CODE-SWITCHING: BILINGUAL INCOMPETENCE OR EFFECTIVE

COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGY?

LEONG KWAN YI

A RESEARCH PROJECT
SUBMITTED IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR
THE BACHELOR OF ARTS (HONS) ENGLISH LANGUAGE
FACULTY OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCE
UNIVERSITI TUNKU ABDUL RAHMAN

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LEONG KWAN YI

Approval Form

This research paper attached hereto, entitled "Code-switching: Bilingual Incompetence or Effective Communicative Strategy?" prepared and submitted by Leong Kwan Yi in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Bachelor of Arts (Hons) English Language is hereby accepted.

_____   Date: _____
Supervisor
Mr. Krishnan a/l Vengidasamy

Abstract

Like other multilingual contexts, code-switching has become a recognised norm in the verbal interaction of Malaysian bilingual speakers. There have been a plethora of studies published on the reasons for code-switching. Of late, contemporary studies have generally attributed code-switching to social and stylistic aspects. In spite of that, little seemed to discuss the traditional view of idealised bilingualism which suggested that code-switching is used to compensate for bilingual incompetence. This study examines the most preferred reason for code-switching by exploring both the traditional and contemporary aspects among bilingual English Language undergraduates in Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman. Using a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods, the data is obtained through a questionnaire and interviews with selected participants. The findings presented here also incorporate details such as the respondents' linguistic repertoire and their attitudes towards code-switching. But mainly, it shows that the most preferred reasons for code-switching is not proficiency-based but ultimately, socially and stylistically motivated.

Declaration

I declare that the material contained in this paper is the end result of my own work and that due acknowledgement has been given in the bibliography and references to ALL sources be they printed, electronic or personal.

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviations		Meaning
1	UTAR	Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman
2	HPL	Higher proficiency language
3	LPL	Lower proficiency language
4	L1	First language
5	L2	Second language
6	MFL	More frequent language
7	SFL	Second-most frequent language

Chapter 1

Introduction

Introduction

A code, or sometimes known as variety, refers to any combination of linguistic forms shaped by social factors (Holmes, 2008). In simple terms, it refers to the language used in a specific context or social situation. Therefore, Holmes asserted that the term 'code' has generally been used to indicate any accent, linguistic style, dialect or language used in a social situation.

Like the polysemous nature of the term 'code', it is also usual for a speaker to be attached to more than one language. It is known as bilingualism or multilingualism, a norm in many parts of the world where speakers are able to speak in several varieties of any language, in this case, two or more varieties (Wardhaugh, 2006). With the grasp of several codes in their linguistic repertoire, one has to select a particular code whenever they speak (Ibid.). Sometimes, when a language is not used exclusively, a speaker might choose to switch from one code to another when speaking – a process known as code-switching.

In multilingual Malaysia, Malaysians engage in code-switching on an almost day-to-day basis. With the exception of monolinguals, most Malaysian youths are at least bilingual with a wide range of languages at their disposal. It is often attributed to the evolution of education and language policies over the years (David, 2007). David also claimed that this unique ability to mix languages such as Malay, Chinese, English and Tamil makes it possible for Malaysian youths to have an additional "innovative communicative strategy" (p. 3).

Initially, code-switching was not recognised as an object of serious study. Even if it had been observed, earlier studies of language contact generally treated code-switching as an 'interference' phenomenon (Myers-Scotton, 1993). This is to say that code-switching was perceived as part of the performance of an incompetent bilingual, caused by an "inability to carry on a conversation in the language on the floor at the moment" (p. 48).

This imperfect bilingual ability was once termed, 'semilingualism' to characterise bilinguals with incomplete linguistic skills in either of their languages (Romaine, 2000). However, it was rejected as a shallow and rigid sense of bilingualism. In fact, it has been criticised as a "half-baked theory of communicative competence" by Martin-Jones and Romaine (1987). After semilingualism, there have been no substantial studies that remotely correlate code-switching with bilingual incompetence.

Finally in the 1970s, code-switching garnered the attention of linguists. Many attempted to uncover the underlying causes for code-switching. Myers-Scotton (1997) claimed that an overview of code-switching works in the mid 1990s can offer a "rich characterisation of code-switching itself" and is especially necessary because "outside the community of code-switching researchers, some still assume that the main reason for code-switching is lack of sufficient proficiency to go on in the opening language" (p. 217).

To counter such an assumption, a large number of subsequent studies and current literature presents code-switching as a means to convey social meanings (Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Gal, 1979; Myers-Scotton, 1993). Such meanings are not simply perceived from the surface structure of an utterance, but rather, drawn through implicit social meanings embedded in the languages used. Thus, it conveys subtle messages that

influence social relationships between the speaker and the interlocutor. On the other hand, some studies also discuss code-switching in terms of stylistic effects, that is, to indicate conversational acts such as requests, denials, topic shifts, elaborations or comments, validations, or clarifications (Gumperz, 1982; Heller, 1988).

Later, Holmes (2008) synthesised both social motivations and stylistic reasons for code-switching into three categories, which include switching according to: (1) participants, solidarity and status; (2) topic; and (3) switching for affective functions. She believed that in any situation, linguistic choices will be influenced by factors such as participants, setting or social context of the interaction, topic and function of the interaction.

While the contemporary reasons for code-switching (social motivation and stylistic effect) have been highly established by many authors and researchers alike, significant research on the traditional reason for code-switching (bilingual incompetence) is especially scarce. Linguists have managed to deliberately dismiss the traditional reason for code-switching altogether in return for more visionary and logical arguments to justify the phenomenon.

Statement of Problem

There is an unorthodox view from the past that code-switching is used to compensate for bilingual incompetence, that is, code-switching occurs because of unequal linguistic skills in both languages. In an attempt to concretise this idea of bilingual competence, some linguists came up with the theory of 'semilingualism', much to their counterpart's chagrin. Soon, it was largely dismissed by their peers. Likewise, the

traditional notion of code-switching suffered the same fate and is dismissed as an unsound and shallow argument.

In the meantime, linguists began to identify the underlying reasons for code-switching, diverging as far as possible from the traditional notion. Eventually, they concluded that engaging in code-switching meant embedding social meaning in verbal interaction and indicating a style in verbal interaction. Unlike its predecessor, this ground has been firmly established and widely used in the linguistic field.

However, due to the invalidity of researches supporting the traditional view, or lack thereof, it is equally important to establish the validity of this notion once and for all, even if it means debunking a baseless myth. It may not be as absurd and illogical a theory as it is said to be. Code-switching may be a product of bilingual incompetence after all.

By looking at code-switching from two aspects – the traditional sense and contemporary sense – the study poses as an inquiry to determine the most preferred reason behind code-switching. It may provide a reinterpretation of the nature of code-switching, so to speak. To do so, it is important to involve the respondent's objective self-evaluation on this matter.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study is to discover if code-switching is used to compensate for bilingual incompetence or to indicate effective communicative strategies. Here, the former will indicate that the respondents: (a) code-switch to a language A to improve their competency in language A, or (b) code-switch to language B because of an inability to continue speaking in language A. On the other hand, the latter will reinforce

the established idea that the respondents code-switch according to Holmes' (2008) social and stylistic reasons.

Besides the main purpose, the study also aims to examine the respondents' linguistic repertoire and their attitudes towards code-switching in order to attain a clearer picture of their code-switching habits.

Significance of the Study

The study is important to help refine our current understanding of code-switching. It will contribute a consideration of an alternative reason for code-switching to the linguistic field, reviving and reinterpreting a traditional notion. Otherwise, it will reinforce an already established concept in code-switching. Besides, the study will help future researchers to identify bilingual competence as an important factor not only in code-switching, but in any linguistic activity. All in all, this study will attempt to redefine the nature of code-switching.

Research Questions

1. What is the respondents' linguistic repertoire?

2. Do the respondents code-switch more often from the low proficiency language to the high proficiency language or vice versa?

3. Do the respondents code-switch to make up for bilingual incompetence or to indicate effective communicative strategies?

4. What are the respondents' attitudes towards code-switching?

Definition of Keywords

Code-switching. The phenomenon where a bilingual speaker alternates between two languages in their speech. The switch in language can occur on a word, phrasal or sentence level; within a single utterance or between utterances.

Bilingual. A person who speaks two different languages, usually with different levels of proficiency between the languages.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Bilingualism

What is bilingualism? Simply by observing the literature, one will notice that the word "bilingual" differs from person to person. To some, like American linguist Leonard Bloomfield (1933), bilingualism means "native-like control of two languages", often referred to by other writers as "true bilingualism" (as cited by Saunders, 1988, p. 7). Christopher Thiéry (1976) then refined the meaning of a "true bilingual" as a person who can be approved as a native speaker by the native speakers of the two languages concerned, as if to function as two monolinguals (Ibid.).

A study by Haugen (1973) as cited in Clyne (1997) suggested that "normative" definitions of bilingualism which require bilinguals to have "equal competence in both languages, acquire them simultaneously, or use them in the same contexts" were unrealistic (p. 301). As a result, definitions now tend to be more general.

Therefore, it stands to reason that contemporary sociolinguists began settling on a more neutral and minimalistic approach, defining a bilingual as a person who has some functional ability in a second language (Spolsky, 1998) or, people who use two languages habitually (Clyne, 1997). Saunders (1988) too, finally settled with the notion that bilingualism simply meant having two languages – the most fundamental and universally accepted definition of the term.

Rather than settling with a definitive meaning of bilingualism, Spolsky (1998) asserted that there are some crucial features to describe the nature of an individual's bilingualism. The first element was to identify each of the languages. It was important to

distinguish which variety (dialect) is involved. The second is to determine the method each language is acquired. Depending on the method of acquisition, bilinguals do not necessarily have equal abilities in each language.

Another useful way to describe a bilingual's language use is by domains rather than functions. As Spolsky (1998) stated, a domain is a "cluster consisting of a location, a set of role-relationships, and a set of topics" (pp. 46-47). A bilingual is likely to assign a preferred language to a particular domain. For example, in a home domain, family members will habitually discuss domestic or personal topics in a particular language, like the mother tongue.

Bilingual competence. A bilingual's degree of bilingualism in each language can be assessed in four skills: listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension, and writing (Saunders, 1988). While it is important to know that there are many possible combinations of these skills in one's language, it is also important to distinguish the different levels of ability in each of the skills (Ibid.). For example, a Malaysian Chinese bilingual child may possess all four skills in the English language, a language used in school and daily interaction but he may only be able to comprehend the spoken form of their parents' mother tongue, Chinese and barely be able to speak it. Mari Haas (1953) as cited by Saunders (1988) categorised such children as "receiving bilinguals", a person who understands two languages but who can speak only one.

There is a ubiquitous issue to describe how competent a person has to be in order to be classified as a bilingual. Haugen (1953) suggested that bilingualism began when a speaker of a language is able to "produce complete, meaningful utterances in the other language" (as cited in Saunders, 1988, p. 8). Alternatively, linguists the likes of

Bloomfield and Thiéry digressed from this notion. So, it suffices to say that the degree of bilingualism can be likened to a range along a continuum, from a minimalist standpoint which marks the beginning of bilingualism, in which very minimal skills are present in the second language, to the maximalist standpoint of near-perfect mastery in both languages like that of an equilingual (Baeten Beardsmore, 1982).

Still, some sociolinguists deemed the issue of what constitutes the proficiency and degree of bilingualism relatively vague. Romaine (1995) deduced that it is impossible to specify what competence or skill a 'complete' bilingual should have. Since the notion of balanced bilingualism is ideal, if complete bilingualism doesn't exist, then all bilinguals are semilingual to a certain extent. Hence, the bilingual's unequal distribution in competency level simply suggested that the languages have to compete for use in different domains.

Semilingualism. The emergence of semilingualism is said to have derived from a comparison to an idealised notion of full competence in a language. This is because people tended to equate the ability of a bilingual speaker to that of two monolingual native speakers. Though, it is often criticised as a rather traditional and narrow sense of bilingualism (Romaine, 2000).

The term 'semilingualism' has been used by some researchers to describe bilinguals who possess "incomplete linguistic skills" (Romaine, 2000). More specifically, Cunningham-Andersson and Andersson (1999) defined the term as referring to individuals, usually second generation immigrants, who lacked native-like competence in either of their languages. They also suggested that an imbalance in the competency of a bilingual's languages is common. When one of the two languages is of a minority

language, it generally receives less exposure than the dominant language. It is simply a matter of receiving more input to improve the language proficiency. They do not necessarily need to be labeled as a 'semilingual'.

Kärchner-Ober's (2007) study in Malaysia included some reports on semilingualism in the country (as cited by Hufeisen & Jessner. 2009). She reported that her learners in Malaysia had difficulties in applying previous language learning knowledge to the new language. It was not part of her student's learning habit. She later found out that it was caused by the under developed proficiency levels of the languages in their repertoire. In other words, her learners have selectively developed proficiency levels in languages according to their domains and just enough for them to function appropriately in different daily situations. In short, their language development corresponded directly to individual and societal needs of the language. Kärchner-Ober called this situation "multi-semilingualism". Due to this, the languages in their repertoire were not suitable in accommodating the process of language transfer.

Furthermore, Romaine (2000) asserted that it was difficult to translate abstract linguistics skills into concrete, measurable variables such as scores on a test. It was difficult to prove these so-called established measures of language proficiency that are used in tests as direct representations of the proficiency in a certain language skill. Therefore, the degree of semilingualism cannot be translated into absolute terms such as proficiency scores. Appel and Muysken (2006) said that this is the result of neglecting the real nature of bilingual competence. They suggested that a bilingual's verbal repertoire should be embraced as "different" rather than "deficit" (p. 108). Monolingual norms should not be applied to bilinguals. In spite of everything, the idea of semilingualism has generally been rejected.

Bilingualism in Malaysia. Malaysia is a multiracial country, the result of cultural convergence through trade and industrial affairs centuries ago. The cultural variation went on to establish an inevitable mix of languages in the country. Today, Malaysia is known as a multilingual country where it houses a number of speech communities. As such, it is common for a Malaysian to be proficient in more than one language.

Within Malaysia, Asmah (1993) reported that there are a considerably high percentage of bilinguals on the rise. She also attributed the presence of bilingualism in Malaysia to the role of Malay as lingua franca in the earlier days of Malaya and the position it duly secured as the national and official language after Malaya seized independence in 1957. Likewise, the introduction of the English Language as the medium of instruction in English schools before and after independence also resulted in an increase in bilinguals. Subsequently, the conversion of these private schools into government-aided schools continued to cause a hike in bilinguals, even trilinguals, who were then required to pick up both Malay and English in school.

As a result, Asmah (1993) asserted that the larger number of present generation Malaysians as bilinguals of Malay-English, resulting from the national education policy. This combination of bilingual constitutes most of the Malay society today, although there is also a substantial group of Malay-Arabic bilinguals educated in Muslim religious schools using Arabic as the medium of instruction. On the other hand, the non-Malays are said to be able to speak up to two or more languages. If they were bilinguals, they would at least have competency in their mother tongue and Malay, the lingua franca of the country. Those who are possibly trilingual, has an additional language of English as a result of the post-colonial education policy. However, a non-Malay's linguistic repertoire may also reach as many as four languages.

Code-switching

What is code-switching? To begin with, Wardhaugh (2006) defined 'code' as "a system used for communication between two or more parties" (p. 101). More specifically, it is a certain dialect or language that a person chooses to use on any occasion. The term 'code' is more favourable as it is neutral and constitutes either languages or dialects (Romaine, 2000).

The process of learning to speak more than one language often entails the process of selecting a particular language to speak in a situation or combining materials from two languages (Romaine, 2000). The latter, is often perceived as a natural part of growing up bilingually and acquiring competence in more than one language. This is because fluent bilinguals are generally known to engage in "code-switching", a production of discourse which includes a combination of two or more of the varieties in their linguistic repertoire (Myers-Scotton, 1997).

In short, code-switching is known as the act of switching from one language to another, in the course of a conversation, even within an utterance, mostly practiced by bilinguals without any interruption in the flow of speech (Saunders, 1988). It is also common across a diverse range of languages that Romaine (2000) generalised code-switching into a formulaic definition: "utterances which draw, to differing extents, items from more than one language and which are combined in different ways" (p. 55).

Often, code-switching is hastily classified as an "interference" phenomenon, a notion that has triggered support and disapproval at the same time. Weinreich (1953) defined interference as "those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language" (p. 1). Though certain linguists opposed this notion (e.g. Haugen, 1956), some

on the contrary, advocate it (e.g. Spolsky, 1998). The difference in classification is mostly due to the uncertainty in "deciding when the use of elements of one language within the context of another ceases to be interference but represents a switch in language, or code-switching" (Baetens Beardsmore, 1982, p. 41). Haugen (1956) rejected code-switching as a case of interference because he asserted that items of "true interference" contains the assimilation of linguistic features (p. 39). However, code-switching only occurs when bilinguals insert a completely unassimilated word from another language into their speech. As such, both languages remain two separate entities and maintain its own language features despite being within the same discourse.

Types of code-switching. According to Poplack's (1980) study, she identified three types of code-switching: tag-switching, intersentential switching and intrasentential switching. She believed that each type of code-switching characterised switches on different levels of constituents and each indicated different degrees of bilingual ability.

Poplack defined tags as constituents that can be placed freely almost anywhere in a sentence without violating any grammatical rule (e.g. you know, I mean, etc.). Hence, tag-switching is the insertion of a tag in one language into an utterance which is entirely in another language. Some examples of tag-switching (Romaine, 1995, p. 122):

(1)   **a. Finnish/English**

Mutta en mä viitinyt, no way [English tag]!

'But I'm not bothered, no way!'

b. English/Tagalog

The proceedings went smoothly, *ba* [Tagalog tag]?

'The proceedings went smoothly, didn't they?'

On the other hand, inter-sentential switching is a switch of languages at a clause or sentence boundary. For example, one sentence is in one language and the next sentence is in another. It may also occur between speaker turns. Below is a clear example (Asmah, 1993, p. 112):

(2) a. Malay/English

A: *Tuan Pengerusi, saya pada dasarnya menyokong pendapat Tuan Pengerusi itu tetapi saya ingin mencadangkan supaya peraturan ini dikenakan secara beransur-ansur* (Chairman Sir, I support your opinion still, but I would like to suggest that the rule be implemented gradually). We must be careful not to force the system all at once on the people. They are sure to reject it.

B: Yes, yes, I agree with you. *Bagaimana pendapat yang lain* (What about the opinions of the rest)*?*

Subsequently, intra-sentential switching involves a switch of languages within clause boundaries – from single-morpheme to clause level. It requires arguably the most skill as it involves "great syntactic risk" and should be "avoided by all but the most fluent bilinguals" (Romaine, 1995, pp. 123-124). For instance, (a) Poplack's (1980, p. 589) example and (b) Asmah's (1993, p. 113) observation:

(3) a. English/Spanish

Why make Carol *sentarse atras pa' que* (sit in the back so) everybody has to move *pa' que se salga* (for her to get out)?

b. English/Malay

We are not testing *apa yang diperolehi di universiti* (what they learned in university). Knowledge wise, the clerks know better, *kerana mungkin dia membaca* (perhaps because he/she reads).

The existence of these switches calls into doubt Weinreich's criterion for the 'ideal bilingual'. Weinreich (1953) said that the 'ideal bilingual' is one who "switches from one language to the other according to appropriate changes in the speech situation (interlocutors, topics, etc.), but not in an unchanged speech situation, and certainly not within a single sentence" (p. 73). However, all three of the switches often occur spontaneously without an apparent change in topic or interlocutor. His dismissal of modern code-switching, especially of the intra-sentential type proved to be ironic today. Had it been true, Weinreich's assumption would render most code-switching bilinguals today as imperfect bilinguals with a less than ideal competence to carry out a conversation in a single language. To some extent, it felt as if Weinreich had perpetuated the assumption among people outside the community of code-switching researchers that the main reason for code-switching is the lack of proficiency to carry on in the language.

Linguistic constraints. There have been studies revealing that code-switching is not merely the insertion of an unassimilated word from another language into a speech, but a more complex and systematic phenomenon. Shana Poplack's (1981) study, *Syntactic structure and social function of code-switching* (originally published in 1978) pioneered the general syntactic constraints in code-switching. She deduced that code-switching is governed by two linguistic constraints: 'the free morpheme constraint' and 'the equivalence constraint'. These constraints are said to fundamentally shape code-switching of bilinguals.

'The equivalence constraint' stated that code switches tend to take place at points where the syntactic structures of both languages are the same (Poplack, 1981). It is only when the two sentence elements are arranged in the same order that code-switching is permitted so that the elements do not violate a syntactic rule of either language. For instance, "you may only switch between an adjective and a noun if both languages use the same order for that adjective and noun" (Holmes, 2008, p. 45). In short, the equivalence constraint simply depicts intrasentential switches. For example (Poplack, 1981, p. 175):

(4) English/Spanish

English:	I/ told him/ that/ so that/ he would bring it/ fast.
Spanish:	(yo) /le dije/ eso/ pa' que/ la trajera/ ligero.
Code-switched :	I told him that pa' que la trajera ligero.

Two years later, Poplack (1980) followed up with a study to test the equivalence constraint on code-switching in measuring the degree of bilingual ability. In this study, Poplack hypothesised that non-fluent bilinguals will: (1) violate the equivalence constraint; or (2) avoid switching at points which would risk violating the syntactic rules of either languages (e.g. avoid intrasentential switches). To test the hypothesis, the speech of 30 Puerto Rican residents of a bilingual community in East Harlem with different degrees of bilingual ability was analysed (p. 581).

The study revealed that both fluent and non-fluent bilinguals were able to code-switch frequently while maintaining grammaticality in both languages. Though, the most significant finding was that fluent bilinguals tended to switch at "various syntactic boundaries within the same sentence" (intrasentential), while non-fluent bilinguals preferred "switching between sentences" (intersentential) without the fear of violating grammatical rules of either of the languages involved (Ibid.). Poplack then concluded that

these results reinforced the validity of the equivalence constraint and that code-switching was an indicator of bilingual ability, rather than an impairment of linguistic skill.

No doubt, the constraints clarified some issues on code-switching but more questions can be raised from Poplack's study. Does this mean that all code-switching are rule-governed? Is code-switching an appropriate yardstick to measure a person's bilingual ability? What kinds of grammars are involved in code-switching? Unfortunately, there are still no definite answers to the questions.

Reasons for code-switching. This section will be divided according to the works of different authors. Different authors present different angles of code-switching reasons and it is important to review them. Though, similar reasons can be identified across different authors.

Holmes. Essentially, the meaning and reason behind every code-switch needs to be interpreted according to context. Fortunately, the literature on code-switching to date has provided us with some regularity on why code-switching occurs. The most fundamental few have been identified by Janet Holmes (2008, pp. 35-41) in her book, *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. This will also hold up as one of the theoretical frameworks of the study. Holmes classified reasons for code-switching into three major categories: participants, solidarity and status, topic, and switching for affective functions.

When a code-switch is participant or addressee-based, the language choice is highly dependent on the participant. When the presence of a new participant is taken into consideration, it marks a change in the social situation. Therefore, it triggers an attempt to redefine the language as well. Just as Baetens Beardsmore (1982) suggested, a bilingual may operate differently depending on the type of interlocutor involved and their linguistic

background. For example, a bilingual talking to another bilingual with the same linguistic

background will be able to freely interchange between both languages. However, the

same bilingual speaking to a monolingual will have to speak according to the language of

the monolingual with little to no code-switching.

Holmes (2008) also suggested that a speaker may switch to another language to

signal affective functions such as group membership or shared ethnicity. Such switches

are motivated primarily by social reasons, but specifically, a need for solidarity in order to

acknowledge the participants' shared ethnic identity. When this happens, it closes the gap

of social distance between the speaker and addressee. Though, the opposite effect may

take place, in which a switch can distance a speaker from those they are speaking to. In

this case, a person may switch to a language of higher prestige to signal alignment with

sophistication and modernity or simply to exclude people from a conversation.

Furthermore, Holmes (2008) pointed out that a switch may indicate "a change in

status relations between people or the level of formality in their interaction" (p. 36). As

demonstrated in Blom and Gumperz's (1972) study in Hemnesberget, different language

choices were used during and after the transaction of business between the government

official and the local citizen. It clearly indicated a transition from official business to

more casual personal matters. Hence, the government official no longer takes on the

identity of an authoritative figure but instead, becomes a sort of acquaintance to the local

citizen.

Subsequently, the topic of discussion also plays a decisive role in code-switching.

This is because "certain kinds of referential content are more appropriately or more easily

expressed in one language than another" (Holmes, 2008, p. 38). Often, a certain technical

topic has a corresponding medium of language as well. Hence, when the topic emerges, it

triggers a switch to the appropriate language. Another referentially motivated switch is when a speaker code-switches to quote a person in another language. Usually, the switch is only limited to the words or phrase that the speaker intends to quote. Therefore, code-switching functions as a set of implicit quotation marks to accurately express what another speaker has said. Saunders (1988) implied that this sort of switch will enable a speaker to make their point "more forcefully or eloquently" (p. 12).

Besides, Holmes suggested that switching can also be motivated by other affective functions besides group membership. This type of switching can achieve a range of interesting rhetorical effects such as amusement and dramatic effect, especially when mimicking another person in a casual conversation. On the other hand, an unmarked type of switching is one that is used to express anger or disapproval, as opposed to solidarity and cohesion. In such situations, a switch from a friendly and intimate style to a formal style may invoke authority and increase social distance between the speaker and addressee. The addressee would then feel reprimanded.

Blom and Gumperz. Beginning in the 1970s, there was an evolving number of studies on the social functions of code-switching. An early study by Blom and Gumperz (1972) in Hemnesberget, Norway triggered much of the future works on code-switching. In this study, Blom and Gumperz introduced the concepts of situational switching and metaphorical switching. In a nutshell, it is simple to distinguish between both. After all, they have eponymous names. Situational switching occurs according to the *situation* the speaker is in. It marks "a change in participants and/or strategies" (p. 409). Like *metaphors*, metaphorical switching draws implicit meanings from what is being said. Hence, each language is an arbitrary representation of certain social identities and roles. It

enriches a situation, to create more than one set of social relationships within the situation. Metaphorical code-switching often serves subtle yet impactful functions.

In their study, the inhabitants of a small Norwegian town use a local northern dialect, Ranamål and one of the standard varieties, Bokmål. Situational switching is exemplified in a classroom setting where a teacher gave a formal lecture in Bokmål but proceeded to conduct a discussion in Ranamål instead. Alternatively, metaphorical switching took place during the interaction between government officials and local citizens where matters of family affairs tended to be spoken in Ranamål while the business part of the interaction is carried out in Bokmål.

Myers-Scotton. Another notable study on social aspects of code-switching is Carol Myers-Scotton's (1993) work in Africa. She developed a 'markedness model' of conversational code-switching where she distinguished code-switching as 'marked' and 'unmarked' choices. An 'unmarked' language choice is one that is a basic, default language that is expected to be used in a context while a 'marked' choice is one that is unusual and would not normally be expected.

Myers-Scotton categorised four types of code-switching patterns in the community: (1) code-switching as a series of unmarked choices, where contextual aspects such as a change in topic or addressee makes a language change appropriate; (2) code-switching itself as an unmarked choice, where it draws meaningful associations from both languages to obtain dual identities; (3) code-switching as a marked choice, where it may be used to increase social distance, or to convey authority or anger; and (4) code-switching as an exploratory choice, when the unmarked choice is uncertain and needs to be explored by switching between languages.

Gumperz. At the same time, code-switching has also been identified as a conversational strategy. This strategy is often discussed in terms of stylistics effects. Heller (1988) defined stylistic effects as "aggravating and mitigating conversational acts such as requests, denials, topic shifts, elaborations or comments, validations, or clarifications" (p. 77). One such study is done by Gumperz (1982) in his book, *Discourse Strategies.* In his words, conversational code-switching is defined as "the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (p. 59). In this method of switching, a speaker's speech is fluent and maintains a coherent flow. There are no significant pauses, changes in rhythm, pitch or intonation to indicate the shift in code. It does not differ much from a conversation carried out in a single language.

Gumperz (1982) then attempted to identify the conversational functions of code-switching. He selected three language situations to assist in the study – Austrian-Yugoslavian village of farmers and labourers, Hindi-English bilinguals in urban North India and Chicano Spanish speakers in California. He concluded that code-switching were used for roughly similar purposes across all three situations. This inspired his "single preliminary typology" that can be employed across any language situations (p. 59). This typology classified code switching functions into six categories. The following examples have been extracted from Gumperz's (1982, pp. 76-81) study:

(5) Quotations

Code-switching are used either as direct quotations or as reported speech.

Example:

    a. Spanish/English. From a conversation among two Chicano professionals. The speaker is talking about her baby-sitter.

A: She doesn't speak English, so, *dice que la reganan: "Si se les va olvidar el idioma a las criaturas"* (she says that they would scold her: "the children are surely going to forget their language").

(6) Addressee specification

This switch is used to direct a message to a specific addressee out of a large group of people, especially when a speaker intends to speak to someone outside the circle of conversationalists.

    a. A group of Hindi speaking graduate students are discussing the subject of Hindi-English code-switching:

    A: Sometimes you get excited then you speak in Hindi, then again you go on to English.

    B: No nonsense, it depends on your command of English.

    B: [shortly thereafter turning to a third participant, who has just returned from answering the doorbell] *Kən hai bai* (who is it)?

(7) Interjections

In another case, code-switching is employed to indicate an interjection of sentence filler.

    a. Spanish/English. Chicano professionals saying goodbye, and after having been introduced by a third participant, talking briefly:

    A: Well, I'm glad I met you.

    B: *Andale pues* (O.K. swell). And do come again. Mm?

(8) Reiteration

Often, a message in one language is repeated in another language, either in an exact translation or in a slightly modified form. Such repetitions are sometimes used for clarification purposes but mostly, to intensify or emphasise a message.

    a. Hindi/English. Father in India calling to his son, who was learning to swim in a swimming pool:

       A: Baju-me jao beta, andar mat (go to the side son, not inside). Keep to the side.

(9) Message qualification

A large number of switches also consist of "qualifying constructions such as sentence and verb complements or predicates following a copula" (Gumperz, 1982, p. 79).

    a. English/Spanish:

       A: The oldest one, *la grande la de once años* (the big one who is eleven years old).

(10) Personalisation vs. objectivisation

Gumperz (1982) deemed this function as more conceptual and difficult to describe in words. Here, the language contrast that happens in switching relates to things such as, the difference between "talk about action and talk as action", the extent or distance of the speaker from a message, whether a statement reflects personal opinion or knowledge, whether it refers simply to examples or has the authority of an established fact (p. 80).

a. Hindi/English. College student conversation:

A: *Vaišna ai* (did Vaishna come)?

B: She was supposed to see me at nine-thirty at Karol Bag.

A: Karol Bag?

B: *or mãĩ nə bəĵe ghərse nikla* (and I left the house at nine).

In this example, B's English response to A's Hindi question regards the appointment as an actual fact. But when explaining his own actions, B shifts back to Hindi.

Code-switching in Malaysia. With the abundance of languages at one's disposal, there can be different combinations of languages in one's repertoire. The emergence of this multilingual repertoire is ultimately, the primary factor leading to interlingual code-switching. As a result, code-switching became an almost inevitable feature in the verbal communication of the Malaysian society.

Since independence, the country's language policy has changed time and time again. Maya Khemlani David (2007) in her study, *Changing Language Policies in Malaysia: Ramifications and Implications* presented the effects of the language policies on the languages of three different ethnic groups and the national language, Bahasa Melayu. Her study investigated the language use of students in an urban secondary school in Ipoh. David discovered that the emergence of multilingualism from the changing language policies caused the deployment of code-mixing and code-switching as innovative communicative strategies in a classroom. As such, code-switching was a way for Malaysian youths to convey meaning across efficiently, especially on the premise of language accommodation.

Following that, Ariffin and Rafik-Galea's (2009) study, *Code-switching as a Communication Device in Conversation* examined the functions of code-switching and how it aids in achieving the speakers' communicative intents in a Bahasa Melayu/English bilingual context. Similarly, the findings of the study presented a rich description of how the speakers employed code-switching as a device to fulfill certain functions and intentions to organise and enhance their speech. It is also used to express social and rhetorical effects. Ariffin and Rafik-Galea duly concluded that "code-switching behaviour is not random nor it is seen as a sign of linguistic deficiency or inadequacy. Rather, it is a negotiation between language use and the communicative intents of the speakers" (p. 15).

It can be inferred from these two studies that code-switching has long seeped into the verbal repertoire of Malaysians. In fact, it is deemed as a normative linguistic behaviour and is thoroughly accepted in most contexts. Locally though, code-switching is almost never seen in a derogatory manner, but mostly as a unique and functional linguistic behaviour of Malaysian bilinguals.

Attitudes towards code-switching. Romaine (1995) noted that less interest has been given to investigate speakers' attitudes towards code-switching and the status it constitutes as part of a community's view of competence. While code-switching is embraced as a linguistic uniqueness in Malaysia, it is not very well-received in other parts of the world. According to Romaine (2000), the increasing mixed speech in the Panjabi/English bilingual community in Britain and the extensive contact with English especially among the younger generation is worrying. Many fear that the language will simply be lost in the future. The anxiety is even palpable in the following commentary made by a Panjabi/English bilingual about his linguistic behavior (Romaine, 1995):

I mean I'm guilty as well in the sense that we speak English more and more, and then what happens is that when you speak your own language, you get two or three English words in each sentence… but I think that's wrong. I mean, I myself would like to speak pure Panjabi whenever I speak Panjabi. We keep mixing. I mean unconsciously, subconsciously, we keep doing it, you know, but I wish, you know, that I could speak pure Panjabi. (p. 122)

Similarly, many perceived bilingualism as a stepping stone to linguistic extinction because there have been cases where "language death is preceded by bilingualism and extensive code-switching" (Romaine, 2000, p. 57). Even though there have been increasing evidence to suggest that code-switching serves important social functions in communities, yet, in what Romaine stated as "practically all the communities where switching and mixing of languages occurs", it is stigmatised (Ibid.).

Whenever attention was called towards code-switching, the coinage of derogatory or humourous terms to describe mixed speech, such as *Spanglish*, *Franglais* or *Tex Mex* occurs (Meyerhoff, 2006). In Hemnesberget, the mixed speech of students who switched between the local dialect and the standard dialect were called *knot* or 'artificial speech' (Holmes, 2008). Despite studies that have presented intrasentential switching as an indicator of a skilful bilingual, there were still mixed reactions towards code-switching. Wardhaugh (2006) stated that this is largely due to different societal norms. The reaction significantly differs in a Western society where being monolingual is the established and accepted norm. In this context, bilinguals or multilinguals may appear to be somewhat unusual or inferior in that such people are likely to be the non-natives or immigrants in the culture that they live in. However, in other parts of the world where bilingualism is common, the situation may be reversed – monolinguals are viewed as a misfit, lacking an

integral skill of speaking multiple languages. They would not be able to adapt from one language to another in cross-cultural situations.

In conclusion, the attitudinal aspect of code-switching too, is not definite. Gumperz's (1982) study on conversational code-switching of Spanish/English bilinguals in a Puerto Rican community in Jersey City rightly summed it up:

Some characterize it as an extreme form of language mixing or linguistic

borrowing attributable to lack of education, bad manners or improper control of

the two grammars. Others see it as a legitimate style of informal talk. For the most

part participants have no readily available words or descriptive terms to

characterize the process of switching as such. Whatever words exist take the form

of stereotypical labels which vary in meaning with changing attitudes. (p. 62)

Chapter 3

Methodology

Population and Sampling

The population of the study is defined as all Chinese/English bilinguals from the Bachelor of Arts (Hons) English Language course in Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR), Perak campus. By rough estimation, there are a total of approximately 200 students currently enrolled in the English Language programme. However, only a representative sample was drawn from the population. This representative sample of 80 respondents represents an approximate 1:3 ratio. In order to recruit 80 suitable respondents for the study, two sampling methods were employed.

Firstly, the stratified sampling method was employed. Stratified sampling was carried out by dividing the population into subgroups and then, randomly sampling from each subgroup (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). In this case, the subgroups of the population were divided according to the five existing batches in the English Language programme – Year 1 Trimester 2, Year 1 Trimester 3, Year 2 Trimester 2, Year 2 Trimester 3 and Year 3 Trimester 1. A total of 80 respondents were obtained from all subgroups.

The subsequent sampling method used in refining the sample was the purposive sampling method. This method strictly selected respondents based on certain characteristics (Ibid.). Hence, the researcher only sought bilinguals in the subgroups who were orally proficient in any Chinese dialect(s) and English. The respondents who participated demonstrated different levels of bilingual ability. Based on this exclusive group of targeted respondents, it will sufficiently represent the defined population.

Instrumentation

In this survey research, two elicitation devices were used. They included an online questionnaire and personal interviews.

There were four topic domains in the questionnaire: (1) the participants' personal information, (2) participants' linguistic repertoire, (3) reasons for code-switching and (4) attitudes towards code-switching. Since the collection of data was carried out during the respondents' semester break, the accessibility of an online questionnaire was more practical in obtaining responses from respondents residing all over the country. In order to generate an online survey form, the researcher used Google Docs, a supplementary Google website which provides users with tools to create personalised spreadsheet documents. A copy of the online questionnaire form is included in the appendix. The questionnaire form can be accessed from the following URL:

https://spreadsheets.google.com/viewform?formkey=dEtQenZWajNrQjRPYW YzUVhnNFk2Z1E6MQ&ifq.

The second instrument - personal interviews were conducted after the collection of responses from the online questionnaire. The interview was part of a methodological triangulation to cross-validate and qualitatively substantiate the data obtained from the questionnaire with the responses given by the interviewees. In the interview, respondents were asked more detailed questions related to the questionnaire. The written interview was constructed according to the four main topic domains in the questionnaire, where the lead-off question can be found in the questionnaire while follow-up questions were included in the interview. It ensured reliability and provided an in-depth follow-up to the highly close-ended questionnaire.

Theoretical constructs. Also, the theoretical constructs that the survey attempted to measure is manifested within the instruments. The theoretical constructs are highly dependent on the purpose of the study – to discover the most-preferred reason for code-switching. Therefore, the theoretical constructs consisted of the two hypothesized category of code-switching reasons the survey attempted to test:

(1)   **Code-switching as a means to compensate for bilingual incompetence**

      a. Switching to language A to improve competency in language A.

      b. Switching to language B due to the lack of proficiency to continue speaking in language A.

(2) **Code-switching as a means to indicate effective communicative strategies**

      a.   Code-switching is used to embed social meanings in speech.

      b.   Code-switching is used for stylistic effects.

In theoretical construct (1), an individual's linguistic proficiency was assessed based on their oral proficiency in the language only. Alternatively, theoretical construct (2) is measured based on a synthesised version by Holmes (2008). Holmes suggested that code-switching occurred due to participants, solidarity, status; topic; and some affective functions. These reasons formed the main theoretical framework in the study.

Questionnaire design. The questionnaire is divided into four sections – Section A, Section B, Section C and Section D. It consisted mainly of close-ended questions and two open-ended questions. The questionnaire begins with an introductory paragraph on the researcher's study, the definition of code-switching and the confidentiality of the survey.

Section A briefly acquired the respondents' personal information within several multiple choice questions. Likewise, Section B acquired data of the respondent's bilingual repertoire within a set of multiple choice questions as well. In Section C, the questions correlated bilingual proficiency with code-switching frequency. Several scale-type questions are used to obtain the respondents' oral proficiency in the languages (ranging from *1* to *10*) and their frequency in code-switching (ranging from *Rarely* to *All the time*). Lastly, Section D examined code-switching reasons and attitudes. Firstly, a series of questions were used to test statements which exemplify various code-switching reasons. The statements are randomly ordered to ensure that it does not perpetuate any leading questions. Subsequently, several scale-type questions (ranging from *Strongly disagree* to *Strongly agree*), multiple choice questions and open-ended questions are used to test the respondents' attitude towards code-switching.

The questionnaire is composed simply in layman terms so that respondents are able to comprehend it easily. The anonymous and confidential nature of the questionnaire allowed the respondents to answer as freely as possible.

Procedure and Time Frame

Before the official procedure was carried out, a pilot test was conducted in late September 2010. The questionnaire was e-mailed to 26 respondents from the Year 3 Trimester 1 batch. In the e-mail, they were asked to answer the questionnaire attached and to provide feedback on the overall improvements that can be implemented on the questionnaire. Within two weeks, the number of replies received peaked at 18. The feedback from the pilot test was used to improve the questionnaire. After completing the

second draft, a second pilot test was e-mailed to the same 18 respondents. Again, their feedback was adapted into the final draft of the questionnaire.

The first official procedure began on the 23rd of November, 2010. The researcher disseminated the online questionnaire form to the targeted respondents via e-mail and Facebook. Furthermore, the researcher also contacted the course representatives of each batch to seek help in disseminating the online questionnaire to their classmates. The data collection ended on the 16th of December, 2010 where the number of responses received peaked at 80. In total, the first procedure was completed in a little over three weeks.

Following that, the researcher randomly selected 11 respondents out of the 80 who participated in the questionnaire to participate as interviewees. The written interview session was completed in a day in the span of two hours. The respondents were personally met in campus on the 18th of December, 2010. Due to time constraints, they were required to fill up a form (as opposed to individual verbal interviews) which consisted of 10 interview questions that correlated with their answers in the questionnaire. The researcher was present to answer any enquiries from the respondents. By doing so, the interview was more interactive than passive.

Analysis Plan

General analysis plan. The general analysis plan consisted of two methods: the quantitative method and the qualitative method. The quantitative procedure was completed by Google Docs. It generated the online questionnaire form and the tabulation of data into meaningful statistical information. The programme analysed the participants' responses using descriptive statistics. The frequencies of their responses acquired from items in the questionnaire related to the participants' bilingual repertoire, linguistic

proficiency, code-switching reasons and code-switching attitudes are converted into percentage form and tabulated into bar graphs and pie charts. By analysing them in a systematic manner, these numerical data represented the answers to the research questions.

On the other hand, the interview data are qualitatively analysed to complement the numerical data. The responses are matched to the corresponding items in the questionnaire for cross-validation and follow-up purposes. As such, illustrative quotations representing each item are used to support findings of the survey.

In-depth analysis plan. Basically, each research question is analysed according to the general analysis plan. The combination of analysis for every research question makes up the in-depth analysis plan.

The first research question: *Do the participants code-switch more often from the low proficiency language (LPL) to the high proficiency language (HPL) or vice versa?* To answer the research question, the correlation between question 4 and question 5 in the questionnaire is analysed. Then, the frequencies of the responses are tabulated into separate bar graphs. Responses from the interview are used to support the numerical data.

The second research question: *Do the participants code-switch to make up for bilingual incompetence or to indicate effective communicative strategies?* This research question embodies the entire purpose of the research. Therefore, the theoretical constructs are clearly manifested in this research question. For this section, question 6 is analysed. The frequencies of the responses are tabulated into a bar graph while responses from the interview were used to support the numerical data.

The third research question: *What are their attitudes towards code-switching?* Questions 7 and 8 are analysed for this research question. Likewise, the frequencies of the responses are tabulated into a bar graph while responses from the interview are used to support the numerical data.

Validity and Reliability

Validity. There are two types of validity concerned: internal validity and external validity (Nunan & Bailey, 2009). Internal validity has to do with the accuracy of a measurement. It is important to ensure that the researcher is appropriately measuring what he or she needs to measure. Due to its subjective nature, the validity of a survey needs to be assessed by the researcher themselves. Three fundamental types of internal validity that needs to be addressed are: face validity, content validity and construct validity.

One method to establish face validity is to pretest a survey. It helps to minimise the probability that a question will be misunderstood or misinterpreted (Walonick, 2005). Hence, two pilot tests were conducted through e-mail. Respondents were asked to answer the questionnaire and provide feedback on the overall improvements required for the questionnaire. Much of the constructive feedbacks from both pilot tests were taken into consideration when preparing the final version of the questionnaire. Generally, the pilot test helped to increase the effectiveness of the questionnaire and the positive impression it will impart when conducted on the intended respondents.

Besides that, content validity is important to ensure that the instrument is able to reflect the knowledge actually required for a given topic area (Walonick, 2005). In order to establish content validity, expert opinions and literature searches were used. The researcher referred to current and past literature to shape the basis of the instrument,

specifically, recent undergraduate studies which employed questionnaires as their instrument. This way, the researcher can determine what should be included in the questionnaire. Besides, reading the appropriate literature ensured that the necessary questions are asked to fulfill the purpose of the research. In addition, expert opinions are obtained from the researcher's supervisor who offered advice and revised the questionnaire.

When it came to construct validity, it represents the "theoretical foundations underlying a particular scale or measurement" (Walonick, 2005). These theoretical foundations must be thoroughly manifested in the instruments. As such, the two theoretical constructs used in the study are clearly applied in the questionnaire. For instance, Section B and C attempted to measure the first theoretical construct – code-switching as a means to compensate for bilingual incompetence. Conversely, Section D attempted to measure the second theoretical construct – code-switching as a means to indicate effective communicative strategies.

There is also a concern for external validity or generalisability. External validity can be established if the findings of the study, represented by a sample can be extrapolated to the broader population it represents (Ibid.). In this study, it simply refers to whether the results of the survey can stand for the characteristic of every Chinese/English bilingual in UTAR, Perak campus. Indeed, the researcher concluded that the sample of the study was relevant to the population because they are made up of s group of bilinguals with diverse combinations of proficiency in both languages.

Reliability. According to Walonick (2005), reliability refers to the production of consistent measurements over time, or simply, "repeatability or stability". Thus, the

validity of an instrument correlates greatly with its reliability – if the instrument accurately measured what needed to be measured, it will naturally yield constructive and consistent results. Therefore, an instrument with high reliability has to be relatively foolproof to avoid being prone to random errors. One way to test the reliability of an instrument is by asking the same question but rephrasing it slightly differently (Ibid.).

To do so, the questionnaire is revised with the feedback received from the first pilot test. This time, it is restructured into a more comprehensive and organised questionnaire. While most of the original questions were retained, some were rephrased. The rephrased questions conveyed the same meaning it implied in the first pilot test. The new questionnaire was then e-mailed to the previous 18 pilot test respondents. A comparison between the first questionnaire and the second questionnaire showed that most respondents have consistent answers throughout. The same answers were given for both the old questions and the rephrased questions. The researcher concluded that the instrument is reliable.

Assumptions

For this study, several assumptions were made:

1. The sample represents the population.
2. The instrument has validity and is measuring the desired theoretical constructs.
3. The respondents will answer the survey truthfully.

Limitations

Time constraint. A definite limitation in the study is the time constraint. Due to the brief time period allocated to carry out the study, it can only be conducted on a

smaller scale than initially planned. As a result, the 80 respondents in the sample may have affected the external validity or generalisability of the study.

Also, the researcher was unable to perform an observation process, the second methodological triangulation because of the brief timeframe and page limit observed by the study. Triangulation is highly useful to cross-examine or verify data from two or more sources. It ensures that the data obtained from each source is consistent and relatable to each other. Hence, the missing triangulation method may have compromised the reliability of the data.

Moreover, the researcher did not have sufficient time to test all 80 respondents' proficiency in Chinese and English with standard proficiency tests. Instead, the researcher relied on the respondent's self-evaluation. Although, it may not have been as accurate as a legitimate test, it is the overall comparison between both language proficiencies that mattered. There should be a clear discrepancy between the proficiency of both languages and most respondents adhered to that. Thus, it suffices to say that this limitation may not have affected the credibility of the study much.

Budget constraint. Another limitation suffered by the study is the budget constraint. For an undergraduate study, only personal funds are used to support the research. Therefore, the study can only be conducted on a smaller sample because a bigger sample will invoke a higher cost. Once again, it may have compromised the external validity of the study.

Chapter 4

Results

Description of the Sample

Firstly, it is important to note that the following calculation, statistical data and illustrations are entirely generated by Google Docs. While the data are also shown in percentage form, some percentage figures are deliberately rounded up to the next number (e.g. 12.5 to 13). Therefore, some percentages will add up to slightly more than 100%.

In this study, demographic information of the sample is simply used to demonstrate the composition and nature of the respondents. It showed that the respondents who participated wholly represented the population.

Course: Bachelor of Arts (Hons) English Language

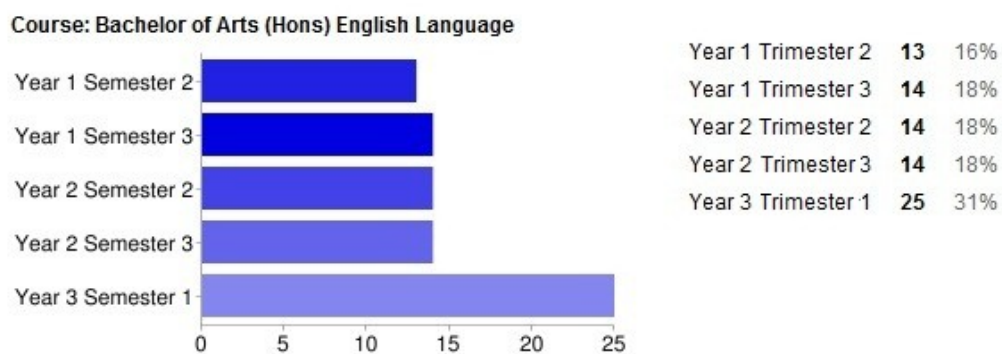|	
Year 1 Trimester 2	13 16%
Year 1 Trimester 3	14 18%
Year 2 Trimester 2	14 18%
Year 2 Trimester 3	14 18%
Year 3 Trimester 1	25 31%

Figure 1: *Respondents' designated batch in the Bachelor of Arts (Hons) English Language programme*

Based on Figure 1, the respondents are made up of the five batches enrolled in the Bachelor of Arts (Hons) English Language programme in UTAR, Kampar during the October 2010 session. Figure 1 indicates that the least number of respondents are from Year 1 Trimester 2 at 16% of the respondents while the Year 1 Trimester 3, Year 2 Trimester 2 and Year 2 Semester 3 respondents are evenly balanced at 18% each.

However, 31% of the respondents are from Year 3 Trimester 1. In total, the sample

consisted of the 80 respondents who participated in the survey. Judging against the

population, this sample roughly represented a ratio of 1:3.
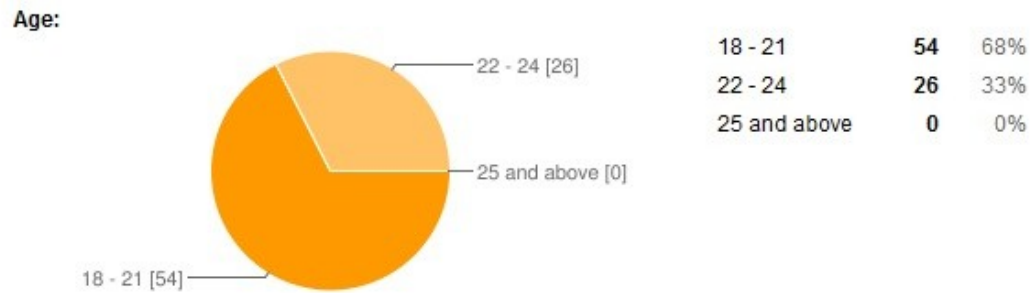

Figure 2: *The age of the respondents*

Subsequently, Figure 2 illustrates the age range of the respondents. The results

showed that the majority 68% of the respondents are aged from 18 to 21, whereas the

remainder 33% aged from 22 to 24. There are no respondents who are 25 and above.

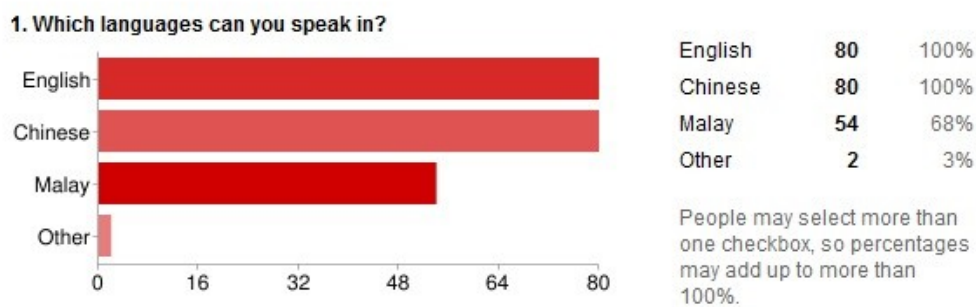

Figure 3: *The respondents' linguistic repertoire*

All respondents came from similar cultural and linguistic backgrounds. As such, a

general pattern that can be found in Figure 3 was that all 80 respondents are at least

bilingual, specifically, Chinese/English bilinguals. However, only 68% could speak in

Malay while a meager 3% could speak in foreign languages such as Japanese and Korean.

Analyses

2. Between Chinese and English, which language would you consider as your first language?

Chinese	42	53%
English	38	48%

English [38]

Chinese [42]

3. Which language then would you consider as your second language?

Chinese	38	48%
English	42	53%

English [42]
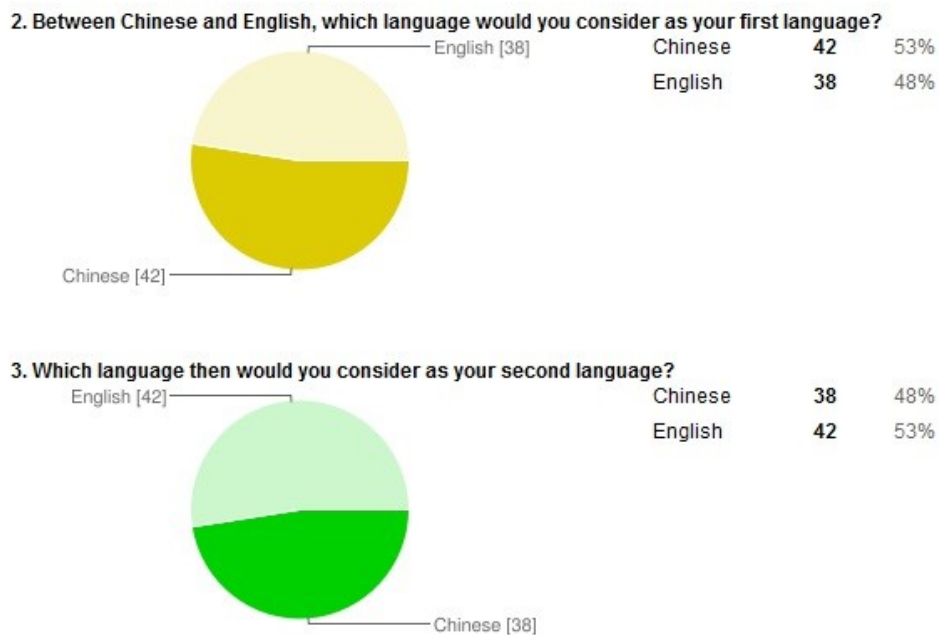
Chinese [38]

Figure 4: *The respondent's preferred first language and second language*

As demonstrated in Figure 3, all respondents are at least Chinese/English bilinguals. As such, two language combinations can be inferred from Figure 4. That is, (1) respondents who consider English as their first language (L1) and Chinese as their second language (L2) and (2) respondents who consider Chinese as their first language (L1), and English as their second language (L2). The former included 48% of the respondents while the latter included the majority 53% of the respondents.

4(a) Between English and Chinese, select your more frequent language in your daily interaction.

Chinese	39	49%
English	41	51%

4(a) Between English and Chinese, select your second-most frequent language in your daily interaction.

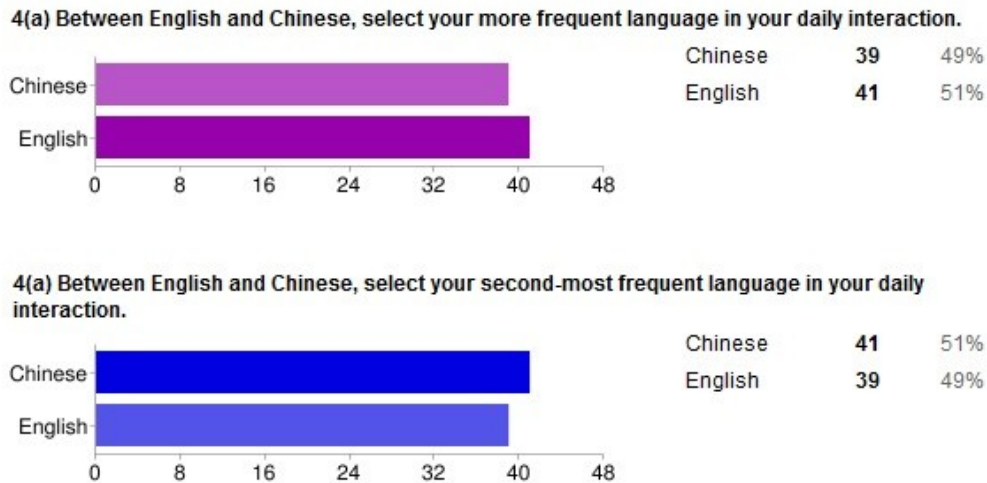|		
Chinese	41	51%
English	39	49%

Figure 5: *The respondents' more frequent and second-most frequent language*

Next, Figure 5 shows the respondents' choices on the more frequent language (MFL) and second-most frequent language (SFL) in their daily interaction. Similarly, two language combinations can be found. Here, 49% of respondents selected Chinese as their MFL and English as their SFL whereas, a close 51% of respondents selected English as their MFL and Chinese as their SFL.

Based on Figure 4 and Figure 5, there is often a direct relation between the order of language acquisition and language dominance. That is to say, the respondents' L1 usually becomes their MFL while their L2 usually becomes their SFL. A large 99% majority of respondents conformed to that while an exceptional 1% of respondents expressed an inverse relation instead.

4(b) On a scale of 1 to 10, rate your proficiency in Chinese.

1 -	Lowest	2	3%
2		2	3%
3		2	3%
4		9	11%
5		18	23%
6		6	8%
7		14	18%
8		15	19%
9		7	9%
10 -	Highest	5	6%

4(b) On a scale of 1 to 10, rate your proficiency in English.

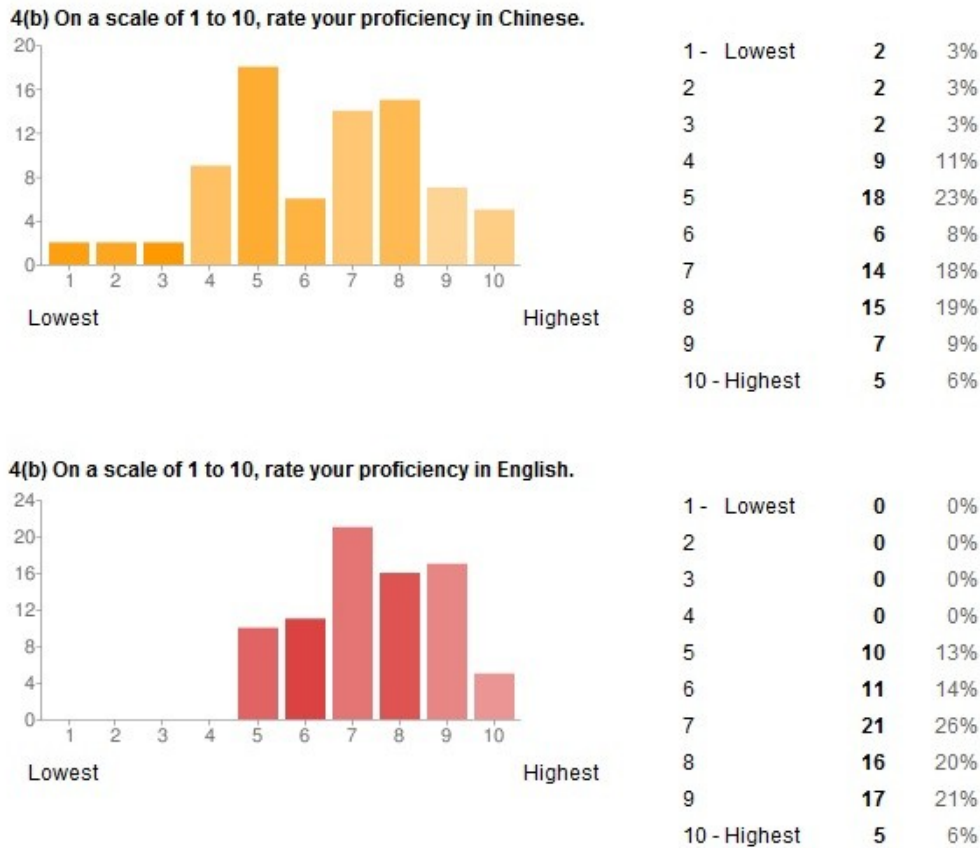|			
1 -	Lowest	0	0%
2		0	0%
3		0	0%
4		0	0%
5		10	13%
6		11	14%
7		21	26%
8		16	20%
9		17	21%
10 -	Highest	5	6%

Figure 6: *The respondents' evaluation of their level of oral proficiency in Chinese and English. A higher score indicates a higher proficiency in the language.*

In this study, the data refers only to the oral proficiency of languages. When respondents are asked to evaluate their level of proficiency in Chinese and English, the resulting range of proficiency for both languages differed. According to Figure 6, all respondents rated their proficiency in Chinese from 1 to 10, while their proficiency in English ranged from at least 5 to 10. The mode or the most frequent response for Chinese proficiency was 5/10 (23%), whereas the least frequent response fell equally on 1/10, 2/10 and 3/10 (2% each). On the other hand, the mode for English proficiency is 7/10 (26%), while the least rated level of proficiency was 10/10 (6%).

5(a) How often do you switch from Chinese to English?

1 -	Rarely	6	8%
2		6	8%
3		34	43%
4		29	36%
5 -	All the time	5	6%

(b) How often do you switch from English to Chinese?

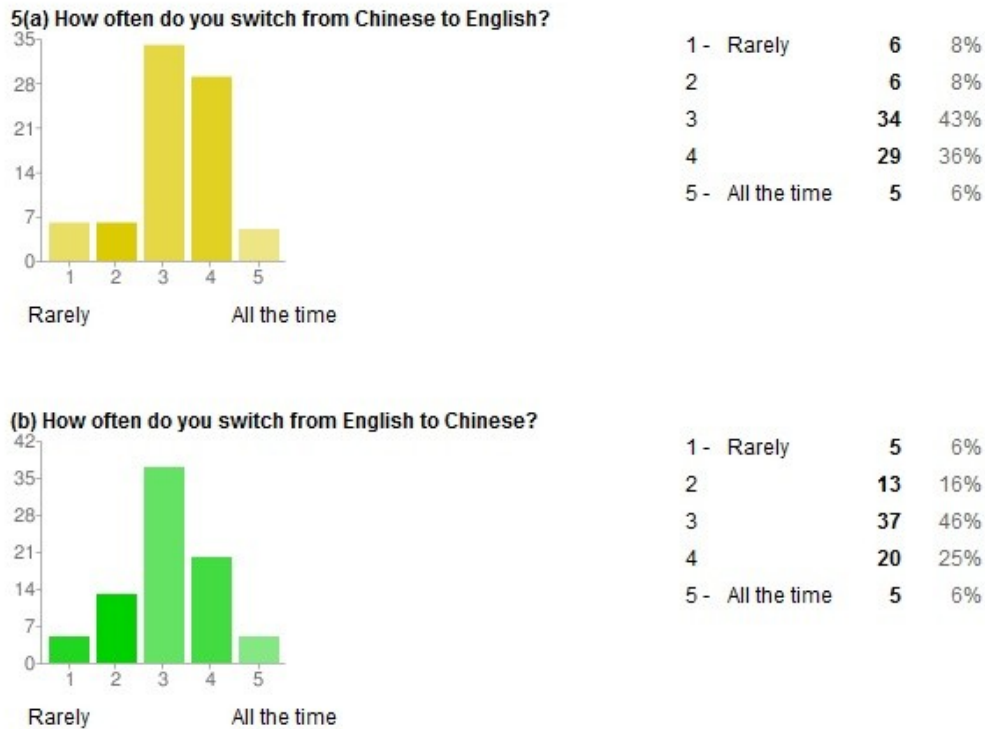|			
1 -	Rarely	5	6%
2		13	16%
3		37	46%
4		20	25%
5 -	All the time	5	6%

Figure 7: *The respondents' frequency in code-switching*

Figure 7 shows the code-switching frequency of the respondents. The code-switching patterns are distinguished into two types, Chinese to English switching and English to Chinese switching. As demonstrated in Figure 7, both types of switching obtained "Sometimes" as the most frequent response, which respectively included, 43% and 46% of total responses. Similarly, both types of switching also obtained "All the time" as the least frequent response, with 6% of responses each.
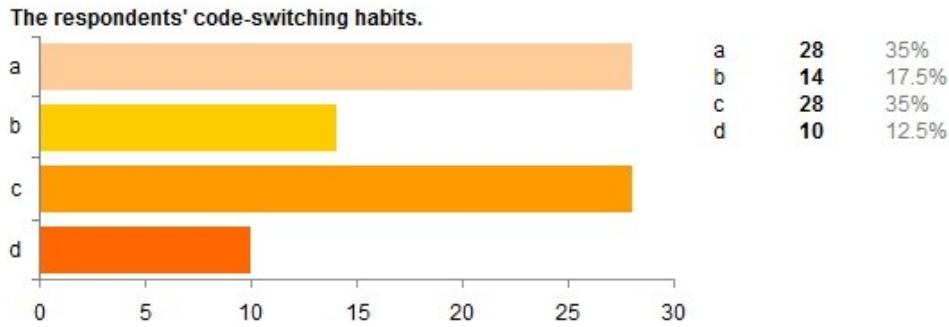
The respondents' code-switching habits.

a	28	35%
b	14	17.5%
c	28	35%
d	10	12.5%

Figure 8: *The respondents' code-switching habits*

Table 1

The corresponding code-switching habit as illustrated in Figure 8

Code-switching habit	
a	People who switch more frequently from LPL to HPL and less frequently from HPL to LPL.
b	People who switch more frequently from HPL to LPL and less frequently from LPL to HPL.
c	People who switch equally frequently from LPL to HPL and from HPL to LPL regardless of their proficiency in both languages.
d	People who have the same level of proficiency in both languages.

A further observation of each individual's response obtained from question 4(b), 5(a) and 5(b) also revealed how the sample usually code-switch, that is, from the lower proficiency language (LPL) to the higher proficiency language (HPL), vice versa or a plausible variation of the sort. As demonstrated in Figure 8, some manual calculation revealed that the two most frequent habits of code-switching are (1) switching more frequently from LPL to HPL and less frequently from HPL to LPL, and (2) switching equally frequently from LPL to HPL and from HPL to LPL regardless of their proficiency in both languages. Both obtained 35% of respondents each. The second-most frequent code-switching habit, with 17.5% of the respondents was switching more frequently from HPL to LPL and less frequently from LPL to HPL. The remainder 12.5% of the

respondents remained insignificant as they demonstrated the same level of proficiency in both languages.

Hence, a general assumption that can be made here is that the sample usually code-switches from a poorer language to a more proficient language. Though, there is also a probability that they may code-switch just as much between the two languages regardless of how proficient they are in both.
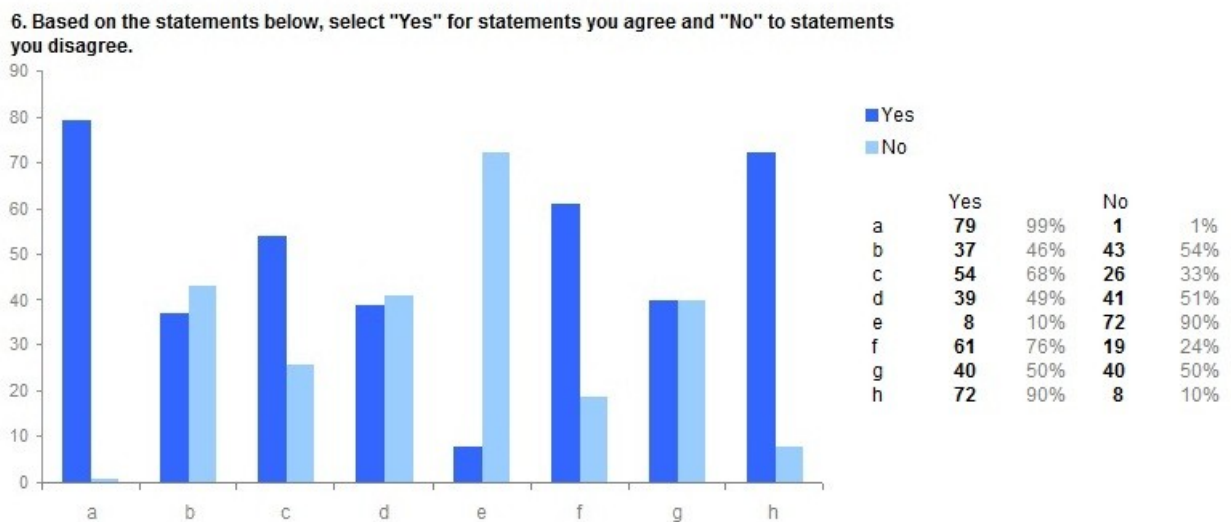

		Yes		No	
a		79	99%	1	1%
b		37	46%	43	54%
c		54	68%	26	33%
d		39	49%	41	51%
e		8	10%	72	90%
f		61	76%	19	24%
g		40	50%	40	50%
h		72	90%	8	10%

Figure 9: *The respondents' preference to the corresponding reasons for code-switching*

Table 2

The corresponding reasons for code-switching as illustrated in Figure 9

Code-switching reasons	
a	I switch to a language that my addressee is comfortable with.
b	I switch to another language whenever possible to improve my skills in that language.
c	I switch to Chinese to identify myself with people who share the same ethnic identity as me – Chinese.
d	I switch to another language to exclude people who do not know the language from a conversation.
e	I speak in English to my lecturers when discussing about assignments, but switch to Chinese when discussing to them about personal matters.

| f | I switch to another language because I lack sufficient knowledge to go on in the original language. |
| g | I speak in English when discussing about assignment or school work to friends but switch to Chinese when discussing personal matters. |
| h | I switch to another language because there is no better way to express something accurately. |

Based on Figure 9, the eight reasons for code-switching (according to Table 2) are tested in the survey. However, the most preferred reason was Reason A, where an almost unanimous 99% of respondents agreed to it while an exceptional 1% disagreed. The second-most preferred reason was Reason H, in which a close 90% of respondents agreed while 10% disagreed. Reason F was the third most preferred reason with 76% of respondents who agreed to it and 24% who disagreed. Subsequently, Reason C had 68% of respondents who agreed and 33% who disagreed. Reason G scored 50% of respondents who agreed and an equal 50% who disagreed, while Reason D followed closely behind with 49% who agreed and 51% who disagreed. Reason B was the second least preferred reason with 46% agreement and 54% disagreement. Finally, the least preferred reason by respondents was Reason E with a minority of 10% who agreed and a sizeable 90% who disagreed.
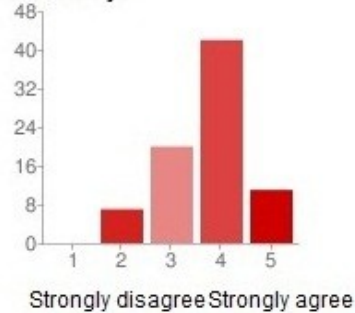
7. What is your attitude towards code-switching?
(a) It will deteriorate language A because there is too much dependency on switching to language B whenever the speaker finds it difficult to speak in language A.
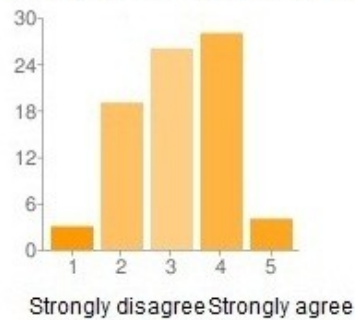
1 -Strongly disagree	3	4%
2 -Disagree	19	24%
3 -Not sure	26	33%
4 -Agree	28	35%
5 -Strongly agree	4	5%

(b) It is a legitimate mode of communication, a unique way of communicating messages effectively.

|		
1 -Strongly disagree	0	0%
2 -Disagree	7	9%
3 -Not sure	20	25%
4 -Agree	42	53%
5 -Strongly agree	11	14%

Figure 10: *The respondents' attitudes toward code-switching*

Figure 10 shows the respondents' results when asked about two polarised attitudes toward code-switching. The first indicated that code-switching will "deteriorate language A because there is too much dependency on switching to language B whenever the speaker finds it difficult to speak in language A." The most frequent response to this statement was "Agree" which obtained 35% of the total respondents. The least frequent response on the other hand, was "Strongly disagree" with only 4% of the total respondents. On the whole, respondents generally responded to the statement by agreeing (40%) rather than disagreeing (28%).

The next statement asserted that code-switching is a "legitimate mode of communication, a unique way of communicating messages effectively." Likewise, the most frequent response with a little over half of the respondents was "Agree", with 53%

of the votes. Alternatively, the least frequent response was "Strongly disagree" with zero

votes. Therefore, respondents generally responded to the statement by agreeing (67%)

rather than disagreeing (9%).

8. In your opinion, how would you feel if you find yourself code-switching in these situations:
a) In a professional setting (Eg: Workplace, official functions)
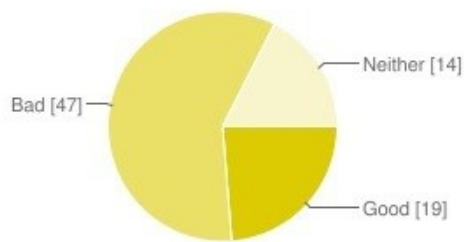
Good	19	24%
Bad	47	59%
Neither	14	18%

b) In a social setting (Eg: Family and friends gathering)
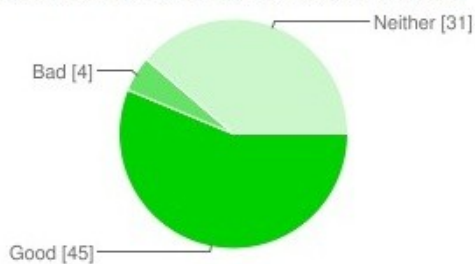
Good	45	56%
Bad	4	5%
Neither	31	39%

Figure 11: *The respondents' opinion towards code-switching in different settings*

Lastly, Figure 11 illustrates the respondents' overall opinion towards code-

switching in different settings. In a professional setting, 24% of respondents supported the

notion as good, whereas a greater part of 59% respondents deemed the notion as bad, and

a smaller fraction of 18% of respondents thought it was neither good nor bad. Conversely,

a majority 56% of respondents supported the notion of code-switching in a social setting

as good, while 5% of respondents believed it was bad and the remainder 39% thought it

was neither good nor bad.

Chapter 5

Discussion & Conclusion

After the explicit analysis of numerical data, some surface conclusions can be made. The findings suggested that most of the respondents' linguistic repertoire demonstrated a direct relationship between the order of language acquisition and language dominance. This simply implied that the earlier a speaker acquires a language, the more dominant the language will be. In this case, whenever a language is more dominant, it naturally indicated a higher oral proficiency level in the language as well.

Another significant observation was that people often switched from their lower proficiency language (LPL) to their higher proficiency language (HPL). A rather hasty assumption would conclude that the sample simply code-switched from a weaker language to a more proficient language due to the lack of knowledge in the weaker language. It is a somewhat obvious reason but proven otherwise later in the study.

Contrary to that, it was found that the most preferred reason for code-switching was not due to proficiency but was ultimately motivated by the addressee, followed by switching to convey precise meaning and then due to the lack of proficiency. The least preferred reason however, was switching to close the status gap.

Besides that, the sample's attitude towards code-switching established their impression towards code-switching. Generally, they were aware that code-switching in the long run could possibly deteriorate one's language and its overall longevity. But more importantly, they also acknowledged that code-switching is a unique mode of communication and a customary practice throughout our country. As Malaysians, there is no denying that the latter is more important than the former because code-switching is

after all, more recognised for its linguistic and social values rather than for its undervalue (extensive code-switching leading to the deterioration of one's language). Furthermore, it is reported that the participants could distinguish between different settings to code-switch whereby switching in a professional setting was bad while switching in a social setting was good.

Although they are not always consciously aware of the reasons for code-switching as well as its effects, they are still able to elucidate on the topic based on their own reflections. As far as the study goes, the researcher felt that the sample embraced the functions that could be elicited from switching languages but utilised it to their own advantage.

Discussion

While the findings have been briefly explained in the preceding section, this section will carry on with the in-depth discussion of the findings. The discussion will be divided into several subsections which are titled according to the proposed research questions.

What is the respondents' linguistic repertoire? It is reported that all the respondents in the study could speak in at least two languages (English and Chinese), with more than half of the respondents being able to communicate in additional language(s), totaling to at least 3 languages. This exactly reflected the linguistic norms in a multilingual country like Malaysia.

Since the respondents are a mix of dominant Chinese/English bilinguals, two linguistic repertoire combinations are present – respondents who considered Chinese their L1, English their L2 and respondents who considered English their L1, Chinese their L2.

It is important to distinguish how the respondents acquired their language. Spolsky (1998) stated that it is an important feature in determining the nature of an individual's bilingualism. The language acquisition method has to be identified, be it mother tongue learning, second language learning or foreign language learning. Based on the methods of acquisition, it will clarify how bilinguals do not necessarily have equal abilities in each language. A few prototypes of acquisition methods (but not limited to) can be inferred from the ten interviewees:

1.   **L1 acquisition**

   a)   All L1 languages regardless are acquired from family members first. It is considered their so-called mother tongue because it is the first language acquired since they were born. They then proceeded to further pursue and learn the language in school when they begin their formal education later in life.

2.   **L2 acquisition**

   a)   Some only formally learned their L2 in school as a fulfillment to their parents' request. As such, they hardly use the language in daily interaction unless required, such as with their grandparents.

   b)   Like the L1 acquisition, some acquired their L2 from family first followed by school later. These are people who mix their L1 and L2 at home but are formally educated in their L2 as well.

c)   There are also those whose L2 acquisition is only limited to verbal skills. This group generally refers to people whose L2 is Chinese. Although essentially, Chinese should be their native tongue, they only picked up the language after their L1 through verbal interaction with their family, relatives and friends. They have never been educated in Chinese vernacular schools but mostly, in government schools or private schools where Malay or English is the medium of instruction.

A unique observation such as the one demonstrated in 2(c) has also been observed by Lee, Lee, Wong and Ya'acob (2010) in their study. Lee et al. (2010) noted that a majority of their respondents admitted English as their dominant language despite being raised in a multilingual background. They are adept in switching to other languages such as Bahasa Malaysia, Chinese or Tamil when necessary but felt most comfortable using English in a wide range of domains. Thus, English is elevated from simply a language for communication to playing the role of a first language.

Furthermore, the respondents used different languages in different contexts, which demonstrated Spolsky's (1998) notion that bilinguals are subject to "a repertoire of domain-related rules of language choice" (p. 46). It is found that most respondents used their L1 in most of their daily interaction, especially among friends and family. However, one particular participant stated that her use of L1 was less regular but more addressee-oriented, *"If they [the addressee] do not understand Chinese languages, then I will speak to them in English to prevent them from being left out. I also speak English when it comes to communicating with lecturers, tutors and administration staff in my university."* This is due to her L1 being her less-used language in her repertoire.

On the other hand, the domains for L2 usage varied. Likewise, most would use their L2 around family members, relatives, friends and occasionally, when speaking to strangers whose preferred language is uncertain. However, there are also some who only used their L2 when necessary or in specific settings such as *"Professional situations like workplace or campus"* or *"In school and institutions and sometimes while socialising"*. Surprisingly, there was one respondent who utilised his L2 *"to practice and learn"* the language.

Besides being proficient in English, the 11 interviewees are also proficient in Chinese dialects, with the standard dialect, Mandarin predominating followed by Cantonese, Hokkien and Hakka. This combination of bilinguals stemmed from the rise of English schools before and after Independence which resulted in Malay-English, Cantonese-English, Hokkien-English, etc bilinguals. As English schools are only available in urban areas, a large number of pupils from each ethnic group attended schools whose medium of instruction was their mother tongue (Asmah, 1993).

In Malaysia, a Chinese Malaysian may declare English as their first language due to language shift – a native language is replaced by a more dominant language used in the country over time. If this is so, the shift should vaguely begin during the time of the British colony that imposed English education in schools during their reign in Malaya. A study by Ang (2006) also noted a shift from Chinese dialects to Mandarin due to the standardised use of Mandarin stipulated throughout the country's Chinese vernacular schools.

Not only that, Ang (2006) reported that social changes such as globalisation and modernisation accelerated the use of English language among younger generations of Chinese in Malaysia. She noted that there was a palpable transition from the middle of the

20th century when the Chinese still used dialects of their origin, to half a century later when the modern generation ceased using their grandparents' languages and shifted to using English or Mandarin predominantly. Furthermore, Ang (2006) asserted that the language use of the younger generation is often influenced by the implicit process of acculturation. This leads to the code-switching phenomenon which "reflects the integration of local cultures in the language usage of the Chinese ethnic in Malaysia."

Based on the interview, nine out of ten interviewees found themselves engaging in intrasentential switching more frequently – the switching of language within a single utterance at a word or phrasal level. By and large, the interviewees cited that intrasentential switching often becomes an alternative to accommodate the tip of the tongue phenomenon where it is used for *"some words in a language that can't be thought of at the spur of the moment"* or the *"loss of words in the language hence, switching into a more well-versed language"*. Though, some have also cited intrasentential switching to indicate accurate expression: "*Some words or meaning are better expressed in a certain language"*. A minority also suggested that the use of intersentential switching reinforced the accuracy of a whole expression: *"If I switch between sentences it's because a particular expression is unique to a language."*

In support of this finding, Asmah (1993) has observed that "the interlingual code-switching of Malaysians may be inter-sentential or intra-sentential in nature, but the more frequent one is the latter type" (p. 112). According to a study by Poplack (1980), skilled bilinguals would often engage in intrasentential switching, as opposed to less skilled bilinguals who would instead engage in intersentential switching. This is due to the stricter syntactic and grammatical constraints that govern intrasentential switching which requires a certain degree of skills to accomplish – a feat that many Malaysians seem to

pull off with ease. Therefore, it suffices to say that most of the respondents are fluent bilinguals. They are comfortable and knowledgeable enough in code-switching to be able to perform highly skilled switches such as intrasentential ones.

Do the respondents code-switch more often from the low proficiency language (LPL) to the high proficiency language (HPL) or vice versa? The second major group of the respondents switched from the LPL to the HPL. That is, they often find themselves switching from a poorer language to a more proficient language. When enquired about the phenomena, 6 out of 11 interviewees stated lack of vocabulary or fluency in a language as their reason. For instance, one said that, *"[I switch from Chinese to English more] because my vocabulary in English is larger and it helps to more accurately express myself"*. Strangely, when it came to the selection of code-switching reasons, the results did not correlate with this finding.

However, the majority of the respondents switched from LPL to HPL and vice versa equally frequently, regardless of their proficiency in both languages. When interviewed, respondents who responded with this answer expressed, *"I switch for the comfort of myself and the listeners"*, *"to suit the context of the conversation"*, *"because I want to learn the language"* and *"because I have problems using Chinese"* as some instances. All answers significantly differed from one another and it was difficult to determine a regularity of why the respondents code-switched in such a manner. But notably, they expressed non-proficiency related reasons that they felt were paramount to them.

Do the respondents code-switch to make up for bilingual incompetence or to indicate effective communicative strategies? Although the respondents may

unconsciously engage in code-switching, it often presupposes some particular reason for doing so. However, the respondents are only allowed to choose from the options provided in the questionnaire. They are given the following reasons for code-switching:

Proficiency reasons:

- Switching to improve skills in a language

- Switching due to lack of sufficient knowledge in a language

Social reasons:

- Switching based on addressee

- Switching for solidarity

- Switching to increase social distance

- Switching based on status difference

Stylistic reasons:

- Switching based on topics

- Switching for accurate expression of words or phrases

Ultimately, the results showed that the most preferred reason for code-switching is a social reason – switching based on the addressee. It is not surprising as Holmes (2008) said that code-switching occur easily when there is an apparent change in the social situation, such as the presence of a new person or addressee.

When asked to rank the reasons they preferred - from the most important to the least important, interviewees who selected the addressee-based reason as the most important felt that the addressee is an integral element when deciding on language choice. The addressee is by definition, the most elementary reason for speaking – to communicate messages clearly to another person, even if it meant switching languages to accommodate

the listener. One respondent said, *"It is because, to me, the main reason people communicate is to make people understand what the speaker is trying to say. There is no need to stick to a particular language when the listener will probably comprehend the things said to him/her better by code-switching."* Some also pointed out the importance of relating to the addressee to lead to better relationships: *"I feel the comfort of the listeners should be the priority in any communication"* or that, *"I value any social relations, hence I code-switch according to the addressee"*. A remark made by an interviewee pointed out that communication would be futile if there was no mutual understanding between the speakers in the first place: *"When communicating, we're conveying messages and information. So sometimes we have to switch to a language the listener understands and is comfortable with. If they do not understand, what's the point of communicating at all?"* Another reason is to ensure that everyone in the circle of conversation felt included and to avoid appearing seemingly superior when speaking in English: *"It is because some people will feel left out, uncomfortable or sees me as being rude if I speak a language they are not proficient in. Sometimes people will say that I am showing off if I speak in English knowing that some of my addressees are not proficient in it."*

The second most preferred reason for code-switching is a stylistic one – switching for accurate expression. There are times when the respondents found it easier to code-switch for a single word or phrase because it is better expressed or meant in another language. This is usual for a Chinese/English bilingual as there are certain words or phrases in Chinese which has no English equivalent, and vice versa. It is a common manner of code-switching. Holmes (2008) asserted that this switch is "referentially motivated" in that the speaker wants to be precise in conveying the message (p. 39). A respondent who supported the notion stated, *"Some meanings are difficult to explain or express in one language only. Therefore, this can help to ensure that the message is sent*

accurately, avoiding any misunderstandings." It is also because providing clarity when speaking is important in communication: "*Expressing myself in its true meaning is paramount. I prioritise conveying my messages clearly and accurately when I talk, and this is the most basic thing I can do.*" Thus, they see the advantage in expressing oneself clearly no matter what it takes to achieve it.

In supporting this finding, an argument from Skiba (1997) asserted that this sort of switching helped ease the conveyance of meaning (as cited in Bista, 2008):

> Where code switching is used due to an inability of expression, it serves for continuity in speech instead of presenting interference in language. In this respect, code switching stands to be a supporting element in communication of information and in social interaction; therefore serves for communicative purposes in the way that it is used as a tool for transference of meaning. (p. 13)

Subsequently, the third most preferred reason is a proficiency reason that is, switching due to insufficient knowledge to go on in the original language. This reason somewhat strives on the nativist view which asserts that switching from one language to another in an unchanged speech situation is an indicator of a bilingual with less than ideal competence (Weinreich, 1953). In short, switching is a sign of weakness in a certain language.

Most of the respondents do not have equal levels of oral proficiency in Chinese and English. Hence, many attributed code-switching to this imbalance in proficiency. In which, some have noted, it was due to their limited vocabulary: "*My vocabulary and language in my first language is much better than my second language,*" or not allowing a weaker language interfere with the importance of expressing oneself accurately: "*I feel it is important for a person to be able to express oneself clearly in a conversation to*

avoid misunderstandings. So I don't see the problem in switching from a weaker language to a better language". One participant also noted that the lack of interest in the language has lead him to a weaker command of the language, thus causing him to switch in the said manner.

When asked about why this proficiency reason is more favoured compared to others, one particular interviewee stated his stand over the matter: *Sufficient knowledge of a language is the most important factor when it comes to code-switching because without knowledge of a language, proficiency and stylistic purposes would not even exist.* Nevertheless, he could be right.

On the contrary, the solidarity factor was less preferred than the preceding three. Undoubtedly, it is one of the most common social reasons attached to code-switching. David (2007) stated in her study that switching varieties was an innovative strategy to establish group membership and solidarity with the listeners. However, none of the 11 interviewees had ranked this factor as the most important factor. Thus, no further substantiation could be made. The same applies to the fifth and sixth most preferred reason, switching according to topic and switching to increase social distance respectively.

The second least preferred reason fell upon a proficiency reason as well, but for a completely opposing reason – switching to improve one's language. Due to the fact that some participants had learned the language verbally from their family members from a very young age, they only had a basic grasp of the language, just enough for them to understand others and to be understood by others. To reinforce this notion, a study by Kärchner-Ober (2007) called the phenomenon as "multi-semilingualism", where her Malaysian students selectively develop their language proficiency according to domains.

As a result, they only develop the language far enough to enable them to function appropriately in daily situations (as cited by Hufeisen & Jessner, 2009). Any more than that and some of them might have to resort to code-switching *"to learn more of that language"*. If a language is not put to practice, one would never learn to speak the language without inhibitions and fear of embarrassment.

On the other hand, the reason that least appealed to the respondents is code-switching according to the addressee's status. Referring to the university domain in the respondents' linguistic repertoire, many of them do not confide in lecturers for personal matters but mostly for academic purposes. As such, formal topics to a person of higher status, such as a lecturer, usually entail the use of English language, more so because the respondents are undergraduate students of the said language. Hence, it would be more appropriate to speak in English. Had the students enclosed personal matters to their lecturers, it would most probably be conveyed in English as well since lecturers have an obligation to uphold the use of English inside and outside of the classroom. Therefore, this may adequately explain the lack of response in this area.

In conclusion, code-switching to make up for bilingual incompetence is not the paramount reason for code-switching but more notably, an indicator of effective communicative strategies, be it for social or stylistic purposes.

What are the respondents' attitudes towards code-switching? On many occasions, Romaine (1995) noted that there is less attention paid in exploring speakers' attitudes towards code-switching and a community's perception of competence according to code-switching. Establishing the speakers' attitudes towards code-switching can help shed some light on the nature of the speakers' code-switching habits.

Firstly, the survey attempted to test the traditional view which stated that code-switching will hinder a person's language learning process due to the frequent dependency on switching to a more familiar language. In short, code-switching does not allow a person to keep practicing the language but instead, offers an alternative language to pick up where it left off. It is found that a majority of the respondents agreed that code-switching contributed to such a predicament. This is due to the ongoing language shift in our own country. In the context of the population, the shift from native Chinese dialects to the standard dialect of Mandarin is more relevant and notable, just as Ang (2006) had observed. Fewer people use their ancestor's language but instead opt to use the language they have learned in school. Besides, there is also a shift from native Chinese dialects to English. In such cases, people are labeled with the derogatory term, "banana" for a Malaysian Chinese whose lifestyle has been infiltrated by western influences, one of which includes a far more superior proficiency in English compared to their native tongue of Chinese. However, the existence of Chinese vernacular schools helps in slowing down the shift. This explains why the respondents would have agreed to such a view towards code-switching.

In support of this, Romaine (2000) exemplified a study of a Panjabi/English bilingual community in Britain where contact with English among the younger generation is so strong that many are afraid that the language will be lost in the future, a fear shared among members of minority language communities. Many have also speculated that bilingualism is a stepping stone to linguistic extinction, especially with the interference of code-switching frequently thrown into the mix. In fact, Romaine pointed out that there have been some instances where language death was preceded by bilingualism and extensive code-switching.

From a contemporary perspective, code-switching can also be positively viewed as a legitimate mode of communication, a unique way of conveying messages effectively. Similarly, a majority of the respondents agreed to the statement as well. In spite of its disadvantages, a wide range of functions are manifested within code-switching. It is an indicator of identity, membership and stylistic preferences, as well as a display of creativity and innovation in drawing meanings from different language choices. After all, findings of the most preferred reason for code-switching have clearly supported this notion. Just as David (2007) had tried to provide in her study:

> An insightful understanding of the language choices of Malaysian youth in a multilingual and multiracial nature of Malaysian society and to view the deployment of language choices and code-switching as communicative strategies rather than mother-tongue interference or failure to master the English language. (p. 3)

There are no polar opposites in the results to sensibly complement both statements but rather, an acknowledged agreement on both conditions. In a nutshell, the respondents viewed code-switching as being more of an implicitly meaningful skill of sorts rather than a possible threat to the longevity of a language.

On another note, the study also attempted to investigate what the respondents felt about code-switching in different settings. Overall, the respondents felt code-switching in a professional situation is bad. The most common categories of reasons that can be conjured from the respondents' open ended responses are:

1. It indicates unprofessional behaviour

2. It increases social distance, thus excludes others from a conversation

3. There is no adherence to one official language

After all, it is not very impressionable to switch from one language to another in official occasions where an implicit lingua franca is employed. In such situations, a formal mode of communication such as English is usually practiced. Murugesan (2003) wrote in an article that competence in English is paramount in any field of interest, and especially valued in workplaces. As code-switching is often perceived as language interference and an archetypal verbal incompetency, when used in a professional setting, it often exudes negative connotations of sorts. In fact, the general perception on code-switching is that it takes place in informal contexts while formal contexts would tend to adopt more controlled forms of bilingualism (Mondada, 2007).

Alternatively, respondents who thought that it is good to code-switch in a professional situation expressed that:

1.   Code-switching to convey a message effectively is more important than being unprofessional

2.   It strongly indicated flexibility and knowledge in various languages

3.   It can prevent them unnecessary language barriers with others

On the other hand, those who are neutral gave more addressee-oriented reasons. The respondents stated that code-switching appropriately depending *"on how one needs to express him/herself during that particular time"* can highly benefit a person, more so if it involves *"situations you might need to communicate with foreigners, for example, Korean, Japanese or Chinese who might not be so fluent in speaking or understanding English."* After all, building a genuine relationship is integral in a workplace. One respondent also noted that code-switching will depend on the kind of tone it will permeate into the situation because, *"at times, doing so can create a more comfortable environment for interaction which would benefit me if my motive is to achieve a certain*

positive result. But if I am a boss and I would like to highlight a strong point I would

much rather keep it to English only to create an important tone in my message."

However, when it came to code-switching in a social setting, a majority of them agreed that it is good. Unlike professional settings, code-switching usually implies positive connotations when used appropriately in social settings. The respondents who agreed to it reasoned that:

1. Code-switching indicated solidarity, closeness and intimacy
2. It allows one to convey a message easier when talking to others

When in a social setting, it is simply an informal, casual and intimate setting where people have fewer inhibitions when speaking. When they are comfortable in each other's presence, their language conduct becomes less rigid. As a result, matters of formality and apt language choices become obsolete. So, it is usually acceptable to code-switch in such situations.

Those who find it bad to code-switch stated that switching to English especially, would not be good when they are surrounded by people who speak Chinese.

Lastly, those who concurred that switching in a social setting is neither good nor bad maintained that code-switching is fine as long as it fulfills the purpose of communication: *"Whether or not the code-switching phenomenon is good, it is good enough that the purpose of communication has been fulfilled."* The fundamental purpose of speaking in a social setting is to get the message across clearly. One respondent stated that, *"I guess it does not matter whether you code switch or not in a social setting. As long as your family and friends can understand you, it should be alright."* This showed

that in a social setting, how one chooses to achieve successful communication remains a matter of personal preference.

The conclusion is simple – the respondents are able to distinguish between work and play, where the former characterised a strict no-switch rule, while the latter characterised a less rigid environment which in turn, encouraged code-switching. The data simply reinforced the whole stereotype regarding appropriate language conduct in different settings as Mondada (2007) had clearly stated. Although it seemed to be a widely held belief, there are also others who saw switching in both situations as pertaining to both good and bad.

Implications and Significance of Findings

The significance and implications derived from the study can possibly contribute to the existing body of literature on code-switching. As such, they will be noted here.

One of them is the reinforcement of how important it is in distinguishing the method of acquisition for each language. It acts as an explanatory device to reveal why a bilingual may not be equally proficient in all languages. It is rather impossible to attain native like proficiency in both languages. Hence, these differences in ability should be accepted as different rather than deficit. People should not allow certain linguistic norms to govern their notion of the bilingual ability. It is one's own preference of how and when one decides to learn a language. Surely, it is only a matter of receiving more input and practicing more of the language if one would like to improve the proficiency of a language. If need be, the best way to do so is to obtain exposure from the language at an early age, and subsequently be formally schooled in the language as well.

Another significant observation was that people often switched from their LPL to their HPL. Looking deeper into the factors of code-switching, the study revealed that code-switching in such a manner does not mainly presuppose a lack of proficiency in a language but rather, certain other social and stylistic factors. Hence, a change in perception is important so that the notion of code-switching as an indicator of language deficiency is not overly generalised. A bilingual speaker should not be subjected to stereotypes or labels according to their ability because more often than not, every bilingual is different. At some point, code-switching has benefited speakers and it needs more recognition than it has received from people outside the linguistic community.

Generally, there is an awareness of the uses and consequences of code-switching among the respondents. A majority of them do realise that context plays a substantial role in the interpretation of code-switching and the connotations it exude. Thus, they are highly aware that the perception they project on others when code-switching is highly dependent on the situation they are in. This awareness becomes an advantage as most of them are able to consciously control their use of code-switching according to appropriate situations. Hence, code-switching is not always interference or an indicator of proficiency. It is an integrated communicative strategy in everyday interaction.

Though, their overall attitude towards code-switching can be seen as being on the fence – a balance between good and bad. This study established their concern for a language's existence because they were aware that code-switching extensively may deteriorate one's language. But more importantly, they feel that its role as a communicative strategy is more vital in the localised context. Generally, they do recognise mixed speech as a legitimate mode of communication in its own right. Perhaps

this finding will contribute to the attitudinal aspects of code-switching which the field is sorely lacking.

Recommendations

Recommendations to the study sponsor. Based on the data, the researcher felt that code-switching should be seen in a more positive light, despite the possible language extinction that will entail from code-switching extensively. We should learn to embrace code-switching as a communicative strategy, especially the underlying benefits that can be elicited from skillfully alternating between languages such as the signaling of group membership, solidarity and ease of expression. Furthermore, it helps to cultivate our multilingual cultural identity. As Malaysians, bilingualism and code-switching is almost an inherent ability. We are able to learn more than one language and maneuver it to our advantage. After all, how many people can proudly say that they can voluntarily switch between two languages and still produce meaningful utterances to their listeners?

Since the data also suggested that code-switching in a professional setting is deemed unprofessional and inconsistent, domains such as workplaces should implement a strict adherence to one official language. By doing so, one can establish the domains where code-switching is allowed and where code-switching is unacceptable.

Recommendations to other researchers. Due to the limitations in the study, there are several foreseeable weaknesses in the study. The quality of the study can be improved if more thorough and valid procedures are taken. Thus, some recommendations to other researchers will be noted here. The sample size consisted of 80 participants, out of an approximate 200 in total, excluding English Language freshmen from the recent

intake. A larger sample size involving more students will produce a more generalisable set of data, not to mention a broader insight on the issue.

In addition, only a written form of the interview is conducted due to time constraints. As a result, the answers are lackluster and standard. Perhaps it did not exactly reflect what the interviewees could have expressed had they done it verbally. As such, conducting a verbal interview individually with each interviewee would have provided more in-depth and accurate portrayals of their personal opinions.

In order to test the most preferred code-switching reason, eight options are provided in the questionnaire. Respondents either responded "Yes" or "No" to each option. This deliberate limitation may not have represented every code-switching reason that was available. The questionnaire should have included an open ended section which allowed respondents to include any other relevant factors into the mix.

If possible, a third triangulation method will make a vast difference in the study. Observation of code-switching in classroom speech will add a discourse analysis element into the study. It can further reinforce findings from the survey and distinguish firsthand regularities of code-switching factors from the discourse obtained. Though, this methodology may stand alone as another fieldwork study altogether.

Also, in obtaining the respondents' level of proficiency in both languages, better yardsticks to test proficiency levels should be used. Thus, legitimate and standard tests will make a more precise alternative than that of the respondents' self-evaluation.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaire

FYP Survey

NOTE: If, by any chance, you are NOT a Chinese-English bilingual, you do not have to participate in this survey.

I am Leong Kwan Yi, a Year 3 Trimester 1 Bachelor (Hons) of English Language (EL) student from Universiti Tunku Abdul Rahman (UTAR). I am conducting a study to determine the reasons for code-switching among Chinese-English bilinguals in the EL programme. Code-switching refers to switching between different languages while speaking, e.g. When speaking in English, you code-switch to Chinese, etc. I would be grateful if you would kindly take a few minutes to answer this questionnaire. Your response will be used for research purposes only and will be kept strictly confidential.
* Required

Section A

Course: Bachelor of Arts (Hons) English Language *
- ○ Year 1 Semester 2
- ○ Year 1 Semester 3
- ○ Year 2 Semester 2
- ○ Year 2 Semester 3
- ○ Year 3 Semester 1

Age: *
- ○ 18 - 21
- ○ 22 - 24
- ○ 25 and above

Section B

1. Which languages can you speak in? *Note: You may select more than one language. All Chinese dialects are classified under Chinese.
- ☐ English
- ☐ Chinese
- ☐ Malay
- ☐ Other: _____

2. Between Chinese and English, which language would you consider as your first language? *

○ Chinese

○ English

3. Which language then would you consider as your second language? *

○ Chinese

○ English

Section C

4(a) Between English and Chinese, select your more frequent and second-most frequent language in your daily interaction. *

	Chinese	English
More frequent language	○	○
Second-most frequent language	○	○

(b) On a scale of 1 to 10, rate your proficiency in Chinese. *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Lowest	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Highest

On a scale of 1 to 10, rate your proficiency in English. *

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Lowest	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	Highest

5(a) How often do you switch from Chinese to English? *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Rarely	○	○	○	○	○	All the time

(b) How often do you switch from English to Chinese? *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Rarely	○	○	○	○	○	All the time

Section D

6. Based on the statements below, select "Yes" for statements you agree and "No" to statements you disagree. *

	Yes	No
(a) I switch to a language that my addressee is comfortable with.	○	○
(b) I switch to another language whenever possible to improve my skills in that language.	○	○
(c) I switch to Chinese to identify myself with people who share the same ethnicity identity as me – Chinese.	○	○
(d) I switch to another language to exclude people who do not know the language from a conversation.	○	○
(e) I speak in English to my lecturers when discussing about assignments, but switch to Chinese when discussing personal matters with them.	○	○
(f) I switch to another language because I lack sufficient knowledge to go on in the original language.	○	○
(g) I speak in English when discussing about assignment or school work to friends but switch to Chinese when discussing personal matters.	○	○
(h) I switch to another language because it is best expressed or meant in that language.	○	○

7. What is your attitude towards code-switching? *(a) It will deteriorate language A because there is too much dependency on switching to language B whenever the speaker finds it difficult to speak in language A.

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

(b) It is a legitimate mode of communication, a unique way of communicating messages effectively. *

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	○	○	○	○	○	Strongly agree

8. In your opinion, how would you feel if you find yourself code-switching in these situations: *a) In a professional setting (Eg: Workplace, official functions)
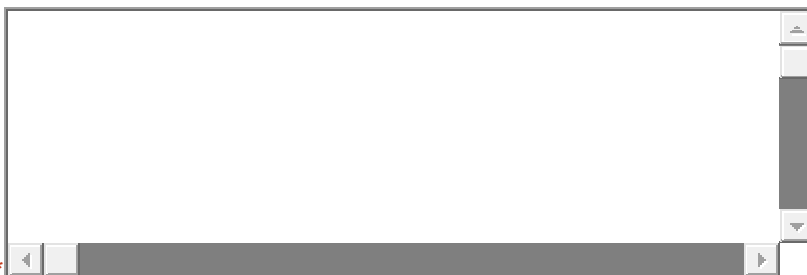
○ Good

○ Bad

○ Neither

Why? *

b) In a social setting (Eg: Family and friends gathering) *

○ Good

○ Bad

○ Neither

Why? *

End of questionnaire

Thank you for your participation!

Submit

Appendix B: Original Data (Written Interview)

Name: Chiang Teen Hao   Course: EL Y2S2

Interview questions

1. How did you learn your **first** language?

    a) Acquired from family OR learned in school? If both, which first?
        <u>Family first, school later</u>

2. How did you learn your **second** language?

    a) Acquired from family OR learned in school? If both, which first?
        <u>Family first, then school</u>

3. a) How and when (in what context) do you use each of these languages?
    First language:
    <u>Most of the time. Formal settings. With friends.</u>

    Second language:
    <u>Only when necessary.</u>

4. Which is your strongest Chinese dialect?
    <u>Cantonese</u>

5. Choose one according to your answer in the questionnaire:
    a) Why do you switch more often from Chinese to English and less vice versa?

                     OR

    b) Why do you switch more often from English to Chinese and less vice versa?

                     OR

    c) Why do you switch equally often between both languages?
    <u>I switch more from Chinese to English because I'm more fluent in English and when it is necessary.</u>

6. Usually, how do you switch from one language to another? Why so? (choose one)

    a) Intersentential (switching *between* sentences)

    b) Intrasentential (switching *within* sentences)

    Intrasentential. Loss of words in the language and because I'm more well-versed in a certain language.

7. Why did you rank this statement as the first/most significant?

    Switching based on addressee. When communicating, we're conveying message and information. So sometimes we have to switch to a language the listener understands and is comfortable with. If they don't understand, what's the point of communicating at all?

8. Why do you think other reasons (e.g. proficiency/stylistic/social reasons) are less relevant in code-switching?

    Not sure, maybe because they are important, just not as important as the first.

9. a) In a professional setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?

    Bad. Not professional at all.

    b) In a social setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?

    Neither. In a social setting, it is more important to convey the message in the easiest way possible.

10. a) In general, what is your overall view towards code-switching?

    Depends.

    b) Why?

    Positive to convey message in an easier way in an informal setting but it may be negative in a formal settings.

Name: Ooi Zao May   **Course: EL Y2S2**

Interview questions

1. How did you learn your **first** language?

    b) Acquired from family OR learned in school? If both, which first?
       <u>Family first, school second.</u>

2. How did you learn your **second** language?

    b) Acquired from family OR learned in school? If both, which first?
       <u>School.</u>

3. a) How and when (in what context) do you use each of these languages?

    First language:

    <u>At home. With friends.</u>

    Second language:

    <u>In classes conducted in English.</u>

4. Which is your strongest Chinese dialect?

    <u>Mandarin</u>

5. Choose one according to your answer in the questionnaire:

    a) Why do you switch more often from Chinese to English and less vice versa?

    OR

    b) Why do you switch more often from English to Chinese and less vice versa?

    OR

    c) Why do you switch equally often between both languages?

    <u>I switch equally. I switch from Chinese to English because it is the language most
    of my listeners are comfortable with. However, I also switch from English to
    Chinese most of the time for the comfort of my listeners.</u>

6. Usually, how do you switch from one language to another? Why so? (choose one)

    c) Intersentential (switching *between* sentences)

d) Intrasentential (switching *within* sentences)

<u>Both. Intersentential is easily understood and organized while intrasentential is used when some vocabulary is not available in my mind.</u>

7. Why did you rank this statement as the first/most significant?

<u>Switching based on addressee. The reason I agree with this statement is because I feel the comfort of listeners should be the priority in any communication since I'm fluent in both.</u>

8. Why do you think other reasons (e.g. proficiency/stylistic/social reasons) are less relevant in code-switching?

<u>We can achieve higher proficiency by learning through other chanels Stylistic and social reasons are less important as it does not affect communication much.</u>

9. a) In a professional setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?

<u>Good – However, it is good if we can become friendlier and more intimate by switching.</u>

<u>Bad – Switching to another language due to incompetency, jeopardise our image.</u>

b) In a social setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?

<u>Good – Can identify with others.</u>

<u>Bad – Can make others feel distanced.</u>

10. a) In general, what is your overall view towards code-switching?

<u>Neutral.</u>

b) Why?

<u>It can be good or bad, depends on the context.</u>

Name: Timothy Kok   **Course: EL Y2S2**

Interview questions

1. How did you learn your **first** language?

    c) Acquired from family OR learned in school? If both, which first?
       Acquired from family first, school later.

2. How did you learn your **second** language?
    c) Acquired from family OR learned in school? If both, which first?
       Acquired from family.

3. a) How and when (in what context) do you use each of these languages?
    First language:
    Everyday use. Most of the time.

    Second language:
    To secondary school friends.

4. Which is your strongest Chinese dialect?
    Hokkien

5. Choose one according to your answer in the questionnaire:
    a) Why do you switch more often from Chinese to English and less vice versa?
                        OR
    b) Why do you switch more often from English to Chinese and less vice versa?
                        OR
    c) Why do you switch equally often between both languages?
    I switch more from Chinese to English because my English vocabulary is much
    better than Chinese.

6. Usually, how do you switch from one language to another? Why so? (choose one)
    e) Intersentential (switching *between* sentences)
    f) Intrasentential (switching *within* sentences)

Intrasentential. Some words in a language can't be thought of at the spur of a moment.

7. Why did you rank this statement as the first/most significant?
Switching due to lack of proficiency. My vocabulary and language in my first language is much better than my second language.

8. Why do you think other reasons (e.g. proficiency/stylistic/social reasons) are less relevant in code-switching?
Sufficient knowledge of a language is the most important factor when it comes to code-switching because without knowledge of a language, proficiency and stylistic reasons would not even exist.

9. a) In a professional setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?
Good – When someone in authority speaks the different language
Bad – When everybody else is speaking a single language
Neither – When everybody speaks both languages openly

b) In a social setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?
Good – When friends and family switches codes as well
Bad – When friends and family speak a single uniform language
Neither – When friends and family don't mind code-switching

10. a) In general, what is your overall view towards code-switching?
Positive.

b) Why?
It helps to convey messages more efficiently and effectively.

Name: Lee Yi Ling   **Course: EL Y3S1**

Interview questions

1. How did you learn your **first** language?

    a) Acquired from family OR learned in school?
        Both. Family first.

2. How did you learn your **second** language?
    a) Acquired from family OR learned in school?
        Both. School first.

3. a) How and when (in what context) do you use each of these languages?
    First language:
    Everyday usage, with friends, etc.

    Second language:
    With friends, everyday usage (depending on person I'm interacting with).

4. Which is your strongest Chinese dialect?
    Mandarin

5. a) Why do you switch more often from Chinese to English and less vice versa?
                              OR
    b) Why do you switch more often from English to Chinese and less vice versa?
    I switch more often from Chinese to English because my vocabulary in English is
    larger and it helps to more accurately express myself.

6. Usually, how do you switch from one language to another? Why so?
    a) Intersentential (switching *between* sentences)
    b) Intrasentential (switching *within* sentences)
    Intrasentential because I only need to use a word. It's mainly a vocabulary
    problem. If I switch between sentences (intersentential) it's because a particular
    expression is unique to its language.

7. Why did you rank this statement as the first/most significant?
   Switching for accurate expression. Because I prioritise conveying my messages clearly and accurately when I talk, and this is the most basic thing I can do.

8. Why do you think other reasons (e.g. proficiency/stylistic/social reasons) are less relevant in code-switching?
   Because expressing myself in its true meaning is paramount.

9. a) In a professional setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?
   It is good only whwen the product or technical term of the word is in another language, for example a product slogan, or a Latin terminology. Other than that, code switching is bad.

   b) In a social setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?
   Good to help enhance communication through better understanding.

10. a) In general, what is your overall view towards code-switching?
    (Positive/negative)
    Positive.

    b) Why?
    The advantages greatly outweigh the cons. It is more important for people to have good communication with each other, rather than to worry about deteriorating of skills in language. The latter can be addressed, the former is more difficult.

Name: Tiu Jin En   **Course: EL Y3S1**

Interview questions

1. How did you learn your **first** language?

    a) Acquired from family OR learned in school? If both, which first?
    Acquired from family first. My parents communicate with me using English.
    Then I learned it in school.

2. How did you learn your **second** language?
    a) Acquired from family OR learned in school? If both, which first?
    Acquired from my grandparents as I lived with them during my first four years
    of my life.

3. a) How and when (in what context) do you use each of these languages?
    First language:
    It depends on my listener. If he/she/they do not understand Chinese languages,
    then I will speak to them using English to prevent them being left out. I also speak
    English when it comes to communicating with lecturers, tutors and administration
    staffs in my university.

    Second language:
    The first Chinese dialect I learned was Hokkien (having learned from my
    grandparents like what I stated earlier). I would speak this dialect with my family
    members, relatives or strangers. I find myself speaking Hokkien a lot when
    strangers know I speak this dialect; or when I am in Kedah or Penang because
    almost everyone speaks it there.

4. Which is your strongest Chinese dialect?
    Hokkien.

5. Why is your L1 your second-most frequent language while your L2 is your more
    frequent language?
    I speak Chinese (L2) more because most of my friends speak to me using it.

6. Choose one according to your answer in the questionnaire:

   a) Why do you switch more often from Chinese to English and less vice versa?

<div align="center">OR</div>

   b) Why do you switch more often from English to Chinese and less vice versa?

   <u>I switch from Chinese to English more because I am not proficient enough in</u>
   <u>Chinese languages compared to English. My vocabulary knowledge of English is</u>
   <u>much better compared to Chinese.</u>

7. Usually, how do you switch from one language to another? Why so? (choose one)

   a) Intersentential (switching *between* sentences)

   b) Intrasentential (switching *within* sentences)

   <u>Intrasentential. It is because I usually substitute Chinese words with English</u>
   <u>words when I cannot find a suitable word to describe something or a situation.</u>

8. Why did you rank this statement as the first/most significant?

   <u>It is because some people will feel left out, uncomfortable or see me as being rude</u>
   <u>if I speak a language they are not proficient in. Sometimes people will say that I</u>
   <u>am showing off if I speak in English knowing some of my addressee are not</u>
   <u>proficient in it.</u>

9. Why do you think other reasons (e.g. proficiency/stylistic/social reasons) are less relevant in code-switching?

   <u>It is because, to me, the main reason people communicate is to make people</u>
   <u>understand what the speaker is trying to say. There is no need to stick on a</u>
   <u>particular language when the listener will probably comprehend the things said to</u>
   <u>him/ her better by code-switching.</u>

10. a) In a professional setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?

    <u>It is acceptable if the audience consist of people who speak different languages.</u>
    <u>Switching languages at the right time can make the speaker sound friendlier and</u>

makes communication more efficient. It also helps when I want to get my idea understood by everyone who is listening to me.

b) In a social setting, switching languages in what way is considered good, bad and neither?

It is neither good or bad as long as the speaker gets to express his/ her ideas efficiently and also to enable the listener to understand the speaker better.

11. a) In general, what is your overall view towards code-switching?
Positive.

b) Why?
Coming from a diverse culture and language background I was brought up in an environment where almost everyone code-switches. May it be politician and actors speaking on local television or listening to family members, relatives and friends communicate, code-switching happens on a daily basis.