitudes toward CS as being negative, highlighting that bilinguals themselves "may feel embarrassed about their CS and attribute it to careless language habits" (p.18). Similarly, Setati, Adler & Bapoo (2002) point out to the "dilemma-filled" (p.147 as cited in Martin, 2005, p.90) attributes of CS in their research of South African classrooms. In another study, Martin (2005), described that CS in Malaysia reveals how the use of the local language as well as the "official" language of the lesson is a recognized event and yet, for diverse reasons, is criticized and deemed as "bad practice", or blamed on the teachers' lack of English language competence...."or put to one side and/or swept under the carpet" (p.88). In order to gain a deeper understanding on what literature on CS has to say about mixing language use in educational contexts, King and Chetty (2014) provide a thorough research synthesis of the linguistic and psychological constructs that underpin CS as an educational strategy in both foreign language, second language learning, and multilingual content area classrooms. Excerpts from classroom observations are presented, specifically South African science teachers' lessons in the Western Cape region where the recommendation hints at the careful incorporation of linguistic ecology in the classrooms. The lessons were conducted primarily in English, as required by the national educational policy. Yet, the data reveals that teachers recur to CS for diverse reasons. The switches were primarily due to both classroom management and for content elaboration. Interview data also reveals that the teachers' tendency is to disavow the use of CS strategies is not an uncommon

practice amongst teachers which echoes Probyn's (2009) research on CS in South Africa. Probyn argues that the use of CS strategies by teachers is often understood by them as productive, but also an embarrassment in their teaching practice. It was also found that teachers were hesitant to discuss their CS, and when they did so, it was with a sense of culpability. This research makes its argument on two levels: 1) the general level of research on CS, and 2) the more specific accounts of CS in the context described above.

Cancino's (2015) research seeks to assess the opportunities for learner development and negotiation of meaning that teachers provide in the on-going interaction in an EFL setting. Classroom data from a Chilean EFL context were collected in order to delve into how teachers deploy a number of interactional features when managing learner turns. The analysis of the data was carried out utilizing a conversational analysis framework, which is appropriate to highlight classroom interaction as it revealed a number of interactional features that influenced the quality and amount of negotiation of meaning and learner involvement. Classroom data also proposes that instances of negotiation of meaning can be cultivated and prompted by the teacher, and their absence can be related to some extent by an inappropriate use of the interactional characteristics that teachers have at their disposition. Cancino suggested that teachers should be more aware of the "local, dynamic and context sensitive aspects of their interaction with learners in order to make moment-by-moment decisions that will likely increase negotiation of meaning and opportunities for learning (p. 115). These findings can relate to the work of Lethaby (2006) which calls for teachers to "look at their reality and situation and find appropriate methods for teaching that are suitable for their learners' and specific context"(2006, p.57).

Forman's (2008) study into teacher talk produced in the university-level EFL context in Thailand explores the ways in which teachers' use of both L1 and L2 creates a distinctive bilingual pedagogy. In this context, English is generally taught as a subject rather than as a medium of instruction. There were nine teachers from the English department that volunteered to participate, lessons were observed and audio taped, producing a total of 19 hours of classroom data; and teacher interviews produced a further 24 hours of interview data. The

triangulation of data was achieved by establishing multiple sources of data (observations), and in selecting multiple participants (9 teachers and 10 classes). The use of audio-tapes, transcripts, and field notes confirm that perhaps the most salient feature of the data is the manner that the learning of the L2 is embedded in L1, and how the newly acquired meanings of the target language serve to further and enrich the existing meanings of the mother-tongue. The study results builds upon two significant studies: 1) Lin's (1999) study of Hong Kong EFL classrooms, where learners' first language was perceived to form a meaningful part of their cultural assets, and teachers' ability to exploit this assets found to largely influence learning outcomes; and 2) Swain and Lapkin's view of L1 as representing a student's "most formidable cognitive resource" (2005, p.181). Also, the interweaving of languages has been traditionally discouraged in L2 learning (Gibbons, White, & Gibbons, 1994; Swain, 1986). But here, the data reveals that its effects seem to be positive in maintaining and enhancing learner understanding and motivation. However, further research is needed into how to best juggle episodes of "bilingual blend", with incidents of "exclusive L2" use, and circumstances of exclusive L1" use for that matter as well.

Amorim's (2012) study analyzes student-student interaction at the Institute of Social and Political Sciences at the Technical University of Lisbon during group-work speaking activities to reveal some of the reasons for code-switching (CS). It also presents some participants' perspectives revealing mixed feelings towards the use of this linguistic resource, which is sometimes intentional and sometimes it is not. The aim of this research is to illustrate how EFL learners alternate between their L1 and L2 in order to perform diverse pragmatic functions and compensate for language deficiencies. It also takes into account the relation between students' language level and the practical nature of their switches. The findings from this study were analyzed according to Eldridge (1996) and Hancock's (1997) previously mentioned categorizations. The participants of this research all shared Portuguese and one learner referred to CS as "positive common asset". This study illustrates that CS is a sign that both codes are active in the learners' head, and that interaction amongst the parties is taking place and cause by "the very involvement that is o valuable to

language acquisition” (Hancock, 1997,p.233). Classroom interaction data also revealed that in order to obtain information conveyed students switched codes, avoiding breakdowns in communication and performing longer turns. CS was used to “fill in lexical or grammatical gaps in the target language, to negotiate language and meaning and to manage the activity and other participants” (Amorim, 2012, p.187). Being informed of its reasons and functions will aid them in dealing with it in their classrooms. It was also found that CS was present in students’ discourse with different levels of English and there seems to be a certain distribution between level of L2 and the functional character of the switches. There seems to be a certain inclination for the weaker learners (pre-intermediate-intermediate) to use L2 as a translation device, a system to prompt and clarify information or to rectify for perceived weaknesses. The more advanced learners (intermediate-upper intermediate) tend to use L1 to manage and comment the task and to gear and guide their classmates by modeling (Amorim, 2012). The study hints that students, weak or strong, alternate between two codes to hold the floor and manage turn-taking, working towards effective communication.

These studies demonstrate that switching or moving between languages has been frowned upon in educational contexts, where both students and teachers feel guilty about its practice. Creese & Blackledge (2010) argue that research shows that CS is “rarely institutionally endorsed and or pedagogically underpinned. Rather, when it is used, it becomes a pragmatic response to the local classroom context” (p.105). Therefore, the second language classroom is a place when learners’ activate and deactivate the one language they do not use. It is sometimes impossible, or even unrealistic, for students to exclude or switch off their own language as it is an essential part of their identity.

Research done by Andersson, Kagwesage and Rusanganwa (2013) investigate how students cope with linguistic diversity when they are exposed to group-work activities at the University in Rwanda. Data consists of five audio-recorded group-work classes started by the teacher in a management course. Data analysis was done through drawing on theories related to code-switching and learning in multilingual contexts. The data reveals that the constant use of multiple languages, though time-consuming; has vast benefits to facilitate

learning, thus emphasizing the complementariness rather than the avoidance of languages present in Rwanda. The aim of the present study is to extend knowledge about how tertiary learners in Rwanda used languages when bilingual French/English education was the norm. In other words, how higher education students navigate between the different codes to sustain group-work activities in a multilingual context where Kinyarwanda is the common language. Kinyarwanda is not used to as the medium of instruction or examination in higher education. The problem that arises from this study is of interest to educators in general since it sheds light into the learning strategies employed in multilingual contexts. In multilingual settings, using one single code at a time was considered the norm between teachers and CS was viewed as a threat to a bilingual development. In the 1990's studies carried out through the use of audio-recorders in the classroom enabled researchers to shed some light of CS and how it is a sophisticated resource to create interpersonal relationships. In short, this research suggests that CS should be deemed as a valuable resource to strengthen cognitive skills.

Instead of perceiving CS as negative tool in the classroom, other research carried out by Garcia (2009), Bunyi (2005), and Duverger (2005) reveal its noble qualities since people in fact use their multiple languages to include others in conversation as well as to negotiate meaning. Terms such as translanguaging proposed by Garcia (2009), describe how bilinguals 'make sense of their bilingual worlds' in the "multiple discursive practices" they are engaged in (p.45). She emphasizes that this practice is vital to include participants with a minimum level of linguistic competence of the preferred language in the workplace in families, as well as in education and social justice.

Thus, most educated people view English as a tool to access information through technology as become part of the global village through the exchange of information and knowledge sharing. Research on EFL has shown how the only in English policy dominates institutional practices across regions and education levels. The idea that only by speaking in the L2" in the classroom, the students will have more exposure and will learn more, is still strong in practitioners' (e.g., teachers and managerial staff) beliefs and perceptions. Thus , the works of (Cook, 2010, Mugford, 2009; 2011; Lethaby, 2006; Pablo,

Lengeling, Zenil, Crawford, & Godwin, 2011, Sampson, 2012; Cook, 2002; 1999, 2008; Ching- Yi Tien, 2009; Shin, 2005) show that this English norm has been assumed by teachers in second language contexts, where this implicit “policy” is still carried out by teachers. However, research on CS from the 1990s and more recently on mixed varieties (e.g., translanguaging,) presented above, have been challenging and proving that contrary to the isolation of varieties, learners learn and enjoy when they are allowed to use their L1 and L2. This sort of research has also shown that teachers and practitioners in general, who are more open to this mixing, are successful language teachers and are willing to go out on a limb to involve learners in classroom interaction that is taking place caused by “the very involvement that is so valuable to language acquisition” (Hancock, 1997,p.233).

Sampson’s (2012) study describes the functions of code-switching in the EFL context in a Colombian school. One of the aims of this study was to inquire if the official “English-only” policy mentioned is still in place in this and other classrooms. The results reveal that CS may not be directly related to the linguistic competence, but it does serve a variety of communicative and learning purposes. This reveals that the total use of L1 in the language classroom is cautiously advised, the use of the mother-tongue can be fully exploited for learning, especially when it used to contrast a specific grammar aspect.

There are certain factors that should be considered such as learners’ expectations, the positive motivational effects of acquiring L2 strategies for dealing with communicative breakdowns, the adequate exposure to and practice of the target code, and the need to prepare language learners’ to the L2-only contexts. These factors urge to reconsider a more common-sense approach where the use of L1 is not viewed as “inadequate” and balance is achieved by teaching L2 communicative functions. Some strategies for doing this are also suggested.

This theoretical grounding is supported by the various empirical investigations reviewed above. Nonetheless, these past sections focused on the use of both monolingual instruction and the call for a more “flexible and multilingual” approach to second language teaching. Very few studies have considered the

possibilities to challenge a monolingual micro-order. Thus, that dispute the monolingual bias and continue with multilingual practices that involve phenomena such as code-switching, code-meshing, and translanguaging (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011).

The lack of fluidity or integration of languages in the school curriculum is the goal as multilingual education provides that schools aim at both multiliteracy and multilingualism. This next section finalizes this literature review in a call for a more holistic approach where both teachers and learners are aware of these multilingual resources and the teacher has the opportunity to implement these for a more integrated language curriculum.

4.7.3 A call for a release from monolingual instruction to a flexible multilingual approach

Recent scholarship on the discussion of integrating all of the languages in the learner's repertoire have advocated for a more multilingual approach for a pedagogy that fits and is relevant and responsive to developing and evolving needs of the learners (Clemente, Crawford, Garcia, Higgins, Kissinger, Lengeling, Lopez Gopar, Narvaez, Sayer & Sughrua, 2006; Lethaby, 2006; Mugford, 2009, 2011). Even though the body of scholarship on social manifestations and classroom situations of the use of multilingual resources is increasing, (Canagarajah, 2011), teachers are also interested in the pedagogical implications of this practice. The question that educators have now begun to ask is how to promote in classroom contexts "the intuitive communicative strategies multilinguals display in everyday life" (Canagarajah, 2011, p.401).

Although there are diverse studies of the use of multilingual strategies outside the classroom, we have not developed pedagogical strategies for developing such practices in the second language classroom (De Fina, 2007; Eastman, 1991; Hill, 1999; Rampton, 2009; Gorter, 2006). As mentioned in (Section 4.4) of this chapter, Creese and Blackledge (2010, p. 13) also emphasized "the need for further research to explore what "teachable" pedagogic resources are available in flexible, concurrent approaches to learning and teaching languages bilingually". In making this call, they also echoed what other scholars such as

Lin and Martin (2005) have considered decisive in order to move multilingual acquisition onward. Such studies reveal that the use of multilingual strategies to be a naturally occurring phenomenon. In vast cases, the use of these strategies is not elicited by teachers through conscious pedagogical strategies. They are produced impromptu. In fact, in many of these scenarios, the use of CS occurs clandestinely behind the backs of the teachers in contexts that prohibit language mixing (see studies from diverse contexts in Heller & Martin-Jones, 2001; Lin & Martin, 2005).

For instance, in more take-charge situations, teachers have provided “safe spaces” for the learners to use their multilingual repertoire for learning purposes. Teachers also collaborate with them by using the repertoire(s) as a valuable resource in the classroom, as argued and theorized by (Creese & Blackledge 2010; Garcia, 2009; Hornberger, 2003) on how students may switch between languages and modalities in their learning.

However, there is still much to do regarding the development of teaching strategies that will adhere to more contemporary methods of teaching a second language. What current classroom studies reveal is that CS or the use of other multilingual resources (e.g., *translanguaging*, *code-meshing*, *code-mixing*) is a naturally occurring phenomenon for multilingual learners. The use of multilingual resources cannot be completely circumscribed by monolingual educational policies. Or as argued by Grosjean (1992, 2008), a bilingual or multilingual person’s communicative competence is not the same as that of a monolingual. Cook (2003, 2007) also highlighted that learning a second language influences the cognitive system. Therefore, some multilingual speakers “achieve a very sophisticated but different knowledge of the target language that goes beyond the common core mastered by many native speakers” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011, p.340). Because of their richer experiences with languages, both bilingual and multilingual speakers of a language can demonstrate creativity as these are incomprehensible to monolingual speakers of the same language. Unfortunately, in the classroom context, the notion that non-native speakers are flawed communicators is still en vogue. The goal then, is for second-language learners and users is generally to obtain native command of the L2, and this ultimately evokes a feeling of deficiency and

weakness I concur with Cenoz & Gorter (2011.p.340) as they consider that “monolinguals should not be viewed as imitation monolinguals in a second language or additional language, but rather they should be seen as possessing unique forms of competence, or competencies, in their own right”.

4.7.4 Multilingual practices

An important aspect worth highlighting is the manner that multilingual speakers use their languages in interaction. This approach is associated to the social and critical and critical tradition (Canagarajah, 2004; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Shohamy, 2006). Multilingual speakers acquire and utilize their languages while participating in language practices. By engaging in these practices, they use their resources in a social context and outline this particular context in communicative interaction (see Canagarajah, 2007; Kramsch, 2006).

In this sense, Martin-Beltran (2010) described that the use of two or more languages while engaging in language practices involves simultaneous and reciprocal affordances for language learning (see Van Lier, 2004). The use of multilingual resources such as CS, do take place in school contexts, but the most common official policy is still associated to the idea “of language separation so that the “designated” language is the only language used in SLA classes” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011,p. 340). According to this policy, other languages are prohibited from the classroom context regardless of being part of the curriculum. However, classroom language practices, “do not always match official policies, and code-switching is a very common phenomenon in multilingual contexts “(Cenoz & Gorter, 2011, p.340). Lin (2008) highlighted that code-switching in the classroom can have logical and concrete functions since it provides the learner(s) with a means of entry to the curriculum as well as discriminating diverse classroom activities. Similarly, Ferguson (2009) referred to code-switching for “constructing and transmitting knowledge” as well as for “classroom management” (pp.231-232). Both Ferguson (200) and Lin (2008) recognize that code-switching can also have two functions: an interpersonal function in social interaction as it can be utilized to negotiate identities in the classroom.

The findings of Lin and Martin (2005) provide examples of language practices in diverse school contexts in which CS is utilized by both learners and teachers in contexts such as Asia and Africa. These classroom practices reveal both the interpersonal and pedagogical functions of CS (see Creese & Blackledge, 2010). A similar discussion was provided by Van der Meij and Zhao (2010) in the Asian context, as this study focused on CS in English major courses in higher education in China. The findings demonstrated that teachers have a positive perspective on CS, but also that the amount of CS used was visibly higher than what teachers believed.

Based on the results from these previous studies, this further demonstrates that there are other possible implications for the development of a more multilingual pedagogy such as for example including the provision of bilingual dictionaries. Both Deller and Rinvulcri (2002) and Murray and Wigglesworth (2005) recognize that the role of L1 in L2 learning has strong implications for the status and training of teachers. In many EFL contexts, including Forman's (2008) study carried out in Thailand, most native speaking English teachers are expatriate and monolingual, and most local teachers are bilingual, sharing L1 with their learners. Therefore, each group has different strengths, and training programs need to be designed accordingly in ways which meet the needs of all teachers. Regarding teaching, Johnson (2003) has advocated that "the learner's old voices"; the voices of his or her native-language and culture should be acknowledged and respected" (p. 174). Forman's (2008) study and my research are carried out in Mexico, where these voices are generally shared between learners and teachers alike. Recognition, and indeed an achievement of their presence in the classroom context affirm the possibilities inherent in a bilingual EFL pedagogy.

Based on literature reviewed in this section, it can be conjectured that in contrast to more "**traditional**" approaches that view language one at a time, a call for a more **multilingual approach** that takes into account all the languages in the learners' repertoire is needed. Some perceptions about the monolingual bias are set forth in both research and in second language teaching.

The call to incorporate a multilingual practice and include an array of multilingual resources such as **codeswitching, translanguaging, and codemeshing** to negotiate meaning in the second language context is much discussed in academic circles.

Conclusively, this section of the literature review has brought together recent scholarship in second language acquisition (SLA), multilingualism, and education.

4.8 Towards a more “balanced” and holistic approach to the study of multilingual practices

A multilingual approach views phenomena such as codeswitching, codemeshing, and translanguaging, which are characteristic of multilingual practices. A recent call to consider the multilinguals’ total language repertoire, which comprise of the languages used both in class and out of class such as the multilingual practices mentioned above. This view of a more “holistic” approach to the study of multilingualism and multilingual competencies is not prevalent in either the research community or in school practices (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011). Second language acquisition has traditionally aimed at only one language without acknowledging whether the learner(s) are also fluent in other languages. Secondly, SLA has also viewed multilingual practices but only as to investigate the influence of the L1 on the second language as a result of the learner(s) limitations with the target language. Recently, research on bilingualism in education has focused on multilingual practices more often such as the minority languages, languages in postcolonial settings, heritage languages, and immigrant languages (see Lin & Martin, 2005; Valdes, 2005; Blackledge & Creese, 2010). Nonetheless, albeit the pedagogical benefits bound with a more ‘flexible’ type of bilingualism (see, Blackledge & Creese, 2010, Garcia, 2009; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Creese & Martin, 2003, 2008), alteration between languages is not encouraged.

This lack of movement does not only concern the switching or meshing of languages, but also the incorporation of these in the school curriculum. In this sense, multilingual education as defined by Cenoz (2011) is “the use of two or more languages in education provided that schools aim multilingualism and

multiliteracy” (p. 4) seldom refers to schools with three or more languages in the curriculum. A more overall or holistic approach hints at the coordination of language teachers to implement a unified language curriculum that emphasizes the connection between the languages and can implicitly develop learners’ language awareness (Elorza & Muñoa, 2008). Therefore, a multilingual approach can bring forth substantial knowledge of both language acquisition and multilingualism. As suggested by Ortega (2010), that by concentrating on the bilingual’s total language repertoire, we can comprehend the manner that languages are processed and used by learners who are interested in acquiring a second or additional language.

Moreover, in the situation of multilinguals, both the skills in the different languages and the manner they use their resources in interaction are compared. In a nutshell, this approach focuses more on what multilinguals can accomplish with their languages as opposed to the comparisons amongst multilinguals and ‘ideal’ native speakers of each of their languages as well provide interesting insights on the connection between the languages and the important pedagogical implications these may have.

This second section of the literature review has illustrated the state of research in the area that is focused on in this study. The limited amount of research focusing on CS in the EFL classroom in the Mexican, context, and the region in general has resulted in a research gap. The number of studies in CS in English and Spanish is very limited and it can be said the same of research in CS or applied Conversation Analysis (CA). Therefore, in this sense, my contribution to this field is relevant.

4.9 Summary

The empirical studies presented in this chapter's literature review offer an opportunity to delve into the *code-switching* (CS) and *multilingual* scholarship produced in diverse contexts around the world. These studies help position my study in the realm of other research carried out and draw from diverse methodological stances that permit me to view how researchers tackle their assertion about how CS and the use of multilingual resources is viewed and implemented in their language classroom. These studies hint at the following: while there is no consensus about the importance of resorting to language alternation in the language classroom. CS may open up social and pedagogical sequences that are more appropriate to language learning.

This second section of the literature reviewed relevant empirical studies related to my research approach and how theory has been materialized in practice. CS has been a widely studied topic since the 1990s, as a result of scholars' interest for a more interactional attention to the ways in which people teach and learn. Therefore, I presented what I considered the most important results from the empirical work done in the field of **Codeswitching (CS)** in higher education contexts, primary and secondary schools in diverse contexts around the world during the last decades.

Having completed the review of extant literature and identified the gaps that the study seeks to address, the dissertation proceeds to the description and justification of the methodology that was selected. Therefore, I will describe the research tools and methodological orientation used to gather my classroom data as well as engage in my discussion of the reasons I utilized these tools for this study.

Chapter 5: Methodology

5.1 Introduction:

Chapter 5 aims to present the methodology in order to provide an answer to this study's aim and the three research questions stated. It begins with an overview and justification for following an interpretive research paradigm. Particularly this is a **descriptive case study** that identifies the interactional resources teachers and students draw on in order to accomplish the business of the social interaction in the EFL classroom.

The chapter introduces the aim and research questions in addition to the research design that explains the selection of **audio-recorded classroom observation-field notes, semi-structured interviews, and classroom transcriptions** as the instruments for data collection. It also describes the context and the participants of this study as well as my role as researcher. In addition, the logic for using methodological triangulation to enrich the theoretical implications of my data is provided. Finally, I set forth my data analysis procedure adhering to the guidelines of thematic content analysis for the case interviews and an applied CA approach for the observations as well as provide limitations of this study. The after-mentioned discussion points out my reasons in detail.

5.2 Interpretive Approach:

A characteristic of social science is that it considers important people's own way of looking at social reality and are constructed on correspondingly different ways of interpreting it. "There are multiple realities, and that reality is multi-layered and complex because people are creative and actively construct their social reality" (Cohen, 2003, p. 21-22). This is referred to as **interpretivism**. **Interpretivism** proposes that in order to understand and explore these multiple realities it is essential to gain an inside *subjectivist* view as subjective meanings and subjective interpretations have great importance (Pring, 2000). The object cannot be adequately described apart from the subject, nor can the subject be adequately described apart from the object (Crotty, 1998). In other words, the relationship between the knower and the subject to be known is not of

detachment, but rather involvement, interaction. This particular position towards interpreting and understanding the world view of subjects is vital in my research, as I delve into how and why both teacher and students use diverse language practices to communicate, as these shape what takes place in the second language classroom.

Interpretivism is underpinned by hermeneutics and phenomenology (Boland, 1985). As a mode of analysis, it suggests a way of understanding the meaning or trying to make sense of textual data that may be unclear in one way or another. Therefore, the interpretivist paradigm stresses the need to put analysis in context as it is concerned with understanding the world as it is from subjective experiences of individuals. Furthermore, the part the researcher plays within this paradigm is to “understand that research is an interactive process shaped by his own personal history, biography, gender, social class, race, and ethnicity, and by those of the people in the setting; as a type of interpretive bricoleur” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008,p.9).

Researchers are not detached from the situation under study. They see themselves as participants in the situation they investigate (Cohen, 2003), and it is precisely this involvement that enables researchers to have “a thick description of the situation” (Holliday, 2007, p.74-5) under study. Consequently, both knowledge and theory resulting from the data are embedded in experience and circumstances deriving from others where the researcher is therefore expected to gain an understanding of the participants “experience and understanding to build their theory on them. The data thus yielded will include the meanings and purposes of those people who are their source” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011.p.18). Further, the theory so generated must make sense to those to whom it applies, thus theory becomes sets of meaning which yield insight and understanding of people’s actions. This particular perspective granted me the opportunity to grasp and understand the language practices that both teacher and learner engage in in order to communicate in the EFL classroom. Therefore, in regards to the educational context, the EFL language classroom is “where knowledge and meaning is co-constructed by both parties in a social setting” (Buchel, 1992, p.228). Consequently, the meaning and practices that teachers and learners give to, and in this case my own insights

and experiences as the researcher of this study can only be understood and described through an *emic* understanding. In short, having established my position in research paradigm, my reason for conducting this study is intellectual as I focus on “*understanding* something, gaining some insight into what is going on and why it is happening” (Maxwell, 2012, p. 220). The use of an interpretive approach then served to be more appropriate as I delved into gaining insight on their teaching practice, their accounts and reasons of their actions, and on the other hand; what the learners’ language practices are within the classroom context to communicate.

Now that I have forth both my research paradigm and my position for inquiring into identifying the interactional resources teachers and students draw on in order to accomplish the business of the social interaction in the classroom, I will now continue to expand this particular liaison to the research methods I have chosen, descriptive case study.

5.3 Researching Teacher-student Language practices in the Second Language Classroom through a Descriptive Case Study:

Educational research can be investigated through diverse means within a qualitative paradigm, ethnographic, naturalistic, and an interpretive stance. Le Compte and Preissle (1993) highlight that the selection of an appropriate approach for research is closely linked to the inherent research purposes as some maybe for example, reporting, describing, the creation of key concepts, theory generation and testing. Subsequently, since I want to inquire into, present and describe what language practices both teachers and students use in the second language classroom, a descriptive case study approach was selected as the research approach.

5.3.1 Descriptive case study

A first generation of case studies appeared around 1900, initially within the discipline of anthropology. From early accounts of journeys, systematic investigation of other cultures in the form of field studies emitted, with participant observation as the predominant method of data collection. The first generation of case studies culminated in the Chicago school of sociology, in

which anthropologist's field study method was practiced on contemporary society in the university surroundings (Platt, 1992; van Maanen, 1988).

Robert Yin (1984, 1994) took the next step as he transferred experimental logic into the field of naturalistic inquiry and combined it with qualitative methods further bridging the methodological gap and strengthening the methodological quality of case study research. This emerging research approach paradigm aimed to investigate language practices situated in participants' contexts by means of systematic data collection procedures. Furthermore, data grounded on the research context and its participants, the intertwined nature of the elements of a **case study** is ever so present. Where the "**case**" feature, involves the participants or the objects of study as they are being investigated in their natural context with a multitude of methods in order to reveal what is taking place (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2014). Whereas the "**study**" feature emphasizes the exploration of an issue within its context between both researcher and participants as this interaction will generate data that will enable to understand the issue from the perspective of the participants (Merriam, 2009; Simons, 2009; Stake, 2006; Yin, 2014).

Concerning the field of language education, the 1970s educational research embraced case study as a way to evaluate for example curriculum design and innovation (Merriam, 2009; Simons, 2009; Stake, 1995). This resulted in placing more emphasis on inductive exploration, discovery, and holistic analysis that was presented in thick descriptions of the case.

Therefore, in choosing a methodological position, careful consideration of the different case study approaches is required to determine the design that best addresses the aim of the study, and that aligns with the researcher's world view. The goal of this alignment is to engender coherence between the researcher's philosophical position, their research question, design, and methods to be used in the study (Yin, 2014).

This thesis favors the approach to case study research that is closely aligned with an interpretivist orientation where the researcher's motivation is underpinned by a strong motivation for discovering meaning and understanding of experiences in context. Through a Descriptive Case Study (DCS) approach

(Compte and Preissle (1993), both the researcher and participants produce knowledge and it is the researcher's interpretive role as essential in the process. That is why the knowledge that is generated gives the teachers an opportunity to share their insights of second language teaching, their language practice and reasons behind their choices in the "case".

Therefore, a DCS was chosen as the research paradigm for this study since both the participants and I described and interpreted that took place in the second language context regarding their language practices used to communicate. In addition, each data collection instrument guided each one as each provided a foundation for the next. This will be thoroughly explained in section 3.5. Consequently, this small-scale case study research provides insight and describes teacher and student language practices in this context and may offer other insights in other contexts and situations as well. This next section lays out the research aim and research questions.

5.4 Research aim and research questions

Research Aim

The main aim of this piece of research is to gain insight into the language practices that both teacher and learner engage in in order to negotiate meaning in the second language classroom of a language education center at a state University on the border with the U.S.

The following research questions will guide my research design:

RQ 1 What are the teachers' ways of participating in situations of negotiating of meaning in the higher education EFL classroom?

RQ 2 What are the code switching interactional patterns that teachers are using and for what interactional purposes in the classroom?

RQ 3 What are the codeswitching patterns that students are using to participate in the EFL higher education classroom?

5.5 Research design and data collection instruments

The data collection tools that I selected for this study were audio-recorded classroom observations- field notes, semi- structured interviews and classroom transcriptions, all belonging to qualitative data collection instruments. They aim to find out the why and how of teachers' and students' language choices, through description, and interpretation of rich data (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). Therefore, these particular types of data refers to the "world view of the participants as it gives them voices and probes issues that lie beneath the surface of their behaviors and actions" (Maxwell, 2005, p.37). For that reason, I utilize these means to gain an insider perspective into each one of the participants' language practices in their teaching environment.

5.5.1 Observations as gaining insight into teacher practice

Observation is more than just looking (Marshall and Rossman, 1995, Simpson and Tuson, 2003:2). It is looking (often systematically) and "noting systematically (always) people, events, behaviors, settings, artefacts, routines, and so on (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, and 2011:456). The unique feature of **classroom observations** (COs) as a research process is that it proposes a researcher the opportunity to obtain "live "data from naturally occurring situations. From this perspective, the researcher can observe directly at what is taking place in *situ* rather than relying on second-hand accounts. This is observation's unique strength. Robson (2002:310) mentions that "what people do may differ from what they say they do, and observations provide a reality check". Observation also enables a researcher to look "afresh at everyday behavior that otherwise might be taken for granted, expected or simply unnoticed" (Cooper and Schindler, 2001:374). Therefore, observation is a highly flexible form of data collection as it is often combined with other forms of data collection that, together, elicit the "participants' definitions of the situation and their organizing constructs in accounting for situations and behavior" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011:466). COs have been a vastly used research instrument in ELT (Richards & Farrell, 2005; Borg, 2003) with the purpose of gaining insights into what takes place in the classroom context.

Having as a background premise that the language practices of both teachers and learners differ within the language classroom as well as viewed differently by individuals, the purpose for me as a researcher in conducting (CO) was to gain insight and identify the linguistic resources teacher and students draw on in order to carry-out the business of the social interaction in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, by observing these linguistic practices in their day to day teaching, **naturalistic observations** were appropriate as this study aims at revealing what happens between both teacher and students as they aim to communicate with an array of linguistic resources at their disposal. In a **naturalistic type of observation**, the intention is “to observe participants in their natural settings, their everyday social settings and their behavior in them” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p. 465). In other words, the context provides a deeper understanding and knowledge, since it may enable the researcher to see things that participants themselves are not aware of, or that they are unwilling to discuss (Patton, 1990). Strictly speaking, the context speaks for itself by providing a holistic view, where even the most unnoticed issues, interactions or intentions may contain both some behavioral or complex assumptions (e.g., insider knowledge). Therefore, once, trust and an understanding between both the teachers and the participants was established, the next phase was to carry-out two audio-recorded observation cycles.

Adhering to the type of CO, my role as researcher through a non-participant observer stance was unobtrusive, remaining open to the language practices used to communicate between teacher and student(s) that I wanted to observe. The observing criteria was not a systematic or rigid instrument, since a systematic type observation does not consider specific characteristics of the particular context or its participants, as the this specific context and its unique features that I was interested in observing and not on “fitting” teachers into pre-determined categories or slots.

Observations are recorded in *field notes*. At the level of description, field notes allowed me to capture a more holistic perspective on classroom language, analyzing the teacher and student language used throughout each lesson, from opening to closing (Spradley, 1980; Le Compte & Preissle, 1993). I managed to

observe and record the classes of ten teachers in an EFL context in a higher education language center (See Table 2 for a summary)

Table 3: Classroom Observation Information

Time observed	EFL classrooms
17 hrs. of class data 50 min. of class time observed (both teachers and students)	Two Beginners, two Intermediate, and two Advanced

The field work that I conducted included comprehensive field notes (i.e., systematic and comprehensive description of all classroom events) that consisted of:

- General information of the class(semester)
- Number of students
- Seating layout
- Activities (as well as interaction types)
- Language used
- Verbal and non-verbal interactions

Despite the fact that , in this context, CO is perceived as a professional evaluation activity, carried out by institutional supervisors or a certain teacher-training regime, the participants therefore expected performance feedback along those lines regarding either “adequate” or “not adequate” classroom practices by the researcher as one of the roles before-mentioned. Nevertheless, and in line with my facilitator role as well as my aim for research question 3, I chose to refrain from giving my direct opinion as I also used a semis-structured teacher interview to promote a deeper discussion on language practices (Creswell 2012; Seidman, 2013:7).

5.5.2 Interviews

A semi-structured interview (Dornyei, 2007) was used in this study to complete data collection (see Appendix 2). I chose interviews as a research method since I am interested in people's opinions and views. Most simply put, interviews are a way of knowing. In this sense, I collected opinions, forms of rationalizing decisions, etc., as teacher interviews allowed me to delve further into what takes place in these second language classrooms and what they understand about their practice. It is this "process of selecting constitutive details of experience, reflecting on them, giving them order, and thereby making sense of them that makes interviews a meaning-making experience". (Seidman, 2013:7). Interviewing then, is a basic mode of inquiry. The purpose of interviewing is not to test hypotheses, and not to "evaluate" as the term is normally used, but an interest in understanding the ways in which people experience daily life. Most research in EFL classroom research has progressed that given the opportunity to delve into the classroom context, teachers can benefit from the knowledge produced as well as learn from it (Seedhouse, 2004; Markee, 2008; Walsh, 2013). In other words, it is important to combine qualitative methods to give account of what teachers state they experience and what they effectively do in practice (Hellerman, 2008; Pekarek-Doehler, 2010). The last space for discussion was provided through a semi-structured interview. The interview as a data collection instrument is vastly used in the fields of ELT and Applied Linguistics research as a means to inquire about the participant's beliefs, opinions, identities, experiences, life histories and orientations regarding certain matter within the realm of the research. For this particular study, **a semi-structured interview** was conducted with each one of the teacher participants about to finalize the study. Interviewing **students** was not considered, since I wanted to gain insight on teacher practices, what their experiences were, as well as what meaning they make out of their experiences. The interview was carried out in Spanish to make it easier for the participants to express themselves, as well as allowing space for following new and relevant information jointly co-constructed by the individual's teaching practice.

The interview focused on the following two aspects: previous teaching background and specific questions regarding their teaching practice. The first

four questions focused specifically on the participant's teaching backgrounds that seek to draw out their personal views on teaching and their teaching expertise (e.g., what they do, what they like about their jobs, the challenges they have encountered, as well as the teacher-training they have carried out). This idea to begin with more general questions is to establish a relationship between the participant and the interviewer as both are co-constructing interview content. The next frame of questions (e.g., five through nine), sought to expand on what the participants did in class, for example; what type of roles they carry out in class, teacher talking time, the type of interaction they have with their students and how they feel in doing so. The next questions (e.g., #8 and #9) also addresses the extent to which and how the respondents manage question-making in class and the opportunities they provide learners to ask questions.

The last two themes (e.g. # 10, 11, and 12) aims at delving into what role the second language (e.g., Spanish) plays in the classroom and what multilingual strategies they use to negotiate meaning. These are aimed at inquiring what teachers think about diverse topics such as, for example, the use of the L1 in class, the "English only Policy, etc., as these will shed some light on their teaching practices within this EFL context. Interview data was later transcribed as I sought to identify emerging themes that will aid me in understanding their positions regarding the questions addressed. All of these themes are directly relevant to the research questions of this study. By conducting the interview in Spanish (the researcher is highly proficient in both Spanish and English), any potential language effect or language barrier could be limited as to not affect the outcome of the study. Each interview was audio-recorded and later transcribed and to contrast it with the interactional data from the class (observations and field notes).

5.6 The researcher's role

As briefly mentioned in the previous section; enacting an appropriate researcher role in the field of teaching English as a Foreign Language to meet specific research interests was vital, as the researcher's manner in reasoning and describing position in the development of inquiry. This was allowed by taking part in "**reflexivity**": "where the researcher recognizes that research is co-

constructed, a joint product of the participants, researcher and their relationship” (Moustakos (1990, p.91). The facilitator role adopted in this study permitted me to carry-out both classroom observations and teacher insights as to gain insights into what is happening, but to also to examine teachers views and experiences that emerge from personal introspection which then form the basis of a more generalized understanding and interpretations. The data and excerpts presented in analytical chapters 6, 7 and 8 are clear examples of such outcomes.

Scholars state that “**reflexivity**” aims at “recognizing that research is co-constructed, a joint product of the participants, researcher and their relationship’ (Finlay, 2002, p.212). Accordingly, this facilitator role enabled teachers to become active participants in this whole research process.

5.7 The research context and participants

The research takes place in at the Language Center of the university that caters diverse language courses to both students and the local community (see schapter 2), for an in-depth description. Students attending these various language courses are from different fields within the university, as the student pollution from the local community is composed of businessmen and housewives.

The following section provides details on the participants of this study. It is important to highlight that the participants were all inclined to be part of this study, therefore there was no constraint whatsoever to carry out observations or semi-structured interviews. It is also important to take this into consideration as there is no type of cultural restrictions imposed in to express them freely as this is important to highlight in collecting data from a sample of this population. In line with this, all of the names used in this study are pseudonyms, including those of places that the participants refer to in the interviews. This is done to guarantee their anonymity within their workplace.

5.7.1 Teachers

The rationale for the selection of teachers (*Table 3*) was based on their teaching experience, pedagogic backgrounds, and their willingness to participate in this

study. There are ten participants for this study. The ten teachers for this study have diverse teacher training ranging from 6-25 years' experience each, all with diverse academic backgrounds ranging from a BA in Oceanology, Accounting, Language Teaching, and Elementary and Secondary Education, to a COTE (Certificate for Overseas Teachers of English) from the British Council or no B.A., at all. In terms of gender, there are six females and four males participating in the study. The participant group is heterogeneous since they present different characteristics; their ages are quite diverse ranging from their early twenties to their mid-sixties as well as their time teaching at the Language Center ranging from six to twenty five years. Only one teacher (Julian), has a tenured position within the university, the other nine participants work for certain hours as they hold other teaching positions in other schools. I would like to highlight that tenured positions in the university are scarce due to the lack of availability from the local government. (see Chapter 2- Context of study) for a detailed description of their backgrounds.

Table 4: Overview of teachers

Pseudonym:	Years Teaching at the Language Center:	Age:	Gender:	Field of Expertise:
Fabiola	12	46	F	B.A. Oceanology
Juan	11	35	M	No B.A. (COTE)
Manuela	2	24	M	Language Teaching
Ana	15	65	F	Language Teaching

Laura	10	66	F	Language Teaching
Ricardo	2	27	M	Language Teaching
Julian	25	45	M	B.A. Accounting
Rosario	18	46	F	B.A Primary Education
Sofia	13	56	F	No B.A
Pamela	24	47	F	B.A in Secondary Education

5.7.2 Student participants

All of the student participants were students of different fields within the university, the field of language teaching and translation studies, as well as the general public. In the course of the study, there were no participants that dropped out, and as a result the complete data set of both the teacher and student participants were included in this study. The student profile at the Language Center can be divided into two categories. The first category consists of the students that do not belong to the university community; that is, this student population is mainly made up of housewives, businessmen, high school students as well as the local Ensenada community. Their ages range from 16 and older.

This information regarding the students' profile was retrieved from: www.admisiones.celexbc.com.mx. I will refer to them as the *Informal* category in my research. The second category is made up of the students that are enrolled in the array of BA programs (www.uabc.mx) that are offered at the

university, their ages ranging from 18 and older and the student population that enters our BA program in Teaching Languages and Translation studies. I will refer to this group as the *Formal* category. This information was authorized for me to see by the director of the faculty for this research only as addressed in the Ethical considerations (3.11) section of this chapter.

An important consideration in selecting both groups of participants is that they are viewed as a case study. This allows for more focused data gathering and enables higher internal validity in making inferences about the group. In this sense, it is important to emphasize that the consequence of this is that the external validity of the study decreases. That is, the extent to which the findings of the study may be used to make broader generalizations of the teacher's and student's ways of participating in negotiating of meaning in the EFL context may be limited. Restricting the study to one group enables the investigation of not just individual experiences of participants, but also the interaction between these within the group, which is relevant in this study. From the interviews conducted, it will be possible to examine both the perspectives of the participants of the ways in participating in classroom interactions with their learners and their use of multilingual resources to negotiate meaning.

Table 5: Student participants

<i>Participant</i>	<i>Formal-Field</i>	<i>Informal</i>
<i>Cesar</i>	<i>X (Law)</i>	
<i>Daniela</i>	<i>X (Law)</i>	
<i>Socorro</i>		<i>X</i>
<i>Merary</i>	<i>X (Law)</i>	
<i>Elva</i>		<i>X</i>

<i>Tania</i>	<i>X (Psychology)</i>	
<i>Janliek</i>	<i>X (Business)</i>	
<i>Roman</i>	<i>X (Business)</i>	
<i>Karen</i>	<i>X (Psychology)</i>	
<i>. Diana</i>	<i>X(Business)</i>	
<i>. Arely</i>	<i>X(Psychology)</i>	
<i>. Olimpia</i>	<i>X (Psychology)</i>	
<i>. David</i>		X
<i>. Dianna</i>		X
<i>. Salvador</i>		X
<i>. Samuel</i>	X	

Now that I have presented my research design along with my data collection instruments, my reason for adhering to the type or role I chose for this study, my context and participants, I can now proceed to discuss my data analysis.

5.8 Data Analysis

In qualitative research, data analysis is carried out aligned with both the research aim and objectives, but also the type of data that the aim seeks to discover. As frequently repeated in this thesis, the aim of this study is to identify the interactional resources teachers and students draw on in order to accomplish the business of the social interaction in the EFL classroom: therefore, my data, which is mostly in the form of transcribed extracts from

classroom observations and extracts from teacher interviews) needed to respond to this analysis.

5.8.1 Analyzing interviews data through content analysis

Narratives in English language learning and teaching are concerned with stories teachers and learners tell about their lives and experiences. Teachers typically “tell about their professional development and practices, and learners about their experiences of learning and using languages” (Barkhuizen, 2014, p.450). In other words, in order to gain insight into the aim of this study which is inquiring what language practices that both teacher and learner engage in in order to negotiate meaning in the second language classroom of a language education center at a state University on the border with the U.S., therefore a **content analytical approach** was chosen. Many studies examine both subject reality and life reality as they appeal to some form of content and thematic analysis to analyze thoughts and feelings in order to gain insights on these in a lived situation, but also to explore the research context in a historic manner as this plays a vital role in the unfolding of research (Heinz, 2001; Pavlenko, 1998, 2003; Pavlenko and Lantolf, 2000).

Perhaps the most salient manner in analyzing interview data is through **content analysis** as this approach emphasizes the intervention of the researcher in the construction of meaning of and within texts, as there “is a willingness to permit themes and topics to emerge from the data naturally, rather than attempting to impose a preconceived set of themes on the data” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.563). This approach ensures that any unanticipated themes are given an opportunity to emerge from the data and that no undue weight is given *a priori* to any preconceived themes. The intention of following this particular type of analysis in this study was to discover any logical connections and particular groupings that would reveal certain particularities on both my research aim and questions. Additionally, since data was collected since the early stages of the research project, both research method (**case study**) and one type of data analysis (content **analysis**) takes place and converge as the data collection process begins. I was able to pin-point the most noticeable themes and aspects which resulted significant in the following data collection stages was were

classroom observations (COs- two observations- and teacher semi-structured interviews- after the observations took place. One of the many benefits of content analysis is that it is context- sensitive, in other words; it is susceptible to the emerging themes from the participants' experiences and stories that are crucial in the subsequent research stages as well as the complete development of the study. Hence, the process of data analysis was both data and theory-driven. An example of such analysis is evident in analytical Chapter 7; as in order to analyze the teacher-interviews transcripts (see Appendix 1) the categories and topics selected both theory-driven and emergent from the data. The following is an overview of the protocol followed in data analysis:

- Transcription of texts
- Open-coding, which involves making notes in the margins of words, theories or short phrases that sum up what is being said in the text.
- Comparing ideas and emergent themes from the data in order to establish any links between them
- Interpretation of the data in order to seek and understanding and draw theoretical conclusions from the texts
- (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011,p.561)

Along with this explanation, each analytical chapter presents a discussion of the protocol followed in order to analyze the data from the research questions of the study. Nonetheless, the use of content analysis for discursive exploration, scholars have contended that this type of approach for analysis does not consider certain variable sin data analysis such as: that content cannot be separated from form and context. Furthermore, they have also emphasized that thematic or content analysis lacks a theoretical premise, which makes it unclear where conceptual categories derive from and how they relate to each other. Additionally, they have also stressed the overreliance on repeated instances and a focal point on the text, whereas what is excluded may potentially be as or even more informative. Not paying attention to how speakers use language to make sense of their experiences (Heinz, 2001; Pavlenko, 1998, 2003).

The main reasons for adhering to content analysis over other types of were threefold. Firstly, it conformed to my research objective(s) which was to inquire what language practices that both teacher and learners engage in order to

negotiate meaning in the second language classroom. As thoroughly discussed in analytical chapter 7, single instances of what was relevant to the participants were also considered and analyzed accordingly. The rebuilding of the teacher interviews (e.g. their views on teaching practices, the use of L1 in class, etc.) was achievable due to this class of analysis (see Appendix 2).

Secondly, the use of content analysis proved to be practical as the vast amount of data gathered was not easy to manage as were: full transcriptions of the semi-structured teacher interviews that lasted about forty-five minutes each, (ten transcriptions in total). Therefore, the use of any other linguistic mode of analysis would have resulted in time invested in an approach that would have not particularly yielded the information that this study seeks to inquire about. This will be addressed more in-depth in the following section (5.8.2) where the transcriptions conventions for both classroom data and teacher-interviews will be discussed.

Lastly, content analysis proved to be favorable as I endeavored to consider its weakness by first, adhering to a particular theoretical framework and secondly, the use of it in the categorization, as well as making the connections from the emergent themes from the data. Topics that seemed repetitive or different were carefully analyzed and placed within the appropriate category as this data could also reveal important information. I acknowledge that the data obtained could also be treated with other types of analysis, such as text reality (e.g. discourse analysis) in order to inquire what language practices that both teacher and learners engage in order to negotiate meaning in the second language classroom. What is certain is that for future both second language and applied linguistics studies the use of more practical data collection tools and other research tools are needed which involve less data.

5.8.2 Analyzing classroom observations through an applied Conversation Analysis Approach: transcription conventions

In qualitative research, transcriptions are considered a vital phase of data analysis (Kvale, 1996), especially when the researcher is to partake in the transcriptions and analysis procedures as was my case; therefore the need to include it as part of this section is imperative to understand classroom data.

Applied Conversation Analysis (CA) has become a powerful methodology for studying social interaction and its sequential organization in the social sciences and beyond, including sociology, anthropology, linguistics, communication, information, and computer sciences, as well as in applied linguistics. Over the years, its scope has broadened considerably in respect to language, modality, and social structure (Kasper and Wagner 2014). CA, whether basic or applied, is not *interdisciplinary* but *transdisciplinary*. Applied CA brings the principles, methods, and achievements of basic CA to bear on these concerns. For some applied research purposes, CA is usually combined with other methodologies. Antaki (2011) proposes six strands of applied CA:

1. Foundational: respecifying an intellectual field of study
2. Social problem oriented: a perspective on macro-societal issues
3. Communicational: a complementary or alternative analysis of “disordered” talk
4. Diagnostic: correlating sequential features of talk with clinical disorders
5. Institutional: an illumination of routine institutional work
6. Interventionist: solving preexisting problems collaboratively

These ‘strands’ are “applied” in two senses of the word (ten Have, 2001, 2007). The first five apply CA to explicate social phenomena with CA’s conceptual and methodological apparatus.

This study adheres to the “**institutional**” strand of applied CA since this type examines how institutions are produced, maintained, and transformed through participants’ routine interactional work (Kasper and Wagner, 2014). The *institutionality* of talk becomes apparent when talk that pursues some institutional business is compared to ordinary conversation. In this study, the business of the social interaction in the EFL classroom is looked into. Institutional talk can be characterized as a distinct mode of interaction, thus across a diverse range of settings and activities, institutional talk share some specific properties; turn-taking organization, sequence organization, turn design, and lexical choices (Drew & Heritage, 1992; Heritage & Clayman, 2010). The places for probing institutionally enable researchers to identify in an empirically rigorous manner how institutions are “talked into being” (Heritage,

1984b, p.290). In this scenario, which is the EFL classroom; when participants share a visual space, any kind of interaction expands dramatically to include vocal and non-vocal resources. In institutional tasks, non-vocal activities such as gaze, gesture, body movement, and facial expressions are also configured for carrying –out specific institutional work. In other words, objects, documents and spatial arrangements add further understandings to the “contextures” (Goodwin, 2011) of institutional interaction (see Appendix 3 for transcription convention).

Though I will not follow a “strict” CA approach to describe and give an account of the ways of the ways that both teacher and learner(s) construct and manage the interaction. This approach can be applied to the second language classroom along with other qualitative methods such as classroom observations and teacher interviews as a strict CA approach will not aid me in understanding the complex nature of the second language. That is why I also needed the classroom observations and the teachers’ voices to illuminate this linguistic phenomenon. I will borrow tools of CA to explain what takes place in these EFL classroom and the multilingual resources used by both parties to communicate. An **applied CA approach** to the second language classroom is applicable since it is an institutional setting with specific goal-oriented activities, asymmetrical roles, and a context which is continually being constructed for and by the participants through the classroom interaction. By borrowing tools from CA I will try to demonstrate and explicate the practices that enable members in a conversation to comprehend the interaction and contribute to it. There are very distinct similarities: classroom talk consists of many participants, and there have to be effortless transitions and clearly detailed expectations if meanings are to be made clear. Walsh (2006:52), states “possibly, the most significant role of CA is to interpret from the data rather than impose predetermined structural categories”. Thus, the approach is strictly empirical. Both, Seedhouse (2004) and Levinson (1983) highlight the fact that CA orients the researcher to concentrate on classroom interaction patterns arising from the data, rather than fall back on any preconceived notions which teachers may introduce to the data.

I am following an **applied Conversation Analysis perspective** since it will yield an explanation of the practices at hand that enable the participants of a conversation to negotiate meaning as well as teacher interviews and field notes to gain a more holistic understanding of what is taking place in these EFL classrooms. An applied CA approach means that I will borrow tools from CA that will enable me to fulfill and demonstrate the complexities of the classroom interaction. This approach will be utilized to explicate the classroom data since this approach exposes the multileveled interpretations that can be made of conversations as discourses (Sacks, 1984). This will enable the researcher to inquire if/or codeswitching patterns of interaction are being used by both teachers and students alike in the EFL higher education classroom.

By borrowing tools of CA, I will investigate how features of conversation, how it is generated and constructed, how it operates, and what its distinguishing characteristics are and how participants construct their own meanings in the conversational exchange (Seedhouse, 2004). Accordingly, Heritage and Clayman (2010) summarized that “showing participants recorded data and point out the relevance of particular interactional practices could be revelatory for participants and introduced new potentials for institutional reflexivity and organizational change” (p.281).

5.9 Triangulation

Triangulation may be defined as “the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behavior” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.195). Therefore, drawing on the use of one or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behavior is usually suggested, also known as **triangulation**. By analogy, triangular techniques in the social sciences attempt to map out, or explain in more detail, the richness and intricacy of human behavior by studying it from more than one standpoint. Denzin (1970) has, however, extended this view of triangulation to take in other types such as *time triangulation*, *space triangulation*, *combined levels of triangulation*, *theoretical triangulation*, *investigator triangulation*, and *methodological triangulation*, being the before-mentioned the approach selected

for my research. **Methodological triangulation** uses either the same method on different occasions or different methods on the same object of study. Accordingly, in order to give accounts on what these participants say that they do and what they effectively do, triangulation becomes a way to make sense of the ways in which participants understand and participate in the practice of the EFL classroom.

When carrying out research, the major concern of researchers is both how valid and contributable the study will be in their fields; this research is no exception for the field of second language studies. The use of methodological triangulation by means of classroom observations, teacher semi-structured interviews, and an applied CA approach to classroom interactions was carried out.

I adhered to methodological triangulation by way to reinforce the weaknesses that each one of the data collection instruments may present meanwhile enabling a better understanding and consequences for the entire study. As Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011) emphasize that the use diverse methods such as classroom observations, interviews, and recordings will yield in itself more reliable, valid constructions off reality. Examples of this data triangulation are revealed throughout this thesis where accounts and extracts are provided to strengthen both the discussions and the arguments.

5.10 Limitations of the research

Even though I adhered to my research rationale and design previously discussed, it is vital to understand that research methods have limitations as methods are partially plausible in certain contexts. Still and regardless of the 10 teacher participants, readers can identify what is similar to their own unique contexts and benefit from the findings by evaluating analogous situations.

Firstly, classroom observations are amongst the most used approaches to gain insights into what takes place in the classroom. Classroom observations help the researcher in understanding the world view of the participants since it is represented as their definition of the situation.

This leads to the first limitation of the study as teachers were “nervous” to invade their classrooms contexts. Nevertheless, this emic perspective is needed

in order to comprehend the subjective meanings placed on situations by both sides of the party (i.e. teachers and students). What needs to be pointed out is that this research substantially relies on both the researcher's point of view and interpretation as well as the participants', providing first-hand knowledge about their everyday English language practices.

I hope that this project is the starting point for further research, which has concentrated meticulously on people's account of, notions about their teaching practices that were expressed through teacher semi-structured interviews, classroom observations and an applied CA approach to classroom data will extend an invitation for more conversations regarding CS in multilingual classrooms along the lines I have developed in this project.

5.11 Ethical Considerations

Even though there are no cultural sensitivities surrounding the participants, ethical considerations protecting participants are of utmost importance. The study adheres to the requirements set forth by the University of Southampton for conducting research with human participants:

(http://WWW.southampton.ac.uk/gradschools/gradedev/research_ethics.html) approved by the Ethics and Research Governance Office in January 2013. It was explained and highlighted to the participants taking part in this study that the data would be protected by the use of codes and passwords and would remain solely with the researcher. The study was conducted in a specific university where only EFL teachers were invited to participate, maintaining participants' anonymity poses a challenge and cannot be fully guaranteed by the use of pseudonyms. It should be noted that this study is concerned with delving into teachers and students multilingual practices in the EFL classroom and the results could no way be harmful to the participants at a personal level.

A Student Research Ethics Checklist and a participant information sheet were completed in January 2013 and an ethical approval granted for this piece of research (ERGO 8348). On January 30th, an introductory meeting was held between the researcher and the participants. The ethical points were discussed in this meeting. The researcher explained her PhD topic in detail and also

discussed the instruments to be used to collect data. In addition, the participant information sheet was read and discussed with the participants in Spanish and were given the opportunity to ask questions. Consent forms were then signed and dated, and the participants were given the researcher's contact details (see appendix 3).

5.12 Summary

The methodology section previously presented will seek to obtain relevant data in order to answer this study's aim and three research questions successfully. It provided an overview and a justification for the research approach chosen in order to gain insight into the language practices that both teacher and learner engage in in order to negotiate meaning in the second language classroom of a language education center at a state University on the border with the U.S. The discussion then moved on to present the aim and research questions including the research design that thoroughly explained my reasons for the data collection instruments.

It also described my role as the researcher, the participants of the study, data analysis, and finally the potential limitations of this research. The following three chapters will set forth the most outstanding features acquired by means of the methodology previously set forth in this chapter.

Chapter 6: Teachers' ways of participating in situations of negotiation of meaning in the EFL higher education context

6.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to describe the teachers' ways of participating in situations of negotiation of meaning in the higher education EFL classroom in a Mexican university. In order to give an account of the ways teachers participate in the EFL context, I need to first explore the ways they negotiate meaning interactionally. Therefore, my role as an **observer (naturalistic observations)** is to examine specific moments of their classes in order to gain insight on their teaching practices. As a brief reminder, **naturalistic observation** enables "to observe participants in their natural settings and their behavior in them" (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p.465). Through the use of an audio-recorder, I delve into this specific context- I refer to real classes in their actual place and time. The principle involved here is –observing teachers and students in their EFL classes as they aim to communicate in with an array of linguistic resources at their disposal. Accordingly, this chapter is concerned with:

What are the teachers' ways of participating in situations of negotiating of meaning in the higher education EFL classroom?

The three analytical chapters are separated in order to respond to the three main research questions of this study. This is done for diverse reasons. Firstly, my aim in this chapter is to present an x-ray of the EFL classes in this higher education context in order to make visible just how both parties (e.g., teachers and learners) carry out the communicative business of interaction- *teaching and learning*.

This is also done to reveal the architecture of the second language classroom interaction or *fingerprint* of this specific context (Seedhouse, 2004) as each has unique features that constitute the distinguishing components of the institutional variety.

Secondly, by deepening my understanding of these practices permit me to present *how* these participants interact and display diverse linguistic resources to communicate and respond to one and another in their turns at talk, with a primary focus in how sequences of actions are made (Duff, 2002; Unamuno, 2008). Lastly, the data from this chapter is vital as it sets the groundwork for the subsequent chapters, (Chapter 7- teachers RQ#2 and Chapter 8 students - RQ#3) that focus specifically on *how* and *why* participants use their linguistic repertoires to engage in communication as I delve into the actions that shape the roles performed by the interactants and by the business of the moment. Therefore, in order to gain an up-close perspective to what takes place in these EFL classes, diverse tools were used to capture these interactions as were previously discussed in Chapter 5 (section 3.5).

To understand the complex nature of such EFL classroom interactions, researchers such as Unamuno (2008) and Gauci (2011) argue that it is not sufficient to audio or video-record classroom interaction. Other types of data collection instruments are needed such as interviews or questionnaires in order to decipher their choices regarding their classroom practices. Along the same lines, other studies (Carless, 2007; Copland & Neokleous, 2010; Grima, 2013; Nordin, Rashid & Syed Zubir, 2013) recur to these as to better triangulate the data as it contributes to a more nuanced understanding of their choices in their specific contexts. Other scholars in the field of applied linguistics and other related fields support the use of observation and audio-recorders along with the use of an **applied Conversation Analysis (ACA)** framework, (Forman, 2008; Bonacina & Gafaranga, 2011; Cancino, 2015) to gain a closer-*emic* perspective of what takes place in the classroom as the participants carry-out the business of the interaction.

Accordingly, this chapter is divided into sections. The first section provides an account of the participants and a sketch of the architecture of their classes, providing a step-by-step explanation (by providing the classroom activity), in order to understand what is taking place among the interactants, as well as a transcription scheme that will aid in the understanding of what is unfolding. I then make use of the theory in which my research is grounded on to give account of the teachers' ways of participating in order to carry-out the business

of the interaction in this EFL context. Evidence is also provided with the purpose of delving into what takes place in the second language classroom. Last, I provide a brief concluding section that summarizes the results and discussion in this chapter and identify some relevant aspects that are further addressed in Chapter 7.

6.2 A view into teacher's teaching practices in the EFL context

Interactional analysis inspired by **Applied Conversation Analysis** is a methodology for studying social interaction Seedhouse (2004). As previously explained in Chapter 5 (section 3.8.2), by borrowing tools from CA; I try to demonstrate and explain the teaching practices that enable the participants of a conversation to negotiate meaning. Any conversation involves negotiation of meaning, this action enables participants to provide each other with “comprehensible input, to give and gain feedback on contributions and to modify and restructure utterances so that meanings are made clear” (Walsh, 2011, p.54).

Accordingly, the features of classroom discourse that emerged from this data were: the use of *transitional markers*, *speech modification*, *turn-taking*, and *code-switching*, though **code-switching (CS)** is the dominant interactional pattern. Henceforth, it is also noteworthy to highlight that the architecture of the L2 classroom, (Seedhouse, 2004) is also identifiable as there is a reflexive relationship between the pedagogical focus of the interaction and the organization of turn-taking, sequence organization and repair. Such interactional features used by these teachers will also be discussed stemming from five fragments: a) control of the interaction, b) turn-taking device) use of transitional markers, d) speech modification, and e) use of backchannels. Therefore after analyzing both their classroom practices and field notes, a number of dominant linguistic practices arose; yet, I will only delve into the most representative practices.

This chapter focuses on four participants, (see Table 2 for their backgrounds) and their EFL classes from diverse levels in order present a general view of this context and its specific classroom architecture. With this data, my aim is to set-up the scenario to better understand these classes, and how these parties use

their linguistic resources to communicate in this context close to the border region with the U.S., which I believe has not been sufficiently understood and theorized.

Teacher Ricardo

This next excerpt is from a 1st level EFL class (A1 according to the Common European Framework). The class time observed was dedicated to reviewing vocabulary related to clothing and setting –up an exercise for the students to carry out in class. The classroom set-up is in rows and there are approximately 24 students in class. The student population is made up of 8 (*Informal students*), 16 (*Formal students*) and their ages range from 17- 25 years old. The current teaching methodology utilized by teachers at the Language Center is communicative (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, Brumfit, 1987). The textbook used is the *Top Notch Fundamentals* series by Pearson-Longman. This method is used in all levels from the beginners to the advanced during both the weekday and Saturday classes.

There are 101 turns in this classroom interaction but only 13 turns were analyzed to provide a scope of what is happening in regards to the manner the teacher is deploying or not interactional features to negotiate meaning. The teacher is mainly in front of the classroom, he occasionally goes around the classroom to monitor the students or if there is a particular question, he attends to the students by going to where they are seated.

The opening sequence of the class begins with Ricardo checking homework from the past week. The students are working together in groups of three totaling 8 groups in the classroom. As observed in my fieldwork, the objective of this exercise is for students to compare their answers before they continue to check as a whole class activity (see Appendix 1). Ricardo walks around and monitors students carrying-out their task.

Extract 1

What should I wear?

1 **RIC** [Is checking answers from a previous exercise they had done for homework and students are comparing their answers with their classmates. The teacher, Ricardo is walking around the classroom to monitor the eight groups of 3 working together]

2 **RIC** {(A) because it's just one, girls wear skirts or long or short skirt}

3 **RIC** {(A) finally.....you have it in your notes....Do you think it is right, doubts Virginia?}

[Ricardo is walking around the classroom and stops at the group of three students working together in the middle of the classroom. He notices Virginia is somewhat reluctant to answer which prompts him to call on her to verify what he suspects is happening with Virginia in not wanting to answer]

4 **VIR** {(P) no}

5 **RIC** { (A) ok, now let's go back to pg. 45- Simple Present Tense...expressing needs in grammar in this chart in the book, Tina likes these shoes....do the ones in Bold}.

6 **RIC** {(F) add the "s" ending in 3rd person singular..."something that you want"}

7 **RIC** {(DC) something that you like...Grecia...anything that you like?}

8 **RIC** {(A) do you know the meaning of these verbs?}

9 **LL** yes: \

10 **RIC** ok...yes: \ do exercise 6 on pg. 45. Complete each statement...You are going to choose if it is with "like" or "likes" and "has" or "have", or want/s or need/s: II

[Ricardo is looking around the room, but is stopped by Grecia's puzzled look on her face and prompts him to nominate her in the next turn. He stands right in front of her and asks her a question].

11 **RIC** {(A) when is it plural, Grecia number 1?}

12 **GRE** likes:II

13 **RIC** no: II we don't add an "s":II because it is
"we" :\

14 **GRE** teacher: II {(A) my friends"?}

Turn-taking

This opening episode of this "check homework" sequence is what Gourlay (2005) denominates as the "checking homework" segment, or what Walsh (2006) refers to as the "materials mode" of the classroom interaction where "the interaction is organized exclusively around the material" (p.70). This segment lasted 22 minutes approximately, contained two different exercises from their textbooks, and the majority of the time is spent on the learners carrying out the tasks at hand. This is evident in turn 10, where Ricardo again sets up the next sequence for the next exercise from their textbook to begin.

The IRF turn-taking sequence is evident in this sequence as Ricardo is controlling the interaction by conducting a series of IRF sequences referred to by Schegloff (2007) as "sequence-of-sequences" are of a peculiar type associated with nominating learners to report their answers from a written exercise. This sequence is visible in the following format:

T (I): Names item number nominates student.

S(R): Reads answer aloud to class.

T (F): Accepts ("Okay"), evaluates ("Very good"), or launches an error correction sequence ("Let's write this down").

This sequence is evident in (*turns 11, 12, and 13*) as Ricardo nominates Grecia to answer the first question, she provides a short answer, “likes” and then Ricardo evaluates by providing the turn in the form of error correction “No, we don’t add “s”. In turn 14, Grecia expands on this error correction provided by Ricardo by stating that she has doubts with “my friends”.

What can be argued here from this sequence is that the “check homework” is a routine activity found in EFL/ESL classes since it provides teachers two things: a) an opportunity for the teacher to gauge the learners’ level of understanding vis-à-vis certain materials and b) for the learners to display their mastery of/or problems with these materials (Waring, 2009:801).

Control of the Interaction and Transitional markers

The interaction in this excerpt is tightly managed by Ricardo, since there are nine instances of teacher initiating the interaction (*turns 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, and 13*) as opposed to three instances where students are initiating the interaction (*turns 4, 9, 12, and 14*). This demonstrates that the teacher is initiating the interaction as well as taking the floor most of time in this classroom segment. The business of interaction of Ricardo is organizing and setting up the activities which is characterized by an extended teacher turn (*turns 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, and 11*) of more than one clause and reduced learner turns as the primary focus of the moment is the organization or setting-up of the task by frequent repetitions, directives and instructions (Walsh, 2011,p.114).

Once Ricardo accommodates the learning tempo, the students are invited to participate; only it is not an invitation but a direct nomination. Something noteworthy happens with Ricardo, he is sensitive to learners’ gestures and non-verbal participations. This is demonstrated in (*turns 3, 10, and 11*) where he nominates Virginia to answer upon, noticing her puzzled look as he is walking around the classroom and comes to the group where she is working. This prompts him to nominate her to verify if what he guessed was right or not. Grecia does so, but immediately after, in turn 13, she hesitates with the –s ending in the third person singular “my friends” and expands on the explanation by asking Ricardo to give further examples.

Transitional markers

The use of transition markers (*Ok and yes*) is also evident in this excerpt (*turns 5 and 10*) to signal a shift in the lesson alerting the students that the pedagogic goals have been “accommodated to focus on a new activity”. Ricardo’s encouraging feedback in “ok...yes” is done in a multi-unit turn, meaning there was no space of other turns to follow. Thus, other students did not have the space to self-select as Ricardo’s sole focus gravitated around the material and pedagogic goals of the moment. There is very little interactional space and a specific choice of topic is limited since the exchanges are organized and centered on the material(s). From a pedagogical perspective, the aim can be interpreted as a way of providing vocabulary practice around a determined piece of material.

Teacher Manuela

This next sample is from a 3rd level EFL class (B1 according to the Common European Framework). The class is held from 8:00 to 1:00 p.m. on Saturdays. Saturday classes begin at 8:00 a.m., continue on to 10:00, students have a break for half an hour, then classes resume until 1:00. Excerpts of the data appear in the discussion below. The class time observed is dedicated to learning vocabulary about cleaning a room and housekeeping in a hotel as well as setting-up the task to carry out in class. The classroom set up is in rows and there are approximately nine students in this level. The teacher is in front of the classroom the entire class time, sitting and never standing up in the fifty minutes observed to monitor students. The students in class are from diverse disciplines from the academic community (*Formal students*).

Extract 2

Cleaning habits

1 **MAN** {(A) Ok...pg. 32...we have different pictures, what is "make-up" the room?}

2 **LL** (choral repetition). "Clean the room".

3 **MAN** {(A) so, what is the person doing in picture 1?}

4 **LL** putting clean sheets on the bed: \

5 **MAN** { look at the picture:\ do you see: II {(A) so, we have the main what?} Tell me: II come on:II

6 **S** fixing the bed:\

7 **MAN** {(A) ok...pick-up the laundry.....what?} {(AC) who picks-up the newspaper? take away the dishes?}

8 **LL** housekeeping: I

9 **MAN** so, let's go with Karen: II { (A) Can you please read the ideas on the green box?}

10 [Karen reads the explanation out loud]

11 **MAN** {(DC) ok so we need to choose from the list}

12 **MAN** {(A) we can choose *ganchos*?} {(A) How do you say it?}

13 **MAN** hangars ok: II. So please do the exercise, 3, 4

and 5 with the list: II Work in pairs

[At this stage, the students begin working in pairs to complete the exercise, and then they begin revising their answers with another group)]

14 **MAN** {(A) are you ready?}

15 **MAN** ok: I {(A) Christian what do you have for number #2?}

16. **CHR** trash teacher: II

17 **MAN** ok: I

Turn-taking and adjacency pairs

There are diverse types of interactional organizations, this sequence enables to combine turn-taking and adjacency pairs to provide normative points of reference which provide “a standing point which guide the participants to orient themselves” (Seedhouse, 2004, p.18). This sequence permits me to illustrate these instances more in depth. Turn-taking in this excerpt is basically that of a question-and answer sequence. The interaction is opened by Manuela directing the learners’ attention by asking about the task at hand in their textbook, (*turn 1*) “Ok...pg. 32...we have different pictures...What is “make-up” the room? This is immediately followed by the answer from the whole class in *turn 2*, then Manuela regains the floor in *turn 3* by abruptly answering and not acknowledging the class’s answer and not providing positive or negative feedback. She signals the end of the turn abruptly ... “So, *What is the person doing in picture 1?*” The transitional marker “so” used by Manuela in this turn indicates that it is time to move on to the next stage of the lesson and the students have to answer in *turn 4*. The interaction in this excerpt follows a lockstep organization and the IRF sequence frequently occurs. Turn-taking and topic selection are determined by the target language and responsibility for managing the turn-taking usually lies with the teacher” (Walsh, 2011, p.118). Specific pedagogic goals are guided towards learners being accurate in

communication as opposed to fluency. Thus, the teachers concern here is to help the students shape strings of adequate linguistic forms and play with the target language.

In this excerpt, Manuela is both asking display and referential questions, either to test knowledge or to engage learners and promote discussion. Unfortunately, the latter is not being fulfilled. This is evidenced in Manuela's use of a referential question in *turn 1* "*What is "make-up" the room?*" In this turn, Manuela is eliciting the students to provide longer and more complex answers, resulting in a more conversational type of interaction. What occurs in *turn 2* is the complete opposite; students answer abruptly in choral repetition ... "*Clean the room*", even though Manuela wants to create the space for more discussion, the students just "display" what they interpret from the task at hand in *turn 3*. Learner responses are short, typically from two to four words, a characteristic of display questions. Though there is enough space for topic development, learners do not seem to "want" to expand on their contribution. In *turns 3 and 7*, Manuela evidently asks display questions to check their understanding of the textbook task. Learner answers are short, simple and restricted in *turns 4 and 8* from 1 to 6 words. Instead of allowing more space for learner contribution, the display questions "closed it down and resulted in a rather stereotypical, almost mechanical type of interaction that is often exemplified in IRF sequences" (Walsh, 2011, p.12). Or argued by Xiao (2014, p.557): "The result of the teacher's where, who, what questions is self-evident: it constrains the students' language production as they give just short answers". This turn-taking system; where Manuela's responsibility is to ask questions and select participants (*turns 8, 9, and 15*), as the students' responsibility is to answer the questions asked. This monotonous turn-taking system extent constrains learner contributions to a certain extent and inhibits learner involvement in the on-going classroom interaction.

Adjacency pairs are paired utterances that "on production of the first part of the pair (e.g., question), the second part of the pair (answer) becomes conditionally relevant. Thus, if the second part is not immediately produced, it may nonetheless remain relevant and accountable and appear later, or its absence may be accounted for (Seedhouse, 2004, p.18). Or as Ozemir (2009) and

Cheglof (2007) state, *turn 11* in this excerpt is a turn defined as a sequence-closing turn where the teacher makes an assessment of the previous turn in the form of oh, ok, and assessments such as great. Turn *turn 11* demonstrates it when the teacher states “ok...so we need to choose from the list”. One of the main characteristics of this excerpt is that of a question-and answer adjacency pair taking up most of the sequence organization. Almost all of the questions are asked by Manuela and the students mainly act the role of answering them. This further evidences what Lee & Vanpatten (2003) state as teachers comparing communication with conversation, but a distinct type of communication. The authority figure- Manuela asks the questions (*turns 1, 3, 5, 7, 12, 14, and 15*) and the students answered (*turns 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 13, and 16*). Therefore, this classroom interaction is mainly viewed as a conversation, which follows the sequence of adjacency-and answer pair with the teacher in charge since it is a goal-oriented activity. Evaluation of students’ answers are a must in this text-based sequence as this is the most economical manner to do so as Manuela is initiating a turn by asking a question and the students respond.

Control of the interaction

There are six instances of teacher initiating the interaction in (*turns 1,3,5,7,9,11, 13, and 14*) as opposed to five instances where students are initiating the interaction (*turns 2, 4, 6, 8, and 10*). This reveals that there is no balance between teacher and student interaction. This set of data demonstrates that the interaction is mainly controlled by Manuela. In *turn 9*, Manuela nominates Karen by asking her to read the ideas in the green box of the task from the textbook, thereby determining who may speak. Manuela’s direct nomination “...ok...let’s go with Karen”, followed by the teacher instruction “Can you please read the ideas on the green box”, both establishes the topic and provides a cue for Karen, who must now reply to the instruction, which she does in *turn 10*. This happens again in *turn 14* where Manuela asks the whole class if they are ready to answer by asking “Are you ready?”, but then immediately nominates another student, indicated by Manuela’s latched contribution in *turn 15*.

Finally, in *turn 17*, Manuela brings Christian’s contribution to an end by simply saying “ok” and controlling participation. Two things can be evidenced

throughout this excerpt: a) this interaction pattern resembles Breen's (1998) metaphor of the teacher "orchestrating" the interaction. It is evident that Manuela controls the amount of space learners have in the interaction. For each contribution made by a learner, Manuela usually makes one: asking a question (in *turns 1, 3, 5, 7, 14, and 15*), giving instructions (*turns 9, 11, and 13*), and giving feedback (in *turn 17*). This three part exchange system, made of a teacher question, learner response, and teacher feedback is "a distinct feature of classroom discourse that exemplifies the ways in which teachers control the interaction" (Walsh, 2011, p.5) and b) Manuela's control of the interaction centers on the material(s) being used. Typically, all interaction revolves around a piece of material, in this case an exercise from their textbooks where students are learning vocabulary related to cleaning and housekeeping in a hotel. This three part exchange system is the most economical way to progress in the interaction, with each teacher turn working as either an evaluation or feedback of a student's contribution and marks the initiation of another turn. Thus, the patterns of interaction emerging from this excerpt largely have to do with the text-based context, as the focus of this lesson was to familiarize students with the text by means of reading and pair-work. Though the students in this excerpt had varying degrees of interactional space, their contributions were still entwined by the limitations imposed by the task at hand.

Codeswitching

The codeswitching functions that are present in this excerpt are: Equivalence and reiteration. In *turn 10*, the student chooses the word "ganchos" (hangers) since there is an absence of the lexical item in the students' interlanguage. Manuela in *turn 11* reiterates the message or L2, but it is clarified in L1. Here, the teacher emphasizes or reinforces the message that has already been transmitted in one code, but not understood in the exchange. These two particular exchanges (*turns 10 and 11*), appear to be done by both the student and teacher to avoid breakdown in the classroom discourse. Though there is evidence of teacher and student codeswitching in this excerpt, this will be discussed in the next chapter answering RQ2.

Teacher Fabiola

This is a second level EFL class (A2 according to the Common European Framework). The class is held from 3:00 to 5:00 p.m. The teacher walks around the classroom the entire fifty minutes of the class observation, monitoring the groups working together. This lesson is 50 min. long, contains 105 turns, but only 21 exchanges were used since they constitute a representative sample of how teachers are participating in situations of negotiation of meaning.

There are eighteen students present in the classroom. The classroom layout is in rows. The students from this particular class are university students from diverse fields within the university (*Formal students*). Their ages range from 18 to 25 years old. As part of their regular English classes, these students are instructed to carry out a variety of oral pair activities intended to help them practice and learn the language in question. In this opening sequence, the class topic is about food, with a specific focus on the use and practice of count and non-count nouns. Pedagogic goals and language use center on the task being carried out. The grammatical aspect taught is the Simple Present; there are also verb phrases, Irregular Plurals, consonant sounds and the third person-s. The students' book is utilized for classroom practice as is the use of visual aids or any other material to complement the textbook.

Extract 3

"Cappuccino and fries"

- 1 **FAB** {(F) how was your day?} <n>
- 2 **LL** Fine: II
- 3 **FAB** ok >n> We are going to start the Unit on food: II
 {(A) Do you like to eat?}
- 4 **LL** {(DC) yes}
- 5 **LL** {(F) how do you say *oregano* teacher?}
- 6 **FAB** {(DC) **oregano**}: I {(A) what about dairy products?}
- 7 **FAB** {(A) cottage?}
- 8 **FAB** Cottage cheese: II you usually say it together: I
 {(A) is that for cooking?} {(A) olive oil?}

{(A) What about sweets?}

[At this point, the teacher is glancing around the classroom to see what is happening with the learners]

9 **LL** So: I now: I, Let's do exercise B {(A) how many foods can you name?} {(A) juice?} {(A) tomato juice} {(A) orange juice?}

10 **FAB** Omar: II { (A) that's not English} : I

[The teacher is walking around the class to monitor how students are working and if there are any questions]

11 **OMA** [Omar gestures, smiles and looks at his classmate who were caught talking in L1)

12 **FAB** {(F) how do I say *bon-bon*?}

13 **RIC** chocolate cake: II

14 **FAB** {(A) bon-bon?}

15 **HUG** Teacher: I [how do I say *pastel de queso*?]

16 **FAB** Cheesecake: I

17 **LL** {(A) how do we say *pastel de manzana*?}

18 **FAB** Oh: II it's **apple pie**: I

19 **ALI** teacher: I {(F) *pan con queso*?}

20 **FAB** grilled-cheese sandwich: II

21 **MON** fish: I { (DC) *tambien* teacher}: I *la ultima respuesta*

22 **FAB** ok <n> { (F) so let' s see what you got} <n> {(A) Did you finish Eduardo?} Ok <n> let's see: II give me examples of salads: I

Turn-taking

This excerpt provides evidence of the typical features of classroom discourse (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Mehan, 1979), as it follows a predictable structure consisting of an initiation, response and evaluation parts. Classroom interaction is between Fabiola (the teacher) and the whole class. The sequence and distribution of turns among these participants; the diverse types of responses, initiations, and evaluations are associated with variable learning possibilities" (Duff, 2002:300). Normally, in this EFL context; students raise their hands to ask for a turn and only one student is supposed to speak at a time. In this case, the learners are challenging or 'breaking" this "traditional" pattern by self-selecting for certain classroom activities. This 50 min. excerpt operates entirely on text-based context. Turn-taking organization is a blend of teacher's initiation of a turn by asking a question and students' taking turns mainly as a result of either teacher's nomination or students' self-selection. This is followed by the teacher's evaluation of students' answers. The interaction shifts between Fabiola and Omar when the teacher addresses him (*turn 11*) to interact in English to his classmate beside him.

This IRE Exchange is similar to Excerpt 2, where the teacher initiates (I) with an opening remark prompting a student to give examples of salads in *Line 1*. Fabiola uses "Lets" and a pause to prompt Eduardo to give her an answer (R) in *Line 2*. The teacher initiates (I) again in *Line 3*, but she does not offer any sort of evaluation (E) in *Line 2*. The student responds (R) in *Line 4* prompting the teacher to offer an evaluation (E) this time using the word "*good*". By means of this narrative, the turn-taking sequence is that of a classroom context (Duff, 2000; Cazden, 1986), very different from conversations outside of this pattern.

There are verbal and non-verbal exchanges between Omar and his classmate in Spanish in a parallel interaction. Omar is addressing his classmate in Spanish, as the teacher addresses the whole group; Fabiola is walking around the class to monitor the pairs and comes to a stop when she hears Omar and his classmate talking in Spanish. She then makes language norm explicit in *turn 10*. Omar's facial gestures reveal that he and his classmate have been "caught" talking in L1 and a shy smile appeared on their faces. Fabiola continues with the class by asking a new question in *turn 12*. There are also five other

participants who self-select (*turn 5-Agustin, turn 12- Ricardo, turn 15- Hugo, turn 18- Alison, and turn 20- Monica*) asking the teacher the meaning of some words in Spanish.

In this excerpt, the teacher is introducing a new unit on food. In this opening exchange, Fabiola nominates a learner to see what answer he/she provides (*turn 22*). It is also evident that the turns in this entire excerpt match the pedagogical focus and she is able to continue with the back and forth exchange or “lock-step” sequence, as well as analyzing the learners’ exchanges. There is an interactional pattern in which the students ask for a word and Fabiola provides the word in English. The students do not have a dictionary for classroom use. The teacher’s role is that of a “walking dictionary”, providing the vocabulary word when the learner asks for it. This case is also similar in the previous excerpt, where the students are self-selecting turns (5, 12, 15, 18 and 20) to ask the teacher for a vocabulary word.

Control of the Interaction

Fabiola is utilizing referential questions (Tsui, 2008, Long & Sato, 1983; Brock, 1986; Thompson, 1991; Thornbury, 1996) to elicit responses (*turns 1 and 3*) and not evaluate as such. Referential questions can serve to promote “discussion or help learners improve oral fluency” (Walsh, 2011, p. 12). In this excerpt, the business of the interaction was for learners to work in pairs to carry out the task related to food practicing with a specific grammatical structure (Appendix 2). Classroom discourse is dominated by question and answer sequences, where teachers ask most of the questions and learners ask a few. By asking questions, the teacher is able to check the answers to the questions they ask.

Another categorization is between display and referential questions. Display questions are those the teacher knows the answer to and referential questions are those the teacher does not know the answer to in advance as mentioned above. Other researchers add on to this definition by stating that display questions are questions which are used to check learners’ knowledge and understanding, while referential questions are the ones that genuinely seek new information (Lynch, 1996; Cullen, 1998). Tsui (1995, p.28) highlights that

“display questions generate interactions that are typical to didactic discourse, whereas referential questions generate interactions typical of social communication”. The main underlying purpose of display questions is to evaluate or check understanding, as well as concepts and learning (e.g. IRE pattern). Referential questions are more complex. They mainly begin with a wh-question as who, why, what, and so on. This usually entails the teacher asking questions, as the typical classroom routine is in the most part dominated by a question and answer scheme. By questioning students, teachers control the classroom discourse as they typically know the answers to the questions asked to the students. In most classroom contexts, display questions are most frequently asked by teachers. If the aim in the classroom context is to promote more discussion between the participants, the use of referential questions is appropriate. If it is to check understanding, then display questions are adequate. The use of adequate questioning strategies and the function of questions is something that needs to be understood by the teacher in regards to what is being taught.

The evidence of this data indicates that both the teacher and learners do negotiate meaning. Though the IRE sequence is the most commonly occurring discourse structure to be found in diverse classrooms all over the world (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975; Cazden, 2001; Mehan, 1979), the classroom data of these two excerpts suggests that this is not the case. Students have the opportunity to participate in the classroom interaction. On another note, institutional interaction is goal-oriented, where the main responsibility for establishing goals and setting the objectives lies mainly with the teacher (Van Lier, 1988), this excerpt suggests that teaching and learning are complementary activities in which each participant (teacher and learner) plays a role.

There are instances of student initiation (*turns 6, 12, 14, 17, 19*) in Spanish to ask about the absence of the lexical item (examples of instances of CS that will be addressed in the following research question); the teacher still holds the floor by answering to the question in English. A less directive role might be described as facilitating the process of learning, of making learning easier of the students, helping them clear away roadblocks, to find shortcuts, to negotiate through terrain. The facilitating role requires the teacher to step away from the

managerial or directive role and allow students, with the guidance from the teacher, to find their own pathways to success. A facilitator capitalizes on the principle of intrinsic motivation by allowing students to discover language through using it pragmatically rather than telling them about the language.

Codeswitching

Instances of student initiated CS are also identified in this excerpt (*turns* 6, 12, 14, 17, 19, 21). The instances of CS functions that are prevalent in this excerpt are Equivalence, Metalanguage and Floor-holding (Sampson, 2011). These CS functions are addressed in Chapter Two. Other studies on classroom codeswitching (Liebscher & Dailey-O'Cain, 2005, Zentella, 1981) have been said most often participant related (Nussbaum, 1990; Nussbaum & Unamuno, 2001). These will be addressed in RQ #2 where the focus will be on what CS patterns are being used by the teachers and for what interactional purposes within the language classroom.

Teacher Julian

This data is from a 4th level EFL class (B1 according to the Common European Framework). The class is held from 7:00 to 9:00 a.m. The first 50 min. of class time is observed using an audio recorder providing a representative sample of teacher-learner output in the classroom context. There are a total of 89 turns, but 14 exchanges are used in this excerpt.

There are approximately 12 students in this time slot; ten are mainly university students (*Formal students*) from diverse disciplines and two businessmen (*Informal students*) from the community. The participants in this excerpt are two: Christian and Alvaro. These two students belong to the student population of the university from diverse fields. Their ages range from 18-45 years old. The classroom set up is in 6 rows and the teacher up front, rarely sitting down. Contrary to Fabiola, this teacher did not walk around the classroom to monitor the students; he just stood in front of the classroom. Thus, the activity is carried out in this manner: a) The teacher starts with a warm-up activity on moving, he writes the vocabulary words that students compare on the white board, the students check their answers as a whole group activity.

The first 50 min. of class time is allocated to discuss moving to another place to live and to the teacher dictating vocabulary words (American and British words), and then relating them to an exercise in their textbook. Once the students finish the exercise, they check their answers in class as a whole group activity. The teacher initiates the class with the topic of “moving” as a sort of a “warm-up” activity to ease students into the topic at hand.

Extract 4

British English vs. American English

- 1 **JUL** I remember moving to another place. I I missed my friends. II. I remember the *palomilla*, *mis amigos*, { (A) *Los extrañe un chorro* }.

[The teacher emphasizes this point in the class warm-up. I missed them a lot!, My “gang”, my “group of friends”, my translation]

- 2 **LI** i remember another situation with the “*batos*”, when I moved to another town:-
- 3 **JUL** yes, it is sad to move, but it is good, very interesting II. Ok I { (AC) I am going to dictate vocabulary words from American English and from British English }

[At this point the teacher writes a chart on the white board to fill in with the vocabulary words that he will dictate). He begins to dictate the words]

- 4 **JUL** now, very good I { (A) Do you understand the words? }
- 5 **CHR** sneaker: II teacher

[The teacher gives the explanation of what sneakers are. At this point, both teacher and student are

- negotiating meaning in L2 by giving examples of the word, (e.g. tennis shoes is the same he gives the student a synonym , Julian points to a student with tennis shoes to further emphasize the point)]
- 6 **JUL** they are shoes used for sports : I they are usually white, but now they are different colors and they are very comfortable.
- 7 **ALV** {(A) oh? tennis shoes?}
- 8 **JUL** yes, tennis shoes: I you can also use the word {(F) sneakers}
- 9 **JUL** now { (DC) let's match the words}
- [At this point the students are giving the teacher the answers as a whole group activity]
- 10 **JUL**
- 11 **R** {(FF) F-A-U-CET? }
- 12 **JUL** {now... very good II do you understand the words?}
- 13 **JUA** { How about "trunk? }
- 14 **LL** it is the back of the car...where you put things
- 15 **JUL** yes....good II
- 16 **JUL** good now II Alex 9 and 10 II

This excerpt depicts the practical activities that teachers engage in in this EFL context. Such activities as turn taking, the use of transitional markers, speech modification, and use of backchannels are revealed in these classroom exchanges. The dominant pattern emerging from this excerpt is the IRE (Initiate, Respond and Evaluate) Pattern that seems to be challenged by the

learners. Though this excerpt on the surface seems to follow an IRE pattern, students are self-selecting, breaking the pattern in the classroom interaction. I choose to illustrate this pattern since it seems to also be evident in Excerpt Two of this chapter. The following interactional practices set forth the notion that even though there are certain times when the classroom discourse reveals aspects of this triadic exchange, the learner challenges this pattern by providing responses and follow-up that does not necessarily have to do with testing. It does reveal though that the participants have understood one another and that the interaction is progressing as it should.

Turn-taking

Classroom lessons are best described as classroom speech events where there is a certain appropriate behavior and rules of both the teachers and students communicative performance in classroom events (Seedhouse, 2004). The teacher initiates with a question, the student(s) responds and the teacher then provides an evaluation. These discourse patterns are easily identified in classrooms. This brief example illustrates that while the IRE sequence is both commonly found and adequate at certain times in classroom discourse, there are yet other types of exchange that are more oriented for both parties to negotiate meaning.

Sacks et al. (1974) mentions that there is an organization for turn-taking in everyday conversation, thus there is a governing mechanism labeled as local management system. This means that the decisions can be made by the participants, rather than having the turns arranged in advanced. In Excerpt 2, more turn-taking teacher controlled pattern is expected, though traces of everyday conversation as claimed by scholars such as (Sacks et al. 1974, Walsh, 2006) in (turns 2, 5, 7, 11 and 13) are identified. Therefore, students self-select to provide the vocabulary words for the task at hand.

In turn 5, Christian seizes the turn from the teacher to provide the vocabulary word as in (turn 7), where Alvaro does the same. Students have the desire to express their answers, though Julian is controlling the interaction, he is not selecting the next speaker. Thus, a participant may self-select him/herself as

the next speaker: According to Sacks (1974), the first person to speak at the TRP (*transition relevance place*), gains rights to the next turn).

This is the case with Christian and Alvaro, who at the onset of the teacher finishing a turn, self-select to provide an answer (Tsui, 1996; Mehan, 1979). An interesting characteristic in turn-taking organization in this excerpt is that after the teacher's initiation of a turn, the next turn is taken voluntarily by a student as there are no overlap occurrences from students. The volunteering of a turn is done in a relaxed manner by students' self-selecting. In other words, there is no evidence of competition for the floor and turn-gaining which are distinct features of natural conversation (Walsh, 2006). In this sense, (turns 5 and 7) concur with Xiao (2014), regarding the fact that "students can enjoy a more equal status with the teacher and they can more easily take themselves as collaborators in the conversation" (p. 558). The students providing the answers to the questions most likely address only the teacher and not their classmates. The teacher also lets the learners know when their turn is completed by either seizing the turn again or by nominating a particular student as the case in (turn 16).

In (turn 9), Julian abruptly shifts to what Walsh (2006) describes as "the materials mode" of classroom interaction, where the "the interaction is organized exclusively around the material" (p. 70). In this case, the teacher begins with an opening remark or initiation (I), leads to the student response (R) in (turn 2), which prompts the teacher evaluation (E) in (turn 3) in the form of feedback on what the learner has said "...Now...very good". In this sense, feedback is an essential feature of the three part exchange since it permits learners to observe whether their contribution(s) has been accepted or not by the other party. In (turn 4), the cycle begins again, by the teacher initiating (I) with a question. Then in (turn 5), the learner responds (R) again as the teacher again answers; but this time his evaluation (E) in the form of feedback is evident with a "yes"good. Frequently feedback "entails some kind of evaluation, such as *good, right, ok*" (Walsh, 2011, p.18). Then in (turn 17), Julian seizes the turn again as this is the most economical way as the pedagogical aim here is to establish and evaluate the learners' understanding of the text (Seedhouse, 1996). This turn is managed by the teacher allocating

the turn to Alex. This 50 min. lesson operates in a text-context context. The last five turns of this excerpt, (turns 10-16) demonstrate the components of a triadic structure, in direct contrast with (turns 6, 7, 8, and 9) where the turn-taking is much looser. In (turn 6,) the teacher expands on a definition of “tennis shoes” engaging the learners to seize a turn by guessing what he is trying to describe and join the interaction. Immediately after, Alvaro (turn 7), self-selects to provide the teacher with the answer he is describing. In (turn 8), Julian provides a back-channel feedback “yes, tennis shoes” to let Alvaro know he evidently understood what he was trying to describe.

From this turn-taking system (*turns 10 to 16*), it is the teacher’s responsibility to ask questions, select participants, and keep the interaction moving while it is the learners responsibility to answer the questions. In this case, the self-selection of Christian and Alvaro in (*turns 5 and 7*) break this pattern. It is important to observe that contrary to what is expected in this educational setting, turn-taking is not managed by the teacher entirely.

There are nine instances of teacher initiating the interaction (*turns 1,3,4,6,8,9,10,12,14*) as opposed to five instances where students are initiating it (*turns 2,5,7,11,13*). It is indeed typical of institutional interaction that a professional controls it (Drew & Heritage, 1992 a). This excerpt evidences the fact that even though there are more instances of teacher moves to initiate interaction, students have the opportunity to initiate it when they deem necessary, as is evident in (*turn 5*), where Christian and Alvaro self-select). Students initiated interaction to ask the teacher about a vocabulary word related to the topic.

Transitional markers

The use of transitional markers (now, ok, etc.) are utilized to focus attention or indicate the beginning or end of a lesson. Concisely, “the topic focuses around the text and it is developed according the teacher’s task-as- workplan pedagogy as no topic is initiated by the student in text-based context” (Xiao, 2014, p. 565). This particular example, (*turn 3*) indicates an activity change from the warm-up the teacher started the class with, to the task of dictation. “Ok” emphasizes this change followed by new instructions: “I am going to dictate vocabulary words

from American English and British English". This sets up or locates the learning temporally or pedagogically. Transitional markers are fundamental for students to guide them in the untangling interaction and "navigate their way" (Breen, 1998). Setting up learning is an essential step in creating the main context; "*Now.....let's match the words*" (turn 9). A transitional marker "*now*", (turn 9), guides the interaction to move around a piece of material, in this case the vocabulary exercise from their textbooks.

The uses of these transitional markers enable Julian to signal a change in activity as well as hold the learners attention. Thus, in (turn 4), the teacher uses the organizers "*Now, very good*". Julian aims to confirm that his students have understood the vocabulary they will work with. His direct question "*Do you understand the words?*" is interpreted by Christian in (turn 5) as an invitation to seize the turn and take the floor by asking about the meaning of "*sneaker*" addressing the teacher directly. In this sense, it is not for the teacher to decide who and how to participate. The interaction between teacher/students becomes less predictable and in a less rigid pattern, though the sequence organization is still in question-answer adjacency pair.

Speech modification

Teacher speech modification of their spoken language is a unique characteristic of all classroom discourse. Typically, "a teacher's speech is slower, louder, more deliberate, and makes greater use of pausing and emphasis" (Walsh, 2011, p.6). Teachers also use a repertoire of gestures and facial expressions to aid in conveying meaning.

These modification strategies used by teachers are not accidental, they are deliberate and used consciously for a number of reasons. First and foremost, the learners(s) need to understand what the teacher is saying if learning is to take place. Secondly, teachers model language for their learners, thus utilizing adequate pronunciation, intonation, sentence and word stress and so on in order to provide the learners the space to hear the particular sounds of the target language.

In some contexts, the classroom is the only exposure to the target language that students have. Therefore, it is crucial that the language be modeled correctly and appropriately for the learners. A third reason for speech modification is that teachers need to confirm that all the learners are understanding and following the flow of the lesson. So much happens at once in the classroom context that the teacher needs to verify that learners are not lost in the progression of the activities at hand. An example of how this works is evident as Julian echoes a student's contribution in (turn 8), where the teacher acknowledges his understanding of the absent lexical item by emphasizing his contribution. In (turn 7), Julian expands on the definition of the "tennis shoes" and gives diverse examples of what they are to the learner. Julian "feeds in" the information by teacher-initiated scaffolding by being sensitive to learner needs (Walsh, 2002) and avoids a breakdown in the business of interaction. Julian's use of an array of linguistic resources such as use of repetition, echoing a student's contribution, scaffolding, and by seeking clarification are balanced. For that reason, it is important for teachers to balance ways of providing assistance with the adequate use of linguistic resources without inhibiting learners' involvement.

Backchannels

Backchannels are very important in interaction "since they tell the speaker that the listener has understood and is following what is being said" (Walsh, 2011, p.10). Classroom interaction is no different since it is through language in interaction that new knowledge is being taught and developed. The use of backchannel feedback is a feature of classroom interaction that is evidenced throughout this extract. This is a good example of teacher-student interaction promoting space for learning (Walsh and Li, 2013) as the learners are given enough space to make a contribution. Back-channeling is made evident by Julian to show confirmation or understanding in (turns 3, 12 and 14, 15), in Julian's use of *the* backchannel "yes". In addition, Julian uses the words "*correct*" and "*good*" to add emphasis to his understanding of the student contribution. By doing this, the teacher gives the students' confidence to participate in the interaction and that he has evidently understood their

participation, and also keeps communication channels open. Thus, (*turn 3*) produced by Julian is somewhat extended and learner involvement is maximized by providing the necessary space for the learner in (*turn 14*). Detailed analysis of this sequence demonstrates that back-channel feedbacks in turns are provided immediately after there is a pause in Julian's intervention in (*turn 13*) and immediately after, learner contribution in (*turn 14*) is communicated. This means that both interventions are successfully completed by both Julian and Juan.

This analysis suggests that when back-channel feedback is "provided at the right time in the interaction as a means of giving confidence to learners when they are attempting to make a contribution, learner involvement is more likely to emerge" (Cancino, 2015, p.124). As the ongoing interaction unfolds, the use of back-channels also creates a sense of purposeful interaction in which this group of learners is participating in a collective activity. In this sense, backchannels "are very important in communicating since they "oil the wheels" of the interaction and ensure that communication occurs" (Walsh, 2011, p.10).

Scaffolding

Breakdowns in classroom interaction occur when learners cannot find the right word or expression in the unfolding classroom discourse. In order to avoid this, teachers "feed in" the missing language by means of 'scaffolding' or linguistic support fed in by the teacher to a learner(s) (Bruner, 1983). In this sense, the scaffolding is provided to ensure that the learner(s) can manage the classroom task as the elements that make it up, "can be modified, changed, or deleted depending on how the learner reacts to them" (Cancino, 2015, p. 122). A noteworthy interactional feature that is carried-out by both Julian and Fabiola in this study is a type of "walking dictionary" teacher where the teacher provides all the words or expressions in the absence of them in the learners' linguistic repertoire. The teacher's function as a "walking resource" provides the lexical item when the learner requires it. As observed in my fieldwork, there is no evidence of dictionary use by the learners in the classroom nor did the teacher ask them to use it to look up the vocabulary word absent in their discourse. This

results in Julian ‘filling in the gaps’ to learner contributions as a means of maintaining the flow of the lesson or to smooth out any disruptions in the classroom discourse. This is evident in (turn 4) where Julian asks the class if they understand the words from the textbook exercise, pausing before allowing Christian in (turn 5) to think of an adequate way of conveying that meaning. Julian acted as a “walking dictionary” in (turn 6) *by* filling in the explanation of the absent lexical item.

What is noteworthy is Julian “giving” the lexical item to the learner(s), prevents Christian, Juan and Alvaro from using their own linguistic resources at their disposal to negotiate meaning. This may discourage the learners from contributing further in the interaction. The turns in this sequence are in the form of question and answer, a sequence particular of text-based context where the aim is to evaluate the learners understanding of a text (Seedhouse, 1996).

6.3 Summary

Based on this first analysis of classroom interaction, I want to emphasize that I cannot generalize the degree of interactional resources used by teachers to negotiate meaning solely on the turn-taking organization. Evidence of this is that classroom episodes focus on the textbook activity and how well the learners relate to the vocabulary content to the exercise they are carrying out. Thus, the question-and answer adjacency pair and IRE/IRF pattern that prevailed is more or less acceptable to this aim and seems a most economical manner in doing so (Seedhouse, 1996). Data analysis also revealed that age, experience, academic background does not matter in using diverse interactional features to negotiate meaning. The balance leaned towards the more experienced teachers with diverse backgrounds deploying them in their classrooms as opposed to the younger teachers with a teaching background.

The second aspect that I want to address is that a better understanding of the foreign language classroom as a complex, dynamic and organic context. Consequently, the second language classroom meaning “is a fluid and variable interactional environment, a context can shift with great rapidity and fluidity

during and L2 lesson (Seedhouse, 2004:22). For example, *Excerpt 2*; though the pedagogical focus of the teacher in a task-as-work plan is to allow students to first carry out the exercise in their textbooks and then compare their answers in pairs. This evolves into a new turn-taking and sequence organization pattern which evidently did not happen. It is not modified since the turn-taking organization and question-and answer adjacency denies the learners an opportunity to develop language fluency as well as achieve the pedagogical aim in the task at hand.

Therefore, the degree of the use of interactional resources by both teachers' and students' is restricted and thus, diminished by the at-the-moment turn-taking pattern established.

The third aspect I want to draw attention to is there are diverse varieties of classroom interactional organization. All instances are similar in the sense that they are considered L2 classroom institutional interaction (Seedhouse, 2004). The data presented holds similar characteristics in organization of teacher use of interactional resources in the EFL classroom. These features are mentioned as follows: *a) topic management and development is mainly exercised by the teacher, b) turn-taking is less initiated by learners and more teacher initiation.* The responsibility to manage the turn-taking sequence usually lies in the hands of the teacher. Even though there is some freedom for students to seize the floor, it is eventually taken back by the teacher in an effort to manage the interaction again. *c) question-and -answer adjacency pair sequence organization prevails in all four excerpts, though it is looser in some interactional patterns as evidenced in the data. Frequently, the IRE/F pattern is visible, d) it is evident from the data presented in this chapter that teachers do deploy diverse interactional features in these classrooms negotiate meaning.* Arguably, the teacher is still the central figure who is orchestrating the interaction and keeps it going.

Importantly, these nuances reveal the following aspects: Firstly, though learners have space to interact, they mainly respond to cues prompted by the teacher. In this sense, the teacher is still accepted to be the central figure in the language classroom "who they should address and who should respond to them and is

responsible to direct the interaction” (Xiao, 2014, p.572). Secondly, teachers in this EFL context are using diverse interactional features at their disposal to communicate. Although these interactional features can encourage learners to produce longer turns and become more involved in the unfolding interaction, their inappropriate use can have the opposite effect. Data reveals that the teacher “needs to yield the floor to learners, increase learner participation by deploying a range of interactional features that promote a more engaging atmosphere for interacting as well as learning” Cancino (2015, p.127).

Discussion on the inadequate use of interactional features in the language classroom raises the need for more teachers to be more aware of the use of these in class. Interactional features used by teachers can encourage learners to produce longer turns and be more involved. In this sense, the scarcity of negotiation of meaning instances in the second language context may be explained, at least to some extent, by a misuse of the interactional features teachers have at their disposal.

Finally, by inquiring what is taking place in these EFL classrooms we can better understand the context under which these participants use their linguistic resources to engage in communication. This move helps us better appreciate how students and instructors alike comprehend their educational milieu where such instruction happens. We need to understand that language is mobile and not static; therefore our theories and methodologies for teaching should be as well. Language teaching and teachers can no longer be perceived as **mono-national** in their thinking and approach. Subsequently, as educators we tend to approach language teaching almost, if not exclusively from the mono-national interests of our specific nations, even as we purport to think in transnational, multicultural or international terms.

Chapter 7: Teacher's reasons and use of linguistic resources in the EFL classroom

7.1 Introduction:

Having provided a look into the EFL classroom and its characteristics in Chapter 6, the current chapter explores the use of linguistic resources that teachers are using to communicate and for what reasons. Therefore, this chapter is concerned with the second research question:

What are the code switching patterns that teachers are using and for what interactional purposes in the classroom?

In order to respond to the second research question, this chapter is divided in sections. The first section provides a brief account of the context and participants. I then recur to the theory on which this research is based to contrast, compare and provide a full account of the reasoning behind teacher's decisions and actions in this specific context. Accordingly, evidence is provided through **classroom audio-recorded observations** and **teacher-semi-structured interviews** that reveal a more detailed and fine-grained analysis of how teachers are using their linguistic repertoires of interaction to ensure communication. This triangulation of data - **teacher's voices** and **field-notes** will provide a more comprehensive understanding of the reasons in which individuals strategically use their codes in their multilingual repertoires to achieve specific interactional goals.

As it was pointed out in the previous chapter, teachers and students engage in diverse interactional activities to negotiate meaning in the EFL classroom such as drawing on transitional markers, modulating speech, managing turn-taking and code-switching as revealed in the data. **Codeswitching (CS)** is the dominant interactional pattern that these teachers used to negotiate meaning in the classroom as evidenced in data from this chapter.

7.2 The second language classroom and the “English-only” policy

Since it involves at least two languages, the English as a foreign language classroom is a multilingual context par excellence (Corcoll Lopez & Gonzalez-Davies, 2016). However, as in other contexts documented in previous research, multilingual practices such as CS (Hall and Cook 2012; Richards and Rodgers 2014), have been consistently discouraged in formal learning contexts, even the thought of the abolishment of student use of the mother-tongue in the language classroom. One of the main reasons is presumably to maximize the amount of time spent using the target code, and thus improves learning competence. The origins of the “*English-only*”, which encourage learners to use L2 as the only means of interaction with teachers and classmates, appear to date back to the widespread discrediting of the Grammar Translation method, and the decline of contrastive analysis in language teaching (Atkinson 1987:242). Exclusive L2 use will presumably maximize target code exposure thus maximize learning.

Recent literature reveals a number of studies that question English-only policies and instead advocate multilingual practices (Ustunel and Seedhouse, 2005; Carless, 2007; Cenoz, 2007; Macaro, 2005; Cook, 2002; Jenkins, 2010; Meiring and Norman, 2002; Butzkamm, 2003; Levine, 2003, Garcia & Wei, 2014; Creese & Blackledge, 2010). Despite the calls for a more “balanced view” of student use of the other tongue (Sampson, 2011, p. 294), scholars such as Carless (2007, p.331) recommend “that teachers adopt more holistic view in the use of their L1, claims that tasks can only develop learners interlanguage if learners actually communicate with each other predominantly in L2 and reports on teacher strategies for encouraging target language use, such as rehearsing tasks in L1 before producing final L2 versions”.

The status quo in Mexico still remains overwhelmingly in favor of maximum exclusive L2 use as the contemporary teaching practice states that the teacher should follow a prescribed method. This also concurs with Cook’s (2001) description of the perception in language teaching, as well as the literature on the examination of ELT texts (Gower, Phillips, and Walters, 1995, Johnson, 1995, Richards and Rogers, 2001). This prescribed method, as Mugford (2011)

emphasizes, is more likely to be the “communicative method” as it is actively promoted by the Secretariat of Public Education (SEP) for use in the public sector. The use of the L1 is frowned upon in this context, as the argument for this is the monolingual justification that seems to be related to FL pedagogy and to commercial marketing strategies (Mugford, 2011). Pedagogically, the emphasis on the English-only is justified as the classroom is a communicative context which should be only utilized for practicing and learning English, but also for practice regarding real-life situations that learners will encounter once they leave the classroom.

7.3 The use of linguistic resources in the second language classroom

When describing what the linguistic resources are in the EFL classrooms observed, I selected excerpts extracted from a corpus gathered within a time frame of one year of classrooms in all levels as previously addressed in Chapter 5. The data obtained through classroom observations and teacher semi-structured interviews reveals that it is teachers at the beginning levels who draw on linguistic resources (CS) more frequently than those at more advanced levels. A rationale for selecting these examples and the participants stem from two aspects: Firstly, the level of the classes (Beginners CEF A1, A2, B1), in which there is more evidence of the use of CS by the teacher; and the teachers' expertise, academic background, and age. Even though there are four different levels, with different teachers, genders, and levels; the data demonstrates similar use of CS patterns for interactional purposes in the classroom.

The CS functions labels are based on Eldridge's (1996) classification system since it adheres satisfactorily to the functions that occur in the data. Following his system, the dominating functions in this chapter are as follows: a) *Equivalence* code-switches are those that seem to be triggered by the absence of the lexical item in the learners' interlanguage, b) *Metalanguage* is when classroom tasks and other procedural concerns are often articulated and discussed in L1, even though they are performed in the target language, c) *Reiteration* refers to the use of L1 when messages have already been expressed in the target language, yet are emphasized or clarified in L1, especially the instances where they are perceived as not understood, d)

Socializing switches seem to develop a sense of group solidarity or identity, generally taking place as gossip or jokes. Such switches also seem to function to either initiate or maintain friendships, e) *Floor-holding* is used by learners who wish to continue without having to interrupt or pause the on-going interaction, so a switch from L2 to L1 takes place since the item can be recalled faster in L1.

My view of the classroom context in this research follows Seedhouses' (2004) description of the L2 classroom. Thus, the institutional goal being that the teacher will teach the learners the L2. This core institutional goal "remains the same wherever the L2 lesson takes place and whatever pedagogical framework the teacher is working on" (p.183). Thus, I portray the interactional architecture of this Mexican context as being functionally oriented towards and based on a core goal, as it involves a basic sequence organization that applies to all L2 classroom interaction. In Seedhouse's (2004, p.188) terms, we can find three movements in that sequence: a) a pedagogical focus is introduced, b) at least two people speak in the L2, in normative orientation to the pedagogical focus, c) in all instances, the interaction involves participants' analyzing this pedagogical focus and performing turns in the L2 which display their analysis of and normative orientation to this focus in relation to the interaction.

7.4 The reasons behind their teaching practice

The three cases I present are **Ana, Manuel and Sofia** (see Table 2), since they present dominant CS practices in the classroom that are carried out in this educational context. An account is also provided as to what their reasons are for the choices they make regarding CS. This is done to gain knowledge about their practice, but most importantly to understand the reasoning behind it. After learning how and why the participants of this study teach the way they do, it is of premise to discuss and contextualize those practices according to the theoretical background this thesis is based on.

These practices are diverse as they unfold within the scenario of welcoming new students from both the formal and informal contexts, so the need to provide newcomers with the academic and institutional tools (e.g., new forms of being assessed, new relationships with teacher and peers, amongst many others) to

navigate the L2 classroom discourse at the University. These new learners are being acquainted to this new context results in the teachers modifying or using diverse linguistic repertoires to negotiate meaning in class. CS is the dominant interactional pattern as revealed by the data in these beginning level classes as these teachers recur to these functions since “*English-only*” policies and a new welcoming process in a higher education context obligate them to. Having stated the above allows me to give account of what happens in these classrooms in regards to this phenomenon in the following excerpts. Yet, before entering this discussion, (Table 3) presents a brief summary of these teachers’ profiles. Teachers are presented in a seniority and length in teaching career fashion.

Teacher Manuel

This first excerpt is from a 1st level EFL class (A1 CEF) and is held from 8:00 to 1:00 p.m. on Saturdays. The second half of class is observed for fifty minutes. The classroom dynamic is as follows: Classes begin at 8:00 and continue until 10:00 where there is a classroom break for half an hour, and then continue on until 1:00. The class time observed focuses on reviewing the auxiliaries from the past session. The classroom lay-out is in rows and there are only 17 students present. The student populations is made up of six (*Formal students*), three from accounting, two from the Science Department and one from the Liberal Arts area as well as eleven (*Informal students*). Their ages range from 18 to 45 years old. There are 94 turns in the classroom interaction but only 30 turns are analyzed since they are representative of the aim of the research question. My fieldwork depicts Manuel walking around the room the entire time he is observed and every time there is a question, he walks to where the student(s) are to be close to their remarks or questions. Excerpt 4 corresponds to the opening sequence of the second half of class where Manuel is reviewing auxiliaries for the previous session. The CS functions that are evidenced in this excerpt are *reiteration* and *equivalence* and will be discussed as follows.

Extract 1 Let's go shopping!

Participants: Manuel, Ale, Ruben, and Virginia

1 MAN: do you remember the exercise with the auxiliary last session?

2 LL: yes,

3 MAN: ok, it is like that Alejandra?

4 ALE: yes

5 MAN: do you need a new pair of boots? *botas nuevas* ((tr: boots))

6 ALE: oh yes

7 MAN: you will ask in a store:: do you need ? will ask (.) do you need anything ? you will answer yes or no.

[Teacher models an example to the students]

8 MAN: invent an answer [tells students what you need?

what does she/he need?]

9 MAN: "sóplale (to anybody) ((tr: give them the answer))

10 MAN: Virginia do your children need new uniforms?

11 VIR: they:: yes

12 MAN: ok (.) do your children need new uniforms?

13 L: no, they don't,

14 MAN: who has children?

15 RUB: i do (.) a small daughter ,

16 MAN: ok so does your daughter want a *quinceañera* party? ((tr: sweet fifteenth party))

17 RUB: no, she doesn't know

18 MAN: now, in your book (.) you need to practice
pg.46, we have an exercise that will take you like 5
minutes using contractions.

19 MAN: doubts/*dudas*? ((tr: doubts)) ?

20 LL: married (.)ok

21 MAN:yes :: the man /wife have a ring,

Anillo ((tr: ring)), they are married.

22 MAN: did you finish :: easy or difficult?

23 LL: easy

24 MAN: good,

[ss are speaking in L1 as they work in pairs)

The teacher is checking other ss work ... as this is being done.... Pairs are
working and interacting in L1]

25 L: is this he? [a learner asks manuel something
regarding the task, manuel goes over to the student]

26 MAN: your husband *your marido* ((tr: husband))

27 MAN: ok:: leonardo (.) let's see #2,
do you know what <husband> is?

28 LEO: yes:: marido ((tr: husband))

29 MAN: yes, ((tr: husband)) marido:: he is
accompanied with does,

30 MAN: ok (.) *dudas hasta ahí?* ((tr:
doubts))

Reiteration

Reiteration is a frequent code-switching function used by Manuel in his desire
to communicate without hesitations as he mentions in his interview by recurring
not only to verbal resources, but non-verbal as well. This is evident in many
turns throughout this excerpt (*Turns 5, 9, 19, 21, 26, 29 30*). All these switches

correspond to the manner he wants to highlight or clarify in L1 the idea he already expressed in L2 as evidenced in the on-going interaction. It seems it is a recurring interaction pattern carried out by Manuel as it is also evident in (*Turns 16 and 18*) of this sequence. Manuel could be doing this for three reasons: One, in his attempt to make sure that everybody is following the flow of the conversation and does not want any of the learners to feel "left out", and to make feel students confident that they "understood" or are "understanding" each other's utterances by resorting to L1. Lastly, Manuel may recur to L1 to avoid any hesitations in the on-going discourse, this is done to facilitate, thus retrieving the absent lexical item in a faster way. Whatever his reasons may be, he does exploit this multilingual resource in class as he also mentions in the interview that the learners "want to practice in that moment and because outside the classroom there is no follow-up of the language". He tries to use English most of the time in class to maximize these learning opportunities. As noted above, the direction of code-switching gives us an orientation about the way both parties interpret the on-going interaction. In this case, the switch from English to Spanish and in some cases, from Spanish back to English as evidenced in (*Turns 21 and 30*), reveals an orientation towards the teaching-learning situation- with English as the language of instruction. Manuel does this by reiterating the word in English making sure the participant understands what taking place is. However, Manuel does CS to Spanish when he "deems" necessary to solve questions relevant to the learning tasks at hand. Nevertheless, there are some cases where the multilingual resource is exploited more actively than others. Such as the cases of *Excerpt 1 and 2* where the most instances of CS occur.

Equivalence

Evidence of equivalence is tangible in (turn 16) where Manuel in previous (turns 14 and 15), asks if the students have any children where Rubi self-selects and answers that she has a small daughter. In the following turn, Manuel asks her if she wants a "quinceañera" party, (the equivalence of a "sweet sixteen" party in other contexts such as the United States or a "coming of age" party in other countries around the world) then Manuel code-switches to Spanish to highlight

that term in the common code he shares with learners as it seems to develop a sense of groups solidarity, often occurring in gossip or jokes (Sampson, 2011).

Manuel's case

Manuel's case represents three emerging themes as they provide insights on what these teachers' reasons for using CS in their classroom practice are. Two themes emerge from his interview: a) *code-switching as a pedagogical device for clarification*, and b) *implicit policy regarding the use of L1 in the educational context*.

CS as a pedagogical device for clarification

I would like to focus on his explanation on the use of CS as a pedagogical device for clarifying meaning:

M: I consider that it depends on the teacher criteria because ...even though the institution forces you ...it is not watching you.

They tell you "Use only English" but in the classroom it is the teacher who is in front of the group nobody is watching you, so if the teachers want to use English or Spanish they can do it, but is not what it should be done.

And the students...I've heard from students and me as a student too...we demand for what are we studying, what are we paying for....we should get it. If in fourth or fifth level the teacher uses Spanish, retells his/her life in Spanish or uses Spanish most of the time... some students like that because they won't study... but for those who are paying and want to learn the language...they complain, you can tell on their faces... And I've had retired teachers, old ones that want to learn English. They just want to talk and talk and if I use Spanish I can tell they get angry. So to avoid those types of shameful situations where the teacher is not doing his/her job...I only use English, so we're all happy. I see on their faces they are happy because they are practicing. You ask them the minimum: "Describe a fly", "What did you do yesterday?", "What are you going to do tomorrow?"

They connect and I follow the conversation.

Manuel emphasizes the fact that even though he is teaching a first level class, he considers he speaks 90% of the time in L2. He also explicitly tells the learners to speak in "English only" and they understand what he means.

Nevertheless, Manuel understands that there are complicated words and even though he recurs to non-linguistic resources in class such as gestures and signs, there comes a point where he draws on Spanish as a last option to negotiate meaning. This is evidenced in Manuel's classroom interaction in *Excerpt 2*. Once this is done, students understand and both learners and teacher are able to continue with the task at hand, as this was also demonstrated in my fieldwork notes. Manuel states that he avoids recurring to L1 since the classroom context is the only place where these students can practice their L2. (Edstrom, 2006; Cook, 2001). Therefore, Manuel does not regret using L1 in Spanish when he considers it is absolutely necessary.

Implicit "English-Only" Policy

Regarding the policy of "English only" in class, Manuel believes that this policy applies to a third level onwards, contradicting what he said he does in his first level classroom:

M: Umm no...even though I teach a first level of English, I use a 90% of English and when the students speak Spanish I tell them: "Hey, English please", and they know, they understand. But when there are words from the vocabulary that are a little complicated to explain in English with gestures and signs or whatever. And I see in their faces that they do not understand... then as a last resource Spanish. I tell them "Tu... the right word" and they go "Ah ok!" But when I can avoid Spanish I avoid it... because supposedly, we are there...an hour and forty minutes of class time to learn as much as we can...but I do not regret because if I think it is necessary to give a _____ in Spanish.

Manuel states that even though "they", - the institution, does not directly enforce the "only in English" norm, either in a written or verbal manner; he believes that this is the "right thing" to do. Manuel argues that the learners "pay" for the teacher to explain the language that is being instructed. Evidently so, classroom interaction becomes the only context to practice English. Once the students leave the classroom, there is rarely a "follow-up" on the language being taught. He mentions that he likes to be strict on himself in regards to the use of L2 solely, thus using it when "necessary". Students seem to be happy when it is an "English only" class and he leaves the classroom feeling happy he complied with their needs in L2. During my observations, students seemed to enjoy their class to be in English most of the time as Manuel tried to maximize their

learning opportunities as often as he could. Manuel's smile and posture hinted at the fact that he was comfortable being able to comply with this "implicit English-only policy" in class.

M: I feel that rules tell us that the English teacher from the third level onwards ...well only English and even though they do not tell me that I think that is right. The students pay for the teacher to explain the language that it is being studied. The student wants to practice in that moment because outside the classroom there is no a follow up of the language. So I try to be a little exigent on myself to only use English...so when the moment where I cannot do it in English comes... I use Spanish, but there are very few occasions. The students like that because they say "English, English" so at the end I leave the classroom feeling happy.

Balance between the use of L1 in class

In regards to finding a balance between the use of L1 in class, Manuel emphasizes that it entirely depends on the teachers' criteria; that even though the institution "forces" you, it is not "watching" you. What I would like to point out is that Manuel knows that the institution has a way of finding out if the teacher(s) use L1 in class and feels "observed". Outside of the classroom, "they" meaning the "institution"; tells you that "only in English", but it is the teacher in front of the group and nobody is watching. So if the teacher(s) wants to use either Spanish or English, they are able to do so. Even though the use of Spanish in the classroom is not the "correct thing" to do, teachers can recur to it when considered necessary. Manuel is sympathetic to learners' notion of paying for a particular service; in this case it is the learning of English. If they pay to learn English, then they should be taught solely in L2. He emphasizes that in third or fourth levels, (A2, B1, CEF) the teachers use of Spanish is frowned upon. Those students that want to "learn" complain as well as they demonstrate through their facial gestures that are not satisfied with the use of recurring to L1 for diverse purposes in class. He briefly mentions that he has retired teachers as students and that all they want to do in class is communicate. If the teacher uses Spanish for any reason, they are upset by this practice. Manuel refers to this practice as a "shameful" practice where the teacher is not doing his "job", so he uses L2 most of the time. This way both parties are all happy since they are using L2 as well as practicing more. He

ends the interview by stating that he encourages and asks the learners to carry-out the task, however easy it may be, but the underlying reason is for them to practice in the L2. As he states “they connect and I follow the conversation”. By this statement, I can demonstrate that Manuel understands that his learners need to apply and practice what is being learned as he is there as a resource to provide support with a diverse linguistic repertoire. As can be observed in both the interactional analysis and in my fieldwork; Manuel is fully aware of these linguistic resources at his disposal and whether the teacher decides to take on this dominant discourse, it does have a direct influence on the teachers teaching practice.

Teacher Sofia

This exchange takes place in a second level (CEF A1) EFL class in which Sofia (teacher), Carlitos and Raulito (students) are participants as well as 15 other students. Eight of these students are (*Formal students*) and the remaining ones are (*Informal students*). Carlitos, Raulito and Enrique belong to the *Formal student* population, (The first two from Engineering and the last from the Sciences areas); their ages range from 18-28 years old. The beginning of the first 50 min. of class time is observed, as the whole class lasts for one hour forty minutes. The class lay-out is in rows. This is an opening sequence to set up the procedural content as the lesson, according to Sofia; consisted of an alternation of whole class teaching and periods of individual work in which the learners worked on assignments on their own. Teacher-student interaction occur as Sofia sets up the activity and it happens for these four reasons: a) praise the learner on a specific learner activity *Turns 23, 25*, b) suggests more classroom practice *Turn 26*, c) nominates a particular student(s) to participate *Turn 15*, d) and corrects a student’s participation *Turn 20*. This classroom episode consists of Sofia’s interactions with the students as a monologue followed by learner tokens of understanding as well as an Initiation- Response-Evaluation (Mehan, 1979) pattern in which the teacher asks questions and assesses their answers. There are a total of 89 turns in this classroom interaction, but only 30 are selected since it provides evidence of the CS functions that take place in this EFL classroom.

As observed in my fieldwork, this opening sequence of the class lasts about 37 minutes and the rest are allocated to giving procedural information for the activities to be carried in that day's lesson. In essence, the dynamics of this class begins with Sofia reviewing last night's homework as well as giving them feedback on their performance on the exam they had taken days ago. The CS functions used by Sofia and the learners are now discussed in further detail in the following section as well as address the motivations for using this interactional resource in the EFL context..The focus of this chapter is how the teacher is using CS and for what interactional purposes in the language classroom. The next chapter will address how students are using CS and for what purposes.

Extract 2 Carnaval Time!!

Participants: Sofia, Enrique, Carlitos, Raulito

1 SOF: (.) Did you go to "Carnaval"?(.) *ay... ya se!* ((tr.: I know)), was there a *problema* ? Lista ? ((tr.: ready))

(Sofia walks around the front of the classroom and looks around to everybody))

2 LL: better than Friday?}

3 SOF: *all right chicos* ((tr.: ok guys)) -

4 SOF: *im sick*,((tr.: *enferma*)) but, *very poquito* ((tr.: only a bit))

((Sofia addresses the whole class))

5 ENR: fue al Carnaval "teacher"? are you go? Went? How do you say it?

6 L: ((in this turn, a student self-selects to ask a question, avoiding the question that was just asked by Enrique to the teacher))

7 SOF:(.)*como empezamos?*, ((tr.: begin with)), con el
 ((tr.:with)) "*past*"? *pasado qué?* ((tr.: past what?))

8 LL: *empezamos con el* ((tr.: we began with did)) did?

9 LL: did you go to the "Carnaval"? ((some students, 4,
 self-select to ask the teacher))

10 SOF : *yo dije* ((tr.: I said?)), yes I did.

11 SOF : All night chicos. *en qué quedamos?* ((tr.: what was
 our deal?))

12 LL: exam.

13 LL: Homework.

14 SOF: (.) *pregunta*, ((tr.: question)), did you do the
 homework?
 ((at this moment, Sofia addresses Raulito specifically by
 going over to where he is and stands in front of him))

15 SOF: *raulito*, why? *entonces?* ((tr.: why?))

16 RAU: y algunos otros... el resto ((tr.: and the
 others..the rest?)) *la tarea*... ((tr.:the homework)).

17 SOF: *Recuerdan el 5; 6 y 7, se acuerdan?*
 ((tr.:remember?))

18 SOF : Carlitos... What happened to your homework?

19 CAR : I send a message.

20 SOF: *_sent_* a message.

21 SOF: *Me faltan muchas*, ((tr.: there are some missing)),
 what happened? *Los demas?* (tr.: the others)), you did very
 good!

((Sofia looks around the classroom and sighs))

22 SOF: in the exam, *en el examen*, ((tr.: the exam)) *no vienen* ((tr.: they are not on the exam)), you didn't see it?

(again, Sofia looks around the classroom after she asks the question))

23 SOF: *a alguien le faltó tiempo?*((tr.: does anybody need more time?)) Rosario you did very good. Emmanuel.

((Sofia looks over at Emmanuel who apparently looks shy))

24 SOF: *me dejaste como novia de rancho* ((tr.: you left me waiting)).

25 SOF: *y luly ahora si ya?* You did very good!

26 SOF: *martita... you have to practice. practicar* ((tr.: practice)), *fueron las que me entregaron* ((tr.: they were the ones that were handed in)), The rest you did good!

(sofia looks over at both martita and luly to acknowledge their performance on the test)

27 LL: (some unidentified students in the back of the classroom start mumbling)).

28 SOF: ((tr.:what unit are we in?)) *En que unidad estamos?*

29 LL: ...unit 5.

((Sofia walks over to her desk to pick up her textbook)).

30 SOF: we did exercises on friday... *se lo perdieron, se lo perdieron!* ((tr.: you missed it, you missed it!))

Reiteration and equivalence

Equivalence CS are those that happen because of the absence of the lexical item in the learners' interlanguage (Eldridge, 1996). This is evidenced in (turns 15, 17, 22, and 28). These four turns are motivated by the learners' lack of the lexical item, and the other is Sofia's intention to give help (Nussbaum, 1990, Unamuno, 2000). (Turn 15 and 16)are entwined as Sofia asks Raulito if he did

his homework, where he responds in a non-verbal manner by shaking his head saying “no” which prompts Sofia to ask him “why?” “Entonces?” and then again reiterates “why?”. Turn 16 prompts Sofia to ask the whole class if they did the homework. Sofia’s upset is evidenced when she asks the direct question “why?” she tells them off in Spanish to remind them that they had not done the academic task. In (turn 17), Sofia asks what happened to the questions 5, 6 and 7 in their textbooks which they had to answer for homework making evident that very few did what they were supposed to for homework by reiterating again by saying the word “remember?”, after they said the word in Spanish first. Even though the message has been conveyed in L2, L1 is used to clarify or highlight, especially in situations where they are perceived as not understood by the participants. Sofia uses Spanish as the language of disciplining as opposed to the use of the target language.

Turn 3 serves the function of holding the floor whereby Sofia stalls the turn and takes longer than a second by stating, “ *all night chicos...*” to continue with (*turn 4*) to reiterate that she is sick, “ *but very poquito*”, using Spanish as a means to emphasize this point. As observed in my fieldwork, Sofia may do this to emphasize that she is sick and wants to make this visible to the learners through the use of “wordplay”. *Turn 7* is an exchange that offers insight of Sofia’s alternation between Spanish then English then back to English and reiterates in Spanish to fulfill the requirements of the language-learning task. As pointed out by Griggs (1997), the fusion or alternate of use of more than one language in the same utterance may be deemed as a resource used by the participants to fulfill the joint comprehension of the linguistic and practical activity. *Turn 8* cannot be deemed as fulfilling a reiteration function since Sofia does not reiterate any message or function per se, as this turn is still part of the previous turn where she is “*setting -up*” the scenario (*turn 14*) where they revise the homework. *Turn 10* is a response to the question posed by the students in (*turn 9*) to Sofia regarding her participation in the carnival being held in town. She does this by stalling and CS as this instance of modification in the rhythm of the interaction (marked in the transcript below,) where the sequence of Spanish is used as a parenthesis to pause at the comment. She then CS to English by rising the tone in the form of a question and then affirms the fact that she had evidently commented to them before. The orientation of Sofia to use

Spanish in class is to talk about local things and activities carried out in town as a way of “socializing” and developing group solidarity.

In this case, the use of an L1 equivalent is not only faster and less uncertain than attempting to paraphrase in L2. Even though a contrastive analysis is not taking place; Sofia does not encourage the learners to do so in this turn. The same situation is occurring in (turn 22), where the teachers is telling the students that there were aspects of the lesson that were not included in the exam. She does so by emphasizing in L2, then reiterating in L1. Here, Sofia’s emphasis and repetition in L1 ensures that the message is conveyed in a code that is more easily understood by the learners.

It is noteworthy to mention that in (turn 28), Sofia reiterates the question in L2. This CS opens the sequence aimed at “planning, organizing and structuring the discourse and the activities students are about to carry out” (Unamuno, 2008, p.6), which is what she sets up to do by asking the students what unit they are in to shift to the answer by the whole class in (turn 29) indicating that they are in Unit 5.

Floor-holding

Floor-holding is a CS function that is used “by both teachers and learners to continue without pausing or being interrupted, and so a switch from L2 to L1 occurs because the item can be retrieved more quickly in L1” (Sampson, 2011, p.298), thus the floor-holding function is visible at any level. This function is evidenced in both learners and the teacher in (turn 5). Students’ use of CS will be the topic of chapter 7. In (turn 5,) Enrique opens the CS sequence asking the teacher is she went to the carnival, though the lexical item the learner was looking for was absent. He becomes aware of what he does and does not know, as a moment of metalinguistic reflection. In order to demonstrate that, he then asks Sofia to help him by holding the floor and asking “*are you go? Went? How do you say it?*” In this case, what may be happening is what (De Pietro, 1989) calls a *potential sequence of acquisition* which may influence Enrique’s linguistic and communicative repertoire. Thus, the use of CS to “highlight the momentary search for a word or expression is common as a bilingual practice,

and may also be understood as an action intended to avoid a breakdown in the unfolding of an interaction's development" (Unamuno, 2008, p.9).

Group membership

Switches that take place within this context function as in-group identity markers (Eldridge, 1996). This is commonly evinced in exchanges through the "wordplay", where the switches and mixes are constituted in a creative manner for a humorous effect. For example in (turn 1), the *"Did you go to 'Carnaval'?" ay... ya se... I know.. was there a "problema"? Lista..."* Sofia mixes English and Spanish. What is noticeable here is that this turn serves as a floor-holding function, as well as the function of group membership. "Carnival" is typical event of Ensenada before Passover begins and the last day called "Fat Tuesday" in the U.S. It was mentioned in class that morning. Both functions serve as lexical symbols of group identity. If you do not know Ensenada's events during Passover, you do not understand attending the *"carnaval"* on a *"Tuesday"* evening means. *Turn 24* is a common expression in Mexican "sayings", where Sofia says to the learners: *"me dejaste como novia de rancho... you left me waiting"* to Emmanuel, who took time answering the Sofia's comment in (turn 23). Thus, Rosario commented on his late intervention. This is a typical Mexican saying where the main idea is that the girlfriends from out of town or the "valley" constantly wait for their "boyfriends" to pick them up to go on a date. As Auer states, "It seems that members of the same network adapt to each other and develop a common style of linguistic behavior which may or may not be characterized by code-switching and transfer"(1988, p. 207). These exchanges evidence the fact that CS is performing a social function by motivating learners or prompting them to participate in the on-going interaction by the teacher tapping into the common code and background they share. This is also evidenced in (turn 11) as Sofia holds the floor and sets up the next turn by pausing and asking the question *"en que quedamos?"* indicating that the warm-up sequence of the class was over and that they should continue with the next phase of the class which is setting-up the review of the homework where Sofia adopts a teaching role.

Sofia's Case

Code-switching as a pedagogical device for clarification

It becomes apparent that Sofia emphasizes that she recurs to L1 when it is absolutely necessary. In fact, she states that she is trying to avoid it, though classroom data demonstrates otherwise. The use of the different functions of CS that she draws on in the classroom, are further analyzed in the previous section. Sofia recurs to the use of movements, body language; even games to try to prompt the learners speak in English. This reveals that Sofia makes use of multilingual resources to negotiate meaning in class. Even though she does elaborate on the idea that it is “ok” to code-switch to L1 if learners do not understand the word, but then reiterates in English.

Implicit “English-Only” Policy

There is no mention in the interview of the not written “English only” policy at the university, but she does state that she wants to avoid using L1 in class where she comments that instead of the “*Hispanic using Spanish I make movements*” and uses other resources to avoid code-switching to their L1. What I think she meant with this statement is that “Mexicans use Spanish”, not Hispanics. Though the statement is not incorrect; Hispanics do use Spanish, we are in Mexico, and so the Mexican Spanish variety is used. Her linguistic competence is evidenced in this interview as well as in the classroom data. There is much more evidence of Sofia recurring to CS in this class.

s: Aha, I use it when I think they don't understand and or, but I am trying to avoid it. Instead of

the Hispanic speaking Spanish I - hmmm I make movements, mimics or games or whatever or I try to

speak them in English. Ok, if they don't understand that word ok ok if it means this but it in English.

Course level as a factor in determining the degree of L1 use

Sofia is clearly at debate with the fact that she does not consider a good idea to speak only in L2 to beginning learners since they will not understand. To her, the students' level seems to be an important factor in determining the amount of L1 in class. Sofia is aware that there is more acceptance of L1 at lower levels in the classroom context as opposed to the higher levels. She also seems 'uneasy' at the idea of speaking to them in L2 as there is "no point" since they do not understand anyway, but understands that it is "good" when necessary. Therefore, Sofia is receptive of the language level of her students and has assessed how much and what type of L1 is permitted based on their linguistic competence. She also states that if it is grammar that she teaches that day, or if they are studying for an exam, she resorts to the use of L1 even more so. Sofia consciously distinguishes between levels and degree of L1 use. She demonstrates that she is making her beliefs and criterion visible within the learning environments and keeping classroom decisions to herself. This also concurs with the study carried out by Mora, Lengeling & Rubio (2011) in a Mexican university, where data reveals certain similarities with teacher decisions on the use of the L1 in class. To further this conversation, I would like to add that these three teachers should have the space to socialize academic topics and discuss issues relevant to their teaching practices. It is noteworthy to add that none of the three teachers mention that they discuss topics related to their field with other colleagues.

S: Well yes, sometimes I feel that it is a debate in oneself because I would like to speak to them only in English but I feel that it is also not such a good idea if I start to speak to in English to the beginning students they, many just stay like...I don't understand and we believe that they do understand and like there is no communication, like if everyone is in their own thing, right? So then what is the use of me speak speaking English and them not understanding, aside from that I also believe that...that it is good it is good when it is necessary. When I am going to explain grammar I believe that it is good and even more so when they are preparing for an exam.

Excessive Use of L1 is negative

Another emerging theme from Sofia's interview is if the excessive use of L1 is negative. She emphasizes that it is confusing. The fact that she does not know of it is correct or incorrect to use Spanish. If it is her decision to make, she resorts to L2 all the time since there are many teaching strategies that can be used when interacting with the learners as the excess use of L1 is "not right". She further comments that there are times when it is difficult and she does not know how to implement "these other strategies" in class. Sofia mentions that even though it is easy to explain something to a child; when you lack these particular teaching strategies, then it becomes difficult. Resorting to these "other" resources to negotiate meaning is something that needs to be practiced. I would like to highlight this last particular extract from the interview since Sofia feels she lacks the pedagogical background and teaching strategies. She is conscious of the decisions she makes regarding her students' needs as well as her beliefs regarding the teaching-learning process. Concerning her classroom practice, Sofia made decisions to use or not use L1 and these particular choices were based upon her beliefs as a teacher and what she feels is appropriate for the learning and teaching situation of the context.

S: Well...There is... it's what I'm telling you, for me there is a confusion, I don't know what is correct or what is incorrect, for me the correct thing would be to speak to them totally in English because there are many strategies when communicating with them in English, they can be mimics uhm...shouting, movements, pantomime, excess use of Spanish is not right.

P: Pantomime, drawings as in there are but sometimes it is difficult or sometimes we don't know how to do it, it can be explained even to a child even though he/she doesn't know how to read, even though he/she doesn't know how to write and it can be done but it is like an exercise of practice we need to know how to know to use those strategies and use them.

Teacher Ana

This excerpt is from a 2nd level EFL class (CEF A1). This class is held from 11:00-1:00 p.m. weekdays. The first 50 min. of class time are observed. The classroom setting is in rows and there are only seven students in class, the student population is made up of only (*Informal students*) and their ages range from 18-31 years old. There are only 83 turns in this excerpt and only 22 are analyzed. The teacher stands in front of the class and rarely walks around the class to monitor students. The opening sequence of the class is a role-play and

students take cues from the textbook. There is use of realia (plastic fruit and pic-nic things) from a basket that Ana is providing to carry-out the role-play. Notes from my fieldwork indicate there are two phases to this class: 1) Ana reviewing the activity in their textbooks related to vocabulary words about food; 2) Setting-up the learners for the role-play using the cues from the textbook. Students seemed to greatly enjoy the use of realia for their role-play and choosing things from the pic-nic basket. She uses a variety of props and realia to make the role-play seem more “authentic” for the students. This reflects her teaching style by taking into consideration the affective dimension of her learners. Ana seems to be aware that she needs to maximize learning opportunities within the classroom that can be also taken outside the classroom context.

Extract 3 Let's have a pic-nic!

Participants: Ana, Sole, Noe and Mariela

((Teacher comes back into the class as she went to the materials of the Language Center for a pic-nic basket (realia)))

1 ANA: did you finish the activity?

2 ANA: you are going to “role-play” a same from the restaurant order using the clues from the book,

3 ANA: Very good! ((whole class claps))

4 ANA: let's check exercise A and B, ((whole class is waiting for further instructions))

5 ANA: what about the first one? what else?

6 ESM: tomatoes, peppers, potatoes, cucumbers, turkey, pork,

7 ANA: ok (.) octopus,

8 NOE: *tiburón*

9 ANA: shark

10 ANA: dairy products?

11 SS: eggs, ice-cream, cream,

12 ANA: good!

13 SOL: oils ... all kinds of oils

14 SS: yes!

15 ANA: sweets

16 LL: chocolate, cake

17 ANA: mariela, please the instructions, letter "B",

18 MAR: ((mariela explains her answer))

19 ANA: (.) so now what we have to do is, let's get together in pairs and use the cues to role-play we are having a picnic!

20 ANA: ((TR.:does everybody understand?)) *Entienden todos?*

21 LL: yes.

22 ANA: ok (.) so start working with your partner next to you)) *compañero a un lado.*

((At this moment, students move next to the person to them to start working on the role-play. They set up and go to the teacher's desk to get some fruit from the pic-nic basket to use for the task at hand))

This excerpt corresponds to the reviewing and preparation and rehearsal of the role-play as mentioned before. The classroom contexts (Seedhouse, 2004) that can be defined are: form and accuracy, task-oriented exercise, and procedural contexts. The characteristics in these contexts are the presence of teacher elicitation for the purpose of evaluation, then the learners "set something up" or establish a procedure for work in progress that will ease the learners into the work in progress which in this case is to prepare for a role-play. There are very

few instances of code-switching functions found in this segment maybe due to the somewhat tight controlled turn-taking sequences except in (*turn 8*,) where Noe self-selects to provide an answer that was then provided by Ana in (*turn 9*); and long, single teacher turns. Thus, the interactive contexts affect the participants' and teachers' use of CS (Unamuno, 2008). I now offer insights on what is happening in this classroom context.

Equivalence

This fragment demonstrates the alternation between Spanish and English that serves the function of fulfilling the requirements of the language-learning task. This is evident in (*turns 8 and 9*), where Noe self-selects to provide and answer in Spanish of the vocabulary word "Tiburón" where the required item was simply unknown. Ana, in (*turn 9*) provides the absent lexical item through the code-switching function of equivalence.

It is much easier for Ana to give the absent lexical item since it does not disrupt the flow of the on-going interaction as well as her intention to provide help (Nussbaum, 1990; Unamuno, 2000). This 'walking dictionary' practice is also carried out by Fabiola in Chapter 6 as she provides the absent lexical item to the learner.

Reiteration

Evidence of reiteration is visible in (*turn 20*) when Ana is again setting up the task at hand asks and emphasizes in English with a rising intonation, but then switches to Spanish to see if they understood what they are to do. In this case, code-switching can be interpreted as a communicative strategy (Coste, Moore, & Zarate, 1997).

Ana then switches to English again to open the sequence in (*turn 22*), and then reiterates the idea in L1. In the case of Ana setting-up the tasks, it is evident that the switch to Spanish is to initiate sequences in which the activity to be carried out "is negotiated between the participants, where the roles are distributed, and where problems related to the task or to target language are solved" (Unamuno, 2008, p.10). This evidences her capacity to use the resources available in her linguistic repertoire.

Ana's Case

Code-switching as a pedagogical device for clarification

It is important to note that Ana does use L1 in her classroom for diverse interactional purposes. Though her claim somewhat contradicts her classroom practice because she does resort to code-switching on a small-scale. It could also be argued because it is the manner in which she teaches. There is evidence of a tight-controlled turn-taking sequence and the interactive context no doubt influences the use of CS.

Furthermore, Ana emphasizes that she was taught to use “Only English” in class, the whole class time. Looking closely at this excerpt, it reveals that Ana is somewhat confound by the fact that she does understand and does resort to the L1 in certain situations; but is conflicted at the thought of doing so. Again, she explicitly states that if she is using L1, she remembers it is an “English only” class, and she stops recurring to this resource:

A: Yes, I do use Spanish....but only very little. I do not like to use it in class, all the class should be in English...I was taught like that....English only!

I use it when the learners do not understand a word, idea, or expression....but then I remember English only.....I know sometimes it is impossible...students do not understand. Yes, that happens constantly in class, learners do not understand.

Ana remembers a situation when she resorted to pantomime to explain the verb “climb” and ended up being frustrated because whatever she did in her pantomime routine, it simply did not work, and both teacher and learner ended up not being able to communicate.

A: Yes, I remember one time I used pantomime to explain the verb “climb” ...I got so frustrated that the student did not understand that I used Spanish and it was very fast...the learner was also frustrated. Yes....that also happens a lot...I felt very strange since at my age I am using pantomime to try to help a learner understand certain words or ideas. But I think that as teachers we should try to use more strategies, especially at the first levels when the students are shy and do not want to participate. I understand, they feel embarrassed because at times they do not understand what is happening in class.

This excerpt demonstrates why she decided to stop using L1 to clear up the mis-understanding that unfolded and was evidently faster. The idea of understanding the complexity of the EFL classroom is essential to teachers, as well as the need to use an array of linguistic resources available. This is done “to expand and enrich the existing semantics of the first language through the new meanings of the new language” (Forman, 2008, p. 330).

L1 to establish rapport

Ana believes it is necessary to use L1 to establish communication with her students as this rapport helps her to evoke empathy and a connection through the use of jokes or other chit chat:

A:I also think that to we need to use L1 when it is necessary, I like to communicate with my students in class, it is essential for me. I like to joke and interact with my students at times, so sometimes using Spanish to highlight certain aspects is useful. I believe that learning a language is also the ability to socialize and if using the mother-tongue will aid me in this, then it is ok.

As I corroborated in my observations, Ana believes that by joking in class, she is making a language choice that will aid her in creating a comfortable and relaxing atmosphere where the learners will be at ease speaking and participating in classroom tasks. This suggests that Ana perceives the use of L1 as a resource that can be used for diverse purposes at different times in the foreign language classroom. Ana also seems sensitive to the concept that learning a language is a social process that will be conducive to a better teaching-learning environment.

Differences and similarities of the findings between these three excerpts

These excerpts demonstrate three teaching practices in this EFL context. There are visible differences and similarities between them. Both can be interpreted as a reflection of the different ways that these teachers orientate themselves to a specific task within the classroom context. These excerpts also offer insights on the alternation between English and Spanish that serves the dominant CS

functions observed in this corpus: to fulfill the requirements of the language – learning task. Whilst, the switch between English and Spanish shows an orientation towards the teaching-learning situation, English is the most used in class as it is advocated by the institution and more suitable for the specific fulfillment of the language –learning task at hand, as the switch into Spanish emphasizes an identity shared by both teacher and students when the task dealt with is within a participant preference framework.

However, as demonstrated from the data in this research; CS plays a vital role in the organization of the conversation by supporting the significance of the common task being carried out by teachers. The use of code-switching between English and Spanish relates to the functions tied to participants' preferences as data suggests, it also complies with an "intrinsically conversational function which is the desire to cooperate in the execution of the task at hand while maintaining some fluency in the interaction" (Unamuno, 2008, p.15).

Accordingly, these linguistic practices carried out by these three teachers: Manuel, Sofia and Ana, express the orientation towards the language choice to fulfill a certain need in the negotiation of meaning. Therefore, CS into Spanish was based on the teachers' decision and to some extent, their beliefs to use or not use L1 for diverse purposes in the class as expressed in their interviews. These decisions are made at different stages in their teaching: before, during and after the teaching act. Whatever stage it may be, what these three do in their teaching practice seems to hint at the fact that they are aware of the teaching and learning processes as they deploy a series of multilingual resources in class, being CS the dominant linguistic feature discussed in this chapter.

To conclude, these three excerpts reveal very similar findings from the classroom interaction analysis as several important aspects can be seen. Firstly, their classroom practices demonstrate that even though they may have different backgrounds and teaching expertise, they do resort to CS at different levels. To a certain degree, there is a feeling of "guilt" expressed by all three participants in regards to using L1 in their classes. It is also evidenced, that teachers reflect to some extent, on their classroom practice.

7.5 Summary

The analysis of the data reveals that these EFL teachers recur to CS for diverse interactional purposes in the classroom. The instances of CS used function as communicative strategies and none seem to avoid speaking. The most common function in this study is reiteration. Other functions identified in this study are L1 for floor-holding and socializing as well as metalanguage, reiteration for L2, which are also associated with “communicative and learning objectives”, and so to prohibit L1 use here would appear to be detrimental to classroom communication and potentially, language acquisition” (Sampson, 2011, p.302).

The data also suggests that CS used by these three participants rarely signals and unwillingness to communicate in L2, but rather serves communicative classroom functions such as reiterating concepts and words, the discussion of procedural protocols, expressing equivalence, and establishing group solidarity. The judgment here to be made by teachers is the fact that any attempt to ban L1 use in the classroom context would hinder the amount of communication and learning taking place. However, the data also reveals that it is a common practice between these EFL teachers even though the invisible “English only” policy is very evident in the classrooms observed; as it is being constantly “challenged” by the teachers. In view of this, it becomes apparent that the use of CS between English and Spanish as it fulfills “an intrinsically conversational function”- the need to participate in the execution of the task while achieving some fluency in the interaction. As we are dealing with a context where more than one language is used, “code-switches can best be interpreted if one considers how they are useful in the course of a specific practice, through which the use of more than language can be an effective way means or resource to complete an academic assigned task” (Unamuno, 2008, p.15).

Furthermore, teachers in this context use L1 in the classroom for transactional reasons and “disregard those advocates of the communicative approach who disapprove of the use of the mother-tongue” (Higareda, Lopez & Mugford, and 2009, p.52). Secondly, the participants from this research often unwillingly, utilize Spanish for interpersonal reasons. These three teachers seem to engage in interpersonal language use in Spanish to make a distinction of the English

language teaching and learning from the social dimension of the EFL context in this university. These teachers show solidarity and interest with their learners' in order to make them feel comfortable in their classroom interaction as they develop a certain rapport in Spanish, especially at basic levels; which is this case of this data from this chapter.

Thirdly, the analysis of the classroom data reveals that there is a sense of "*guilt*" or "*disapproval*" that teachers feel when they recur to L1 in class in this "English only" context. These EFL teachers often admit that they often CS professionally and socially but they do not seem to permit their students to do so in the classroom.

This monolingual justification seems to be related both to the institutional policy and foreign language pedagogy. Pedagogically, the emphasis on English only is justified since it is a communicative in its own right which should be used not only for learning and practicing L2, but also for practicing L2 for real-life communication purposes. The argument here is that if learners do not use L2 in the classroom to interact with each other, then how they will be able to do so in the outside context. As both Lethaby (2006) and Phillipson (1992) argue, there is no evidence that all English classrooms are more effective than classrooms that use Spanish for specific and limited reasons. Further research would have to be carried out in order to verify this assumption. Lastly, the evidence from the data concurs with Cook's (2001) view should be seen in a more positive light and with Martin's (2001) call on a more "comprehensive and flexible view of the role and possible use of L1" (p.159). Code-switching seems to a natural and purposeful phenomenon which seems to facilitate both communication and learning. It is worth emphasizing that the decrease of L1 does not automatically increase the quality of the L2 use, but rather it should be reconsidered not only by teachers, but also by school authorities to consider what the needs of the learners are, in order to make informed choices regarding "when to encourage L1 and when to promote the use of L2 coping strategies" (Sampson, 2011:302).

The communicative method does not make use of L1 in the classroom, thus students are encouraged to use L2 within the classroom (Brooks-Lewis, 2009)

as they should be immersed in learning the target language and avoid using their mother-tongue. The question then, is why ELT teaching in Mexico still seek for a best method when its futility was uncovered more than two decades ago. In Mexico, Lethaby (2006) “called on teachers to look at their reality and situation and find methods that are suitable and appropriate for their learners” (2006, p.57). However, there is a recent shift in the perception of the role played by the first language in learning a second language (Deller & Rinvolutri, 2002, Forman, 2005, 2007, Swain & Lapkin, 2005, Turnbull & Arnett, 2002).

Henceforth, the call to a move from a pedagogical factors and concepts that have imported from what Holliday calls BANA contexts “commercial British, Australasia, and North American private language/school cultural centres (Holliday 1994, 2005), as they seek to “pigeonhole learner needs, proclaim the right methodology, explain student motivation, promote standard language practices, and rehearse de-contextualized communicative functions and the four skills (Mugford, 2011, p.74). Teachers who then make use of the learners L1 do so with some apprehension and reluctance. Indeed there is little or no instruction on regarding “how” L1 may be used in bilingual EFL contexts (Butzkamm, 2000, Jacobson & Faltis, 1990). Researchers such as Macaro (2001, p. 545) argue for a “theory of optimality for the use of code-switching”, and Kim and Elder (2005, p. 378) advocate the conception of criterion which will enable “optimal target language use, supported by judicious use of L1 as required”.

Chapter 8: Students' use of CS for diverse classroom situations

8.1 Introduction:

As described in the previous chapter; teachers resort to diverse linguistic resources to negotiate meaning in the EFL context with learners. CS is the dominant interactional pattern as there are certain functions that are predominant in classroom communication between students and the teacher. Chapter 7 focused on the ways teachers use CS as a resource in their language classrooms. Therefore, this chapter focuses on the last research question of this study.

What are the codeswitching interactional patterns that students use to participate in the EFL higher education classroom?

In order to respond to this question, this chapter is divided in sections. The first section provides a brief account of the theory of CS in order to support its usefulness and the ways it is employed by learners in the second language classroom. Accordingly, In order to describe these ways, **observation sessions** were carried out as these depictions demonstrated what was taking place in the EFL classroom. **Field notes** are used to triangulate data, therefore, a more in-depth and rich analysis is brought forth as to how these resources are used. Accordingly, classroom data is analyzed using an **applied CA approach** as used in the previous chapters 6 and 7.

8.2 Student's CS: A widely observed phenomenon in the EFL classroom

Despite the criticisms that have been traditionally disputed against the students' use of the L1 in the classroom, (Cook, 2001) as it is viewed negatively because the objective is to maximize the use of the target language. Research such as the study carried out by (Mugla & Seedhouse, 2005), teachers use CS as an interactional resource and as an effective pedagogical tool (Turnbull & Arnet, 2002) to achieve their desired objectives.

Other scholars such as (Mugla & Seedhouse, 2005; Ariffin & Hussin, 2011; Yao, 2011; Qing, 2010; Hisham Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009; Hamsehlou Moghadam,

2012; Chimbganda & Mokgwathi, 2012; Lee, 2010; and Becker, 2001), favor CS as a pedagogical instrument since its usefulness is demonstrated in each study in aiding both English language teaching and learning. Furthermore, in supporting the existence of the CS in the EFL classroom, Skiba (1997, p. 5) suggests that in “the circumstances where code- switching is used due to an inability of expression, it serves for continuity in speech instead of presenting interference in language”. Subsequently, CS is a useful resource in supporting communication of information as in social interaction; therefore it serves as a tool in transmitting meaning. Thus, this notion leads to the idea that CS fills a gap from what is not known to the familiar and may be considered as an essential tool in language learning and teaching when used appropriately. CS can no longer be considered interference errors or fossilization, but “bilingual resources” (Jenkins, 2006; Seidelhofer, 2001) but as a strategy that learners resort to, intentionally or unconsciously, to achieve their communicative goals within the classroom.

Scholars such as Sert (2005, p.1), view that “in ELT classrooms, code-switching comes into use either in the teachers’ or the students’ discourse”. These CS functions are used by both parties as they switch codes to perform longer turns, avoid breakdowns in communication, or to fill in lexical or grammatical gaps in L2. CS is also used to negotiate meaning and language as well as manage the tasks and classmates (Sert, 2005). Further, CS seems to be found in the discourse of students with different levels (e.g., beginning and intermediate) of English as they recur to these interactional resources for different purposes in the classroom, and the teachers who recur to them for giving instructions or teaching new vocabulary and grammar (Amorim, 2012) as evidenced in data from this chapter.

Particularly, this context so close to the U.S. border where people go back and forth, subsequently leads to a subtle but consistent borrowing and assimilation of English expressions and words. The learner will draw on CS for carrying out learning activities, negotiate meaning, and it is a supporting element in the communication of information and in the learners’ social interaction. Therefore CS serves for communicative purposes in a way that is exploited as a tool for transference of meaning.

8.3 Gaining insight on learners' (CS) practices

I have chosen three classes that represent the ways in which students use CS. There is a 2nd level (CEF A2), 3rd level (CEF B1) and a 4th level (CEF B2) classes. The total of participants from the three classes observed total 30, nineteen from Excerpt 1, six from Excerpt 2 and five from Excerpt 3. The participants from the first excerpt are Arely, Olimpia, David, Dianna, Salvador, and Samuel, three female and three male aged between 18 to 32 years of age. Olimpia, Arely, and Samuel belong to the (*Formal population-Psychology*) and David, Dianna and Salvador belong to the (*Informal population*). The teacher participants are Rosario, Laura and Pamela. The specifics of each classroom are addressed in detail before each excerpt.

The participants from the second excerpt are Cesar, Daniela, Socorro, Merary, and Elva, four female and one male. Their ages are between 18- 28 years old. Merary, Cesar and Daniela belong to the (*Formal community- Law and Accounting*), Socorro and Elva belong to the (*Informal community*). The participants in the last excerpt are five: Tania, Janliek, Roman, Karen, and Diana, four female and one male, their ages ranging from 18-23 years of age. All the participants belong to the (*Formal community- Psychology*). All the participants are Mexican and for ethical reasons, these are not the participants' real names. These students were chosen because of their disposition to participate in the on-going interaction of the classroom task assigned and discussed in class that day (see Chapter 5 section 3.7.2 for a summary of participants' profile).

Teacher Pamela

This first excerpt is from a third level (B1 CEF) EFL classroom. Class is held from 3-5 p.m. Monday, Wednesday and Friday. The first part of the class is observed from 3:00 to 3:50 on a Wednesday afternoon. The classroom dynamic followed this pattern: Class began punctually and they worked until 3:50 when they took a break for 10 minutes. The focus of the class is to discuss a reading exercise related to organ donations using the "What would you do if...?" structure. The learners read the short article in their textbooks (*See Appendix 2*) and then they are to discuss in their tables what they would do in diverse

situations regarding the donation of organs. The classroom organization is divided in four tables with 4 students in *Table 1*, *Table 2* had five students, *Table 3* had five, and *Table 4* had five students totaling 19 students present in class. After their discussion, Pamela takes the floor to wrap-up the discussion and obtain feedback from the four groups.

Extract 1: What would you do if...?"

1 PAM: So (.) what do you think? Would you donate your organs? It is controversial (.) Some people are against and some are for donating (.) what is your view of this? Get together in groups of four and discuss your answers

[The students start setting-up as they start to work with the students closest to them and begin to group. There is some noise as chairs begin to be moved by students as they organize]

2 ARE: sometimes (.) maybe but if you don't try to talk the people, **eeh hablar con ellos para hacerlo** to join us or come with us and help us but a lot of people they doesn't want to... to help you, they don't care if you are going to do it,

3 OLI: yeah (.) yeah they don't care... **no les importa...para nada**

4 DAV: and it's bad,

5 OLI: Yeah, and donate my organs, once I considered, actually I was almost to sign but I was afraid, I was like fifty years and I was <ahh I don't know, I don't want to die" I think> I was thinking if that I sign this it's like (.) they were going to trap me there but now I want to (.)to sign that so, I can donate my organs and I think it's

pretty cool because I'm not going to use them when I'm dead so,

6 DAV: well I think a lot of people they doesn't donate because they don't believe or think it is needed,

7 OLI: yeah (.) because their religion... **religión...es religión verdad?**

8 SAL: yea but for me, I don't, I don't, I'm not, I'm not good at religion but,

9 ARE: but why?

10 SAL: because... I don't know I don't know... I am a(.) I'm, I can help people, but when I donate my organs, I don't feel, I don't know, I'm scared... I'm scared because if you donate your organs, I don't know your heart or something and then people they don't use it for a good... you know?

11 ARE: yeah, for a good reason, **por una buena razón,**

12 SAL: yeah (.) so sometimes I think, but I don't know I'm not really sure maybe I'll donate when I'm passed away, when I die maybe, **cuando este bien muerto!**

13 OLI: No, but you have to sign before you die that -

14 SAL: yeah (.) but I think, yeah I'm really, **really muerto! bien muerto...no vaya siendo! ((laughter))**

15 OLI: maybe you know, (2.2)

(Oli looks around the classroom to see if there is a reaction to her comment and looks over at Pamela directly for feedback)

17 OLI: Maybe you know, maybe I give a letter to my family and say okay donate my... organs, organos (.) **asi se dice teacher?**

18 PAM: organs,

19 Man: my organs, but I don't know, I have to be thinking about it because, you never know maybe the person that have your heart, they are going to use it for something bad or yeah you have to know?

20 PAM: You watch too much television (.)you have an active imagination!

(The whole class laughs and looks around the classroom to observe their classmates faces and reactions to the teachers comment)

21 SAM: yeah, because, I don't know just, you have to, there is a few population that can't donate their organs like only if you are, if you are dead, because something in your brain, only of that, it cannot (.) if you have a bullet or a car accident or something you cannot donate your organs, only if it's something in your brain, so (.) no it is, is very rude if you die about that, only if you got a cancer in your brain or paralyzed, you have to or you can't, it can be rude, sad to have a death line dead.

22 PAM: No (.) brain dead, it is called being brain dead,

23 SAM: (.) I think I'm donating only for my family, if your family have accident or something, I mean it's your family, you'll have to do it but mm for another person, you never know the person who is so you know? It's like if, like if <ohh! man I have to thinking about that>, you never know, **la verdad uno nunca sabe! dios no lo quiera!**

25 DAV: yeah, I'm think saying like you, if you had a sister or brother that need something for you, you will have to do it, I would not think twice, **no dudaria en donar... al instante!**

26 SAM: yeah, I don't know we think, different,

27 ARE: i think I would donate, yeah to everyone who need it (.)

29 PAM: yes, I think that we need to be aware that we can help people that are in need by doing this act of charity. So many people are dying because they do not have sufficient donors; it is something to definitely reflect on, especially here in Mexico. It is still quite new here in our country. Any other comments before we wrap-up this section and take our break?

30 LL: not really,

31 PAM: (Pamela looks around to verify if there are any questions and gestures with her face if there are any comments to the discussion)

32 ARE: no, just to donate, we would be saving lives, we have to open up to this new way of helping people, just do it!

33 PAM: ok (.) arely...good feedback, let's take our ten minute break and when we come back we will continue with this unit, pg. 67 in your textbook,

(The students are fidgeting because they are about to take their break and start getting up to leave the classroom, the students start to move around in their chairs and begin to talk with classmates).

This extract presents diverse CS functions evident in this classroom interaction between students and the teacher, the students and the rest of the class. This reveals there is great amount of cooperation and co/construction between all the parties involved in the on-going discussion. The focus is on students CS as the prevailing resources to communicate in this extract are reiteration, floor-holding, and socializing. They are discussed and analyzed as follows:

Reiteration

This is the predominant function in this Intermediate classroom. The students use this as a communicative strategy not only for interaction with the teacher, but with the rest of the class as well. It is important to highlight that the reiteration function refers to the CS situation in which L1 is used when the messages have already been expressed in L2, yet they are clarified or emphasized in L1. This CS function can be identified in (*Turns 2, 3, 11, 12, 14, and 25*).

Pamela's introduction in (*turn 1*) gears Arely to respond in (*turn 2*) to the class discussion regarding the donations of organs. Pamela states that it is a controversial topic, so she gives room for the students to give their views on this by "opening up" the "floor". To her open question, Arely self-selects to respond, by indirectly aligning with those who are in favor of donating organs. Her answer that they should try "if you don't try to talk to the people" and "es....hablar con ellos....para hacerlo"; her idea first expressed in English, is then reiterated in the L1. Though the message has already been transmitted in

one code, the message is reinforced in the native language. This repetition technique allows the participant to give meaning. Arely recurs to CS in order to indicate to Pamela that the content is clearly understood by her. A similar use is reported in Sert's (2005) study where learners prefer to make their points clear by using a reiteration technique in L1 and has been expressed previously in the L2. In (*turn 1*), Salvador expresses a concern. He is worried about the fact that some people do, so Arely emphasizes the point by adding that they should be used (organs), - "for a good reason....por una buena razón..." first in L2, and then in Spanish to reiterate this point. This switch from L1 to L2 indicates the speaker's affection towards a certain individual as well as the statement being highlighted in two languages (Anderson, 2006). This is also evident in my fieldwork, even though Arely is not sitting near Salvador, she wants to evidence that she indeed understand his point and does so by gesturing with her hands in the air to Salvador. She genuinely wants Salvador to see that she understands his concern and she does this by completing his sentence, or by what she interprets what Salvador wants to say by CS to stress this particular statement. The interaction between Arely and Salvador continues with his concern (*Turn 12*) when I die maybe...."cuando este bien muerto"... and (*Turn 14*) yeah I'm really, really muerto....bien muerto....no vaya siendo... where Salvador continues with his notion of being scared and that he would donate only when he is "dead", "really dead" causing the class to laugh with his comment.

Again, Salvador reiterates his thoughts first in L2 and then again in L1. This particular use of CS concurs with what (Gal 1979, Skiba, 1997) calls a 'semantic significance', where the switch is used to signal the speaker's attitude, communicative intentions, and emotions to convey social both social and linguistic information. In this case, Salvador switches to L1 to convey his attitude or emotions regarding organ donation to his classmates and teacher. In (*turn 21*), Salvador comments that it is sad to not be able to donate due to a sickness or an accident where the organ is destroyed or unable to function properly and "sad to have a "death line dead", where Pamela promptly clarifies and reiterates the word "brain dead" in L2 to Salvador in (*turn 21*), as her intervention is to make meaning clear in an efficient way for both Salvador and

his classmates. Therefore, Pamela clarifies guiding the attention of Salvador to the new lexical item by modeling and emphasizing accordingly in the L2. My fieldwork depicts Pamela gesturing and pointing to her head as describing the inability of the brain to work properly. *Turn 22* is taken by Samuel where he comments that if he had to donate for his family he would, because, “you never know....La verdad uno nunca sabe....Dios no lo quiera”!! Highlighting the idea that organ donation may be misused if put in the wrong hands and that it is best if it is donated within the immediate family. It may be superstition on his behalf, but many Mexicans have diverse superstitions about the after-life. Even though the particular function carried out by Samuel was reiteration, he emphasized with the expression “that no one really knows” what will happen, as this particular comment he uses in Spanish is a typical one in Mexico. This is to state that, “hopefully nothing will happen and God will not permit anything bad to happen”. This is a very common expression used by many Mexicans as they invoke god to prevent anything bad to happen, regardless of their religious orientation. This may be a very “cultural” thing to state in conversations both inside and outside the classroom.

This switch could be considered a socializing function since it appears to create a sense of identity or associate certain cultural aspects within a particular social group. The last use of CS can be observed in (*turn 24*), where David carries out a reiteration function to agree with Samuel’s contribution in (*turn 22*) regarding his choice of donating organs. David does this by first say agreeing with a “yeah” the beginning of the turn and then, “I would not think twice... no dudaria en donar... al instante”. He does this to stress his particular view on donating and code-switches to L1 to get his message across.

In a similar vein, this particular strategy is also carried out by both teachers and students in a study by Taha (2008) in the Arabian context, where they first used English to emphasize the point and then repeated in Arabic. This CS function is vastly used in this classroom context by students for classroom interaction and expressing ideas and negotiating meaning.

Equivalence

Olimpia, in (turn 7) comments on David's intervention stating that some people do not donate since they do not believe in doing so, or that they do not believe it is necessary. Olimpia then intercedes and says "yeah because their relation... religion...es religion verdad?" as she uses the equivalence of the lexical item in L2 and then asks Pamela if that is the adequate manner to say "religion". This is a resource used by Olimpia as she code-switches when she is unable to find or is doubtful about the appropriate terminology or identical word (s) from the L2 vocabulary repertoire to match the word(s) of their L1. In (*turns 15*), she is setting up the scenario to then introduce her opinion in (*turn 17*) . She shows that she is unsure about how to say "organs" as she asks Pamela to confirm the word that she has used, "donate my organs... organos... asi se dice teacher?" as the lexical item is reiterated in L2 by Pamela in (*turn 18*). This equivalence switch is done by Olimpia since she makes use of the native equivalent of a certain lexical item in L2 and therefore code-switches to her L1. It is argued by Sert (2005), that this process is related to the 'weakness in linguistic competence of the target language,' which makes the student use the native lexical item when he/she has not the competence for using the target language explanation for a particular lexical item" (pg. 4). Therefore, equivalence functions as a type of defensive mechanism or as a stalling device for learners as it provides them the opportunity to continue with communication by aiding the rift resulting from not knowing the lexical item. Students nominated themselves for turns, as the teacher did not directly nominate.

Teacher Laura

The second excerpt is from a fourth level (B1 CEF) EFL and class is held from 9:00-11:00 A.M. weekdays, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday. The first fifty minutes of class time was observed. The classroom flow is the same as *Excerpt 1*, with a classroom break at 9:50; and then continues through until 11:00. The organization of the classroom layout is in 6 rows. The class observed is oriented towards discussing and reviewing the topic: "Pet Peeves". This is an opening sequence where Laura sets-up the procedural content as the dynamics

of the teaching consists of whole class, pair and group work where the learners have the opportunity to engage in classroom interaction.

The classroom event incorporates Laura's interactions with the learners as there are 38 turns in the classroom interactional data. This is followed by student discussions and wrap-up from the teacher. There are a total of 98 turns in this classroom interaction, and only 40 are selected since they provide evidence of learner CS functions that take place. The CS functions most used by students are discussed in this next section. The student participants are Jorge, Cesar, Daniela, Socorro, Merary, and Elva. Three belong to the (*Formal population- Finance Department*) and the other three belong to the (*Informal population*).

Extract 2: What gets on your nerves?

1 LAU: Ok! .what do you think about pet peeves? these are things that drive us crazy!that we cannot tolerate in other people what do you think about this?

2 MER: okay,

3 LAU: don't mind then, just talk!

4 LL: okay!

((There are laughs and they start murmuring))

5 JOR: you first,

6 CES: okay,

7 DAN: you only?

(Everyone in class starts discussing about the topic)

8 SOC: Ah! Okay (.) what really gets me mad, **bien, super enojada...** is when the waitress and the personal take so long, it's very **irrespetuoso..**disrespectful for the customers,

(Everyone begins to laugh and murmuring)

9 DAN: ohh okay, but we have to get use to the slow service sometimes and this, to start to not to get mad, we need to be patient,

10 LAU: okay, another answer/comment? or it's the same?

11 JOR: the same, the same in this group,

12 LAU: okay (.) **este**, how about this group?

13 SOC: you have to use one of these from the textbook? You have to start with these?

14 MER: okay, (.) for me in a restaurant, it makes me so mad!.very slow service and they bring you the wrong food, the wrong order!

15 DAN: no, no (.) you can't believe what happened to me in Manzanilla! everything was burnt and I sent the order back and the chef would not accept ,it was terrible...y *tan caro que esta!* ((tr.: and how expensive it is))

16 SOC: in that restaurant, en ese restaurant! **es puro bluff).de esos restaurantes verdad?** The famous chef?

(Socorro looks over at Daniela and laughs as she gestures being a princess and curtsies. The class starts to laugh)

17 LAU: okay,okay,,everyone has had bad experiences in restaurants!

18 CES: *(murmuring)* you have to be diplomatic, not stupid in restaurants...

((Everybody laughs))

19 MER: Okay, something that gets on my nerves, is when (.) when the customer mocks its waiter, for example,

20 SOC: when the customer?

21 DAN: yes (.) mocks,when the customer mocks, **burlarse?** when the customer mocks to the waiter,

22 JOR: Oh (.)okay,

23 ELV: Maybe (.) the customer, the waiter, beginning, i know, e elva and i am to.. attempt, attention! but the customer, when she mocks, she says: *i am Elva and I,*

24 CES: Usually, when I get a, am get nervous, when I, I, when I go to the United States and I go to a restaurant and they try to talk everything in English so I got, they put me very nervous because sometimes I forget the, the name on the.. food (.) so.. that's where I do it, sometimes I get really nervous and I feel they mock me. **Ayy este!**, this guy, **no sabe nada, han de pensar!**

25 ELV: for me, what really piss me off at a restaurant is (.) people talking about disgusting things when you are eating, so that's, Oh sorry teacher!. it makes me mad! **me enoja!**

(There is laughter in the classroom by her classmates and they all turn to look at the teacher, meanwhile Laura eye-balls her and Elva knows that something was not appropriate in her comment)

26 LAU: another one?

27 MER: i will tell you what really gets on my nerves, I hate when the clothes are not, are not in their places or in order, is not only confusing me, is also inconsiderate when, when people, ahh! is also inconsiderate, to not put everything back,

28 DAN: what really makes me mad, when there is not an employee to help, maybe I need a size and the employee (.) never attention, or a, or attend me,

29 JOR: I can't, when I go, I can't understand why? when I go to the store, the, the price is high! that is not the case,

30 MER: is not the correct one, not the case to discuss,

31 CES: i know, but things are very expensive now, is not the correct and I have to go to pay and they say <you need more money to pay this>, you know?, yeah, so sometimes, I just don't!

(They laugh)

32 LAU: ok, driving, for me Oh my God! , okay, driving with slow drivers!

33 MER: yes, teacher in the fast line!

34 CES: some others, some others drivers drive too slow!

(cesar laughs)

35 ELV: I hate that!

(They laugh, and start simulating the noise of a car, everybody starts joking and laughing)

36 SOC: when some people, their kids are, they are driving and their kids are in the front with them driving,

37 DAN: yeah, they are driving too!

38 SOC: no, they are driving with their kids here in Ensenada in front of the car! ayy no tienen abuela! they have no shame!

(The class starts laughing and three students look over at Laura since Socorro made a comment she was not supposed to and Laura just laughs but signals to Socorro that was not appropriate)

39 ELV: so? almost?

(Laura laughs and holds up her hands gesturing for the class to continue like hopeless because Elva is a little hyper to continue)

Reiteration

In this extract, both English and Spanish are used. However, they do not have the same status, as they are used for different communicative reasons and are discussed in detail in this section. This episode begins with Laura setting up the procedural content to be discussed in *(turn 1)*, then the interaction begins and shifts between Merary *(turn 2)*, Laura again in *(turn 3)* telling them to “*just talk*”, then over to an unidentified group of students who start laughing and begin to turn to each other to begin the discussion in *(turn 4)*. The exchange continues with between Jorge, Cesar, and Daniel, in *(turns 5-7)* who are going back and forth deciding who will be the next participant. These exchanges take place in L2 as it is the language of instruction expected in class. It is not until *(turn 8)*, where Socorro gets the discussion going putting a stop to the banter between

her classmates on deciding who takes a turn or not. She starts her turn in English then switches to Spanish to emphasize the fact that that she gets mad when the waiters take so long to serve, “Ah! okay, what really gets me mad... bien, super enojada... is when the waitress take so long”. Socorro switches back to L2 to continue with the on-going sequence of providing her answer and then switches back to Spanish and L2 to finish her turn: “it’s very irrespetuoso..disrespectful for the customers”. Even though the message has been expressed, reiterated and understood by her classmates and teacher, Socorro “smuggles” (Probyn, 2009) in Spanish to express her dissatisfaction regarding the wait in being served in restaurants. This hints that Spanish is the orientation of expressing feelings and concerns as other research in other contexts (Corcoll-Lopez & Gonzalez-Davies, 2016; Gauci & Camilleri Grima, 2012; Sampson, 2012; Unamuno, 2008) where the L1 is the language of choice to communicate.

Socializing

This socializing CS function occurs in (*turn 15*) as Daniela offers her answer by narrating her experience in a local restaurant named Manzanilla. In this turn, she goes beyond stating her position and provides an account for it in English, but then concludes her sequence with L1: “*y tan caro que esta!*” meaning that the restaurant is very expensive and the service was terrible because the food was burnt and was sent back to the chef who would not accept it.

Daniela used a socializing CS function from the target language to the native language, to express her feeling of displeasure. This is also called “affective functions of CS” by Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) as students express their emotions as they interact with each other. The socializing use of CS in (*turn 16*) can be observed. Socorro co-constructs interaction with Daniela by providing a second part to her story initiated in the previous turn. Socorro expands her comment in English and then reiterates it in L1. She negatively assesses the fact that these “types of restaurants” are considered to be “elitist” or “snobbish”, *es puro bluff...de esos restaurantes verdad?*, but automatically switches back to L2 to ask for confirmation about the famous chef from Ensenada and the owner of Manzanilla, “*the famous chef?*”

In this case, this CS function is performing a social action or develops a sense of group solidarity, often occurring in jokes (Sampson, 2011). This is done so rapport can be established when the group responds to a similar switch that builds solidarity and conveys friendly relations (Sert, 2005). Daniela does this to establish a sort of “solidarity” with those by explaining to her classmates that background to the restaurant and the chef, as she wants her classmates to understand and sympathize along with her, the terrible experience she had. My fieldwork also depicts Socorro looking over at Daniela to gesture as if being a princess and mocks the chef by bowing as if he were some sort of “royal” as also stated in the classroom transcription. These non-verbal acts made the class laugh at what Daniela was trying to get across with her intervention, and she made this very clear with her humor. In (*turn 24*), Cesar clearly exploits this humor in his “wordplay” at the end of the sentence where switches and mixes L1 and L2 in a creative manner, by joking. What is noticeable here is that even though, “Ayy este, this guy.. *no sabe nada...han de pensar!*” is at the end of the sentence; it is not fulfilling a floor-holding position. In this turn, Cesar recalls situations in American restaurants or stores where he feels insecure about his linguistic capacity as he perceives that he is mocked by the people there. He voices what he imagines people say and think about him by using direct speech in L1 (“Ayy este, this guy.. *no sabe nada...han de pensar!*”). His final assessment about the others’ assigned behaviors (*deben de pensar*); reinforces this socializing function of CS. It is evident that the CS does not originate from a lexical deficit but from a desire to continue with the on-going interaction without pausing. Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain (2005, p.239) define it as a “process in native speakers when they perform audible word searches”.

In Laura’s case, prohibiting L1 in the classroom would most likely be replaced by silence from the learners and would not recur to these CS resources wishing to continue with the unfolding interaction. The last turn in this excerpt, is Socorro’s intervention that begins in (*turn 36*) and concludes in (*turn 38*), where she expresses her concern regarding children that are not seated where they are supposed to, and end up in front of the car driving with their parents.

Her concern and disagreement with children driving up front with their parent is evidenced by the last comment in her turn “*ayy no tienen abuela*”. This is a very

common expression in Mexico for stating that (the parents) have “no shame” in doing this. She does this by raising her tone and using L1 to create a sense of emotion as it is triggered by this CS. This expression is used in Mexico to state the fact that some people just have no shame and this is most common expression to convey this feeling without sounding harsh or abrupt since this is the equivalent of a bad word. Scholars such as (Dewaele and Wei, 2014; Pavlenko 2005; and Dewaele, 2010) indicate the relationship between certain languages and emotions in the learners’ linguistic repertoire as they are more multidimensional and complex (Kharkhurin & Wei, 2014). Therefore, some emotions may provoke more CS in some, while in others it may inhibit some orientation to a particular language.

In other words, Socorro’s negative view of children driving in front with their parents facilitates this switch to L1 to highlight her point as well as provide some humor in class.

Equivalence

This following turn (*turn 21*) illustrates how Daniela responds to Merary’s and two other students’ contributions (*turns 19 and 20*), by giving an equivalence function. Merary initiates in (*turn 19*) by stating that something that gets on her nerves is when the customeres mock their waiters, which in turn, two other unidentified students take the floor, (*turn 20*) to ask quite surprisingly if it is the waiter that does that by raising their intonation. Daniela takes the floor in the next turn by stating her position in English in an affirmative way by switching and giving the equivalence in L1 mid-sentence “*when the customer mocks... burlarse?*” She then emphasizes the last part of the sentence in L2. Using an L2 equivalent is quicker and less ambiguous to paraphrase in L1 (Sampson, 2011). As the continued sequence of interventions is taking place between the class participants, Elva’s turn (*turn 25*) has two noteworthy situations: Elva goes beyond stating her opinion on people talking about disgusting things when they are eating and provides a personal account for it by exclaiming in a high tone “*what really pisses me off*” in L2 and then she notices that the expression or outburst was perceived by her classmates as “funny”. She also notices that Laura eye-balls her in a way that suggests that her expression is out of place in

the classroom context. She then apologizes and continues to close her turn with her choice of L2 and then her reiteration in L1. Elva chooses this expression or play of words in L2 suggesting that she feels comfortable using expressions in the target language and the fact that her classmates share the same understanding in her choice of words or expressions.

Teacher Rosario

This third excerpt is from a second level Beginner's (CEF A2) EFL class. There are five student participants in this extract: Tania, Janliek, Roman, Karen, and Diana. Janliek and Diana belong the Business areas and Roman, Karen and Tania belong to the Psychology area. Their ages range from 18- 23 years. The second half of class time is observed, resulting in approximately 47min. of audio-recordings and field notes. The second half of the class begins with Rosario taking up the activity that is left pending before taking the classroom break. It involves reviewing count and non-count nouns as well as a discussion about the procedural content. There are diverse interactional sequences in this classroom data. Interactions consisted of answering, discussing, and assessing contributions about the task at hand. The field notes and interactional data demonstrate that students are recurring to CS as a resource for communicative and academic purposes. This is analyzed in this next section.

Extract 3: What's in your fridge?

1 ROS: how do you express this? what do you have in your fridge?

2 TAN: what's in my fridge? **que hay en mi refri?**

[Tania thinks hard and sighs about what is in there as this causes the class to laugh at that she may never open her refrigerator because she either never cooks or does not know how]

3 ROS: what is in your fridge?

4 ROM: I have beer, **cerveza**.

5 ROS: is there another alternative?

6 L2: there are/ there is, **hay mas cerveza que comida**,
there is more beer than food,

[These two unidentified students are laughing at Roman,
joking with him that he has no food in his refrigerator
except beer and Roman just laughs at their comment]

7 ROS: good, very good! (.) so you say, there is only
beer!

8 CON: there are waffleS, there is sausage, repeat,
sausage,

(whole-class)

9 ROS: there is/there are tortillas,

10 Jan:, what's the difference between, there is/ there
are?

11 ROS: what do they have in common? You can say it in
"Spanish"

12 JAN: **no se pueden contar...y otro si?**

13 ROS: what do you need so you can count them... some sort of meaning device... orange juice comes in... a glass, bottle. What about bacon?... a string of bean, a piece, a package of?

14 KAR: teacher "rebanada" a slice... if these are countable?

15 ROS: yes, countable, what's the name of these words?
Como se llaman estas palabras?

16 DIA: **Estas palabras se llaman** countable-non-countable..
they are called countable-non-countable

17 ROS: summarizing... nouns are divided into two categories... come one Diana, you know this... so now you countable-non countable. Do you have any questions? I should fine you...for using Spanish!!

18 LL: **tenemos una duda teacher**....one question....

[three unidentified learners ask Rosario a question, but she does not address their question and jumps into reviewing the task at hand, leaving the learners with a puzzled look]

19 ROS: so now you are going to tell your team what you have in your fridge, I expect you to use "there is/there are". Work in pairs, you have 15 min. to do the task. Please work with someone you have not worked with this week.

[the students are organizing the pair work deciding who is going to work with who, there is a lot of noise since they are moving around]

20 JAN: pairs teacher? I am thinking...to work with who? **de eso se trata...** to think right?

[the pair next to Janliek (a boy and a girl) starts to laugh and then one of them states that he has not worked with her this week, and that they should work together causing the other partner to scan around the room to see if another classmate is available. Once she spots another classmate, she gets up and leaves, leaving Janliek without a partner and eventually joining another group across the room]

21 ROS: good! that is what this exercise is about,

22 ROM: i am thinking that I have fruit, vegetables, milk,

23 ROS: very good... go ahead... ask her...your partner.

[Roman turn to his partner who is setting in front of him, she turns around and they begin to interact]

24: ROM: what do you have in your fridge?

[rosario starts to walk around once she sees that Roman is working with his partner and goes by every group to check on them]

25 ROS: excuse me, come on people! no you are going to write 5 questions/answers in your student book,

26 TAN: i already did them,

27 ROS: ok then! you have 2 sec if everybody already did them!

[Rosario jokes about Tania's comment and everybody looks over at her as if she should not have made that comment since Rosario now wants everybody to finish the exercise in 2 seconds]

28 KAR: [she begins to gesture and raises her hand that she has a question]. a question how do you say **primo/prima**...cousins?

29 ROS: yes, **primo/prima**! now, how many uncles/aunts do you have?

30 KAR: like seven,

31 ROS: Wow!

32: KAR: yes!

33 ROS: and your mother? how many aunts? Uncles? anybody?

34 DIA: aunts-five, uncles-four

35 ROS: ok, that's a small family,

36 ROS: ROM, are you ready?, you are still writing?

37 ROM: yes,i am ready,

38 ROS: yes, ok (.), now let's everybody try to finish so we can move on to the next task before our break

Equivalence

This extract begins with Rosario's opening sequence where she is setting up the task by asking students how they express "this" and what they have in their refrigerator. Tania self-selects in (*turn 2*) to ask out loud to herself what she has in her refrigerator in L2, and then switches to give the equivalence in L1. My observations show that she frowns and thinks about what is in her fridge. She sighs and then answers in L1 making visible that she thought long and hard about what is in her refrigerator. This action makes visible the fact that Tania is not aligning with the task at hand and instead, she is speaking about her own reality. This causes the class to laugh. Evidently, she never offers the preferred answer. The use of jokes and humor is evident in this classroom extract in the 50 min. period. *Turn 4* is taken by Roman as he provides an answer to Rosario as the interaction unfolds. He quickly jumps to seize the turn as his tone of voice rises as he gives his contribution in L2 and then reiterates in Spanish. It is worth highlighting that this is also done in all three excerpts as the students first provide their answer in English and then CS to L1. The next equivalence turn is evidenced in (*turn 14*) where Karen addresses Rosario to ask in English first, then switch into Spanish to emphasize and confirm if the appropriate lexical item is evidently "a slice" and if it is countable or not. This form of participation allows to interpret that the vocabulary word is available to Karen in the second language, but then she switches to L1 to check if she is correct. In (*turn 18*), three unidentified learners ask Rosario a question and their language choice is first Spanish and then they reiterate it in L2. "*tenemos una duda teacher, one question*". The switch may be due to Rosario checking, summarizing and emphasizing Diana's contribution in L2 that the information is known to her and others. She also reprimands Diana by stating that she should be fined for using Spanish and that she knows the grammatical content. The previous turn prompts the learners to switch to L1 to make it easier to highlight to the teacher and the students that they understood what they were requested to do. This action evidences that the learners want to make sure that they understand what was going on which is not addressed by Rosario. *Turn 20* continues with Janliek's answer regarding who to work with "*de eso se trata...to think right?*", in Rosario's intervention in two previous turns. Janliek mid-

sentence reiterates in Spanish that she does not know who to work with and that the objective is to think. Fieldwork illustrates that Janliek is wondering who to work with and ends up without a group to work with. In (*turn 28*), Karen makes a question where Rosario acknowledges the answer as correct in both L1 and L2 and is ready to move onto the next answer. The exchange in (*turn 29*) takes place in the last minutes of class time where Karen signals to Rosario and gives an equivalence of cousins “yes, *primo/prima*”, in regards to the question. The teacher uses L2 indicating that he wants to move along with the lesson and does it in English, thus rendering the interaction rather formal, meaning she means business.

Reiteration

Rosario’s L1 and L2 choice in this turn to Karen in (*turn 15*) are done to clarify and emphasize a grammatical rule acknowledging that the learner has a question (Gauci & Camilleri Grima, 2012) and not putting Karen on the spot with her question in L1. Presumably, this makes the assimilation of content more efficient “as the learners can use their L1 as an anchoring point “(Gauci & Camilleri Grima, 2012, p. 620). In the next turn, (*turn 16*), Diana addresses Rosario’s question by using L1. This CS to reiterate is a language switch related to the flow of the teacher-learner interaction (Chaudron, 1988, p.50) as the majority of teacher speech acts are “soliciting and reacting moves”. Diana’s turn is an example of this as recurring to this action does not stop or abrupt the on-going interaction. The use of L1 is faster than retrieval in the target code.

These three excerpts provide a first –hand sense of what takes place in these EFL classrooms. The findings demonstrate that even though they are different levels and type of learners, they resort to CS that aids them in communication purposes. This study does not permit to generalize whether CS should be banned or introduced as a linguistic resource in the EFL classroom. Teachers should have a better understanding of this linguistic phenomenon as a “heightened awareness” (Sert, 2005) of its use in the language classroom discourse. This understanding will hopefully lead to better teacher instruction and practice in considering or eliminating it in the classroom.

8.4 Summary

The analysis of the classroom data establishes that EFL students use code-switching for diverse communication, academic, and pedagogical purposes in the classroom. There were diverse code-switching functions in the classroom, but the most prevalent were three: *socializing, reiteration, and equivalence*. All three functions were used by learners in these three classrooms for contrastive analysis, floor-holding or establishing links with their peers and teacher associated with communication and learning objectives. Classroom interactional data demonstrates that CS is used for continuity of the on-going interaction instead of presenting interference in language use. In this respect, CS stands to be a supporting feature in EFL classroom communication of content and in social interaction; therefore it “serves for communicative purposes in the student’s code-switching” (Sert, 2005).

There may be a tendency for beginners to use L1 to prompt and clarify meaning or a translation function. Advanced learners (Intermediate and High Intermediate) students tend to use manage the interaction, comment on the task as well guide and contribute to classmates’ interventions. What is noticeable of the three excerpts of classroom data, is that students alternated between the two codes to socialize and manage the turn-taking, and it did not matter of they were initial or advanced students. They both used these CS functions to work towards communication. Cook (2008, p. 179) highlights, when bilingual speakers are ‘aware that they share two or more languages, there is a high probability that CS will occur as the classroom itself becomes a code-switching situation because it is not a monolingual environment’. The use of CS seems to be effective for student learning and it is “encouraged to be used when teaching students with a low proficiency level, though it must not be allowed to overtake the target language in the classroom” (Ismail Azlan & Narasum, 2013, p. 467). Accordingly, the use of CS by both students and teachers should follow a certain pedagogical strategy for it to be considered an effective tool within the EFL classroom.

The teacher participants in these three classes evidenced their perceptions of CS through their classroom practice. They used CS for different purposes regardless of the level and they oriented themselves to a particular language to

address certain aspects of the tasks at hand. Only *Rosario* seemed to address the use of L2 when she stated that there should be a fine for a student using L1 in the classroom interaction. According to Macaro (2005, p. 68), the majority of ‘teachers regard CS as unfortunate and regrettable but necessary’. What is also noticeable is that there is a certain variable made visible by the teachers when deciding to recur to CS to negotiate meaning. This variable is learner language proficiency as their choice in language for instruction is based upon this. L1 is used as a teaching device along with the use of non-verbals, gestures, and telling jokes as they were used by learners to communicate as well.

Both **fieldwork** and **classroom observations** demonstrate that CS is a strategy that learners resort to “intentionally and or unconsciously, to achieve their communicative objectives” (Amorim, 2012, p.178). CS in these three classes permitted effective communication between the participants and the teacher in a way that was natural and comfortable for all involved. Whether it is to address a certain grammatical rule, set up the task, highlight a certain piece of information, or a repetition of a certain part of the discourse, CS is used as a valuable linguistic resource. This concurs with Sert’s (2005, p.1) belief that in “ELT classrooms, code-switching comes into use either in the teachers’ or the students’ discourse”. Accordingly, the findings of this chapter described how EFL teachers adopt a more suitable conversational strategy in the classroom to create an atmosphere for students to engage in classroom interactions (Moghadam & Davoudi, 2016; Ismail Azlan & Narasum, 2013; Kharkhurin & Wei, 2015; Amorim, 2015; Anderson, Kagwesage & Rusanganwa, 2012, Gauci & Camilleri Grima, 2013, Creese and Blackledge 2010, Garcia and Wei, 2014).

Chapter 9 Discussion and Conclusions

9.1 Introduction:

This study is the result of a descriptive case study aimed at gaining insight into the language practices that both teacher and learner engage in in order to negotiate meaning in the second language classroom of a language education center at a state university on the border with the U.S. This study aimed to investigate three research questions:

1. *What are the teachers' ways of participating in situations of negotiation of meaning in the higher education EFL classroom?*
2. *What are the code-switching interactional patterns that teachers are using and for what interactional purposes in the classroom?*
3. *What are the code-switching patterns that students are using to participate in the EFL higher education classroom?*

After introducing the rationale and aim of this study and providing the theory along with the methodology that framed it- chapters 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5-, the subsequent chapters reported salient findings. Chapter 6 allowed for an informed notion of the lay-out of these EFL classrooms as well as the teachers' ways of participating in situations of negotiation of meaning. Chapter 7 describes through a collaborative stage where the teachers and I, as the guiding researcher, aimed at describing and rationalizing their teaching by means of observations and a semi-structured interview. The data showed just how teachers' challenged this monolingual fallacy in the second language classroom by recurring to an array of linguistic resources for diverse purposes in the classroom- CS being the dominant linguistic resource used. Finally, Chapter 8 described the learners' CS patterns used to participate in the classroom context illustrating how CS is used for diverse communicative purposes such as socializing, reiteration, and equivalence that set forth the call for a more pragmatic approach to the use of the L1- an approach that responds to more closely to the EFL classroom context than the precepts of communicative teaching methodologies.

Conclusively, the last chapter proceeds by discussing such findings in the light of the present research interests, contrasting the obtained results with the theoretical base upon which this research was conducted. This was carried out with the purpose of advancing empirical data existing issues and debates, which contribute to the current field of English language teaching and CS studies.

9.2 The need to re-examine ELT in regards to multilingual terms

More recently, academics have stated that teachers need to examine ELT in terms of multilingual and transnational terms as English language use should reflect a fluid and changing environment as language users appropriate the target language for their own use, and do not necessarily adhere to American or British varieties of English (Mugford, 2011). Therefore, ELT in Mexico should respond to both the global context and the local EFL environment by examining English language use, rather than trying to replicate inner circle teaching methods.

Accordingly, my investigation offered an empirical account of the manner that a group of Mexican teachers and learners use their multilingual repertoires in order to gain an understating of how and why they draw on CS to communicate. The process aimed at delving into their teaching practices and their reasoning for what takes place in the realm of adhering to a positivist approach to language teaching that centers on the “best” way to teach and learn.

In assuming a stance towards ELT teaching and methods, one should also examine if this research approach is appropriate for a particular situation and context. For that reason, it is important to discuss the implications revealed by adopting this research stance described and attending the gap I observed in recent empirical studies. The discussion centers on how my research rationale favored this descriptive case study as the involvement of the participants and myself –the guiding researcher-, where my motivation is underpinned by discovering meaning and understanding of experiences in context, became of value for participants’ practices. I would like to discuss three aspects in this study that allows me to highlight the most salient contributions of this study deriving from the data posed by the research questions. These topics are: **the**

search for an appropriate method in EFL teaching, the call for a multilingual classroom, and a greater sensitivity to the use of linguistic resources in the EFL classroom. The next section advances how my investigation has contributed to the field contemplating the issues here discussed.

9.3 The search for an “appropriate” method in EFL teaching in Mexico

This section deals with the findings of the study in relation to **the first research question** aimed at gaining insight on the ways that teachers participate in situations of negotiation of meaning in the second language classroom. In order to address this, I carried out audio-recorded classroom observations, field notes and classroom transcriptions that using an applied CA approach that suited well with this research question. From these classroom observations conducted, I could establish three main aspects. In the literature review of this thesis, (see section 3.3) it was stated that language teaching through a **Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT)** entails teaching in a certain manner. It aims for teachers to develop communicative competence as the goal of second and foreign language teaching, and a communicative syllabus and methodology as a way of doing this (Richards, 2006). This view of teaching implies that “teaching” will be through the target language only and classroom activities through group and pair work, students will engage in interaction as to maximize learning opportunities and learners will learn in collaboration with others. CLT empirical research carried out in diverse contexts around the world (Ramanathan 1999; Li, 1998; Wei, 2011; Vasilopoulos, 2008; Liao’s, 2000; Guangwei Hu, 2005; Ahmad & Rao, 2013; Ahamad Shah & Othman, 2006; Ozsevik, 2010; Lee, 2001; Martini Mustapha & Aizan Yhaya’s, 2013; Acosta & Cajas, 2018; Muñoz, Baeza & Campos, 2013), all shared similar characteristics such as: studies were within a second language context, the methodology was similar and suitable for collecting and analyzing classroom data embedded in a CLT teaching paradigm. This specific research context is no different. Therefore, the implications that second language research may have in a second language context may vary according to the research scenario where the research takes place.

Analysis of classroom interaction demonstrated there were diverse resources used by the teachers to negotiate meaning. Some were more controlled and rigid as others not so much. Question-and-answer adjacency pair and *IRE/IRF pattern* prevailed with teachers as the as this acceptable and economical (Seedhouse, 1996) within the L2 classroom context set forth by Seedhouse (2004). Cazden (2001) emphasizes that this sequence may still be the most common classroom discourse pattern at all grade levels and the oldest, it still predominates in many EFL/ESL classrooms around the world. Classroom data also demonstrates that this EFL context is not the exception. The teachers' focus was on textbook activities and how learners related this to the task and topic at hand as the end result is to reach educational goals. Therefore, there seemed to be very interactional space or a limited choice of topic as these exchanges are organized and focused on the material(s) on behalf of the first teacher's teaching practice, as the second classroom excerpt revealed similar interaction patterns. The patterns of interaction emerging from this second teacher's classroom data, demonstrates that these exchanges are centered on a piece of material(s) being used (e.g. in this case their classroom textbooks), as the learners are carrying out the task at hand.

My observations and triangulation of data allowed for an understanding of the predominant use of the textbook in the classroom is mainly due to the working conditions of the teacher. Most of them are with non-permanent and part-time contracts which obligate them to work for some other institutions. There seems to be a more dominant use of these in teachers with no permanent conditions at the Language Center. Not having the time to bring other material for their classes is a direct result of not having the time to do caused by their busy schedules. The use of the textbook as the sole means of instruction is not time-consuming for these teachers.

Interactionally, the triadic exchange (IRF) seems to be the most economical way to advance in the interaction, with each teacher turn providing either evaluation or feedback of a student's contribution as this indicates the beginning of another turn. In regards to this first aspect, even though there is a somewhat "tight" IRF/IRE exchange system, teachers display somewhat unique interactional features to negotiate meaning. For example, being a '*walking*

dictionary” as one of the teacher participants provided the words or phrases in the absence of them in the learners’ linguistic repertoire as opposed to directing him/her to look for it in the dictionary. This demonstrates that the practices of these teachers result in “*filling in the gaps*” as a means of maintaining the flow of the interaction or to smooth out any misunderstanding resulting from the interaction. This is normal because this is the institutional interactional pattern. Even though these teachers are trained to challenge a teacher-centered pedagogy, data reveals that they are not challenging this. The data resulting from RQ#2 demonstrates that there are other teachers that do challenge this teacher-centered pedagogy by ceding the floor for the students to self-select and participate.

There is a clash regarding the teachers’ perspective on the use of the L1 in class and their “actual classroom practice. Teachers are confronted with trying to conciliate two opposing views on teaching languages where the exclusion of the L1 is essential if L2 learning is to take place. It is one of my interests to delve into what teachers believe and reasons concerning the use of L1 in their teaching/learning process. First, their “guilty feeling” of using the mother-tongue in the classroom was discussed in their interviews and how they actually performed in their classes permitting its use for diverse reasons. In a CLT framework such as in the context that we are exploring, these teachers are expected to solely rely on the L2 for instruction (Cook, 2001), but they are aware of the L1 as part of their teaching practice and consider the complexities of its use. Apparently, their “*views*” and “*reasons*” for using L1 aligns with the classroom interactional data and my field notes, providing concurrent validity as these practices are explained in more detail (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2013), and in (Chapter 7 and 8), with data drawn from both students’ and teachers’ interactions.

As explored in these classrooms, the teachers evidently need to step out of the “*limelight*” through the use of multilingual resources. Therefore, learning opportunities are maximized to the fullest as this resonates with Cancino’s (2015) argument that teachers lack of negotiation of meaning instances is the result to some extent, of the misuse of these interactional features at hand. For that reason, teachers should recur to multilingual features at their disposal to

lead students to understand and participate in the new situations that emerge, as to make the adequate decisions for the foreign language classroom communication to play out fluently and efficiently-the reported results in both Chapters 7 and 8 thoroughly sustain this view.

9.4 The call for a multilingual classroom

This study found considerable evidence supporting the argument for a multilingual turn that was discussed in the literature review (section 3.7) in Chapter 3, that advocates for a multilingual classroom that takes into account these multilingual resources used by both parties that capture the creative and dynamic nature of language in the form of language repertoires in the multilingual classroom (Garcia, 2009, 2011, 2013; Garcia & Wei, 2014 and other scholars Blackledge & Creese, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; Gracias & Sylvan, 2011; Hornberger & Link, 2012; Lewis *et al.*, 2012a, 2012b). As such, **the second research question** of this study aims at identifying the CS patterns that teachers are using and or what purposes in the classroom. This is explicitly answered through the use of audio-recorded classroom observations-field notes, classroom transcriptions, and semi-structured teacher interviews. Accordingly, the findings are as follows.

By my literature review, I was able to observe that many second language studies are carried out in either outer or expanding circle countries (Kachru, 1985), where the use of certain second language teaching methods are imposed. Further, within pedagogic theory, different approaches, methods and techniques have adopted contrasting positions towards the use of the L1 in the ELT classroom.

While most studies in CS in diverse contexts have mostly been concerned to minimize its use in the EFL classroom (Payawal-Gabriel & Reyes-Otero, 2006; Change & Butler, 1989; Macaro, 1997; Ustunel and Seedhouse, 2005), as they regard its use has negative effects on learning and/ or “take away” the purity of the language. Others advocate for the use of CS in the second language context (Castellotti & Moore, 1997; Kramsch, 1995; Levine, 2003; Morre, 2002; Greggio & Gill, 2007; Mugla & Seedhouse, 2005; Turnbull & Arnet, 2002; Ariffin & Hussin, 2011; Iannacci, 2008; Yao, 2011; Qing, 2012; Hisham Ahmad &

Jusoff, 2009; Hamzehlou Moghagam, 2012), as they argue that the multilingual classroom becomes an environment where the learners' bilingual (or multilingual) identities are accepted, and at the same time makes a positive input to the learning context. Though other studies have only been discussed in relation to the bilingual adults in formal settings (i.e. Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Gumperz & Hernandez- Chavez, 1971), conversation (i.e. Jotgensen, 1998; Zentella, 1982), between young bilingual children, as well as more formal settings in school (i.e. Aguirre, 1988; Benjamin, 1996), and research that focuses on second and foreign language classrooms in basic education (i.e. Ludi & Py, 1986; Pekarek, 1999, Nussbaum & Unamuno, 2001; Unamuno, 2003).

Accordingly, the use of CS is the dominant linguistic resource used by both teachers and learners to communicate. The prevailing CS functions were *reiteration* and *equivalence*. Others identified were floor-holding, meta-language and socializing, as is the same case with student's use of CS functions in the last chapter of this thesis (Chapter 8). Both teachers and learners draw on these linguistic resources for diverse purposes in these EFL classes. Therefore, in this study, both teachers and students resort to it as a bridge between the language(s) that students are learning, as it is a fundamental tool for language teaching and an "interactional strategy" (Van Dulm, 2007, p.15) for social interactions. I believe that this one of the main issues of this research. It is not only relegated to one chapter as the discovery of these new uses of language and practices by both teachers and students in the classroom makes this research relevant.

This begs the question to policy makers and school authorities as if permitting CS in the classroom would be beneficial to their learning experience as both learners and teachers alike interact in diverse ways to "render the teaching-learning experience as fruitful as possible (Gauci & Camilleri Grima, 2013).

Classroom data presents evidence for the argument that the idealistic "*Only in English*" norm does not take place in this context. It is a common teaching practice between the participants as it is constantly being "*challenged*" as evidenced in these classes observed. In view of this, it is apparent that the use

of both Spanish and English are being used to fulfill a conversational function as well as achieving some fluency along the way through the assigned task (Unamuno, 2008). CS is viewed by scholars (Cook, 2008; Macaro, 2005; Sampson, 2012) as a tool which makes the lesson content more at reach to learners who are beginners or have trouble grasping the L2. Moreover, the teachers are using L1 in the classroom for transactional reasons as they disdain the belief of the advocates of the communicative approach that argue that the L1 has no place in the EFL context (Higareda, Lopez & Mugford, 2009, p.52).

In these classroom exchanges, these teachers are in charge of “*orchestrating*” the interaction and to a certain extent, in a position of power as is expected. Nevertheless, data highlights that they are jointly negotiating meaning as teachers create a nice and relaxed atmosphere for learning as they guide the learners to learn and navigate through this new classroom discourse through an array of communication strategies (e.g. clarification requests, questions, answers, CS), for the second language classroom to flow smoothly and fluently. As reiterated by Gil (200, p.:278), “classrooms that offer these possibilities are probably a better environment for learning, as the distance between teacher and learners are reduced”.

The emerging themes (e.g. implicit “English only policy”, code-switching as a pedagogical device, course level as a factor in determining the degree of L1 use, and excessive use L1 is negative, L1 to establish rapport), from these interviews brings to light certain issues that are similar to Edstrom’s (2006) study, and Rolin-lanziti & Varshney’s (2008), as they consider a more valued use of the L1. Therefore, the use of L1 rested on the teachers’ decision and to some degree on their beliefs to disregard or not the use the L1 (Sert, 2005: Cook, 2002; Polio & Duff, 1994) in the classroom as it is expressed in the interview data. These decisions were performed at diverse stages in their teaching practice hinting at the fact that they are aware of both the teaching and learning procedure as the dominant multilingual resource used is CS for diverse reasons in this EFL context. In the interviews, teachers approached these themes in a very open manner and what was noticeable were their ideas shared with that of the many accounts in the literature review that was discussed in Chapter 3 (Mora Pablo, Lengeling, Rubio, Zenil, Crawford &

Goodwin, 2011; Mugford Fowler, 2011; Higareda, Lopez & Mugford, 2009).

There are no stark differences in the participants' ideas and reasons for why they are using CS functions and for what purposes in the classroom, which in turn seems to concur with the data in RQ # 3, in the manner that student's, use these functions in a similar way and for the same reasons.

9.5 A greater sensitivity to the use of linguistic resources in the EFL classroom

The **third research question** deals with inquiring what the CS patterns that students are using and for what purposes in the classroom. This questions was answered through the same tools as in research question #2 (audio- recorded classroom observations-field notes and classroom transcriptions). What comes to light from this data is how students draw on CS for communication purposes; *reiteration*, *socialization*, and *equivalence* just to name a few. Therefore, CS materializes as a supporting feature in learners' discourse in the EFL classroom. In order to avoid repetition from the analytical chapters 7 and 8; I will shift my attention to the calling of a multilingual shift where the integration of these linguistic resources as opposed to a "monolingual fallacy" that perceives that learners are expected to learn a language with no existing language resources is taken into account by both the local institutional context and policy makers around the world.

Teachers need to be more aware of the linguistic resources at their disposal as a new generation of teachers should embrace a more pragmatic approach to the use of the L1 in the EFL classroom. An exploration of theories and methodologies that consider teaching within a "prescribed" method and a call for a more "local" approach to language teaching and learning should be endorsed. Globalized EFL/ESL teaching methodologies which advocate for a "one-size fits all" pedagogy should not be applicable and practiced in classrooms around the world. Therefore, a more "adequate" approach is needed in order to comply with the local realities of both learners and teachers in this context. These Mexican learners and teachers have their own goals, difficulties, and challenges that may not be catered to by their ESL/EFL textbooks and materials that focus on a global market which in turn, has little or no relevance or knowledge of the local needs.

9.6 Contributions of the study

Appropriate teacher-training courses

Given its close proximity to the U.S. border, English-language use and culture is unified into everyday communication and classroom interaction. Consequently, the language use creates a set of objections for ELT teachers as language is no longer constrained to geographical borders. This type of language use is marked by CS as a communicative resource which involves creativity on behalf of the learners and teachers alike.

This study directly impacts the field of language education amongst others, as a need to look beyond further and explore what other pedagogic resources are accessible in adjustable, contemporary approaches and methods to teaching and learning languages multilingually (Lin and Martin, 2005). Therefore, highlight the vital importance of incorporating languages that are part of the learners' linguistic repertoires at both the academic and social levels to legitimize the status of their L1 in the classroom. The data obtained from this research calls for an urgent need for both teachers and university authorities to reconsider a multilingual pedagogy "fit" or "catered" to meet their students specific needs allows them to maximize their learning as they are able to draw on their language skills (in two or more languages), rather than "being restricted and discouraged to do so by monolingual instructional assumptions and practices" (Hornberger, 2005, p.607).

The one-language-at-a-time which prevails in this institution, the fact that teachers recur to these CS functions to demonstrates that they are willing to take a chance and "bend the rules (Corcoll-Lopez & Gonzalez -Davies, 2016). This study also highlights that CS is used vastly as a both a learning and communication strategy as teachers aim is to teach and develop multilingual speakers with multilingual skills, rather than focusing for the usually elusive task for teaching and training in a monolingual setting for native-like language use.

An informed teaching practice

Conclusively, it is evident in both classroom observations and teacher interviews that their approach to second language teaching is somewhat flexible

as teachers adopt a more strategic approach to the use of CS in the classroom. An informed teaching practice regarding the mobility and plasticity of these CS resources in which both teachers and students deploy them is demonstrated. Even though some teachers feel somewhat restricted in this “tight” English only discourse, the need to move away from a ‘target language only’ policy” to a “target language mainly” is needed in order to foster informed practices on the use of CS in their classes. Although the exposure to the target language should predominate in the EFL classroom, these teachers clearly steer away from a paradoxical perspective of teaching these multilingual students through monolingual instruction, towards incorporating the advantages teaching multilingual learners within a multilingual approach.

This research still relates to the evolving field of EFL research and Foreign Language interaction studies which still have the potential to offer adequate schemes to describe and **understand** the complexity of the EFL classroom. These classroom practices are used seemingly with some degree of teacher reflection as mentioned in their interviews, as they are made explicit in their teaching by challenging a one language policy and recurring to linguistic resources to engage in communication . Since multilingualism strategies are part of bilingual or multi-linguals’ everyday language practices, there could be many pedagogical advantages with making the implicit as explicit (e.g. discussing how multilingual practices as resources in the second language classroom).

Pushing this argument further, scholars such as (Garcia, 2009, 2011, 2013; Garcia & Wei, 2014; Pennycook, 2007), advocate a more international perspective for universities where learners are able to draw on their multilingual resources to engage in and achieve diverse conversational goals in communication with their peers and teacher. This study aligns with the before mentioned, as it also pushes forth the argument that there is a need to take into consideration a view that considers how EFL learners creatively “co-construct” English for their own purposes by treating the language as a shared communicative resource where they have the freedom to accommodate to each other, code-switch, and create innovative forms that differ from the norms of native English and do not require sanctioning by native English speakers”

(Jenkins, 2006, p.10). If teachers are to go beyond the misuse of multilingual resources as well as ease the guilt associated with CS in educational contexts, further research is needed on classroom language ecologies “to show how and why pedagogic bilingual or multilingual practices come to be legitimated and accepted by participants” (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, p. 113).

Such a dialogue could be pushed forth by both teachers and students alike as among educators and school authorities to legitimize the status of the L1 in the EFL classroom. Hornberger and Link (2012, p.268) argue that multilingual practices “offer possibilities for teachers and learners to access academic content through the linguistic resources and communicative repertoires they bring to the classroom while simultaneously acquiring “new ones”. The argument is that second language studies should consider new perspectives which allow the integration and understanding of the reciprocal approach of foreign language classroom interaction (e.g. the natural and the pedagogic). Successively, this will enable to describe the kind of talk that both teaching and learning through the language and about the language is used for. Therefore, by incorporating languages that form part of the learners linguistic repertoires in order to emphasize that they are considered a vital resource in the higher education context and within society itself.

Through the analysis of classroom interaction, teachers and researchers have access to the emic theories of language learning. If these are implemented by the participants in the classroom, and if these are seriously considered and compared with the *top-bottom* etic theories of learning produced by theorists, we should have a deeper understanding and basis for reconciling theory and practice. (Seedhouse, 2004). A persistent criticism by both applied linguistics and second language acquisition research by classroom language teachers has been top-bottom, usually driven by theory and concepts which may have no or little relevance to classroom practice and the context.

Furthermore, very little attention and vague interest has been demonstrated in what language teachers actually do in their classroom practice, hence classroom practice has not generated theory. In other words “there has been one-way traffic between theory and practice” (Seedhouse, 2004, p.265). So in

other words, the goal is that through the analysis of classroom data, pedagogical theory will be generated inductively and enable that two-way street between both theory and actual practice.

9.7 Study conclusions

This study provides a clear contribution to diverse fields of applied linguistics, ELT teaching, and second language acquisition studies. Accordingly, this study has attempted to steer way from top-bottom etic approaches to the analysis of classroom interaction. Henceforth a more emic, bottom-up perspective that enables a deeper understanding of the classroom practices of teachers and their ability to negotiate meaning in the second language classroom with their learners is needed. Second language classroom within this view has been mostly of “describing” and not necessarily *understanding* what is taking place and why it is happening.

Conversely, with an interpretivist view towards understanding second language classroom interaction, my aim was to gain insight on the forms of participation and the ways in which teachers and students negotiate meaning- in this case of English teaching-through observing classroom linguistic practices of both teachers and learners, hearing teachers’ voices, and my own experiences and interpretations as the guiding researcher while partaking in this study. Accordingly, different insights were revealed as a result of this research and challenging the status quo of teaching through a “prescribed” method, challenging the monolingual fallacy in these second language classrooms as well as evidencing the need for a shift in teaching by taking a more pragmatic approach towards the use of multilingual resources. As a researcher, understanding this need to re-conceptualize second language teaching and methods and extrapolating it to my research design resulted positive and enabled the favorable results obtained.

Accordingly, by delving into teachers everyday practices enabled me to be the “liaison” between their actual teaching and teaching theories as their insights and experiences of their teaching became heard. Being able to gain this insider perspective provided an opportunity to become aware how to properly deal with issues and rifts in ways that benefit their teaching and their students learning.

These conversations and insights had not become available to teachers before this study, thus confirming that this insider perspective is an essential component of understating what might be taking place in the second language classroom.

As both a researcher and teacher-trainer, I feel the call to carry-out more research in the field of English Language Teaching which requires more in-depth analysis of more up-to-date and “local” second language teaching theories and methods that are pertinent to both learners’ needs and the context. ELT education programs that aim to promote a more principled approach, openly discussed in teacher-training courses that allow teachers to discuss and evaluate topics such as the use of multilingual resources in the classroom that provide a framework that is both theoretically and empirically well informed. This will be my next focus in this field of study.

Overall, reflecting and understanding these issues in these second language classrooms, I find myself at the end of this study content with the obtained results. However, I first had to understand what was taking place in these classrooms as opposed to merely describing. I set aside my role as a teacher-trainer and becoming a researcher learning how to reflect on my own teaching practices as hopefully, the professional work of teachers will become both an object of academic study and a source of theory generation.

Bibliography References

Abd-Kadir, J.& Hardman, F. (2007). The discourse of whole class teaching: A comparative study of Kenyan and Nigerian primary English lessons. *Language and Education*, 21(1), 1-15.

Ahmad, B. H., & Jusoff, K. (2009). Teachers' code-switching in classroom instructions for low English proficient learners. *English Language Teaching*, 2(2), 49.

Atkinson, S. (1987). The mother tongue in the classroom: A neglected resource. *English Language Teaching Journal*, 41(4), 241-247

Ahmad, A.M. (2014)., "Kumaravadivelu's framework as a basis for improving English language teaching in Saudi Arabia: Opportunities and challenges," *English Language Teaching*, Vol. 7, no. 4. 96-110

Akram, M. & Mehmood, A. (2011). The need of Communicative Approach (in ELT) in Teacher Training Programs in Pakistan. *.Language in India*, Vol.5. ISSN 1930-2940.

Amorim, R. (2012). Code switching in student-student interaction; functions and reasons!. *Linguística: Revista de Estudos Linguísticos da Universidade do Porto*, 7.

Anderson, T. K. (2006). The role of Codeswitching as a Communicative Tool in an ESL Teacher Education Class. *Procedia, Social and Behavioral Sciences*, Vol. 90, pgs. 458-467.

Andersson, I., Kagwesage, A. M. and Rusanganwa, J. (2012). Negotiating meaning in multilingual goupwork: a case study of higher education in Rwanda. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1-15.

Ansarey, D. (2012). "Communicative language teaching in EFL contexts: Teachers attitude and perception in Bangladesh," *ASA University Review*, vol. 6, no. 1, pp. 61-78.

Antaki, C.,. (2011). *Applied conversation analysis*. Basingstoke. UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Asassfeh, S.M.. Khwaileh. Al-Shaboul, A.M. and. Alshboul, S.S (2012). , "Communicative language teaching in an EFL context: Learners' attitudes and perceived implementation," *Journal of Language Teaching & Research*, vol. 3, no. 3, pp. 525-535

- Ariffin, K., & Susanti Husin, M. (2011). Code-switching and Code-mixing of English and Bahasa Malaysia in Content-Based Classrooms: Frequency and Attitudes. *Linguistics Journal*, 5(1).
- Arthur, Jo. & Peter Martin (2006). Accomplishing lessons in post-colonial classrooms: Comparative perspectives from Botswana and Brunei Darussalam . *Comparative Education*, 42 2: 177-202.
- Atkinson, David. (1987). "The mother tongue in the classroom: a neglected resource? *ELT Journal* (41) 4: 241-247.
- Auer, P., ed. (1998). *Code-switching in conversation: Language, interaction and identity*. London: Routledge.
- Auerbach, E. R. (1986). Competency-Based ESL: One Step Forward or Two Steps Back? *TESOL Quarterly*, 20 (3).
- Azlan, N. M. N. I., & Narasuman, S. (2013). The role of code-switching as a communicative tool in an ESL teacher education classroom. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 90, 458-467.
- Bailey, B. (2012)." Heteroglossia". In M. Martin Jones, A. Blackledge & A. Creese. (eds) *The Routledge Handbook of Multilingualism*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge, 499-507.
- Barkhuizen, G., 2014. Narrative research in language teaching and learning. *Language Teaching*, 47(4), pp.450-466.
- Bax, Stephen. (2003). The End of CLT: a context approach to language teaching. *ELT Journal*. Vol.57(3), 278-287.
- Becker, R. R. (2001). Spanish-English code switching in a bilingual academic context. *Reading Horizons*, 42(2), 99.
- Bonacina, F. and Gafaranga, J. (2011). Medium of instruction vs. medium of classroom interaction: language choice in a French complementary school classroom in Scotland, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 14:3, 319-334.
- Brandl, Klaus. (2008). *Communicative Language Teaching in Action: putting principles to work*. Pearson.
- Breen, M. P. (1998). Navigating the discourse: On what is learned in the language classroom. *Anthology Series-Seamo Reginal Language Centre*, 115-144.
- Brock, C. A. (1986). The Effects of Referential Questions on ESL Classroom Discourse. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20, 77-59. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3586388>
- Brown, H.D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4thed.). New York: Longman.

- Brown, H.D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: an interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.
- Brook-Lewis, K.A. (2009) Adult learners' perceptions of the incorporation of their L1 in foreign language learning and teaching. *Applied Linguistics* 30/2: 216-35.
- Brown, H.D. (2015). *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*, 4th ed., White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Brumfit, C. (1987). Applied linguistics and communicative language teaching. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 8, 3-13.
- Bruner, J. (1983). *Child's talk*. Oxford University Press.
- Bunyi, G. (2005). Language classroom practices in Kenya. In *Decolonization, globalization language-in-education: Policies and practice*, ed. A.M.Y. Lin and P.W. Martin, 131-52. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Butzkamm, W. (2000). Meaning conveyance through the mother tongue: The Dodson technique. *FIPLV conference*, Paris.
- Butzkamm, W. (2003). We only learn language once. The role of the mother-tongue in FL classrooms: death of a dogma. *Language Learning Journal* 28/1: 29-39.
- Canagarajah, S. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Translanguaging in the Classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 2, pp. 1-28.
- Canagarajah, S. (2013). *Translingual Practices: Global Englishes and Cosmopolitan Relations*. Routledge Taylor and Francis Group. London and New York.
- Cancino, M. (2015). Assessing Learning Opportunities in EFL Classroom Interaction: What Can Conversation Analysis Tell Us?. *RELC Journal*, 46(2), 115-129.
- Candela, A. (1999). Students' power in classroom discourse. *Linguistics and Education*, 10(2), 139-163.
- Carless, D. (2007). Student use of the mother-tongue in the task-based classroom. *ELT Journal* 62/4:331-8.
- Cazden, C. (2001). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. Second Edition. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Cazden, C. B. (1986). 'Classroom discourse' in M. C. Wittrock (ed.): *Handbook of Research on Teaching* 3rd ed. London: Collier Macmillan.

- Cazden, C. (1988). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Cenoz, J. (2003). The influence of age on the acquisition of English: General proficiency, attitudes and code mixing. *Age and the acquisition of English as a foreign language*, 77-93.
- Chaudron, G. (1988). *Second language classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chimbganda, A. B., & Mokgwathi, T. S. (2012). Code-switching in Botswana's ESL classrooms: A paradox of linguistic policy in education. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 2(2), 21.
- Ching-yi Tien (2009). Conflict and accommodation in classroom codeswitching in Taiwan, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12:2, 173-192.
- Chowdhry, M. R. (2010). "International TESOL training and EFL contexts", available from [http:// alwaysingreen.blogspot.com/2010/12/International-tesol-training-and-efl.html](http://alwaysingreen.blogspot.com/2010/12/International-tesol-training-and-efl.html) accessed 08 July, 2011.
- Chung, I.F. and H. Yi-Cheng, "The implementation of communicative language teaching: An investigation of students' viewpoints," *Asia-Pacific Education Researcher* (De La Salle University Manila), vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 67-78, 2009.
- Clifton, J. (2006)" Facilitator Talk", *ELT Journal*, 60(2):142-150.
- Cohen, Louis. Manion, Lawrence, and Morrison, Keith (2011). *Research Methods in Education*. Routledge: Taylor & Francis Group. London and New York.
- Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian modern language review*, 57(3), 402-423.
- Cook, V. (Ed.). (2002). *Portraits of the L2 user* (Vol. 1). Multilingual Matters.
- Cook, V.(2008). *Second Language learning and language teaching*, 4th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Copland, Fiona & Neokleous, Georgios. (2010). L1 to teach l2: complexities and contradictions. *ELT Journal*. 65 (3), 270-280.
- Corcoll López, C., & González-Davies, M. (2015). Switching codes in the plurilingual classroom. *Elt Journal*, 70(1), 67-77.
- Coste, D., Moore, D., & Zarate, G. (1997). Compétence plurilingue et pluriculturelle. *Vers un Cadre Européen Commun de référence pour l'enseignement et l'apprentissage des langues vivantes*, Strasbourg, Éditions du Conseil de l'Europe

- Creese , A. & Blackledge, A. (2015). Translanguaging and Identity in Educational settings. *Annual review of Applied Linguistics* **35** (2015), pp. 20-35.
- Creese , A. & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the Bilingual Classroom: A pedagogy for learning and Teaching? .*Modern Language Journal*, Vol. 94 . P. 103-115.
- Creese, A., and Martin, P.W. (2006). Interaction in complementary school contexts: Developing identities of choice-an introduction. *Language and Education* 20, no. 1:23-44.
- Cullen, R. (1998). Teacher Talk and the Classroom Context. *ELT Journal*, 52(3). pp.179-187.
- Cummins, J. (2007). Introduction to volume 5: Bilingual Education in J. Cummins & N.H. Hornberger (eds) *Encyclopedia of Language and Education* (Vol.5: Bilingual Education) (pp.xiii- xxiii). New York: Springer
- Davies, Paul (2000). Success in English Teaching. *Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers*. Oxford University Press.
- Deller, S., & Rinvulcri, M. (2002). *Using the mother tongue: Making the most of the learner's language*. Delta.
- De Pietro, J. F., Matthey, M., & Py, B. (1989). Acquisition et contrat didactique: les séquences potentiellement acquisitionnelles dans la conversation exolingue. In *Actes du troisième colloque régional de linguistique* (pp. 99-124). Strasbourg: Presses de l'Université des sciences humaines.
- Dewaele, J. (2010). *Emotions in multiple languages*. Palgrave MacMillan.
- Dewaele, J. M., & Wei, L. (2014). Attitudes towards code-switching among adult mono-and multilingual language users. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 35(3), 235-251.
- .Drew, P., & Heritage, J. (1992). *Analyzing talk at work: An introduction*. Cambridge University Press.
- Drew, D., (1992). "The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region," *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 37, no. 4, pp. 589-613
- Duff, P. (2000). 'Repetition in foreign language classroom interaction' in J. K. Hall and L. Verplaetse (eds): *Second and Foreign Language. Learning through Classroom Interaction*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum
- Duff, P. (2002). *Research approaches in applied linguistics*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Duverger, J. (2005). *L'Enseignement en classe bilingue* [Bilingual classroom teaching]. Paris: Hachette.
- Edstrom, A. (2006). L1 use in the L2 classroom: one teacher's self-evaluation. *Canadian Modern Language Review/ La Revue canadienne des langues vivantes* 63(2):275-292
- Edwards, A. & Westgate, D. (1994) *Investigating Classroom Talk*, London: Falmer.
- Eldridge, J. (1996). Code-switching in a Turkish secondary school. *ELT journal*, 50(4), 303-311.
- Fiona Copland and Georgios Neokleous (2011) L1 to teach L2: complexities and contradictions, *ELT Journal*, 65/3, 270-279.
- Finlay, L. (2002) "Outing" the Researcher: The Provenance, Principles and Practice of Reflexivity', *Qualitative Health Research* 12(4): 531-45.
- Firth, A. & Wagner, J. (1997). On Discourse, Communication, and (Some) Fundamental Concepts in SLA Research. *The Modern Language Journal* Volume 81, Issue 3, pages 285-300.
- Flyman-Mattsson, A. (1999). Students' communicative behavior in a foreign language classroom. *Working papers*, 47, 39-57. Lund University, Department of Linguistics.
- Forman, R. (2005). *Teaching EFL in Thailand: A bilingual study* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Forman, R. (2007). Bilingual teaching in the Thai EFL context: One teacher's practice. *TESOL in Context*, 16(2), 20.
- Forman, R. (2008). Using notions of scaffolding and intertextuality to understand the bilingual teaching of English in Thailand. *Linguistics and Education*, 19(4), 319-332.
- Gal, S. (1979). *Language Shift: Social Determinants of Linguistic Change in Bilingual Austria*. Academic Press: New York.
- Galindo, M. (2006). Les llengües a l'hora del pati. Usos lingüístics en les converses dels infants de Primària a Catalunya. Tesis doctoral inèdita, UB.
- Gatbonton and Segalowitz, N. (2005). "Rethinking communicative language teaching: A focus on access to fluency," *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, vol. 61, no. 3, pp. 325-353
- Garcia, O. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century. A global perspective*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Garcia,O, & Wei,L (2014). *Translanguaging, Language, Bilingualism, and Education*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Gass,S. (1997). *Input, Interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum

Gauci, H. & Camilleri Grima, A. (2012). Codeswitching as a tool in teaching Italian in Malta, *International Journal of Bilingual education and bilingualism*.

Gourlay, L. (2005). OK, Who's got number one? Preamble, triadic dialogue, covert participation and the co-construction of checking episodes. *Language Teaching Research*, 9(4), 403-22.

Greggio, S., & Gill, G. (2007). Teacher's and learner's use of codeswitching in the English as a foreign language classroom: A qualitative study. *Linguagem & Ensino*, 10(2), 371-393.

Griggs, P. (1997). Metalinguistic work and the development of language use in communicative pairwork activities involving second language learners. *Views on the acquisition and use of a second language*, 403-415.

Goodwin, C. (2011). Contextures of action. In J. Streeck, C. Goodwin, & C. LeBaron (Eds.), *Embodied interaction: language and body in the material world* (pp. 182–193). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Gower, R., D. Phillips & S. Walters (1995) *Teaching Practice Handbook*. Oxford: Macmillan Education.

Guangwei, Hu (2005). CLT is best for China- an untenable absolutist claim. *ELT Journal*, Vol. 51(9), 65-68.

Gumperz, John (1982). *Discourse Strategies*, Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Gutiérrez Ramírez, M. & Landeros Falcon, I.A. (2010). Importancia del lenguaje en el contexto de la aldea global. *Horizontes Educativos*. 15 (1) pp. 95-107

Hall, G, & Cook, G. (2012). Own language use in ELT: exploring global practice and attitudes. *ELT research papers* 13-01. British Council 10 Spring Gardens London SW 1 A 2BN, UK.

Hall, J. and Walsh, M. (2002). Teacher-student interaction and Language Learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 22: 186-203. Cambridge University press.

Hardman, F., Smith, F., Wall, K.(2003). "Interactive whole class teaching" in the national literacy strategy. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 33(2), 197-215.

- Harmer, J. (2007). *How to teach English: An introduction to the practice of English Language Teaching*. Pearson Education Limited.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the second language. Oxford Handbooks for Language teachers*. Oxford University Press.
- Heinz, B. (2001). "Fish in the river": Experiences of bicultural bilingual speakers,' *Multilingual* 20/1: 85-108
- Helot,C. and Laoire M.O. (2011). *Language Policy for the multilingual classroom*, Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Heller, M. and Martin-Jones,M. eds. (2001). *Voices of authority. Education and linguistic difference*, Westport: Ablex.
- Hellerman, J. (2008). *Social actions for classroom language learning*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Heritage, J. (1997). "Conversational analysis and institutional talk: analyzing data", in D. Silverman (ed.) *Qualitative Research: Theory, Method and Practice*, London: Sage Publications.
- Hertage, J., & Clayman, S. (2010). *Talk in action: Interactions, identities and instructions*. Malden MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Hertian , Gauci & Camilleri Grima ,Antoinette C (2013). Codeswitching as a tool in teaching Italian in Malta, *IntlInternational Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, vol. 16 p. 615-631.
- Holliday, A. (1994). *Appropriate methodology and social context*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Holliday, A. (2005). *The struggle to teach English as an International Language*, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Hopkins, D., Ahtaridou E., Matthews P. & Poster C. (2007). *An analysis of the Mexican School System in Light of the PISA 2006*, OECD, Paris. Downloaded from http://WWW.uco.mx/observatorio/reports/MEX_PISA-OECD2006.pdf
- Howard, A, (2010). "Is there such a thing as a typical language lesson?" *Classroom Discourse*, 1: 82-100.
- Howatt, A.P.R & Widdowson, H.G. (2003). *A History of ELT, Second Edition*. Oxford University Press.
- Hu, G. (2005). "Contextual influences on instructional practices: a Chinese case for an ecological approach to ELT", in *TESOL Quarterly*, 39, 4: 635–660.
- Hutchby, I. and Wooffitt, R. (1998). *Conversation Analysis: Principles, Practices, and Applications*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Hymes, D.H. (1972) "On Communicative Competence" In: J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (eds) *Sociolinguistics. Selected Readings*. Harmondsworth: Penguin, pp. 269-293.(Part 2)

INEGI, (1992) Dossier "Información básica sobre la población indígena", México. Downloaded from: www.inegi.org.mx/default.aspx

INEGI, (2010) Censo de Población , Sistema Nacional de Indicadores sobre la Población Indígena de México,. INALI TI, Base lenguas. Downloaded from: www.inegi.org.mx/default.aspx

Jacobson, R., & Faltis, C. (Eds.). (1990). *Language distribution issues in bilingual schooling* (Vol. 56). Multilingual matters.

Jarvis, J.and Robinson, M. (1997). "Analysing educational discourse: an exploratory study of teacher response and support to pupils' learning", *Applied Linguistics*, 18; 212-28.

Jenkins, J. (2006). Points of view and blind spots: ELF and SLA. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16(2), 137-162.

Jenkins, S. (2010). Monolingualism: an uncongenial policy for Saudi Arabia's low-level learners. *ELT journal*, 64(4), 459-461.

Johnson, K. 1995. *Understanding Communication in Second Language Classrooms*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jorgensen, J.N. & Madsen L.M. (2011). Polylinguaging in Superdiversity. *Diversities*, Vol.13, No.2, 2011.

Karim, M.R (2004). "Teachers' perceptions, attitudes and expectations about communicative language teaching (CLT) in post-secondary education in Bangladesh.

Kember,D. (2010). Opening up the road to nowhere: Problems with the path to mass higher education in Hong Kong .*Higher Education* 59: 167-79.

Kharkhurin, A. V.,& Wei, L. (2014). The role of code-switching in bilingual creativity. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 18 (2), 153-169.

Kim, S. H. O., & Elder, C. (2005). Language choices and pedagogic functions in the foreign language classroom: A cross-linguistic functional analysis of teacher talk. *Language Teaching Research*, 9(4), 355-380.

- Kramsch C. (1995). The privilege of the non-native speaker. Plenary address at the Annual TESOL Convention, April, Long Beach, California.
- Kramsch, C. (2006). The Multilingual Subject. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*. Vol.16 (1), 97-110.
- Kumaravadivelu, b. (2006). *Understanding Language Teaching: From Method to Postmethod*, Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). Techniques and principles in language teaching. 2nd. Ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Anderson, M. (2013). *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching 3rd edition-Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers*. Oxford university press.
- LeCompte, M. and Preissle, J. (1993) *Ethnography and Qualitative Design in Educational Research* (second edition). London: Academic Press.
- Lee, H. L. J. (2010). *Code switching in the Teaching of English as a second language to secondary school students* (Doctoral dissertation, Universiti Utara Malaysia).
- Lee, K. (2001). Three ESL teachers' reflections upon their beliefs toward communicative language teaching and classroom practices. A multiple case study. Unpublished PhD. Dissertation, University of Nebraska.
- Lee, J., & Van Patten, B. (2003). *Making Communicative Language Happen*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Lethaby, Carol (2006). Appropriating English in Mexico, *Mextesol Journal*, Vol. 30, No. 2, 51-58.
- Levine, G.S.(2003). Student and Instructor Beliefs and Attitudes about target Language Use, First Language Use, and Anxiety: Report of a questionnaire study. *The Modern Language Journal*. Vol. 87. No. 3, 343-364.
- Levine, G.S. (2011). *Code choice in the language classroom*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Liao, X. Q. (2000). "How CLT became acceptable in secondary schools in China?", *TESOL Journal*, Vol. 30, No. 3, 41-58.
- Liebscher , G.& Dailey O'Cain, J. (2005) "Learner code-switching in the Content Based Foreign Language Classroom", *The Modern Language Journal*, 89(2):234-247.
- Lin, A.M.Y & Martin, P: (2005). (Eds). *Decolonisation, globalization: Language-in-education policy and practice*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Lin, A.M.Y (2007). What the use of 'triadic dialogue'? : Activity theory, conversation analysis, and analysis of pedagogic practices. *Pedagogies: An international Journal*, 2(2), 77-94.

Lin, A. (2008). Code-switching in the classroom: Research paradigms and approaches. In K.A. King, & N.H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language Education*, 2nd ed., vol. 10: *Research methods in language and education* (pp. 273-286). New York: Springer.

Lincoln, Y.S. and Guba, E (1985). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Lindsay, Cora & Knight, Paul. (2006). *Learning and Teaching English: A course for teachers*. Oxford University Press.

Littlewood, W. (2007). Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. *Language Teaching* 40 (3), 243-249.

Long, M. H., & Sato, C. J, (1983). Classroom foreigner talk discourse: forms and functions of teacher's questions. In Seliger M. H. ,and Long M. H.(eds). *Classroom- oriented research in second language acquisition*. (pp. 268-285). Rowley, M.A: Newbury House.

Lynch, T. (1996). *Communication in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Macaro, E. (2001). Analysing student teachers' codeswitching in foreign language classrooms: Theories and decision making. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85(4), 531-548.

Macaro, E. (2005). Codeswitching in the L2 classroom: A communication and learning strategy. In *Non-native language teachers*, ed. E.Llurda, 63-84, New York: Springer.

Mangubhai, F, Marland,P., Dashwood, A. & Son, J.B. (2007). Framing communicative language teaching for better teacher understanding. *Issues in Educational Research*, 17(1), 85-106.

Markee, N. (2000). *Conversation Analysis*. Mahwah: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Markee, N. (2008). Toward a learning behavior tracking methodology for CA-for-SLA. *Applied Linguistics*, 29, 404-427

Martin, P. (1999a). Bilingual unpacking of monolingual texts in two primary schools in Brunei Darussalam. *Language and Education* Vol. 13, No. 1, pp. 35-38.

Martin, P. (1999b). Close encounters of a bilingual kind: International practices in the primary classroom in Brunei. *International Journal of Education Management*. Vol. 19, pp. 127-140.

Masats,D., & Unamuno, V.(2001). Constructing social identities and discourse through repair activities. In S. Foster- Cohen & a. Nizegorodcew (Eds.), *EUROSLA Yearbook 2000* (pp. 239-254). Amsterdam; John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Medgyes, P. (1990). Queries from a communicative teacher. In Rossner, R. And Bolitho, R. Currents of change in English language teaching. (pp103-109). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Meeuwis, Michael and Blommaert, Jan. (1994). "The "Markedness Model" and the absence of society: remarks on code-switching", *Multilingua* 13, 4, 387-423

Mehan, H. (1979). *Learning lessons*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Meiring, L.and N. Norman (2002). Back on Target: repositioning the status of the target language in MFL teaching, *Language Learning Journal* 26/1: 27-35.

Mesthrie, Rajend. (2009). *Introducing Sociolinguistics*. Edinburgh University Press.

Mezzadri, M,. (2003). *I ferri del mestiere* [The tools of trade].Perugia: Guerra Edizioni.

Moghadam, S. H., Samad, A. A., & Shahraki, E. R. (2012). Code switching as a medium of instruction in an EFL classroom. *Theory and practice in Language studies*, 2(11), 2219.

Moghadam, R. N., & Davoudi, M. (2016). The Relationship between Iranian EFL University Professors' Code Switching and their Characteristics such as Age, Gender and Educational Levels. *Journal of Studies in Education*, 6(1), 74-88.

Moore, P. (2012). Mexican National and International Policy on Second Languages (Principally English). *Lengua y Voz*, Año 3, Numero 1, Agosto, pp. 3-18

Morton, W. (1988). Methods in English language teaching. Frameworks and opinions. Prentice Hall International English Language Teaching. New York: Prentice Hall.

Mugford, G. (2011). Locally situated Foreign -language teaching: Promoting English language learning that reflects Mexican realities. *Memorias de las Jornadas de Lenguas en Contacto*. ISBN 978-607-7868-38-5

Mugford Fowler, G., 2015. *Duermes mucho Tony?: Usos interpersonales y transaccionales de la lengua materna en el aula de clase de lengua extranjera*. 1st ed. Guadalajara, México: Universidad de Guadalajara, México. ISSN 1657-0790.

Mugla, E. Ü., & Seedhouse, P. (2005). Why that, in that language, right now? Code switching and pedagogical focus. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 15(3), 302-325.

Mustapha, S.M. and, Yahaya, R.A. (2013). "Communicative language teaching (CLT) in Malaysian context: Its' implementation in selected community colleges," *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, vol. 90, pp. 788-794

Nassaji, H. & Wells, G. (2000). What's the use of "triadic dialogue?" An investigation of teacher-student interaction. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(3), 376-406.

Nekvapil, J. (2003) "Language biographies and the analysis of language situations: On the life of the German Community in the Czech Republic." *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* 162: 63-83

Noli Maishara, Nordin and Farrah Dieba, Rashid Ali and Sharifah Intan Safina, Syed Zubir and Roslan, Sadjirin (2013). *ESL Learners Reactions Towards Code Switching in Classroom Settings. Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 90. pp. 478-487. ISSN 1877-0428 (print); 1877-0428 (online)

Nguyen, L.V. (2010). Computer mediated collaborative learning within communicative language teaching approach: a sociocultural perspective. *Asian EFL Journal*, 12(1), 202-233.

Nizegorodcew, A. (2007). *Input for instructed L2 learners*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Nunan, David. (2003). *Practical English Language Teaching*. Macgraw-Hill Education.

Nunan, David. (2003). "The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region," *TESOL Quarterly*, vol. 37, no. 4, pp. 589-613, 2003.

Nussbaum, L. (1990). Plurilingualism in the foreign language classroom in Catalonia. Paper presented at European Scientific Network 3rd Workshop on Code-Switching and Language Contact: Impact and Consequences: *Broader Considerations*, November 22-24, in Brussels.

Nussbaum, L. & Unamuno, V. (2001). Sociolinguistique de la communication entre apprenants. In V. Castelloti (Ed.), *D'une lengua a de autres: Pratiques et representations* (pp. 59-80). Rouen: Publications de l'Université de Rouen.

Ohta, Amy. (2001). *Second Language Acquisition Processes in the classroom: Learning Japanese*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Ozemir, O. (2009). Three turn sequences in reading classroom discourse. *The British Association of Applied Linguistics*. Website: <http://baal.org.uk/proc09/ozemir.pdf>

Paradowski, M. B. (2007). Foreign-language grammar instruction via the mother tongue. In B. Frank, J. Darquennes, & R. Temmerman (Eds.), *Multilingualism and applied comparative linguistics, 1: Comparative considerations in second and foreign language instruction*. Newcastle-upon-Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Press

Parrish, B. (2004). *Teaching adult ESL. A practical introduction*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Pavlenko, A. (1998). "Second language learning by adults: Testimonies of bilingual writers. *Issues in Applied Linguistics* 9/1: 22/2

Pavlenko, A. and Lantolf, J.P. (2000) "Second language learning as participation and the (re)construction of selves", in J.P. Lantolf (ed.). *Sociocultural Theory and Second Language Learning*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pavlenko, A. (2003). "I never knew I was bilingual": Reimagining teacher identities in TESOL.' *Journal of Language. Identity and Education* 2/4: 251-68

Pavlenko, A. (2005). Bilingualism and thought. *Handbook of bilingualism: Psycholinguistic approaches*, 433-453.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Platt, Jennifer (1992) "Case Study' In American methodological thought", *Current sociology*, 40, 17-48.

PND, *Plan Nacional de Desarrollo 2007-2012*. (2007) México: Gobierno de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos, Presidencia de la Republica.

Probyn, M. (2009). 'Smuggling the vernacular into the classroom': conflicts and tensions in classroom codeswitching in township/rural schools in South Africa. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(2), 123-136.

Prodromou, L. (2002). From mother tongue to other tongue. Retrieved on April 15, 2009, from British Council/ British Broadcasting Corporation Web site: <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/frommother-tongue-other-tongue>

PSE, *Plan Sectorial de Educación 2007-2012*. (2007) México: Secretaria de Educación Pública.

Qing, X. U. (2010). To switch or not to switch: Examine the code-switching practices of teachers of non-English majors. *Canadian Social Science*, 6(4), 109-113.

Ramanathan, V. (1999). "English is here to stay: a critical look at institutional and educational practices in India", in *TESOL Quarterly*, 33, 2: 211-231.

Rampton, B. (2006). *Language in late modernity: Interaction in an urban school*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rashka,C, Peter Sercombe & Huang Chi-Ling (2009). Conflicts and tensions in codeswitching in a Taiwanese EFL classroom, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism.*, 12:2, 157-171.

RES, *Reforma Escolar Secundaria, Fundamentación curricular, Lengua Extranjera inglés*, Downloaded from: <http://www.Reformasecundaria.sep.gob.mx/doc/FUNDAMENTACIONES/INGLES.pdf>.

Reyes Cruz, M. del R., Murrieta Loyo, G. & Hernández Méndez, E. (2012). Políticas Lingüísticas nacionales e internacionales sobre la enseñanza del inglés en escuelas primarias. *Revista Pueblos y Fronteras digital* 6 (12) pp. 167-197.

Richards, J. (1986). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis*, Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.& Rodgers,T. (2014). *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J., & Rodgers, T. (2001). Frontmatter. *In Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (Cambridge Language Teaching Library, pp. I-IV). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2008). Second language teaching education today. *RELC Journal*, 39, 158-168.

Richards, Keith.(2003). *Qualitative Inquiry in TESOL*. Palgrave MacMillan.

Ritchie and T.K. Bhatia (eds.) *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*, San Diego: Academic Press.

Sacks, H. and Schegloff, E. and Jefferson, G. (1974). "A simplest systematic for the organization of turn-taking in conversation", *Language*, 50:696-735.

Sacks, H. (1984) On doing "being ordinary". In J. Atkinson and J. Heritage (eds.) *Structures of Social Action: Studies in Conversation Analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 413-29.

Sampson, A. (2011). 'Learner code-switching versus English only', *ELT Journal*, 66:293-302.

Sampson, A. (2012). Learner Code-Switching Versus English Only. *ELT Journal*. July, 2012

Savignon, S. J. (2001). Communicative language teaching for the twenty-first century. *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, 3, 13-28.

Schegloff, E. A. (2007). *Sequence organization in interaction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Sinclair, J. and Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of Discourse*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Seedhouse, P. (2004) *The interactional Architecture of the Second Language Classroom: A Conversational Analysis Perspective*, Oxford:Blackwell.
- Seedhouse, P. (1997). "The case of the missing "no": the relationship between pedagogy and interaction", *Language Learning*, 47:547-83.
- Seedhouse, P. (1996). Classroom interaction: possibilities and impossibilities. *ELT Journal*, 50(1), 16-24.
- Seedhouse, P. (2004) *The interactional architecture of the language classroom: A conversation analysis perspective*. Malden, MA: Blackwell
- Sert, O. (2005). The Functions of Code-Switching in ELT Classrooms. *Online Submission*, 11(8).
- Sinclair, J. and Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of Discourse*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Silverman, D. (1993). *Interpreting Qualitative Data*. London: Sage.
- Skiba, R. (1997). Code switching as a countenance of language interference. *The internet TESL journal*, 3(10), 1-6.
- Schiffin, Deborah. (1994). *Approaches to Discourse: Language as Social Interaction*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell
- Snowman, Jack, and Biehler, Robert Frederick (2000). *Psychology Applied to Teaching*. Houghton Mifflin.
- Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (2005). The evolving sociopolitical context of immersion education in Canada: Some implications for program development. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 15(2), 169-186.
- Swan, M. (1990). A critical look at the communicative approach. In Rossner, R. And Bolitho, R. *Currents of change in English language teaching*. (pp73-98). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Taha, T. A. (2008). Language alternation in university classrooms. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 35(4), 336-347.
- Ten Have, P. (2001). Applied conversation analysis. In A. McHoul & M. Rapley (Eds.). *How to analyse talk in institutional settings* (pp. 3-11). London, UK: Continuum.
- Ten Have, P. (2007). *Doing conversation analysis: A Practical guide* (2nd ed.). London. UK: Sage.
- Thombury, S. (1996). Teachers research teacher talk .*ELT Journal*, 50,279-289.

Thirumalai, M. S. (2002) An Introduction to TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages. *Language in India*, 2. <http://www.languageinindia.com/april2002/tesolbook.html>

Tsui, A.B.M. (2008). Classroom Discourse: Approaches and Perspectives. In J. Cenoz & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *The Encyclopaedia of Language and Education* (Vol. 6: Knowledge About Language, pp. 261-272). New York: Springer.

Tsui, A.B.M. (1995). *Introducing Classroom Interaction*. London: Penguin

Tsui, A.B.M. (1996). *Reticence and anxiety in second language learning*. Cambridge University press.

Turnbull, M., & Arnett, K. (2002). Teachers' uses of the Target and first languages in second and foreign language classrooms. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 22, 204.

Unamuno, V. (2000). Frente a frente: lenguas, diversidad y escuela. a: *Grenzgänge*, 7, 37-49.

Unamuno, V. (2008). Multilingual switch in peer classroom interaction. *Linguistics and Education* 19:1-19.

UNESCO, United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization. (2009). *Investing in Cultural Diversity and Intercultural Dialogue*. Paris. Downloaded from <http://UNESCO.org/images/0018/001847/184755E.pdf>

Üstünel, E., & Seedhouse, P. (2005). Why that, in that language, right now? Code-switching and pedagogical focus. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 15(3), 302-325.

Vasilopoulos, G. (2008). "Adapting communicative language instruction in Korean universities", in *The Internet TESOL Journal*, 14, 8: August, 2008.

Van Lier, L. (1988a) *The Classroom and the Language Learner*, London: Longman

Van Lier, L. (1991). Inside the classroom: learning processes and teaching procedures. *Applied Language Learning*, 2.1, 29-69.

Walsh, S. (2003). 'Developing Interactional Awareness in the second language classroom, *Language Awareness*, 12:124-142

Walsh, S. (2006). *Investigating Classroom Discourse*. Routledge Taylor and Francis Group: London and New York.

- Walsh, S. and Lowing, K. (2008). "Talking to learn or learning to talk: PGCE students' development of Interactional competence". Paper presented at the British Educational Research Association Conference, Herriot Watt University, Edinburgh.
- Walsh, S. (2011), *Exploring Classroom Discourse: Language in Action*, London: Routledge.
- Walsh, S., & Li, L. (2013). Conversations as space for learning. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 23(2), 247-266.
- Waring, H. Z. (2009). Moving out of IRF (initiation-response-feedback): a single case analysis', *Language Learning*, 59(4), 796-824.
- Wei, L. (2006). Complementary schools: Past, present and future. *Language and Education* 20, no. 1:76-83.
- Wei, L. (2011). "CLT in EFL context: not a universal medicine", in *IDIOM*, 41, 3: Fall 2011/ conversations.
- Wei, Li. (2002). What do you want me to say? On the conversation analysis approach to bilingual interaction. *Language in Society* 31: 159-80.
- Wei, Li. (2005). How can you tell? Towards a common sense interpretation of conversational code-switching. *Journal of Pragmatics* 37: 375-89.
- Weinstein,C., T. Acee, and J.Jung (2011). Self-regulation and learning strategies. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning* 126:45-53.
- Wells, G. (1999). *Dialogic Inquiry: Towards a Sociocultural Practice and Theory of education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wetherell, M. (2001a). *Debates in Discourse Research*. In M. Wetherell, S. Taylor & S. J. Yates (Eds.), *Discourse Theory and Practice - A Reader* (pp. 380–399). London: Sage.
- Wells,G., & Arauz,Rebecca, M. (2006). Dialogue in the classroom. *The Journal of the Learning Sciences*, 15(3), 379-428.
- Wenjie, C. (2009). "Using CLT to improve speaking ability of Chinese non-English major students", M.A.thesis, University of Wisconsin Platteville. Retrieved from <http://minds.wisconsin.edu/bitstream/handle> accessed on 18 September, 2011
- Widdowson. H. (1987). Aspects of syllabus design. In M. Tickoo (ed). *Language Syllabuses: State of the Art*. Singapore: Regional Language Centre.
- Widdowson, H. G. (2001). The monolingual teaching and bilingual learning of English. *New perspectives and issues in educational language policy: A festschrift for Bernard Dov Spolsky*, 7-18.

Xiao, Yihu, & Ju Zhang, Lawrence. (2014). Language learning strategies, Motivation, and EFL proficiency: A study of Chinese level tertiary-level Non English majors, *Asian Englishes*, (9) 20-47.

Yao, M. (2011). On attitudes to teachers' code-switching in EFL classes. *World journal of English language*, 1(1), 19.

Zentella, C.A. 1997. *Growing up bilingual*. London: Blackwell.

Appendix 1 Descriptive field notes from observations

Overview of Lesson 1: “What should I wear?”

Date: April 1st, 2014

Time: 8:00- 8:50 A.M.

1. Greeting by the teacher: I arrive to the classroom five minutes before 8:00 A.M. and there are at least eight students already there. I say Good Morning and go to the back of the class and sit. Ricardo walks in a few minutes later and greets me with a wave, but does not say anything to the class. The students that are there are curious, but do not ask who I am. More students continue to walk in, it is quite a big group (24 in total).

Saturday classes usually have a high number of students since both students from the university and students from the local community go because it is easier for them to study five hours straight, than various times during the week. The student population was made up of 8 (*Informal students*), 16 (*Formal students*) and their ages ranging from 17- 25 years old. Ricardo is organizing his things to begin his class and there are several students talking around the room. He tells them to settle down since they are about to begin class. The class time observed was dedicated to reviewing vocabulary related to clothing and setting –up an exercise for the students to carry out in class.

2. Warm-up: 3. Introducing the Topic: Once the warm-up took place, (Ricardo asks how they are and how their week was). Ricardo starts by mentioning that they are going to begin class with reviewing homework from the past week that was assigned on Saturday. He directs them to open their textbooks and go to the page(s) for their review. He tells them that he wants to carry-out this activity as a whole class, but wants them to form groups of three. He starts setting up the “check homework” sequence. The students seem to be motivated by what they are about to do in class creating a nice atmosphere. This takes him about 7 minutes.

4. Main lesson content-Grammar exercise: Once Ricardo sets up this sequence, the students start working on checking their homework. The objective of the exercise again, is for students to compare their answers and then continue as a whole group. He gives the students space to organize in groups he does not intervene whatsoever. The teacher is standing in front of the classroom, since the whole group activity is being led by him. He eventually starts to walk around as the exercise progresses. They focus on two different exercises from their textbooks. In short, from a pedagogical

perspective, he is providing vocabulary practice around a piece of material. This routine activity in many classrooms is checking homework, this is no different. This activity takes him about 22 min.

What I observe is that Ricardo follows a strict IRF sequence; he controls much of the interaction. This is expected since the business of the interaction is setting up the activities. Extended teacher turns and reduced learner interventions are expected as well.

6. Whole class activity: Once the flow of the interaction was going, Ricardo asks if they are ready to continue with the last part of the exercise which is for them to share their answers as a whole group. There is a lot of noise as students are sharing their answers and trying to organize. Once the flow of the task is going, he invites students to participate, breaking this “strict” three part exchange. In some instances, he even nominates certain students to provide answers, what is noteworthy is that he is very sensitive to students’ gestures and non-verbal participations. As he nominates students for a turn, he notices if they are puzzled, or did not understand. This particular aspect of his teaching caught my attention; since not many teachers I know are not that receptive to students in their classes. The rest of this sequence continued with nominating certain students for answers and him providing the correct answers for the exercise. Unfortunately, there was no space for learners to self-select as this particular task revolved around the textbook (practice around a piece of material). This activity lasted about 18 min. approximately. Once this was done, Ricardo finalizes this part of the first class by congratulating them on a job well done as their answers were all somewhat correct. The students smile at each other and Ricardo indicates that they are going to work in pairs to look at a textbook exercise (pictures of clothing) and match them with the appropriate description. The students get up and sit next with their partner of choice. This task took them about 10 min. Again, Ricardo did not assign any particular pair to work together; they had the freedom to choose a partner.

Overview of Lesson 2: “Cleaning Habits”

Date: April 8th, 2014

Time: 8:00- 8:50 A.M.

1. Greeting by the teacher: Again, I am observing a similar scenario to Ricardo’s as this is a Saturday class. I am observing the first hour of class time to not interrupt the flow of the class. Even though students take their break at 10:00 a.m., I want to be the less intrusive as possible. I arrive to the classroom five minutes before class time as usual, and there are at least three students and the teacher already there. I say Good Morning and go to the back of the class and sit. Manuela greets me with a wave. The students just look at me, but say nothing. As opposed to Ricardo’s group which is quite large, Manuela’s group is not. There are only nine students and they all belong to the *Formal* community. Since the students seemed curious of whom I was, [Manuela](#) introduced me to them and stated what my role was in the classroom. They seemed much interested in what I did. They smiled and then guided their attention to the teacher. Their ages ranged from 18- 22 years old.. Manuela says Good Morning and begins to take out her portfolio to take her things out. The students are talking as she is doing this. She tells them nothing to settle down. What caught my attention is that she did not get up from her desk; she just sat there behind her desk. She started her class sitting down. . The class time observed was dedicated to reviewing vocabulary related to cleaning habits. She tells them that for today’s lesson they are going to begin with an exercise in their textbooks related to cleaning a room and housekeeping in a hotel. She tells them to open their textbooks. She is basically setting –up the task to get the classroom interaction going. This approximately takes about 8 min. to do.

2. Warm-up: 3. Introducing the Topic: Once the warm-up took place, Ricardo asks how they are, students in general answer that they are doing o.k. It seems that they do not care to elaborate. They chit-chat a bit about their week but are waiting for Manuela to continue with the class. As in the previous section, Manuela sets-up the task to carry-out.

She seems to have no sequence in mind, (whole-class or pair-work), so she decides and begins to do this as a whole class activity.

4. Main lesson content-Grammar exercise as a whole class activity:

Ricardo opens the sequence; asking and the students answering following a somewhat tight question-and answer sequence. This is expected since it is a goal-oriented

activity. Even though Manuela does open the floor and nominates some students to answer, they seem reluctant to do so. Ricardo creates the space for students to self-select and interact with longer contributions; learners seem hesitant to expand on them. Both display and referential questions were asked to either test or promote discussion, unfortunately the later was not fulfilled. Students seem to be in a monotonous rut. Just back and forth question-and-answer sequence is being displayed. This activity takes about 24 min. of class time.

They focus on the exercise from their textbooks; again providing vocabulary practice around a piece of material. In short, Ricardo blends the main lesson- content grammar exercise with the whole class activity as she controls the interaction as it is typical since it revolves around a piece of material, in this case the use of a textbook in where the exercise revolves around vocabulary practice. Though there is interactional space, this is limited by the task as the students restrained on elaborating on their answers.

I was particularly drawn to the fact of the lack of movement on Ricardo's behalf. The whole time I observed her, she just sat behind the desk and there seemed to be no indication that she wanted to go around and interact with the students. Even though she wanted students to interact and gave them the space to do so, they restrained from doing so. I am not saying by any means that teachers that do not move are not interactive; it just seems monotonous on her behalf. Both of these stages of the lesson took about an extra 15 min, as she checked student's answers. She finalized this exercise and then gave instructions to open their workbooks and focus on a listening exercise.

Overview of Lesson 3: “Cappuccino and Fries” Class Time: 54 min.

Date: March 5th, 2014

Time: 4:00-5:00 P.M.

1. Greetings by the teacher: The teacher in this sense greets the class warmly; she jokes around talking a little bit about her day. The students seem to be at ease with the teacher, it is a nice classroom atmosphere. They seem to be curious about my presence; I sit in the back of the classroom so I will not disrupt the class. The teacher introduces me as a colleague carrying out a research project; I can see that they are still curious, but the teacher does not address anything else. The classroom is in rows, a “traditional” classroom in Mexico. There are approximately...rows and the teacher is standing in front of the classroom. This takes about three minutes. She does this completely in English.

2. Warm-up (Chit-chat): Immediately after the teacher greets the students, she jumps into the warm-up activity. She asks the students if they like to eat and what they like to eat. The learners all start to talk at once, self-selecting to comment on the type of food they enjoy eating. The answers are diverse from pizza, carne asada tacos, to different types of desserts, Japanese, and Chinese food and of course a variety of Mexican food. This seems to be a nice “warm-up” activity since it eases nicely into the next activity which is working in their course books. This warm-up takes the teacher about 10 minutes. The students seem to enjoy this unit on food since they cannot stop chatting about it and they keep giving examples of all the food they enjoy. At this point, the teacher jokes saying that she just became very hungry with all the delicious food they continue to mention. The transition between the warm-up and the next activity is easy since the teacher uses transition markers to signal a shift or change in the classroom dynamics. The teacher carries out this activity in L2, there are only two instances where the students ask her how to say a certain dish or food in Spanish, evidence of code-switching practices in this classroom. The teacher emphasizes L2 use by giving descriptions of a vocabulary word or even giving synonyms of the absent lexical item. She really goes out of her way to use L1 as little as possible and tries to maximize each learning opportunity for the students.

3. Introducing the topic: The teacher states that they will now begin to work in their course books and that they should open to page....The students do as they are told as I can see that since they are seated in rows; they talk to the person next to them. They seem to always be talking; the noise level of the classroom is quite high, the teacher tells them to lower their voices. I think she does this since she cannot prohibit the students to not talk as they are shifting or changing their classroom tasks. The students are talking in L1 and she constantly keeps telling them to use L2. This introduction to the topic takes about 4 minutes.

4. Main lesson content: Once the teacher introduces the topic, the main lesson content is explained. In this class, the grammatical aspect to be taught is the Simple present; there are also verb phrases and Irregular Plurals as well as consonant sounds and the third person-s. In this particular case; the students’ book was utilized by students for classroom practice. The use of visual aids or any other material was utilized to complement the textbook. In this particular case, Fabiola is looking around the room to see if everybody understood. She pays close attention to their faces as if there is any indication of any misunderstanding of what she

had just instructed. Once she establishes the fact that everybody was on the same page, she continued with indicating the learners they were to get into pairs to continue with their task. There is a lot of noise since the students are deciding who is going to work with who. Fabiola does assign them to work with anyone in particular. Many of the students decide to work with the person next to them since they are seated in rows and maybe the fact that is much comfortable than moving around. The teacher presentation and the pair work organization take 20minutes. The class atmosphere is relaxed and the students seem to be enjoying their classroom tasks.

5. Exercise Pair-work: Once the lesson content is explained, the students begin to work in pairs, the teacher walks around the room to see how they are coming along and see if they have any questions. As the teacher monitors she comes across a pair (Omar and friend) who are working out the task in L1. Fabiola automatically looks at them with a smile and gesturing at the same time that they had been caught in the act. Omar and his classmate just smile but it seems that they are somewhat embarrassed by they had been discovered. This pair was sitting in the back of the classroom. I can hear the students that are near me working out some parts of the task in L1, they seem to struggle with some irregular verbs and the absence of lexical items stemming from the task. Fabiola keeps monitoring, walking around the classroom to see how everybody is doing. It is somewhat funny to note that when she approaches the different pairs around the class; they seem to get uptight and a little nervous maybe indicating that they were talking in L1; a practice that Fabiola seems not to agree with. As she walks around there are different questions from the students, regarding how they say certain words in L2. There are five questions from different students and a whole class intervention. This particular teacher practice was interesting to note that every time a student asked a question regarding a vocabulary word, she would provide it instead of maybe asking them to look it up in the dictionary. The students that were next to me did not have a dictionary on their desks. It is also interesting to note that Fabiola did not try, at least in this observation; to use other resources like mimicking or providing a synonym of the word in question. She just gave the word to the students. Even though the absence of the lexical item was regarding food, she might have done something differently instead of just providing the word that easily to the learner. She seemed to be acting as a sort of “walking dictionary” in the classroom. I hope some that some of these classroom practices carried out by Fabiola can be further described and justified through the interview. This classroom task took approximately 25 minutes.

She looks around the classroom to the pairs that are finishing up; she looks at her watch and asks the whole class if they are finished. The whole class answers that they are done. She then proceeds by saying what they answers that....”Let’s see what you got....give me examples of salads”..... She calls upon Eduardo who sees to fidgeting in his seat and catches Fabiola’s eye.

6. Wrap-up by the teacher: At this moment, she looks at her watch again and says that they are going to take a 10 min. break and once they come back they will continue where they left off.

Overview of Lesson 4: “American vs. British English”

Date: March, 19th 2014

Time: 7:00- 7:50 A.M.

1. Greeting by the teacher: I arrive to the classroom five minutes before 7:00 A.M. and there are four students already there. I say Good Morning and go to the back of the class and sit. The classroom lay-out is in rows. The students look curious about what it is I am doing there. Julian walks in almost right after me. He leaves his portfolio on the desk and immediately walks to the center of the classroom to greet the students. He says Good Morning and the four students respond. He has a nice personality and for a class so early in the morning he is very cheerful. He says he will get his things out to start the class and mentions that he hopes all the other will arrive soon. He establishes a nice rapport with the students present. The students are chatting amongst themselves in L1 quietly as Julian is gathering his things as he gets ready to start class. He knows I am there and comes to greet me to the back of the class and asks me if it is ok if he introduces me. I say it is fine. He turns around and introduces me as a colleague carrying out a research project and they say Hi! They look curiously over at me somewhat puzzled as what it is I actually doing there.

2. Warm-up: Once he Julian opens his textbook, he begins by asking students if they have ever moved to another place, maybe in the same state or country, or maybe to another country. They all answer at the same time, but there are only two of the four students present that have moved. One to Mexicali, the capital of the state of Baja California and the other from Argentina to Mexico. As the students are answering, four more students arrive and disrupt the class. The teacher says Good Morning as the students find a place to sit. Julian mentions that he has moved twice and one was to study a year and a half in the U.S. in high school. He mentions that he really missed his friends and mentions his “palomilla”, and the word “batos” as his groups of friends in Ensenada. He states that even though he did make new friends in the exchange program he still missed his friends. One student mentioned that had happened when he moved to Mexicali, but still had a nice experience. The other student mentioned that he moved from Argentina to Mexico because he was offered good job at one of the production plants here in Mexico and that he has really enjoyed living here in Baja since 2013. He mentioned there was some sort of culture shock but that Mexican food makes up for that. Everybody laughs. Julian says that they are going to continue with class. Two more students come into class and they try not to disrupt the class as they find seats.

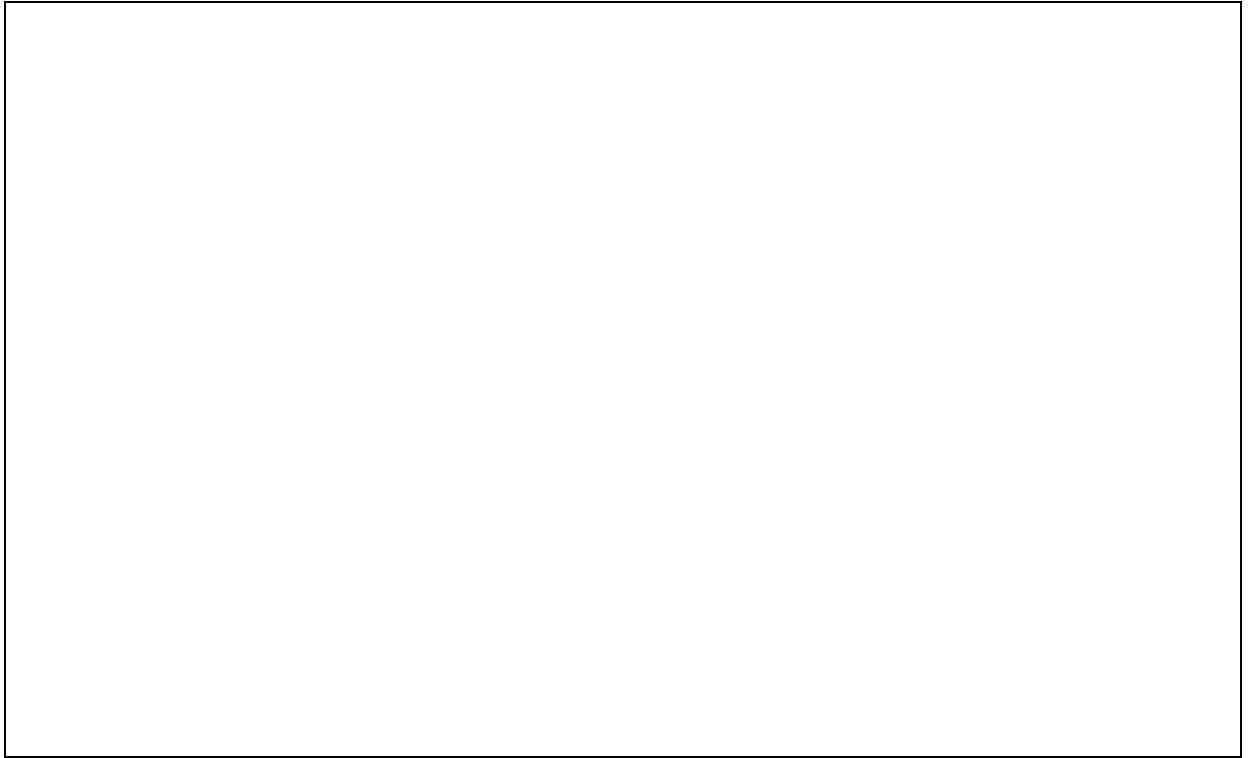
This warm-up activity takes up quite a lot of time; 17 minutes. This was all done in L2. There were two student interventions then a whole class intervention.

3. Introducing the Topic: Once the warm-up took place, Julian mentions that he will be dictating vocabulary words (American and English words) from the textbook and that they will check their answers in pairs once they are finished with the activity. He writes the vocabulary words on the whiteboard which they will fill out and compare in pairs later. The students seem to be motivated by what they are about to do in class creating a nice atmosphere. This takes him 10 minutes.

4. Main lesson content-Grammar exercise: The teacher is standing in front of the classroom, since the whole group activity is being led by him. Julian starts to dictate the words and the students are writing down the words. There are some giggles from two girls on the other side of the classroom. Julian turns to them but says nothing and continues dictating. Once he finishes he asks them if they understand the words. There are some questions from the students regarding the words. One student asks what “sneakers” are and Julian gives examples. The student does entirely comprehend what he is saying so Julian gives example and a synonym so he will understand. He even looks around the class to find a student with tennis shoes to highlight the point; he finds a female student with white Converse tennis shoes and points to them and says: “tennis shoes”. The student asking the question smiles and says to Julian that he understands.

Julian now says that they are going to check their answers and does so by using the word ...”now” which indicates a shift in the classroom dynamics. What is interesting to note is the fact that Julian used all his resources to make the student(s) understand the absence of the vocabulary word; providing a synonym and even looking for someone with tennis shoes in class to address the issue. He really went out of his way to not recur to L1. Julian did not become a “walking dictionary” as observed in other classes. This task takes about 14 minutes.

6. Whole class activity: Once the questions were answered, Julian asks the students if they are ready to match their answers. The students state that they are ready and Julian is set to write their contributions on the white board. The students self-select to provide the answers. Once this is done, Julian checks their answers, which apparently were correct. He finalizes this part of the first class by congratulating them on a job well done. The students smile at each other. This activity takes around 10 minutes to carry out.



Appendix 2

Entrevista semi-estructurada:

Esta entrevista semi-estructurada se llevara a cabo para indagar acerca de ciertas cuestiones en cuanto a su práctica docente y cuestiones más específicas de tu trayectoria académica. (e.g., tales como la interacción, negociar el significado y las estrategias multilingües).

- 1. A que te dedicas?*
- 2. Desde hace cuanto tiempo laboras en la Facultad de Idiomas?*
- 3. Que te gusta de tu trabajo? Cuáles son los retos de tu trabajo?*
- 4. Qué tipo de entrenamiento pedagógico has tenido?*
- 5. Qué tipo de rol (es) asumes dentro del aula?*
- 6. Como consideras la cantidad que hablas dentro de la clase?*
- 7. Como te sientes al iniciar la interacción con tus alumnos?*
- 8. Haces preguntas dentro de tu clase?*
- 9. Crees que brindas las suficientes oportunidades a tus alumnos para hacer preguntas?*
- 10. Que rol ha jugado el español u otros idiomas dentro del aula? La utilizan? Como? Tus alumnos la utilizan? Como?*

11. Crees que hay suficiente interacción entre tus alumnos y tú?

12. Que podrías decir acerca de tu práctica docente en general?

Semi-structured Interview:

A semi-structured interview will be carried out in order to provide a general scope on your teaching background as well as certain aspects of your teaching practice (e.g., such as interaction, negotiation of meaning, and multilingual strategies).

1. What do you do?
2. How long have you been teaching at the Language Center?
3. What do you like about your job? What are the challenges of your job?
4. What kind of teacher training have you done?
5. What kind of role do you take in class?
6. How do you consider your teacher talking time?
7. How do you feel in initiating interaction with your students?
8. Do you ask questions in the classroom?
9. Do you provide students the opportunity to ask questions?
10. What role has Spanish or other languages played in your classroom? Do you use it? How? Do students use it? How?
11. Do you feel there is interaction between you and your students?
12. How do you consider your teaching overall?

Appendix 3



CONSENT FORM

Study title: "Contesting monolingual policies in the multilingual classroom: the case study of a North-Western Mexican university"

Researcher name: Tatiana Estefania Galvan de la Fuente

Staff/Student number: 2321394

ERGO reference number: 8348

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet (*Version 1, February 2014*) and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.

Name of participant (print name).....

Signature of participant.....

Date.....

Appendix 4

Universidad Autonoma de Baja California

Centro de Idiomas- Facultad de Idiomas

Informed Consent Form: Participation in Research Study

Participation Information

Date: January 14th, 2014.

Study Title: **“Contesting Monolingual Policies in the Multilingual classroom: the case of a North-western Mexican university**

Researcher name: Tatiana Estefania Galvan de la Fuente

Staff/ Student Number: 2321394

ERGO reference number: 8348

We are kindly requesting your participation in a research study for a Ph.D Programme which aims to explore the nature of classroom interaction, specifically negotiation of meaning and a focus on bilingual teachers' strategies and the roles they are assuming within an EFL context. Observations will be done to bilingual teachers at the language centre of the University Baja California, as the purpose is to inquire what roles they are assuming within the EFL classroom in terms of negotiation of meaning situation between teacher-student and student-student. Audio recordings of teacher observations will be transcribed and later analysed in order to see the patterns of interaction present. Interviews will also be carried out in order to explore their perceptions of the nature of teacher roles and negotiation of meaning.

This research study is expected to take place from the end of February 2014 to the end of December 2014. There are no known risks to participating in this study. Any information collected will be anonymous and confidential and it will be used only for the purpose of this study. No identifying information will be used in any written or oral reports.

Your participation and contributions will be vital importance to identify the nature of classroom interaction, specifically negotiation of meaning and a focus on bilingual teachers' strategies and the roles they are assuming within an EFL context in a Mexican University and we thank you for accepting to be part of this project.

Statement of Consent

I have read and understood the information about this study. In consenting, I understand that my legal rights are not affected. I also understand that data collected as part of this research will be kept confidential and that published results will maintain that confidentiality. I finally understand that if I have any questions about my rights as a participant in this research, or if I feel that I have been placed at risk, I may contact the Administrator of the Ethics Committee, Humanities, University of Southampton, SO17 1BJ, UK. Phone: +44 (0)23 8059 4663, Email: I.Ghose@soton.ac.uk.

I certify that I am 16 years or older, and that I have read the above consent form and I give consent to participate in the above described research.

Please initial the box(es) if you agree with the statement(s):

I have read and understood the information sheet (insert date /version no. of participant information sheet) and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the study.

I agree to take part in this research project and agree for my data to be used for the purpose of this study.

I understand my participation is voluntary and I may withdraw at any time without my legal rights being affected.

Data Protection

I understand that information collected about me during my participation in this study will be stored on a password protected computer and that this information will only be used for the purpose of this study. All files containing any personal data will be made anonymous.

Name of participant (print name).....

Signature of participant

.....

Date

Appendix 5: Transcription Conventions

3.2	Interval between utterances in seconds
(.)	Very short untimed pause
<u>word</u>	Speaker emphasis
E:r the:::	Lengthening of the preceding sound
-	Abrupt cutoff
?	Rising intonation, not necessarily a question
!	Animated or emphatic tone
Additional symbols	
Ja ((tr.:yes))	Non-English words are italicized and are followed by an English translation in double parentheses
T:	Teacher
L:	Unidentified learner
Li:	Identified learner
LL:	Several or all learners simultaneously
[Point of overlap onset
]	Point of overlap termination
< >	Talk surrounded by angle is produced slowly and deliberately(typical of teachers modeling forms)
><	Talk surrounded by reversed angle brackets is produce more quickly than neighboring talk
()	A stretch of unclear or unintelligible speech