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***Switching between Modern Standard Arabic
and Algerian Arabic:
An Ethnographic Study of Preparatory Pupils
At 'Dib Tahar' Primary School(Elkhroub,
Constantine, Algeria).***

Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English Language in Candidacy for
the degree of 'the Es-sciences Doctorate' in Applied Linguistics

By: Mrs. Mouleme Manel

Supervisor: Prof. Belouahem Riad

Board of Examiners: 11/11/2020

Chairwoman: Pr. Abderrahim Farida	Frères Mentouri University -Constantine1
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Member : Pr.Kaouli Nadir	Hadj Lkhdar University -Batna 1

*All praises to **Allah** for the strength and blessing He has given me to complete this work*

Dedication

This work is wholeheartedly dedicated to two special persons in my life:

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Abstract

The present study investigates children's switching between Modern Standard Arabic and Algerian Arabic. It aims at examining the mechanisms of diglossic switching, its functions and its structures, and whether the code used by the interlocutor affects the children's speech and choice of code. To attain these aims, a qualitative research is adopted using an ethnographic method with twenty-four (24) pre-school children aged from five to six (5-6) years at 'Dib Tahar' primary school at Elkroub, Constantine- Algeria. It is based on triangulation: participant observation, the teacher's and the children's interviews and the analysis of the artifacts. Data are collected using some tools namely: recordings and transcription using the International Phonetic Alphabets. The results obtained have revealed that pre-school children do switch between the varieties of Arabic in the class and may deviate from the standard pronunciation of the Algerian words. They can produce different types of switching: intersentential, intrasentential and intra-word switching are very common in their speeches. Further, Children's choice of the code is not influenced by the code used by their interlocutor. When children know the structure and the words necessary for building well-structured and meaningful sentences in Modern Standard Arabic, and even if their teacher uses Algerian Arabic, they opt for the exclusive use of Modern Standard Arabic or they switch to Algerian Arabic for unknown words. Therefore, the results of the study have challenged Ferguson's definition of diglossia and called for reconsidering the separation of its domains. The results also have led to generating hypotheses that need to be tested in further research.

List of Abbreviations

AA: Algerian Arabic

AD: Algerian Dialect

Aux: Auxilary

BAC : Baccalaureat

BEF: Brevets d'Enseignement Fundamental

BEM : Brevets d'Enseignement Moyen

CA: Classical Arabic

CD: Constantine Dialect

COMP : Complementizer

CRASC: Centre de Recherche on Anthropologie Social et Culturelle

CM: Code Mixing

DA: Dialectal Arabic

EL: Embedded Language

ENS: Ecole Normale Supérieure (teaching training school)

ECA: Egyptian Colloquial Arabic

EC: Equivalent Constraint

FMC: Free Morpheme Constraint

FHC: Functional Head Constraint

GC: Government Constraints

H: High Variety

IPA: International Phonetic Alphabet

L: Low Variety

LPP: Language Planning and Policy

L₁: The First Language

L₂: Second Language

ML: Matrix Language

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

MOD: Modal

neg: Negative

P: Pupil

P1: Pupil One

P2: Pupil Two

P3: Pupil Three

P4: Pupil Four

P5: Pupil Five

P6: Pupil Six

P7: Pupil Seven

T: Teacher

3sg: Third Person Singular

The Phonetic Symbols used

I. Dialectal and Standard Arabic

1. Vowels

Arabic Vowels	IPA symbol	Examples Transcribed	Examples	The Meaning in English
اَ	a	dayala	دخل	come
اُ	u	sukar	سكر	sugar
اِ	ɪ	ħima:r	حمار	Donkey
آ	a:	Qa:la	قال	say
ي	i:	Zami:l	زميل	colleague
و	u:	ħuru:dʒ	خروج	exit

2. Consonants

Arabic Consonants	IPA Symbol	Examples transcribed	examples	The Meaning in English
اَ	ʔ	ʔallah	الله	God
ب	b	bab	باب	door
ت	t	tamrun	تمر	date
ث	θ	θumma	ثم	then
ج	dʒ	dʒa :ʔa	جاء	come
ح	h	ħima:r	حمار	donkey
خ	χ	χaradʒa	خرج	Go out
د	d	dayala	دخل	enter
ذ	ð	ðahaba	ذهب	go
ر	r	radzul	رجل	man
ز	Z	Zami:l	زميل	colleague
س	s	sukkar	سكر	sugar
ش	ʃ	ʃams	شمس	sun
ص	s ^ʕ	s ^ʕ aħn	صحن	
ض	d ^ʕ	d ^ʕ araba	ضرب	beat
ط	t ^ʕ	t ^ʕ ama t ^ʕ im	طماطم	tomato
ظ	ð ^ʕ	ð ^ʕ arf	ظرف	envelope

ع	ʕ	muʕalim	معلم	teacher
غ	ɣ	ɣarb	غرب	west
ف	F	Fɪ:l	فيل	elephant
ق	q	qalam	قلم	pen
ك	K	kutub	كُتُب	books
ل	l	lakum	لكم	yours
م	m	manzil	منزل	house
ن	n	man	من	who
ه	h	huwa	هو	he
و	w	wa sʕala	وصل	arrive
ي	j	jam fi :	يمشي	walk

3. Diphthongs

Arabic sounds	IPA Symbols	examples	Arabic words	English equivalent
اَيّ	aj	bajt	بَيْت	House
اَوّ	aw	θawb	ثَوْب	dress

II. Additional Sounds to be found in Algerian Arabic

1. Algerian Arabic Consonants

Arabic Consonant	The Symbol used	Examples Transcribed	Examples	The Meaning in English
ق	g	guda:m	قَدَام	In front of
-	p(loop words)	papa	بابا	dad
ر	r	ruħ	روح	go
-	v(loop words)	vista	فيسْتَا	jacket

2. French Consonant and Vowels Used

French Consonant and Vowels	The Symbol Used	Examples Transcribed	Examples	The Meaning in English
r	ʁ	nwaʁ	noir	black
on	õ	sõ	Son	sound
in	ẽ	kuzẽ	cousin	cousin
o	ɔ	ʃapɔ	chapeau	hat

Adapted from (Adapted from Sawalha, et al, 2014 and Javed, 2013)

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The Teacher's Interview

المقابلة مع أستاذ التحضيري

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The Children's Interview

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Introduction

Algeria, as a vast country, is a fertile terrain for any sociolinguistic research because of its linguistic diversity. There are three languages at play: Arabic, French, and Tamazight. When these languages get into contact, they may result in many phenomena such as bilingualism, diglossia, code-switching and so forth. These language behaviours are worthy to be studied.

For a long time, researchers have shown a strong interest in code-switching and many types of research have been carried out on this language behaviour that is inevitable in the bilingual and multilingual speech communities. This phenomenon used to be considered as a language deficiency on the part of the speakers and to be evidence of their inability to separate the two systems. However, recently researchers no longer view code switching negatively, but they believe that it is a speaking style that fulfills social and pragmatic functions. This fact shows the speakers' mastery of the two languages.

Most of the studies are all gathered around adults' code-switching such as Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Heller, 1988; Jacobson, 1990; Kamwangamalu & Lee, 1991; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Rubdy, 2007; as cited in Kamwangamalu, 2010). However, some other studies are directed towards children's code-switching such as Taeschner (1983,1978), Meisel (1994), Genesee, Nicholadis & Paradis (1995), Quarry (2000) and Bernardini & Schlyter (2004)(as cited in Cantone, 2007). Diglossic switching was also investigated (Eid, 1982, 1988; Boussofara-Omar, 2003; Bassiouney, 2006, 2009; Sayahi, 2014; as cited in Sayahi, 2014). This phenomenon has been investigated from the psycholinguistic and the sociolinguistic points of view in addition to studies of language acquisition(Gumperz, 1982; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Grosjean, 1998; as cited in Mouleme, 2012).

1. Statement of the Problem

In fact, the impetus behind the choice of this topic is multidisciplinary. It is the result of a strong interest in code-switching as a sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic topic that is worth investigating. The researcher was interested in this topic since the magister research. During those days, she focused her attention on children's code-switching. However, Because of the difficulty of this topic, the researcher was advised to keep it for further research. Consequently, the topic was directed towards views about teachers' use of code-switching in foreign language classes in secondary schools.

Moreover, it is also the result of a personal experience whereby the researcher has caught her little child switching back and forth between Modern Standard Arabic and Algerian Arabic in an astonishing way. For instance, he sometimes uses the vocabulary of Algerian Arabic and the grammar of Modern Standard Arabic. Though the researcher has some knowledge about code-switching, she, at first, thought that her child does not know how to speak and that he has some difficulties. Later on, after a constant observation of other children at his age, she discovers that the mixings her child is producing are evidence of his dual competence.

Another motivating factor for this research topic is the existence of language varieties that constitute the Algerian linguistic reality since there are: French, Modern Standard Arabic, Arabic (with its varieties), and Tamazight (with its varieties). The Algerian government has known conflicts about the national language. Before colonisation, Arabic was used everywhere, but when Algeria was colonized, the French language was used in all formal situations and it was even declared as the language of the nation. After independence, there was a strong conflict between Arabic and French since French was used in all domains and

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the Algerian government wanted to regain the power and the status of the Arabic language by implementing the Arabization policy. However, there was a struggle between Arabic and French since then there were some advocates of Arabic to be the national and official language of the state while others believed that French was the language of science and technology. Henceforth, it should be learned and used. There was another struggle that appeared after independence in addition to Arabic/ French conflict, Berber wanted Tamazight to be a national and official language and to have the same status as the Arabic language. They wanted their language to be used in all domains even in education. Therefore, that tension between languages was due to competition over power and each government members sought to implement his/her beliefs and to run after their interests. This conflict is also the result of social, cultural and economic interests.

A recent struggle between Algerian Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic has appeared once the minister of education has declared on the media that Algerian Arabic should be used in education especially to be used as a language of instruction. This suggestion has been faced by strong rejection by all Algerians whether intellectual or lay people (see Elkh Haber newspaper articles in the appendix).

To sum up, all these conditions contribute to having an interest in code switching, in general and switching from Modern Standard Arabic to the mother tongue, in particular.

2. Aims of the Study

The present study is about the use of code-switching by primary school children. It is based on the assumption that code-switching is partially a conscious strategy to achieve certain goals. For instance, the child may use it to attract the audience's attention. The study, therefore, aims at investigating the phenomenon of code switching between varieties of the

same language, that is, between Modern Standard Arabic and Algerian Arabic in the conversation of primary school children.

The study is multifaceted. First, it seeks to understand the mechanisms of code-switching and how children mix varieties of languages. Second, the study is carried out to see the situations when children switch from one code to another and whether the type of interlocutors influences the switching. Finally, the study is also concerned with identifying the functions of code-switching in conversations of children.

3. Research Questions

The present study seeks to answer the following questions:

- *Do Algerian children really switch between Algerian Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic among their peers and with their teachers?*
- *Is diglossic switching between Algerian Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic rule-governed ?*
- *Do children need to switch to Algerian Arabic only to fill a lexical gap?*
- *Does the language used by the interlocutor influence the switching?*
- *What are the functions of code-switching in children's conversation?*

4. Method of Investigation

4.1. Population and the Sampling

The population of the study consists of Algerian primary school children aged from 5 to 6 years old. These children attend preparatory level at primary schools. The sample

consists of 24 children randomly chosen in Dib Tahar primary school at Elkhroub, Constantine. The school is randomly selected. It contains only one preparatory class.

4.2. Data Gathering Instruments

The study is qualitative in nature. It is an ethnographic study. It is based on triangulation consisting of participant observation, the teacher's and the children interviews and the analysis of the artifacts.

➤ Participant Observation

The researcher is to attend with primary school children for a long period of time that lasts approximately the whole academic year. While being present with children, the researcher is supposed to observe record and take notes about the children's behaviour and the languages used in class.

During the participant observation, the researcher is supposed to record the children's speech. Recordings are the adequate instruments for doing any sociolinguistic research. It consists of recording children's conversation while they are attending their lessons or talking to their teachers. Extracts from these recordings are to be transcribed and analyzed on the light of previous studies and findings

➤ Interviews

At this step, the children are supposed to answer the questions asked by the researcher. These questions are not meant to get some information about code

switching, but the aim is to see their reaction to different questions asked by the researcher and to see which language is used.

Another interview is conducted with the teacher of these children. The aim is to get an insider's view of the phenomenon of code switching.

➤ **Analysis of the Artifacts**

The two books of the preparatory education are to be analysed. The analysis covers the layout, the content, the vocabulary, the culture and the language used in the two books.

5. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is divided into two parts: three theoretical chapters and three practical ones. As far as the first chapter is concerned, it is going to clarify all concepts related to language contact. It is going also to deal with the language situation in Algeria and the sociolinguistic profile. The second chapter will deal with languages in education and language planning and policy. This chapter aims at identifying languages used in education and the educational system in Algeria. Also, in this chapter, language planning and policy is presented. Moreover, some light is going to be shed on the Arabization policy. Chapter three is going to deal with code switching. The concept of Code-switching is going to be defined and differentiated from the other related but different phenomena such as code mixing, diglossia, borrowing and so forth.

The practical part consists also of three chapters. The first chapter is going to be devoted to identify and clarify the methodology used. The second chapter is going to be about

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analysing data gathered by analysing the transcribed data obtained from the recordings with children, in addition to analysing the interviews. Furthermore, the analysis of the artifacts is going to be dealt with in this chapter. The third chapter, however, is going to be about pedagogical recommendations and the limitations of the study.

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Chapter One The Sociolinguistic Situation in Algeria

Introduction

Algeria is known as the first largest country in Africa. Due to its strategic location and its natural resources, and since ancient times, it was targeted by different colonizers. It was at the crossroad of civilisation and witnessed successive colonisations which contributed to the variation of its culture and language.

The linguistic situation in Algeria is intricate since Algerians speak Arabic (Modern Standard Arabic, Algerian Arabic and Classical Arabic), French and Tamazight (Shaoui, Kabyle and other dialectal Arabic). Because of these successive invasions, Algeria today possesses a varied linguistic repertoire. Hence, considerable language phenomena have emerged due to language contact and thereupon, bilingualism, diglossia, code switching and so forth.

In this chapter, some light is to be shed on the sociolinguistic profile of the Algerian society. It begins with languages in contact and it differentiates between different phenomena resulting from language contact. Then, a brief overview of the history of Algeria is to be provided with a particular emphasis on the several invaders that have settled on its territory and have contributed in enriching the Algerian linguistic repertoire. Next, some attention is to be given to languages that are spoken and used namely Algerian Arabic, French and so on.

Because of language variation, the Algerian linguistic situation interested researchers mainly psycholinguists and sociolinguists. From a sociolinguistic perspective, researchers wanted to understand language phenomena resulting when languages get in contact including bilingualism, borrowing, code switching and so forth. As far as the present research study is

concerned, the main interest is code switching which will be developed in details in the third chapter.

1.1. Languages in Contact

1.1.1. Definition of Language Contact

When speakers of different speech communities interact with each other due to many factors (economic, political and so on), languages get into contact.

The term language contact was first used by Weinreich (1953) to mean any situation where different languages are used and this may affect language behaviour of individuals (Moreau, 1997, p.94)

1.1.2. Outcomes of Language Contact

Language contact may lead to many outcomes depending on the degree of transfer. According to Heine and Nurse (2008, p. 3), the transfer of the linguistic material may be one of these types:

- (a) Form, that is, sounds or combination of sounds.
- (b) Meanings (including grammatical meanings) or combinations of meanings.
- (c) Form-meaning units or combinations of form-meaning units.
- (d) Syntactic relations, that is, the order of meaningful units
- (e) Any combination of (a) and (b).

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The outcomes of language contact, as they are suggested by Thomson (2001, p.10), are: contact induced language change, extreme language mixture and language death. So language contact may lead to language change. Moreover, language contact may result in borrowing which is the consequence when people speaking different languages get in contact and the speaker of one language may loan words from the other language. This is what happened when English people got interact with other people speaking different languages. A lot of words were being borrowed from French and Latin.

In other cases, people may learn new languages due to their contact with foreigners and the result is bi or multilingualism. They may even use the two codes alternatively and within the same conversation developing code switching. They can also use different varieties of the same language where one variety is used in one situation and the other used in another situation resulting in diglossia.

As far as the Algerian society is concerned, Algeria is a fertile terrain for any sociolinguistic research. Algerians, and for a long time, get in contact with people speaking different languages. This contact is due to trade, tourism, colonisation, religion and so on. This leads Algerian society to be varied sociolinguistically, rich culturally and strong historically.

Therefore, diglossia, bilingualism, code switching and many other language phenomena could be studied within this society.

1.1.3. Pidgins, Creoles and Koiné

Among the consequences of language contact are pidgin and creole. For a long time, these two forms of communication were not considered as languages, they were thought to be corrupted languages or deviations. Hymes (1971) viewed them as “marginal, in the circumstances of their origin, and in the attitudes towards them on the part of those who speak one of the languages from which they derive” (p.3). Moreover, Mufwene (2007) believed that pidgins are sometimes considered as ‘broken languages’, “because their structures are very much reduced compared with those of their lexifiers” (p.177). Until the late 1960’s, pidgins and creoles were officially acknowledged and some attention has been directed towards them. The reasons that encouraged researchers to be interested in studying them are structural and social. Structurally, both pidgin and creole show diversity, they appear and change rapidly in multilingual situations. Socially, these languages are viewed negatively by their speakers and even by speakers of other languages (Von et al, 2006).

However, Trousdale (2010) believed that, for some kind of linguists, studying pidgins and creoles is interesting. They regard them as an evidence for language acquisition. Whereas the data obtained from pidgin and creole could be used for testing hypothesis about language change. Sociolinguists also may use this data as a proof for the social correlations of language use since a lot of pidgin languages originated in much the same sort of social context.

1.1.3.1. Pidgins

Pidgin appears when there is a need for communication and there is no mutual intelligibility between people from different linguistic backgrounds. This urgent need leads

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them to create a system of communication different from theirs and which is based or derived from languages in contact situation.

According to Spolsky (1989), language usually performs three functions: communicative, expressive and integrative. Pidgins serve only the first function and pidginization, thus, makes “an interlanguage which is simplified and reduced” (p.175).

Yule (2010) defined pidgin as: “a variety of a language that developed for a practical purpose such as trade, but which has no native speakers” (p. 207). Moreover, Holm (2001) stated that: “pidgin is sometimes regarded as a ‘reduced’ variety of a ‘normal’ language, i.e., one of the aforementioned dominant languages, with simplification of grammar and vocabulary of that languages, considerable phonological variation, and an admixture of local vocabulary to meet the special needs of the contact group” (p.61). Therefore, pidgin is considered as a variety of a language created to fulfill communication purposes.

Pidgin is created through negotiation process (Thomason, 2001, p.159), and a simplified version of languages in contact is used. Pidgin, generally, starts its ‘life cycle’ as “an informal makeshift medium, sometimes referred to as ‘Jargon’” (Matras, 2009, p.278) or ‘pre-pidgin’ (Siegel, 2008, p.2).

The words and phrases used in pidgin are taken from languages in contact situations usually ‘the lexifier’ (or sometimes called ‘the superstrate’) (Siegel, 2008, p.1) or ‘superstratum’ (Nicols, 1996, p.199) which is the language that dominates socially, economically and politically in the multilingual situations (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015). It also contributes to the development of pidgin languages by providing the vocabulary needed. However, phonology, grammatical rules and meanings and the functions of the lexical forms of the pidgin languages are, unlike to those of the lexifier language, similar to one of the

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languages in contact situation. These languages are generally called the ‘substrate languages’ (Siegel, 2008, p.1) or substratum (Nicols, 1996, p.199) and which are languages that contribute with grammar, phonology and vocabulary to pidgin languages (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015).

Therefore, pidgin languages emerge in multilingual situations where one language is dominant and provides pidgin with a bulk of vocabulary which is the lexifier while two or more languages are subordinate and which provide pidgin with grammatical and phonological structures. Siegel (2009) pointed out that when a stable pidgin originates, it remains an auxiliary language used when there is no common language and when groups with different mother tongues get into contact. The resulting language contains limited number of vocabulary and grammatical words. This is referred to as a ‘restricted pidgin’ (p.234).

In some situations, in multilingual societies, pidgin can be extended and be used as everyday lingua franca¹. It can also be used in religion and government. Thus, its vocabulary and grammar could be increased over time and developed to be an ‘expanded pidgin’ (Siegel, 2010, p.234).

In other situations, according to Siegel (2010), the expanded pidgin may be used at a regular basis at home and people can use it with their children to be their first language. As a result, pidgin has and is expanding. Children who grow up in this situation would acquire the expanded pidgin and use it as their mother tongue. At this level, language, which has huge vocabulary and grammatical rules, is labelled a creole.

¹ For the definition of lingua franca, see the section (1.4)

1.1.3.2. Creole

As it has been said earlier, creole results when pidgin is nativized as Aitchison (1994) admitted that creoles arise: “when pidgins become mother tongues” (as cited in Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015, p.63). This means that a creole emerged when a pidgin was used in everyday communication and learnt by children as their first language. In this case, vocabulary and grammar of pidgin language would expand. In this respect, Holmes (1992, p.95) said that creole “is a pidgin which has expanded in structure and vocabulary to express the range of meanings and serve the range of functions required of a first language” (as cited in Wardhaugh& Fuller, 2015, p.63).

Yet, Thomason (2001) pointed out that not all Creoles were pigins, some of them didn't undergo nativization process. Creole, however, developed thanks to the increase divergence from the lexifier. However, other creoles emerged suddenly and again without undergoing any pidginization stage.

There are many characteristics of creole; Napoli (2003, pp. 130-132) listed some of them:

- 1- Creoles tend to have simplified vowel systems, often having only one five vowels.
- 2- Creoles tend to have a relatively restricted vocabulary, although it is much more extensive than that of the pidgin
- 3- Creoles tend to express variations in time by having a string of helping verbs rather than by having complicated word formation rules.
- 4- Creoles tend to express negation by placing a negative word immediately in the front of the first verb.
- 5- Creoles tend to place the verb between the subject and the object (as English does).

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However, there was no agreement among linguists on various important issues such as:

- 1- The main linguistic inputs to creole formation.
- 2- The linguistic processes and mechanisms involved in creole formation,
- 3- The nature of the linguistic outcome of creole formation

(Migge, 2003, p.01)

According to Migge (2003), this disagreement is owing to two things. Firstly, creoles studies developed from various social settings; and, as a result, the process of creole formation is different leading to the emergence of linguistically various creoles. Secondly, scholars working on creoles are guided by various theoretical approaches.

Berry (1971) and Mufwene (2001) stated that Africa is rich with piggins for so many reasons, but poor in creoles since it has only few creoles (as cited in Childs, 2003).

An example of creole would be the one of Nubi Creole Arabic suggested by Owens (2001, p.351)

?a-ktub-u	'I write'	Classical Arabic
Anagi 'katifu'	'I write'	Nubi Creole Arabic

Thus, pidgin and creoles are the result of language contact and they underwent the process of pidginization and creolization which Field (2004) defined as:

Pidginization and creolization are better seen as taking the lexicon of one language and encasing it in a new and different grammatical system likely to have been derived from a variety of sources, including original (native, substrate) language varieties via transfer, superstrate/ lexifier via learning, and entirely novel constructs (born of

necessity). Therefore, with regards to creoles, what constitutes ‘successful acquisition’ needs to be established according to a different set of criteria (p.132).

In other words, pidgin and creole are new languages that develop by taking their vocabulary from one of the languages in contact situation and using the grammatical and phonological rules of other language /s.

In addition to pidgin and creole, consequences of language contact, there is another result that needs to be clarified which is Koiné.

1.1.3.3. Koiné

Koiné is another consequence of language contact. It emerges when groups speaking different varieties or dialects of the same language get in contact, that is, in intra group communication. Thus, it is different from pidgin, which appears when people from different linguistic backgrounds communicate with each other. Koiné is, in fact, a Greek word which means ‘common or shared’ (Tuten, 2007, p.185), and which is “a variety essentially arising out of contact involving dialects of the same language” (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008, p.179). Moreover, koiné happens when people from parts of the same language area move to new settlements for any reason, the result would be koiné.

Koineization, on the other hand, is the process of blending dialects or varieties of language. It causes quick formation of new dialect called koiné. Characteristics of this process are: mixing, levelling, and simplifications of aspects existed in dialects that are part of the original mix (Tuten, 2007).

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According to Kerswell (2003) and Tuten (2007), the term koiné was first used by Greeks during the expansion of the Athenian empire in the 5th c BC. Koiné was the dialect used as a lingua franca during Hellenistic and Roman periods. Yet, in the 20th century, scholars employed this term to mean any common dialect of language. And recently, sociolinguists have been more precise when using this term to mean any variety or dialect that shows mixing, levelling and simplifications as a result of quick population movement.

Therefore, a very useful and precise definition to the term koiné is the one suggested by siegel (2001): “koiné is a stabilized contact variety which results from the mixing and subsequent levelling of features of varieties which are similar enough to be mutually intelligible, such as regional or social dialects. This occurs in the context of increased interaction or integration among speakers of these varieties.” (p. 175).

In a word, koiné is a consequence of language contact, or more precisely, dialect contact. It is a new variety/dialect that appears when people speaking different dialects or varieties of a language get into contact. Its vocabulary and grammar are taken from the mixed varieties.

As far as the Algerian context is concerned, comparing the Algerian Arabic to pidgin, creole and koiné, shows that it is not the result of language contact. Algerian Arabic is not a pidgin because it does not undergo the process of pidginization due to some reasons. Firstly, Algerian Arabic does not emerge to fulfill an intra-group communication in a society which contains a lot of languages in contact. However, it is a language spoken by almost all Algerians. Secondly, most its grammar and vocabulary are taken from Arabic. Thirdly, Algerian Arabic is not the consequence of language contact though it contains a lot of French

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words which were incorporated. This integration of French words is due to the French colonization and the process is known as borrowing (Ahmed-Sid, 2008).

Moreover, Algerian Arabic cannot be considered as Creole since it does not undergo creolization process and it is not the result of language contact.

Comparing Algerian Arabic to koiné, shows that Algerian Arabic is not at all koiné since it does not undergo the koineization process. Furthermore, it does not appear when various dialects / varieties get in contact and it is not an amalgam of dialects (Ahmed-sid, 2008).

To sum up, Algerian Arabic is not the consequence of language contact since none of the already defined elements best describe it.

There are many other types of language contact that are not classified as either pidgin or creole are as : ‘semi-creoles’, ‘creolids’, ‘mixed languages’, ‘intertwined languages’, ‘bilingual mixtures’ and ‘indigenized varieties’(Garrett, 2004, p.49). They have all been a concern of researchers and they presented new subjects of investigation.

1.1.4. Lingua Franca

Lingua Franca is another consequence of language contact. It is a language used as a means of communication among people speaking different mother tongues (Trask, 1999) or even extremely distinct dialects (Stranzy, 2005, p.687). Barotchi (1994) defined it as: “a language which is used habitually by people whose mother tongues are different in order to facilitate communication” (p.115).

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According to Strazny (2005) and Trask (1999), lingua franca is originally the Italian-based contact language. In the Eastern Mediterranean and during late middle Ages, lingua franca emerged and it was called 'Frankish language' (Trask, 1999, p.625) to mean European language or Christian language. It incorporated words from French, Spanish, Greek, Turkish and Arabic. Then, the term has been used to mean any language that is of a widespread use among speakers of different mother tongues.

Some examples of lingua franca would be Latin, French, English and Arabic. Fromkin (2003) stated that Latin used to be lingua franca of the Roman Empire and Western christianism for a millennium. French was known as 'the lingua franca of diplomacy' while nowadays English is considered as a 'lingua franca of the whole world' (Fromkin, 2003, p.468). Arabic is also a lingua Franca related to the spread of Islam (Trauth & Kazzazi, 1996).

Nowadays, English is of a widespread use. It is used in all domains; it is a language of science and technology. It is the first international language used for communication among people from different linguistic backgrounds used not only for trade. Simply, English is a lingua franca.

1.1.5. Bilingualism

Bilingualism is a subject of interest to psychologists, sociolinguists and even language teachers. They all consider it as a phenomenon that is worth to be studied in order to uncover its benefits and disadvantages.

The Algerian society is an instance where bilingualism appears and is widespread. Algerians speak two languages: Arabic and French. This bilingualism is the result of the

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French colonialism which lasted more than 132 years. During that period, the French aimed at eliminating the Algerian personality and including language. They wanted to make the Algerians French. Arabic was neither taught in schools nor used in administrations. Therefore, Algerians found themselves, especially in the post independence era, bilinguals with a little knowledge about Standard Arabic.

1.1.5.1. Definition

Bilingualism is a widespread phenomenon throughout the world and it is one of the consequences of language contact. As the word suggests, a bi-lingual² is someone who speaks two languages. For most people, bilingualism is knowing two languages. Spolsky (1998) suggested the simplest definition to bilingualism when he said: ‘a bilingual is a person who has some functional ability in a second language’ (p.45). The term bilingualism seems to be easy to define. A definition given by Webster’s dictionary(1961) stated that bilingualism is: ‘having or using two languages especially as spoken with the fluency characteristic of a native speaker ; a person using two languages especially habitually and with control like that of a native speaker (as cited in Harmer & Blanc, as cited in Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007, p.5). According to this definition, bilingualism is the ability to use two languages, but with native speaker’s competence.

A lot of definitions have been attributed to that word, but most of them are relative and vague. In an attempt to find an adequate explanation to this phenomenon, Bearsmore (1982; as cited in Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007) stated that there are two groups of definitions: the

² Bilingual implies *bi* means ‘two’ and *lingua* signifies ‘language’ (Crystal, A Little Book of Language, 2010, p. 79)

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maximalist and minimalist. The maximalist view was advocated by Bloomfield who stated that bilingualism is: “a native-like control of two languages” (1933, p.55; as cited in Malmkjar, 2005, p.64). According to him, a bilingual should have the same competence of the native speaker in the second language (L_2), which is a balanced bilingualism.

The second group of academic definition (minimalist) believed that to be a bilingual, the person should have an ability to use the second language at least to produce meaningful sentence. Haugen (1953, p.7), for instance, stated that bilingualism is: “the point where a speaker can first produce complete and meaningful untturances in the other language” (as cited in Chin &Wigglesworth, 2007, p.5). Similarly, Mackey (1962, p.52) defined bilingualism as: “the ability to use more than one language”. This means that if a person is able to use L_2 , he/she is bilingual. Following the same line of thought, Myers-Scotton (2006) referred to bilingualism as: “the ability to use two or more languages sufficiently to carry on a limited casual conversation” (p.44). Furthermore, Weinreich (1953) described bilingualism as: “the practice of alternatively using two languages” (as cited in Chin & Wigglesworth, 2007, p. 5). According to this last group of definitions, once the person is capable of using the language at least to produce meaningful sentence, he can be considered as bilingual. For example, if a person can go to a restaurant in a foreign country using its language to ask for a sandwich, s /he is bilingual. In this respect, Macnamara (1967) suggested that bilingualism is having the minimal competence in just one of the four skills in a second language (Chin &Wigglesworth, 2007).

Yet, what makes defining bilingualism a difficult task, is the degree of proficiency. Chin &Wigglesworth (2007) mentioned that: “the degree of bilingualism refers to the level of linguistic proficiency a bilingual must achieve in both languages to be considered as

bilingual” (p .5). Both groups of definitions did not explain what they mean by the degree of language proficiency that the bilingual should have. The first group insisted on language competence while the second group of definitions focused on language use. The minimum use of the L₂ leads to bilingualism is relative.

Thus, there is no exact definition to bilingualism. Taeschner (1983) believed that some people consider the person who speaks only few words of a second language as bilingual while others would believe that a bilingual is someone who knows and masters the second language as its native speakers do. In a word, the definitions given to the concept bilingualism vary from having a minimal to a native like competence in a second language. Therefore, there should be varieties of bilingualism.

1.1.5.2. Varieties of Bilingualism

According to Steinberg & Sciarini (2006), people believe that a bilingual is someone who masters two languages. However, there are some others, who know, in addition to languages, sign languages such as British Sign language and Swedish Sign language. This indicates that deaf people can also be bilingual. Language could be learnt in three modalities: speech, writing or sign. Thus, an appropriate explanation to the term bilingual is the one who acquires two languages of any of these modalities. The person can be bilingual once he knows : “two languages in the same modality, for example, two speech-based languages such as spoken English and spoken German, or, two Sign-based languages such as American Sign language and Japanese Sign language, or, spoken French and written Sanskrit” (Steinberg & Sciarini, 2006, pp.160-161).

Language is divided into four skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing. When learning a second language, people's abilities in these skills may vary. There may be someone who speaks the language well, but he could not write it as it is the case for a person who moved temporarily to another country. Moreover, a lot of English learners may learn to read English for academic purposes, but they do not speak it well (Harris, 1992). Therefore, the abilities of a bilingual in second language skills vary according to which is mostly needed and "people develop skills needed for particular circumstances" (Harris, 1992, p. 5).

1.1.5.3. Classification of Bilingualism

There are many classifications of bilingualism. Baker (2005) stated that bilingualism can be classified according to its usage as: individual and societal. This classification has resulted in many linguistic, psychological, neurological, sociolinguistic, cultural and political researches and theories.

1.1.5.3.1. Societal Bilingualism

When studying individual bilingualism, issues raised about how one language or more are acquired in childhood or later and how the languages are represented in the individual's mind. When dealing with societal bilingualism questions discussed are about the role of languages in a particular society, attitudes and language choice in addition to the relation between language use and societal factors like ethnicity, religion and so forth (Sridhar,

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Societal Bilingualism, 1996). Altarriba (2005) defined societal bilingualism as: “The degree to which two languages are used within a society”(p.141).

According to Sridhar (1996), there are many types of societal bilingualism, but the most prevailing widespread type happens when a particular nation comprises various language groups, each group is monolingual in one language. The best example of this type of societal bilingualism is Canada. In this case, the country is bilingual. Yet, this does not mean that all individuals are bilinguals. This type of bilingualism has been pointed out by Grosjean (1982, pp.12-13 ; as cited in Sridhar, 1996). Furthermore, in some other cases, when bilingualism is the official policy declared by the country, people are bilinguals. This is what Grosjean (1982) referred to as being based on personality principle (pp .12-13). Examples are India and some countries in West and East Africa. However, most bilingual nations may show mixture of these two types. There are some other countries which are multilingual as it is the case with Switzerland and India.

As far as the Algerian context is concerned, though there are three languages at a play and there are a lot of bilinguals in french/AA and French/ Tamazight, Algeria is not officially declared as a bilingual country.

1.1.5.3.2. Individual Bilingualism

Individual bilingualism is: “the bilingual competence of single individual” (Altarriba, Bilingualism, 2005, p. 141). It may vary from one person to another. Valdés and Figuera (1994) proposed a classification to bilingualism according to :

- 1- Age (simultaneous/ sequential/ late)

- 2- Ability (recipient/ receptive/ productive)
- 3- Balance of two languages
- 4- Development (ascendant / second language is developing ; recessive/ one language is decreasing)
- 5- Contexts where each language is acquired and used (e .g., home, school)
- 6- Choice(Circumstantial/ elective bilingualism)

(as cited in Baker, 2001, p.4)

While Harmers and Blanc (2004) suggested the following psychological and sociological dimensions for the classification of bilingualism as :

- 1- Relative competence
- 2- Cognitive organization
- 3- Age of acquisition
- 4- Exogeneity
- 5- Social cultural status
- 6- Cultural identity

(Harmers & Blanc, 2004, p. 25)

1.1.5.3.2.a. Balanced / Ambilingual/ Semilingual

There are a lot of terms used to describe the bilingual capacities as : *Balanced*, *ambilingual*, *equal* and *semilingual*. Baetens Beardsmore(1986 ; as cited in Edwards, 2006) explained that: “the ambilingual person who, in all contexts, can function equally well in either language, and who shows no trace of language A when using B” (p.9). This means that

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when the bilingual speaks one language the same way like the monolingual does when using one language exclusively. However, the balanced bilingual, also known as equilingual, is a term used to describe the person who masters two languages equally, or who has equal mastery of the two languages (Edwards, 2006).

Semilingual and semibilingual, on the other hand, are different. *Semilingual* is when the person's fluency is not complete in both languages. *Semibilingualism* is a term used to refer to the person who has a receptive competence in both languages (Edwards, 1994).

Yet, *incipient bilingualism* is a term used to describe someone with a minimal competence in a second language (Baker, 2001). In other words, this term considers anyone who knows just a few sentences in a second language to be considered as bilingual. This is the minimalist definition of bilingualism which has been discussed earlier in this definition of bilingualism.

All these types of bilingualism exist in Algeria. There are a lot of people who are equilingual/, ambilingual, semilingual and even incipient. They are generally bilingual in French and AA or French and Tamazight.

1.1.5.3.2.b. Passive vs Active Bilinguals

There are four language abilities : speaking, listening, reading and writing. There are two productive and two receptive skills. The following table clarifies this:

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	Oracy	Literacy
<i>Receptive</i>	Listening	Reading
<i>Productive</i>	Speaking	Writing

Table 1.1. : Receptive and Productive Skills (Adopted from Baker, 2001, p.5)

There are some people who master one or two skills of the language. Therefore, the person's competence in a language varies according to the skills mastered. Someone who understands a second language written or spoken form, but cannot speak it, he is considered as a *passive bilingual*. While someone who can speak or write in a second language is viewed as an *active bilingual* (Baker, 2005).

As far as the Algerian society is concerned, there are so many passive bilinguals in Algeria. Some of them are the elders who lived during the French colonialization and who were constantly exposed to French. They can understand the spoken language, but they can not speak it. Moreover, the active bilinguals do exist in Algeria, generally, they are intellectual people. Most Kabyle are active bilinguals. In addition to Tamazight, they speak French fluently.

1.1.5.3.2.c. Primary vs Secondary

The difference between primary and secondary bilingualism is determined by the process by which a person has reached this status(or has learnt).

Primary bilingualism is the result of acquiring a second language in natural environment. Generally, it occurs when the child is brought up in a bilingual home. It is also known as a natural language (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1986, p.8 ; as cited in Malmkjær, 2006, p.76).

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However, *secondary bilingualism* is the result of a systematic and formal instruction (Edwards, 2005). In other words, this type of bilingualism occurs when the person learns the second language consciously in class, following a particular syllabus and not naturally as it is the case with primary bilingualism which develops uncounsciously.

1.1.5.3.2.d. Additive vs Subtractive

Sometimes learning a second language expands the linguistic repertoire of the individual and the result would be the use of the two systems in parallel (Ewards, 1994; Field, 2004). This is referred to as *additive bilingualism*. In other cases, the learning of a second language may replace the first language and to become a dominant language (Edwards, 2005). This would be the case when, for example, a young French child is born at France. He may travel to United States to live there at an early age and may stay there for a long time. This person would be fluent at English better than his mother tongue French. This type of bilingualism is known as *subtractive bilingualism* (Altarriba, Bilingualism, 2005).

1.1.5.3.2.e. Compound vs Coordinate

This classification was suggested by Weinreich (1968), yet he was not the first one to invent them. These terms, mainly, *subordinate* and *coordinate* have been attributed to Roberts (1939; Bialystok, 2003). This classification is based on “the representation and storage of language in the bilingual brain” (Baker, 2005, p.66).

Weinreich (1986) wanted to explain how words and concepts could correspond to each other in the bilingual mind (Bialystok, Bilingualism in Development: Language, Literacy and Cognition, 2003). This idea has already ben discussed by De Saussure in his book ‘*Cours de linguistique générale*’ when he explained the inguistic sign as the relation between signifier

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and signified (phonemic shapes and concept). This relationship has been discussed even before De Saussure by Plato.

The following figure represents the relationship between the concept and the phonemic shapes

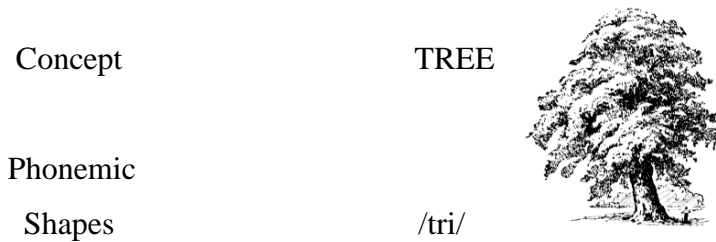


Figure 1.1 .: The Relationship between the Linguistic Sign and the Referent

(Adapted from Roger, 1978, p.120)

Coordinate bilingualism occurs : “When conditions in infancy favour one language over the other ; lexical systems, the consequences is that the infant develops two independent lexical systems, though meanings overlap” (Fields J. , 2004, p. 32). Therefore, the individual can have two separate systems for the two languages.

The following figure represents how the two systems are independent from each other:



Figure 1.2. : Coordinate Bilingualism

(Adapted from Roger, 1978, p.121)

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Compound bilingualism results when the two languages are learnt simultaneously and the two systems are merged (Bialystok, 2003 & Baker, 2005). In other words, for the same referent, there are two words.

According to Bialystok (2003), Weinreich mentioned that compound representations may develop out of coordinate ones : “once an interlingual identification has occurredit becomes possible for bilingual to interpret two signs...with a single signified[concept]and two signifiers[words], one in each language” (101).

The following figure shows a clear picture on how the two systems are merged in one system:

ALBERO/ TREE



/albero/ /tri/

Figure 1.3 . : Compound Bilingualism

(Adapted from Roger, 1978, p. 123)

Subordinate bilingualism, on the other hand, results when the second language is learnt just after learning the first one. Yet, the second language would depend upon the first (Fields J. , 2004). Generally, learners of the second language rely on the first language so as to understand words and concepts as it is shown in the following figure:

ALBERO

/albero/

/tri/



Figure 1.4. : Subordinate Bilingualism

(Adapted from Roger, 1978, p.123)

However, Baker (2005) stated that this categorisation is not really much supported and the discussion is considered as ‘too simplistic’(p.66).

1.1.5.3.2.f. Simultaneous, Sequential, Late Bilingualism

This categorisation is based on the age at which the second language is learnt. *Simultaneous bilingualism* occurs when two languages are acquired synchronously or “bilingualism as a first language” (Baker, 2005, pp.66-67). While *sequential, successive* or *consecutive* develops when the first language is acquired followed by the learning of the second language whether formally or informally (Baker, 2005, p.67). Therefore, in this case, two languages are acquired in childhood, but one after the other. *Late bilingualism* results when the individual learns the second language after childhood.

1.1.5.3.2.g. Elite vs Folk Bilingualism

Elite bilingualism also known as *elective bilingualism* (Valdés & Figueroa, 1994, p.12 ; as cited in De Mejia, 2002), is developed when : “individuals who choose to become bilingual seek out either formal classes or contexts in which they can acquire a foreign

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language... and who continue to spend the greater part of their time in a society in which their first language is the majority or societal language”(p.41). In other words, this kind of bilingualism evolves when a person wants to acquire a second language in classes. On the contrary *Folk bilingualism* is described as: “the conditions of ethnic groups within a single state who have to become bilingual involuntarily, in order to survive” (Tosi, 1982 cited in Harding & Riley, 1986; Skutnabb-Kangas, 1981; as cited in De Méjia, 2002, p.41). Hence, the individual has to learn a second language for circumstances, consequently, this type of bilingualism is known as *circumstantial bilingualism* (Baker, 2001).

Simply, bilingualism can be defined as the knowledge of two languages. This knowledge includes both the competence and the ability to use the two languages. Bilingualism exists in Algeria since its people are bilingual and even multilingual. Two groups exist : Arabic speaking communities and Berber speaking communities in addition to French. There are Arabic/French bilinguals and Tamazight/French bilinguals.

Mouhadjer (2004, p.999) stated that : “ Algerian bilingualism is a special one. Bilingualism in Algeria is a result of educational strategy since both Arabic and French are learnt at primary school. It is not a homogenous one”. He meant that different types of bilingualism do exist. It is the result of language policy and language planning applied by the Algerian government since independence. Arabic and French bilingualism is also the consequence of French colonialism. Most Algerians were active bilinguals during French colonialism.

The following table represents the different types and terms used to define bilingualism.

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Additive bilingual	Someone whose two languages combine in a complementary and enriching fashion.
Ambilingual	Same as balanced bilingual
Balanced bilingual	Someone whose mastery of two languages is roughly equivalent.
Compound bilingual	Someone whose two languages are learned at the same time, often in the same context.
Consecutivebilingual	Same as successive bilingual.
Dominant bilingual	Someone with greater proficiency in one of his or he languages and uses it significantly more than the other language(s).
Early bilingual	Someone who has acquired two languages early in childhood.
Equilingual	Same as balanced bilingual.
Incipient bilingual	Someone at the early stages of bilingualism where one language is not fully developed.
Late bilingual	Someone who has become a bilingual later than childhood.
Natural bilingual	Someone who has not undergone any specific training and who is often not in position to translate or interpret with facility between two languages
Passive bilingual	Same as receptive bilingual.
Primary bilingual	Same as natural bilingual
Productive bilingual	Someone who does not understand but also speaks and possibly writes in two or more languages.
Receptive bilingual	Someone who understands a second language, in either its spoken or written form, or both, but does not necessarily speaks or writes it.
Secondary bilingual	Someone whose second language has been added to a first language

	via instruction
Semibilingual	Same as receptive bilingual.
Semilingual	Someone within sufficient knowledge of either language.
Simultaneous bilingual	Someone whose two languages are present from the onset of speech.
Subordinate bilingual	Someone who exhibits interference in his or her language usage by reducing the patterns of the second language to those of the first.
Subtractive bilingual	Someone whose second language is acquired at the expense of the aptitudes already acquired in the first language.
Successive bilingual	Someone whose second language is added at some stage after the first has begun to develop.

Table .1.2: Definition of Bilingualism (adapted from Gass & Selinker, 2008, pp. 27-28)

1.1.5.4. Bilingualism in Algeria

Bilingualism exists in the Algerian society. It is the result of a long period of French colonisation and the various successive invasions that occupied the territory since ancient times (civilisation).

Though Algeria is not declared officially as a bilingual country as it is the case in Canada or Finland, this phenomenon is widespread among its people. There may be some instances where individuals develop simultaneous or compound bilingualism.

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Coordinate bilingualism is developed especially when children are taught Arabic (MSA) and then French. It is due to language planning. For this reason, Mouhadjer (as cited in Moussadik, 2004, p.999) referred to it as the result of an educational strategy .

Furthermore, bilingualism in Algeria is subtractive because Arabic is replacing French since independence in various domains : education, administration and so on. By the same token, Mouhadjer claimed that Arabic is: “Subtractive because Arabic is replacing progressively French in many domains : education, politics and administration”(as cited in Moussadik, 2004, p.999).

Bilingualism in Algeria is also classified as balanced and unbalanced and between the two there are passive and active bilingualism. Mouhadjer stated that : “In the pre-independence period, Algerians who were in contact with French people were qualified as more balanced bilinguals”. Whereas unbalanced bilinguals: “are those who came after and whose competence is higher in one language than the other and generally in the mother tongue” ((Mouhajer, 2004) as cited in Moussadik, 2004; p.999). Passive bilingualism, on the other hand, was frequent during French colonisation because Algerian understood French but did not speak it. For that reason, elder generations do understand the language, but they are not fluent speakers French. However, Algerian children living in France are passive in their mother tongue Algerian Arabic (AA) because they can only understand it, they cannot speak it.

On the whole, bilingualism exists in Algeria. There are who are bilinguals in French and AA, or French and Tamazight and there are those who are even trilingual in Arabic, French, and English. Rare cases, there are some elites who know more than two foreign languages in addition to French and Arabic, and they are considered as multilinguals. Even

children are brought up to be bilinguals. This raises the question of what is bilingual children ?

1.1.5.5. Children Bilingualism

The child, as a small creature, has strong abilities to understand the world around him. He could deal with everything he encounters and he could acquire new habits easily. In this respect, Bruner (1983) asserted : “From the start, the human infant is active in seeking out regulaties in the world about him” (p.24). Therefore, the child at a very early age if not right from birth, tries to learn what enables him to undertand his surroundings. He acquires language as he does with so many habits needed for his survival. Bruner (1983) said that: “infants enter the world of language and of culture with a readiness to find or invent systematic ways of dealing with social requirements and linguistic forms. The child reacts ‘culturally’ with charateristic hypotheses about what is required and enters language with a readiness for order” (pp.28-29). Thus, the child acquires the language he is exposed to. He does so easily and effortlessly because of the power he has. Language is not enherited and does not exist in his genes. He acquires his first language without being instructed or advised to do so. Exposure plays a great role for language acquisition to occur. In addition to conversation, parents or babysiters have to talk and converse with children. Likewise, Levinson (1983) said that : “conversation is the matrix for language acquisition” (as cited in Lanza, 2001, p.284).

Children have an ability to acquire more than one language. When acquiring two languages : they acquire the first and the second language at the same time, this is called simultaneous bilingualism. When they acquire the second language some time after acquiring the first language, this is known as *coordinate bilingualism*.

Young bilinguals are skilled enough that they may teach adults lessons about language and culture. Whitehead (2007) stated that : “when bilinguals are acquiring other languages they may use a strategy of ‘bridge building’ to get from a known language to a new language. This often involves using words from the new language, but with grammatical patterns of the securely, known language. This is a skilled temporary solution called ‘interlanguage’ by linguists” (as cited in Selinker, 1992, p.20).

1.1.5.6. Advantages of Children Bilingualism

Children bilingualism has, for a long time, been a subject of research by psycholinguists who wanted to discover whether it is advantageous or not. Yet, recent studies have supported children bilingualism. Whitehead (2007) cited that : “young bilinguals have the potential ability to think about the system behind languages and this can give them an early advantage in literacy learning” (Selinker,1992 ; as cited in Whitehead, 2007, p.20). This indicates that bilingual children are more advantageous than monolingual ones.

Nancy Huston stated that bilingualism is: “une simulation intellectuelle de tous les infants” (1999, p.46 ; as cited in Paradis, 2007, p.104), translated as: “bilingualism is an intellectual stimulus for all children”.

According to Baker (1995), bilingual children could converse with their friends at schools and in the wider community. Moreover, if the bilingual children get in touch with speakers of another language they do not know, they are good listeners than monolinguals.

There is a difference between children who are bilinguals and those who are monolinguals. Baker (1995) mentioned that children: “those who speak one language

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symbolize the essential difference between animals and people. Those who speak two languages symbolize the essential humanity of building bridges between people of different color, culture and language” (p.13).

Grass and Selinker (2008) cited a classification of advantages of bilingualism proposed by Baker and Pry Jones (1998) as : communicative, cultural / economic and cognitive advantages. The first advantage is when an individual talks to family members (whether immediate or extended members), learning a second language will lead communication gap not to be widen between children and their parents or relatives. Second, being bilingual means that individuals will have an experience in more than one culture and, therefore, leads to an understanding of the cultural differences among people. In addition to these advantages, bilingualism has the economic advantage in all domains of work from business to sales. The last advantage of bilingualism is a cognitive one. It is a “divergent thinking, creative thinking and metalinguistic awareness.” (Grass & Selinker, 2008, p. 29). Metalinguistic awareness is the ability to think about language as a subject of investigation. “Bilinguals tend to have better abilities in those areas that demand selective attention because that is what one has to do when there is competing information (e.g., two languages). Thus, bilinguals’ awareness of language comes at an early age. Knowing two languages provides them with the skills to separate form from meaning, which in turn facilitates reading readiness” (Grass & Selinker, 2008, p. 29).

In conclusion, children bilingualism is advantageous from a psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic point of view since it enables children to be thinkers and aware of what is going around them. It also enables them to communicate with people speaking a language different from their mother tongue and with different cultures. Bilingualism is an additional

ability to children that could help them to see the world with an additional different eye. To see the world with two eyes is better than one.

1.1.6. Diglossia

There are some societies which are characterized by the coexistence of two varieties of the same language. These varieties are used in different situations. This phenomenon is known as diglossia. It is the result of language contact.

1.1.6.1. Definition

Diglossia is a Greek term which means ‘two languages’ (Meyerhoff, 2006, p. 114). This term became of prevalent use in the Anglophone linguistics after the publication of Ferguson’s 1959 article. However, Saiegh-Haddad (2012) noted that the term diglossia had been used first by Karl Krumbacher (1902) who tried to depict the situation of Greek (where two varieties were used: Dimotiki and Katharevusa). The word diglossia was translated as bilingualism. Then, Marçais (1930) used the term to describe the linguistic situation in the Arab world (between written Classical Arabic and Arabic vernaculars).

However, the term became well-known and of a widespread use when it was published in Ferguson’s celebrated article (1959) who had presented the theory of diglossia and had given the example of the Arab world linguistic situation. This language situation is the result of the use of two varieties one is considered as more prestigious and standardised while the second

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is non-standardised and it is generally a vernacular³. The coexistence of two varieties is seen by a lay person as two different languages. In this respect, Bloomer, Griffiths, & Merrison (2005) referred to diglossia as ‘two tongues’(374).

Diglossia was defined by Ferguson (1959, p. 335) as:

Diglossia is a relatively stable language situation in which, in addition to the primary dialects of the language(which may include a standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified(often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015, p. 90).

According to Ferguson’s definition, diglossia is a linguistic situation in which two varieties of the same language are used by the members of the society and each variety is used in specific context, in other words, ‘‘two distinct varieties of the same language are used, side by side’ (Spolsky B. , 1998, p. 63). The first one is the standardised variety used in formal situations and it is codified and learnt under formal instruction known as the ‘High variety’ or simply (H) whereas the second variety is unstandardised, used generally in every day communication, and it is a vernacular known as the ‘Low variety’ or simply (L). Pramoedya Ananta Toer leading man of letters in Indonesia called the H and L varieties as school language and working language (Errington, 2008, p. 144). Furthermore, Fishman defined it

³ Vernacular is a language which is unstandardised or uncoded, it has no official status, learnt as a first language in multilingual communities , and used for limited set of informal functions (Holmes, 2001; Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015)

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as: “to include any society in which two or more varieties are used under distinct circumstances” (1971, p.74; as cited in Hudson, 1999, p. 50).

Watt (1998) had suggested that the theoretical concepts such as diglossia should not be ‘copyright’ and even Ferguson himself made a remark and he said: “....diglossia when it is used by a French linguist nowadays always implies the oppression of some lower classes and I never even thought of that when I was writing about diglossia” (p.83; as cited in Paulson, 2001, p.137). Yet, Ferguson was not thinking of this oppression while he was writing, but rather he was trying to describe a linguistic situation which was characterized by the use of two different varieties in the society which were in complementary distribution.

There are some societies where diglossia exists. Spolsky (1998) mentioned some examples of diglossia in the world: Arabic speaking world (classical Arabic, regional dialect), German (cantons, German), Haiti (French and Haitian Creole), Greece (katharévusa, dhimotiki). Their languages are known as the defining language (Arabic, Modern Greek, Swiss German, Haitian Creole) (Ferguson, 1959, p. 26). The table below presents the four defining languages with the names of their H and L languages:

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	H	L
<i>Arab world</i>	Classical Arabic al-fusha	al-ammiyyah,(colloquial Arabic) ad-darij
<i>Switzerland</i>	Standard German Schriftsprache	Dialekt(Swiss German) Schwyzertuutsch
<i>Greece</i>	Katharévusa	Dhimotiki
<i>Haiti</i>	Français(standard French)	Créole(haitian Creole)

Table .1.3 : The Names of H and L for the Defining Languages

(Adapted from Ferguson, 1959, p. 26)

There are some conditions for the emergence of diglossia. Ferguson (1959, p.338) pointed out that diglossia originated when:

(1)there is a sizable body of literature in a language closely related to (or even identical with) the natural language of the community....[and (2)]literacy in the community is limited to a small elite, [and]...a suitable period of time, of order of several centuries, passes from the establishment of (1) and (2)' (Wardhaugh 2006, p .91)

Therefore, for diglossia to emerge in a particular community, there should be an enormous amount of literature written in the one variety which is either different from or resembles the mother tongue.

After Ferguson's article in 1959, some scholars (Blanc, 1960; Badawi, 1973; & Meiseles, 1980; Bassiouney, 2009) wanted to find an intermediate situation between H and L so as to understand diglossia in the Arab world. They found that people alter between the two varieties chiefly when speaking. Yet this is not a total shift and the result is not H or L but a mixture of the two. Based on his analysis of the data gathered using a tape recording, Blanc (1960), for instance, differentiated between five varieties: classical, modified classical, semi-literary or elevated colloquial, koineised colloquial, and plain colloquial.

1.1.6.2. Characteristics of Diglossia

To differentiate diglossia from any other sociolinguistic phenomena, it is necessary to look for its distinctive features. Ferguson (1959) suggested the following nine characteristics that distinguish diglossia from any contact phenomena:

-Function: The two varieties H and L have specific function. H is more prestigious, standardised and used in formal situation (in administration, news broadcast, and education). The L variety is unstandardised and used in informal situation and in everyday communication. This means that there is specialisation of function; each variety fulfills a particular function. In addition, they are in complementary distribution; where one variety is used the other is used in another situation. One variety could not be used in place of the other; they cannot be used interchangeably. For instance, an Arab person cannot use Modern Standard Arabic instead of colloquial Arabic to ask about the direction to a hotel or a supermarket, otherwise he will be a subject of ridicule.

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Generally, the functions fulfilled by the H and L varieties are approximately the same, but there may be slight differences from one community to another. The following table presents the different situations where H and L are used. These situations are suggested by Ferguson (1972[1959], p.236):

Situations where H is used	Situations where L is used
1-Sermon in church or mosque	1- Instructions to servants, waiters, workmen and clerks
2-Speech in parliament, political speech	2- Conversation with family, friends and colleagues
3-Personal letters	3- Radio soap opera
4-University lecture	4- Caption on political cartoon
5-News Broadcast	5- Folk literature
6-Newspaper editorial, news story, caption on picture	
7-Poetry	

Table .1.4 : Situations where H and L are Used (Bassiouney R. , 2009, p. 11)

As it is displayed in the above table, each variety is used in particular situation. Yet, there are some situations where the H should appear, but sometimes the L is used instead. In education, for instance, teachers of secondary school may explain using colloquial Arabic though it is forbidden to do so. Moreover, Poems used to be written in H, but some time ago, people started writing poetry in L. Nowadays, even sermons in mosques are using the colloquial language so as to make illiterate people understand the message.

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-Prestige: H variety is considered as more prestigious than L. H is superior to L. This superiority is the result of the belief that H is more beautiful, logic and contains adequate expression to describe and explain our thoughts. Moreover, H is seen as a real language whereas the L variety is described as 'not to exist' (Ferguson, 1959, p. 29). This superiority is due to religion. Since the language used to convey religious messages is the H, the latter is considered as a sacred language. Arab world, for example, consider Classical Arabic as High variety because Qu'ran is written in that language and thus it is God's words. All Muslim prayers and religious speeches are held in that language. Therefore, language superiority cannot be lost under whichever circumstances, and it could not be discussed or changed.

-Literary heritage: all the body of literature is written in H and not L. It may be written in the past or it is in continuous process of writing. This body of literature includes poetry and prose. However, there is a tendency to write in L, but still it is reserved to a small group of people who wanted to write poetry in the language that could be understood by lay persons.

-Acquisition: this is another distinctive feature. H variety is learnt at schools under formal instructions while L is acquired at home as a mother tongue and children acquire it as a result of daily exposure to their parents and the environment in general. Thus, the child, right from the first moment, hears his parents speaking L. This daily exposure and from an early age leads him to internalize the grammatical rules of L and acquire them unconsciously. While H is studied at school he goes to school, he studies H. Hence, L has native speakers, but H has not.

-Standardisation: if the language is standardised, this means that it has dictionaries, grammars and treaties on pronunciation and so forth. Effectively, H is standardised since it has dictionaries and grammar. It has also conventions of pronunciation and vocabulary.

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Moreover, it has orthography with some variation. Yet, L is not standardised and it was not subject of studies whether descriptive or normative. Even if there exist, they are written by foreigners not from the same speech community. As far as the Algerian context is concerned, MSA is standardised and it is the H variety whereas Algerian Arabic is the L variety. MSA has dictionaries, grammatical rules, and vocabulary and pronunciation conventions while AA has none. In addition, AA differs from region to another in pronunciation and vocabulary. However, in some cases, both L and H are standardised and this occurs in colonial areas.

-Stability: this is another characteristic of diglossia. It can endure for a number of centuries. To solve the communicative tension that may appear in diglossia situation, uncoded, unstable, intermediate forms of language are used (Greek: Mikti; Arabic: Al-lugah al-wustā; Haitian créole: de salon) (Ferguson, 1959, p. 31), and the vocabulary items are frequently borrowed from H and L.

-Grammar: this is one of the noticeable distinctive features

between H and L. There are some grammatical categories which exist in H and are absent in L to the inflectional system of nouns and verbs which is lessened or completely absent in L). Therefore, according to Ferguson, the H and L varieties differ in grammatical categories which are present in one variety and absent in the other (Huson, 1994). Classical Arabic, for instance, “has three cases in the noun, marked by endings; colloquial dialects have none” (Ferguson, 1959, p. 32). There is another distinction in word order and in the use of the introductory and connective particles.

-Lexicon: H and L share the same sum of vocabulary with some differences in use and meaning. Nevertheless, H contains some expressions and technical vocabularies that are not used in every day communication. L also may include some words and expressions that could

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not be used in formal situations, yet, ‘a striking feature of diglossia is the existence of many paired items, one H one L, referring to fairly common concepts frequently used in both H and L, where the range of meaning of the two items is roughly the same, and the use of one or the other immediately stamps the utterance or written sequence as H or L’ (Ferguson, 1959, p. 33). This indicates that for the same concept there are two distinct words one for H and the other for L and each one is known as it belongs to H or L. In Arabic, for instance, the word ‘seen be translated’ as /raʔa: / in H variety and / ʃaf / in L variety and the word / raʔa: / never occurs in every day communication (Ferguson, 1959, p. 33). Another example suggested by Saiegh-Haddad (2012) of the word /tura: b /in MSA and /trab/ in some vernaculars (p.45).

-Phonology: the relationship between H and L phonology cannot be generalized for all instances of diglossia. The phonologies of Greek H and L varieties are approximately close while in Arabic or Haitian Creole are somehow different and they are totally different as it is the case in Swiss German. Thus, differentiating between the two phonological systems is not easy and the speakers found difficulty in keeping the two systems separate. There are two justifications for this:

1-The sound systems of H and L constitute a single phonological structure of which the L phonology is the basic system and the divergent features of H phonology are either a subsystem or a parasystem.

2- If ‘pure’ H items have phonemes not found in ‘pure’ L items, L phonemes frequently substitute for these in oral use of H and regularly replace them.

(Ferguson, 1959, p. 34)

Therefore, according to the above mentioned features, diglossia is a linguistic phenomenon characterised by the coexistence of two varieties of the same language each one is used in different linguistic situation and they cannot be used interchangeably. The H variety is considered as the most prestigious standardised variety, used in formal situation, has literary heritage while the L variety is unstandardised used in informal situation in everyday communication and it is acquired as the mother tongue of the community (H is learned under formal instruction). The H and L varieties also differ in grammar, vocabulary and phonology. H has grammatical structures which are absent in L and while vocabulary varies.

1.1.6.3. Extended Diglossia

Ferguson's classical definition of diglossia is to include any language situation characterised by two distinct varieties of the same language. However, Fishman (1980) has extended the term diglossia to comprise even those situations where the members of the community use two genetically different languages one functions as H while the other functions as L. In this respect, Fishman defined diglossia as "an enduring societal arrangement, extending at least beyond a three generation period, such that two 'languages' each have their secure, phenomenologically legitimate and widely implemented functions" (Fishman, 1980, p.3; as cited in Hudson, 2001, p.228). He added that "diglossia is the stable, societal counterpart to individual bilingualism" (Fishman, 1980, p.3; as cited in Hudson, 2001, p.229).

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Following the same line of thought, Spolsky (1998), in this case, defined diglossia as “the way in which two (or more) distinct languages come to divide up the domains in the linguistic repertoire of a speech community.” (p. 64).

Sridhar (1996) gave the example of zaire where French is the prestigious language and functions as H while the indigenous languages, like Lingala, are used in less prestigious situations and functions as L (p. 55). Another example suggested by Rubin (1968) is about Paraguay which has Guarani serving as H and Spanish operating as L (as cited in Roger, 1978, p.135).

In the same vein, Short (2009) characterized the linguistic situation in Anglo-Norman England as “ diglossic bilingualism. This is meant a community characterized by the simultaneous presence of two languages in contact, with each of the languages having a distinct range of social functions.”(p.245; as cited in Putter, 2011, p. 282).

In short, fishman’s extended diglossia differs from Ferguson’s classical diglossia. For Ferguson, diglossia is the coexistence of distinct varieties of the same language, but Fishman has expended this phenomenon to include even situations characterized by the existence of two genetically different languages where one is used as H and the other as L.

However, Anghelescu (1974) opposed to the use of the two terms in such a way because, by doing so, the nature of diglossia would be lessened to ‘stylistic functional variation’ (as cited in Saiegh-Haddad, 2012, p.44). He justified his point of view by indicating that: “diglossia implies sufficiently similar languages for the speakers to feel that it is the same language, yet, remote enough, so that the acquisition of the literary language implies long-term efforts and can never be fully achieved” (Maamouri, 1998, p.30; as cited in Saiegh-Haddad, 2004, p.44).

1.1.6.4. Diglossia and Bilingualism

According to Roger (1978), there are three situations in the relationship between bilingualism and diglossia:

**bilingualism without diglossia:* it is a situation characterized by the use of two genetically different languages. These societies which are bilingual have more than one L₁ and they use the two languages in their every day communication. Belgium, for instance, uses French and Dutch. This situation is not considered diglossic since there is no agreement among Belgians on which language could be H or L because both have ‘an co-equal official status’ (Roger, 1978, p. 134).

- *Diglossia without bilingualism:* in this situation there are two varieties of the same language H and L and they are used to fulfill a particular social function. For diglossia to occur without bilingualism, there should be an “existence of relatively rigid social system in which group membership is achieved by birth and which cannot be easily lost” (Roger, 1978, p. 134).

- *Diglossia and bilingualism:* this situation is characterized by the existence of two languages and one is to be considered as H and the other L. Each one of them functions in different situations. Paraguay is an example, where Guarani operates as L and Spanish as H.

The following table summarizes the relationship between diglossia and bilingualism:

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	+	Diglossia	-
Bilingualism		1. Both diglossia and bilingualism	2. Binlingualism without diglossia
	-	3. Diglossia without bilingualism	4. Neither diglossia nor bilingualism

Table .1.5 : The Relationship between Bilingualism and Diglossia (Fishman, 2000, p. 75).

1.1.6.5. Triglossia

If diglossia is the coexistence of two varieties of the same language and each one fulfills a particular social function, triglossia is the use of three varieties of the same language and there is a division of functions. The Tanzanian researcher Abdulaziz-Mkilifi (1972) suggested the term Triglossia to mean a situation:

Where there exists side by side: (a) regional or vernacular languages whose basic role is in oral intra-group communication, (b) a local standardized lingua franca which is used extensively in the education system, mass media and in government administration but which is not developed enough to cover all settings of modern urban technological culture, and (c) a world language (Abdulaziz-Mkilifi, 1972, p.198; as cited in de Mejia, 2002, p.39).

According to the above mentioned definition, triglossia is characterized by the coexistence of ; vernacular languages, a local stanardized language that seves as a lingua franca and to be used in different domains mainly in education and administration, and a language used internationally. de Majia (2002, p.39) gave the example of the Tanzanian

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society where three codes were used ; English, Kiswahili and a variety of vernacular languages. English is used in higher education and it is the language of science; vernacular languages are the native language acquired at home and used in everyday communication. Kiswahili, however, serves as a lingua franca and it is learnt under formal instruction and it is “the language of culture and communication at national level” (Abdulaziz-Mkilifi, 1972, p.204; as cited in de Mijia, 2002, p.39).

Abdulaziz-Mkilifi described the Tanzanian linguistic situation as being a crossroad of two diglossic situations. On the one hand, it is diglossic since there are two varieties used side by side ; Kiswahili and a vernacular. On the other hand, there are two languages which serve different functions ; Kiswahili and English. This situation is also called “double overlapping diglossia” (Fasold,1984; as cited in de Mijia, 2002, p.39).

1.1.6.6. Polyglossia

This term is used to describe the use of more than two varieties and each variety fulfills a particular function. This term can be an alternative to triglossia. For example, individuals in Bukavu use various codes to fulfill different functions for varied purposes (Holmes, 2001).

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Bakhtin, in his theory of Dialogized heteroglossia⁴, suggested the term *heteroglossia* to describe the use of different voices which are related to a given speech genre (Johnson, 2004, p. 124).

Since Algeria is part of the Arab world and Arabic is one of the defining languages described by Ferguson, It is an instance of a diglossic society. It is diglossic because MSA is used in formal situations and it is prestigious while AA is the mother tongue and it is used in informal situation. In addition to the existence of the French language which is spoken by intellectuals and Kabyles. This linguistic situation contributes to the emergence of diglossia and even other language phenomena such as code switching, borrowing and so forth.

As far as the present thesis is concerned, its main aim turns around children switchings from MSA to AA which in diglossic situation aiming at shedding light on the switchings that children may go through while speaking.

1.2. The Sociolinguistic Situation in Algeria

It is important, for this work, to know the different languages which constitute the linguistic repertoire of Algeria. Hence, a sociohistorical summary of languages is necessary.

⁴ Dialogized heteroglossia (1981, p.273) is a theory of Bakhtin which aims to account for human behaviour by means of dialogic concept of language. It declares a dynamic relationship between inner and outer worlds of the person (Johnson, 2004, p. 126).

1.2.1. Algeria

Algeria, 'Al Djazair' in Arabic and is known as 'the country of one million and half martyrs'. It is the first largest country in Africa after the split of Sudan. It merits to be studied historically, geographically and even linguistically.

It is an Arab country and its official language is Arabic. But its linguistic situation is rather complex for there are four languages at a play: Arabic (Modern Standard Arabic, Classical Arabic), French and Tamazight in addition to a number of dialects and accents. This variation made it a subject of study by sociolinguists so as to know about language phenomena that exist.

Algeria has a very strategic location which it a door to Africa since it stretches on a coastline of 12000 km² on the Mediterranean Sea from the North. It is the heart of the Maghreb because it is bordered by many countries: to the west, it is bordered by Morocco and Mauritania; to the east, it is bordered by Tunisia and Libya. From the south, it is bordered by Mali, Niger and Chad. This strategic location made Algeria a crossroad of civilisations and a subject of successive occupations which led to cultural and linguistic variations. Diversity in climate and region made Algeria rich whether for its natural resources such as gas and oil, agriculture, or for its culture and language (variation in accent, dialects).

Before presenting the sociolinguistic profile of the Algerian society, a historical perspective is needed.

1.2.2. Brief Overview of the History of Languages in Algeria

Since a long time, Algeria was a country invaded by so many civilisations (Phoenicians, Arabs, Ottmans and French). This made it at the crossroads of civilisations and to have variation in culture and language.

1.2.2.1. The Sociolinguistic Situation in Algeria before the 19th Century

The earliest inhabitants of North Africa and particularly of Algeria were Imazighen (singular Imazigh means 'the freeman'). They used to speak a language called 'Tamazight' and later it was known as 'the berber'. This language was one of the oldest languages of humanity. Tamazight is a Hmito-semitic language. Nowadays this language is still spoken by people of North Africa, Egyptian oasis of sina, and the Touareg in the Sahara.

Algeria was the object of many invasions. It was first colonised by phoenicians who came to North Africa and established Carthaginians civilisation. They settled there for more than seven centuries. They marked their presence with their Punic civilisation and used Punic language.

Then, Romans defeated Carthaginians in Punic wars and they took control over the area for more than six centuries. After that, Vandals invaded Ageria after the decline of the Roman Empire in 429 A.D. Therefore, the languages spoken at that time were: Berber, Punic and Latin.

When Arabs came, their main aim was to introduce Arabic language and Islamic religion. Before the berbers embraced Islam, they had resisted the Arab invasions. But once

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they did, Algeria became part of the powerful AraboBerber empires of the Almoravids and Almohafids which dominated Maghreb and Andalusia.

After that, Spanish occupied Algeria. The Spanish presence in Algeria was mainly in the West coastal areas (for trade and commerce). Their presence in Algeria had left considerable linguistic traces in the Algerian spoken language.

After a considerable period of time, Ottoman Empire put Algeria under Turkish protectorate in order to save Islam. Algeria was under Turkish protectorate during more than 300 years. During that period (from 1516 to 1830), the Turkish language was the official language of Ottoman administration, but its usage was limited compared to Arabic. The Turkish left Algeria when it was colonized by the French in 1830.

Because of the different colonizers invaders and successive civilisations established on the Algerian territory, its people were exposed to different cultures and languages. This made Algeria rich linguistically and culturally.

1.2.2.2. The Sociolinguistic Situation in Algeria during Colonisation

In the 1930, French occupied the territory after strong resistance by Algerians. The beginning of the long story with the French was the famous incident known as « le coup d'éventail » between the Turkish Dey and the French council in 1827. The French took this incident as an apparent reason for their invasion to Algeria. The main objective of French colonization is to make Algeria French by eliminating the Algerian and Muslim identity. Different populations lived in Algeria during that period (Spanish, Italian, Jewish, Arabs and

Berbers). This made Algeria a multilingual society. Yet, French was the code used for communication among these people.

The colonial strategy of replacing Arabic with French in administration and education contributed to the creation of bilingual or multilingual situation and by ignoring all languages already spoken in the country. However, Arabic used to be the language of the illiterate and the poor and to be learnt only in mosques or ‘Kotteb⁵’.

1.2.2.3. The Linguistic Consequences of French Colonialism

After independence (1962), Algeria was found in serious economic, cultural, political and social problems. One of these problems was one of the official languages. Politicians discovered that it was both necessary and difficult to decide upon an official language that would represent the unity of Algerians in a country where three languages were used Arabic, French and Berber. Choosing one language over the others leads to national strike. The postcolonial Algerian government decided to have ‘Modern Standard Arabic’ as a national and official language since it had a cultural prestige and it can also connect the whole country. The government also reintroduced MSA in education, administration and government in a process called Arabisation⁶. It was not an easy task because most educated Algerians were taught only in French to introduce MSA necessitated teachers who should master MSA who should be taught in other Arab countries.

In a word, French was one of the consequences of French colonialism that was and is still difficult to get rid of. Algeria as a Muslim and Arab country suffers from the use of the

⁵ Schools used for teaching(rehearsing quran)

⁶ For details see the next chapter.

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French language although the government since independence used various strategies to limit its use. Even, Algerian Arabic borrows a lot of French words, in addition to the frequent mixing of French and Arabic in the everyday conversations.

1.2.2.4. Today's Linguistic Situation in Algeria

Since Algeria was at the crossroads of civilisations and was a subject of many invasions and colonizations; it becomes, after independence, a country of linguistic diversity. Three languages exist in Algeria: Arabic, French and Tamazight, in addition to languages used in education (English, Spanish, Italian and German). Moreover, these languages get in contact resulting in bilingualism, codeswitching, borrowing and so forth. This makes Algeria a fertile terrain for any sociolinguistic studies.

1.2.2.4.1. Arabic

During 7th and 8th centuries, Algerians embraced Islam. Arabic was the language of Coran and religious prayers. Thus, Algerians have to learn and use it. Arabic is Semitic language (Belnap, 2005) and it is spoken by about one billion Muslims.

Arabic can be classified as: Modern Standard Arabic, Classical Arabic and Algerian Arabic.

1.2.2.4.2. Classical Arabic

Classical Arabic is the language of the Quran and the religious prayers. It has prestige and cultural heritage. It is defined by its richness of vocabulary and regularity of grammatical rules. Classical Arabic (henceforth CA) is regarded as ‘a model of linguistic excellence’ (Aitsiselmi, 2006, p. 189). Classical Arabic is used in the daily recitation of Quran in prayers and giving religious speeches. Further, CA is used in “governments, the written language of literature, and the spoken language of inter-regional communication and trade” (Dalby, 2004, p. 28). Educated Algerians understand and use CA more than uneducated ones because they are more exposed to formal acquisition of CA.

1.2.2.4.3. Modern Standard Arabic

Modern Standard Arabic, known as literary Arabic, is a simplified version of Classical Arabic. It is prestigious since it is used by the entire Arab world and the official and the national language of Algeria. It is used in court, government, media, science and education. After independence, it has been chosen to be a national language to guarantee the unity of the country. It is learnt at schools from the age of 6. It is used for communication among educated people. MSA has kept the morphology and syntax of Classical Arabic and introducing some expressions taken from foreign languages that are needed for scientific, economic and technical domains.

CA differs from Algerian dialects and these differences are caused by some factors. Firstly, Arabic dialects differs from CA and according to comparative methods they are not historically derived from CA. Secondly, morphologically and phonologically speaking,

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Algerian dialects are not complex compared to CA. Thirdly, CA is an old and the only dialect of old Arabic (Owens J. , 1997).

1.2.2.4.4. Algerian Arabic

The third category of Arabic is called Algerian, colloquial, Dialectal Arabic or Derdja. It is the mother tongue of almost all Algerians. It is a popular Arabic used in informal situations for everyday communication. It is a variety that is not taught at schools and could not be used in sciences. AA differs from one region to another. It consists of a number of dialects. Most of the linguistic variation is not a matter of pronunciation, but it also shows variation in grammar and vocabulary. It is essentially an oral language. Yet, it is sometimes used by some writers in their artistic productions especially songs, poetry and theatre, for instance, the Algerian writer Rachid Boudjedra who used to write in Algerian Arabic.

It is noticed that borrowing words from foreign languages, mainly French and codemixing are among the characteristics that describe AA since speakers consciously or unconsciously may use different languages in the same conversation. AA is considered as the low variety of Arabic.

1.2.2.4.5. Tamazight

Tamazight is the original language of Algeria. Tamazight comes from the word Imazighen means ‘free’ man and the plural ‘Imazigh’. It is the mother tongue of some

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Algerians and the number of its speakers varies and it is about 25% to 30% of the total population (Aitsiselmi, 2006).

None of the already mentioned conquests could change the linguistic identity of the Berber. Yet, with the Arab arrivals things have changed. The Berber area had been reduced into blocks of the country. The major Berber varieties are:

-Taqbalit (Kabyle): is a variety spoken in the Northern area of great Kabylie and is spoken mainly in Tizi ouazou, Bedjaia, Bouira, Setif, Boumerdes and Algiers. It is the most widespread variety of Berber.

- Tshawit (Chaouia): is a variety spoken in Aures mountains in the central Eastern areas of Algeria and is spoken especially in Batna, Khenchla, Soukhras, Oum Elbouaghi and Tebessa.

-Tamzabit: is a variety spoken in the center of Algeria mainly in Gharaiia

-Taznatit: and Tamahaq: are varieties to be found in the Saharan areas of the country (Touareg and Tassili).

After independence, both Tamazight and AA suffer from the consequences of the Arabisation process which aimed at generalising the use of MSA so as to guarantee the unity of the country. Though tamazight was the code used by Berber in their everyday communication, it did not benefit from any privilege and it was considered as a dialect.

Berber were not pleased of that situation. They wanted their language to be known as the language of their region. They also needed Tamazight to be a national and official language of Algeria along with MSA and to have the right to use it in all situations.

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Since 1989, a lot of actions have been taken. Many strikes in Kabyle region mainly in Tizi Ouzou, Bedjaia and Algiers took place in 1991. A series of events, boycott at schools and many manifestations in 1994. The events of the black spring in 2001, was reactions of the Berber to their linguistic reality. All these actions led to the creation of 'the Haut Commissariat of Tamazight' in 1995. Tamazight was recognized as a national language after the constitutional amendment of May 8th 2002.

Today, the situation is much better since it is used in the main spheres. It is taught at schools and universities especially in Kabylie. Moreover, it is used in the media where some Tamazight channels and radios broadcast.

1.2.2.4.6. French

French is an official and national language of France and some other countries. It is a vulgar latin came to the area so called France by Roman settlers. French is brought to Algeria by French colonization in 1930. The French strategy was to make Algeria French. French became the official language of Algeria for about 132 years. After independence, Algeria was found in a situation where French was used in different spheres: TV, radio, government and even in education.

In the post independence era, the Algerian government wanted to reduce the use of French by following the Arabisation process. This process consisted of replacing French by Arabic in court, government and education. However, French kept its status in the Algerian society at different levels: economic, social and educational. French has always kept its

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prestige especially among intellectuals. A great number of Algerians nowadays use French in their everyday life: students, businessmen or politicians and the like.

Nowadays, French is present linguistically in direct way in its multiple uses in education, administration and in media. It is also used indirectly in speeches of Arabs and berbers. It becomes part of the Algerian repertoire.

Furthermore, French has left its traces on the name of shops such as ‘coiffeur, restaurant, alimentation générale’ or the names of roads of big towns such as in Constantine ‘belle vue’ and ‘saint Jean’.

In a word, French is rooted in the Algerian linguistic repertoire and it becomes part of their culture. In this respect, Taleb Ibrahim (2000, p.66) said that French language is: “the only language among the other languages which lasted and influenced the users. It has gained a particular status in the Algerian society. The French language which was imposed on the Algerians by fire and blood, constituted a fundamental element in the French policy of depriving people from their identity and ‘deculturation’” (as cited in Abdelkrim, 2009, p. 387).

To sum up, today the linguistic situation in Algeria is so complex since there are three languages at a play: Arabic (AA, MSA, CA), Tamazight and French. The presence of all these languages leads to language contact. What is really of interest in this thesis is the language mixing that Algerians and particularly children use while speaking.

The following map represents the distribution of languages in Algeria.



Map 1.1. : Geographical Location of Berber and Algerian Arabic Varieties in Algeria
(Adapted from Etlmologue, 2004 ; as cited in Benrabah, 2005, p. 401)

Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to cast some light on the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria. The linguistic situation in this country is so complex since there are three languages at a play: Arabic, French and Tamazight. It is also characterized by the existence of some language behaviour such as bilingualism, borrowing code switching and so forth. For its variation, Algeria's linguistic repertoire is very rich that stimulates linguists, psycholinguists and sociolinguists.

This chapter has aimed at presenting the linguistic situation in Algeria. Defining some related terms is needed such as pidgin, lingua franca, koiné. These terms are the inevitable consequences of language contact. After stating a brief overview of the history of Algeria, some space has been devoted to deal with codes used in Algeria.

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This chapter serves to lay out the theoretical dimension of research presented with the second and the third chapters. It aims also at showing how the linguistic situation in Algeria is so varied and it is worth studying without which the problem being investigated would lack a theoretical backbone. The next chapter is going to be about languages in education and language planning and policy.

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Introduction

During its existence in Algeria, the French government did all its best to eliminate the Algerian personality and the Arabo-Islamic identity. They used a number of strategies in order to reach their goals. One of their policies was the spread of the French language which became a national language. The French government obliged Algerians to use French in every aspect of life such as administration and education. At schools, French was the only language taught. Algerians were not allowed to use or study Arabic.

After independence, Algerians found that French was of a widespread use in all the country's domains of life: education, administration, street, and TV . The newly independent government was in an intricate situation, and it had to follow a particular policy that would restore the lost identity. The policy followed at that period was called Arabisation. After applying this policy for so many years, Arabic regained its status as a national and official language of the country.

The Algerian government was also interested in developing the educational system which witnessed changes from independence until the present day. These changes reflected the viewpoint of the ministry of education and the economic and political transformations that the world had known. The importance was given to develop the preparatory education to be a necessary step before the primary education.

Preparatory education is a kind of education designed for children less than 6 years. It aims at preparing children for school. At this age, children need to play; they are psychologically attached to their mothers. The separation between children and their mothers is difficult for them. Thus, psychologists and educators believe that they need a transitional

period to be prepared for the separation and for the new world they will live in. Children should be in a preparatory that resembles their homes and it should be attractive in its architecture, colours and content and so forth.

2.1. Language Planning and Policy

There are some scholars who considered language planning and Language policy (henceforth LPP) as two different activities while others such as Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) regarded them to be used interchangeably when they said: “any change in the character of a language is likely to result in a change in the use environment, and any change in the use environment is likely to induce a change in the character of a language.” (as cited in spolsky, 2004, p. 11).

2.1.1. Language Planning

Language planning is a process which should be used by any government

2.1.1.1. Definition of Language Planning

The American linguist Einar Haugen suggested the notion ‘language planning’ in late 1950s to mean “all conscious efforts that aim at changing the linguistic behaviour of a speech community” (Mesthrie et al, 2000, p. 371). According to Haugen (1987), Language planning can encompass anything “from proposing a new word to a new language” (p.627; as cited in Mesthrie et al, 2000, p.371).

According to Oakes (2008), Haugen wanted to portray the efforts for promotion, modernisation and implementation of a national language in Norway. At first, the interest was directed towards essentially linguistic objectives as it is revealed by the definition suggested by Haugen (1959, in 1968, p. 673): “By language planning I understand the activity of preparing a normative orthography, grammar, and dictionary for the guidance of writers and speakers of a non-homogeneous speech community” (as cited in Oakes, 2008, p. 346). Later, the concept of ‘language planning’ has been enlarged to encompass not only activities related to linguistic features, but language properties as well.

Kaplan & Baldauf (1997, p.3) defined language planning as:

A body of ideas, laws and regulations (language policy), change rules, beliefs, and practices intended to achieve a planned change (or to stop change from happening) in the language use in one or more communities. To put it differently, language planning involves *deliberate*, although not always overt, *future oriented* change in systems of language code and/or speaking in a societal context (as cited in Orman, 2008, p. 40).

According to this definition, language planning includes all activities that aim at changing rules and beliefs about a language. It also imposes principles and regulations on language use in the communities.

Yates & Terraschke (2013, p. 108) pointed out that language planning has generally been developed at the micro level as: “the deliberate, future-oriented systematic change of language code, use and/or speaking” (Baldauf, 2006, p.148) and serves to standardize and to constraint languages (Baldauf, 2004).

The main interests of language planning are: to create a national unity and to maintain efficient communication inside the developing countries (Mansour, 1993; Ricento, 2003; Liddicoat & Baldauf, 2008)

Gadelii (1999, p.5) stated that “the larger the number of domains in which a language is recognized, the higher its status: government; assembly/parliament; courts; administration; education; business; media” (as it is cited in Almahmoud, 2013, p. 53).

Language planning is often used as equivalent to language policy (Mesthrie et al, 2000) .

2.1.1.2. The Process of Language Planning

To describe language planning, Haugen(1959) evolved the following framework:

- 1- *Selection* of a language variety or varieties that provide the basis for a new norm;
- 2- *Codification* of the selected language which included the choice of written script, determination of phonology (the patterning of sounds in the language) and how this was to be represented in the orthography (writing system);
- 3- *Implementation* of the selected and codified language throughout society, i.e., through schooling, government agencies, businesses, and so on;
- 4- *Elaboration* and *modernization* of the language which involved expanding the vocabulary and other aspects necessary to meet the communicative needs of the society.

(as cited in Ricento, 2007, pp. 218-219)

2.1.1.3. Language Planning Typology

There are four different but interconnected types of language planning: status planning, corpus planning, acquisition planning and prestige planning.

2.1.1.3.1. Status Planning

According to Spolsky (2004), status planning refers “to the appropriate uses for a named variety of language” (p. 11). Its aim is to define and develop a national standard (Kloss, 1969; as cited in Fettes & Corson, 1997).

2.1.1.3.2. Corpus Planning

According Spolsky (2004), corpus planning refers “to the choices to be made of specific linguistic elements whenever the language is used” (p. 11). Its aim is encourage the use of national language prior to the other language varieties (Kloss, 1969; as cited in Fettes & Corson, 1997).

The German linguist Heinz Kloss distinguished between ‘corpus planning’ and ‘status planning’. According to him, the goal of corpus planning is to “modify the nature of the language itself” while status planning is related to the social position of a specific language under consideration and “is satisfactory as is or whether it should be lowered or raised”(Kloss, 1969,p. 81; as cited in Oakes, 2008, p. 347). Moreover, Corpus planning needs successful status planning (Romaine, Linguistic Diversity and Language Standardization, 2007).

Following the same line of thought, Kloss (1969)asserted:

The big difference between corpus and status planning is that the former cannot be done without the help of some specialists, chiefly linguists and writers, who are called upon to form an academy, commission or some other official or semiofficial body within the framework of which they are expected to do some long-range teamwork. No such separate set-up as a rule can take place, for status planning. This is done by statesmen or bureaucrats as part of their routine work, mostly with some legal but very little sociolinguistic background. (Kloss, 1969, p. 81; as cited in Oakes, 2008, p. 347).

As stated in the above definition, corpus and status planning can be differentiated since corpus planning is conducted by some specialists like linguists who are asked to form an academy or by official or semiofficial body (Language may be controlled by an official body like the ' Académie française' for French or by the state itself (Hornsby, 2014, p. 262)). However, status planning is executed by government officials to be part of their daily work and with slight reference to sociolinguistic experience.

2.1.1.3.3. Acquisition Planning

Acquisition planning means “all planning activities that focus on language teaching and learning, rather than on more general aspects of language development and status (Fettes & Corson, 1997, p. 14).

The term ‘language acquisition planning’ was first introduced into the literature by Cooper (1989) and which is synonymous to what Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) called ‘language in education policy’ and what Shohamy (2003, 2006) labelled ‘language education policy’

(Menken, 2008, p. 6). Therefore, Cooper (1989, p.33) suggested a third kind of language planning to be established when he said:

When planning is directed towards increasing a language's uses, it falls within the rubric of status planning. But when it is directed toward increasing the number of users – speakers, writers, listeners, or readers – then a separate analytic category for the focus of language planning seems to me to be justified. (as cited in Oakes, 2008, p. 350).

This type of language planning is labelled by Cooper (1989) as 'acquisition planning' aiming at stressing the relation between language applied linguistics planning (Oakes, 2008, p. 350).

2.1.1.3.4. Prestige Planning

Prestige planning is also known as 'image planning' (Ager, 2001, 2005; as cited in Djennane, 2016, p. 20)

This kind of planning is meant to develop a positive psychological background which is necessary for the progress of language planning as it is stated by Mesthrie et al (2000, p.374):

Prestige planning is directed towards creating a favourable psychological background which is crucial for the long-term success of language planning activities (Haarmann, 1990). The high prestige which Hebrew commanded as the traditional religious language made explicit prestige planning unnecessary. Prestige planning, however, is vital when the promoted language has previously been limited to low-culture functions.

According to Romaine (2007), there are two aims of language planning. It focuses on decreasing language diversity such as in a multilingual country, a particular language is announced as a national language. In addition, it is designed to encourage linguistic unity in a country where differing dialects occur and special variety of a language is acknowledged as 'standard'.

2.1.1.4. Goals of Language Planning

Nahir (1984) suggested a categorization of 11 language planning goals: four are associated to status planning while seven to corpus planning.

- Goals linked to status planning

1- Language revival: which includes various sub divisions:

-Language restoration: where a language has died off

-Language revitalisation: where a language is given new vigour

-Language reversal: the reversal of language shift, or a turn-around in the use of a language.

2- Language maintenance: the promotion of a language already in use.

3- Language spread: increased domains of use

4- Interlingual communication: the facilitation of communication between languages, for example by means of an auxiliary language, translation or interpreting

- Goals related to corpus planning

1- Standardisation

2- Auxiliary code standardisation: the fixing of auxiliary aspects of language such as place names.

- 3- Lexical modernisation
- 4- Purification: to purge a language of external influences or internal deviations
- 5- Reforms: like spelling conventions
- 6- Stylistic simplification: to make a language more transparent.
- 7- Terminological unification: to standardise functions and meanings of terms, particularly those of scientific nature.

(as cited in Oakes, 2008, pp. 350-351)

Cooper (1989, 154) recognized also three *acquisition planning goals* as:

- 1- Acquisition of a second or foreign language: by speakers of other languages either within or outside the context in question.
- 2- Reacquisition: for those who have ceased to speak it.
- 3- Language maintenance: this time as an activity aimed at the speakers, rather than at the language itself.

(Cooper, 1989, p.159; as cited in Oakes, 2008, p.351)

The mentioned above goals could be classified according to its linguistic nature. Rubin (1971, pp. 277-279) suggested three divisions of language-planning goals that have been explained later by Rubin (1977, pp. 286-287) as:

- *Linguistic aims*: are the goals which focus on communication issues.
- *Semi-linguistic aims*: are “the instances where changes in the the language serve not only linguistic aims but also social or political aims”.
- *Extralinguistic aims*: these kinds of goals employ language only as an instrument to serve to problems that are originally sociopolitical.

(as cited in Oakes, 2008, p. 351)

According to Djennane (2016), language planning goals can be stated as ‘policy’ planning goals and ‘cultivation’ planning goals. Haugen (1983) indicated that policy is the selection of norms while ‘cultivation’ is a label that Haugen brought from Neustupny (1970) to mean the function, that is, the implementation of the norms. Kaplan and Baldauf (2003) suggested a comprehensive collection of language planning goals and the following table summarizes the different categorization:

Approaches <i>Types (overt- covert)</i>	1. Policy planning (on form) Goals	2. Cultivation Planning (on function) Goals
1. Status Planning (about society)	<i>Status standardisation</i> . Officialisation . Nationalisation . Proscription	<i>Status planning</i> Revival . Restoration . Revitalisation . Reversal Maintenance Interlingual communication . International . Intra-national Spread
2. Corpus Planning (about language)	<i>Standardisation</i> Corpus . Graphisation . Grammatication . Lexication Auxiliary Code	<i>Corpus Elaboration</i> Lexical Modernisation Stylistic Modernisation Renovation . Purification . Reform

unification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Graphisation . Grammatication . Lexication 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Stylistic simplification . Terminological Internationalisation
3. Language-in-education Planning (about learning) Language	<i>Policy Development</i> Access policy Personal Policy Curriculum policy Methods & Material Policy Resourcing policy Community Policy Evaluation Policy	<i>Acquisition Planning</i> Reacquisition Maintenance Foreign/Second Shift
4. Prestige Planning (about image)	<i>Language promotion</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Official/Government . Institutional . Pressure group . Individual 	<i>Intellectualisation</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> . Language of Science . Language of professions . Language of High Culture

Table 2.1. : A Framework for Language Planning Goals (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003, p. 202; as cited in Djennane, 2016, p. 26)

2.1.1.5. Critiques of Language Planning

Language planning has been criticized for its shortcomings.

Fishman (1994, p. 97) claimed that there are five critiques to language planning and which concentrated on the theoretical aspects linked to the analysis of language planning theory

instead of the the investigation of the practice. He believed that “very little language planning practice has actually been informed by language planning theory” (as cited in Baldauf, 2005, pp. 966-967). These critiques suggested by Fishman are:

- Language planning is conducted by elites that are governed by their own self-interest.
- Language planning reproduces rather than overcomes sociocultural and econotechnical inequalities.
- Language planning inhibits or counteracts multiculturalism.
- Language planning espouses worldwide Westernization and modernization leading to new sociocultural, econotechnical and conceptual colonialism.
- Ethnographic research is the most appropriate methodology for avoiding the traps posed by the previously mentioned shortcomings.

(as cited in Baldauf, 2005, pp. 966-967).

Further, Tollefson (2002, pp. 419-420) suggested two other critiques of language planning and policy that are relevant to local impact. These shortcomings are:

- The failure to realize the complexity of problems, to adequately analyze the impact of local context on policies and plans, and, therefore, the failure of policies to achieve their lofty goals.
- Lack of attention paid to language practices and attitudes of communities affected by macro language policies and planning.

(as cited in Baldauf, 2005, p. 967)

According to Baldauf (2005), these issues have been adapted by researchers who have an interest in language planning and current pieces of research have more restricted goals and they have started to concentrate on micro problems where they could integrate the context.

2.1.2. Language Policy

2.1.2.1. Definition of Language Policy

Language policy “is sometimes used as a synonym for language planning. However, more precisely, language policy refers to the more general linguistic, political and social goals underlying the actual language planning process.” (Mesthrie et al, 2000, p. 371).

In the same line of thought, Baldauf (2005) mentioned that the term language policy is vague that the field of language planning has distinguished between language policy and language planning since the former refers to ‘the plan’ while the later relates to ‘plan implementation’(p. 958). For him, language policies are “bodies of ideas, laws, regulations, rules, and practices intended to achieve some planned language change” (p. 958) whereas language planning “focuses on the implementation of these plans” (Kaplan & Baldauf, 2003; as cited in Baldauf, 2005, p. 958).

Among the scholars who differentiated between Language planning and language policy, Tollefson (1991, p. 16) who inserted that:

The commonly accepted definition of language planning is that it refers to all conscious efforts to affect the structure or function of language varieties. These efforts may involve creation of orthographies, standardization and modernization programmes, or allocation of functions to particular languages within multilingual societies. The commonly accepted definition of language policy is that it is language planning by governments (Djennane, 2016, p. 10).

This definition serves to differentiate between language planning and language policy. According to Tollefson (1991), language planning includes all activities related to language

structure and use such as the formation of orthographies, standardisation of programmes, functions assigned to languages in multilingual contexts. However, language policy is a language planning conducted by the government.

Further, some researchers described language policy as: “the underlying political and sociolinguistic goals that are implied in the activities and measures of language planners” (Deumert, 2001,p.644; as cited in Oakes, 2008, p. 352). Some others scholars broadened the term language policy to “refer to all the language practices, beliefs and management decisions of a community or polity” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 9). In this respect, Ricento (2000, p. 209) asserted:

Language policy research is concerned not only with official and unofficial acts of governmental and other institutional entities, but also with the historical and cultural events and processes that have influenced, and continue to influence, societal attitudes and practices with regard to language use, acquisition and status (as cited in Oakes, 2008, p. 352)

Ricento indicated that language policy includes all activities related to language use, acquisition and status.

The main concern of language policy is to deal with topics such as: the implementation of language education, the languages taught in school in addition to the adjustment for language and language ideology (Cooper, 1989; Corson, 1999; Crawford, 2000; Fettes, 1997; Fishman, 1979, 1991; Hornberger, 1996, 2006b; Kaplan & Baldauf,1997; Ricento & Hornberger, 1996; Ruiz, 1984; as cited in Menken, 2008).

2.1.2.2. Components of Language Policy

Spolsky (2004) suggested a model to present the three components of language policy as follows:

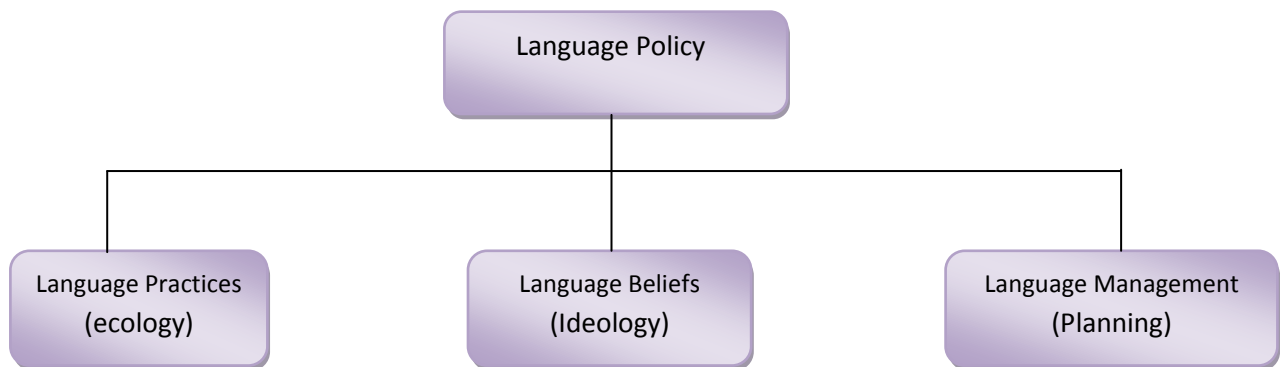


Figure 2.1.: A Model of Language Policy (Based on Model of Spolsky 2004; as cited in Shohamy, 2006, p.53)

Kingsley (2010, p. 32) explained the different components of language policy as follows:

(1) *Language management*: is “the formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy, usually but not necessarily written in a formal document, about language use” (Spolsky, 2004a, p. 11).

(2) *Language practices*: include agreed rules about informality and formality of communication and rules of appropriacy in terms of varieties of languages and specific languages in multilingual situations (Spolsky, 2004a, p. 9). These practices are analysed using

ethnography of speaking framework (Hymes, 1967) as well as an ecology of language approach (Voegelin, Voeglin & Schutz, 1967; Haugen, 1972) (Spolsky, 2008, p. 143).

(3) *Beliefs or ideology*: are about appropriacy of use and about language, for example, “a speech community’s consensus on what value to apply to each of the language variables or named language varieties that make up its repertoire” (2004, p. 14). This component of beliefs and ideologies incorporates Silverstein’s (1979) concept of ideology, but also beliefs about language and bilingualism (Spolsky, 2008, p. 143).

2.1.2.3. Overt and Covert Policy

Diallo (2005) mentioned that there is a dichotomy between overt and covert language policy. According to him, overt language policy is “stated, explicit and made public i.e. ‘*de jure* embodiment of rules in laws or constitutions” (Schiffman, 1996; as cited in Diallo, 2005, p. 42). However, Covert language policy is “not stated and implicit i.e. *de facto* a matter of practice and usage by people” (Diallo, 2005, p. 42).

2.1.2.4. The Scope of Language Policy

Language policy occurs at all levels of decisions made about languages. This varies from individual and family level to decisions about the languages used at schools, nations or worldwide context (Shohamy, 2006). The immigrant families generally decide about which language to be used at home, outside or with their peers. In the same vein, decisions about language policies are taken in the educational systems by political bodies. Further, decisions

about language policy are not restricted to languages, but vocabulary, styles and grammar are included to be adequate to a particular context (Shohamy, 2006).

2.1.3. Arabisation Planning

Referring to Cooper's definition of language planning, Dekhir (2013, p. 26) defined arabisation planning as:

A sum of deliberate efforts that influence the behaviour of Arabs with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of the Arabic language, the ex-colonizer language and other regional dialects. Those efforts refer to corpus Arabization, status Arabization, and acquisition planning of Arabization.

According to Dekhir, corpus arabisation means the interference in language standards which covers the following activities: elaboration, cultivation, codification and standardisation of the Arabic (Robinson , 1988; Gadellii, 1999; as cited in Dekhir, 2013, p. 26). The main concern of Status arabisation is to assign a particular to status to languages and dialects such as national, educational, school subject and alike (Quedraogo, 2000; as cited in dekhir, 2013, p. 26). Acquisition planning, however, means the "adoption of the Arabisation, Arabic language spread, and teaching-learning Arabic process" (Al-Abed Al-Haq, 1994; as cited in Dekhir, 2013, p. 26).

2.2. Arabization

During its occupation of the Algerian territory, the French government followed a policy which aimed at segregating Algerians and fighting their unity. To do so, the French did all their best to eliminate the Algerian personality and destroy the Arabo-Islamic identity.

According to Miller & Caubet (2010), language situation in Algeria like other African countries is characterized by language conflicts at different levels. At an official level, there is a conflict between Arabic and French and at an informal level, there is a conflict between Arabic and Berber.

The effect of 132 years of cultural and linguistic imperialism continued to have an aftereffect after 1962. The newly independent country found itself in an intricate situation where French was used in different sectors of the country. The Algerian government had to look for a policy that might guarantee the unity of the country and restore the lost identity.

Miller & Caubet (2010) mentioned that the arabization policy in Morocco and Algeria has always been open to discussion and to varied understanding (Benrabah, 1999; Boukous,1996; Boucherit, 2002a; Ennaji,1988; grandguillaume, 1983). A lot of pieces of research have investigated the intricate and the contradictory attitudes towards French, Arabic and berber (Bentahila, 1983; Chebchoub, 1985; Lawson-Sako and Sachdev, 1996; Ennaji, 2005; de Ruitter, 2006). Most of these studies concluded that French is still gaining social and economic preference and it is used as a language of science and culture. Standard Arabic is deeply respected since it is the language of religion and historic heritage. Yet, it is not regarded as “a real ‘modern’ language” (Miller & Caubet, 2010, p.246).

Further, French is not only used in academic and scientific domains, but it is also used in every day conversation by educated people, and even young urban generations.

To preserve the national unity, the Algerian government wanted Arabic to restore its status. In this respect, the president Ben Bella announced on October 5th, 1962 that: ‘L’Arabe va retrouver sa place’ (Arabic is going to regain its status)⁷.

French was used in education, administration and in all sectors. Classical Arabic lost its status and it was only known by those who had learnt it in Quranic schools.

‘Le gouvernement algérien voulait réaliser la place culturelle de l’indépendance en mettant à la place de la langue parlée, mais la langue Arabe standard issue de la langue arabe coranique, ce fut l’objet de la politique de l’arabisation’ (Granguillaume, 2008)

Granguillaume (2008) mentioned that: “The Algerian government wanted to realize the cultural aspect of independence by replacing French by the Arabic language, not the Algerian Arabic by Modern Standard Arabic which resulted from Quranic Arabic. This made the object of arabisation.⁸”

Therefore, the process of replacing French by Arabic in education, administration and in all sectors of the government is called arabisation.

⁷ Translated by the author of the thesis

⁸ Translated by the author of the thesis

2.2.1. Definition of Arabisation

Arabisation is a language policy followed by the Algerian government just after independence so as to re-arabize the country. However, two terms appear: Arabisation and Arabicisation and differentiating between them is necessary. Benrabeh (2005, p. 410) made a distinction between the two terms as follows:

The Arabic term Ta'rib is sometimes translated interchangeably as Arabicisation or Arabisation...the first sense applies mostly in the Arab Middle East and to two countries of North Africa Libya and Egypt referring to both status/ acquisition and corpus planning activities. Planners replace some other (usually colonial) language by Arabic as the medium of instruction in all cycles of educational system and they enrich the language by incorporating into it newly borrowed or derived/ revised words. In North African countries (Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia) ,which were French colonial, Ta'rib means the replacement of French by Arabic in all walks of life (education, Administration, melieu, etc...) as well as the use of the latter language as an instrument for national unity and the affirmation of an identity that is exclusively Arab. Hence, Arabicisation is a linguistic process; Arabisation is both cultural and linguistic.

Therefore, Arabisation is the process of re-arabising the country by replacing French with Arabic in education, administration, media and so on. By doing so, the country would guarantee the nation's unity especially because there were many native languages (Tamazight and varieties of Algerian Arabic).

Furthermore, Taleb Ibrahimi (1997, p.184 as cited in Benyelles,2011 ,p.38) summarizes Arabisation as follows :

L'arabisation est devenue synonyme de ressourcement, de retour à l'authenticité, de récupération des attributs de l'identité arabe qui ne peut se réaliser que par la restauration de la langue arabe, récupération de la dignité bafouée par les colonisateurs et la condition élémentaire pour se réconcilier avec soi-même.

Translated as :

The arabisation became synonymous to resourcement on returning to the authenticity, recovering the attributes of the Arabic identity which can come only by the restoration of the Arabic language, the recovering of the dignity scoffed by the colonizers and the elementary condition to become reconciled with itself.⁹

Thus, Taleb Ibrahimi wanted Algeria to restore its identity by restoring the Arabic language.

2.2.2. Objectives of Arabisation

Arabisation is a language policy that aimed at restoring the Arabo-Islamic identity. In this respect, Aitsiselmi (2006) stated the major objectives of Arabisation as:

- 1- To reconsider Arabic as the natural and official language of the country and it should be implemented in education, administration and media.
- 2- To devalue the dominance of French and replace it with Arabic (the national language).
- 3- To discard all vernaculars and reduce their influence (Tamazight and varieties of Arabic).

⁹ As translated by Benyelles p.38

Therefore, the major objective of Arabisation was mainly linguistic; the quest for a national language. All the presidents that had governed Algeria after independence wanted to re-arabize the country. The president Houari Boumediene (1968), who was a strong advocate of arabisation and the most motivated one to do it, said : ‘sans la récupération de cet élément essential et important qu’est la langue national, nos efforts resteront vains, notre personnalité incomplète et notre corps sans âme’.

Translated as: ‘without recovering this important and essential element which is the national language, our efforts will remain useless, our personality will be incomplete and our body will be without soul.’¹⁰

2.2.3. Reasons for Arabisation

The drive behind arabisation was mainly to restore the lost identity and recover the Algerian personality. Arabic needed to gain its status in Algeria. One of the main important tasks of the government of the newly independent country was to apply the arabisation policy. Even the elite, who were educated in French, asked for arabisation. However, two groups appeared. The first group was in favour of arabisation while the second group was against it.

Proponents of the first group were mainly Algerians who were real nationalist and who learnt Arabic in Quranic schools ‘Medersa’, and they were closer to Islam. They were known as the ‘Arabisants’. Their main aim was to regain the Arabic language and the Arabic identity.

¹⁰ Translated by the author of this thesis

Advocates of the second view (those who were against Arabisation and they were educated in French). They supported the idea of modernisation and opening the country on languages. They did not reject French or its use. They believed in its prestigious status (Lakhel-Ayat, 2008). For them, French was a language of modernisation and technology. It was a language that enabled them to have access to western commerce and economic development.

2.2.4. Steps of the Arabisation Policy

The arabisation policy went through the following steps:

2.2.4.1. From 1962 to 1965

Just after independence, the Algerian government started to gain the Arabic identity by following the arabisation process. On October 5th, 1962, the president of the newly independent state declared that MSA to be the official and national language of the country. The president also stated that Arabic should be taught in parallel with the French language in primary school (Grandguillaume,1983 ;as cited in Medjdoub, 2011).

The following school year 1964, the president Ben Bella ordered teachers to teach full Arabic curriculum. The government had to import teachers from mainly Syria and Egypt because of the lack of the teachers educated in MSA.

Yet, Ben Bella believed that French was an essential means that may help in acquiring and comprehending modern techniques. He announced on the May 5th, 1965 to'Alger

Républicain' that it was necessary to rearabize the country. But, this did not mean the elimination of the French language (Medjdoub, 2011).

2.2.4.2. From 1965 to 1978

This period was characterized by the leadership of the president Houari Boumediene; one of the greatest advocates of Arabisation. During that period, there was much insistence on applying the Arabisation policy in education and administration. He was the first Arab president to use arabic in the United Nations.

In 1968, the president assigned the use of MSA on the civil service. He demanded from all civil servants, first, to learn and then to use MSA in work within only three years. The year of 1971 was considered as a year of entire arabisation of the whole Algerian society (Mokhtar, 2018). The same focus and interest was put on education after 1979 (Medjdoub, 2011).

Yet, arabisation in higher education did not work as it was the case in primary /secondary education. It took some time to arabize the different disciplines in higher education. It started in humanities, but they could not arabize technical and scientific subjects.

2.2.4.3. From 1979 to 1998

This period was characterized by the change of government and thus different ministers of education each of which with a particular ideology and view point towards arabisation.

In 1978, when Mustapha Lacheraf was a minister of education, he insisted on using MSA in teaching and he stood against not only bilingualism, but the French language as well (Medjdoub, 2011). During 1980's, when Chadli Bendjadid was the president (1979-1991), two movements appeared : Islamic Radical Movements and the Movement of Kabyle. The berbers could not accept MSA or AA as their language. They considered arabisation as a means of marginalisation that may lead to the Berber's disapproval. As a consequence, the berber agreed upon fighting for their rights mainly their identity and their language.

2.2.4.4. From 1999 to 2002

Politically, this period was characterized by instability and civil war. Yet, when Abdelaziz Bouteflika, managed to solve these political problems and to reduce violence by implementing the law on 'civil harmony'. The president Bouteflika started some reforms. He even succeeded to talk about some topics which were considered as taboos and none of his predecessors dared to speak about. In his speeches, he ventured to speak about a lot of sensitive issues which had relation to Algerian religious practices, history and even the country's linguistic situation (Benrabah, 2005).

One month after his election, the president Bouteflika said that it was ‘unthinkable to spend ten years to study sciences in Arabic while that can be done in one year in English’ (Strengolt, 2008, p. 21). This showed his attitudes towards arabisation. The president expressed his willingness towards bilingualism.

A return towards bilingualism appeared in the new reform introduced in education in 2002.

2.2.4.5. From 2003 to 2018

During this period, the president Bouteflika introduced his reforms in education which reflected his view point towards bilingualism.

In the primary school, French is taught in the third grade, one year earlier than in the past. English is taught in the sixth grade two years earlier than in the past. Moreover, mathematics and science are partially taught in French. This reform reflects the president’s beliefs towards bilingualism. This change of political view is reflected in education. In addition, this shift towards bilingualism may present a real danger to arabisation.

Benrabah (2007) mentioned two instances that made the Ministry of Education recognized the failure of the reforms. The first example is the failure of ten classes in primary school final exam (sixth grade) in June 2005 in Mascara city, and none of these pupils succeeded. The second instance was in the mid November of 2005 when the minister of higher education announced the failure of almost (80%) of first year students because of the lack of the mastery of French language. This language of science and instruction in scientific discipline. Most of these students failed because they were taught in MSA and they were weak in French (Allal, 2005, p. 13; Maiz & Rouadjia, 2005, p. 13 as cited in benrabah, 2007).

2.2.5. Resistance to Arabisation

All the successive governments wanted to recover the Arabo-islamic identity which the French colonialism wanted to suppress during the 132 years of its existence on the Algerian territory. However, there were some obstacles to arabisation.

When the government started the arabisation policy, one of the problems encountered was the lack of qualified teachers. The Algerian government had to import them from Arab countries mainly from Egypt and Syria. Yet, these teachers used their mother tongue which are vernaculars. Therefore, teaching MSA to Algerian pupils presented a real problem. Furthermore, the government had to take some time so as to train teachers for primary and secondary education. Thus, arabisation suffered a lot from the lack of human resources.

Another problem which constituted a hinder for arabisation, was gender. Women tend to speak French more than men. For women, French was a language of freedom, modernisation and prestige. They also consider Arabic as a language of equality, frustration and backward.

Moreover, there were some people who were hostile to arabisation and they were even slaves to French language and culture. Those people were the intellectuals who regarded Arabic as the language of lay people.

Furthermore, Berbers show opposition to arabisation right from the beginning especially the Kabyle. They preferred to use French instead of MSA. For them, French was ‘ a more useful medium for modernity’ (Gordon, 1978, p. 158).

Berbers especially Kabyles had fought through demonstrations and boycotts until they managed to have their language ‘Tamazight’ as a national language (For more information see Tamazight). They also succeeded to have their language taught even at universities.

In addition, the president outgoing Abdelaziz Bouteflika did show his tendency to return to bilingualism and he showed the failure of arabisation. He stood against all his predecessors who supported arabisation, and declared publically that all what was needed was a return to bilingualism or even multilingualism. He did this overtly in his public speeches when he used to show his eloquence in languages mainly in French and MSA. He even violated the law act N°91-05 (implemented on 5th July 1998) which “prohibited any and all official public use of any language other than Arabic” (Kaplan & Jr, 2007, p. 9). He wanted to show the public a real picture of an Algerian bilingual so as to encourage people towards bilingualism (Mouleme, 2012) though he was severely criticised for his use of French . In the summer of 1999, Bouteflika announced : “Algeria does not belong to Francophonie, but there is no reason for us to have a frozen attitude towards the French language which taught us so many things and which at any rate, opened[for us] the window of French culture.” (Cherrad-bencheffa & Derradji, 2004,p.168 ; as cited in Kaplan & Jr, 2007, p.10).

So, Bouteflika admitted that the French language had taught him many things because he had been educated in French. According to him , it was not important which language the president used and no one would oblige him to use a particular language. He declared it publically ‘for Algeria, I will speak French, Spanish and English and if necessary Hebrew’ (El watan, 2000,p.23 ; as cited in Kaplan & Jr, 2007,p.10).

In fact, Bouteflika was against arabisation and he supported bilingualism. In August 1999, he announced on live television:

Let it be known that Algeria is part of the world and must adapt to it and that Arabic is the national and official language. This being said, let it be known that an uninhibited opening up to other international languages- at least to those used in the United Nations-does not constitute perjury. In this domain, we are neither more intelligent than our brothers in Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordon or Palestine or anywhere else. To move forward, one must break taboos. This is the price we have to pay to modernize our identity. Chauvinism and withdrawal are over. They are destructive (El Watan, 1999, p.3; as cited in Kaplan & Jr, 2007,p.10).

During his presidency to Algeria which lasted twenty(20) years, his ideology towards bilingualism had been realised in education where pupils were taught French and English. In addition to all these languages, pupils in foreign languages streams, were taught whether spanish, Italian or German. Moreover, teaching sciences and mathematics was done partially in French. Even private schools for foreign languages were allowed. Bouteflika was opposing all his predecessors who supported arabisation though he was eloquent in MSA.

To sum up, after years of instability, war and lost identity, Algerian government had to follow the arabisation policy so as to recover the Algerian personality (Islam-arabic language). MSA was supposed to play the role of lingua franca in a country characterised by the coexistence of three languages : Arabic (and it vernaculars and regional dialects and accents), Tamazight (with its different varieties) and French.

Arabisation was a burning issue to the Algerian government. Each time, arabisation faced some abstacles in its implementation. It was applied in education and administration. It started in primary school moving gradually to middle, secondary school and then to the university level. To promote Arabic, the government also encouraged the use of MSA in radio

and Televisions. Even, the government renamed the labels of streets and changed the weekly holiday from Sunday to Friday(as Muslims' holiday).

All successive Algerian governments were implementing arabisation according to the political view of its presidents. However, Mr Bouteflika went far by admitting his strong support to bilingualism as an opening window to technology and modernisation.

2.2.6. The Policy of the Ministry of Education (the ongoing policy)

On 25 and 26th July 2015 (as cited in AbouAicha, 2015), the ministry of education has organized a national conference to evaluate the implementation of the new reforms of education in the Algerian schools. This reform was adopted since 2003. Yet, the ministry of education did not go deeper in evaluating the content or the methodology used. It presented suggestions which could be applied either immediately or at a long term. Among these suggestions, was the use of Algerian Arabic, known to most people as 'Derdja', in teaching at the primary school and to be used as the language of instruction. This statement met a strong refusal by elite people in Algeria. The most striking problem with that suggestion was that even books should be written in Algerian Arabic. Further, This suggestion faced great refusal not only by teachers and elite but also all Algerians stood against it and they expressed their anger through different means of communication especially social media. They used caricature to show the texts written in AAand how the teaching could be conducted. They wanted to show that using derdja would be an obstacle against learning. This may lead reducing exposure to MSA which is an essential element for language learning.

In ElHiwar newspaper, Amran (August, 2015) wrote that there was a total absence of the supreme court of the Arabic language when the minister of education Benghabrit had announced her suggestion of using Dardja in education. The absent reaction of the supreme court was considered as a big mistake. Moreover, She also added that the minister of education committed a big mistake since Arabic is a national and official language of the state and she should be the first person to defend and gain it its value (Amran, 2015).

2.3. The Algerian Educational System

Post independence era was characterized by a very weak educational system since French was the only language used. The Algerian government's task was to develop an educational system that would be capable of restoring the Arabo-islamic identity which was illiminated by the French colonialism.

A strong tendency was directed towards restoring the status of the Arabic language. To do so, arabisation policy was applied gradually starting from education then moving to the other sectors. In education, it was necessary to start by the primary cycle then the other cycles. However, from indepedece until the present day, a lot of reforms were introduced in the educational system in order to develop it.

2.3.1. Historical Overview of the Algerian Educational System

There are two main periods when dealing with the history of the Algerian educational system: during French colonialism and after independence.

2.3.1.1. During French Colonialism

This period is considered as the most difficult in the history of Algeria because it witnessed colonization that aimed at eliminating the Algerian personality and the Arabo-islamic identity following different policies. In this respect, the cardinal Lafigeri (1892/1925) asserted in 1869:

We must save these people from their Quran and we must take care of children to bring them up on principles other than that of their ancestors. It is the duty of France to teach them Christianity or to expel them to the extreme desert far from the civilized world.”¹¹ (Hiaq, 2011, p. 119).

The percentage of illiterate Algerians before colonisation was 5%. Yet, After 70 years of colonisation the percentage of illiterate had grown up.

2.3.1.2. After Independence

From independence until the present day, The Algerian government did a lot of efforts in order to minimize the percentage of illiteracy in Algeria, to rearbize the country and to build up an educational system that is capable of forming intellectuals who may serve their country in the future. Post independence era witnessed a number of reforms in the educational system. According to Hiaq (2011) this period can be divided into four phases as follows:

¹¹ Translated by the author of this thesis

2.3.1.2.1. The First phase: from 1962 to 1970

The school year 1962/1963 was the most difficult year in the history of the Algerian education. That year was characterized by the lack of economic human resources because 10,000 French teachers left Algeria and 425 were enrolled in sectors other than education. According to Hiaq (2011, p. 127), the educational system at that period was characterized by:

- A strange educational system by its goals, capacities and organizations.
- A very few number of learners enrolled at the Algerian schools.
- The percentage of illiterate was more than 85%.

An urgent intervention was necessary to restore the Algerian school. The president of the country at that period Mr Ahmed Ben Bella announced the beginning of the school year on October 15th, 1962. The government did all its best to receive one million children. In the next school year 1963/1964, there was the establishment of National Reform Commission which decided to:

- ✚ Admit the use of Arabic and Islam in the curriculum.
- ✚ Give importance to the history lessons, and to correct the way of teaching this subject.
- ✚ Look for providing sufficient teachers so as to fill in the gap left by the French teachers.
- ✚ Abolish working with laws and school procedures that conflict with sovereignty.

To reach these aims, the Algerian government started to follow the Arabisation policy; first in primary school in 1965, and gradually to be applied in other cycles of education (Hiaq, 2011, p. 128). The educational system during that period consisted of:

<i>Primary Education</i>	For 6 years
<i>Middle Education</i>	There were three types: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - General education: for 4 years - Technical education: for 3 years - Agricultural education: for 3 years
<i>Secondary education</i>	There were three types: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - General secondary education: for 3 years - Industrial commercial education: for 5 years - Technical education: for 3 years

Table 2.2.: The Algerian Educational System from 1962 to 1970

2.3.1.2.2. The Second Phase: from 1971 to 1980

Arabisation continued to be applied in primary school. As far as the middle education is concerned, there was a tendency to unify education. Both French and MSA were used as a language of instruction because there was a lack of teachers who used Arabic.

During that period, the Algerian government tried to reform the educational system. From 1970 to 1973, there was the foundation of 'Technological Education Institute' responsible for training teachers capable of teaching different subjects in MSA. Further, the television participated a lot by broadcasting programmes that aimed at strengthening the work of the school at different levels. On April 16th, 1976 the ministry of education announced a reform which was the fundamental school) (Hiaq, 2011)

2.3.1.2.3. The Third Phase: from 1981 to 1990

The fundamental school was welcomed by a lot of thinkers and educators. According to Hiaq (2011), it aimed at :

- Using MSA at all levels of education
- Opening school at the world of science and technologies
- Developing part of the curriculum to train learners on productive activities whether socially or economically.
- Relating course content with Arabic and Islamic values.

The framework of the educational system following the reforms of 1976 is as follows:

Preparatory Education	For children who did not reach the school age
Fundamental Education	Phase1: from 1st-3 rd grade Phase2: from 4 th -6 th grade Phase3: from 7 th -9 th grade
Secondary Education	General secondary education Specialized secondary education Secondary professional technical education

Table 2.3. : The Framework of the Educational System Following the Reforms of 1976

2.3.1.2.4. The Fourth Phase: from 1990 to 2002

This phase was characterized by the use of the same educational system following the reforms of 1979 of fundamental school. Once the learners completed their nine years, they

would take the final exam of the fundamental phase (BEF) ‘Brevets d’enseignement Fundamentale’.

Yet, there was a call to reform the educational system because the fundamental school failed to realize its goals. There was also a call for reorganizing the secondary education in different types, streams and disciplines such as natural sciences, mathematics and so on.

2.3.1.2.5. The Fifth Phase: from 2003 up to Now

On May 13th, 2000, the former president Abdelaziz Bouteflika set up a national commission in an official party in order to reform the educational system. The president delivered a speech in which he stressed the importance of reforming the educational system. He suggested some principles and foundations that guaranteed the development of the Algerian educational system.

The reform covered the following points:

- ❖ Train educators and teachers
- ❖ Renew the pedagogical activities and subjects of study.
- ❖ Reorganize radically the educational system

The educational system during this period is composed of four cycles: primary, intermediate, secondary and higher education. As far as the primary cycle is concerned, it encompasses 5 years in addition to the preparatory class. Children aged 5 years old are enrolled in this class. Very few kids may study at this grade at private schools, mosques,

Irshad wa Islah¹² schools, or kindergardens. Some other children may skip this grade and may be enrolled directly in the first grade. Generally, these children are those born from January to March. At the primary education, once children reach the fifth grade, they are supposed to pass a final exam to be able to enroll in the middle school.

The second cycle is the intermediate education. During this stage, learners studies for four years. MSA is always the language of instruction. By the end of the fourth grade, learners pass a national exam known as diploma of medium education ‘BEM’¹³. Once they succeed in this exam, they will pass to secondary education.

Secondary education is the third cycle. Learners study for three years in different streams (literary, scientific, foreign languages and so forth). The language of instruction is MSA for all subjects except foreign languages. By the end of this cycle, learners are supposed to pass a national exam called the Baccaalaureat (BAC). Once learners succeed in this exam, they can enrol at one of the universities, schools or state technical institutes. It is worth mentioning that private schools are allowed by law.

The educational system is organized as follows:

¹² Irshad wa Islah schools are islamic private schools prepare children for school by teaching them Quran, reading, writing and counting.

¹³ BEM means ‘Brevets d’enseignement moyen’

Primary Education	Pre-school class From 1 st to 5 th grade
Middle Education	4 years: 1 st -2 nd -3 rd -4 th grades
Secondary Education	Consisting of: different streams such as science experimental, technical mathematics and so on.
Higher Education	Depending on the discipline

Table 2.4. : The Framework of the Educational System from 2003 to 2018

Further, training teachers and educators is no longer the task of technological institutes but of higher education in what is known as Teacher' Training School (ENS: Ecole Normale Superieure). In addition, the competency based approach was followed in teaching all subjects in the three cycles so as to develop an individual capable of solving problems and to cope with situations and to find adequate solutions.

2.4. Languages in Education

After independence, the Algerian government aimed at restoring the Algerian personality by bringing back Islam and Arabic, the two components of the Algerian identity, which the French government wanted to eliminate during the years of its existence in Algeria. The Ministry of education was founded (created) in 1963. One of its first actions was to

rearrange the curriculum at all levels. Arabic had to replace French in education and without neglecting the teaching of foreign languages. MSA, French Tamazight, English and other foreign languages were used in education also taught.

2.4.1. Modern Standard Arabic

The post independence era was characterized by the use of French at all levels: court, government, media and education. The Algerian government decided to use a policy consisting of rearranging the country. Arabisation process started from education. The ministry of education insisted on replacing French by MSA starting from primary schools since the majority of teachers were taught in French. The ministry of education brought teachers from other Arab countries. MSA was introduced in education starting from primary school to middle and then secondary schools. By 1990's, all instructions in all subjects in the three levels were in Arabic (MSA). With the new reforms of 2003-2004, the structure of the educational system is 5+4+3 which means five years at primary school four years at intermediate and three years at secondary school. During the five years of primary schools, learners are taught writing, reading, speaking and grammar in addition to other subjects such as Islamic sciences, geography, and history and so on. Teaching all these subjects is in MSA. Further, during the years of intermediate education, all subjects are taught in MSA except for foreign languages.

At the secondary school, which lasts three years, learners are oriented to different streams. They continue to be taught at MSA except for foreign languages. Even the BAC

questions are written in MSA. Yet, foreign languages exams are written in the target language.

2.4.2. Algerian Arabic

From 1962 till 2015, the Algerian ministry of education has never encouraged teachers to use AA as a language classroom to explain or to facilitate the task of teaching. However, in 2015, the minister of education declared that AA could be used in classroom and that she was going to send a law to all directors and primary school inspectors and teachers advising them to use it. Yet, this attempt to introduce AA in education was strongly rejected by educators, intellectuals, specialists and even lay men. This severe criticism led the minister to withdraw from taking any step and she tried to justify her decision by saying that it was just an idea or a suggestion.

2.4.3. Tamazight

From 1962 until 2003, Tamazight was not taught in schools. Berber used to follow the Algerian educational systems by studying MSA, French and English. Yet, in 2003, when Tamazight became a national language, it started to be taught at schools in Kabyle regions. Also, learners have to pass the BAC in this language. It is even taught at universities.

2.4.4. French

French is the language inherited from the colonizer. After independence, it was a difficult task to rearabize the country. From 1963 until 1993, French was the first foreign language when Arabic restored its status as a national and official language. French is taught right from the primary school at the third or fourth grade. It was also taught during three years of middle school and the three years of secondary school.

During the academic year of 1995 /1996, parents were asked to choose between French and English as a first foreign language. It was an attempt to give more importance to English over French, but it failed.

In the reforms of 2003/2004, in the primary school French was introduced at the second grade and later became at the third grade with three hours per week. It is a language policy to enable learners to be multilingual by introducing them to foreign languages much earlier than in the previous educational system.

At middle and secondary schools, learners continue to study French, but with different time allocated depending on the level and the stream. Learners at the middle schools are exposed to French four hours per week. At the secondary schools, learners in scientific streams (Mathematics, experimental sciences and technical mathematics) learn French two hours per week while those in literary streams learn it for three hours per week. Learners in foreign languages stream learn it five to six hours per week. After three years, learners have also to pass the BAC exam in French for all the streams, but the time allocated for the exam varies depending on the stream from two hours to three hours.

At the university level, some disciplines are still taught in French especially technical sciences, medicines, biology, chemistry and so on.

2.4.5. English

After independence up to 1993, English did not receive any attention; it was taught as a second foreign language. It was taught three years at middle school and three years at secondary school. From 1993 to 2003, learners have to choose between French and English at the primary school. The ministry of education wanted to give English more importance since it is an international language wishing to introduce a smooth change so as to replace French by English in the near future. During that period, parents were asked to choose for their children which language to be their first foreign language to be studied at the fourth grade of primary school. However, the majority of the parents have preferred French than English because of two reasons. First, they knew that if they had chosen English, they would not be able to help their children at home. That is, because most of them, if not all, were educated in French and their knowledge of English was limited. Second, parents were aware that most of the disciplines at the university level were taught in French, so choosing English as a first foreign language, would be useless. As a result, this reform failed.

Following the new reforms of 2003/2004, English is taught starting from the first grade in middle school. Learners study English four years at middle schools and three at secondary schools. As it is the case with French, the time allocated for English at the secondary school differs depending on the stream. Learners from scientific streams study

English two hours per week, pupils in literary stream study three hours while those in foreign languages stream have five to six hours per week.

The following table illustrates the status of English from colonial period till the present day.

Period	Status on English	Years of study during each cycle	Total
During colonialism	FL ₁	4 intermediate 3 secondary	7
1962 – 1993	FL ₂	2 intermediate 3 secondary	5
1993 – 2004	English is whether	FL ₁ 3 primary 3 intermediate 3 secondary	9
		FL ₂ 3 intermediate 3 secondary	5
2004 – 2011	FL ₂	4 intermediate 3 secondary	7

Table 2.5.: Status of English in the Algerian Schools (Mouleme, 2012, p. 33)

2.4.6. Other Foreign Languages

Some other foreign languages have been introduced to foreign language learners at secondary school such as German, Italian and Spanish. Learners from foreign languages streams are taught French and English and Arabic in addition to one of these languages. They even pass the BAC exam in the language being taught.

2.5. Preparatory Education

Children at the age of five generally are enrolled in classes of preparatory classes

2.5.1. Definition of Preparatory Education

Preparatory education is also called ‘pre-school’ education and is meant for children aging 3 to 5 years.

This kind of education aims at developing all aspects of children’s personality: intellectual and emotional and so on. It is also designed to prepare children to enter the world of school (Saddik et al, 2015).

There are three institutions designed for the preparatory education:

- 1- **Preparatory classes** in primary schools: almost all children benefit from it before they pass to first year.
- 2- **Kindergardens**: are created to take care of children when their mothers go to work. Almost all kindergardens are private.

3- **Private schools:** are schools designed to prepare children to school. The difference between preparatory classes and private schools is that the former are for free and the latter are paid.

Pre-school programme is mainly conducted in MSA. Yet, in kindergardens, children may be taught other languages generally English and French.

Pre-school curriculum is designed to help young children to learn some initiation to reading, writing, counting and doing some arts such as drawing and colouring in addition to learning some Quran.

2.5.2. The Importance of Preparatory Education

Zerda¹⁴ (2012) believed that preparatory education is important because it:

- Contributes to socialisation.
- Leads the child to discover his capacities and utilises them to understand the world.
- Prepares the child to school
- Completes the family education and overcomes deficiencies and finds solutions.

2.5.3. Goals of Preparatory Education

Bourssass¹⁵ (2009, pp. 70-74) listed some goals of the preparatory education as follows:

¹⁴ Translated and summarized by the author of the thesis

1- *Socialization*: This means the acquisition of behaviours which are prevailing in the environment where the child lives; the family, the school and the society in general with its tradition, customs, values, language and religion.

Therefore, socialisation means learning how to adapt the child in the society to which he belongs from birth to death. The child learns to adapt himself to the behaviour of his society and learns its tradition, customs, language and behaviour.

The family was and is one of the institution that helps children develop socialisation. Even the preparatory education does so by encouraging children to learn and practice it. Children move from concentration on the self to practicing some activities that necessitate participation and help.

The institution of preparatory education aims at upbringing children socially to be integrated in the community where they live and to merge in groups to develop friendships. Further, children acquire behaviours, traditions and customs of the society they live in. Moreover, socialization help children to distinguish from what is right and wrong. They also develop some behaviours such as the spirit of initiative, selfconfidence and self-reliance.

2- *Mental Development*: the institution of preparatory education aims at developing the mental capacities of children. The mental development is a necessity because it promotes the growth of social, emotional and physical aspects.

Mental capacities covers intelligence, concentration, attention, observation, imagination; in addition to what can a child learn as knowledge and mental skills. The development of all these skills (mental capacities) facilitates a lot of tasks for learners such as

¹⁵ Translated by the author of the thesis

preparing him for learning to read, write and count in an organized way. This could be done by listening to short stories read by their teachers or taking part in pieces of theatre. Children go to preparatory school with some knowledge they have already acquired from their environment. Yet, this knowledge is limited and influenced by different factors.

Trends towards Action: it is also called by scholars ‘purposeful behaviours’ which means the behaviour that is directed right from childhood towards specific and clear purposes though there are some obstacles and distractions.

It is necessary to develop directions for pre-school children so as they will be trained to receive instructions and implement them in the next stages of education. This can be done by asking them to complete activities alone or in groups. This is realized in projects done by children by identifying goals to attain; and in addition to the plan, tools and methods to be used and so forth. By doing so, children develop abilities towards work.

4- *Physical Growth:* one of the goals of preparatory education is the interest in the child’s physical growth which includes the growth of muscles, bones and senses. The physical growth needs for its accomplishment mental and social development

The physical growth includes:

-Health care: children’s health is the responsibility of all the family mainly parents.

-Nutrition care: nutrition has rules that should be followed in children’s meal.

Children should know it.

-Muscles development: the development of children’s muscles can be done through play, running, jump, swimming and so on.

-Sensory Education: means the education of the hearing, sight and touch through the use of some activities and plays. For example, listening to stories leads to the growth

of hearing. Observing nature develops sight and playing with toys develops sighting (touch). This is what has been referred to be Montessori.

In addition to what has been mentioned before as goals, there are other varied goals such as:

- Preparing the child to school
- Helping the working mothers on educating her children and taking care of them in their absence.
- Protecting children from homelessness and lost

To sum up, we can summarize the goals of preparatory education in three different fields: mental fields, social emotional fields, and physical and sensory kinetics fields.

2.5.4. Motivations to Preparatory Education

Bourssass (2009) mentioned that scholars, educators, psychologists and children international organization take care of pre-school children and encourage the opening of institutions of pre-school by providing them with the necessary ideas, equipments and instruments.

There are many reasons behind taking care of children in the preparatory phase. According to Bourssass¹⁶ (2009), the most important reasons that need to be mentioned are:

- 1- *Psychological motivation*: psychologists and educators stress the importance of pre-school stage and they consider it as a critical period because of the significance it plays on the development of the child's personality. The impact of this period

¹⁶ Translated and summarized by the author of the thesis

appears on the next stages of his /her life whether, physically, mentally, psychologically or socially.

During the first years of life, the child's environment influences his personality. Children at this stage of life can be easily influenced because his emotions have not been yet developed. This influence can be either positive or negative. The preparatory education provides the best and suitable educational environment necessary for the best psychological, social and intellectual growth. This can keep them away from all what may cause them an oedipus complex inside the family or outside. However, this does not mean that preparatory education could replace their parents.

- 2- *Social motivation*: the child is influenced by his environment. When it is rich and varied socially, he will grow correctly.

In the preparatory schools, a lot of care is devoted to train children on some good social habits such as cooperation ,working in groups and respect the rights and the duties of others and so forth. It also trains them on individual habits such as body cleanness, knowing the food necessary to their bodies and so many other habits that help develop good and beneficial citizens to themselves and to their society.

- 3- *Educational motivation*: the education provided by parents is insufficient, therefore, parents send their children to school to get the adequate education. The idea of constructing a bridge between the home and the school leads to thinking of providing children with preparatory education aiming at preparing them to enter the world of school. For, that reason, educators did and do all their best to make the school near to their homes not about the distance, but about its architecture, its

goals, programmes and educators. The aim behind this, is to help children who can grow in an atmosphere that resembles to their homes and which is full of safety and security and which looks like their homes.

- 4- *Economic motivation*: since most of mothers are working, it is nowadays necessary to establish the preparatory schools and the kindergardens so as to take care of children from morning to evening. The main aim of these institutions is to help the working mothers by relieving their children and providing them with care and attention and protecting them from social dilemma.

2.5.5. The Foundation of Preparatory Education

According to Saddik et al (2015) the establishment of preparatory education in Algeria could be traced back to the order excuted on April, 16, 1976 which stressed the importance of this type of education and it had been given space in the educational system as being indispensable phase in the education of children since the academic year 1981-1982. The ministry of education had given a lot of importance to preparatory education. It founded special classes and schools for that type of education. At that time, it was only meant for children whose parents work in education.

However, the meetings between excutors and supervisors admitted that this type of education needed national plan, organizational framework, educational curriculum in addition to experienced educators. It was necessary: to prepare a reference document to organize the curriculum, organizational framework and methods of work to be followed by all educators throughout the country and to generalize this kind of education to all children.

2.5.6. The Development of Preparatory Education

The history of the preparatory education can be traced back to the period during colonialism and even before. However, because the Algerian educational system was and is influenced by the French policy, two main periods can be stated before and after independence.

2.5.6.1. Before Independence

During that period, children used to go to Quranic schools and Kutab where they learnt to recite Quran and the Arabic alphabet to develop the two skills: reading and writing. Yet, these institutions were not well-organized and they needed well-established curriculum to prepare children to the first year. Even educators were not well-trained to teach children and they used to teach without any methodologies (Zerda, 2012). Despite the limitation of the education during that period, it had some positive points as cited by Zerda (2012):

- ✓ The development of the linguistic competence and the speaking skill
- ✓ Training children on learning and rehearsing and activating their memory
- ✓ Training children on organization, discipline and obedience to school and its staff
- ✓ The integration in the group and the participation .

In addition to that, the French colonialism had established special schools for the preparatory education for their French citizens and very few lucky Algerians. The aim of these schools was to upbringing children with French identity.

2.5.6.2. After Independence

After independence, the Algerian government started to give importance to childhood. The ministry of education established preparatory education for children less than 6 years by founding kindergardens, pre-classes and encouraging Quranic schools to do their jobs

Zerda (2012, p. 23) divided the period of after independence into four phases:

- From 1962 to 1975
- From 1976 to 1991
- From 1992 to 2003
- From 2004 up till Now

2.5.6.2.1. The First Phase: from 1962 to 1975

After independence, the Algerian government took power of all the institutions that were under the French colonialism. However, some institutions such as Quranic schools, Kuttab and Zawaia were still under the supervision of the Muslims' Association. These schools used to struggle with the French power which wanted to eliminate the national and Arabo-islamic identity. On September 23th, 1965 the Algerian ministry of education officially started taking control of the preparatory education and what was not under its control were only some mosques and Kuttab.

Therefore, this period witnessed the freezing of the preparatory education.

2.5.6.2.2. The Second Phase: from 1976 to 1991

After issuing the order of April 16th, 1976, the ministry of education admitted that the preparatory education is an education devoted to children less than 6 years so as to develop their capacities and prepare them for the first year. That order was a starting point to preparatory education in Algeria. This stage was characterized by:

- Issuing legal and regulatory texts to this stage such as the order of 16 april 1976 which identified the legal framework, and tasks and goals of this phase of education.
- Opening institutions and classes of preparatory education in the national education sector in the academic year 1981/1982.
- Preparing the educational document in 1984 which stressed the importance of preparatory education.
- Issuing a reference educational document for preparatory education in 1990 which set goals, programmes in addition to how to organize the classes of the preparatory education.

2.5.6.2.3. The Third Phase: from 1991 to 2003

The ministry of education had introduced the preparatory education starting from the school year 1990/1991. Yet, it was until 1998 that the ministry of education considered the preparatory education as a grade in primary cycle. By doing so, Algeria was regarded as the first Arab country to take such a decision.

The ministry of education cited two main goals of preparatory education:

- ❖ To help the family to educate their children, refine their skills and teach them good habits and prepare them to social life.
- ❖ To prepare the child to school and teach him rudiments of reading, writing, and counting.

During that phase, there were a lot of regulatory texts that organized the task of the institutions designed for that kind of education.

On October 1992, the ministry of education allowed for the opening of institutions and classes of preparatory education and kindergardens for the private sectors and associations. For the private institutions, they needed to have license from the minister.

In 1995/1996, the Research Center in Social and Cultural Anthropology (CRASC) in association with the Natural Education Institute published a methodological guide to pre-school education. The methodological document indicated that the child in the pre-school age can go to classes designed for them. Yet, This type of education was limited to a small number of children whose parents were belonging to the education sector.

The order number 03-03 issued on August 13th 2003, which was a modification of the order of April 16th, 1976, insisted on adapting preparatory schools to social and political transformations.

2.5.6.2.4. The Forth Phase: from 2004 till Now

This period was characterized by a special interest in developing preparatory education and forming tight regulation to organize this kind of education by:

- In 2004, the insurance of curriculum and practical guide to preparatory education.
- The generalisation of preparatory education which was announced by the minister of education on April 2005.
- On April 20th, 2008, regulatory measures had been issued which consisted of the goals in addition to how to open and organize classes and enroll and supervise children at preparatory school.

At the beginning of the school year 2008/2009, all children at the age of 5 have the right to be enrolled in preparatory education at the primary school and it was integrated as a grade in the educational system. Thus, primary education started from the preparatory class to fifth grade. Yet, it was not obligatory, parents are free to enrol their children in these classes, in private schools or in the kindergardens' preparatory classes.

2.5.7. Learners' Outcomes

According to Zerda (2012), by the end of the preparatory phase, learners will be able to :

✚ From the linguistic side:

- Talk and use sound language
- Exchange and search for meaning and words
- Use their linguistic stock which consists of the average of 2500 to 3000 words.

From the social and psychological side :

- Cooperate with their classmates and develop relations

- Attend class regularly from 8 to 11:15 in the morning and from 13 to 14:30 in evening

Conclusion

This chapter has tried to shed light on the educational system in Algeria in general and the preparatory education in particular. The first part of this chapter has been devoted to clarify the concepts ‘language planning and policy’. To do so, definitions, typologies and goals have been presented. The arabisation policy introduced by the Algerian government has also been described in the second part of this chapter. Arabisation has been defined and its objectives have been determined in addition to its motivation and the difficulties.

The third part of this chapter has highlighted education in Algeria. A historical overview of the educational system from the colonization period to the present day has been dealt with. In addition, the present educational system is clarified and with a particular reference to the reforms introduced at schools.

The fourth part of this chapter has been concerned with the languages used in education. MSA is used at all levels of education and it is the language of instruction. Algerian Arabic, however, was not used in education though there was an attempt to introduce it in primary education. French is taught as the first foreign language while English is the second foreign language. Tamazight is also used in education in addition to other foreign languages such as Spanish, Italian and German.

The last part of this chapter is left for preparatory education. Some space is given to define it, state its goals, and the historical development of this kind of education. As far as the

present research is about the preparatory education, some space has been left to define explain its goals and motivations as well as its historical development.

The following chapter will introduce code switching and more precisely children's diglossic switching.

Chapter Three: Children's Code Switching

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Introduction

People use language to communicate with each other. They may even learn several languages for that particular reason. By learning further languages, they become bilinguals, trilinguals or multilinguals. Yet, bilinguality is not the only inevitable consequence of language contact: there are many other outcomes such as diglossia, pidgin, borrowing and code switching. The latter occurs when bilinguals alternate two languages in the same conversation.

Code switching attracted the attention of a lot of researchers and it was a subject of investigation in different disciplines mainly psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics and language acquisition. Code switching used to be viewed negatively, and it was considered as a language deficiency and an evidence of speakers' inability to separate the two systems. It was considered as a lack of competence in either language. However, until recently and thanks to a lot of investigations which aimed to shed light on that language behaviour, it has been discovered that code switching should not be treated as such. Instead, it is to be seen as a language competence and speaking style that is used by bilingual speakers whether consciously or unconsciously to fulfill particular social and communicative functions.

Switching occurs not only between genetically different languages, but also between varieties of the same language. The switching that occurs between varieties of the same language is known as diglossic switching. This language behaviour is present in the Arab countries and Algeria is an example. Furthermore, children are caught switching and they do that whether between distinct languages or varieties of the same language. Adults and children switch between Arabic and French or between Modern Standard Arabic and Algerian

Arabic. The present study aims to understand the mechanisms of children's code switching. This chapter aims to shed some light on code switching in an attempt to describe this concept and differentiate it from other related but different concepts such as code mixing, borrowing and so forth.

3.1. Code, Language, and Language Variation

Before defining the term code switching, it is necessary to clarify some related notions.

3.1.1. Code

The code is a neutral term to mean any language, variation of language, dialect, pidgin or creole. In other words, the code is any system used for communication among individuals. Wardhaugh (2006) defined it as: "any kind of system that two or more people employ for communication" (p.88).

3.1.2. Dialect

Among language variation, there are dialects, accents, idiolects and so forth. Dialects of the same language show some variation in vocabulary, pronunciation, syntax, semantics and pragmatics.

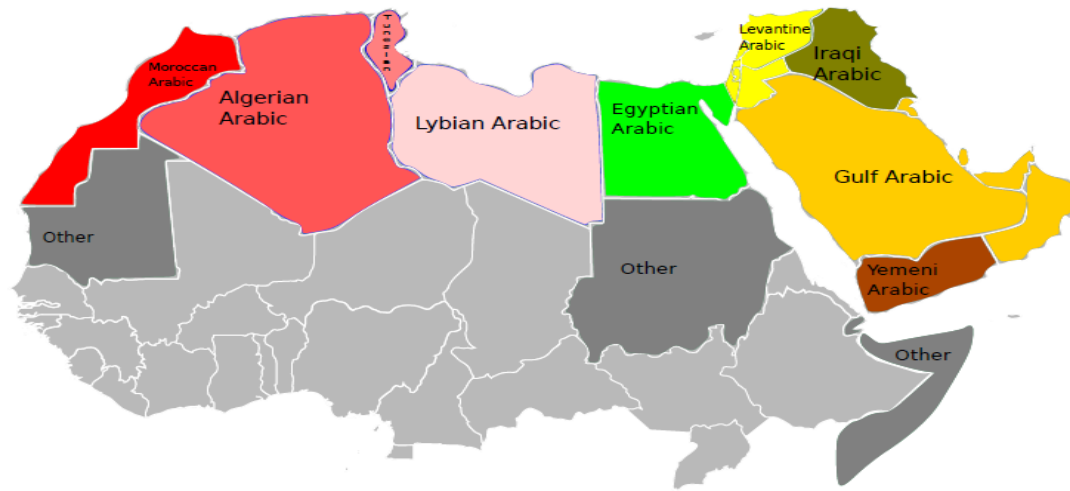
Dialect is a Greek word 'diálektos' which means 'common language' (Bussmann, Routledge Dictionary of Language, 1996, p. 307). It "usually refers to a geographical variety of a language" (Newbook, 2005, p. 108). Further, Romaine regarded the dialect as a "subordinate variety of a language" (2001, p. 310).

Becker & Bieswanger (2006) explained that dialect involved "differences between 'kinds of language' in pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar" (p.184). That is, the different dialect, of any language may show some variation in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. For instance, AA has a lot of dialects which differ from one region to the other. The dialect of Constantine is different from that of Ourgla, and the dialect of Annaba is not like the one of Oran and so on.

If language varies according to a distinct region, these language variations are called regional dialects. However, if language varies according to the members of social class, language forms are known as *social dialect* or *sociolect* (Trask, 1999, p. 108).

Further, Cook (2003) differentiated between dialect and standard language when he said that the standard language is the language used in "written communication, taught in schools, and codified in dictionaries and grammar books" while dialects are "regional and social-class varieties of the language which differ from the standard in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, and seldom written down at all" (Cook, 2003, p. 13).

As far as the Arabic language is concerned, Modern Standard Arabic is the language used in communication, taught at schools and it has grammar and dictionaries. However, Arabic dialects vary from one country to another and even in the same country. The following map shows the different Arabic dialects in the world.



Map 3.1.: The Arab World and the Arabic Dialects (Younes & Maier, 2016)

3.1.3. Language

Language is the vehicle of thoughts, ideas, and emotions through different mediums: written, spoken or sign. It is human's property. In this respect, Bussmann (1996) defined language as: "the vehicle for the expression or exchanging of thoughts, concepts, knowledge, and information as well as the fixing and transmission of experience and knowledge. It is based on cognitive processes, subject to societal factors and subject to historical change and development." (p. 27).

According to Hall (1964), Language is: "the institution whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral-auditory arbitrary symbols" (as cited in Crystal, 1997, p.400).

Therefore, language is a means of communication and it is used to transmit thoughts and ideas. People use it to interact with each other. Yet, language can take three forms: spoken, written and sign.

3.1.4. Language Variation

Language cannot be said in the same way in different situations and by all members of the speech community. There may be some variations whether among individuals when using the language or by individuals themselves. Trask (1999) stated that language variation is the noticeable differences that exist in language use in the speech community. Language cannot be said in the same way by the members of a given community. There are some diversity when men and women, for example, speak. The individual uses language differently in different situations. Using language, when chatting to friends in a bar, is different from using it when interviewing for a job. Further, speakers may use two or more languages or mix them in the same conversation. They may also integrate words from one language into another.

3.2. What is Code Switching?

Code switching is a term composed of 'code' which has already been defined and 'switching' which needs to be clarified before going further in the definitions suggested by different scholars.

3.2.1. What is Switching?

Switching the act of alternating between different languages or varieties of the same language. Gardner-chloros (2009) defined Switching¹⁷ as the “alternation between the different varieties which people speak” (p. 11).

3.2.2. Definition of Code Switching

Code switching¹⁸ (hereafter CS) is one of the phenomena resulting from language contact. This language behaviour was considered, for a long time, as a language deficiency and the speakers' inability to separate the two systems. It has been misinterpreted and considered as a lack of competence in one or two languages by bilingual speakers. In this respect, Cantone (2007,p.54) stated that “the earliest studies concluded that non systematic mixing was an indicator of language confusion”(e.g., Labov,1971).

There are a lot of definitions given to the term CS, each of which aims at clarifying this phenomenon from different perspectives; psycholinguistic, structural, and pragmatic.

The simplest definition is the one suggested by Milroy and Muysken (1995, p.7) when they defined code switching as “the alternative use by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation” (as cited in Cantone, 2007,p.56). Yet, Cantone (2007) criticized this definition as being a descriptive statement since it limits codes switching. Following the same

¹⁷ In French the term *alternance codique* is used, in German *Kodewechseln*, in Dutch *Kodewesseling* –however in all these, the English code-switching is often used instead. (footnote 5)(Gardner-chloros, 2009,p.11).

¹⁸ In literature, the word *Code switching* appears in three forms in writing. It is occasionally written as one word, with a hyphen, and in other cases as two detached words. Historically speaking, the transfer from two words to hyphenated words to a one word mirrors the integration and acceptableness of the concept (Gardner-chloros, 2009). The one-word form is used henceforward.

line of thought, some researchers have also limited code-switching to be only between sentences. Bloomer et al (2005) also considered code-switching as being the use of two different languages within the same conversation and these languages remain separate while in code mixing two languages are merged together. Further, Bullock and Toribio (2009) defined code switching as it “is the ability on the part of bilinguals to alternate effortlessly between their two languages.” (p.1). Haugen claimed that “The introduction of elements from one language into the other means merely an alteration of the second language, not a mixture of the two” (1950, p.211; as cited in Gardner-chloros, 2009, p. 9). That is, for the insertion of language elements in a language is considered as an alternation of the second language and not a mixture.

From a structural point of view, CS is “not aberrant but rule-governed and systematic” (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. 15). Poplack (1993) defined code switching as: “the juxtaposition [emphasis SP] of sentences or sentence fragments, each of which is internally consistent with the morphological and syntactic (and optionally, phonological) rules of the language of its provenance” (as cited in Muysken, 2000, p. 14). She even suggested the following example of Spanish and English code switching

(A) *Se me hace que* (B) I have to respect her (C) *porque' ta* ... older

(Spanish /English ; Poplack, 1980, p.591 ; as cited in Muysken, 2000, p.14)

From a psycholinguistic point of view, Gumperz (1982) defined code switching as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems” (p.59). Yet, this definition does not explain well the phenomenon since it does neither say when and where code switching happens nor

the frequency of the switched passages in the speech exchange. Further, it does not mention if the grammar of the two languages is respected (Cantone, 2007).

Grosjean, also approached code switching from a psycholinguistic viewpoint, defined it as “a complete shift from one language to the other, either for a word, a phrase or a whole sentence” (1998, p.137; as cited in Cantone, 2007, p.55). According to him, when a bilingual is speaking to another bilingual person, and during the discourse, the bilingual can take a decision about which language to be used . This decision happens most of the time unconsciously. Grosjean (1998) maintained that the type of the interlocutor will affect the level of activation of the two languages. When a bilingual person is addressing another bilingual, the two languages will be activated. However, if he is speaking to a monolingual, here, the level of activation will be different, but never be deactivated in the mind of the bilingual (Grosjean, 1998, 2001; as cited in Cantone, 2007). Moreover, Grosjean (1998, p.138) indicated that “to have any chance of identifying interferences correctly, one needs to be sure that the data collected come from a truly monolingual mode”(as cited in Cantone, 2007,p.56). In other words, if researchers want to study language interference, they have first to be sure that the data are collected from monolingual speaker because bilinguals may have in their speeches instances of code switching which could be mixed with interference.

From the Pragmatic viewpoint, code-switching “is regarded as a discourse strategy and a speech style” (Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Gumperz, 1976; Grosjean, 1982; as cited in Cantone, 2007, p.54).

Some other researchers suggested more flexible definitions of CS. Gardner-chloros (2009) described CS as “the use of several languages or dialects in the same conversation or sentence by bilingual people. It affects practically everyone who is in contact with more than

one language or dialect, to a greater or lesser extent.” (Gardner-chloros, 2009, p. 4). According to this definition, CS occurs between languages, dialects and whether between or within sentences with varying degrees.

Another definition suggested by Meisel (1994, p.415; as cited in Cantone, 2007, p.57) as follows:

Code-switching is the ability to select the language according to the interlocutor, the situational context, the topic of conversation, and so forth, and to change languages within an interactional sequence in accordance with sociolinguistic rules and without violating specific grammatical constraints.

Miesel (1994) provided a definition that explains code switching by taking into account both the grammatical and pragmatic aspects of languages used. Therefore, this definition describes CS as a positive sign of the speaker's competence. It also suggests that code switching is governed by grammatical rules (Cantone, 2007).

Myers-Scotton (2006) suggested a general definition of code switching when she said that it is “the use of two language varieties in the same conversation.”(p.239)

Gumperz's (1982) and Myers-scotton's definitions for CS are more flexible and does not limit CS to switching between languages, but it extends it to be even between varieties of the same language.

According to the above-mentioned definition, CS could be defined as the alternation use of two or more languages or varieties of the same language or even dialects in the same conversation. CS would be an umbrella term to cover all the switching that may occur between different languages, varieties or dialects.

Casas (2008) pointed out to the countries that practice codeswitching like Canada (English and French), Senegal (Wolof and French), China (Cantonese and English), Spain (Basque and Spanish), Japan (Japanese and English), the United States (Spanish and English), and so forth. This indicates that Language switchings are evidence of the heterogeneous nature of the linguistic practice.

For a long time, CS was considered as language deficiency and did not receive any attention by researchers until the work of Gumperz and his companion in the 1960s and 1970s (Gumperz, 1964, 1967; Gumperz and Wilson,1971; Blom and Gumperz, 1972; as cited in Gardner-chloros, 2009, p.9). Thenceforth, light has been shed on this phenomenon and it has no longer been looked down since it is a widespread speaking style.

CS is a universal phenomenon since it occurs in the Arab and Western World. Bassiouney(2009) pointed out that in the Arab world, CS occurs between Arabic and foreign languages. This language behaviour has been referred to by an Arab writer as 'linguistic prostitution'(Suleiman, 2004, p.227; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p.29) and which can be regarded as a 'colonial penetration'.

As for the English world, Crystal(2003) stated that there are mixed varieties that involves English. These varieties exist everywhere with different appellations attribute to them such as Franglais, Chinglish, Japlish, Singlish, Spanglish, Denglish and so forth(p.165). He added that these terms are broadly employed and whatever the direction of the mixing is.

Examples from Algerian society

An example from the Algerian society of the switchings from French and Algerian Arabic in the lyrics of the Algerian rai sang by Cheb Hasni:

gelbek lli kan **vicioux**

enti l'xasra zzerga dxalti l **milieu**
 lukan kunti Sabra w kan 'sqek se' **rieux**
 kun rak bdarek w gulti ll' du **adieu**
 lakin kunti makra lhubbi w xallSek **mon dieu**
 kunit 'duja **contre** w qsemti gelbi **en deux**

(Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. 12)

This extract, from the Algerian rai music, shows the misinterpretation of CS and at the same time it contradicts those who consider CS a creative behaviour.

For Bentahila and Davies (2002), CS in rai lyrics corresponds to the standards of conversational CS in the society in which they emerge. These lyrics, for North African listeners, are “instantly familiar examples of a form of discourse they know well” (Davies and Bentahila in press; as cited in Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p.12).

Code switching is a phenomenon which is widely observed in societies among bilingual and multilingual families and social groups. It is also widespread in classes by teachers and learners and it characterizes the class discourse. The present study aims at examining the phenomenon of CS used in classroom by preparatory children in Algerian society. This kind of switching occurs between MSA and AA. This kind of switching is referred to as diglossic switching since it occurs between two varieties of the same language. One variety is considered as High variety (MSA) and the other is a low variety (AA).¹⁹

¹⁹ For a better understanding of the two varieties, a section in the first chapter is devoted to that.

3.2.3. Who Engages in Code Switching?

Code switching is frequent in the speech of speakers who know more than one language or variety of the same language.

According to Bullock and Toribio (2009), CS is used by any person who speaks more than one language and s/he is capable of selecting the suitable language for a particular context. He maintained that not all bilinguals switch the code since it is a conscious decision.

3.2.4. Why is Code Switching Difficult to Characterize?

There are any phenomena resulting from language contact. For that reason, CS is not easy to describe and distinguish for related but different language behaviour.

Bullock & Toribio (2009) believed that CS is hard to characterize since it involves a lot of contact phenomena. Firstly, because CS varies from inserting distinct words to alternating languages. Secondly, CS is the result of bilinguals with various degrees of proficiency and who live in different language contact settings. Consequently, CS patterns could not be consistent. Finally, CS is used for so many reasons such as to fill in a lexical gap, to achieve special discursive aims and so forth. Hence, for these points, presenting the exact characterization of CS has been a subject of debate in the literature.

3.2.5. Characteristics of Code Switching

A lot of researchers attempted to characterize CS. Casas (2008, p.62), for instance, cited some characteristics of code switching:

- 1) It is not random since it responds to syntactic limitations and pragmatic objectives,
- 2) It can vary depending on the topic, setting, and linguistic competence of speakers,

- 3) It can be considered a stylistic resource and a social practice among a network of speakers,
- 4) It typically indexes social constructs beyond language itself, such as personal and social identity.

3.2.6. Why Study Code Switching?

Code switching has been a subject of interest for a long time. Researchers wanted to study this phenomenon for some reasons. According to Gardner-chloros (2009), CS serves as a window on language since it enables researchers to discover how language is processed and understood the mind of individual and what the mechanisms of switching are. It seeks also to show how languages are grouped in the mind. Moreover, by studying CS, different language combinations are clarified (morphemes from varied languages are combined together). In fact, CS is enlightening language at various levels. On the other hand, CS has to be studied for its own sake so as to understand this phenomenon especially because the world today is plurilingual.

Further, studying code switching helps to illuminate research on bilingualism since it shows the interaction of the two languages in bilingual speakers (Cantone, 2007).

3.3. Types of Code Switching

There are many classifications of CS: situational/ metaphorical CS, international/ insertional CS, and intrasentational/ intersentational CS

3.3.1. Situational vs Metaphorical CS

Gumperz (1976, 1982), as one of the earliest pioneers to study code switching, believed that this phenomenon must not be considered as a lack of competence. He differentiated between *situational code switching* and *metaphorical code switching* (1976; as cited in Cantone, 2007, p.59). This differentiation had first been suggested by Blom and Gumperz(1972) and later it was promoted by Gumperz (Hinrichs, 2006).

According to Gumperz(1982), situational CS: “concerns the situation the speakers are exposed to” (as cited in Cantone, 2007, p.59). Furthermore, it “occurs when distinct varieties are associated with changes in interlocutor, context or topic, and is, therefore, a direct consequence of a diglossic distribution of the varieties” (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. 107). In this type of switching, language choice identifies the situation and not the situation that identifies language choice.

However, metaphorical CS involves “language choice in order to attain special communicative effects” (Gumperz, 1976; as cited in Cantone, 2007, p.59). Sridhar (1996) pointed out that this type of switching has “a stylistic or textual function”(p.56) such as to “signal a quotation, to mark emphasis, to indicate the punch line of a joke, or to signal a change in tone from the serious to the comic”(p.56).

Language varieties may be used as a rhetorical device. Teachers of foreign languages in secondary school, for instance, may use English when teaching but he may switch to AA to tell a joke and he knows that AA is not the right code in this situation with his students.

Sridhar(1996), thus, concluded that CS is not an arbitrary behaviour, but instead it is functionally stimulated.

Conversational CS, on the other hand, happens “when there are changes in variety without any such external prompting.” (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. 107). When the introduction of a specific variety in the conversation is to invite connotations, this type of switching is also called metaphorical (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. 107). Conversational CS is also known as code mixing by some researchers (Hudson, 1963, p.53; Bouamrane, 1988, p.6)

M'zabi people in Constantine, for instance, use Tamazight when they are with their family members but they switch to AA once their schoolmasters/ classmates talk to them. This is an example of situational code switching.

3.3.2. Alternational vs Insertional CS

Matras(2009) presented a classification of code switching suggested by Muysken (2000_a) as *alternational* and *insertional* code switching. The former is defined as “alternating languages between utterances or sentences” (p.101) while the latter is described as “the insertion of a word or phrase into an utterance or sentence formed in a particular base or frame language”(p.101)

Further, *tag-switching* is defined as “a mix involving an utterance and an interjection (or tag)”. (Cantone, 2007, p. 57).

Instances of tags are taken from German and Italian languages where: ‘*weisst du*’ means ‘you know’ and ‘*capisci*’ means ‘do you understand’.

Oggi Sara era al nuovo negozio, weisst du?

Today Sara was at the new shop, you know? I was happy about that, capisci?

I was happy about that, do you understand?

(Cantone, 2007, p. 57)

Common Arabic tags are ‘/wəla la/’ means ‘or not’ or /wallah/ meaning ‘I swear by God’ as in the following:

?ana wallah **je m’en fous**

I swear by God I do not care

In this example, the speaker switched from French to Arabic by inserting the tag wallah

3.3.3. Intersentential vs Intrasentential

Poplack(1980) classified CS as *inter-sentential* and *intra-sentential* CS. Intra-sentential CS is also known as *Classic CS* (Myers-Scotton,1993_a) or *alternational CS* (Muysken, 2000; as cited in Bullock & Toribio, 2009,p.3).

An example of inter-sentential CS would be the following :

Swahili–English
That’s too much. **Sina pesa.**
“ . . . I don’t have [much] money.”

(Myers-Scotton, 1993a, p. 41; as cited in Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p.3)

Bullock & Toribio (2009) pointed out that intra-sentential CS can present some insights about the two grammars and how they can be interrelated at the sentence level.

Myers-Scotton stated that intersentential CS “involves switches from one language to the other between sentences: a whole sentence (or more than one sentence) is produced entirely in one language before there is a switch to the other language(s) in use in the conversation” (1993_b, pp.3-4; as it is cited in (Ahmed Othman, 2006, p. 42).

Thirty years ago, when MeriLehtinen had studied the recorded Finnish-English bilingual corpus of one speaker, she set up the following:

In order for any intra-sentence code-switching to be possible at all, there must exist in the two languages some constructions which are in some sense similar, so that certain syntactic items from each language are equivalent to each other in specific ways. Further reflection, supported by an examination of the corpus, shows that the similarities must exist in what is known as the 'surface grammar' (1966, p. 153; as cited in Muysken, 2000, p. 11)

She also attached: "It would seem, then, that switching at words which belong to a closed class is not allowed by the code-switching rules, except in cases where such a switch is forced by structural considerations"(1966, p.177; as cited in Muysken, 2000, p.11).

According to MeriLehtinen, intrasentential CS occurs only when there are similarities between the two languages. CS would be impossible at the level of function words.

As far as the Algerian context is concerned, code switching is of widespread use. Algerians so often switch the code between languages used such as between Algerian arabic and French or between French and Tamazight and even between varieties of the same language as it is the case for MSA and AA. The frequently used type of code switching is conversational codewtching. Switchings that occur are mainly inter sententional, intra sententional and tag switching.

The following figure represents the types of CS in the Algerian context as it is presented by Hamzaoui (2017):

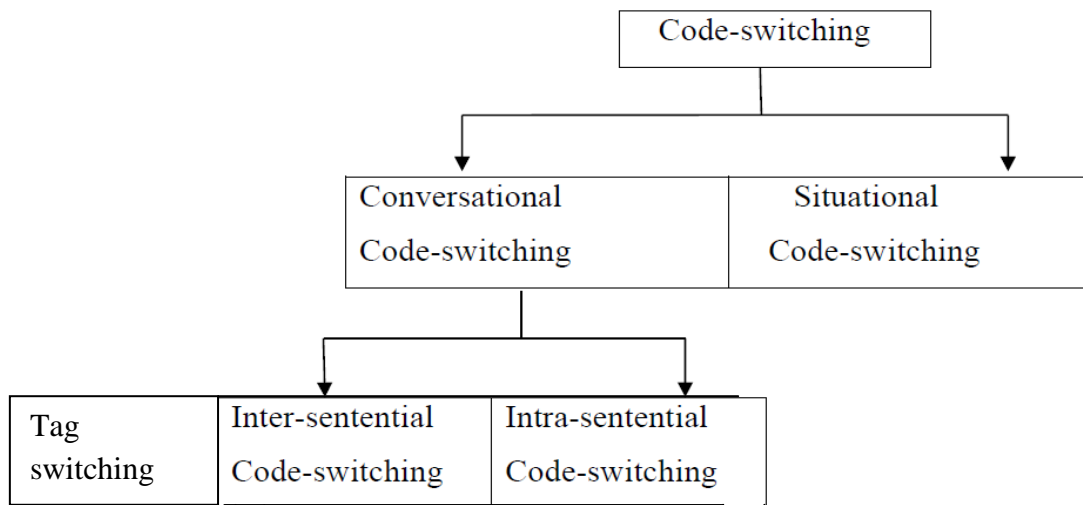


Figure 3.1. : Characteristics of Code Switching in the Algerian Context (adapted from Hamzaoui, 2017, p. 117)

3.4. Approaches to the Study of Code Switching

Code switching attracted the attention of a lot of researchers and has been studied from different perspectives so as to be clarified. In this respect, Gardner-chloros (2009) pointed out that CS has been studied from different disciplines because of the great interest in this topic and the hardships of investigating it. Bullock & Toribio (2009) stated that there are three main approaches: structural, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic approaches. The structural approach aims at uncovering all language structure of CS (morphology, phonology...). The psycholinguistic approach, on the other hand, is concerned with exploring the cognitive mechanisms of how bilingual produce, perceive and acquire languages. The sociolinguistic approach is associated with the social factor responsible for inhibiting or promoting CS and offers perceptions about social constructs. Moreover, along with ethnographic studies, sociolinguistic studies seeks to gather insights by relating CS to features of the sociolinguistic situation (Gardner-chloros, 2009).

According to Bullock and Toribio (2009), a complete description of CS cannot be attained without the contribution of the findings from all these approaches to fully understand the phenomenon.

3.5. Problems of Terminology

A lot of efforts have been directed toward differentiating CS from other contact phenomena concepts such as code mixing, borrowing and so forth. Yet, these "efforts to distinguish code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing are doomed" (1992, p.1; Gardner-Chloros, 2009, p.10). In literature, terminology has been frequently discussed in order to be able to draw a line between them. In what follows, is an attempt to make a distinction between these terms.

3.5.1. Code Switching vs Code Mixing

Code switching is frequently confused with code mixing; some researchers believed that they are distinctive while others use the two terms interchangeably.

Code mixing is defined as "a kind of linguistic cocktail- a few words of one language, then a few words from the other, then back to the first for more words and so on" (Hudson, 1999, p.53). This definition means that the switch occurs within the sentence boundaries. Thus, it is an intrasentential switching.

On the one hand, a lot of researchers wanted to distinguish CS from code mixing. Most of them tried to shed light on the distinctive features that may draw a line between the two. Wardhaugh (1990, p.104), for instance, considered code mixing (henceforth CM) as "a phenomenon in which an expression from one language is used in a group of words of those

structure belongs to another distinct language” (as cited in Celik, 2003, p. 361). Yet, when “complete sentences from both languages follow each other, the phenomenon in question is called code switching”. Further, Muysken (2001) described code mixing as it “refers to all cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence” (p.1, as cited in Cantone, 2007,p.56) while “the more commonly used term code switching will be reserved for the rapid succession of several languages in a single event”(Muysken,2009, p.1; as cited in Cantone, 2007, p.56).

In the same vein, Meyerhoff (2006) defined CM as it “Generally refers to alternations between varieties, or codes, within a clause or phrase often elicits more strongly negative evaluations than alternations or code switching across clauses” (p.120). This definition does not restrict CM to the switching that occurs within the clause or phrase but even to the switching that happens between varieties of the same language.

Another distinction is suggested by Meisel(1989) who employed the term code mixing when there is melding of the grammatical systems of the two languages while keeping the term CS to refer to “the pragmatic skill of selecting the language according to the interlocutor, topic, context, etc” (Gardner-chloros, 2009, p. 13).

Celik(2003) gave examples of Turkish English mixing to illustrate the difference between CS and CM as follows:

1 – Seni büyü **boss** istiyor dediler. (they said the big **boss** wanted you)

...bana **trouble** vermek için. Ben alayınca o da **fun** yapacak

(... to give me trouble. When I cry, then he will have fun.)

3 – A: mum. Your friend Alev **geldi**. (your friend Alev **came**)

B: All right. Buyursun. **Kitchen**'daym. (Let her in. I'm in the **kitchen**)

4 – I am masum. (I am innocent.)

(Celik, 2003, p.361)

The two terms CS and code mixing seems to represent some ambiguity concerning their uses since there are some researchers who consider CM as “language mixing within the phrase or utterance” (Matras, 2009, p.101) while they use the term code switching to refer to the “alternation of languages in-between utterances or phrases (intra-sentential switching)” (Matras, 2009, p.101). Yet, some other researchers would utilize the term code mixing to represent structures which are the result of language mixing and are absent in the speech of monolinguals.

In addition, Mazraani (1997) drew a distinction between CS and CS as she argued that CS has a discourse function and influences linguistic levels: morphological, syntactic, phonological and lexical. She described CS as language behaviour where “sections in one code are followed by sections in another one in the same conversation.”(pp. 8-9; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 30). Code mixing, however, is explained as “the mixing of different varieties within a single utterance or even within a single word”(Mazraani,1997,8-9; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 30). Yet, Mazraani's differentiation between CS and CM has been criticized by Bassiouney as beinn ambiguous since the terms sections and utterance have not been clarified with their borderline.

On the other hand, some researchers like Myers-Scotton (1997) did not differentiate between code switching and code-mixing. They consider this differentiation as making

'unnecessary confusion' (Bassiouney R. , Arabic Sociolinguistics, 2009). Myers-Scotton (1993) asserted that:

A number of researchers associated with BrajKachru [. .], but also some others, prefer to label as 'code-mixing' alternations which are intrasentential, although it is not entirely clear whether this applies to all intrasentential CS (code-switching). While I grant that intrasentential CS puts different psycholinguistic 'stresses' on the language-production system from intersentential (code switching) CS (a valid reason to differentiate the two), the two types of CS may have similar socio-psychological motivations. For this reason, I prefer 'CS' as a cover term; the two types can be differentiated by the labels 'intersentential' and 'intrasentential' when structural constraints are considered. (p.1; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p.30).

Therefore, throughout the present study, the term code switching and code mixing are used interchangeably to refer to the alternation use of two or more languages or varieties of the same language.

3.5.2. Code Switching vs Borrowing

The two terms code switching and borrowing are frequently confused since they are alike and different.

First, it is necessary to define borrowing. Romaine (1995) defined borrowing as the adding of foreign elements into the mother tongue of the group (as cited in Casas, 2008).

Radford et al (2009) described borrowed words²⁰ as “words which originated in one language (or dialect), but which have come to be used in another, even by people who don't speak the ‘lending’ language. These borrowings are very often assimilated to the phonological and morphological structure of the new host language.”(p. 225). Likewise, Jakob Grimm stated that “When a foreign word falls by accident into the fountain of a language, it will get driven around in there until it takes on that language's colour.” (Campbell, 1998, p. 57). This means that borrowed words undergo lexical and phonological changes to fit in that language.

Not only words that are borrowed but also “any linguistic material- sounds, phonological rules, grammatical morphemes, syntactic patterns, semantic associations, discourse strategies or whatever- which has its origin in a foreign language can be borrowed. That is, can be taken over so that it becomes part of the borrowing language” (Campbell, 1998, p. 57).

Algerian Arabic contains a lot of instances of borrowed words from French and other languages. Here are some examples:

/frizidæʀ/ is originally a French word ‘refrigérateur’ and which underwent phonological and morphological integration.

Sankoff(2001) believed that CS is ‘royal road’ to borrowing although she kept agreeing with Poplack's belief that there is a basic difference between the two (Gardner-chloros, 2009).

According to Cantone (2007), the distinction between code switching and borrowing is hard as it was presented in a lot of studies. Some researchers believed that borrowing includes a specific type of words such as words with particular prestige or cultural meaning.

²⁰ Borrowed words are also called ‘loanwords’ (Campbell, 1998, p. 57)

Furthermore, Borrowing can occur when there is no exact word to reflect the same meaning. What is agreed on among researchers is that borrowing is not only used to fill in a lexical gap. However, one of the major difference between CS and borrowing is that switched words are not supposed to undergo phonological integration as it is the case in borrowing and the words are going to be pronounced as they are in the source language (Cantone, 2007).

Further, Mahootian (2006) differentiated between CS and borrowing. For him, CS can be varied in length since it happens at different levels: the phrase, clause, and sentence whereas borrowing is likely to be short and borrowed words undergo phonological and lexical integration in the host language.

3.5.3. Code Switching vs. Code Crossing

Code switching can also be mixed with code crossing. Again it is necessary to draw a distinction between the two concepts.

The term code crossing was introduced by Rampton (1995), in his book '*Crossing*', defined it as "code alternation by people who are not accepted members of the group associated with the second language they employ. It is concerned with switching into languages that are not generally thought to belong to you." (Rampton, 1995, p.280; as cited in Kamwangamalu, 2010, p.121).

Code switching and code crossing are different in many aspects. Kamwangamalu (2010) differentiated between CS and code crossing as the former is 'an in-group phenomenon' while the latter is 'out-group phenomenon'(p.121). Further, when switching codes, speakers can use more than one code in the same conversation while code crossing

occurs to disgrace language. Moreover, when switching the code, there is no violation of the rules of the language, but in code crossing, the speaker may diverge from the norms (Hozhabrossadat, 2015). Lastly, there is a separation between the speaker and the code used as Ramton mentioned that "code crossing involves a disjunction between speaker and code that cannot be readily accommodated as a normal part of ordinary social reality" and which is not the case in CS (1995, p.283; as cited in Kamwangamalu, 2010).

3.5.4. Code Switching vs. Mixed Languages

Code switching can also be differentiated from mixed languages which are the result of contact varieties. These mixed languages draw elements of their grammatical systems from varied genetic sources (Bullock & Toribio, 2009). Thomason (2001) distinguished mixed languages from creoles and she gave her modest definition "A mixed language is a language whose lexical and grammatical structures cannot all be traced back primarily to a single source ("parent") language" (Thomason 2008, p. 255; as cited in Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015, p. 132). Mixed languages appear frequently in bilingual societies and do not emerge because there is a need for lingua franca as it is the case with pidgin (Wardhaugh & Fuller, An Introduction to Sociolinguistics, 2015). An instance of mixed languages is Michif which is a language spoken in Canada and which is a mixture of Cree and French. This language is described as being a mixture of Cree verbs and French nouns.

Another example of mixed languages is Media Lengua, a native language in the highlands of Central Ecuador, which has been portrayed as a 'prototypical mixed language' (Muysken, 1988, 1996; as cited in Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p.6). This language involves

Quechua morpho-syntax joined with Spanish lexical stem as the following example illustrates :

Media Lengua

Unu fabur-ta pidi-nga-bu bini-xu-ni

one favor-acc ask-nom-ben come-prog-1sg

“I come to ask a favor”

cf. Quechua: Shuk fabur-ta mañ a-nga-bu shamu-xu-ni

one favor-acc ask-nom-ben come-prog-1sg

cf. Spanish: Vengo para pedir un favor

I-come for ask-inf a favor

(Muysken, 1981, pp.68–69; as cited in Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p.6)

As it is shown in the above example; structurally, Media Lengua is different from Quechua and Spanish and it is not understood by monolingual speakers of either language. However, CS is not a combination of the two systems and it does not establish a ‘hybrid system’ (Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. 6). It is believed that mixed language emerged in communities where bilingual CS was widespread (Bullock & Toribio, 2009).

3.5.5. Code Switching vs. Diglossia

Among language contact phenomena that raise confusion and misunderstanding are the two concepts CS and diglossia²¹.

Sridhar (1996) made a distinction between CS and diglossia. First, CS is an unconscious process while diglossia is conscious since speakers can switch from H to L and

²¹ For more details about the definition of diglossia, see chapter one in this thesis

the other way round. In this respect, Tay (1989) stated that "On the functional plane, it should be stressed that the typical code switcher or mixer is usually not aware of why he/she switches codes at certain points of the discourse . . ." (p. 412; Sridhar, 1996, p. 57). Second, CS, compared to diglossia, contains some overlapping of codes. Lastly, the codes in CS are not inevitably precisely detached.

On the other hand, Bassiouney (2009) argued that diglossia needs to be investigated with the frame of CS because the switching may happen between languages as well as between varieties of the same language. She maintained "rather than use the term 'diglossic switching' to refer to switching between MSA and the different vernaculars, one can use the term 'code-switching' for that purpose". In this respect, Mejdell (2006) sustained that CS "should be understood in a broad context to encompass both varieties and different languages" (Mejdell, 2006, p.418 as cited in Bassiouney,2009, p.31). In addition, Suzanne Romaine argued that most linguists today employ the term code switching since "the term 'code' is a neutral one [...] and does not commit us to taking a decision as to whether the varieties or codes concerned constitute languages or dialects"(Romaine, 1994, p.63; as cited in Putter, 2011, pp.282-283).

Therefore, the present study seeks to investigate the switching between the two varieties of Arabic MSA and AA.

3.6. Motivations to Code Switching

Code switching is the process of alternating languages or varieties of a language. Whether this happens consciously or unconsciously, it is motivated by some factors.

Altarriba & Basnight-Brown (2009) mentioned that there are some factors that motivate bilinguals to switch the code while in some situations it is necessary to do so in order to transmit the semantic meaning that the talker wants to send. In this case, the speaker may face a shortage of knowledge of words in the language s/he is using (Grosjean, 1982; as cited in Altarriba & Basnight-Brown, 2009). Moreover, Heredia and Altarriba noticed that the speaker may prefer to switch the code when s/he is incapable to get back the word in the base language²² because of frequency or competition within the lexicon (Altarriba & Basnight-Brown, *Empirical Approaches to the Study of Code-switching in Sentential Contexts*, 2009). Another reason that encourages bilinguals to switch the code, is the lack of a precise "word for word translation across languages" (Altarriba & Basnight-Brown, *Empirical Approaches to the Study of Code-switching in Sentential Contexts*, 2009, p. 4). For instance, the word 'cariño' in Spanish which assembles the two English terms liking and affection. The majority of competent Spanish- English bilinguals have a problem in finding an exact equivalent translation in English that could combine all the conceptual properties that do represent that Spanish word (Altarriba & Basnight-Brown, *Empirical Approaches to the Study of Code-switching in Sentential Contexts*, 2009).

Further, Preceding Gumperz (1976), Weinreich (1953) believed that speakers alternate the codes due to speech event or situation (Bassiouney R. , *Arabic Sociolinguistics*, 2009). That is, the type of speech event influences the switch to happen. As a result, the participants and the topic are the two motivators for CS to occur. However, Gumperz (1982_a, p.61) disagreed with this view and believed that the speaker is responsible for CS, not the speech event "Rather than claiming that speakers use language in response to a fixed predetermined

²² The language the speaker is switching from (Altarriba & Basnight-Brown, *Empirical Approaches to the Study of Code-switching in Sentential Contexts*, 2009, p. 4)

set of prescriptions, it seems more reasonable to assume that they build on their own and their audience's abstract understanding of situational norms, to communicate metaphoric information about how they intend their words to be understood" (as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 59).

3.7. Theories about Motivations to Code Switching

According to Bassiouney (2009), there are three theories that try to describe CS without taking into consideration lists of the discourse functions or motivations of CS. These theories are: the accommodation theory, the social arena, and markedness theory.

Howard Giles et al (1987) suggested the accommodation theory which aims at explaining the social motivations for CS. It is believed that speakers change code according to their listeners so as to gain their appreciation. This is known as 'convergence approval' (Bassiouney R., Arabic Sociolinguistics, 2009, p. 64). In other cases, when the speaker wants to distinguish himself/herself from the listener, s/he uses a different code. This is known as 'speech divergence' (Heller, 1982, pp.180-118, as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 64). Heller (1982, pp.108-118) conducted a study in Monreal. She discovered that a number of people in that bilingual town could not communicate with each other since they and the other people did not want to switch from one language to another (French/English) for some "political, national, cultural reasons" (Bassiouney R., Arabic Sociolinguistics, 2009, p. 64). Therefore, taking a decision to switch or not is a personal choice and it is used to reinforce and maintain groups boundaries.

Secondly, the social arena theory was suggested by Scotton and Ur (1977). For them, three universal arenas influence the choice of code and which are: "identity, power and transaction" (as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 64). People decide to switch the code according

to the interlocutors' identity or to his own identity. Secondly, CS is also affected by power since people may decide to switch due to the power speakers have over the others or vice versa. Thirdly, the transaction is the third social arena. CS is influenced by the reasons and situation of the speech act.

Muyers-scotton (1993) suggested a third theory that aims to describe CS as a universal rule-governed phenomenon" (Bassiouney R. , Arabic Sociolinguistics, 2009, p. 65). She believed that people may decide to switch the code without any social motivation or discourse function in mind. They just do it because it is the norm. In this case "CS can be used as the unmarked variety of certain communities (as the normal linguistic behaviour)...although for an outsider on this community, it does carry a social message, for an insider it is the norm" (Bassiouney R. , Arabic Sociolinguistics, 2009, p. 65). In this respect, Labov (1971) stated a case of an African American boy who alternated between Black English vernacular and standard English without any social motivation behind. Labov concluded that:

1. Switching sites are often difficult to limit since many items are shared by both systems: the Vernacular and the Standard.
2. The speaker switches between both systems at least sixteen times without an apparent motivation in the same stretch of discourse.

(as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 65)

For Labov, it is useless to regard this linguistic behaviour as CS. Yet, Romaine (1995) believed that it could be regarded as CS especially because it happens in different places. Muyers-scotton believed that if CS has a social motivation and social function, this is determined by the speaker and the audience. Therefore, they are conscious and awaited from them in society. This idea of expectations of audience and speakers is a borderline that

distinguishes the marked and unmarked choices. Muijers-scotton referred to markedness as "what community norms would predict is unmarked and what is not predicted is marked" (1998b, p.5; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 66). Thus, according to Bassiouney(2009), alternation is controlled by implicit social conventions.

More than this, Muijers-scotton suggested that the capability of switching between languages is involved in communicative competence. She indicated that this ability is "rule-governed competence" (Bassiouney R. , Arabic Sociolinguistics, 2009, p. 66). According to her, all human beings are endowed with the ability to switch the code whether between languages, varieties, styles, dialects and so on. They even have the capacity to use CS for several interactional reasons. "People, according to Myers-Scotton, are equipped with the competence to assess linguistic choices. All people have a 'predisposition' (1998b, p. 6) to see linguistic choices as marked or unmarked." (Bassiouney, 2009, p. 69).

Muijers-scotton distinguished between marked and unmarked choices by suggesting that when using CS without any motivation behind. This is the marked choice and when switching with a particular motivation, this is the unmarked choice.

Bassiouney (2009) presented an example to show marked variety. She gave the example recounted by Suleiman (2004,p.9) who spoke about his trip to Israel as a British Palestinian. He was anticipated to talk Arabic to Israeli policemen at checkpoints because his British passport denoted his Palestinian origin. He chose to use English but not Arabic though his name and his passport showed his Palestinian origin. He did use English to exert a certain power on the Israeli policemen and he kept answering their questions in English even when they used Arabic. He wanted to be more powerful than them. Thus, the use of English, in this example, denotes marked code.

3.8. Functions of Code Switching

Code switching as a language behaviour is used whether consciously or unconsciously to fulfill some functions. It is defined as “generally rule-governed behaviour that fulfills pragmatic and social functions” (diSciullo *et al.*, 1986; Myers-Scotton, 1993; Poplack, 1980; among others; as cited in Potowski, 2009, p.89).

According to Bullock and Toribio (2009), CS is a conscious decision taken by bilinguals. This decision is influenced by some social and discursive factors. At the society level, when CS is widely used, this is the result of the prestige attributed to it. CS may be used as a marker of solidarity and group membership. Significantly, Bilinguals switch the code only with bilinguals because there is mutual intelligibility between them. In Guinea, for example, villagers are trilingual and they were observed to switch among these languages. This linguistic behaviour is the most impressive way of public-speaking and is used by people in power. The speaker can use a given code to indicate a particular type of identity, for instance, using French or English for modernity and sophistication in any part of the world (Kachru, 1978; Myers-Scotton, 1993a; Pandit, 1978; S. N.Sridhar, 1978; as cited in Sridhar, 1996).

As for the discursive functions, these have to do with the speakers' communicative intentions. Gumperz explained several significant functions of CS in his seminal work on bilingual strategies (1976, 1982_a), he said that “The premise underlying his and subsequent studies is that CS is a conscious choice on the part of the speaker, used to mark quotations, emphasis, realignment of speech roles, reiteration, and elaboration, among others.” (as cited in Bullock & Toribio, 2009, p. 10).

Gumperz (1982) hold the view that CS is a discourse “mode and a communicative option” accessible to bilinguals (Shin, 2005, p. 18). Working on bilingual interactive strategies, Gumperz helped the field of bilingualism when he controverted with the view that considered CS as "a deficient knowledge of a language, a grammarless mish-mash of two languages" (Shin, 2005, p. 18). For him, CS is a communicative resource used to transmit linguistic and social information to the interlocutor. Further, CS shows the talker communicative intentions and emotions and instantaneous attitudes (Shin, 2005).

Shin (2005) pointed out that the speakers use CS to convey metaphoric information about how they want their utterances to be appreciated by interlocutors. In this respect, Gumperz (1982) cited that CS is “an element in a socially agreed matrix of contextualization cues and conventions used by speakers to alert addressees, in the course of ongoing interaction, to the social and situational context of the conversation” (Shin, 2005, p. 19). For Gumperz (1982_a, pp.75-84), CS is used to fulfill the following functions:

- 1. quotations
- 2. to specify the addressee as the recipient of the message
- 3. reiterations and interjections
- 4. to qualify a message
- 5. to differentiate between what is personal and what is general.

(as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 60)

Later, Romaine (1995, pp.161-162) added to Gumperz's Functions of CS the following ones:

- 6. as sentence fillers
- 7. to clarify or emphasize a point

8. to shift to a new topic
9. to mark the type of discourse
10. to specify a social arena

(as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 60)

Holmes & Stubbe (2004), on the other hand, stated some of the social and discursive aspects of CS. These functions have been presented in the following table:

<u>Transactional</u>	
Referential/informative	e.g. conveying information accurately
Discourse management	e.g. clarification/repair strategy
Heuristic	e.g. scaffolding to assist language learning or problem-solving
<u>Social/affective</u>	
Personal	e.g. constructing social identity or status
Interpersonal/relational	e.g. establishing solidarity; mitigating FTA _s
intergroup	e.g. highlighting or downplaying ethnolinguistic boundaries

Table 3.1. : Some Functions of Code Switching (Holmes & Stubbe, 2004, p. 135)

The functions presented in the above table appeared from Holmes and Stubbe (2004) analysis in New Zealand workplaces. These functions are grouped into two categories: transactional and social/ affective functions. The above table shows the sub-categories that result from their analysis. Transactional function refers to the referential functions of

language. According to Holmes & Stubbe(2004), this function is used to guarantee that the information is transmitted adequately. However, the social and affective functions of code-switching are associated with the relational and interpersonal functions. In this case, switching "contribute to the individual's construction of their social, ethnic, professional or gender identity in a particular context, as well as switches which are other-oriented and which emphasize what participants have in common, including such dimensions as work relationships and ethnic group membership" (e.g. Cheshire & Gardner-Chloros 1998; Myers-Scotton, 1983, 1993, Stubbe 1998; as cited in Holmes & Stubbe, 2004, p.136).

3.9. Grammatical Constraints on Code Switching

Many types of research were carried out in order to study the structure of CS, the rules governing it, and to identify whether these rules are language specific, universal or random. Further, by studying the syntax of CS, scholars might predict its occurrence.

Altarriba & Basnight-Brown(2009) pointed out that CS is "rule-governed in the sense that syntactic rules and basic grammatical structure are typically well-preserved when switching occurs."(p.4).

To study the structure of CS, there are many theories such as Matrix Frame Language Model proposed by Myers-Scotton (1993) and Poplack' theory (1980) (as cited in Cantone, 2007).

3.9.1. Poplack's Equivalence and Free Morpheme Constraints

According to Cantone (2007), Poplack (1980, 1981) and Sankoff & Poplack (1981), working on Spanish/ English code switching in the Puerto Rican society, suggested two grammatical constraints on code switching: Equivalence Constraints and Free Morpheme Constraints.

3.9.1.1. Equivalence Constraints

According to this model, the switching will occur only if the surface structures of both languages are equivalent. When the two languages share the same surface structure, the syntactic rules of the two languages would not be violated. In this respect, MacSwan (2009,p.311) mentioned that equivalence constraint (henceforth EC) happened when : “codes will tend to be switched at points where the surface structures of the languages map onto each other”.

In the same vein, Poplack (1980) explained equivalence constraints as follows:

code-switches will tend to occur at points in discourse where the juxtaposition of L1 and L2 elements does not violate a syntactic rule of either language, e.i., at points around which the surface structures of the two languages map onto each other. According to this simple constraint, a switch is inhibited from occurring within a constituent generated by a rule from one language which is not shared by the other (Poplack, 1980, p. 586; as cited in Rabia, 2005, p. 1922) .

According to Poplack's words, for CS to occur, the surface structures of both languages participating in the switching should be equivalent. Otherwise, the switching is impossible.

Poplack (1980) emphasized the significance of "linear equivalence between the languages involved at the point of the switch" (as cited in Muysken, 2000, p. 13). Therefore, EC occurs when there are structural similarities between languages and when there are no similarities, switching would be impossible.

Poplack also added:

The order of sentence constituents immediately adjacent to and on both sides of the switch point must be grammatical with respect to both languages involved simultaneously . . . The local co-grammaticality or equivalence of the two languages in the vicinity of the switch holds as long as the order of any two sentence elements, one before and one after the switch point is not excluded in either language (Sankoff and Poplack, 1981, p. 5; as cited in Muysken, 2000).

An instance of the constituent order equivalence constraint is presented here:

I	told him	that	so that	he	would bring it	fast
	×				×	
(Yo)	le dije	eso	pa' que	(él)	la trajera	rápido

(Spanish/English; Poplack, 1980, p.586; as cited in Muysken, 2000, p.14)

Therefore, this of examples switching would be impossible in situations where word order is different in Spanish and English especially around the object pronouns (Muysken, 2000).

Another example taken from the Algerian society would be the following between French and AA:

Je pense que ḥfad l **cour** lbarəḥ

I think he learned the lecture yesterday (Benguedda, 2017, p.44)

3.9.1.2. Free-Morpheme Constraints

Free morpheme constraints (abbreviated as FMC) implied that: “codes may be switched after any constituent in discourse provided that constituent is not a bound morpheme” (Poplack, 1980, pp.585-6; as cited in Muysken, 2000, p. 14). This indicates that switching before and after the bound morpheme²³ is not allowed (Muysken, *Bilingual Speech: A Typology of Code-Mixing*, 2000). This switching would only be possible -between a bound morpheme and a lexical form- only if the lexical morpheme undergoes phonological integration into the language of the bound morpheme. For MacSwan (2009): “a switch may occur at any point in the discourse at which it is possible to make a surface constituent cut and still retain a free morpheme” (p.311).

Algerian Arabic contains a lot of instances of free morpheme constraints. For instance, French verbs ‘biper’ which means ‘to beep’ or ‘buzz’ is integrated into AA as follows

/ʔani nbɪpɪlek/ I will beep you

²³ Bound morphemes are morphemes that cannot stand alone on their own.

In this example, the French verb has taken the AA inflection to express the past and the personal pronoun object *you* is also infected.

Therefore, in the above examples, switching would be impossible if the word 'biper' has not undergone phonological and lexical integration. In this respect, Sankoff and Poplack (1981, p.5) mentioned that: "A switch may not occur between a bound morpheme and a lexical item unless the latter has been phonologically integrated into the language of the bound morpheme." (as cited in MacSwan, 2009, p. 312).

Another example is taken from AA as it is stated by Benguedda (2017,p.43):

nrediziwlu le memoire t_saʃu

we will write to him his first draft

However, Poplack constraints were condemned as a third grammar. This appellation was developed by Pfaff (1979) to mean an intermediate system between languages participating in the mixed sentence. Accordingly, Lipski (1985, pp.83-84) asserted that this generator must be used as a final alternative:

Strict application of Occam's Razor requires that gratuitous meta-structures be avoided whenever possible and that bilingual language behavior is described as much as possible in terms of already existing monolingual grammars. As a result, preference must initially be given to modifications of existing grammars of Spanish and English, rather than to the formulation of a special bilingual generative mechanism, unless experimental evidence inexorably militates in favor of the latter alternative. Among the proposed integrative models which have been examined, the bilingual tagging mechanism of Sankoff and Poplack (1981) has the greatest degree of promise, since it

deals directly with bilingual surface structure and adds no special meta-system to control bilingual language shifting (as cited in MacSwan, 2009, p. 313).

However, both Equivalence Constraint and the Free Morpheme Constraint have been criticized for having many instances of code mixing of typologically distinctive languages and where both constraints are violated (Muysken, 2000).

3.9.2. Matrix Frame Language Model

Basing her work on psycholinguistic and speech production theories, Myers-Scotton (1993) believed that “one language is always the more dominant mode of communication (Matrix Language)” (Kormos, 2006, p. 108) while the Embedded Language is “the less dominant mode of communication” (Kormos, 2006, p. 108). There is, therefore, the hierarchy between languages participating in the switching.

According to Myers-Scotton, ML “is generally the language in which speakers have higher proficiency” (1990, p. 66; as cited in Bentahila & Davies, 1992, p. 445). She added on the same page that ML is “generally the more dominant language in the community in terms of the number of domains in which it is the more marked choice” and “the language more unmarked for the specific type of interaction in which the CS [code-switching] utterances occur” (as cited in Bentahila & Davies, 1992, p. 445). Furthermore, Myers-Scotton suggested that the ML is the language that provides more morphemes in the switching utterance and it can be modified during the same conversation (Bentahila & Davies, 1992).

Myers-Scotton (1993) set up two principles. *The morpheme order principle* which means the order of morphemes is determined by the ML. *The system morpheme principle*

indicates that the system morphemes are those which make the grammatical connection between phrasal constituents and have to be obtained also from the ML.

Muysken (2000) pointed out:

Matrix Language Frame Model crucially incorporates the idea that there is an asymmetrical relation between the **matrix** and the **embedded** language in the mixing situation. Furthermore, **content** and **function** morphemes behave differently in Myers-Scotton's model: the former can be inserted into mixed constituents, when congruent with the matrix language categories, while the latter cannot (Muysken, 2000, p. 16).

Therefore, the MLF model is based on the belief that there are two languages participating in the switching: the matrix and the embedded languages with an asymmetrical connection between them.²⁴ and function²⁵ morphemes operate distinctively; the former may be introduced in mixed elements whereas the latter may not. In this respect, Cantone (2007) asserted that ML "builds a frame in which elements from the EL are switched into, ending up with a mixed utterance" (p. 68).

Based on Myers-Scotton (1993b) and Myers-Scotton and Jake (1995) presentations, Muysken (2000, pp.16-17) listed the properties of this model as:

- a- The ML determines the order of the elements in mixed (ML+EL) constituents (Morpheme Order Principle; Myers-Scotton and Jake, 1995, p. 983): "In ML + EL constituents consisting of singly occurring EL lexemes and any number of ML morphemes, surface morpheme order (reflecting surface syntactic relationships) will

²⁴ Content morphemes (also known as lexical morphemes) are morphemes that have a dictionary meaning and they are generally verbs, nouns, and adjectives among others.

²⁵ Function morphemes (also known grammatical morphemes) are morphemes that do not have dictionary meaning but grammatical function such as preposition, articles, conjunctions and so forth.

be that of the ML.” (Muysken, *Bilingual Speech: A Typology of Code-Mixing*, 2000, p. 17).

- b- There is a fundamental difference in distribution of functional elements and content words in mixed sentences and the ML provides the ‘system morphemes’ (the System Morpheme Principle; Myers-Scotton and Jake, 1995, p. 983): “In ML + EL constituents, all system morphemes that have grammatical relations external to their head constituent (i.e. participate in the sentence’s thematic role grid) will come from the ML.” (as cited in Muysken, 2000, p. 17).
- c- In mixed constituents only certain EL content morphemes may occur (the **Blocking Hypothesis**; Myers-Scotton 1993b: 120): “In ML + EL constituents, a blocking filter blocks any EL content morpheme which is not congruent with the ML with respect to three levels of abstraction regarding subcategorization” (as cited in Muysken, 2000, p. 17).

The Matrix Language can be identified thanks to some aspects which Gardner-chloros (2009, pp.101-102) proposed:

1/ *The quantitative criterion*. It is believed that the ML is the language that contributes to the larger number of morphemes.

2/ *The morpheme-type criterion*. The ML supplied the mixing sentence with function words.

3/ *Other characteristics of the Matrix Language*. The Matrix language could be identified in various ways:

- Psycholinguistic: the ML is regarded to be more ‘activated in the human brain than the EL. Yet, it is ambiguous and how this could be proved.
- Social: it is believed that the ML mirrors the ‘unmarked choice’.

4/ *Further possible grammatical criteria.* Other researchers proposed that the ML could be identified by the language of the main verb (Lavans, 1985; Treffers-Daller, 1990). Other researchers such as Doron (1983) and Joshi (1985) believed that the ML can be detected by the first main element in the sentence while Nishimura (1997) suggested that word order is considered as the relevant criterion

Myers-Scotton's model was criticized for many outcomes: the concept of ML is very harsh and defining system morphemes is doubtful.

3.9.3. Government Constraint

The government constraint (abbreviated as GC) is a theory developed by Disciullo, Muysken, and Singh(1986) so as to explain and restrict code switching (Cantone, 2007). Unlike EC, the GC focuses on limiting language switching at the level of structure and not on a linear level and mixing is impossible when components have a lexical reliance (Cantone, 2007)

Cantone(2007) mentioned that this theory is based on the X-bar theory which indicates that the head predicts its properties within the phrase and thus it has straight ahead influence on its immediate compliments. In the same vein, Disciullo, Muysken and Singh (1986,p. 6) explained their restriction as : "X governs Y if the first node dominating X also dominates Y, where X is a major category N, V, A, P, and no maximal boundary intervenes between X and Y"(as cited in Cantone, 2007, p. 64) . According to this constraint, alternation between a verb and an object or between a preposition and the determiner are unstructured as it is the case in the following example of Italian / French switching:

1- El 'Altro dice come s 'apelle

And the other one says how is (he) called

2- Dice quando paye, **all right!**

Says (he) when pays (he), all right!

3- Io posso fare i cheques

I can make the cheques

(1986,p.13; as cited in Cantone,2007, p.65)

According to the above-cited examples, (1) and (2) are grammatically correct since the complementizer may be distinct from the embedded sentence, yet it should be in the same language of the governing verb. The last sentence presents a problem whether to follow the traditional view that the head of the phrase is the noun or that the determiner in such types of switching must be in French. Therefore, this sentence is considered as unstructured since GC does not permit for switching between the head and its complement.

3.9.4. Functional Heads Constraints

Functional Heads Constraints (FHC) proposed by Belazi, Rubin, and Toribio (1994) anticipates that between a functional head and its complement mixing should not happen (Cantone, 2007). The authors defined FHC as “the language feature of the complement f-selected by a functional head, like all other relevant features, must match the corresponding feature of that functional head”(1994, p. 228; as cited in Cantone, 2007, p. 66). They have even added that there is a ‘language feature’ which serves to stop the switchings if they are ungrammatical as it is the case when the functional head and its complement are not from the same language.

Examples from Spanish/ English switching suggested by Belazi, Rubin and Toribio(1994, p. 224) as follows:

- 1- The professor said *que el estudiante habia recibido una A*
- 2- *El profesor dijo* that the student had received an A
- 3- The professor said that *el estudiante habia recibido una A*
- 4- *El profesor dijo que* the student had received an A

The professor said that the student had received an A

(Cantone, 2007, p. 66)

According to the above examples, sentences (1) and (2) are not grammatical since the language of the complementizer is different from that of the complement clause and which should be from the same language like the governing verb. This mixing is rejected by FHC (Cantone, 2007). This was supported by Toribio (2001) when he asserted that “a functional head and its complement must be drawn from the same sub-class of items in the lexicon, precluding switching between functional elements (e.g., MOD/AUX, NEG, and COMP) and their f-selected complements”(203, as cited in Cantone, 2007,p.66). Therefore, there should be no mixing between the functional head²⁶ and its complement²⁷. An example of this model will be the following:

ana ma l **écrie** - j
 1sg neg 3sg v neg
 I do not it write not

(Benguedda, 2017, p. 45)

²⁶ The functional head can be complementizer, qualifier, inflection, determiner, and negation (Benguedda, 2017, p. 45)

²⁷ The complement can be a noun phrase, a verb phrase and an inflection phrase (Benguedda, 2017, p. 45)

This switching is not permitted since there is no match between the determiner and its complement. This can be allowed between the demonstrative and definite determiners as it is the case in the following example:

hæd façon

This way

(Benguedda, 2017, p. 45).

3.10. Diglossic Code Switching

Code switching does not occur only between different genetically languages, but it happens also between varieties of the same language. Since the present study turns around diglossic code switching , some space should be given to that concept.

3.10.1. What is Diglossic Code Switching?

As it is defined earlier, CS can occur between genetically unrelated languages or between varieties of the same language. When the switching happens between different varieties of the same language, it is called diglossic code switching or simply diglossic switching. It is called so because the switching here occurs in a diglossic situation, that is, between high and low varieties. Sayahi (2014) defined diglossic switching as “the act of juxtaposing the H and the L varieties of the same historical language during a communicative event” (p.80).

Earlier researches on CS were centralized on CS from Arabic to other different languages (Bentahila, 1983; Eid, 1992; Safi, 1992; Al-Mansour, 1998; Al-Enazi, 2002; as cited in Soliman, 2008). For instance, in Algeria, people are caught switching between French and Arabic as it is the case in the following example /ʔanɪ frɪt la vest nwaʔ llɪʕezbetnɪ/.

Bassiouney (2009) asserted that diglossic switching is one type of CS because, according to her, “varieties is a cover term for selections at all linguistic levels so that choices between varieties include, for example, choices of one language rather than another, one dialect over another one style or register over another, and one form of a directive or refusal over another” (Myers-Scotton, 1998b, p. 18; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p. 29).

Muyers-scotton (1986) pointed out that diglossic CS resembles to CS at many levels. She suggested that the main distinction between them is that “the lack of occurrence of diglossic code-switching as an overall unmarked choice, i.e., without any attempt from the speakers to negotiate or maintain the set of rights and obligations through switching, as is expected in cases where code-switching is a marked choice” (Sayahi, 2014, p. 80). This is because each variety has its distribution and for Muyers-Scotton (1986, pp.411-410) “such switching is not possible in narrow diglossia because there are not two different sets of role models for a given exchange. Either H gets used for all speech events under this type of exchange or L gets used” (Sayahi, 2014, p. 80).

According to Sayahi (2014), some situations where MSA is supposed to be the unmarked choice, but once the speakers change from read-aloud process to communicating freely style, switching to vernacular would be possible. Therefore, intersentential CS occurs between the two, and speakers switch to vernacular to comment upon what has already been said in MSA as it is the case of religious sermons.

3.10.2. Motivations and Discourse Functions of Diglossic Switching

Diglossic switching is used to fulfill particular functions.

Bassiouney (2009) mentioned that "diglossic switching as part of code switching has one significant characteristic: "it is used as a linguistic device to create an effect on the listener or audience"(p.280). It can be used as a useful strategy and a "tool for understanding and clarifying meaning" (Reyes, 2004_a; Ervin-Tripp & Reyes, 2005; as cited in Reyes & Moll, 2008, p. 150). However, Sometimes switching to vernacular occurs consciously and naturally and even the effort to be constant in MSA is a bit conscious (Sayahi, 2014)

Bassiouney (2009) pointed out that there are a lot of researches that investigated the motivations to the switching between the H and the L varieties in Arabic-speaking communities.

By applying the accommodation theory, Abu-Melhim (1991) wanted to describe communication among Arabic dialects. He suggested that Arabic people, speakers of various dialects, find it inaccurate to use MSA when talking to each other. In his study, he showed that Arabic speakers do not only switch to MSA, but to their regional dialects and to other dialects too. For instance, Jordanians may switch from their dialect to Egyptian Colloquial Arabic (ECA) or to English for clarification and emphasis(1991, p.242). Yet, they may switch to MSA in order to quote or to insist on a statement. Further, Jordanians switch from Jordanian Arabic to ECA to accommodate to the dominant prestigious variety (Egyptian Arabic) and, thus, to facilitate conversation (1991, p.237; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p.71).

Holes (1993), in his study, emphasized the role of the speaker and he stated that there are constantly 'intentions' and 'strategies' that affect language choice. He asserted that "Speakers are free to move up and down it [the stylistic spectrum] in accordance with what

they perceive to be the moment-by-moment requirements for appropriate language use” (1993, p. 15; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p.71).

In the same vein, Mejdell (1996) conducted a study on the stylistic variations of spoken Arabic. She reached the same conclusion obtained by Holes (1993). According to Mejdell (1996), speakers generally “switch from MSA to ECA when giving examples, explaining, rephrasing or commenting on a previous statement in MSA.” (Bassiouney R. , *Arabic Sociolinguistics*, 2009, p. 72). She also pointed out that the selection of the code depends on how the speakers regard themselves and the others. Further, in order to investigate code choice, this has to be done in accordance to the speaker’s shift of roles versus his or her audience (Mejdell, 1999, p.231; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009, p.72). Further, Bassiouney (2009) asserted that this point has been already discussed by Muiyers-scotton (1993) when she mentioned that people can select codes yet this selection is described according to a limited interpretation of markedness.

More commonly, as it has been portrayed by Walters (1996b, 1996c, 2003), diglossic CS occurs with the vernacular functioning as a base language since “Lexical availability and the desire, or perhaps the need as determined by the context, to avoid certain features of the dialect that are not shared by MSA leads to individual lexical items being inserted from MSA.” (Sayahi, 2014, p. 81). Moreover, in some situations, it is difficult to decide whether using MSA vocabulary items that are adapted with phonetic characteristics of vernacular is to be considered as CS or borrowing (Sayahi, 2014).

In addition, Sayahi(2014) asserted that the insertion of a single word into MSA base is not needed only when there is a lack of competence. However, diglossic CS beyond single word from the vernacular base is usually in the form of a quotation or humorous comment.

A great deal of diglossic CS occurs in MSA is the unmarked code in situations like education, politics, and religion so forth (Sayahi, 2014).

To sum up, according to what has been said earlier, diglossic CS can be used for:

*Clarification

*Emphasis

*Quotation

*Explanation

*Rephrasing

*Commenting on previous statements

3.10.3. The Structure of Diglossic Code Switching

Studies on diglossic code switching have shown that its structure is directed by the same rules as those in bilingual CS (Sayahi, 2014). Myers-Scotton (1968) drew a conclusion that the only distinction between CS and diglossic CS is that the latter happens as an unmarked choice while CS occurs as a marked choice

3.11. Children's Code Switching

Code switching, as a language behaviour, is widespread among people bilingual people to fulfill a particular function. It is used not used only by bilingual adults, but even children at an early age are caught switching with fascinating way.

3.11.1. What is Children's Code Switching?

Adults' CS is "a useful, sophisticated, and rule-governed feature of language use among bilinguals" (Genesee & Nicoladis, 2007, pp. 330-331) while children's CS is seen a sign of disorder and child's inability to separate the two systems. In other words, several parents consider CS as a natural stage in language development, others regard it incorrect socially and cognitively; while for other parents, who live in societies which practice CS, it is the norm (Raugenaud, 2009).

Reyes & Moll (2008) defined children CS as "a linguistic phenomenon in which children blend two languages." (p.150). At an early phase of acquiring additional language, children would switch the code between the first and the second language. They scatter the known vocabulary among the two languages. By so doing, they prove their fluency in communication and their understanding of languages. Kids substitute words in accordance with their linguistic expertise and the additional language is truly embellish (Brock & Rankin, 2008).

Fromkin et al (2003), gave the example of child mixing English and French in the same sentence as it is shown below:

His nose is **perdu** (His nose is lost)

A house pink (A pink house)

That's to me (That's mine)

(Fromkin, Rodman, & Hyams, 2003, p. 375).

Genesee & Nicoladis (2007) indicated that the degree of children's mixing varies according to the form of mixing (whether it is intersentential or intrasentential), the type of the switched units (grammatical or lexical morphemes), the language used in conversation (the child is not as proficient as adult in language), and the type of interlocutors (whether the

speaker is bilingual or monolingual). It must be noted that individual differences between children exist concerning the degree and the genre of switching.

Unlike McClure(1981), Zentella(1997) and Reyes(2004), Cantone (2007) asserted that CS may be investigated the same as adult CS since the amount of alternation produced by children is not determined by language development but instead by individual choice , language dominance and so on (Potowski, 2009)

Rauguenaud (2009) mentioned that scholars are not annoyed about children's mixing of languages. He referred to professor Grosjean who believed that bilingual children "will be creative and play with their languages the same way monolingual children do as they develop their language skills. They're learning to express themselves, and they just happen to have more resources at their disposal" (Rauguenaud, 2009, p. 24).

On the other hand , Genese (1995) mentioned that "recent studies suggest that bilingual children, who are exposed to approximately equal input in the two languages only if they hear language –mixing from their parents, and actually have no difficulties in keeping language systems separate" (as cited in Kovács, 2007, p.302). Furthermore, it is observed that children may switch the code because people around them do so (Pearson, 2009). Lanza(1997) displayed that children's amount of code-switching shadowed nearly their parents' amount (Pearson, 2009). Therefore, code switching is learned and used by children like any other behaviour.

Genesee & Nicoladis (2007) pointed to the fact that studies on child's CS aimed at determining the grammatical and functional characteristics so as to decide whether the child's CS is rule-governed or an indication of his incompetence.

3.11.2. Common Reasons for children's Code Switching

Children's CS is like adults' switching, motivated by some factors.

Rauguenaud (2009) listed the reasons behind a child's mixing of languages in their conversation or in the same sentence:

- Hasn't learned the corresponding vocabulary word yet
- The word has just been used and is easier to remember
- Uses the word in one language more often
- Personal preference
- Wants to get your attention
- The word has specific cultural meaning in one language and not in the other
- Wants to express her bilingual identity
- Aware that the person she's speaking with is bilingual
- Relates an emotion that is linked to a particular language
- Wants to exclude someone from the conversation
- Chooses the shortest word out of pure laziness (my case as a teenager!)

(Rauguenaud, 2009, pp. 24-25)

3.11.3. Functions of Children's CS

Like adults' code switching, Children use CS to fulfill some functions.

Pinter (2011) mentioned that children switch the code to complete the lexical and grammatical gap (Nicoladis and Scco, 2000). Moreover, kids tend to use CM in some situation more than others since it is 'context-dependent' (Pinter, 2011, p. 70). Further, CS is related to identity. Pan (1995; as cited in Pinter, 2011), in his study, noted that the kids

managed to alternate between Mandarin and English in their speech more than their parents. The researcher holds that this variation between kids' and their parents' use of CS is due to 'self-identity' which means that kids affiliate themselves to the large society and to the English language. "Although social identity categories do exist in the minds of people, often linked to particular ways of speaking, speakers use language in creative ways to both associate themselves with pre-existent categories and to create new social identities for themselves" (Mendoza-Denton, 2002; as cited in Fuller, 2009, p. 117). Fuller (2009) pointed out that these social identities are flexible and changeable and the varied social identities could be established according to different social situations.

According to the researcher, kids are also observed frequently switching the code between languages to fit various interlocutors. The quantity of the switched pattern will depend upon parents' and interlocutors' select of languages and mixing behaviours. Parents may insist on their children to use only one language without switching to the other language whereas some others may support their kids' switching.

Previous studies on children's CS showed that the patterns of the switched sentences produce by children evolve gradually; the first switching includes chiefly lexical elements and the subsequent switching contains prolonged segments (McClure, 1981; Meisel, 1994; Zentella, 1997; as cited in Potowski, 2009). In this respect, Zentella(1997) uncovered that younger children handle their linguistic codes for a broader diversity of stylistic purposes and situational requirements (Potowski, 2009). Zentella (1997) concluded his study that "the younger children's codeswitching was dominated by lexical gaps and translations, while the older girls' codeswitching consisted predominately of realigning the conversation by breaking into narratives and shifting roles." (Potowski, 2009, p. 89) .

3.11.4. Grammatical properties of Children's CS

Children need to learn the grammar of the two languages and how to integrate them when speaking so as to be able to switch the code in conversation (Genesee & Nicoladis, 2007). Therefore, significant understandings of the children's ability to use two languages are supplied by proof of grammatical constraints²⁸ on children's CS. Hence, if these constraints are the same as adults' ones, this means that CS originates grammatically from bilingual grammatical development (Genesee & Nicoladis, 2007).

Genese and Nicoladis (2007) pointed out that there were several studies conducted in order to investigate the grammatical constraints of bilingual children of some various languages such as French and German (Köppe, in press; Meisel, 1994), French and English (Paradis, Nicoladis, & Genese, 2000; Sauve & Genese, 2000 as cited in Genesee & Nicoladis, 2007), among others. Researchers achieved that Children's CS is grammatically constrained since they can alternate languages in the sentence when the grammar of the two languages is compatible and they rarely switch the code when the grammar of both languages is not compatible.

3.12. Diglossic Code Switching in Classroom

There is a great number of studies on code switching since it can happen in different settings whether formal or informal. It has been even investigated in the classroom when it is used by teachers and learners.

²⁸ The two grammatical systems are not violated in mixing (Pinter, 2011, p. 69)

However, according to Kamwangamalu (2010), the connection between CS and diglossia in classroom situation has been rarely investigated. Kamwangamalu (2010) asserted that diglossic CS “constitutes a fertile area for further research”(p.120) and that the definition of diglossia needs reconsideration “for modern language practices in multilingual communities around the world are at odds with the premise on which diglossia is based, namely, strict functional compartmentalization of languages”(p.121).

Conclusion

The present chapter has been devoted to code switching. It has been considered indispensable to define the phenomenon of CS by referring to different definitions from structural, psycholinguistic and pragmatic view point. Some space has been also devoted to the classifications of CS. Further, this chapter has included approaches to CS, and some terms related to CS have been defined such as code mixing and borrowing. Motivations to CS have also been stated. It has been essential to state the functions of CS in addition to its grammatical constraints.

Since the topic is about diglossic CS when used by young children, definition, functions of diglossic switching have been discussed. More precisely, children's CS has been defined with stating its common reasons, functions, and grammatical constraints. Diglossic CS in classroom has also been discussed in this chapter.

The following chapter is going to be about the field of investigation. A qualitative research approach is to be adopted using an ethnographic method based on triangulation: participant observation, interviews and analysis of artifacts.

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Introduction

Code switching, as a sociolinguistic phenomenon, is widespread among bilingual communities. It was viewed negatively and considered as a language deficiency. Recent studies conclude that it is a language variation resulting when languages get into contact.

To investigate this phenomenon, researchers used some techniques such as: recordings, transcriptions, interviews, questionnaires and so forth. These tools and so many others aim at collecting data that serve to investigate, describe, and present this phenomenon.

The present research aims at investigating code switching and more precisely diglossic switching when used by children of preparatory level at 'Dib Tahar' primary school. The means used to gather data is ethnography.

Using an ethnographic data collection procedure means that the researcher becomes a participant and an observer at the same time. This implies that her role is to participate in learners' daily activities and to be an observer to their behaviours. This indicates that she has to be present with them for a long period of time.

The current chapter aims at clarifying the method of the research adopted by defining and explaining it theoretically. It is indispensable when using a methodology to have a deep understanding of its principles, advantages, features, and implementation.

Furthermore, some space is devoted to describe some aspects of the Algerian dialect and to compare it to MSA. The researcher then can use this description while analyzing the data obtained from the participant observation and the recordings.

4.1. Quantitative or Qualitative Method

In conducting any scientific research, the methods used are: quantitative, qualitative or both. The researcher has to know the characteristics, advantages and disadvantages of each approach.

Quantitative research method is a kind of research that sprang from the field of psychology especially because there was a great reliance on the use of statistics to generalize results from samples to population (Jr, 2011). In this kind of research, large quantity of data could be gathered, but it does not need much contact with people (Dawson, 2002).

Qualitative research method, on the other hand, emerged from anthropology and sociology because researchers in these fields depend, to a great extent, on verbal description instead of statistics (Jr, 2011). It can be defined as a ‘research that is based on descriptive data that does not make (regular) use of statistical procedures’ (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 162).

In this kind of research, attitudes, behaviours and experiences are investigated by trying to get comprehensive opinions from the informants (Dawson, 2002). In such a case, the sample contains few people, but the researcher would spend longer time with them.

Mackey & Gass (2005) mentioned some characteristics included to define qualitative research:

- *Rich description*: qualitative research is based on elaborate description which is different from quantitative research which is centered on ratings, measurements and frequencies.

- *Natural and holistic representation*: the main goal of qualitative research is the study of individuals and events in their natural environments. Qualitative researchers want to present the phenomena in their natural and holistic picture which includes: sociocultural context and microlevel phenomena.
- *Few participants*: quantitative researchers are interested in generalizing their data and for that reason they rely on large randomly selected sample. However, quantitative researchers rely on small samples.
- *Emic Perspectives*: Qualitative researchers have to take into account meanings people attached to phenomena.
- *Cyclical and open-ended processes*: the quantitative research frequently starts with predefined research questions which serve as a guideline through the process of data collection and analysis. However, in quantitative research, an inductive method is followed starting with some notions. Thus, while quantitative research aims at testing already defined hypotheses, the qualitative research tries to observe the phenomenon and questions could appear from the context. Simply, the qualitative research is ‘is often process-oriented or open ended, with categories that emerge’ (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 163).
- *Possible Ideological orientations*: while impartiality is the main aim of quantitative researchers, the qualitative researchers prefer the ideological positions. This kind of research may be also known as ‘critical’ which means the researcher can have both political and social goals (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 164).
- *Research questions tend to be general and open ended*: the research question may be formulated as a result of the qualitative research rather than at an initial stage of the study. In this respect, Brown stated (2003) that “one of the great strengths often cited

for qualitative research is its potential for forming new hypotheses”(p.485 as cited in Mackey & Gass,2005, p.164).

In a word, qualitative research method is based on the use of verbal description while quantitative research method is characterized by the use of numbers to present data (Jr F. , 2011). Qualitative analysis is different from quantitative research because the former is subjective and it is harder. In this respect, Ochieng (2009, p.17) mentioned that :

The aim of qualitative analysis is a complete, detailed description. No attempt is made to assign frequencies to the linguistic features which are identified in the data, and rare phenomena receive (or should receive) the same amount of attention as more frequent phenomena (Hamzaoui C. , 2017, p. 188).

This means that in qualitative analysis there is no statistics but a detailed description of the phenomenon.

As far as the present work is concerned, it is a qualitative research and it aims at describing a phenomenon rather than generalizing data.

4.2. Means of Gathering Qualitative Data

According to Mackey and Gass (2005), in order to collect data there are many different techniques that could be used and it is necessary for a researcher to know the advantages and the disadvantages of each. These techniques are:

- ✓ Ethnographies

- ✓ Interviews
- ✓ Diaries/ journals
- ✓ Case studies
- ✓ Observational Techniques

Since the present work is qualitative in nature, an ethnographic research method is applied.

4.3. Ethnography

In order to study language variation and language change, as a main goal of sociolinguistics, the attention has been to be focused on recognizing linguistic systems in relation to the larger social matrices (Levon, 2013). According to Levon (2013), “language never exists in a social vacuum”(p.69). In this respect, Labov (1963, p.275) stated: “One cannot understand language [variation and] change apart from the social life of the community in which it occurs” (as cited in Levon, 2013, p. 69).

4.3.1. What is Ethnography

Ethnography is a word composed of two morphemes; ‘*ethno*’ which means culture and ‘*graphy*’ means description (Tavakoli, 2012). Thus, it is the description of cultures and behaviours of people.

Ethnography originates from anthropology and it refers to the investigation of human societies and culture (Jr , 2011; Denscombe, 2007). In the early 1900s, anthropology studied small groups and rural societies (Reeves et al, 2008). Anthropological researchers like

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Bronislaw *Malinowski* and *Alfred Radcliffe-Brown* contributed in the study of these societies. Afterwards, the members of the Chicago School of Sociology, selected this approach and employed it in various urban settings for their researches of social life (Reeves et al, 2008).

Further, Descombe (2007) defined ethnography as the investigation of cultures and groups in trying to examine people's lifestyle, understandings and beliefs. Ethnography, thus, focuses on the significance of comprehending things from the insider's opinion and not from the researcher's point of view.

Hammersley and Atkinson (2007) also defined ethnography by focusing on what the researchers do:

Ethnography usually involves the ethnographer participating, overtly or covertly, in people's daily lives for an extended period of time, watching what happens, listening to what is said, and/or asking questions through informal and formal interviews, collecting documents and artifacts- in fact, gathering whatever data are available to throw light on the issues that are the emerging focus of inquiry.

(Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007, p.3; as cited in O'reilly, 2012,p.2)

Brewer (2000) also referred to ethnography as "telling it like it is from the inside" (p.17). This definition indicates that an ethnographer's task is to get into the informants life and describe it as it is. Brewer (2000) mentioned two categories of definitions 'big' and 'small' ethnography. According to him, 'big' ethnography is synonymous to qualitative research or 'ethnography-understood-as-the-qualitative-method' (p.18) while others explain ethnography as 'field research' or fieldwork' which is referred to as 'little' ethnography or 'ethnography-

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understood-as-fieldwork’ (p.18). According to this definition, ethnography is ‘the way of doing things’ (Brewer, 2000, p.18) a way of doing qualitative research and this definition is presented by Burgess as follows:

Field research involves the study of real-life situation. Field researchers therefore observe people in the settings in which they live, and participate in their day to day activities. The methods that can be used in these studies are unstructured, flexible and open-ended (Burgess, 1982, p. 15; as cited in Brewer, 2000, p.18).

This definition considers ethnography as a method and a methodology. ‘Little’ ethnography aims to present judgements about: informants in natural setting, observation and description about what the informants are doing in their setting by the researchers’ direct participation, and data are collected in a natural setting (Brewer, 2000).

One of the characteristics of the ethnographic study in the presence of the researcher closely to the participants for prolonged period of time (Jr , 2011).

According to Dawson (2002), ethnographers involve themselves in the cultures and lives of people being studied usually by surviving with the group for some months and the researchers, in this case, take part in groups’ activities. At the same time, they keep observing their behaviours and taking notes, administering interviews and writing reports. The latter is known as fieldwork or participant observation (Dawson, 2002, p. 17) .

Generally, ethnography includes extended investigation of one or two years. This period of involvement permits the researcher to have in-depth and continuing observations. By doing so, the researcher gets an emic and holistic view about the participants and their context (Mckay, 2006).

Reflexivity is a key feature of ethnographic work and it is the relationship the researcher has with the world s/he examines. Reflexivity is then seen in the description of the researcher's experiences and ideas (Reeves, et al, 2008) .

The term ethnography is usually used synonymously with participant observation (Green & Thorogood, 2004).

4.3.2. Aims of Doing Ethnography

Ethnography is designed to understand a particular behaviour or phenomenon. The main aim of ethnography is to investigate what people are doing and the reasons why they do it (Tavakoli, 2012). To do so, researchers use different data collection procedures such as observations and field work. The outcome is a cultural portrait that includes the point of view of the participants in addition to researchers' point of view (emic and etic perspectives) (Tavakoli, 2012, p. 199). In other words, ethnography is to “provide rich, holistic insights into people's views and actions, as well as the nature (that is, sights, sounds) of the location they inhabit, through the collection of detailed observations and interviews.” (Reeves et al, 2008, p. 512).

Johnson (1992, p.134) believed that the main aim of ethnography is “to describe and interpret the cultural behaviour, including communicative behaviour, of a group” (as cited in (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 167). Ethnography also aims “to give emically oriented description of the cultural practices of individuals” (Ramanathan & Aktinson, 1999, p.49; as cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 167), that is, to “produce detailed pictures of events or cultures” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 66).

4.3.3. Features of Ethnographic Research

Hammersley (1992) summarized some key features of ethnographic research as follow:

- ☑ A strong emphasis on exploring the nature of a particular social phenomenon, rather than setting out to test hypotheses about it.
- ☑ A tendency to work primarily with “unstructured data”—that is, data that have not been coded at the point of data collection as a closed set of analytical categories.
- ☑ Investigation of a small number of cases (perhaps even just one case) in detail.
- ☑ Analysis of data that involves explicit interpretation of the meanings and functions of human actions; the product of this analysis primarily takes the form of verbal descriptions and explanations.

(as cited in Reeves et al, 2008, p. 512)

4.3.4. Principles for Planning Ethnographic Research

When the researcher is planning to conduct an ethnographic fieldwork, s/he has to follow some of these general methodological principles suggested by Levon (2013):

- i. The researcher has to be prepared by developing knowledge on the community under study. This knowledge may come from previous academic research or from personal interactions with that community, as well as from information that has been collected from reliable sources.
- ii. The researcher has to be adaptable. This means that s/he has to be flexible. The researcher could never predict each situation s/he would encounter or confront in the

field. As a result, the researcher has to be always aware that things are not to be as it was expected when she was an outsider.

- iii. Ethnographer has to be mindful. In other words, s/he needs to determine meaningful forms in the behaviour which seems for the others clear. Thus, the researcher has to stay attentive to even small details which appear unimportant in the interaction observed.
- iv. The researcher has to be respectful. This means s/he needs to respect the participants and to show gratitude for the devoted time and be allowed to enter their lives.

According to Woods (1986), there are two distinct approaches to ethnography: on one side, it is considered as mainly idiographic which means a description of specific situation and which is not meant for generalisation . On the other side, there are those who believe that the ethnography is nomothetic which means it is used for generalizing.

4.3.5. Advantages and Disadvantages of Ethnography

There are many advantages and disadvantages of ethnography.

4.3.5.1. Advantages of Ethnography

According to Mackey & Grass (2005), using ethnography as a means of research is advantageous since:

- ✓ Research questions used in studies conducted by this method is not static; they can be changed and revised at any particular moment and polished since the study proceeds discovering new knowledge.

- ✓ It is also beneficial when the context is not really known to generate formal hypotheses.
- ✓ One of the advantages of participant observation is that it permits ethnographers to involve themselves in the informants' setting and this leads to understand well social action (Reeve et al, 2008). Moreover, it helps the ethnographer to get empirical insights into the social actions which are covered. It can also determine, investigate and relate social phenomena which are not interlinked (Reeves et al, 2008).

4.3.5.2. Disadvantages

Ethnography has been criticized for a number of reasons:

- Finding a balance between the insider and outsider view is one of the disadvantages of ethnography (Mckay, 2006).
- Ethnography has been criticized for its imprecision, and lack of rigour, in addition to its disposition to the description and representation of events and not quantity (Pole & Morrison, 2003).
- It has also been suspected for its subjectivity since researchers interpret a particular social action and present their opinions in a style that resembles to that of a journalist rather than a scientist (Pole & Morrison, 2003). In addition, ethnography has been criticized for its incapability to generalize and this has been explained because of time and space constraints (Pole & Morrison, 2003).

- Another limitation of this method is the extensive period of time the ethnographer needs while observing the participants that not all researchers can do (Tavakoli, 2012).
- Ethnography is also criticized for being a snapshot since there is a concentration on a particular period of study and the researcher's results are limited to particular time and there is no large contextualization (Woods, 1988). In order to solve such a problem, there should be a kind of coordinated team work (Hammersley,1980 ; Woods,1984b; as cited in Woods, 1988) so as to enhance the validity.

4.3.6. Doing Ethnographic Research

Ethnography commonly concentrates on the group not the individual and emphasizes the significance of placing the research within larger sociocultural context and demonstrates an emic perspective of the phenomena (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Before doing any ethnographic research, the researcher has to get in the community under study and so as not to be stranger. To do so, there are some techniques such as: the friend-of-a-friend and a broker technique. The former is introducing the researcher to the community by a friend who is already a member in the community while the latter means introducing the researcher to the community by someone who has already worked with the members of the community like local teachers, former researchers or government/religious officials (Levon, 2013).

4.3.6.1. Triangulation

Triangulation consists of using different research methods and different data sources so as to examine the issue from several perspectives.

Ethnographic methodology is mainly based on triangulation which means to include the use of many methods and data sources to validate the researchers' interpretations of a community (Mckay, 2006). Following the same line of thought, Mckay & Gass (2005) defined triangulation as: “it entails the use of multiple, independent methods of obtaining data in a single investigation in order to arrive at the same research findings” (p. 181). Johnson (1992) pointed out to the importance of triangulation by saying that “it reduces observer and interviewer bias and enhances the validity and reliability (accuracy) of information” (p.146; as cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005). That is, one research method cannot present a full picture of what is going on.

Also, Reeves et al (2008) described triangulation as “a technique designed to compare and contrast between different types of methods to help provide more comprehensive insights into the phenomenon under study.”(p.514). This technique is very beneficial because people’s actions may contradict with what they could say.

4.3.6.2. Types of Triangulation

There are three types of triangulation: *theoretical*, *investigator* and *methodological* triangulation. These types are clarified by Reeves et al (2008) as follows:

- ❖ **Data triangulation** means the use of various sources of data to investigate the phenomenon in different settings.

- ❖ *Investigator triangulation*: consists of using several researchers to produce different views on the data.
- ❖ *Theory triangulation*: in this type of triangulation, the researcher uses various concepts and theories to tackle the data so as to discover how each theory contributes to comprehend the data.

4.3.7. Means of Gathering Ethnographic Data

The most widespread means of data collection in an ethnographic research are: *participant observation, interviews and analysis of cultural artifacts.*

4.3.7.1. Participant Observation

Participant observation is indispensable when doing any ethnographic research

4.3.7.1.1. What is Participant Observation?

Participant observation is considered as a hallmark of ethnographic research and it is defined as “residing or spending considerable lengths of time interacting with people in everyday naturalistic settings, observing and recording their activities in extensive fieldnotes, and interviewing and conversing with them to learn their perspectives, attitudes, beliefs, and values”(Salzaman, 2001; as cited in Harklau, 2005, p. 180).

Therefore, participant observation means that the researcher is taking part in the participants’ environment and s/he observes them while s/he is living with them. That is, the

ethnographer is going to play two roles: a *participant* to be involved in the field and to live with informants and which may last for long period of time; and an *observer* to observe the informants. In this respect, Robson (1993, p. 197) stated that:

The fact that an observer is an observer is made clear from the start. The observer then tries to establish close relationships with members of the group. This stance means that as well as observing through participating in activities, the observer can ask members to explain various aspects of what is going on. It is important to get the trust of key members of the group (key either because of their position or because of personal qualities such as openness or interest in the ways of the group) (as cited in James, 2007,p.40)

This indicates that the researcher is involved in the environment of the participants and his/her task is to observe and attempt to be very closer to the members of the group and s/he tries to understand their behaviours. Moreover, s/he can ask the participants about the activities they are doing. It is worth mentioning that the observer should be trusted and should establish a strong relationship with the participants so as to be involved in the group.

In participant observation, there is an immediate contact between the researcher and the informants in the setting (Pole & Morrison, 2003). Wilson & Sapsford (2006) mentioned that the participant observer takes part in a social group and questions that he asks are coincidental and originate from typical social interaction of the group being observed.

Participant observation can contain asking questions; yet, the questions emerge naturally during the observation and not pre-prepared (Wilson & Sapsford, 2006).

4.3.7.1.2. How to Conduct Participant Observation

According to Mckay (2006), Observation is one of the most important components of ethnographic research. In order to conduct a participant observation, the following aspects are needed to be considered:

- 1) **What to observe:** there are four fundamental elements of observation in doing any ethnographic research: the *setting, systems, people, and behavior* (Richards, 2003; as cited in Mckay, 2006,p.79).

For the setting, the researcher has to concentrate on space and objects. Mckay (2003,p.80) suggested the following questions:

1. What space is available in the classroom? Is certain space designated for particular functions? (Distribution).
2. Do certain individuals inhabit particular portions of the space? For example, is the teacher typically in one space and the students in other spots? (Territories).
3. Do certain activities take place in one place as opposed to another? Is there, for example, a particular place for less structured activities? (Activities).
4. Does certain space designate a specific role? Do students sitting in particular positions in the classroom have any specific roles? (Roles)

The second aspect to be observed is the *systems*. This may be formal and informal. Participants may follow specific procedure with formal system. An example of the formal system would be the distribution of books in the classroom which can be done according to

pre-specified order as it can be informal if the books are elected by students. With formal systems, classrooms can be structured.

The third point to be observed is the *people*. Richards (2003) stated that “the observer considers what role each individual plays, what the relationship is between the actors in the setting, and what interactions and feelings are evident.” (as cited in Mckay, 2006, p. 80). By so doing, the researcher could discover whether the participant is accomplishing a particular role in classrom and his/her relation with the other participants in the classroom.

The fourth element to be observed is *behaviour*. In observing the particiants in the classroom, Richards(2003) maintained that there are several aspects that should be observed involving the timing, routines and events. Activities being delt with at the beginning of the lesson are more imortant than those done later, therefore, *timing* is so significant. Classroom *routines* found arrangements of classroom behaviour where learners look for some activities to happen following specific order. The basis of routine is offered by *events* which are some connected activities and which involve listening tasks, storytelling and vocabulary quizzes.

To sum up, the researcher has to be aware and to observe everything. In this respect, Geertz (1973) illustrated the technique of ethnography as ‘thick description’ (Levon, 2013, p. 205):

2) ***How to observe***: ethnographers have to put emphasis on some facet of the classroom.

Richards (2003; as cited in Mckay, 2006) proposed four strategies for observation; the researcher may use one strategy then he could move to the other:

- I. The first strategy consists of observing and recording everything. This leads the observer to get a general look at the environment.
- II. The second strategy is to examine the environment without any precise aim. This leads the researcher to pay attention to abnormal incidence.

III. The third strategy consists of anomaly or contradictions as in a change of student's behaviour from being silent to abruptly being very talkative.

IV. The last strategy is to determine problems that face the group. Using this strategy, the observer may concentrate on a specific classroom problem which is occurring.

3) ***Taking Field Notes***: quality ethnographic studies need an in depth descriptive field notes so as to record what the researcher has seen or heard inside. Field notes have to include everything the researcher may see or hear and s/he believes it is crucial while the style of the note-taking may vary from one researcher to another. Researcher's notes have to include 'when and where the notes are taken, who was present, and what activities occurred.' (Mckay, *Researching Second Language Classrooms*, 2006, p. 81).

Suggestions for Taking Field Notes

Patton (1990; as cited in Mckay, 2006) proposed various suggestions for taking field notes:

- Field notes have to be descriptive and the researcher has to refrain from using general terms because they are interpretive rather than descriptive such as using words 'poor' and 'uneasy' (Mckay, 2006, p. 81) . In this respect, Patton (1990, p.241) stated that: "no skill is more critical in field work than learning to be descriptive, concrete and detailed" (Mckay, p. 81). Moreover, the researcher has to describe in detail the gestures used by individuals, what and how they say it.
- Field notes have to include what people say. Researchers have to try to record precisely everything the individuals say so as to have rich data to be used later for the description.

- Field notes have to include the researchers' own feelings and reactions about what they have observed since in qualitative research, the researcher may not be totally objective.
- Field notes have to contain interpretations. The latter can help researchers while analyzing their data.

4.3.7.1.3. Writing Field Notes

Hoey (2014) pointed out to the importance of writing fieldnotes. According to him, it is crucial to keep small notebook on which the researcher can write any idea or point of view even if s/he thinks at that moment it is not worthy. Later on, the researcher may discover its utility. Thus, it is necessary to guide researchers towards interpretations since “ethnographers depend on their fieldnotes to discover, to work toward preliminary understandings, to develop interpretations, and eventually to reach their conclusions” (p.6). Hoey (2014) mentioned that “one of the most essential purposes for writing fieldnotes is to turn the events of the moment into an account that can be consulted again (and again) later” (p.5).

Levon(2013, p. 206) pointed to the importance of writing fieldnotes and he said:

It is important to develop the habit of writing field notes on a very regular basis (i.e., at least daily) throughout your time in the field. Even if you have nothing concrete to report, the act of writing about your ongoing experiences will force you to reflect on the process of your research and to question ideas, beliefs, and interpretations that you might otherwise take for granted.

4) *Analyzing data*: data analysis could be time consuming and tiresome since the data gathered from an ethnographic research using observation and interviews. Patton (1990, pp.371-372) pointed out to the difficulty of data analysis when he said that it: “is to make sense of massive amounts of data, reduce the volume of information, identify significant patterns, and construct a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal” (as cited in Mckay, 2006, p. 82). To overcome this challenge, there are numerous ways. Patton (1990) proposed some ways the ethnographer uses when analysing data, these are some of them:

- i. *Chronology*—Researchers can organize their notes over time to basically tell a story of what they observed.
- ii. *Key events*—Researchers can organize the data by key events they observe and perhaps organize these events by their significance.
- iii. *Various settings*—Data can be organized according to where they occur.
- iv. *People*—if individuals or groups are the primary unit of analysis, then the data could be organized by cases.
- v. *Issues*—Data can also be organized by key issues that the researcher has identified.

(Patton, 1990; as cited in Mckay, 2006, p.82)

Therefore, ethnographic researchers may use one of these ways so as to be able to analyze the amount of data gathered from the research. The choice of the method depends on the researcher’s decision. Data analysis is ‘an inductive cyclical process’ (2006, p. 83) in which the researcher may go back to data so many times through the process of data analysis.

4.3.7.2. The sociolinguistic Interview

This term has been developed by Labov (Wolfram and Fasold, 1974_a; as cited in Bayley & Lucas, 2007). It is an interview designed to approach the casual conversation. Questions of this kind of interview are classified into topical areas and which could be organized and reorganized so as to flow into one another. The interview is built on topics that interest the informants and are meant to extenuate (lessen) the sample's attention to the reality that they are being recorded. Here, the interviewee is asked to converse with the informants about any subject of interest even if it is not comprised in the original interview. By so doing, the researcher could get a large amount of speech to approach the informants' everyday speech. Labov's aim behind conducting the sociolinguistic interview is to get a speech that is unselfconscious because if the informant is aware that his speech is recorded, they would be self-conscious on how to use language (Bayley & Lucas, 2007). Therefore, sociolinguists have to use the sociolinguistic interview which reduces the interviewees' attention to speech since they are involved in the topics they are discussing (Bayley & Lucas, 2007).

Codó (2008) suggested that the interview is:

An authentic communicative situation in which naturally occurring talk is exchanged. Interviews may thus be studied as forms of social interaction and as sources of real language data; this is a specific use of the interview in linguistics which has no parallel in the social sciences (p.158).

Ethnographers may use formal or informal interviews: informal interviews consist of open –ended questions while formal interviews include schedule of questions and they are audio-recorded and transcribed (Harklau, 2005)

4.3.7.2.1. Advantages of the Sociolinguistic Interview

The sociolinguistic interview has many advantages. Bayley & Lucas (2007) have listed some of them. Firstly, it permits the researcher to obtain a considerable amount of speech in a short period of time while people could not produce these quantities in their every day communication. Secondly, the sociolinguistic interview permits the researcher to get high quality recordings since the interviewees may be effortlessly determined; and, in the interview, there are one researcher and one interviewee and it is administered in calm place and with the use of some useful materials such as microphone, cameras..., which are well-placed.

4.3.7.2.2. Criticism of the Sociolinguistic Interview

Although the sociolinguistic interview is advantageous for researchers, there are some criticisms:

- ☑ This kind of interview is judged as being “*less* rather than *more* natural than more typical types of interviews (Bayley & Lucas, 2007, p. 173). In fact, the interviewees do not know what is meant by a spontaneous interview and they would withstand the interviewer’s trial to lengthen their talk about the topics (Bayley & Lucas, 2007).
- ☑ Moreover, the interviewees are supposed to direct the interview; yet, what happens is that the interviewers do dominate things because are those who ask all the questions

and determine the questions to be asked and order them and they do initiate and conclude the conversation (Bayley & Lucas, 2007).

For some year, the sociolinguistic interview has been evaluated in detail and it has been considered as being narrow or restrictive (Butters, 2000; Wolfson, 1976; as cited in Davis, 2013). This leads to the elaboration of what it known as ‘new coalitions’ (Bucholtz and Hall, 2008) which is the designed incorporation of interactional and ethnographic approaches from conversation analysis and linguistic anthropology (Davis, 2013, p. 114) . Bucholtz and Hall (2008) had clarified this as follows:

[T]he use of interview methodologies, so widespread in sociolinguistics and linguistic anthropology, must be matched by the use of ethnographic and interactional methods of data analysis, in order to ensure that researchers approach interviews not as providing mere background information or as a medium from which to extract linguistic variables but as richly contextualized linguistic data in their own right (p. 416; as cited in Davis, 2013, p. 114).

According to Bucholtz and Hall (2008), the interview should not be used as the only means of data collection. It should be used along with other sociolinguistic methods to guarantee the richness of the linguistic data. In other word, Davis stated that Mendoza-Denton (2008) illustrated that the sociolinguistic interview is enhanced by a sociocultural, ethnographic context (Davis, 2013).

4.3.7.2.3. Planning the Interview

Codó (2008) stated that there are some aspects that interviewers have to take into account when planning the interview. The first aspect is the feasibility and usefulness of collecting interview data. Secondly, the type of formats of interview are needed to be taken into consideration and this depends on the research goals intentions. The interview format may vary from unstructured, non directive questioning to directive mode. Yet, the interview may involve the two types. It can begin by being directive and it gradually develops into less structured questions or the opposite. For ethnographic research, unstructured interview format is needed. Moreover, the researcher has to be aware of the relationship with interviewees. That is, when conducting an interview with strangers, the right interview format is directive (structured) interview. Therefore, to decide upon interview format, the researcher has to consider the familiarity with informants. The third point to be considered while planning an interview is the stage at which the interview will be conducted. This relies on the research types. Fourthly, it is needed to consider the type and the number of informants. Selecting participants is crucial. If they are carelessly selected, the data would be deceiving. Lastly, organization and formulation of questions are to be taken into account when planning interviews.

4.3.7.2.4. Methods of Recording Interview

The researcher has to think about the appropriate tools to be used for recording the interview. This decision has to be taken much earlier so as the researcher could be familiar with its use (Dawson, 2002). If the researcher decides to use a pen and paper, s/he has to be trained on note taking in interview situation where s/he has to keep eye contact with the

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interviewees and write at the same (Dawson, 2002) . Recording interview using a recorder can “capture what is said, but it cannot capture feeling, thoughts and impressions” (Woods, 1986, p.81).

Dawson (2002) listed some methods of recording the interview with their advantages and disadvantages as follow:

Recording Methods	Advantages	Disadvantages
Tape Recorder	<ul style="list-style-type: none">-Concentration on what is said.-The ability to keep eye contact with the interviewees.- Having the entire record of the interview for the analysis containing the whole interaction between the interviewer and the interviewees.-Having a lot of valuable quotations for report.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">- If the tools(tape recorder) crash, there would be no record of the interview.- The use of the tape recorder may lead interviewees to be nervous-The researcher may not concentrate and listen to the interviewees since everything is recorded.
Video Recorder	<ul style="list-style-type: none">-It results in an in-depth recording of the interview.-A durable record is offered which contains: record of the interaction, body language and facial expression.	<ul style="list-style-type: none">-Using a lot of tools may lead to committing mistakes.-Using a video recorder is costly and difficult to transport.

<p>Note taking</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -It is the cheapest method. -When the researcher is taking notes, the interviewees would think of saying important things(they would think of adding additional information whereas the interviewer is writing) -no reliance on the recording tools which could fail. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Eye contact could not be maintained all the time. -It is difficult to focus on what interviewees say and inquire for further information. -It may be tiring - There would not have a lot of word for word quotations for the end report.
<p>Box-Ticking</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Simple and easy for use and analysis. -Comparing information with that obtained from other interviews, is effortless. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - This technique is fixed and there is no possibility for adding extra information. - Interviewees are obliged to answer in a specific way. -Interviewees would feel that they have not answered in the manner they wanted.

Table 4.1. : Recording Methods with Advantages and Disadvantages (Adapted from Dawson, 2002, p.66)

4.3.7.2.5. Ethnographic Interview

The interview is a method that enables the researcher to uncover the perspectives of people, to gather data on a particular issues and also it is a tool for ‘making things happen’

and to prompt the flow of data (Woods, Inside Schools, 1986,p.62). Moreover, the interview has to be used in connection with other means of data collection (Woods, 1986).

In this respect, Tavakoli (2012) defined the ethnographic interview as being : “ similar to UNSTRUCTURED INTERVIEWs but within the context of the target research area, and extending beyond the restrictions of an unstructured interview by allowing interviewees to develop their responses in their own way, using their own frame of reference”(p.198).

Ethnographic interviews are conducted at any time and any place during a period of time (Woods, 1986).

4.3.7.2.6. Characteristics of the Ethnographic Interviewer

Woods (1986) pointed out to some characteristics that the ethnographer should have: trust, curiosity and naturalness. Ethnographer has to win the confidence of his interviewees so as they would be at ease and he has to build a feeling of trust. Secondly, S/he has to be curious in the sense that willing to know about peoples’ point of views and to listen to their stories and to uncover their emotions. The third characteristic is naturalness. The interview has to be unstructured so as to put the interviewees at ease and to help them express their ideas and perceptions honestly and precisely.

The relationship between the interviewer and interviewees is clarified by Ball (1983, pp.93-5) as follows:

The social production of an interview involves the establishment of an asymmetrical relationship between interviewer and interviewee through the use of language as a form of communication... The interviewee is asked to elaborate, illustrate, reiterate,

define, summarize, exemplify, and confirm matters in his talk in ways that would be unacceptable in other talk situations. The interviewer controls the specification of topics and maintains a verbal monitoring of the speech situation... The rules of conversational discourse are flagrantly disregarded in the name of social science... The interviewer comes to 'know his subjects without ever necessarily having to engage on a reciprocal process of personal social striptease' (as cited in Woods, 1986, pp.67-67).

Further, the interviewer has to give some kind of freedom and ease so as the interviewees would express themselves at ease. In this respect, Stenhouse (1984, p.222; as cited in Woods, 1986, p.69) asserted:

Part of my job is to give people the feeling not merely that they have my ear, my mind and my thoughts concentrated on them but that they want to give an account of themselves because they see the interview as in some way an opportunity: an opportunity of telling someone how they see the world.

The interviewer has to take different roles the participants may have in their lives so as to collect data as: "appropriate nods, shakes of the head, smiles, gasps of astonishment, grimaces, encouraging or knowing grunts, interjectory expressions. It also involves not being offended or appearing to make a moral judgment or giving advice" (Whyte, 1982; in Dexter, 1956, pp.156-7; as cited in Woods, 1986, p.77).

Furthermore, the interviewer has to be a facilitator and to suggest directions for the discussion, in addition to keep a kind of freedom and informality for the interviewees (Tavakoli, 2012).

Codó (2008) stated that it is recommended to take notes immediately after recording the interview. This technique may help interviewers to write about intriguing topics that could be used later in the interview or to jot down ideas to come to mind during the conversation and which could be useful when analysing data. Taking notes about impressions is also needed.

4.3.7.2.7. Analysing Interview

Codó (2008) pointed out that in analysing interview data, whether the researcher passes over the interviewees' talk and this leads to have difficulty in assessing the accuracy of the researchers' interpretations, or to present extensive quotations which helps "the readers to 'hear' the speaker's voices, which is particularly interesting when, for example, code alternation is employed"(p.170).

As far as the present work is concerned, when the researcher is analysing the interview data, instances of the interviewees speech are presented to enable the readers get what has been already said.

4.3.7.3. Analysis of Cultural Artifacts

The analysis of cultural artifacts means the use of any physical materials, broadcasts, images and any other media products which correspond to participant's lives.

4.3.8. Transcription

Transcription, as a first step in data analysis and interpretation, is the act of representing speech in writing using orthographic conventions.

According to Turell & Moyer (2008), transcribing calls for identification of “(1)the languages involved in the interaction, (2) the types of language interaction phenomena (borrowings, calques, bivalent forms), and (3) the structural and functional contexts in which these phenomena occur”(p.194).

Duranti (1997) emphasized the importance of transcription when he said “The practice of **transcription** and its embedding in ethnographic description is an essential element of this process as investigators make explicit the sources from which they derive their understanding of a given cultural phenomenon.”(p.87)

The difficulties that the transcriber may face is that s/he has to produce transcriptions that are accurate, readable and making explicit written talk to the analyst (Turell & Moyer, 2008).

4.3.8.1. Functions of Transcription

Transcription can be used to fulfill so many functions as it is mentioned by Nagy & Sharma (2013). Transcriptions can be used for:

Quantitative analysis of morphosyntactic or discourse variables, as a guide for auditory phonetic analysis, for qualitative analysis of conversation, discourse, or interaction, and for theoretical linguistic analysis. In addition to serving linguistic research, the transcriptions may become a legacy, providing documentation of a

particular point in a language variety's development, as well as recording information about the culture of the society who used the variety (Nagy & Sharma, 2013, p.236).

Therefore, transcription has many uses since it can be used in quantitative and qualitative research for language variety development and record information about culture.

4.3.8.2. How much to Transcribe

The amount of transcription would depend on the aim of the research. As it is stated by Nagy & Sharma (2013), when deciding to transcribe, the researcher has to settle choices concerning the parts to be included and the level of details to be indicated for these segments. As far as sociolinguistics is concerned, the researcher has to employ standard practices to select segments for transcription, for example, the researcher omits the first ten minutes of the sociolinguistic interview. Or the researcher may select more and less formal fragments from particular interview topics to be used for stylistic analysis.

Transcription is very useful for the understanding of patterns in data and to uncover components that are hard to catch in the original oral form. Therefore, a lot of linguists feel that it is essential to transcribe the amount of data as they can (Nagy & Sharma, 2013).

4.4. The Procedures

In order to investigate diglossic switching by pre-school children, a research methodology is followed consisting of qualitative method

4.4.1. Population and Sampling

4.4.1.1. Population

The population consists of children of preparatory level who generally attend preschool classes at the Algerian primary school. The current Algerian educational system is organized in a way that children at the age of six years old study in first grade and they spend five years in primary school. Once they succeed in their final exam in the fifth grade, they pass to the intermediate school. After spending four years there and succeeding in BEM exam, learners will go to secondary school where they spend three years. When learners succeed in the BAC exam, enrolment at the university will be possible.

The pre-school children spend the first days crying and looking for their mothers. Their Teacher may suffer with them until they could cope with the new situation.

It is worth mentioning that children at this age like and need to play most of the time. Therefore, the ministry of education takes this into consideration when designing the curriculum. Hence, teachers are asked to teach these young children for 20mn and then give them some time to play and so on until the end of the session. These pre-school children are supposed to study from 8 to 11:15 in the morning and from 13:00 to 14:15 in the afternoon. Moreover, most teachers of this level are well experienced teacher with more than 20 years in the field. These teachers are aware of the psychy of the child at this age and they know very well how to behave with them.

4.4.1.2. The Sample

Random sampling is followed. One primary school in Elkhroub, Constantine is randomly selected. This primary school contains only one preparatory class since the aim of this research is not to generalize the results and since the work is qualitative in nature, one class is sufficient to conduct the research.

The sample consists of (24) pupils; eleven (11) boys and thirteen (13) girls. Most of these children live near to the school.

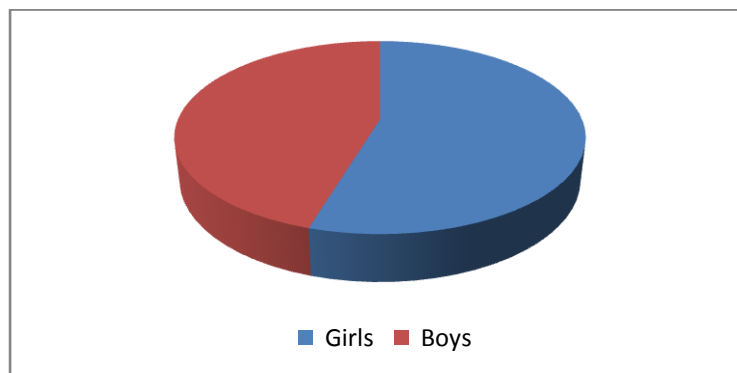


Figure 4.1. : Gender Rates of the Sample

The school where the practical phase is carried out is called Tahar Dib primary school situated in Elkhroub Constantine. This school contains six classes; one class for each grade starting from the first grade and there is only one preparatory class.

4.4.2. Restating the Aims and Research Questions

As it has been mentioned earlier in the introduction of this thesis, the present study aims at investigating the phenomenon of code switching between varieties of the same

language, that is, between Modern Standard Arabic and Algerian Arabic in the conversation of primary school children.

Moreover, the current study seeks to answer the following questions:

- Do Algerian children really switch between Algerian Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic among their peers and with their teachers?
- Is code switching necessary and more conducive to higher levels of learning?
- Are there any marked differences between school subjects and concepts with regard to resorting to the use of code switching?
- Do children need to switch to Algerian Arabic only to fill a lexical gap?
- Does the type of interlocutor influence the switching?
- What are the functions of code-switching in children's conversation?

4.4.3. Means of Gathering Data

The present research aims at investigating preparatory children's switching between Modern Standard Arabic and Algerian Arabic by a sample of Algerian pre-school learners. The study is qualitative in nature aiming at describing this sociolinguistic phenomenon which is widespread in Algerian society. An ethnographic method is adopted. It is based on triangulation for gathering information consisting of: participant observation, interview and the analysis of the artifacts. Some techniques used to collect data such: recordings and transcription. Recordings are used to transcribe passages of classroom conversations recorded during participant observation and teacher's interview. Furthermore, when transcribing, International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) are used. All the phonetic symbols used to transcribe are presented at the beginning of this thesis. Some phonetic symbols are difficult to write;

consequently, a site is used to write them. In this site, all the phonetic symbols are available.

The site used is <http://ipa.typeit.org>.

4.4.3.1. Participant Observation

The first technique used to collect ethnographic data is called participant observation. This technique is already defined in the previous sections of this chapter. Using this technique, the researcher takes part in the class and joins the group for a long period of time approximately eight months. The researcher has been introduced to the class by their teacher the researcher's roles are to be a participant and an observer. Her task is to enter the children's world and participate in their daily activities and at the same time observe all their behaviours and record them.

To make the learners be familiar with the researcher, she has to sympathize with them by giving them sweets and has to ask for their permission to attend the session. Children are very cute and they are happy with the present of the researcher. They welcome the researcher and sing in front of her; and, in her turn, she shows them her respect and approval to them. The researcher laughs and talks to them to make them at ease with them.

When the researcher carries participant observation, she is using some techniques that enable her to record data such as recordings and taking field notes²⁹ (a detailed description of this phase is in the next chapter).

In order to record children's speech, a smart phone is used. They are not aware of recordings made by the researcher so as the speech could be natural. In addition to the

²⁹ For more description and clarification of the terms, see previous sections in this chapter.

recordings, field notes are used. The researcher is taking notes about the children's behaviour and the language used in the class with their peers or with their teacher.

4.4.3.2. Interview

The interview is conducted with the teacher. The aim of the interview is to get an inner view of the phenomenon about the participants' switching. Question of the interview are prepared on the basis of the data obtained in participant observation. The teacher's answers already recorded using the smart phone and transcribed using the IPA and conventions of the Arabic sounds and written using the site [http:// ipa.typeit.org](http://ipa.typeit.org)

Another interview is conducted with the children. The aim of this interview is not to get information from the children, but to see how the change of the code by the interlocutor could affect the children's code and decision to switch the code.

4.4.3.3. Analysis of Artifacts

Teachers of the preparatory level use two books to teach their children. These books are designed by the ministry of education to suit their mental capacities and physical development. The first book is meant to teach Arabic alphabet and to prepare children to reading and writing. The second book is intended to teach them numbers, counting, basic of sciences. In the next chapter, there is a section devoted for description and analysis of content of the two books.

To sum up, the research design of this thesis can be summarized as follows:

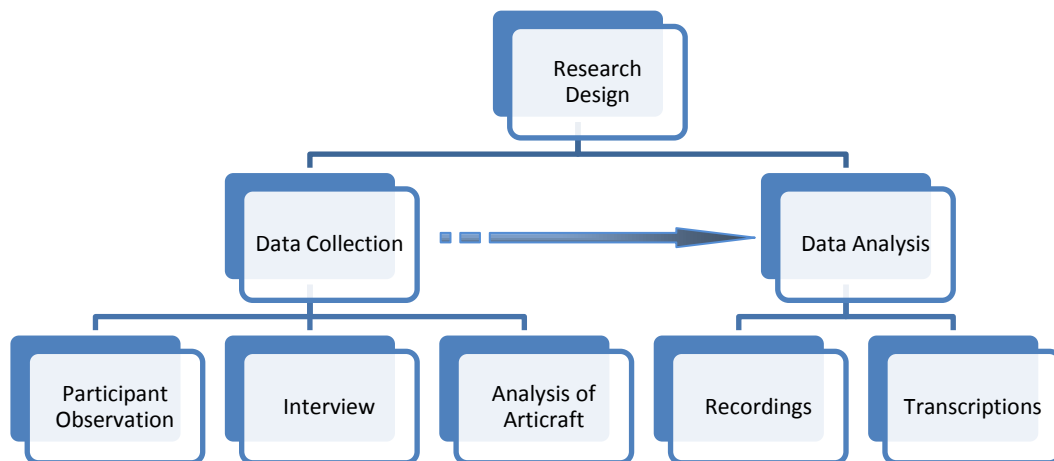


Figure 4.2. : Synopsis of the Research Design

4.4.4. Description of the Present Arabic Teaching/Learning Situation in Primary School

As it is mentioned in the previous chapters, the linguistic situation in Algeria is intricate since three languages exist and are used by Algerians: French, Arabic (MSA/AA) and Tamazight. MSA is declared as a national and official language used in different domains. In education it is used in all cycles: primary, middle and secondary and even in higher education to teach some disciplines. It is used as the language of instruction and used in school books and lessons.

As far as primary cycle is concerned, MSA is used from pre-school until fifth grade. Teachers do all their best to maximize its use in classroom. However, classroom conversation is characterized by a mixture of MSA and AA whether on the part of teachers or learners. Teachers resort to MSA to facilitate the teaching/learning process while learners use it when they could not use MSA exclusively. This situation is the result of the lack of knowledge and the mastering of MSA. In this respect, Maamouri (1998) stated that:

On the one hand, teachers deliberately try to neglect and undermine the actual speech habits of the pupils. On the other, the same teachers find themselves often obliged to use the colloquial to communicate with their learners for one reason or another.

(Maamouri, 1998, p. 41; as cited in Hamzaoui, 2017, p. 161).

Therefore, the coexistence of the two varieties of Arabic (MSA and AA) is a phenomenon known as diglossia (it has already defined in chapter one of this thesis). The presence of this sociolinguistic behaviour in classroom leads to linguistic problems especially because in this context (primary school) MSA should be exclusively and no use of AA. Learners may refer to AA words and structures which may hinder the acquisition of MSA. In mid-eighties, Mouhamed Jabeur made a research in Tunisian primary school and the study “reveals that a growing number of Egyptian or Syrian words and linguistic forms are being used in the written composition of young school children because they are under the impression that those forms really belong to fusha” (Maamouri, 1998, p. 42; as cited in Hamzaoui, 2017, pp. 161- 162). Indeed, to certain extent what Mohamed Jabeur was describing reflects the Algerian primary school too.

4.4.5. Description of the Algerian Dialect

Algerian dialect (hereafter AD) is a dialect spoken in the Algerian regions rural and urban ones. This dialect is considered as a version of MSA with some differences at various levels: vocabulary, phonological and syntactic. These differences are due to many reasons mainly the French colonisation and its policy.

Constantinois dialect³⁰ (hereafter CD) is a dialect spoken in Constantine and its periphery. It is a type of AD that differs in its vocabulary and pronunciation. This dialect is distinct from other dialects of other places of Algeria. Yet, it is used, like the AD, in schools, administration, TV and newspapers. It is also used in songs and sometimes in some radio and TV programmes. It is used in everyday communication by almost all Algerians. The morphological and syntactic rules of Arabic dialects (or even CD) are simplified version of the written Arabic (Ferguson, 1959).

There are many differences between Algerian dialect (AD) and MSA at phonological, grammatical and lexical level.

4.4.5.1. Phonological Level

At the phonological level, AD is characterized by, in addition to 28 consonants that exist in MSA, some other phonemes such as /g/ in /gaʃ / ‘فَاع’ (all) (Harrat, Meftouh, Abbas, Hidouci, & Smaili, 2016, p. 385). There are also the phonemes /v/ and /p/ which are generally used in words borrowed from French such as: /vista/ which is borrowed from French *la veste* (the jacket) and the word /pappa/ which is in French *papa* (Father or dad). However, the phonemes ط and ذ appeared rarely in dialect of Constantine (CD). For instance, the word /deba:n/. Normally, in MSA /ðuba:b/ which means in English (fly) has undergone some phonological and lexical changes to appear in that form. Therefore, the sounds /d/ and /ð/ are allophones in CD. Similarly, /θ/ ث in CD is pronounced /t_s/ such as the word /θala:θa/ ‘ثلاثة’ to be pronounced as /t_s lata/

³⁰ The researcher refers here and after to the Constantinois dialect because the study is conducted in Elkhroub-Constantine. Therefore, a description of the Algerian dialect is offered with particular reference to the CD when necessary

In CD, /r/ has a rolling feature and which is slightly different from MSA /r/ like in the following example /ras/ (in MSA الرأس /raʔ/) which means *head* . This / r/ is viewed by Marçais as an ‘articulatory disease’ (Benlaksira, 2019, p. 39).

In Constantinois dialect (CD), there is another sound which appears frequently /dʒ/ like in the word /dʒaʔɪ/ which is a traditional soup (Benlaksira, 2019, p. 39)

Benlaksira (2019) mentioned that the denti-alveolar affricative phoneme /t_s / replaces unvoiced dental Arabic /t/ ت in CD. The following example reveals that: the word /tuffa:h/ (apple) is pronounced in AD /t_sfah/.

4.4.5.2. Lexical

Most of the vocabulary used in the Algerian dialects is taken from MSA in addition to some words borrowed from French, Spanish and Turkish. Though almost all words of AD are from MSA, they may show some variation in their vocalisation and, in other cases, they may undergo some modifications such as omission of some letters (particularly hamza ‘ء’). The vocabulary of the Algerian dialect contains: verbs, nouns, pronouns and particles.

- **Verbs:** some verbs in AD are used as they are in MSA with respect to the same vocalisation such as the verb /sallama/ ‘سَلَّمَ’ while the other verbs are characterized by the dropping of some vowels such as /ʃrab/in AD which is in MSA /ʃariba/ (means to *drink* ‘شَرِب’) (Harrat et al, 2016, P.386).

Harrat et al (2016) also mentioned that there are some verbs borrowed from French such as /ʃardʒa/ which is a borrowed verb from French ‘charger’ and which has undergone some phonological modifications .

➤ *Nouns:*

Harrat et al (2016) pointed out that nouns taken from MSA are either primitive (is not the result of derivation from any verbs) or derived from verbs. The following table shows examples of some nouns derived from verbs:

<i>Verbs</i>	<i>Verbal name</i>	<i>Active Participle</i>	<i>Passive Participle</i>
Ba:ʕ	Bɪʕ	baʕʕ	Mabju: ʕ
باع	بيع	بايع	مبيوع
To sell	sale	Seller	Sold

Table 4.2. : Examples of Algerian Nouns derived from a Verb (Harrat et al, 2016, p.386)

Further, it has been mentioned, according to Harrat et al (2016), that there are some nouns are borrowed from French like /mut₃ur/ which is in French *moteur* in French (p. 386) or /la tʕensju/ ‘*la tension*’ in French which means in English ‘blood pressure’.

➤ *Pronouns:*

According to harrat et al (2016), pronouns list contains demonstrative and personal pronouns. Yet, for demonstrative pronouns, there is only one used in Algerian dialect which is /ʔlli/ (that) which is used when referring to female/masculine singular/plural

	Singular		Plural	
	Female	Masculine	Female	Masculine
<i>1st person</i>	ana	ana	Hna	
	<i>I</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>We</i>	
<i>2nd person</i>	nti	nta	Ntuma	
	<i>you</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>You</i>	
<i>3rd person</i>	hia	huwa	Huma	
	<i>She</i>	<i>he</i>	<i>They</i>	

Table 4.3. : Personal Pronouns of Algerian Dialect (Adapted from Harrat et al, 2016, p. 286)

Furthermore, in Algerian dialect, there is no dual pronoun for the second person of dual /ʔantuma:/ (you) and the third person of dual /hu:ma:/ (they) whether masculine or feminine. Likewise, the personal pronouns of feminine plural /ʔantuma/ and /huma/ of the second and the third person plural do not exist too.

Singular		Plural	
Female	Masculine	Female	Masculine
Ha:di <i>This</i>	hada <i>this</i>	Ha:du <i>Those</i>	
Hadik <i>That</i>	Hada:k <i>That</i>	Hadu:k <i>those ones</i>	

Table 4.4. : Demonstrative Pronouns of Algerian Dialect (Harrat et al, 2016, p. 386)

➤ **Particles:**

Harrat et al (2016) defined particles as words “used in order to situate facts or objects relatively to time and place” (p. 386). Particles covers various categories like prepositions (*in*

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/fi /, on /ʒala/, with /b/), coordinating conjunctions (*and* /w/, *after* /mbaʕd/) and quantifiers (*all* /kul/, *few* /ʃ wija/).

➤ *Inflection:*

According to Harrat et al (2016), Algerian dialect is an inflected language. Words are changed to convey various grammatical classes like: person, number, gender, tense and so forth.

In both of MSA and AD, verbs are affected by person, tense, gender and so on. For tenses, the past is formed by adding the suffixes related to gender and number

Pronouns		AD	MSA	English
<i>1st person</i>	ʔana	Ktabt	Katabtu	<i>I wrote</i>
<i>3rd person</i>	huwa	Ktab	Kataba	<i>He wrote</i>

Table 4.5. : Conjugation of the Verb ‘Ktab’ in the Past (adapted from Harrat, et al, 2016, p. 387)

Therefore, to form the past the suffix /t/ is attached to the verb with the first person pronoun.

The present is formed by adding the prefixes: /t/, /n/, / j/ and suffixes /wu/, /jɪ/ to the root verb. For instance,

/ ʔana nalʕab/

I play

/ huma jalʕbu/

They play

The future is also formed in the same way as the present, but by inserting a time marker of the future such as / *yadwa*/ which means ‘tomorrow’ (Harrat, 2016, p. 387).

The broken plural is irregular plural which is formed by changing the internal structure of words.

AD is different from MSA since the former does not have the dual. For instance, two boys in MSA is said: /*walada:n*/ (ولدان) while in AD is said: /*zudʒ wla:d*/). This means that dual is obtained by adding the word (زوج) to the plural form of the noun (Harrat et al, 2016).

For the case of second person singular, there is a distinction of gender in the verb ending as it is the case in the following example:

/*nta dʁabt_s*/

you hit (you: addressing a boy)

/*nti dʁabt_s*/

you hit (you: addressing a girl)

(Benlaksira, 2019, p. 40)

4.4.5.3. Syntactic Level

Harrat et al (2016) mentioned that the declarative form of the sentence is flexible in AD. That is, the sentence starts with V-S-O. This depends on the item the speaker wishes to stress.

Ait-Oumeziane(1986) cited that there are three word orders for the sentence:

The sentence: ‘*your daughter ate elkasra*³¹’ may be:

1- S-V-O

/bant_sk klat_s lkasra /

2- V-S-O

/klat_s bant_s k lkasra/

3- V-O-S

/ klat_s lkasra bant_sk/

(as cited in Benlaksira, 2019, p. 40)

Yet, the most widely used structure in everyday conversation is (V-S-O)

Interrogative form is formed as follows:

- The question can be a statement pronounced as an interrogative (the intonation of interrogative) such as /rah taqra /?

Will you revise?

- The question is formed by adding a word such as /win/, /waf/...etc (Harrat et al, 2016, p.388) as in the following example: / win rah taqra /?

Negative form is composed by inserting the prefix /ma: / at the beginning of the verb and / f / at the end of the verb conjugated.

³¹ A traditions circular baked bread (Benlaksira, 2019, p. 54)

Conclusion

This chapter is devoted to present the methodology used to investigate diglossic code switching used by preparatory children. It aims at defining and describing the methodology adopted. To investigate the topic under study, a qualitative research method is followed. Ethnography is considered as the adequate research tool. This tool consists of observing the participants and living with them for a long period of time so as children get familiar with the researcher who will be able to observe their behaviours.

A combination of three tools ‘triangulation’ is used which is consisting of: participant observation, an interview and an analysis of the artifacts. Each of these means of data collection is defined in this chapter.

Furthermore, the population and the sample under study are described thoroughly. The means of data collection are also explained. The way are applied to the sample is also clarified. In addition to the means of data collection, some tools are used to record these data such as the recordings and field notes.

The current chapter serves as an introduction to the research field work. It is felt necessary to define the methodology used to understand how to use these means to get reliable data that may pave the way to the analysis and draw important conclusions. The next chapter is devoted to data analysis and interpretation.

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Introduction

In the fourth chapter, an explanation of the methodology adopted in this study is provided. The methodology includes the population and the sampling in addition to the means of gathering data. The Population consists of the pre-school children at the primary school while the sample consists of one class of pre-school children at ‘Dib Tahar’ primary school at Elkhroub. The data is gathered following a qualitative research method by using ethnography based on triangulation: participant observation, analysing artifacts, and interview.

In the participant observation phase, the researcher has to be a participant and an observer of the children’s behaviour. During this phase, field notes are taken. In addition, an interview is held with both the teacher and the children. Moreover, a description of the two books used in teaching the pre-school children is made with particular emphasis on the language used and the objectives to be attained from each lesson.

This chapter is devoted to the analysis and the interpretation of the data gathered using ethnography. The researcher’s participant observation lasts eight (8) months during which she takes notes, observes and records the children’s speech. Some extracts are transcribed manually using IPA. Furthermore, an interview is conducted with the pre-school children. It aims to see whether the interlocutor’s code influences the children’s choice of code and the decision to switch the code. Another interview is conducted with the teacher’s sample in order to get an insider’s view about the phenomenon of diglossic switching.

The results obtained from the different tools of research are compared and interpreted in order to provide reliable description and explanation of the phenomenon under study.

5.1. Participant Observation

Before starting the participant observation, the researcher has to pilot it in order to test the methods and the tools used.

5.1.1. Pilot Study of the Participant Observation

On May 2017, the researcher piloted the study in Tahar Dib primary school with pupils of preparatory class. The pilot study lasted one month, during which the researcher conducted participant observation and recorded pupils' conversation with their teacher.

The setting in which participant observation occurred was a class devoted to preparatory level³².

During the observation phase, the researcher was observing children, which language they used, how they behaved in class, and if they used CS. The researcher asked the teacher to present her lectures without taking into consideration her presence. Moreover, the researcher used to give some sweets to children and to flatter them when they did something good or they gave correct answers. By doing so, the learners would cope with the researcher's presence.

The children had varied levels at MSA from being competent to those who could not construct a short sentence. When participating with their teacher, they used to ask for permission to answer her questions or to do particular task such as: looking for words containing particular sound, describing pictures and so on.

³² For further description of the class, see participant observation in the next section

It has been noticed that learners could acquire concrete things easier than abstract ones (they learn with pictures posted on the board or on their books).

For this phase, no recording to be transcribed because the main aim was to test the researchers ability to record and take notes about the teacher, the learners and the environment in general.

5.1.2. Analysis of Field Notes and Recordings

On the 15th November 2017, the researcher started the observation. It took place in *Dib Tahar* primary school at Elkhroub, Constantine. All pupils studying in this school lived near it. The observation occurred in a preparatory class composed of 24 pupils aged from 5 to 6 years old. The teacher was very comprehensive concerning the presence of the researcher in her class. The researcher explained thoroughly the reasons behind her presence. She informed the teacher that the main objective was to see and record pupils' speech. The presence of the researcher had to last as much time as possible so as learners would be familiar with the researcher and the researcher could observe the children's behaviour and language.

The researcher started the observation on November and not before (september and October) to give time to the pupils to feel comfortable in the new situation since that was their first year in the primary school. It would be difficult for some of them to stay in the class and start learning the Arabic Alphabet and numbers. Thus, the researcher postponed her observation two months till learners acquired order and discipline in class and liked their teacher and class.

The preparatory level is designed to the pupils of five years old. The main objective of this level is to integrate gradually pupils in schools since they used to be with their mothers and most of their times were devoted to play. Therefore, bringing children to formal context is a little bit difficult for both children and parents; taking them away from their world in which they spent 100% playing, to using a pen and a paper and getting formal instructions from their teacher .

The researcher spoke to the teacher and wanted to know about the timing, the syllabus, the material used and so on.

As far as the syllabus is concerned, the teacher informed the researcher about the syllabus and the time allocated for each activity. At this level, the time was organized in a way that pupils were taught 20mn and they played for 10 to 20mn until the session ended. Sessions started from 8 to 11:15 in the morning and from 13:00 to 14:30 in the afternoon. There was a rest at 9:30 and that lasted 20mn more than the other levels. This time was devoted to eat a sandwich and play in the schoolyard. The teacher used two preparatory books offered by the ministry of education³³; in addition to the teachers' efforts in adopting and adapting other materials such as songs, videos so on.

The language used in the class by the teacher and the children was mainly MSA and AA (no use of Tamazight since people in Elkhroub speak AA and some people use French). There was only one case; a pupil who spoke Yemeni dialect because she came from Yemen with her little family. When the girl did not understand, the teacher called her and tried to translate into yemeni dialect.

³³ A description of the two books is offered in this chapter

5.1.2.1. Description of the Class

The class occupied by pre-school children is situated in the first floor. The room is very large, clean and light. It is also comfortable and well-decorated and painted with various colours to indicate that this is a kindergarden not a school. There are also some pictures and drawings stuck on the wall. In addition, the class contains individual coloured tables organized not in ordinary rows, but rather in a way that girls are set next to each other and the same for boys. Further, there is a desk for the teacher which is at the end of the class in addition to a television. There are some toys (animals toys) and a big whiteboard used by the teacher to write or to show on it some pictures or objects used for teaching such as magnetic alphabets...etc. The class contains also pictures of projects done by children of previous years.

5.1.2.2. Description of the Teacher

As far as the teacher is concerned, she is a middle aged woman. She has an experience of teaching in primary school of more than 20 years. She is an easygoing lady. She takes into consideration the pupils' psyche and she knows that being severe with pupils at this age may affect them negatively leading to hatred towards school and the teacher. This does not mean that she has to be facile or smooth most of the time, but sometimes she has to be severe with them to restore class order especially because at this age pupils are not familiar with the school rules and atmosphere.

Furthermore, the teacher used MSA and AA with her learners. Depending on the situation, the teacher selects the code; sometimes MSA is used while in other situations, AA is employed.

5.1.2.3. Description of the Pupils

The pupils under study are twenty four (24) pupils; eleven (11) boys and twelve (13) girls aged from 5 to 6 years and attending school for the first time. There are some of them who used to go to the mosque to study the alphabet and the Quran. Some other learners studied in the kindergarden while others had never gone to school. These children used to cry a lot when they are at school because they used to be with their mothers all the time. Most of the pupils participating in the study live near to school, but they go to school accompanied by one of their parents or relatives. Pupils wear a blouse: pink for girls and blue for boys.

When the researcher entered the room, the teacher presented her to the pupils as being a new teacher who was supposed to be present with them for the whole year. The researcher, in her turn, sympathised with them by saying “do you accept me to study with you?”. She had even given them sweets and laughed with them.

The interpretation of the data consists of analysing the data collected while attending with learners in different sessions and for a period of time starting from November to May during which the researcher’s job is to observe and record her observation and to write her own notes. She is going to have “dual status of active member and external observer” (levon,2013, pp.204-205).

The data obtained from the participant observation hand in hand with audio recordings are to be analysed. Thus, speech is going to be recorded, transcribed and analysed using the methods of Conversational Analysis (CA):

A methodology for the analysis of naturally-occurring spoken interaction [...] which is now applied in a very wide range of professional and academic areas” (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 1) some relevant extracts of transcriptions will be examined in order to exemplify the

most significant functions of this alternation of codes, keeping in mind the question ‘why that, in that way, right now’ (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 3)

Therefore, the researcher recorded classroom conversation. In this respect, in Wernberg-Moller study, the participants’ viewed the recording as an excellent means by which the researcher could learn more about their language and dialect in particular’ (1999, p. 254; as cited in Bassiouney, 2009).

It should be mentioned that not all sessions are transcribed and no session is entirely transcribed. The transcriptions are done manually by the researcher using a keyboard that contains all phonetic symbols³⁴.

As it has been mentioned before, the present study aims to investigate the mechanisms of diglossic switching and how children mix the varieties of Arabic. The research questions that the present study attempts to answer are:

- *Do Algerian children really switch between Algerian Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic among their peers and with their teachers?*
- *Is code switching necessary and more conducive to higher levels of learning?*
- *Is diglossic switching between Algerian Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic rule-governed?*
- *Do children need to switch to Algerian Arabic only to fill a lexical gap?*
- *What are the functions of code-switching in children's conversation?*

In what follows and during the analysis of the recordings, emphasis is put on the following points:

- The structure of the mixed sentences

³⁴ The site used for writing transcriptions is : www.ipa.typeitorg/full/

- Motivations to CS
- Functions to CS
- The type of the switched utterances

Further, in studying the syntactic constraints on CS, the data is analysed on the light of two theories: Matrix Language Framework (MLF) and the Two Constraints theory: the Free Morpheme Constraints and the Equivalent Constraint (EC). Bassiouney (2006; as cited in Moshref, 2013) believed that MLF is the most appropriate model to study and examine MSA and DA switching, in the belief that this model does not depend on the linear order or at any theory of grammar. Moreover, Equivalence Constraint also is to be adopted because it suggests a framework to study the child's support to structural constraints on diglossic switching between the two varieties of the same language; one variety of which he is supposed to have a full command (the Low variety) and the other which he is learning (the High variety) (Sabir & Safi, 2008).

The setting will always be the same class which has already been described. It is worth mentioning that most of the sentences recorded are of simple grammatical linear order (sentences are simple not complex ones).

5.1.2.4. Analysis of the Recorded Data

5.1.2.4.1. Session One

Date: 30 November 2017

Time: 13:00 to 14:30

The length of activity: 20mn**Topic: the life of the prophet Mouhammed(pbuh)****Objectives: -Learners will be able to tell the story of prophet Mouhamed (pbuh)**

The researcher entered the class and she saluted children in MSA and they replied using the same code and she sympathized with them. Then, the teacher started the lesson by asking the pupils to retell the story of the life of the prophet. The teacher used AA when asking this question. The pupils had already learnt about the life of the prophet (pbuh) because it was his birthday 'elmouloud', few days ago, which many Muslim countries celebrated.

The learners started giving her information about him. Some of them used MSA exclusively while others used AA exclusively. Some pupils started speaking using MSA and then switched to AA. No transcription is offered for that session because the aim was to meet the children and to be familiar with them.

The second topic in the same session: cleanness

Once the teacher had finished talking about the life of the prophet, she asked her learners to have a rest of 10 minutes. The learners were very young and they needed to play. At that moment, they were very happy with the presence of a new person among them. They used to show the researcher their writings and drawings and she showed them a great appreciation towards their works. She flattered some of them and encouraged others. When talking to the researcher, they used AA.

Once the break was over, the teacher asked the learners to be calm and to follow her. The researcher was sitting near the children and using the mobile phone to record their speech. The learners were so happy with the presence of the researcher and some of them used to look at her and their eyes were full of happiness and admiration.

The teacher asked her learners to talk about what happened to ‘Omar’. Using AA, she said:

The teacher: waf s^ʕra lʕumar lli raḥ blama jaʕsl wadʒhu wjadih wrajlh

*What happened to Omar who went without cleaning his face, hands and feet?*³⁵

Most of children raised their hands and asked for their teacher’s permission to answer the question. One of the pupils completed the story by saying:

Pupil: za:ʔat ʒabʃu man jidih³⁶

It comes and rakes him from his hands

badaʔa jas^ʕruʒu dzat mamah qa:lat lahu ʔannað^ʕa:fa min i:man wa wasaʒu min

ʃart^ʕa:n

He started shouting his mother came and said cleanness is from God and dirtiness is from the devil

In this example, the child started telling the story of Omar by using a verb from MSA and then switching to AA in the rest of the sentence. In the second sentence, it is an

³⁵ The English translation is written in Italics

³⁶ MSA but not Algerian Arabic parts have been written on bold so that the switches can be easily distinguished.

intersentential CS. The child started switching forth and back from MSA to AA between clauses. The definite article /ʔal/ is not attached to the two words/ **i:man/** and /**wasayū/** because the child was not sure if /ʔal/ belongs to MSA or not. Moreover, there is resemblance between the words said in AA and their equivalent in MSA such as /ʔat/ and /**ʔa:ʔat /**. This indicates that the child was at ease and he was sure that this was the right word (AA one) because he could not differentiate between them.

Therefore, according to what has been observed in the above examples, when there is similarities between AA and MSA, the child could not be aware and he could have switched the code. The word that exists in both codes is called neutral words.

5.1.2.4.2. Session Two

Date: 2-12-2017

Time: 9:00 -9:20

Topic observed: Meat Product

Length of activity: 20mn

Participants' number:23 boys: 10 girls: 13

Objectives of the lesson: -Learners will be able to group meat and meat products

Material: the textbook

It was morning, when the researcher entered the class. The learners, as usual, greeted the researcher and they were happy to see her again. The researcher brought some sweets with her and she gave them to the learners who were very active during that session.

The teacher asked the learners to group meat products together

The teacher: **nad'aŋ fi: ʔalhajz ʔalʔawal ʔalluhu:m wa muftaqa:tuha:** ʃkun
jasamihali³⁷

In the first circle we put the meat and its derivatives who can name them?

P1: ʔalfaxdʃ ʔassamak ʔannaqa:niq ʔatʃ ʔalkafir ʔaddaza:ʒ

Chicken thigh Fish sausage tuna luncheon chicken

The teacher: **hija samatʃli ʔalluhu:m** ʃkun jsamili **ʔalyud'rawa:t**

she has mentioned meat who can name vegetables

P2: ʔalbasla wa salat'a ʔaddzelbana

onion and lettuce peas

The teacher had explained the activity in MSA and then she shifted to AA to clarify the instruction.

The child (P1), on her part, named meat derivatives in MSA and AA. For instance, the word /ʔatʃ/ is composed of the Arabic definite article /ʔal/, and the word /tʃ/ which is an AA word. The /l/ is not pronounced when si ti followed by stress (الشدة). The word /tʃ/ is borrowed from the French language 'thon' /tɔ̃/. Thus, in some words, the definite articles which are bound morphemes are from MSA attached to AA words. Further, when the child

³⁷ There is a slight difference between the /a/ used in both AA and MSA. Yet, since the Algerian Arabic /a/ has no symbol to represent it; in the present study the same symbol is used for the two varieties AA and MSA.

did not find the word in MSA, s/he could employ a word from AA after it had undergone some grammatical and phonological modifications. In this case, it has been attached to the system morpheme (definite article). Therefore, the switched word /ʔatʕ/ did not violate the free morpheme Constraint.

Further, when the pupil (P1) did not find the equivalent word of ‘luncheon’ in MSA, he used the word from AA and attached to it again the system bound morpheme (definite article) /ʔalkafɪr/. In fact, the equivalent definite article in AA is /l/. Thus, there was switching between MSA and AA in the word, i.e., between the bound and free morpheme. The switching could be possible if the free morpheme is integrated phonologically in the language of the bound morpheme and this is the case.

Then, the teacher asked the learners to name the vegetables, but she switched to AA (intrasentational code switching). The second pupil answered her by listing the vegetables he knew, yet, he switched to AA. The free morphemes are from AA and the bound morphemes are from MSA as it is the case in the word /ʔaddʒalbana/. This again shows that the free morpheme constraint is not violated.

Therefore, when the learners missed the word in MSA, they would switch to AA so as to fill in the lexical gap.

5.1.2.4.3. Session Three

Date: 6-12-2017

Time: 9:30-11:15

Length of activity: 20mn

Topic: Food types

Participants' number: 23 boys: 10 girls: 13

Objectives of the lesson:

-Learners will be able to differentiate between food of meat origin or milk origin

-To group meat products

Material: The textbook

The teacher started the lesson by asking the learners to look at the picture and name all the food presented there.

It is worth mentioning that the learners succeeded in naming some of the food represented in the picture such as *milk* and *butter* since the two words do exist in AA and MSA. They are / **ħali:b**/ and / *zubda*/ in MSA and /ħlɪb / and /zbda/ in AA. However, the learners failed to name other derivatives.

In what follows, words said by the learners and their equivalent in MSA:

<i>Words said by learners</i>	<i>Equivalentents in MSA</i>	<i>Equivalentents in English</i>
ʔajurt	zaba:di:	yogurt
maɣgaz	naqa:nıq	sausage
kaʃıru	kaʃi:r	luncheon

Table 5.1. : Words Said by the Learners and their Equivalentents in MSA

According to the above table, when the learner could not find the equivalent of the word ‘yogurt’ in MSA, he used the Algerian word /ʔajurt/ and he added /ʔal/ as a definite article (in this case /al/ is omitted because it has been adapted to the word to which it is attached) and he omitted the first syllable /ja/ from the content word as follows:

System morpheme: in AA: /la/ and it can be /a/ when the word it defines starts with stress

MSA: /ʔal/ and it can be /ʔa/ when the word it defines starts with stress

Therefore, the word /ʔajurt / is composed of the MSA system bound morpheme / ʔal/ which is pronounced as /ʔa/ and the content AA word /ʔajurt/ and which has undergone some phonological adaptation when the /j/ consonant has omitted so as the definite article can be attached to the word. This is an example of intra-word switching.

Furthermore, the learner used the word /Maɣgaz/ from AA when he did not find its equivalent in MSA to mean ‘sausage’. Another learner used the word /kaʃıru/ when he did not know the right word in MSA to mean ‘luncheon’. However, /kaʃıru/ , in essence, exists in the

two codes as /kafɪr/ in AA and /kafɪr/. Thus, it is a neutral word. In this example, it belongs to MSA despite its deviation from the standard pronunciation.

Hence, from the above examples, it can be hypothesized that:

If the learners did not find the right word in MSA, intra-word switching could occur where the system bound morphemes are from MSA and the content free morpheme are from AA.

When the teacher asked them about the source of the milk, one of the learner said:

The pupil: /mas'dar ʔalhali:b hawa lmaʕza/

The source of the milk is the sheep

According to the above example, the learner used the word from AA /lmaʕza/ to fill in the lexical gap. The Matrix Frame Model could explain this intra-sentential switching. The Matrix language is MSA and the embedded language is AA since all the system morphemes are from MSA and the child switched to AA only when he did not know the equivalent of the word /lmaʕza/ in MSA.

5.1.2.4.4. Session Four

Date: 6-12-2017

Time: 13:30-13:50

Length of activity: 20mn

Topic: milk and its derivative

Participants' number: 18 boys: 8 girls:10

Objectives of the lesson: - Learners will be able to group dairy products in one group

To differentiate between food of meat origin or milk origin

Material: The textbook

This session took place in the evening. Learners had already seen some food types with their teacher in the morning. The researcher asked the teacher to talk with their learners about meat products to see whether they were still switching to AA or they had acquired all the necessary words about this topic.

Even if the teacher kept correcting them, the pupils continued to use words from AA. The learners took turn to talk about dairy products and each time the teacher corrected them; they kept using the same words despite their teacher's correction. Here are some other examples:

The pupil: **ʔazzubba ʔapt_sISWIS ʔalzubn**

butter, yogurt, cheese

The teacher: wamnɪn **jaʔti: ʔalhali:b**

And what is the source of milk?

The pupil: jɜna man **ʔalbaqara**

It comes from the cow

According to the learner's answers, the matrix language is MSA and he switched to AA when he had a lexical gap. For instance, the learner could not find the equivalent of the word 'yogurt' in MSA, he used the word from AA, and he attached the definite article /ʔal/ and the /l/ was omitted. The AA word /pt_sISWIS/ which is a borrowed word from French 'petit suisse' and which is used by Algerians to mean 'yogurt' has undergone phonological adaptation.

In the second situation, when the teacher asked the question using AA as a matrix language, the learner replied her by using AA as a matrix language, too. Yet, the child switched to MSA when he named 'the cow' as a source of milk. Possibly, the learner wanted to show his teacher that he knew the word in MSA.

Therefore, when the learners used AA as a matrix language; they could switch to MSA to show their teacher their knowledge.

Then, the teacher had asked the learners about the names of all the food presented in the picture in MSA, she asked the learners to list all the products that were from milk origin.

The teacher: ʃkun lɪ nud^s ʃsamɪlɪ **muʃtaqa:t ʔalhali:b**

who can name dairy products?

P: **muʃtaqa:t ʔalhali:b hiʃa ʔazzubda ʔapt_sISWIS**

Dairy products are: butter, natural yogurt,

ʔalfurma:dʒ ʔalkaʃɪr ʔajaʔuyt

cheese, luncheon yogurt

According to the above example, the pupil started listing the dairy products using MSA as a ML. Even though they had already dealt with them, the child kept switching to AA. In these examples, there are intra-sentential CS since they had switched from MSA to AA and some of the content words were from AA. The latter also represent examples of intra-word³⁸ switching such as the words /ʔaptiswis/ which has already been explained and the word /ʔajaʔuyt /. This word represents an intra-word switching since the system bound morpheme is from MSA and the content morpheme is from AA and it is difficult to pronounce because it is a deviation from the standard pronunciation from either codes. Furthermore, the word /ʔalfurma:dʒ/ is again an example of intra-word switching where the system morpheme is from MSA /ʔal/ which is the definite article and the content word /furmadʒ/ in AA and its equivalent in MSA would be /ʔaldʒubn/.

Therefore, based on the analysis of the previously stated examples, it can be hypothesized that:

If the children did not find the right word in MSA, intra-word switching would occur where the system bound morpheme would be from MSA and the content free morpheme would be from AA.

5.1.2.4.5. Session Five

Date: 7-12-1017

Time: 9:30-11:15

³⁸ Intra-word switching has been introduced by Myers-Scotton (1997) to mean the switching that occurs within the word (Bassiouney, 2009, p. 38)

Length of activity: 20mn

Topic: speaking: what do you do when you wake up

Participants' number: 20 boys: 09 girls: 11

Objectives of the lesson: -learners will be able to describe their regular activities

- Learners will be able to use correct grammatical sentences

Material: the textbook

The teacher asked the learners about what they did when they wake up in the morning (the question was posed in AA)

The teacher: *ki t₃nud^s s'baħ waf dir*

When you wake up in the morning, what do you do?

P1: ʔaysil **wazhm**³⁹

I wash my face

ʔaysil jadijja **wa** ʔaysil ʔat'rafi: **wa** lam ħwajdz **wa** ʔaðhab ʔila: ʔalmadrassa

I wash my hands and legs and I arrange my affairs and I go to school

P2: ʔaysil **wazhi:** **wa** nalbas qaʃfi walam ħwaizɪ **wa** ʔaðhab lilmadrassa

I wash my face and wear my clothes and arrange my affairs and I go to school

In the above conversation, the learners tried to express themselves in MSA, and they produced a switched utterance that contained intersentential and intrasentential. In the first utterance, the child used MSA as a matrix language, yet the word /**wazhm**/ is a MSA word

³⁹ The underlined words are those words which are mispronounced

though it has deviated from the standard pronunciation. The second utterance contain four clauses which represent examples of intersentential CS. In the first clause the ML is MSA and the word /jadijja/ is a deviation from the standard pronunciation since the word exists in both codes as: /jadajja/ in MSA and /jedijja/. Therefore, it can be considered as a misspronunciation of a MSA word and the child tried to render that word sounds MSA one. The second clause is in MSA and the third one is in AA while the fourth one is from MSA. Thus, the learner is alternating the code between AA and MSA between the clauses. This is an example of intersentential switching.

The answer of the second pupil shows also instances of both intersentential and intrasentential switchings. The pupil produced four clauses. The first clause is in MSA and the second and the third clause are in AA. The fourth clause, however, is an intrasentential switching where the ML is AA and the EL is MSA: all the content words in this clause are from MSA; the system morpheme is from AA since /lɪ/ which means /to/ is from AA an instead the child should use /ʔɪla:/.

Therefore, at this age the child can produce an utterance that contains a cocktail of clauses from different codes and various types of switching (intersentential, intrasentential and intra-word switching).

Another example would be the following:

P : ʔɪndama: ʔanud^ɕu ʔaysilu wazhi:

when I wake up, I wash my face

Again, in this example the learner switched the code from MSA to AA to fill in the lexical gap. Here, the child used a compound sentence: in the first clause, the ML is MSA and the child switched to AA and produced an intra-word switching /ʔanud^su/. In this word, the bound morpheme /ʔa/ is from MSA and is attached to the verb when the subject is 'I'. However, the second clause is in MSA.

According to the previous examples, it can be noticed that the children can produce a compound sentence which could be a cocktail of intersentential, intrasentential and intra-word switchings.

5.1.2.4.6. Session Six

Date: 14-12-2017

Time: 8:30-9:30

Length of activity: 20mn

Topic: colours and features

Participants' number: 24 boys: 11 girls: 13

Objectives of the lesson: -learners will be able to describe what surrounds them using various colours and features

The teacher started the lesson by reviewing the different colours. She asked them using MSA about the classroom objects and their colours. The learners took turn to answer her.

The teacher : **man jastat'i:f was'f ʕalqism wa ʔalmadrasa**

Who can describe the classroom and the school?

P1: **ʔassabu:ra bajd'a:ʔ wa ʔalmiʕt'af ʔakhal**

The whiteboard is white and the coat is black

P2: **laun ʔat't'a:wila tʕini**

The colour of the table is orange

P3: **ʔassa:ha ʕarid'a wa ʔatilfa:z d'ajiq**

The yard is wide and the television is narrow

In this passage, the teacher wanted her learners to describe the different objects in the class and their colours. Her question was asked in MSA. The first learner answered her using MSA and he switched to AA when he missed the colour 'black' by saying /ʔakhal/. Here, the child has attached the MSA system bound morpheme to the AA content word/khal/. The second learner also missed the colour word in MSA / **burtuqa:li:** 'orange', so she used the equivalent AA word /tʕini/ to fill in the lexical gap.

The third learner tried to describe the schoolyard and the television and she could not find the right word to mean 'wide' in MSA when describing the yard, she used the word /ʕarid'a/ in AA and its counterpart in MSA /**wa:sifa**/. Yet, the learner, in this example, misused the adjective /**d'ajiq**/ when describing the television and she meant the television is small. The learner could use instead another adjective in MSA such as /**s'ayir**/ 'small'. This means that the switch occurred when the syntactic position of the switched word maps onto both codes. Thus, the equivalence Constraints is not violated.

It has been noticed in the above example that though the child did not find the adequate word in MSA, s/he may use another word instead but which is not the right word and avoid switching to the AA. Further, since the teacher used MSA, the learners opted for the use of MSA and they resort to AA only to fill in the lexical gap.

In the following situation, the teacher asked the learners to describe their homes (the question was asked in AA exclusively)

Teacher: \int ku:n jaqda \int jaws \int aflna da \int u

Who can describe his/her home?

The pupil: \int andna da \int wd \int znan wkam t, \int ani **mat \int ba \int wa hama:m** wa s \int alu

We have a home and a garden and we have also a kitchen and a bathroom and a living room.

According to the above passage, the learners felt comfortable when using AA because the teacher had already used it.

When the teacher had used AA, the pupil answered her in AA and switched to MSA because she knew that word. The ML is AA and the child lists all what he has at home using AA and switching MSA when words are already known to her. In her answer, the pupil uses the word /s \int alu/. This word is used by Algerians and is the only word used to mean the ‘living room’. However, it is a borrowed word from French /sal \int / and it has been integrated in AA. This loan word has undergone phonological changes to become /s \int alu/. It is worth mentioning that the word /da: \int / is considered as a neutral morpheme since it occurs in AA and MSA. Yet,

in this situation, the child did not switch to MSA and because the matrix language was AA, she was using the Algerian word. The evidence for that is the rolling feature of the /r/: in MSA it would be pronounced as/dar/ and /dar/ in AA.

It can be hypothesized that:

If the children used AA as a matrix language, they would switch to MSA to show their interlocutors their knowledge of MSA.

5.1.2.4.7. Session Seven

Date: 21-12-2017

Time: 10:15- 11:00

Length of activity: 25mn

Topic Observed: numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

Participants' number: 16 boys: 8 girls: 8

Objectives of the lesson: Learners will be able to colour the girl's clothes following numbers

They will be able to distinguish numbers 1, 2, 3, 4 written

Material: the textbook

The teacher asked the learners to describe the girl in the picture⁴⁰:

⁴⁰ You can see the picture described in the appendix

1- The teacher: **maḏa: talbisu ʔatʔtʔifla**

what does the girl wear?

P1: **talbasu ʃapp**

She wears a hat

P2: **talbas tanu:ra**

She wears skirt

P3: **wa hiḏa:ʔ**

And shoes

2- The teacher: **ma: lawn ʃaʃruha:**

what is the colour of her hair?

P1: **mahu:ʃ mlawn**

It is not coloured.

3- Teacher: **wa ma:ḏa: tahmilu**

And what does she hold?

P3: **tahmilu mbajl**

She holds balloons

From the above transcribed examples from the classroom participation, the learners tend to switch the code unconsciously. When the teacher used MSA as a matrix language, the learners used also it as a ML for their answers and they switched to AA only when they could not find the equivalent word in MSA. For the first example, when the teacher asked them about what she used to wear, the first pupil answered her using MSA that she wore a ‘hat’, but it is in AA as /ʃapp/ which is a borrowed word from French language ‘chapeau’. The second pupil answered her in MSA that she wore ‘skirt’ while the third pupil added that she also wore

shoes. The answer of the second pupil is a simple sentence in the form of (V+S+O). Thus, all the learners who participated in this question used MSA because of two reasons: they knew words and the structure necessary to construct their sentences, and the teacher had also used MSA when she asked the questions.

In the second example, when the teacher wanted to know about the colour of the girl's hair in the picture, the learner replied her in AA that it was not coloured. The child answered her in AA though the teacher asked the question in MSA. This can be due to her lack of competence.

Therefore, it is concluded that if the learners are asked questions in MSA and they know the structure and the content morphemes necessary for building sentences, they opt for the use of MSA exclusively.

5.1.2.4.8. Session Eight

Date: 22-2-2018

Time: 9:00-9:30

Length of activity: 25mn

Topic: Hospital/polyclinic uses

Participants' number: 21 *boys: 11* *girls: 10*

Objectives of the lesson:

-learners will be able to state the various uses of both hospital and polyclinic and words related to them.

-Material used: Big pictures of hospital, polyclinic, doctor and nurse

In this session, the teacher posted some pictures on the board: hospital, polyclinic, nurse and doctor and he asked them some questions. The teacher used MSA as follows:

1- The teacher: **Ṣindama jamradṣ ʔalʔinsa:n ʔila: ʔajna jaðhab**

When the person gets ill, where does he go?

P1: **ʔila: ʔalmustaffa:**

To the hospital

2- The teacher: waf maṣnat,ha **ʔalmustaffa:**

What does hospital mean?

P2: maṣnatu **maka:n** ndawiw fih

it means a place where we can treat

The teacher: **huwa maka:n naðhabu ʔilajhi fi: ʔalmaradṣ**

It is a place we go to it when we are ill

3- The teacher: **wa man ju:ʔad fi: ʔalmustaffa:**

Whom do we find in the hospital?

learner: **ju:ʔad ʔatṣṣabi:b**

there is the doctor

The teacher kept asking questions using both MSA and AA. The first question the teacher asked was in MSA and most of the learners could answer her in MSA. The first question the teacher asked was in MSA and the kid replied her in MSA. In the second

question, however, the teacher used MSA and when she felt that she was not understood she, reformulated her question using AA. She switched only to MSA for the content word /ʔalmustaffa:/. The learner, on her part, answered the teacher using AA as a ML and she switched to MSA only for the word /maka:n/ ‘a place’ and its equivalent in AA is /blasʔa/ which means that the child already knew that word. That kid used to answer most of the teacher’s questions in AA. This indicates her lack of mastery of MSA and because “ although the standard and dialectal codes are actively interacting all the time, the colloquial language remains more dominant in formulating utterances” (Moshref, 2013, p. 11). Then, the teacher repeated what the child had said and she used MSA in order to show the pupil the right way to say her idea in MSA. In the third question, however, the teacher used MSA and the child replied using the same code.

The teacher continued her discussion with the learners by asking them some questions:

4-	The teacher:	hal naḏhab ʔila: ʔalmustaffa: faqatʔ
		<i>Do we go to the hospital only?</i>
	P3:	la:
		<i>no</i>
5-	The teacher:	naḏhabu ʔila: ʔalmustawsaf waʔi hawa ʔalmustawsʔaf
		we go to polyclinic what is the polyclinic?
	P4:	The learner: hawa pɔlɪklɪnɪk
		<i>It is polyclinic</i>
6-	The teacher:	ma:ḏa: naffalu fi:hi hal naʔtari: ʔaldawa:ʔ
		<i>what do we do in it?</i> <i>do we buy drugs?</i>
	P5:	ndawɪw fih wandɪɾu vaksɛ

We treat and we vaccinate

The teacher: **hlfila:3 wa ʔattatʕi:m**

For treatment and vaccination

According to the above classroom discussion, there are instances of both the teacher's and the learners' switching. The teacher needed to switch to AA to clarify what was unknown and unclear to them while the learners switched the code for other reasons.

The teacher used AA to clarify the instruction or to explain what was difficult to the learners. She used AA when she wanted her learners to explain what polyclinic meant (question 5). In this case, the teacher wanted to clarify the already asked question. The question was in MSA and it was repeated in AA. Diglossic switching used by the teacher, in this case, was to clarify and explain as it has been mentioned by Le Roux (2017) who believed that CS is used for clarification of thoughts and enhancing description or expression: "Vocabulary of the other language is more expressive or accurately captures the meaning the speaker wishes to convey" (Chemami, 2011, p. 229; as cited in Le Roux, 2017, p. 124) (Le Roux, 2017). When the learners replied, they used MSA as a matrix language but they explained it by mentioning its equivalent in AA which was /pɔliklinik/ which was a borrowed word from French 'polyclinique'. That word was known as that and the equivalent in MSA is not really known by lay people.

Then, the teacher asked them about what they did in the polyclinic. The learner answered her using AA exclusively and she said that they went there to treat. The teacher reformulated the sentence using MSA so as to show the learners how it could be said in MSA.

When the teacher asked the question in MSA about the uses of polyclinic, the learners were in hurry to answer her because for them that was an easy question and most of them referred to ‘vaccin’ the French word. This is a loan word and its equivalent in MSA is not known to everybody as /ʔattatʕi:m /.

When the teacher asked them to tell their stories when they got ill, they said:

The teacher: **man minkum maridʕa jahki: ma:ða: faʕala**

Who among you got ill and can tell us what did you do?

P1: **maridʕtu** ʃɪralɪ baba ʔaddawa:ʔ min ʕind sʕajdalija t_sɪʕaʃit_s wa ʃɪɪbt_s ʔaddwa:ʔ

I got ill my father bought me the drug from the pharmacy I had dinner and I drunk the drug

P1: **ʔayaðani: ʔabi: ʔila: ʔalmustawsʕaf** qalbni ʔatʕʕabi:b wa ʔaʕta:ni: dwawɪ

My father took me to the polyclinic; the doctor examined me and he gave me the drug

When the learners were asked to tell what happened when they got ill, most of them wanted to reply using MSA especially because their teacher asked the question in that code. The first learner answered the question in an utterance that contains diglossic switching. It is an intersentential switching where the child alternated the use of MSA and AA between the clauses. In the first clause, the child used MSA while the second clause is an example of intrasentential switching. Both of the subject and the verb are in AA and the system morphemes and the object are in MSA. According to the MLF and since it is difficult to decide which is the ML and EL, Bassiouney (2006) suggested to rely on the relative counts of MSA and AA morphemes and she said that: “it is not very easy to come up with one ML,

since it is sometimes difficult to decide which code is being used in the first place” (p. 48; Moshref, 2013, p. 9). Thus, the ML is the MSA since two system morphemes and a content morpheme are from MSA.

The second pupil also used intersentential and intrasentential switchings in his utterance. The first clause is in MSA while the second is a mixing clause in which he used AA as a ML and he switched to MSA for the word /ʔatʔabi:b/. In the third clause, however, the child used MSA as a ML and switched to AA since he did not know the equivalent of the word in MSA. The sentence is a mixture of the two languages: most content morphemes that are unknown for them are said in AA and even the word /dwawɪ/ is neither AA nor MSA and the same could be said for the word /tɪʃafit/. Yet this word is mispronounced and it represents instance of deviation of the pronunciation of AA.

Therefore, according to the already examined examples in the previous sessions and this session it can be hypothesized that:

- *If the children did not find the appropriate word in MSA, they would deviate from the standard pronunciation of the word.*
- *If the children used AA as ML and switched to AA, they would do so to show their interlocutors their knowledge of MSA .*

5.1.2.4.9. Session Nine

Date: 1-3-2018

Time: 10:12- 10:37

Length of activity: 25mn

Topic: daily activities

Participants' number: 19 boys:8 girls:11

Objectives of the lesson: -Learners will be able to reorder the daily activities chronologically

- Learners will be able to describe their daily activities

Material: textbook

The teacher asked the learners to look at the pictures which represented some daily activities of a child when he woke up. The following transcriptions are part of the discussion carried out by the teacher and their learners:

1- The teacher: **ma:hia ?awal s'u:ra**

what is the first picture?

P1: **ha:ðihı** (the kid has shown the teacher the picture)

This is

the teacher: **ma:ða: jafʕalu ?atʕıfl**

what does the boy do?

P2: **nadʕ min ?alfıra:f**

he woke up

In the above examples, the teacher asked their learners to describe the child's daily activities. She used MSA and the child answered her by a sentence which has a combination

of MSA and AA. The child used the verb /nad^s/ from AA and its equivalent in MSA is /nahad^sa/. This switching could be due to the lexical gap the child had in his mind when he could not find the adequate verb.

Then, the teacher asked the learners to describe the activities that follow

bouachiba: na:d^s **ʔat^st^sifl min ʔalfira:f** rah ʔila: **ʔalhama:m**

he woke up from his bed and went to the bathroom

*ʔaysilu*⁴¹ jadi:h **ʔafrabu hlibah** wa **ʔaxrudz ʔila: ʔalmadrasa**

Washed his face drunk his milk and went to the school

Amer: na:d^s **ʔat^st^sifl min ʔalfira:f** ʔaḏhaba **ʔila: ʔalhama:m** ʔaʃrab **hali:bah**

The child woke up and he went to the bathroom and drunk his milk

Youcef: ʔmhad^s **ʔat^st^sifl min ʔalfira:f**

The child woke up

In the above examples, the teacher was using MSA and the book was written the intended to teach learners in MSA. Learners also wanted to use MSA. Most of them misused MSA and the result were switched sentences representing misuse of ‘I’ and ‘he’ and also misuse of inflection morphemes.

The child, in this case, answered by a switched utterance where he used verbs from AA and system morphemes are from MSA. However, in the second sentence, the child misused the inflection morpheme for the present. He could say /jaysilu/ instead of /ʔaysilu/, /jaʃrabu/ instead of /ʔaʃrabu/ and /jaʃrudzu/ instead of /ʔaxrudz/. This indicates that the

⁴¹ Words that appear in italics and bold are words that are mixture between AA and MSA and difficult to explain to which language they belong.

learners sometimes misuse the inflection morphemes because of their competence in MSA. The child wanted to show his command of MSA and he misused the system morphemes.

In words such as /ʔaʃrab/ and /ʔaysilu/, there was misuse of pronouns. Instead of using the /ja/ instead of using /ʔa/ by adding it at the beginning of the word /ʔa/, the learner used /ja/ which speakers use it to refer to the pronoun 'he'. Therefore, the learner said /ʔaʃrabu ʔalībəh/ and normally in AA the learner should say: /juʃrub ʔlību / and in MSA he should say: /jaʃrubu ʔali:bahu/.

Moreover, the learner used the verb /nadʕ/ which is an AA verb meaning 'wake up' and its equivalent in MSA is /ʔistajqaðʕa/. Thus, when learners could not find the word in MSA, they switch the code to AA.

5.1.2.4.10. Session Ten

Date: 5-3-2018

Time: 10.10- 10.30

Length of activity: 20mn

Topic: Comparison using more than less than

Participants' number: 18 boys:11 girls: 07

Objectives of the lesson: Learners will be able to compare using adverbs of comparison in

MSA

Material: The Textbook

The teacher invited the learners to look at the pictures and describe them. The teacher asked the learners to compare Monkeys with bananas in terms of numbers; they answered her as follows:

P1: ?alqırada ?akbar mın ?almawz

Monkeys are bigger than bananas

P2: ?alqırada kbırā mın ?almawz

Monkeys are bigger than bananas

P3: ?almawz ?aqal mın ?alqırada

Bananas are smaller than monkeys

The first learner answered the teacher using MSA, but he did not use the right adjective because instead of using /?akbar/ he could use /?akðar/. This can be explained as his lack of competence in MSA. The second learner switched from MSA to AA when he could not find the right adjective for the comparative form and he used /kbırā/. Here, the learner used an Algerian adjective and keeping the preposition /mın/ in MSA. The third learner, however, did not switch to MSA and it was easy for him to describe the picture without referring to AA.

In these examples, the learners switched between MSA and AA. Learners used MSA to name animals. Using the comparative form of adjectives, they used AA when they did not know the adequate adjective. Further, they sometimes misused the adjective and that was due to the lexical gap and they were not competent in MSA.

Even when the teacher kept correcting them, the majority of them still mixed the two varieties especially when forming the comparative form of adjective.

Furthermore, the prepositions used to form comparative were used adequately, but when the learners used adjectives from AA, they used prepositions from MSA.

The teacher kept repeating the comparative form of adjective in MSA so as the learners could learn and construct correct sentences as follows:

The teacher: ngul **ʔalqirada ʔakθar mina ʔalmawz**

We say monkeys are more than bananas

ʔalmawz ʔaqal mina ʔalqirada

Bananas are fewer than monkeys

By repeating the structure of comparative form, the teacher wanted their learners to acquire the way how to construct sentences in the comparative form.

Then, the teacher asked the learners to describe another picture:

The teacher: **ʔalʔa:n ʔalɣurfu:f wa ʔalhalazu:na:t**

Now artichoke and snails

P1: **ʔalɣurfu:f ʔakθar mina ʔalhalazu:na:t wa ʔalhalazu:na:t qlal mina ʔalɣurfu:f**

artichoke are more than snails and snails are less than artichoke

In this part, the learner used MSA to compare between artichoke and snails. Yet, he switched to AA when he missed the adjective which means 'less' when he used /qlal/ and he could instead use MSA word /ʔaqal/. He did so to fill in the lexical gap because he did not know its equivalent in MSA so he resort to AA.

5.1.2.4.11. Session Eleven

Date: 11-4-2018

Time: 10:10- 30:10

Length of activity: 25mn

Topic: Oral expression description of spring season

Participants' number: 22 boys: 10 girls: 12

Objectives of the lesson: -Learner will be able to describe spring

Material used: picture that contains the four seasons

Picture about spring

The teacher posted two pictures on the board and asked the learners to describe the pictures. One of the children answered as follows:

P1: fi: fas^llu farrabi:fu ?albardu da:fi?

In spring, the cold is warm

?al^lfu^lbu bisa^a:t^un ?axd^uar

The grass is a green carpet

?assam^lfu dafa

The sun is warm

?al^l?at^ufa:lu jaxt^uifu:na ?al^l?azha:r

Children pick up flowers

?ana ?uh^ubbu fas^lla ?arrabi:f

I like spring season

Most of the sentences produced by the learner are in MSA. There was only one instance when the child wanted to describe the sun and she used the adjective ‘warm’ in AA /dafia/ instead of using MSA word /da:fiʔa/. This can be explained by the fact that he did not know the equivalent in MSA. In addition, there were two instances where the kid mispronounced words. The first example when the child mispronounced the word ‘sun’ /ʔassamfu/ and it should be pronounced as /ʔaffamsu/. This could be explained as mispronunciation /ʔassamfu/. Further, Algerians especially in Constantine say /ʔassamf/. The second example, when the child said that ‘children kidnap flowers’; the verb /jaʔtʔifu:na/ was not the right verb to mean ‘pick’. The child could said instead /jaʔtʔifu:na/. In this example, the child used a word from AA and conjugated it as if it is a MSA word. By doing so, he attached bound/ system morphemes from MSA to an AA verb.

The teacher continued asking the learners to describe seasons.

The teacher: **ʔindama: jantahi: fasʔlu ʔarrabi:ʔ ma:ða: jaʔti:**

When spring ends, what is the next season?

P2: **jaʔti: fasʔl ʔasʔsʔajf**

Summer arrives

The teacher: **ma:ða: jahduθu fi: fasʔl ʔasʔsʔajf**

What happens in summer?

P2: **fi: fasʔl ʔasʔsʔajf ʔalzaw sʔun jaylɪ**

In summer, the wheather is boiling hot

naðhabu nasbah fi: ?albahr

we go to swim in the sea

The teacher: **fi: fas'l ?arrab:f jabda ldzaw jwalı sa:çın**

In spring, the wheather starts to be hot

In this example, the teacher had asked the question in MSA and the learners answered the question using the same code. In the first two answers the kid did not switch to AA which indicated his competence in MSA. In the third answer, when the teacher asked them to describe what happened in summer, the kid switched to AA and he said /sçu:n jaylı/. The kid wanted to describe summer temperature and he meant that 'it is very hot'. Therefore, the child switched to AA because he could not express his ideas in MSA. When the learner had used the adjective /jaylı/ meaning 'boiling', this was not a mistake but an adjective used in dialectal Arabic to mean 'very hot'. However, if the child wanted to use MSA, he could say instead /sa:çın çıddan/.

The teacher: **fi: fas'l ?arrabi:f waf jas'ra**

In spring, what happens?

P1: **fi: fas'l ?arrabi:f ?affjamsu mufriqa ?al?amt'a:ru t_susqit'**

In spring, the sun is shining the rain falls

P2: **fi: fas'l ?arrabi:f ?alzawu zami:l ?al?at'fa:l jaruħu lilyaba**

In spring, the wheather is nice children go to the forest

In the above examples, when the teacher spoke to their learners, she switched to AA. The first learner answered her using MSA and he tried to describe spring using MSA

exclusively. Yet, he said /**tusqitʰ**/ meaning ‘falls’. That word was mispronounced and the child have said /tasqutʰ/. This could be due to his inability to find the exact word in MSA. The second kid, however, used intersentential and intrasentential switching when answering the teacher’s question. The first clause is in MSA. The second clause contains switching from AA to MSA. The ML is AA since system morphemes are from AA and the child switches to MSA for the word /**ʔalʔatʰfa:l**/. The word /lilyaba/ is composed of the system bound morpheme /lɪ/ ‘to’ and in MSA is /**ʔila:**/. The word /lyɑ:ba/ is a neutral morpheme because it exists in both codes. What is worth mentioning is the verb /jaruħu/. This verb is an AA word and it is mispronounced. It is the verb /jɾuħ/. The kid wants to turn it a MSA word like /jaðhabu/. So he mispronounces it.

Again, it can be hypothesized that:

If the children did not find the appropriate word in MSA, they would deviate from the standard pronunciation of the AA word to which they switched.

5.1.2.4.12. Session Twelve

Date: 12-4-2018

Time:9:00-9:20

Length of activity:20mn

Topic: The meal

Participants’ number: 20 boys: 10 girls:10

Objectives of the lesson: Learners will be able to identify the different component of the meal

Material: the textbook

The teacher asked the learners to look at the picture and describe what they saw (the different foods).

The activity consistde of a picture that containde a lot of kind of food and the learners' task was to select some food to have a healthy meal.

the teacher: kul waḥed jgulalna waḥ jḥab jakul fi ṛamdan

each one of you tell us what do you want eat in Ramadan

P1: ʔana naḥṣṣ, I maḥaṛuna wa ʔalfawa:kḥ wa slatʕa

I like the pasta and fruits and salad

the teacher: ʃkun li jsamilna mīm ma: tatakawan ʔalwaḥba ʔasʕsʕihija

Who can name the constituents of the healthy meal

P2: ʔana naḥṣṣ, I dʒadʒ maḥlī wa ʔalʕasʕi:r

I like fried chicken and juice

The teacher spoke to her learners using AA. She wanted them to understand very clearly the question. She wanted them to say what they liked to eat in Ramadan. The first child started answering her using AA (the matrix language) and then he switched to MSA when listing 'fruits'. He started the snetence using AA and then when he felt that he knew the word in MSA, he switched the code.

When the teacher asked learners the second question and she switched the code from AA to MSA, the chid answered her also by using AA as a matrix language and then switched

to MSA when he felt that he knew the word /ʔaɫsaʔi:r/. In this example, the child could continue using AA, but he wanted to show his teacher that he knew the word.

From these examples, the already generated hypothesis can be stated again:

If the children used AA as a ML, they would switch to MSA to show their interlocutors their knowledge of MSA.

5.1.2.4.13. Session Thirteen

Date: 24-4-2018

Time: 10:00- 10:25

Length of activity: 25mn

Topic: benefits of water

Participants' number: 24 boys: 11 girls: 13

Objectives of the lesson: learners will be able to state the benefits of water

Learners will be able to state how to protect water

Material: the textbook

The teacher showed the learners a picture of water and asked them some questions

the teacher: **min ʔajna natahas'alu ʕala: ʔalma:ʔ**

What is the source of water?

P1: sɪda:tʂɪ **mɪn ʔalmatʕar**

Madam, from the rain

the teacher: **mɪn ʔajna jaʔtɪ:na ʔalmatʕar**

What is the source of water?

P2: mɪn ʕand ɾabɪ

From God

the teacher: ʃkun jaħkɪlna kɪfaʃ tʂsʕub naw waf jaʕʕra

Who can tell us how does the rain fall? What happens?

P3: ʔassama:ʔu zarka:ʔ

The sky is blue

P4: wambaʕad jaɟɪr **ʔarraʕad** wambaʕad **tataʕakalu ʔalyuju:m**

And then there will be thunder and then the clouds will take shape

When the teacher asked the learners about the source of water in MSA, they answered her using the same code because they already knew the answer in MSA. In the second question, when the learners were asked about the source of water, one of them said that it was God. The kid answered using AA. This answer led the teacher to paraphrase her question since she felt that she was not understood. The teacher talked to them using AA. She asked them to say how the rain was fallen. The third learner replied this question by describing the sky in MSA. His answer was not a relevant to the question, but he used MSA. The fourth learner answered with a sentence composed of two clauses producing intersentential switching. In the first clause, the matrix language is AA and he switched to MSA for the content word /**ʔarraʕad**/ because the kid knew that word. Therefore, this sentence contained

intrasentential switching. Yet, the second clause was in MSA and there was no switching. The kid joined the two clauses with a connector from AA /wambaʕd/ ‘and then’.

After that, the teacher asked them a question about the different uses of water in MSA and she repeated the question in AA as follows:

the teacher: **ma:ða: naffalu bılma:ʔı**

What do we do with water?

wılma fdaʕ waf ndıru bıh natʕajfuh baʕk

And what do we do with water at home? Do we though it?

In this example, when the teacher felt that her learners could not understand her question, she repeated it using AA. The learners answered her as follows:

the teacher: **ma:ða: naffalu bıhı**

What do we do with it (water)?

P1: kulaʕ

Every thing

P2: nsajıq bıh

We clean the floor with it

P3: nfaʕbuh ʔalhajawana:t

The animals drink it

P4: nayaslu bıh lamaʕan

We use it to wash the dishes

nastahimu bih

We use it to take shower

P5: nayslu **fawakih**

We use it to wash fruits

nayslu **lyud'ar**

We wash vegetables

nat,hamu bih

We take shower

P6: wa nafrabuh **lilhajawana:t**

We drunk it to animals (she should say animals drink it or we give it to animals to drink it)

After the teacher had explained the question in AA, the learners raised their hands and wanted to answer this question. The first pupil answered her using AA by saying that water was used for everything /kulaʃ/. The second pupil also used AA to answer the question by saying that it was used to clean the floor. The third pupil, however, answered the question with a sentence that contained intrasentential switching. The matrix language, in this example, was AA. The child switched to MSA when saying the animals /ʔalhajawana:t/. Therefore, this was another example where the learners switched to MSA to show their interlocutors their knowledge of MSA

The fourth pupil used AA exclusively for the first sentence while in the second sentence the matrix language was MSA and he switched to AA for the system morpheme /bih/. This word is a neutral word it exists in both codes with slight difference in pronunciation and

in MSA it is pronounced /bihr/. The learner could not differentiate between the two words. Further, the fifth pupil used AA as a matrix language for the two sentences he had produced. In the first and the second sentence, the subjects and verbs were in AA and the objects were in MSA /**fawakih**/ and / **lyud^har**/. The kid here switched to MSA because he knew these words. In his last sentence, he used AA exclusively. Moreover, the sixth pupil answered the question using switched utterance, yet this sentence /**nafrabuh lilhajawana:t**/ contained a mistake that the child could not form the passive voice in either codes and he should say instead /**nuffaribuhu lilhajawana:t**/. The child here was unable to form the passive form in MSA and this resulted in a mixed utterance between the object which was in MSA and the rest of the sentence which was unclear to which code it belonged to.

5.1.2.4.14. Session Fourteen

Date: 25-4-2018

Time: 10:15-10:35

Length of activity: 20mn

Topic: The electricity

Participants' number: 20 boys: 10 girls: 10

Objectives of the lesson: learners will be able to state the uses and benefits of electricity

Material used: the textbook -Picture posed on the board

The teacher asked her learners to look at the ceiling and to describe what they saw until they managed to mention ‘the light’. Then, she wanted them to tell her about the source of the light and they stated that it was the electricity that provided them with the light needed.

The teacher: hada d’aw mnin ndzibuh

What is the source of light?

P: **mina ?affams**

From the sun

The teacher : nsamiwha **?at’f’aga ?affamsia**

We call it solar energy

The teacher’s question was in AA, but the first child answered her in MSA by saying that the source of light was the sun. The child’s answer led the teacher to correct him by naming this kind of energy as “the solar energy” in MSA. In this example, though the teacher used AA, the child replied using MSA. He knew that in formal situation, he had to use the high variety and especially because he knew it.

Then, the teacher gave chances to the other learners to participate as follows:

P1: **ja?əti: ?alkahraba:? min ?affams ?arrıjah ?alma:?**

Electricity comes from the sun wind water

The teacher: waf huma lhwajıdz lı nmafiwhum **bilahraba:?**

What are the objects that need electricity to work

P2: **nasta?miluhu fi: ?almıs’ba:h wa tilfa:z wa hdıd wa lmkırp wa θala:za**

We use it to light lamps and television and iron tclothes and to use computers and

refrigerators

The first learner had listed the different sources of electricity by using only MSA. After that, the teacher asked them about the instruments that needed electricity to work. The second learner answered her using MSA as a matrix language and he switched to AA when he did not know the equivalent of the name of the instruments in MSA such as /ħadɪd/ and /lmɪkrɔ/. The last word is borrowed from French “micro” which is the computer. The learner’s utterance contains an intra-sentential switching from MSA. The learner used words from AA to fill in the lexical gap.

5.1.2.4.15. Session Fifteen

Date: 26-4-2018

Time: 9:00-9:20

Length of activity: 20mn

Topic observed: how to help your parents

Participants’ number: 24 boys: 11 girls: 13

Objectives of the lesson: learners will state the different activities used to help their parents

Material: the textbook

The teacher asked the learners to state the different activities they used to help their parents.

P1: **ʔaftari: lɪʔumi: ʔafara:wila**

I buy to my mother the strawberry

P2: **ʔusa:ʕiduha fi: taqtʕi:ʕ lɪfraz**

I help my mother by cutting the strawberry

P3: **ʔusa:ʕid ʔumi: fi: tandʕi:f ʔalbajt**

I help my mother to clean the house

hadʕaralha tʕa:wila whia t_sadʒib sni

I prepare the table and she brings the tray

tandʕi:f ʔamaʕan

Washing dishes

P4: **ʔusa:ʕidu ʔabi: nasʕraħ maʕah ʔalbagrat**

I help my father in grazing the cows

The teacher: **ʔahsant galı ʔana: ʔusa:ʕidu ʔabi: fi: raʕaj ʔalʔabqar**

Very good, he said that I help my father in grazing the cows

The teacher asked the learners to mention the different activities they used to help their parents. The first learner used only MSA to describe what he did to help her mother while the second learner used MSA as a ML to describe what he did, but he switched to AA to fill in the gap because he did not know the word ‘strawberry’ in MSA. He used the equivalent in AA /lɪfraz/. This word is composed of the loan word /fraz/ a French word ‘fraise’ and the Algerian definite Article /la/. Thus, this is an example of intra-word switching where the bound definite article is from AA and the noun is from French. This switching could be explained by the

Free morpheme constraints. The switching is possible only if the free morpheme undergoes phonological integration in the the language of the bound morpheme. Here, in this example, the French word in integrated in AA. Therefore, this switching is possible. This sentence contains both intra-word switching and intersentential switching.

Further, the third learner mentioned some activities he did to help his mother. In the first sentence, he described the first activity using MSA. For the second activity, however, he used AA but he switched to MSA because he wanted to show his teacher that he knew that word in MSA. In this utterance, the ML is AA and the child switched to MSA only for the word /tʰa:wila/ “ table”. Yet, the learner used the word /hadʰaralha/ which is, in fact, MSA word /ʔuhadʰir laha:/ and it has been pronounced as if it is an AA word.

Further, the third sentence contains a switched pattern. the ML is MSA and the child said /**tandʰi:f**/ which is a MSA word and then because the kid did not know the equivalent word of /lamaʃan/, he used that AA word and attached to it the MSA definite article /ʔal/ and the /l/ is omitted. Consequently, the child used the MSA bound morpheme the definite article with the AA word.

Moreover, the fourth learner answered the teacher’s question by using an intersentential swithing. The first clause is in MSA and the second one is in AA and it contains an intra-word switching. That switching is in the word /ʔalbagrat/ where the definite article /ʔal/ is from MSA and the word /bagrat/ is from AA. The child thought that the word /bagrat/ is MSA and he attached to it the MSA definite article. Since the child used AA as a ML, the teacher repeated the sentence by MSA to show the learner how he could produce it using MSA exclusively.

The teacher continued the discussion with their pupils about the different activities they did in order to help their parents. Here are some of their answers:

P5: **ʔusa:ʕidu ʔumi: fi: tandʕi:f ʔalmala:bis** wa naʕraz bitʕI wa naysil **ʔalfawa:kih**

I help my mother in whashing the clothes and organizing the room and washing the fruits

The teacher: **jara kajfa tusa:ʕidi:na ʔumaki:**

Yara, how do you help your mother?

P6: **ʔusa:ʕidu ʔumi: fi: tandʕi:f ʔalmaʕan** wa nsijqalha

I help my mother in washing the dishes and cleaning the floor

The teacher: **kajfa ʔa:lɪk**

How do you do that?

P6: **tʕuhatʕrwlɪ** lma wa **ʔɪslat** lma

She pours out water and I clean the floor

The fifth pupil tried to answer her teacher's question. the utterance produced by the child contains intersentential and intrasentential switchings. The first clause is in MSA and the second is in AA. The third utterance, however, is an intrasentential switching. The ML is AA and the child switched to MSA because she knows the word. The learner used the MSA word /ʔalfawa:kih/ to show her teacher that she knows that word. However, the word /naysil/ is an intra-word switching. It is a neutral verb that is used in both AA and MSA and pronunciation that differentiates between the two codes. In this example, the verb is conjugated in the present by using the AA inflection the prefix /na/. If the verb was from AA, the child could say /naysl/. If the verb was from MSA, she should say /ʔaysil/ using the MSA inflection /ʔa/. Yet, the child said /naysil/ which means that the bound morpheme the

inflection of the present is from AA and the verb is from MSA. Therefore, the sentence produced by the fifth learner contains intersentential and intrasentential CS and intra-word switching.

Moreover, the teacher asked a particular learner called “yara” to tell her what she did to help her mother. The child wanted to use MSA especially because her teacher had already used it. So, she used MSA as a ML in the first clause and switched to AA only for the word /ʔalmaʃan/. This word is intra-word switching composed of the MSA definite article /ʔal/ and the AA word /maʃan/. By doing so, the child thought that he was speaking using MSA only while he was, in fact, filling the lexical gap using a word from AA. In the second clause, the child used AA exclusively.

After that, the teacher asked for more clarification. The child replied using AA but the words were mispronounced. The child said /t_guħat^ʃrwli/ and /wə ʔislat/ which are from neither AA nor MSA. The child wanted to use MSA exclusively so she deviated from the standard pronunciation of either codes.

As a consequence, it can be hypothesized that:

If the children did not find the appropriate word in MSA, they would deviate from the standard pronunciation of the AA word to which they switched.

5.1.2.4.16. Session Sixteen

Date: 2-5-2018

Time: 10:15 – 10:45

Length of activity:30mn

Topic observed:the story of the wolf and the goat

Participants' number:22 boys:10 girls:12

Objectives of the lesson: learners will be able to reorder the event of the story

Learners will be able to tell the story orally

Material: the textbook

In this session, the teacher's task was to help her learners to tell the event of the story. The teacher asked the learners to look at the pictures and to reorder them according to what they listened to. Then, the teacher asked them to check the event of the story

After that, the teacher asked her learners to narrate the story and what happened to the goat and the wolf. One of her learners said:

The pupil: **ʔalmaʕza raht t,ʕʕri ʔalyud'ar**

The goat went to buy vegetables

ʕalat wladha fi ʔalbajt

She left her children at home

ʔaḏib t'abt'b ʕlihum

The wolf knocked at the door

galhm ʔana ʔumkum

He told them that he was her mother

ʔaḏiʔbu kla lmaʕz

The wold ate the small goats

fatṣḥat ʔamaʕza **batʕnahu**

The goat opened his belly

whatʕet ʔalhɪza:ra fi: **batʕnahu** baʕdma ɣarʒat ʔawla:daha:

And she put the stones in his belly after she had taken out her children

The pupil tried to tell the story in chronological order. In the first sentence, the pupil used AA as a matrix language and MSA was the embedded language. He switched from AA to MSA because he knew the word in MSA /ʔalɣudʕar/. The word /ʔalmaʕza/ is an intra-word switching. It is composed of the AA word /maʕza/ and the MSA definite article /ʔal/ and its counterpart in AA is /l/. Thus, the child produced a sentence that contained an intrasentential switching and an intra-word switching. The child, in the second sentence, produced an intrasentential switching where he used AA as a ML and switched to MSA only for the word /ʔalbajt/ ‘the home’. He continued using AA and in the third and fourth sentences he did not switch the code; he used AA exclusively. In the fifth sentence, however, he used AA as a matrix language and he used the standard word /ʔaððɪʔbu/. In this example, the child produced intrasentential switching. In the sixth sentence, the child used also AA as a matrix language and he switched to MSA for the word /**batʕnahu**/. The pupil made an intrasentential CS in this sentence when he switched from AA to MSA. to show the interlocutor that he knew MSA, the child switched to MSA for the word /**batʕnahu**/.

Then, the child produced an utterance composed of two clauses. The first clause is an intrasentential switching where he used AA as a ML and switched to MSA for the words /ʔalhɪza:ra/, /fi:/ and the word /**batʕnahu**/. The latter is a MSA word mispronounced and the child should say /**batʕnhi**/. This can be explained that he is not fully competent in MSA. The

second clause also contains intrasentential switching since the ML is AA and the child switched to MSA for the word /ʔawla:daha:/ ‘her children’. The child, as it has been noticed earlier, wanted to show his knowledge of MSA.

Further, the teacher asked another pupil to tell her the story of the the goat and the wolf.

The teacher: ʔami:ʔ ʔaħkılı qıʕat ʔalʕanzatu wa ʔaððıʔb

Amir, tell us the story of the goat and the wolf

Amir: ðahabat ʔalʕanza ʔıla: ʔassuq

The goat went to the market

ħalat wladha fi: ʔalbajt

She left her children at home

wɔza ðıʔb klahm

And the wolf came and ate them.

When the teacher designed a pupil to tell the whole class the story of the wolf and the goat, the child started narrating using MSA. Then, in the second sentence, he used AA as a ML and switched to MSA for the word /ʔalbajt/ because he knew it. The third sentence also contains intrasentential switching where the ML is AA and the embedded language is MSA. The child knew the word /ðıʔb/, therefore, he inserted it in the sentence.

After that, the teacher asked the learners using AA to tell her what the goat did when she did not find her children, the learners answered her as follows:

the teacher: kı dʒat_s maʕza wmalgat_saf wladha waʕ darat_s

When the goat came and did not find her children, what did she do ?

P1: hazat_s hazra **wa miqas^s qas^sat bat^snu** lagat_s wladha

She took a stone and scissors and opened his belly and she found her children

P2: rahat_s l^sanza l^suq f^srat_s **?alyud^sar wa 0umma** dzat_s l^slbajt ?alгат_s t^siflatun **wa:hida**
wa dzabat_s **?almiqas^s** wa lh^szar wa **?alyajt^s** halat_s **bat^sn ?a00i?ab**

The goat went to the market and bought vegetables and then she came home and found only one child. She brought the scissors and stones and thread. she opened the belly of the wolf

When the teacher asked her children to tell her what the goat did when she did not find her children. The first kid answered her using an intersentential CS since the first clause was in AA and it contains intrasentential CS when the child switched from AA to MSA for the word /**miqas^s**/. Then, the second clause is in MSA, but the child mispronounced the word /**bat^snu**/ and it sounds as if it is an AA word. The child could say /**bat^snahu**/. This could be interpreted as his incomplete competence in MSA. The third clause, however, is in AA. This sentence is a cocktail of the two codes and it contains two different types of code switching: intersentential and intrasentential switching.

Another learner answered the teacher's question using a cocktail of AA and MSA. The child produced a long utterance composed of many clauses and with different types of switching: intrasentential, intersentential and intra-word switching. The ML is AA and the EL is MSA. All system morphemes are from AA and all content words are from MSA. For instance, the first clause contains intrasentential CS: the content morpheme is from MSA and the system morpheme is from AA as it is the case in the word /**lsuq**/. Here, /l/ is an Algerian preposition and its counterpart in MSA is /?ila:/ 'to' and the word /**suq**/ is from MSA. This

word is an instance of intra-word switching where the bound system morpheme is from AA and the free content morpheme is from MSA. The second the third and the fourth clauses also contain intrasentential switching from AA to MSA. In all these clauses, the child used AA as a ML and switched to MSA for the words they knew. In the fifth clause, however, the child used AA as a ML and switched to MSA for the content word /ʔalmiqasʕ/, but, the word /ħrɜar/ is neither AA nor MSA word. This is a mispronunciation of the word /ʔalhɜara/. This can be interpreted as a language interference in the child's mind and the words referring to the 'stones' in AA and its counterpart in MSA are approximately the same. Its only differences in pronunciation.

Other learners participated in the narration of the rest of the story as follows:

P3: ʔalmaʕza **qa:lat** lʔawla:dha matʃhaluʃ **ʔalba:b**

The goat asked her children not to open the door

mbaʕaditʃak dʒa **ðɪʕab** tʕabtʕab ʕla **ʔalba:b** taʕha galhum ʔand **ʔumukum**

Then the wolf came and knocked at the door and told them that he was her mother

P4: mbaʕdi:tak fatʃhatʃlu **batʕnu** wɣardʒatʃ **ʔawla:dha** mbaʕdi:tak hatʕatʃlu lahdʒar wa

kɪma nadʕ ɾaħ ll**brʔar** wə ʃrab ʔalma wa tʕaħ fil**brʔr**

Then she opened his belly and took their children and after that she put the stones and when

he woke up and went to drink water he fell into the well

When the third child narrated the rest of the story, he used MSA for the first verb /**qa:lat**/ and all the content morphemes apart from the word /ʔalmaʕza/ are from MSA. The child used this word because it resembles to that in MSA /ʔalʕanza/ and they differ only in

pronunciation. Yet, the system morpheme in /l/ in the word /lʔawla:dha/ is from AA and its counterpart in MSA is /ʔila:/. In the second sentence produced by the third learner, AA is the matrix language and MSA is the EL since the child used all the system morphemes from AA and he switched to MSA just for the content words as in /llbrʔar/. In this word, /brʔar/ is MSA content word and /lə/ is a preposition of place from AA and its counterpart /ʔila:/. The something is for the word /filbrʔr/ the content word /ʔalbrʔr/ is from MSA and the preposition of place /fi/ is an AA word and its counterpart in MSA is /fi:/>.

From these examples, it can be concluded that the learners produced utterances with different types of CS: intersentential, intrasentential and intra-word switching.

It can be hypothesized that:

If the child used AA as a ML, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morphemes would be from AA and the content words would be from MSA.

5.1.3. The Results Obtained

The analysis and the interpretation of the data collected during the participant observation phase was based on analysing the field notes and recordings. Extracts from the recorded data were transcribed. The analysis of these transcriptions was based on the following points:

- The structure of the mixed sentence
- Motivations to CS
- Functions to CS
- The type of the switched utterances

The participant observation hand in hand with the recorded data show the following results:

- ✓ The children at this age can produce a variety of utterances that contain different types of switching: intrasentential, intraswitching and intra-word switching. However, intra-word switching is highly frequent in their speeches especially because they could not find the equivalent word in MSA.
- ✓ When the children do not know the word in MSA, intra-word switching would occur: bound system morpheme is from MSA and free content morpheme is from AA.
- ✓ The children can produce a cocktail of intersentential, intrasentential and intra-word switching in one utterance.
- ✓ When the children know the structure and the content morphemes necessary for building sentences in MSA and even if the teacher uses AA, they opt for the use MSA
- ✓ When the children do not find the equivalent words, they may switch to AA to fill in the lexical gap.
- ✓ The switched patterns do not violate the Free Morpheme Constraints, the Equivalence Constraints and the Matrix Language Constraints. Therefore, diglossic switching is not a random process, but it is governed with rules as it has been suggested by Moshref(2013) “code switching in many structures is more constrained and sometimes blocked when the first element is standard Arabic”(p. 11).

- ✓ When children use AA as a ML and they switch to MSA, they produce intra-word switching where the bound system morpheme is from AA and the content free morpheme is from MSA. This kind of switching may occur in with the content words that do exist in both codes and they differ only in pronunciation.
- ✓ Intra-word switching may occur between AA and French. Here, the bound morpheme is from AA and free morpheme is from French. This switching is possible because the latter i phonologically intergrated in AA.
- ✓ When the interlocutor use MSA eclusively, the children opt for the use of MSA as a ML and they switch to AA only to fill in the lexical gap.
- ✓ CS is not only used for clarification and emphasis, but it is used also by kids as a sentence filler and to show the knowledge of MSA.
- ✓ The teacher use CS for pedzgogical reasons such as for clarification and explanation.
- ✓ Further, there are some words that are neutral. They exist in both codes and the learners may not be sure about which code to use.

Therefore, It is high time to question the separation of the domains of diglossia and that Ferguson's diglossia 1959 should be reconsidered.

The analysis of the data obtained from the participant observation phase resulted in generating the following hypotheses:

- *If the children used AA as a ML, they would switch to MSA to show the interlocutor their knowledge of MSA.*

- *If the children used MSA as a ML, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morphemes would be from AA and the content free morphemes would be from MSA.*
- *If the children did not find the right word in MSA, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morpheme would be from MSA and the free content morpheme would be from AA.*
- *If the children did not know the appropriate word in MSA, they would deviate from the standard pronunciation of the AA word to which they switched .*

5.2. The Interviews

The second means used to collect data is the interview. Two interviews were conducted: an interview with the sample and another one with the teacher.

5.2.1. The Children's Interview

The interview with the children was designed to see whether the interlocutor's choice of code would affect the children's code and the decision to switch.

5.2.1.1. The Analysis of the Interview Data

The interview took place in one session where some of the children were randomly selected to be interviewed by the researcher. The information provided by the children while

answering the interviews' questions were not as important as the code used by them.

Therefore, the analysis of the interview is based on analysing the code used mainly.

Date: 7-5-2018

Time: 10:30 - 10:55

Length of the activity: 1h 30mn

Topic observed: oral expression : el Aid el ad ha

Participants' number: 19 boys:9 girls: 10

Objectives of the lesson: learners will be able to describe the activities performed in the day

Eid-ul Adha

Material: pictures about Eid-ul Adha posed on the board

The teacher introduced the topic by asking the learners about the pictures posted on the board. The learners replied that the pictures represented Eid-ulAdha. Then, the researcher told them that they would take turn to answer her questions. She encouraged them to participate by rewarding them once they had answered the questions.

The researcher took turn to interview the learners. The questions were sometimes in MSA and other times in AA.

Here are the interviews with different learners.

5.2.1.1.1. First Learner

When the researcher asked the first child questions in MSA, most of his answers were in MSA too such as in questions: one (1), two (2), five (5), six (6) and eight (8). Further, when the researcher asked the child questions in AA, he replied in AA exclusively such as in questions three (3) and ten (10).

Yet, the child switched from MSA to AA in question seven (7). When the researcher asked her what her father did after coming back from the mosque, the child used MSA as a ML in his answer. He switched to AA for the verb /jaʒbɪdu/ which means “takes”. This word is from AA /jaʒbad/. There was a deviation from the standard pronunciation of that word. The child wanted to make the AA word sound like an MSA one.

5.2.1.1.2. Second Learner

The researcher asked the second child questions using either AA or MSA. When she used only AA for questions one (1) and seven (7), the child answered her using the same code. However, when MSA was used exclusively by the researcher for question two (2), the learner relied using MSA exclusively.

Yet, in question three (3), the interviewer used MSA and the child replied using AA exclusively. This indicates his lack of competence that he could not reply in MSA. For question four (4), he switched from AA to MSA when he used the MSA word /ʔalkabf/ because he knew the word. Further, question five (5) was asked in MSA and the child produced mixed utterances. In the second utterance, he used AA as a ML and switched to AA

for the word /ħakmihı/. The child wanted to turn the AA word sound MSA one by mispronouncing it. Here, the AA word is / ħakım/ and the child said instead / ħakmihı/ on the same rhythm as the MSA word /maskihı/.

In the first utterance of the child's answer, he replied using MSA exclusively.

When the researcher asked question six (6) in MSA, the child replied using AA exclusively. However, in question eight (8) the interviewer asked the question using AA as a ML and switched to MSA only for the word /**lyada:ŝ**/. This means that the child introduced a MSA word in an AA sentence to show his interlocutor his knowledge of MSA.

From the child's answers, it can be concluded that the child's use of MSA and AA does not depend upon the interlocutors and the decision to switch is not influenced by the code used by the interlocutors.

5.2.1.1.3. Third Learner

When the researcher used MSA in questions: two (2), four (4), five (5) and seven (7), the child replied using MSA too. However, in questions three (3) and twelve (12), the researcher used AA exclusively and the child replied also using only AA.

On the other hand, there are some instances where the child answered with mixed utterances. For instance, the first (1) question where the researcher asked the question in MSA and the child answered it using MSA as the ML, but he inserted the verb /jaruħu/ which is /jəruħ / in AA and it is pronounced as if it is a MSA word. Therefore, the child had a lexical gap and wanted to render the AA word sounds MSA one.

In question six (6), the researcher used AA and the child replied using MSA too. The child wanted to show his interlocutor that he knew MSA and that he was competent.

In question eight (8), the researcher used MSA to ask the question and then she repeated the question in AA. The researcher wanted to be understood by the learner. The child answered the question using AA exclusively. This means that the researcher's use of AA encourages the child to use AA.

In question nine (9), the child replied using MSA though the question was asked in AA. This means that the child was competent in MSA and he knew how to answer this question and that the interlocutor's code did not affect the child's choice of code. In question ten (10), however, the researcher used AA only and the child used AA as a ML when replying to this question with a mixed utterance. He produced an intersentential switching. In the first clause, the child used MSA and in the second clause, he used AA.

In question eleven (11), the researcher used MSA and the child replied in AA. The use of AA by the child may be due to his lack of competence in MSA.

Therefore, the choice of the code does not depend on the code used by the interlocutor. From the above examples, there are many situations where the researcher used AA, but the child preferred to use AA.

5.2.1.1.4. Fourth Learner

In the first (1) and fourth (4) questions, the researcher used MSA and the child answered her in MSA too. Yet, in other questions such as three(3), five(5) and six (6), the researcher asked the questions in AA and the child replied also using AA exclusively.

However, question (2) was asked in MSA and the child produced a mixed utterance. The first clause, in the child's answer, is in MSA while the second one is in AA. In the first clause, the child used the verb /ʔaðhabu/ and he was confused between the bound morphemes /ja/ and /ʔa/. Instead of using /ja/ the bound morpheme for the present, he used /ʔa/ as if the subject is 'I'. In this case, the child should say /jaðhabu ʔabr:/ instead of /ʔaðhabu ʔabr:/. This means that the child was mixed between "I" and "he" in his mind. At the beginning, he thought that he was talking about himself and that is why he started the sentence with /ja/ and then he continued the rest of the sentence talking about his father.

5.2.1.1.5. Fifth Learner

When the researcher asked the question in MSA, the learner also answered in MSA as it is the case in questions one (1) and four (4) while in question three (3), the interviewer asked the question in AA and the child replied using the same code.

The second question, however, was asked in MSA. The child used MSA as a ML to answer this question. But, once she had a lexical gap, she resorted to AA for the verb /jaʃrɪ:/. This verb represents another instance of the deviation from the standard pronunciation because this verb /jaʃrɪ/ and in MSA is /jaʃtarɪ:/. By so doing, the child wanted to make the verb sound like an MSA one.

In the fifth question, the researcher used MSA, the learner wanted also to use it, yet, she produced a mixed utterance where MSA is the ML. The first verb /juʃarɪzuhu/ is from neither MSA nor AA. It has deviated from the standard pronunciation of the AA word jəʃarəzu/ in the belief that by doing so, the verb becomes an MSA one. The second word, on

the other hand, is a MSA one. Then, the child produced a second mixed utterance related to the first one by the conjunction / **θumma**/ from MSA and the rest of the clause was in AA and only insertion of the word /**ʔumi:**/ from MSA. This utterance contains also another instance of a word with a strange pronunciation that does not belong to either codes. The verb /_sat^fajjubuhu/. This verb originally is the AA word /t^fajbu/ which is phonologically integrated in MSA following the pronunciation of the MSA verb /**tat^fbaɣuhu**/. Then, she used AA for the rest of the utterance.

In the sixth question, the interviewer used MSA and the child used an intrasentential utterance. MSA is the ML and when the child had a lexical gap, she switched to AA words. Then, she started the second utterance with the personal pronoun /**ʔana**/ from MSA and switched to AA for the rest of the utterance. It is worth mentioning that the two verbs /naħkim/ and /jaslɪχ/ present examples of deviation from the standard pronunciation. The seventh question (7) asked the teacher in MSA. The child replied in MSA, but he switched to AA only for the word /ləkebʃ/. This can be explained that this word is neutral since it exists in both varieties and there is a slight difference between them: this word in AA is /ləkabʃ/ and in MSA is /**ʔalkabʃ**/. Therefore, the child could not notice the difference between the two and he used the AA word believing that this is an AA word.

The last question was asked in AA and the child answered using intrasentential switching where all content words are from MSA and the verb is AA.

5.2.1.1.6. Sixth Learner

For questions one (1), three (3) and four (4), the researcher asked them in MSA and the learner used also MSA to answer them.

For questions two (2) and five (5), the researcher used AA and even the child replied on these questions using the same code.

The last question six (6) was asked in MSA and the child replied by producing an intrasentential switching where MSA is the ML and he switched only for the word /jezbed/ 'sorts out'. He did so to fill in the lexical gap.

5.2.1.1.7. Seventh Learner

Questions three(3), four(4) and seven (7) were asked in MSA and the child also replied using the same code. However, the interviewer asked question two(2), in AA and the child answered it using the same code.

On the other hand, the first question was asked in MSA and the child answered it using MSA as a ML but he switched to AA only for the verb /jaʃɪ/. He did so to fill in the lexical gap. The researcher asked question four (4) in MSA but the child replied using AA. But, for question six (6) which was asked in AA, the child answered it using an intrasentential switching where AA is the ML and he switched only for the word /ʔumi:/. Here, even though the researcher used AA, the child switched to MSA. This indicates that he wanted to show the interlocutor what he knows MSA by inserting that word.

Question eight (8) was asked in MSA and the child answered it using intrasentential switching in the first utterance. That is, he used two verbs; the second verb is in MSA while the first is /juɣarɪzuhu/. This verb also has a pronunciation that is neither of AA nor of MSA. If it were an AA verb it should be /jaɣarzu/ and if it were MSA verb it should be

/juχɾɪzuhu/ . Therefore, this verb presents an instance of the deviation from the standard pronunciation of the AA word to fill in the lexical gap.

In the second utterance, the child switched from AA to MSA. He used the coordinator conjunction /θumma/ and the word /ʔumr:/ from MSA and the rest of the sentence was in AA. The child wanted to show the researcher that he knew MSA words and this is the reason why he inserted words from MSA.

5.2.1.2. The Results Obtained

The researcher's interview with the children aimed to find out whether the interlocutor's language, the choice of the code and the decision to switch the code could be influenced by the interlocutor's language. The interview aimed at answering the following question: *Does the language used by the interlocutor influence the switching?*

From the analysis of the children's interview provided above, the following results can be drawn:

- There are frequent deviations from the standard pronunciation of certain AA words when the child has a lexical gap and could not find the equivalent word in MSA.
- The Children may switch to MSA when they used AA as a ML to show their interlocutor their knowledge of MSA.

- The children's use of MSA or AA does not depend on the language used by their interlocutor and the decision to switch the code is not influenced by the code used by the interlocutor.
- The choice of the code is not influenced by the code used by the interlocutor. There are many instances where the researcher used AA and the child replied in MSA or by switching from AA to AA.

Therefore, it can be concluded that when the interlocutor uses MSA or AA, children are not necessarily going to use the same code and the decision to switch the code is not influenced by the interlocutor.

5.2.2. The Teacher's Interview

The teacher's interview is conducted with the teacher of the sample

5.2.2.1. The Analysis of the Interview

Once the researcher had finished the analysis of the recorded data (that had been transcribed), and had reformulated the hypotheses, she conducted an interview with the pre-school children, an interview with the pre-school teacher is necessary. By so doing, the researcher could get an outer view of the phenomenon of switching between MSA and AA. The researcher conducted the interview by the end of June of 2018. The researcher asked for the teacher's permission to have an interview and explained to her the reasons behind interviewing her. The researcher told the teacher that she had to answer questions about the children's behaviour and language. The teacher was afraid from answering the questions and she thought that she was going to be tested and evaluated. She asked the researcher to postpone the interview to another day. She even said that she was afraid of committing

mistakes. Therefore, the researcher did all her best to explain to her that her answers were not to be judged as being wrong or right, but the aim was to get her opinion about the switching the children were producing. After a thorough explanation of the reasons and the aims behind conducting the interview, the teacher accepted to answer the questions, but in her eyes, there was a fear of being judged or of committing mistakes.

The interview's questions are based on the data obtained from the participant observation and the analysis of the transcribed extracts. The interview aims at confirming the already generated research hypotheses:

- *If the children used AA as a ML, they would switch to MSA to show the interlocutor their knowledge of MSA.*
- *If the children used MSA as a ML, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morphemes would be from AA and the content free morphemes would be from MSA.*
- *If the children did not find the right word in MSA, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morpheme would be from MSA and the free content morpheme would be from AA.*
- *If the children did not know the appropriate word in MSA, they would deviate from the standard pronunciation of the AA word to which they switched .*

The questions of the interview are centered around one major aim is to get an outsider point of view about the phenomenon under study. The interview is composed of twelve (13) questions: some questions contain examples from the children's speech and the teacher is asked to comment upon and explain the switching that occurred. All the questions are asked in

MSA. Yet, when the teacher did not understand the question, the researcher might switch to AA to clarify the question. The researcher also tried to use MSA exclusively, but she switched from time to time to AA.

1- How many years have you been teaching in the primary school ?

2- How many years of teaching in the pre-school education?

The aim behind asking these two questions is to see whether the teacher has an experience in the field of teaching pre-school classes or not since almost all teachers who taught this level of education are experienced ones.

The teacher answered that she has taught in the primary education for about thirty two years (32) and for nine years (9) in the pre-school education. This indicates that the pre-school classes are given to more experienced teachers because they know the psyche of young children at that age and they know how to behave with them.

3- What is your mother tongue?

4- Do you switch between: MSA, AA, and French? And why?

This question aims at identifying the teacher's mother tongue. At first, the teacher did not get the meaning of the question and she started answering it as if the question was about the language used in teaching. She said that in the previous year, she used MSA. The researcher interrupted her and asked her about the language used at home. The teacher answered her that it was AA and she added that she mixed between languages: AA, MSA and French. The teacher had already answered question four (4): **Do you switch between: MSA, AA, and**

French? And why? The teacher said that she switches the code at home with her family members and she switches between AA, MSA and even French.

5- And in the classroom, do you switch the code? And what are the languages you switch to?

This question is asked to see whether the teacher switches the code in th classroom or not and the languages used in the switching and also to know whether the teacher is aware of the switching. According to the teacher’s answers, MSA is used exclusively with the learners of different levels (first, second grades ...). Yet, For children of pre-school, AA words are accepted. Teachers can switch to AA with their learners. The use of the learners’ first language in the class was advocated and investigated by many researchers such as Jingxia (2010) Macoro (1997), Tang (2002), Stern (1992), and Yao (2011) (as cited in Mouleme et al, 2019).

When the researcher asked her whether she switched the code with her children of pre-school class, the teacher answered her that at the beginning of the lesson there should be swiching and gradually MSA would be used exclusively. The teacher’s anwsers are as follows.

The teacher: **maθalan** kɪ nabdalhum dars kajɪn **mazɜ** wə mbaʃad nħawal ʔana nyalab

For example when I start the lesson, there would be switching and then I try to make MSA a

luya lʃarabija lfusha: **wala:kɪn** bɪtʔabʃ huma ʃaɾ hata **walaw** jgulji **kalɪma** taʃ lbait

dominant language, however, ofcourse they are young even they say a word in AA

natqabalha manu

I accept it

The first observation to be made about this small extract, is that even the teacher is switching the code from AA to MSA. The ML is AA because most of the system morphemes and verbs are from AA. The teacher is switching from time to time to MSA. This can be interpreted as she wants to show the researcher that she knows MSA.

Further, in her answer, the teacher said that at the beginning of the school year she has to use AA and to integrate MSA gradually until it dominates the children's speech especially in the first months, that is, is September, October and November.

6- Do you think that code switching is beneficial to children of preparatory education?

This question is posed in order to see whether the teacher considers CS as beneficial or detrimental.

The teacher said that from the first moment she started teaching the pre-school children, there should be CS (and she repeated that twice because she insisted on its the utility at this level). She added that after some weeks of teaching, the teacher is going to do all her best to make MSA more dominant in the child's speech.

7- Concerning the ministerial law that the previous minister of education was about to order in 2015, do you think that all primary school teachers were for or against this

law (the law that advised teachers to use AA as a language of instruction in the class)

This question is posed in order to get the teacher's point of view about the law that the previous minister of education wanted to order and which encouraged teachers to use AA in the classroom (teachers of all levels were asked to use AA in class as a medium of instruction). The teacher replied that this law would help her teachers in their teachings and especially of the pre-school teacher. She believed, however, that it would not be helpful for the teachers of the other grades (first, second, ... and so on).

The law that was about to be ordered in 2015 by which the previous Minister of Education wanted teachers to use AA as a language of instruction. This law was faced with a strong disapproval by intellectual and even lay people. All social media made joke of this law and they believed if that law was applied, it would hinder learning. Thus, even teachers in the primary school are against this law.

8- During our presence with the children of the preparatory class, we have noticed that they switched the code between MSA and AA when the child could not find the right word in MSA? how do you explain this?

For example, in the lesson of numbers from one to five (1-5), you asked the learners what "does the girl hold?" and they answered you that she holds balloons⁴² /təhmilu mbajl/

And when you asked them "what does she wear?"

The child answered you that she wears a hat "/laktalbasu ʃapp/

⁴² The question is asked in MSA and the researcher has translated into English. All questions of the interview in MSA in the appendix

In the lesson about the description of the classroom one pupil said that the colour of the sky is orange ‘/laun ʔatʔa:wila tʃɪni/’

So why do the children switch to words to their mother tongue?

This question aims at identifying the reasons behind the children’s switching from MSA to AA. The children use MSA as a ML and then they switch to AA. The researcher wants to get the teacher’s point of about the children’s switching to AA and whether they do so to fill in the lexical gap.

The teacher said that they do so because they do not have previous knowledge about ‘hat’ /qubbaʃa/ or they did not have a lesson about it. However, the word /ʃapp/ is frequently used since the child’s father wears /ʃapp/. So, the child already knows the word, but the word /qubbaʃa/ rarely occurs in a story and the child does not concentrate on it.

Then, the researcher asked the teacher about the word /tʃɪni/. The teacher said that she taught her children the colours and they know them well, but /tʃɪni/ always predominates and the children like this word because they like eating orange which they call /tʃɪna/. According to the teacher, the children do not use the MSA word /burtuqa:la/, but instead they keep repeating the word /tʃɪna/. They are habitual for using these words.

After that, the researcher repeats the question to get the teacher’s point of view. The teacher’s justifies the children’s use of AA as being due to their family and environment. In what follows is an extract from the teacher’s interpretation about the switching to AA:

The researcher: **fi: raʔjuk lɪma:ða: jastaʃmɪl ʔattla:mi:ð kalɪma:t mɪn luyatɪhɪm**

ʔalʔum

In your point of view, why do children use words from their mother tongue?

The teacher: **bɪhukam ʔalwasat wa lʔusra t̤asama jatʔya:w bazaf ʃala t̤ful ʃhar wa θɪnɪn**

Because of the environment and the family, these words dominate the child a lot

wa 0lata wa mat, aqadriḥ t,ḡardzjihum haduk **qalima:t ra:sḡi:n**

one month, two and three and you cannot sort them out they are engraved

As a first observation that can be done about the teacher's answer, it can be noticed that she is switching between MSA and AA. According to her answer, when the children are using MSA, they switch to AA because they are habitual with certain words and this is due to their family and their environment. The teacher has not mentioned that they do so to fill in lexical gap. Thus, the teacher's answer is not expected. Therefore, according to the teacher's opinion, the children do not know the word and they are habitual to AA word and they use it frequently and they like using it that is why they resort to their mother tongue whenever they are to say these words.

To sum up, the teacher's explanation to the children's switching to AA does not confirm the hypothesis that states that when the children used MSA as a ML, they would switch to AA to fill in the lexical gap. The teacher believes that children resort to AA because they are habitual to AA.

9- In the case of the children's use AA, they may switch to MSA words

For example:

- When describing 'polyclinic' you have said: "what is polyclinic?"

*One pupil answered that it means a place where we can treat "/maḡnatu **maka:n** ndawiw fih/"*

-When you asked them to tell you the story of their illness, one pupil said that a doctor examined him " /qalabni **?at^sabi:b/**"

How do you explain the children's switching in these situations and why do they do?

The aim behind asking this question is to get the teacher's view concerning the reasons behind the children's switching to MSA when using AA as a ML.

The teacher explains this switching by saying that the word /**mustaws'af**/ 'polyclinic' is a heavy word for the child and the word /**jafhas'**/ 'examine' is not a heavy word but it is not frequently used in their everyday communication.

Concerning the learner's use of the word /**ʔat't'abi:b**/ instead of /t'bib/, the teacher argued that this MSA word is used frequently in the learner's environment. However, the word /**mustaws'af**/ is barely used. Also, the word /**mustaffa:**/ is heavy for children.

According to the teacher, in examples such as the following: “/maʕnatu **maka:n** ndawi:w fih/” the children understand the situation, but they are not competent enough in MSA to express themselves adequately. The teacher believes that when the children use AA and switch to MSA, they do so for words that are already known for them. Therefore, according to the teacher's opinion, when using AA as a ML, the learners switch to MSA for the words they have already known and have been exposed to before.

The teacher's answers do not confirm the already stated hypothesis: when the children used AA as a ML, they would switch to MSA to show their interlocutors their knowledge of MSA. The teacher believed that the children's resort to MSA words because they knew and they were exposed to them only.

10- How do you explain that some pupils pronounce some words in an odd way when they code switch?

For example:

-In the lesson of the polyclinic, you had asked the pupils to tell you the story when they got ill what they did.

A pupil answered you that he was examined and he took his drug “/tʃaʃi:t wa ʃriɪt ʔaddwa:ʔ/”

-In the lesson about the description of the classroom, one pupil said that that white board is white and the coat is black “/ʔassabu:ra baidʕa:ʔ wa ʔalmiʃtʕaf ʔakħal/”

In the description of daily activities, one pupil said that she washes her face “/ʔaysil wazħin/”

How do you explain the pronunciation of these words?

This question aims at getting the teacher’s opinion about the switched the children are producing and about the odd pronunciation of some words. It also aims to shed some light on the switching that happens at word level between the system and content morphemes.

The teacher answered that the children in the examples above wanted to show their interlocutors that they know MSA. Thus, instead of using /kħal/ , the kid said /ʔakħal/. According to the teacher, this indicates that he has a strong personality and he thinks that he is speaking with MSA.

The researcher draws the teacher’s attention to the other examples such as: “/ʔaysil wazħin/”. The teacher said that in this example the pupil also wants to show that he knows MSA and that he can express himself in that code. This is considered as a mistake by adults, but the child believes that he was correct.

According to the teacher’s explanation of this question, the kids pronounce some words in strange way (which is in fact switching at word level) that they want to show their mastery of MSA and because they have a strong personalities. Again, the teacher’s explanation does not clarify the switching at word level. She did not mention that the child was using MSA

system bound morpheme with the content morpheme. This can be due to their lack of knowledge about the phenomenon of CS in general and about morphology in particular.

Therefore, the teacher's justification did not confirm the previously stated hypothesis: When the children did not find the right word in MSA, intra-word switching would occur where the system bound morpheme would be from MSA and the content morpheme would be from AA

11- What is your opinion about the words children said in the lesson of meat derivatives and milk derivatives?

ʔaju:rt ʔapt_sISWIS ʔalfurmadz ʔat⁵

This question seeks to get the teacher's explanation to the intra-word switching produced by the children.

The researcher introduced the question by recapitulating with the teacher the lesson of milk derivatives. Then, the researcher listed some examples said by the children and which contained intra- word switching.

The researcher: ʔaju:rt ʔapt_sISWIS ʔalfurmadz ʔat⁵ waf rajik fil**kalma:t** hadu

What do you think of these words?

The teacher: **muʔd'am ʔaffaʕab ʔalzazajiri jagulek fɔɓmadz balfiransija wala balfarabija** wahna nagulu furmadz

Almost the Algerians say 'cheese'⁴³ in French or Arabic and we say 'cheese'

ʔat⁶ful kima ngullu **ʔalzubn** liʔawal marra t₃ih kalima yari:ba hat_st_sa maʕa lwaqat jagulak furmadz

⁴³ Cheese is the translation of the words said by the teacher whether in AA or French

When we say 'cheese' for the first time the boy finds it odd even with time he says 'cheese'

According to the teacher, the child uses the word /fɔɾmadʒ/ and this word, among others, is generally used in everyday communication and their equivalents in MSA are not known, and used in Algerian context. In this case, the word /ʔalʒubn/ is difficult to remember.

Further, the researcher draws the teacher's attention to the addition of /ʔa/ to the Algerian words /ʔaju:ɾt/ /ʔapt,ɪswɪs/ /ʔatɔ̃/

The researcher: **ʔiðann ʔatʔɪfl** hna gaʒad jgul ʔajurt ʔapt,ɪswɪs

Thus, here the child says yogurt

The teacher: tʔful hna ʔaw jnaʒat, fiðaka:ʔ t,ʒaʒu gaʒad jɾudli fi:ha: **luya ʒarabiʒa fusha:**
wa **farhan** bɾuħu kɪ gulha

Here the child shows himself and he turns it MSA word and he is happy by saying it

The researcher: waʒlah wadʒaf ʔa

Why he used '/ʔa/'

The teacher: ʔaw gaʒad **jastaʒmal fi:ha luya**

He is using it as if it is MSA

The only explanation the teacher provides for the child's use of /ʔa/, is that he is turning an AA word into MSA by attaching to it /ʔa/. However, she does not explain that /ʔa/ is the definite article /ʔal/ and the /l/ is to be dropped when the word to be attached to starts with a stressed syllable⁴⁴.

⁴⁴ This is a phonological rule known as القمرية و الشمسية

Therefore, the teacher's show her lack of knowledge of bound/ free and system/ content morphemes. She does not explain that the switching occurred at the word level. Thus, the already stated hypothesis is neither confirmed nor refuted because the teacher justified the switching just by saying the children were turning AA words into MSA ones.

12- What do you think about these examples?

- /ʔaysil jadi:h ʔafrabu hlibah wa ʔayrudj ʔila: ʔalmadrasa/
- /na:dʃ ʔatʔifl min ʔalfira:f ʔaðhaba ʔila: ʔalhama:m ʔafrab hali:bah/
- In the description of spring: “/ʔassamfu dafia/”
“/fi: fasʔl ʔarrabi:f ʔalzawwu zami:l ʔalʔatʔfa:l jaru:hu lilya:ba/”
- In the description of summer: “/fi: fasʔl ʔarrabi:f ʔaffamsu mufriqa ʔalʔamtʔa:ru tusqitʔ/”

The aim behind asking this question is to get the teacher's opinion about the switches that contained mispronunciation such /ʔaysil jadi:h ʔafrabu hlibah wa ʔayrudj ʔila: ʔalmadrasa / . Here, the child is describing the daily activities of a boy and what he does from the moment he wakes up until he goes to school. The teacher explained this example as the kid was describing the child and she was not concentrating; she was talking about the boy and herself at the same time.

the teacher: had tʔufla wasʔafatʔlak haka hija gaʔda tʔawsʔaflak ftʔful wa bima: ʔannaha mahif mʔakza tʔahdar ʔla tʔful wnaflsha

This girl did not concentrate because she described the boy she talked about him and herself

The teacher justifies the mixture the kid is using and the mispronunciation of certain words as the kid was confused and he was talking about the boy and herself at the same time. This can be explained as the girl was confused in her mind between the two personal pronouns 'I' and 'he'.

For the second example, *‘/na:dʃ ʔatʔʔifl min ʔalfira:f ʔaðhaba ʔila: ʔalhama:m ʔaʃrab ɥalr:bah/’*, the teacher justified this mixing like the previous example. She said the child speaks as if he is using MSA.

In this example, the child again was confused between the two personal pronouns 'I' and 'he'. He attached the bound morpheme /ʔa/ to the verbs. This bound morpheme should be used with the personal pronoun 'I' and here the child is describing the kid's regular activities about. Thus, he should use /ja/ instead. Therefore, in this example the child was confused and he talked about the child in the picture but used the bound morphemes reflecting the personal pronoun 'I' as if he was talking about himself.

Concerning the description of spring, when the child said *“/ʔassamfu dafia/”*, the teacher explained this example by saying that the child has a strong personality and he knows that when the sun shines, his body gets warm. Here, the teacher could not have any justification or explanation. Thus, she answered that he used /dafia/ which is misused in this context. Thus, she has understood neither why nor how he said so.

The researcher precised her question and asked the teacher how she would explain the word */ʔassamfu/* and it should be */ʔaffamssu/*. The teacher answered that /samʃ/ is an AA word and almost all Algerians use it as it is.

Another example suggested by the researcher is : *“/fi: fasʔl ʔarrabi:f ʔalzawwu zami:l ʔalʔatʔfa:l jaʃuɥu lilya:ba/”*. The teacher laughed and then said that this is a disorganized sentence and he is going neither to be blamed nor discouraged and after some

time, he will learn how to express himself in a coherent and comprehensive utterances, but at the beginning he starts like this. The researcher has focused on the verb /jaɾuħu/ and asked for the teacher's opinion about this verb. She answered as follows:

The teacher: huwa **ðaha:b** wal**ʔja:b** majaɣarfuħaf t_{sd}ɜɪħa kalmat jaɾu:ħu ɣfifa

They do not know going and coming the word go is easy

According to the teacher's answers, the kid used the verb /jaɾuħu/ because that AA verb is light and because he does not know its equivalent in MSA.

Thus, the teacher does not mention that the word /jaɾuħu/ deviated from its standard pronunciation /jəɾu:ħ/. The pronunciation of the word sounds as if it is MSA like the word /jaðħabu/

The teacher's point of view does neither confirm nor refute the already stated hypothesis: When the children did not find the appropriate word in MSA, they would deviate from the standard pronunciation of the AA word they switched to.

13- In your opinion; if we allow the use of code switching between MSA and AA in the classes of preparatory, how would the level of our children be in the future?

This question aims at getting the teacher's view point about the use of diglossic switching in pre-school classes, whether she views it negatively or positively and how she would expect the level of education in the future when applying it. The teacher replied that switching must be especially in the first months of the school year of the pre-school classes.

the teacher: **ʔawalan lmazaɣ ʔaw lazam wa ɣa:s'atann fi fuħu:r ʔalʔu:la:**

First, there should be mixing especially during the first months

ʔamma: fi: niħa:jat ʔassana jaɣni: qbal niħa:jat ʔassana bɣahri:n ʔaw tala:ta ʔana:

nħawal

But by the end of the year I mean before the end of the year in one or two months I try

bi qadar ʔalmustatʕa:ʕ naʕtʕi ʔalluya ʔalʕarabiya ʔasʕsʕahi:ħa ħuna:ka man jastawʕib

all my best to provide the children with correct Arabic language there are who grasp

wa ħuna:ka man la: jastawʕib wa tʕakmila tkum fi sana ʔula:

and there are who do not and the continuation will be in the first year

According to the teacher's point of view, diglossic switching is indispensable especially in the first months of the pre-school class. She mentioned that during the first months there should be switching which is necessary and unavoidable. Yet, by the end of the year, and especially in the last two months, the teacher said that she does all her best to make MSA the dominant language in her speech and the kids speech too.

Thus, using diglossic switching at this level of education is necessary. This kind of switching serves as a pedagogical tool for teachers and the learners.

5.2.2.2. The Results

The interview with the teacher of the pre-school class aimed to get an overview of the phenomenon. The researcher asked thirteen questions in order to get the teacher's attitudes towards the switching the children produced. The teacher's answers to the questions led to the following results:

- The pre-school teacher uses AA, French and MSA at home and for every day communication.

- In the class, the teacher may use AA and MSA frequently. Switching between AA, and MSA is indispensable in the teacher's speech.
- The use of AA is unavoidable especially at the first months of the school year and it has some pedagogical reasons. CS is necessary at the first months and the children's task is to maximize the use of MSA.
- Though the law of 2015 that was suggested by the previous Minister of Education faced strong disapproval from educators and even lay people, the teacher found it beneficial especially for re-school children. Yet, for other levels, the use of AA should be forbidden from the part of the children and the teachers as well. Applying this law with further grades would hinder learning.
- According to the teacher's point of view, the children switch from MSA to AA because they have no previous knowledge about the lexis to be used in particular context. The children resort to AA words because the latter are frequently used by them in every day communication whereas their counterpart from MSA are rarely used. This is because they are habitual for using them. The teacher does not know that the learners switch to AA to fill in the lexical gap.
- The teacher could not afford any scientific explanation to the children's switchings. The teacher explained the children's inability to use certain words from MSA as being heavy or not frequently used.
- The teacher believes that when the children use AA and switch to MSA, they do not do so for words that are already known for them and they have been exposed to them only for any other reason.

- According to the teacher, the mispronunciation of some words is due to the strong personality and that the children, by doing so, think that they are speaking MSA.
- The teacher's explanation to the intra-word switching is not scientific. The teacher has no idea about the bound/ free morphemes and she could not identify the different morphemes of the word and that each morpheme is from a different code.

To conclude, from the teachers interview, the children use of AA is indispensable especially at this level. The children need to use AA in their speech. The teacher also can use AA as a pedagogical tool. However, it should not be used in further grades. The children switch to AA with words which are familiar to them and difficult to remember or that are not used in every day communication. The teacher could not give any scientific explanation to the different types of switching produced by the children. This can be due to their lack of knowledge of the morphology and code switching.

5.3. Analysis of the Artifacts

This research tool consists of describing and analysing the written documents used by the pre-school teachers with the children. There are two books used to teach preparatory pupils. The first is designed to introduce the Arabic Alphabet and develop reading abilities while the second one is meant to teach mathematics (numbers from 1 to 10) and to present some initiations in science and technology. The two books serve to be an introduction and a preparation to the first year programme. They are prepared by the Algerian ministry of education following the reforms of 2003 and they have been introduced to the Algerian

schools in 2005 to be the first step in primary education. When designing the two books, the ministry of education has taken into account the learners' psychy concerning the time allocated for each lesson and the cognitive development of children.

The books are presented in a way that attracts leaners' attention and takes into consideration their mental development. Therefore, each lesson consists of an activity to be done by the learner. The activity contains most of the time pictures. The time allocated for each lesson is not more than 25 minutes because children can concentrate not more than that.

A description of the two books is presented in what follows trying to cover: the layout, the content, the vocabulary, the culture and the language used in the two books.

5.3.1. The First Book: The Book of Activities on Arabic Language

This book is designed to teach pupils the Arabic Alphabet. It has been prepared following the official curriculum of the Ministry of Education to be used to teach pre-school children. It contains 40 activities or tasks to help learners develop reading and 25 activities that serve to develop writing of orthography skills. These tasks are based on problem solving and learning through games. Therefore, the aim of the book is to develop the two skills: writing and reading. The book is centred on the following objectives:

-Reading: learners will be able to:

- Discover what is written
- Read pictures
- Discover simple and known words

- know the sentence

- Differentiate between the letters and the linguistic sounds

- Distinguish between parts of the sentence: the word

- Construct a relation between what is written and spoken(sound-letter relationship)

Writing: Learners will be able to :

- Draw various lines in different directions
- Imitate the writing of letters and words
- Use tools for writing such as pens, ruler, rubber..and so forth.

As far as the layout is concerned, the book is presented in a way that attracts the learners' attention because of the use of the colours that children like. The title of each lesson is well-written with colours and next to it the page number presented in a big character. Also, there is the use of pictures and each lesson is built around a task that is supported by pictures(you can see the appendix). The instruction of the task is written in small character and on the right bottom of the picture and of course is not meant for pupils, but for teachers or parents. Moreover, the well- stated objectives of the lesson are mentioned on the top of the paper next to the title in small character too.

As far as the content is concerned, learners are taught through doing some tasks. They are asked to listen to the teacher while naming some pictures, for example, and they have to decide whether a particular sound is present or not. If the sound is present, they have to colour the box corresponding to that word. They are also asked to match pictures with words or to match similar words together. When the learners acquire some language basics, they will be asked to reorder letters to form words or to reorder words to form sentences. By the end of the

course, learners will be asked to join sentences with the pictures representing the actions described in the sentences. Generally, the pictures used in these activities represent the names of fruits, the tools used for schools, at home, the different objects and so forth. Hence, the book is organized in terms of letters to be learnt not in terms of topics or themes.

As for culture, it is not well-presented in this book since all the activities used in this book do not aim at providing learners' with culture. Their main aim is to develop their competencies in reading and writing Arabic letters. However, some short stories appeared after the learners have learnt some letters and are able to do some tasks. These stories are well-known. Again, the event of story are presented in pictures and the learners are asked to reorder them and to listen to their teacher reading the story in MSA. In fact, on one page, the story is presented written in MSA and on the next page the story in pictures. After accomplishing the task, learners are asked to retell the story to the class in MSA.

The vocabulary used in this book consists of words related to naming objects used at home or in the class. The learners have to learn how to name objects that are concrete and known in MSA. Vocabulary learnt from this book would be related to clothes, school, home, fruits, vegetables and so on.

Therefore, emphasis on teaching MSA to the learners by introducing new vocabulary items through pictures, tasks or short stories is prevailing in this book.

5.3.2. The Second Book : Book for Activities on Mathematics and Science

This book also has been designed following the national curriculum of the ministry of education. It contains 60 tasks for mathematics and 30 tasks for science and technological education. Again, activities of this book are built around problem solving and games.

The objectives of this book are:

Mathematics: Learners will be able to :

- Learn to count
- Know qualitative and quantitative numbering through using addition and subtraction operations
- Construct some simple geometric forms
- Use measure

Science and technology: Learners will be able to :

- Discover the concrete and living world
- Discover the characteristics of the concrete world by using senses
- Develop positive and good behaviours towards the environment

The layout of this book resembles that of the first book. It is well-written and well-presented with the use of coloured pictures for each task. The titles of each lesson are well-stated. The objectives are written on the top of the page in addition to the page number which is written in big character. Instructions are presented on the bottom in the right corner of the page. The most noticeable thing concerning the layout is the coloured pictures and there are some tasks where learners are asked to colour pictures. Psychologically speaking, this is what the learners like at this stage of life ; the use of colours and colouring activity is a very interesting task for them.

The content of the book consists of two subjects to be taught and serve to develop two competencies in two subjects : mathematics and science and technology. Teaching the former is based on using concrete examples like asking the learners to colour the first animal with

blue and the last one with green, or to match numbers (1,2,3..) with the corresponding picture containing particular quantity of fruits. Also, they are asked to draw flowers according to the number mentioned. Some other activities aim to develop the concepts, for example, ‘more than’ and ‘less than’.

On the other hand, science and technology lesson contents are based on concrete activities related to varied topics and to serve to prepare learners to first year syllabus. Topics are related to senses, night and day (to acquire the chronological order), animals (grouping them according to the way of walking, eating..). Also, the lessons are centered around food derivatives such as meat products, or dairy product and so on. In addition, topics dealt with in this part are about how to protect the environment, water and so forth.

This book exposes learners to a lot of concepts and terms that they know in AA and the teacher has to present them in MSA. In this book, learners may encounter some difficulties in using MSA because the book contains a lot of terms that are not used in AA.

5.4. Discussion of Results

Based on the analysis of the transcribed data obtained from the participant observation, the analysis of the children’s and the teacher’s interview and analysis of artifacts, it has been revealed that:

- The children, at this age can produce different types of switching. It has been proved that they can make a cocktail of intrasentential, intresentential and intra-word switching in one utterance. It was believed that code switching is limited only to adults. The

present study shows that even the children can switch the code and vary their utterances. However, the teacher's interview did not show the child's ability to produce different types of switching. The teacher just insisted on the use of AA in teaching MSA and that it is unavoidable at this early stage of learning. These types of switching have already been found in a study conducted by Bassiouney (2009) in which she analysed 'Friday's prayers' and she revealed that diglossic switching involved both intrasentential and intersentential switching (Sayahi, 2014).

- From both the teacher's interview and the children's recordings, it is evident that diglossic switching is indispensable and necessary. Teachers use it as a pedagogical tool for clarification and explanation and children use it as a sentence filler, to show their knowledge and to express themselves using its different types with varying degrees.
- The switched utterances and patterns show that there is no violation of: the Free Morpheme Constraints, the Equivalence Constraints and the Matrix Language Constraints. Therefore, diglossic switching is not a random process, but it is rule-governed. Moreover, In a similar study, Sabir and Safi (2008) conducted a research to investigate the switching between Hedjazi dialect and MSA by a 5-year-old Saudi child. The kid has Hedjazi⁴⁵ as her first language and she is exposed to MSA only through cartoon films. This study reveals that CS is not limited to adults and that the category the most frequently switched is 'verbs'. Further, the Equivalence constraint was not violated showing that: "an underlying competence of the syntactic structures of both varieties [is attained] at a very young age" (Sabir & Safi, 2008, p. 91).

⁴⁵ The Hejazi dialect is spoken in the Western region of Saudi Arabia, mainly in the major cities of Jeddah, Madinah, and Makkah and in the surrounding towns and villages (Sabir & Safi, 2008, p. 93)

- When the children know the structure and the words necessary for building well-structured and meaningful sentences in MSA and even if the teacher uses AA, they opt for an exclusive use of MSA. In many instances in the children's interview where the interviewer alternated the use of AA and MSA in her questions, the children tried to use MSA in their answers. Further, the transcribed extracts from the participant observation show also that the children use MSA exclusively even if the teacher used AA. Therefore, the use of AA or MSA is not depended on the language used by the interlocutor and the decision to switch the code is not influenced by the interlocutor.
- When the children do not have the equivalent word in MSA, they might produce an intra-word switching where the bound system morpheme is from MSA and the free content morpheme is from AA. Yet, the teacher could not provide any scientific explanation of this switching. She believed that the kid is turning these words into MSA. The teacher did not talk about the system morphemes and she justified the intra-word switching as the kid's intelligence to make AA words sound MSA.
- When using MSA as a ML, the children switch to AA to fill in the lexical gap. However, the teacher failed to explain this and she said that this is due to the children's inability to use certain words that are heavy and not frequently used. She also argued that these AA words are frequently used in every day communication and the children are habitual in using them.
- When the children use AA as a ML, they switch to MSA to show their interlocutors their mastery of MSA. They do so by inserting words from MSA in AA clauses. The teacher, however, believes that this diglossic switching is due to the children's frequent exposure to these words. The teacher could not afford a reliable explanation to the children's switching to MSA. Her justification is that the children resort to MSA

for words that are already known and have been exposed to them before. Moreover, the children switch from AA to MSA when they know the word and they want to show their interlocutors that they know MSA. This result contradicts with what Sayahi (2014) found in her study of the diglossic switching between Tunisian Arabic and MSA in Iman's discourse. The Imam employs the Tunisian structure and switches to MSA for lexical items especially nouns because of the lack of some theological concepts in Tunisian Arabic.

- In some situations, the children may deviate from the standard pronunciation of certain AA words when they could not find their equivalents in MSA. According to the teacher's interview, the kids do so because they are intelligent, they have strong personalities and they think that they are using MSA.
- When the children use AA as a ML and they switch to MSA, they may produce intra-word switching where the bound system morpheme is from AA and the content free morpheme is from MSA. This kind of switching occurs when the content morphemes do exist in both codes and they differ only in pronunciation. This kind of switching has not been explained by the teacher who has justified this as the child's inability to separate the two codes.
- ehT participant observation shows that there are instances when the children use MSA as a ML and they have a lexical gap, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morpheme is from MSA and the free content morpheme is from AA. This kind of switching has not explained like this by the teacher. She believes that this is because the children wanted to make an AA word sounds MSA one without talking about the bound and free morpheme.

- From the participant observation, it has been noticed that intra-word switching may occur between AA and French. Here, the bound morpheme is from AA and the free morpheme is from French. This switching is possible because the latter is phonologically integrated in AA.
- The already generated hypotheses in the participant observation could not be tested in the interview because the teacher has provided her own justification and explanation of the children's diglossic switching. Her explanation of the children's switching is not based on scientific basis and it is full of subjectivity.
- From the the data obtained previously, it has been noticed that AA is sometimes the ML or the embedded language . This result has already been found by Sayhi who referred to Eid (1982, 1988) and stated that at the clause level, diglossic switching does not happen freely and it is ruled by the structure of the two varieites.
- In this study, most of the time, the ML frame has been adopted to explain the grammar of diglossic switching. In this respect, Sayahi (2014) stated that the analysis of political discourse(Bousofara-Omar, 2003) and the analysis of other monologues (Bassiouney, 2006) affirmed the relevance of Myers-Scotton's (1993, 2002) ML Framework Model to explain and anticipate the structure of diglossic switching.
- The teacher's interview shows the teacher's insistence on using diglossic switching at pre-school level and avoiding it at other levels. Moreover, the frequent use of diglossic switching and how the teacher's admission of the importance of using diglossic switching in the class have been revealed. The teacher's answers show that the teacher could not provide a scientific justification for the children's switching because of the lack knowledge about code switching and morphology.

- From the teacher's interview, even the law suggested by the previous Minister of Education faced a strong disapproval from educators and lay even lay people, the pre-school teacher believes that using AA at this stage of learning is indispensable. The use of AA should be forbidden to be used by teachers and learners in further grades because it hinders learning.
- The teacher's interview could neither confirm nor refute the already generated hypothesis. It shows the teacher's inability to explain and justify certain kind of switching. It also shows her lack of knowledge about CS and morphology.
- Further, according to Ferguson's diglossia (1959), lectures at schools are typical context where the High variety is used exclusively. This study challenges Ferguson's diglossia and calls for reconsidering the definition of diglossia and the separation of its domains. That is, diglossic switching omits the boundaries between the domain of diglossia where the high variety (H) is used in formal situations such as education and the low variety (L) is used in informal situations. In this case, an overlapping of the use of two varieties is witnessed.
- The analysis of the two books used to teach pre-school children reveals that MSA is the language of instruction. Different activities are used to develop the children's reading and writing skills in addition to counting. They contain a lot of concepts and new vocabularies which their counterpart in AA is different. The teachers need to refer to AA to explain and clarify them.
- From the data obtained from the participant observation, the children's interview and the teacher's interview, it is high time to reconsider Ferguson's diglossia and especially the separation of its domains. Further, code switching is no longer considered as a strange phenomenon that needs thorough investigation, but instead

it is a speaking style that is inevitable in the speech not only of adults but of children as well.

Conclusion

This chapter aimed at investigating diglossic switching when used by the pre-school children at Dib Tahar primary school at Elkroub. It is based on an ethnographic approach. A participant observation hand in hand with recordings, the children's and the teacher's interviews were used in an attempt to answer the research questions asked at the outset of the study.

The results obtained shows that diglossic switching is indispensable at this level of education when used whether by the teacher or the children. It occurs frequently in the speech of children and they switch back and forth between the two varieties of Arabic. Different types of switching were produced by the children: intersentential, intrasentential and intra-word switching. Moreover, the study led to generate the following hypotheses: (1) *if the children used AA as a ML, they would switch to MSA to show the interlocutor their knowledge of MSA;* (2) *if the children used MSA as a ML, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morphemes would be from AA and the content free morphemes would be from MSA;* (3) *if the children did not find the right word in MSA, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morpheme would be from MSA and the free content morpheme would be from AA;*(4) *if the children did not know the appropriate word in MSA, they would deviate from the standard pronunciation of the AA word to which they switched .*

The study also revealed that diglossic switching is rule-governed since the ML and the equivalence constraints were not violated.

Furthermore, the results obtained in this study calls for reconsidering the definition of Ferguson's diglossia, mainly the separation of its domains where each variety is used in a particular context.

A new kind of diglossia emerges that may be called 'educational diglossic switching'. It is a kind of switching that occurs between two varieties of the same language, in this case AA and MSA, where the L variety coexists with H in educational situation and serves for learning the H variety.

Chapter Six: Recommendation and Suggestions

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Introduction

Chapter five was devoted to the analysis of the data gathered in the participant observation, the analysis of the two books used for teaching the pre-school children and from the children's and teacher's interviews. The analysis of the data obtained from the participant observation consisted of transcribing extracts from the recorded speech along with the field notes made during the researcher's regular presence with children. In addition, the children's and the teacher's interviews were analysed and some conclusions were drawn. The results obtained call for reconsidering the definition of Ferguson's diglossia (1959).

Therefore, some sociolinguistic implications, pedagogical recommendations, and suggestions for further research are to be presented in this chapter. Some light is also to be shed on the limitations of the study so as to be avoided in further research.

6.1. Sociolinguistic Implications

The results obtained from the present study lead to the following sociolinguistic implications:

- ✓ According to the present study, switching occurs not only at the sentence level and within the sentence boundaries, but also at the word level which is called intra-word switching (Myers-Scotton; Bassiouney, 2009, p. 38). Most of the examples found in this study are about the switch that occurs at the word level between bound system morphemes and content free morphemes. Therefore, in diglossic switching, intra-word switching occurs frequently.
- ✓ Ferguson's diglossia (1959) is defined as the coexistence of two varieties of the same language; one is considered as a high variety (H) used in formal situations such as

education, news ... while the low variety (L) used in informal situation in every day communication. According to Ferguson's definition, there is specification of domains. That is, each variety has to be used in some domains such as: news, education, home and so forth. Thus, Ferguson did not refer to the switching that may occur between the two varieties. Therefore, according to the results obtained from this study, Ferguson's diglossia needs to be reconsidered. There should be no emphasis on the separation of its domains. In the same vein, Sayahi (2014) conducted a study and she concluded that:

Switching between the H variety and the L variety is a common phenomenon. The fact that diglossic code switching happens in oral and written forms and in formal and informal contexts indicates that the separation of domains, which has often been claimed as the central feature of diglossia, is not as categorical as had been thought. While it is true that some domains, especially those limited to carefully scripted types of communication, may be off-limit to the vernacular, the reality is that both varieties are in close contact in many domains" (Sayahi, 2014, p. 94)

As a consequence, in the light of the results obtained in this study and Sayahi's conclusion, diglossia can be defined as: *Diglossia is the coexistence of two varieties of the same language where one functions as high variety (used in formal situations) and the other serves as the low variety (used in informal situations). Yet, there may be an overlapping use of the two varieties. In case when one variety can function in the domain of the other, this is going to be considered as diglossic switching which is used to fulfil a particular function*

- ✓ The results of the present study also show that there is a new type of diglossic switching used in class to fulfill some pedagogical and social functions. This new type is to be called ‘educational developmental diglossic switching’⁴⁶. This kind of diglossic switching is used by pre-school children which is not the result of formal learning, but is the consequence of its acquisition by the children in order to fulfill some functions. Here, the term educational has been employed to mean this type of diglossic switching that emerges in educational settings.
- ✓ In the light of previous studies and the present study, CS has also to be reconsidered. It is no longer to be viewed as a language deficiency or a sign of the mastery of the two codes. CS is a natural phenomenon and inevitable in the speech of individuals who know two codes (whether languages or varieties of the same language); whether bilingual or with a developing competence in either code. Therefore, researchers have to stop questioning the benefits, the functions and the motivations of this speaking style.

6.2. Pedagogical Recommendations

In the light of the results obtained from this study, some pedagogical recommendations can be suggested :

- ☑ The law suggested by the outgoing Minister of Education in 2015 concerning the use of AA in education faced a strong disapproval from the part of teachers and lay people as well. The Ministry of Education has to collaborate with educators and reseachers before taking any decision. This decision should be

⁴⁶ The term ‘developmental diglossia’ is used by Sabir & Safi (2008, p. 107).

studied for some time and, of course, under the supervision of the Ministry of Higher Education before administering the law.

- ☑ The Ministry of Education has to familiarize the pre-school teachers and even primary school teachers to the limited use of AA in education.
- ☑ The ministry of education along with inspectors have to organize seminars and study days inviting specialist in the field to explain the phenomenon of CS from different perspectives: sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic and language acquisition. Their task is to better explain the phenomenon and to introduce the teachers to code switching and diglossic switching and to their pedagogical functions. They have to draw the teachers' attention to this natural phenomenon that is of a widespread use in the speech of adults as well as children. Therefore, switching between H and L is not detrimental, but it is beneficial for both teachers and learners especially at an early age. For teachers, it is used as a pedagogical tool while for learners diglossic switching is used mainly as a gap filler.
- ☑ Inspectors have to organize seminars in order to draw the teachers' attention to the resemblance between MSA and AA and to the interference of AA with MSA especially in educational settings.
- ☑ Primary school teachers and particularly pre-school teachers have to use and allow the use of diglossic switching. Once children start to learn MSA at an early age, 6 years old, they need AA and cannot get rid of it easily and suddenly. There should be gradual introduction of MSA. The teachers' task is to use AA when necessary and especially at the beginning of the year, and they have gradually to maximize the use MSA. For further grades, the use of AA

should be prohibited and learners should be encouraged to use MSA exclusively. That is, children cannot use MSA exclusively right from the first moment they are in class, they need a smooth transition from exclusive use of AA to exclusive use of MSA.

- ☑ Primary school teachers should be trained on some courses about code switching and types, grammar and morphology so as they can know about what their learners are producing.
- ☑ Parents and educators are advised to encourage children to be bilinguals and even multilinguals. Primary school teachers have to encourage their learners to use various languages and varieties they know. Mills and Mills (1993) stated that “A good language classroom supports all the languages, varieties and dialects which are spoken in it.” (p.60).

6.3. Suggestions for Further Research

The results obtained in the present study need to be tested in further research.

- Four hypotheses have been generated from the analysis of the data obtained from the participant observation. The hypotheses are:
 - *If the children used AA as a ML, they would switch to MSA to show the interlocutor their knowledge of MSA.*
 - *If the children used MSA as a ML, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morphemes would be from AA and the content free morphemes would be from MSA.*

- *If the children did not find the right word in MSA, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morpheme would be from MSA and the free content morpheme would be from AA.*
- *If the children did not know the appropriate word in MSA, they would deviate from the standard pronunciation of the AA word to which they switched .*

These hypotheses need to be tested in further research.

- Diglossic switching needs to be examined in different domains such as at home or in everyday communication.
- Intra-word switching needs to be examined so as to see the different forms it can take.
- Diglossic switching can be investigated from different perspectives such as psycholinguistic, applied linguistic or language acquisition.
- Factors influencing the development of diglossic switching can be examined such as the role of TV and children's channel on developing this kind of switching.

6.4. Limitations of the Study

There are many limitations of the study that have to be mentioned:

- 1- One of the problems the researcher encountered while analysing the transcribed data is the resemblance between the two codes MSA and AA. In this respect, Sayahi (2014) mentioned that one of the main obstacles that researchers may face while analyzing diglossic CS is the great number of the similarities between vocabulary and structures

of the two varieties (MSA and vernaculars) and which make bilingual CS more easier to analyse.

- 2- Further, Neutral words (those do exist in both codes) represent a difficulty when analyzing and it is not easy to decide which code they belong to.
- 3- Another limitation of the study, is the difficulty to transcribe the spoken language especially AA using the IPA and the ordinary computer keyboards which do not contain most of the phonetic symbols needed. Furthermore, it was difficult to transcribe AA because it is not codified. It was not easy to distinguish between some sounds such as /r/ of MSA and /r̥/ of AA especially when these sounds occurred in neutral words.
- 4- The researcher also suffered from the similarities that do exist between certain MSA and AA content words. It was difficult to decide to which code the word belongs to. This problem has already been raised by Bassiouney (2009) when she spoke about Egyptian dialect and MSA. She mentioned that:

ECA and MSA are different codes but with a lot of shared content and system morphemes, and it is almost impossible at times to say whether a certain morpheme belongs to ECA or to MSA. Thus, it is not easy to come up with one ML, since it is sometimes difficult to decide which code is being used in the first place (p.55).

- 5- Another problem that the researcher faced when conducting an ethnographic research is the inability to get an insider's view about the phenomenon under study. When using any ethnographic study, the researcher should get an insider's and an outsider's views. Yet, since the sample consisted of very young children who could not provide

the researcher with their view points, it was not possible to ask them about their opinions on switches they produced.

- 6- It was tiring when dealing with the teacher of the sample who thought from the first moment that the researcher came to judge or evaluate her. She used to show that she was a good teacher by showing the researcher her teaching cards and her documents. It took the researcher some time to convince her that the aim of the presence was just to observe the children and not her.
- 7- When the pre-school teacher was asked to conduct an interview, she was afraid and she wanted to postpone it to another day so as to prepare herself. Yet, the researcher succeeded to convince her that all the interview questions are about the children and that she did not need time to prepare herself.

Conclusion

The present chapter has been devoted to the contribution of the research work to the field of enquiry. Sociolinguistic implications, pedagogical recommendations and suggestions for further research have been discussed, in addition to the limitations of the study.

Major sociolinguistic implications of this study is the definition of diglossia which needs reconsideration with a particular emphasis on the separation of its domains. Moreover, primary school teachers, mainly pre-school teachers, have to tolerate the use of diglossic switching at an early stage of language learning. Using diglossic switching at pre-school level is indispensable because it represents a

transitional tool from a zero competence in MSA to a complete mastery of the code. Further, the study is based on ethnography which led to generating hypotheses, that need to be tested in further research.

General Conclusion

Code switching, as a sociolinguistic phenomenon, has always attracted the attention of scholars. In the past, it was considered as a language deficiency and the speakers' inability to separate the two systems. However, recent studies view this language behaviour positively and consider it as an evidence of the speakers' competence in both languages and a speaking style used to fulfill some functions.

Code switching is defined as the alternation use of two languages or even two varieties of the same language. When speakers switch the code between the high and low variety of the same language this is to be called diglossic switching. This behaviour is observed in the speech not only of adults, but even of children. In the Algerian society, children switch from MSA to AA in classroom settings.

Diglossic switching by pre-school children is the central theme of this study. The emptus behind the choice of this topic is, on one hand, the interest towards this topic; and on the other hand, the researcher's observation of her little child switching between the two varieties of Arabic. Hence, the present research paper aimed at investigating diglossic switching when used by pre-school children aged five to six (5-6) years in 'Dib Tahar' primary school at Elkhroub, Constantine- Algeria.

The study focused on some goals. It sought to understand the mechanisms of code-switching and how children may mix varieties of languages. Also, it was carried out to see the situations when children switch from one code to another and whether the type of interlocutors influences the switching. Lastly, it was concerned with identifying the functions of code-switching in the children's conversations.

General Conclusion

The research work was designed to answer the following research questions:

- Do Algerian children really switch between Algerian Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic among their peers and with their teachers?
- Is diglossic switching between Algerian Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic rule-governed ?
- Do children need to switch to Algerian Arabic only to fill a lexical gap?
- Does the language used by the interlocutor influence the switching?
- What are the functions of code-switching in children's conversation?

To achieve the already stated aims and to answer the research questions, a qualitative research was conducted with preparatory children at Dib Tahar primary school. The research methodology used consisted of ethnography based on triangulation consisting of: participant observation, the children's and the teacher's interviews and the analysis of artifacts.

The present research paper was organized into six chapters: three theoretical chapters representing the literature review and three other chapters serving for the fieldwork. As far as the theoretical part is concerned, all concepts related to diglossic switching were highlighted. The first chapter was devoted to sociolinguistic situation in Algeria. It aimed to define all concepts related to language contact and language varieties such as bilingualism, diglossia, lingua franca and so forth. Furthermore, some light was shed on the historical overview of languages and the linguistic profile of Algeria. The second chapter was assigned to language planning and policy and to arabization as a language policy adopted in the Algerian educational system. In addition, languages in education were presented. The educational system in Algeria was also introduced in this chapter with a particular emphasis on the preparatory phase. The third chapter, however, was devoted to code switching. It consisted of

General Conclusion

defining and stating its types and functions. Furthermore, children code switching was explored.

The second part of this study was devoted to the fieldwork. Chapter four was devoted to the explanation of the research methodology and the description of the sample and the population. Also, a description of Algerian arabic was provided in this chapter. Chapter five was designed for the analysis of the data obtained from different means of collecting data.

The analysis of the transcribed data along with the field notes led to some results.

The results obtained from the participant observation, the teacher's and the children's interview and the analysis of the artifacts revealed that the children do switch the code between MSA and AA and they can produce various types of switching: intersentential, intrasentential and intra-word switching. Further, diglossic switching is rule-governed since there is no violation of the Free Morpheme Constraints, the Equivalence Constraints and the Matrix Language Constraints. Moreover, When the children know the structure and the words necessary for building well-structured and meaningful sentence in MSA and even if the teacher uses AA, they opt for an exclusive use MSA. In addition, intra-word switching is very frequent in the children's utterances where the bound system morpheme is from one code and the free content morpheme is from another. However, the teacher could not provide any scientific explanation to that switching. Furthermore, when children use MSA as a ML, they may switch to AA to fill in the lexical gap. Yet, when they use AA as a MSA, they may switch to MSA to show their interlocutors their knowledge of MSA. Again, the only explanation provided by the teacher is that the children refer to AA words because they are frequently used in their every day communication and they are habitual in using them. Also,

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they resort to MSA words because they are known to them and have already been exposed to them.

The results obtained from this study also show that the children may deviate from the standard pronunciation of the AA words to avoid the lexical gap. This behaviour has been justified by the teacher as a sign of the children's intelligence in their belief that they are using MSA. The results also show that the books used to teach the children contain different activities that aim to develop the reading and writing skills of MSA. A lot of concepts and new vocabularies are unknown to the children and the teacher need to refer to their counterpart in AA.

These results also led to generate the following hypotheses: (1) *If the children used AA as a ML, they would switch to MSA to show the interlocutor their knowledge of MS;* (2) *If the children used MSA as a ML, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morphemes would be from AA and the content free morphemes would be from MSA;* (3) *If the children did not find the right word in MSA, intra-word switching would occur where the bound system morpheme would be from MSA and the free content morpheme would be from AA;* (4) *If the children did not know the appropriate word in MSA, they would deviate from the standard pronunciation of the AA word to which they switched.* These hypotheses need to be tested in further studies.

In the light of the results obtained in this study, some sociolinguistic and pedagogical recommendations are suggested. A new type of diglossia emerges to be called 'educational developmental diglossic switching' to mean a kind of diglossic switching that is used in class mainly by pre-school teachers to mean the kind of switching the children employ to fulfill some pedagogical functions. Hence, primary school teachers have to tolerate its use in the

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preparatory classes and to maximize the use of MSA with further grades. Moreover, the present study challenges Ferguson's definition (1959) of diglossia and calls for reconsidering the separation of its domains.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Newspaper Articles

Appendix B: Observation Protocol

Appendix C: The Teacher's Interview

The Teacher's Interview

المقابلة مع أستاذ التحضير

Appendix D: The Children's Interview

The Children's Interview

المقابلة مع التلاميذ

Appendix E: Examples of the Lessons Observed

Résumé

ملخص

Appendix A:

Newspaper Articles

23 نوفمبر 2020



Logo

"استعمال العامية في التدريس" يربك بن غبريت!

أخبار الوطن
30 يوليو 2015 (منذ 5 أعوام) - الجزائر: مصطفى بسطامي



موصى به



اعلان
The cost of real estate in New York might surprise you
Real Estate New York | Sponsored Listings

اعلان
Big data courses prices might surprise you
Big Data Courses | Sponsored Listings

اعلان
Getting a job in the UK may be easier than you think
Jobs in UK | Sponsored Listings

اعلان
Learning a new language in 2020? - This app gets you speaking in
Babbel

Recommended by

قالت وزير التربية الوطنية، نورية بن غبريت، في تصريحات إعلامية، أمس، إن استعمال التدريس بالعامية "مجرد ضجيج"، لكنها دافعت عن الإجراء، وقالت إن "المختصين والبيداغوجيين أجمعوا على أنه يمكن التلميذ من تطوير كفاءاته في المراحل الأولى من التعليم"، وأنه "جاء ضمن التوصيات المرفوعة في الندوة الوطنية لتقييم المنظومة التربوية".

أربكت الحملة التي شنتها أحزاب سياسية وشخصيات وطنية ودينية وزيرة التربية، حيث

جاءت تصريحات المسؤولة الأولى عن قطاع التربية خلال خرجاتها الإعلامية، أمس، متناقضة. وأكدت في تصريح ليومية "الوطن"، الناطقة بالفرنسية، صدر أمس، أن "الإجراء القاضي باستعمال العامية في التدريس كان ضمن 200 اقتراح خرج به الخبراء خلال الندوة الوطنية لتقييم المنظومة التربوية المنعقدة في 25 و26 جويلية الجاري. وأن هذه الاقتراحات بمجرد اعتمادها بشكل نهائي تطبق بداية من السنة الدراسية 2015-2016".

ودافعت بن غبريت بشدة عن الإجراء بقولها: "إذا كان هناك نسبة فشل كبيرة في الطور الدراسي الأول، فذلك بسبب مشكل نقل المعارف"، مفيدة بأن "هذا الاقتراح نتج عن مناقشة ثرية خلال أشغال الندوة، والورشات التقنية، حيث أجمع المختصون على أن التعليم عند الطفل يجب أن يركز على اللغة الأم"، وأنه "عند استعمالها في التعليم تطور جزءا كبيرا من عقله". وقالت إن "الخبراء أيضا يوصون بأنه لتطوير الكفاءات اللسانية لدى الطفل لا بد من الارتكاز على اللغة الأم"، واستخلصت الوزيرة بأن هناك إجماعا حول هذه النقطة.

في حين أكد المستشار البيداغوجي لوزارة التربية، فريد بن رمضان، أمس، في تصريحات إعلامية، ما سبق ونشرته "الخبر" من ضرورة استعمال اللغات الأم (لهجات محلية وعامية) خلال الطور التحضيري والسنة الأولى ابتدائي، وأنه إجراء سابق للندوة التي عقدتها الوزارة الوصية السبت والأحد الماضيين.

وأثارت تصريحات مسؤولي الوزارة ضجة كبيرة بين مؤيد ومعارض للفكرة، إضافة إلى موجة سخط الكثير من الأطراف التي عارضت الإجراء، الأمر الذي تسبب في ضغط "غير من خطاب الوزارة الوصية"، حيث قالت الوزيرة، في تصريح لإذاعة الأغواط المحلية، أمس، إن "الاعتماد على الدارجة في التعليم مجرد ضجيج"، لكنها أكدت في نفس التصريح بأنه يجب "مراعاة وبصفة تدريجية ما يحمله الطفل من رصيد لغوي"، في حين قال المفتش العام لوزارة التربية الوطنية إن هذا الإجراء "هو خرجة تضاف إلى خرجات أخرى الهدف منها إفساد الإصلاحات".

موصى به

الخبر

EL KHABAR
الصدق والمصداقية



Logo

التدريس بالعامية في الابتدائي بداية من السنة المقبلة!

أخبار الوطن
27 يوليو 2015 (منذ 5 أعوام) - الجزائر: مصطفى بسطامي



موصى به

			
<p>اعلان</p> <p>The cost of big data courses might surprise you</p> <p>Big Data Courses Sponsored Listings</p>	<p>اعلان</p> <p>The cost of real estate in New York might surprise you</p> <p>Real Estate New York Sponsored Listings</p>	<p>اعلان</p> <p>Getting a job in the UK may be easier than you think</p> <p>Jobs in UK Sponsored Listings</p>	<p>اعلان</p> <p>Learning a new language in 2020? - This app gets you speaking in just 3 weeks</p> <p>Babbel</p>
Recommended by			

كشف المفتش العام بوزارة التربية الوطنية عن إجراءات جديدة سيتم تطبيقها في المدرسة الجزائرية، بداية من الموسم الدراسي 2015-2016، على رأسها التدرج في تعليم اللغة العربية في الطور الابتدائي، واستعمال مختلف اللهجات المحلية، وذلك لتفادي صدم التلميذ الجديد الذي يلتحق بالمدرسة، في حين أعلن عن تقليص الاختبارات والامتحانات والفروض خلال السنة الدراسية بنسبة 30 في المائة من أجل تهيئة التعليم والتعلم.

جاء التصريح على هامش الندوة الصحفية التي عقدها المسؤول نفسه، أمس، بمقر الوزارة، حيث تعرض إلى مختلف التوصيات التي توجت بها الندوة الوطنية لتقييم المنظومة التربوية، وتحدث عن إجراء جديد يقضي بتعليم اللغة العربية تدريجيا حتى "لا يصدم التلميذ في بداية مشواره الدراسي"، وقال "إن الكثير من التلاميذ لا يحسنون إلا لهجتهم التي تعلموها في المنزل"، مفيدا بأن ذلك يقتضي من المؤسسة التعليمية الأخذ بعين الاعتبار هذه المعطيات، التي على أساسها يجب أن يلقن التلميذ اللغة الفصحى تدريجيا. وقال نجادي إنه لا بد من تكامل بين اللغة الأم وبين اللغة الفصحى، ولهذا يجب أن يتعلم التلميذ في مرحلة أولى ما سماه بـ«اللغات الجزائرية». وعن الأمازيغية، قال المصدر نفسه إنه سيتم تعميمها على 20 ولاية في سبتمبر المقبل. على صعيد آخر، قال المصدر نفسه إن الاختبارات والفروض خلال السنة الدراسية، وفي كامل الأطوار الدراسية، صارت عينا على التلميذ، وإنها تستنزف الكثير من الوقت المخصص للتعليم، ولذلك يجب تقليصها بنسبة 30 في المائة من أجل السماح للتلميذ بتلقي تعليمات أخرى.

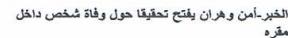

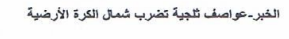
على صعيد آخر، أوضح المتحدث ذاته أن امتحان نهاية التعليم الابتدائي صار دون جدوى، على اعتبار أن الأغلبية الساحقة من التلاميذ تجتازوه بنجاح، في إشارة منه إلى ضرورة إعادة النظر في كيفية انتقال التلميذ من الابتدائي والمتوسط وتفاذي رسوبه بتلقيه القواعد الأساسية التي يحتاجها، في إشارة إلى إمكانية سحب بعض المواد والتركيز على تعليمه القراءة والحساب والكتابة.

وقال نجادي إن أفواج العمل الذين سيشرّفون على تجسيد توصيات الندوة في قرارات سنطلق في العمل بداية من 20 أوت المقبل، ومن بين تلك التوصيات تعميم فتح المعاهد التكنولوجية على مستوى 50 مديرية تربية، والإسراع في إصدار المرسوم التنفيذي المتعلق بفتح المعاهد التكنولوجية، إضافة إلى ضرورة التكوين التناوبي للأساتذة الناجحين في مسابقات التوظيف وتعميم التربية التحضيرية في 2017 بنسبة 100 في المائة، وتوظيف مرافقين تربويين في المدارس الابتدائية، وتوظيف أخصائيين في الإرشاد والتوجيه في المتوسطات، والعمل بلجان المداولات في شهادة البكالوريا، وإدراج الاختبار الشفهي في اللغات.

موصى به

		
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Appendix B: Observation Protocol

Date:

Room :

Time:

Length of the activity:

Topic being observed:

Participants' number: Boys: Girls:

Objectives of the lesson:

.....
.....

Materials used:

Descriptive Notes

Physical Setting:

1- *The room is :* clean light comfortable well-decorated large

2- *The shape of the room:* individual tables U forms ordinary rows

3- *Is that room the only place where learners are taught?*

Yes no

Others:

Description of the teacher

- 1- The teacher is: young old middle aged
- 2- The teacher is: severe easy going
- 3- The teacher talks in: MSA AA French Tamazight

others:

4- How often does the teacher use MSA in class?

- Always usually often rarely never

5- How often does the teacher use AA in class?

- Always usually often rarely never

6- The biggest amount of talk is for : teacher learners

7- Does the teacher code switch from MSA to AA? Yes no

8- Is the teacher conscious of the teachers' code switching? Yes no

9- If yes write down some examples of that switching

.....

.....

.....

.....

Description of Learners

1- Do learners participate in class? Yes no

2- How often do learners use MSA in class?

- Always usually often rarely never

3- How often do learners use AA in class?

- Always usually often rarely never

4- *When do they use MSA?*

.....

.....

5- *When do they use AA?*

.....

.....

6- *Do learners code switch between MSA and AA?* Yes no

7- *When do they code switch?*

.....

.....

8- *Are they aware of the switching?* Yes no

9- *Examples of learners' interaction with their teacher*

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

Appendix C:

The Teacher's Interview

The Teacher's Interview

- 1- *How many years have you been teaching in the primary school ?*
- 2- *How many years have you been teaching in the pre-school education?*
- 3- *What is your mother tongue?*
- 4- *Do you switch between: MSA, AA, and French? And why?*
- 5- *And in the classroom, do you switch the code? And what are the languages you switch to?*
- 6- *Do you think that code switching is beneficial to children of preparatory education?*
- 7- *Concerning the ministerial law that the previous minister of education was about to order in 2015, do you think that all primary school teachers were for or against this law (the law that advised teachers to use AA as a language of instruction in the class)*
- 8- *During our presence with the children of the preparatory class, we have noticed that they switched the code between MSA and AA when the child could not find the right word in MSA?how do you explain this?*

For example, in the lesson of numbers from one to five(1-5), you asked the learners what

“does the girl hold?” and they answered you that she holds balloons⁴⁷ ‘/tahmilu mbajl/

And when you asked them “what does she wear”

The child answered you that she wears a hat “/laktalbasu fapp/’

In the lesson about the description of the classroom one pupil said that the colour of the sky is

orange ‘/laun ʔatʔa:wila tʃim/’

So, why do the children switch to words to their mother tongue?

⁴⁷ The question is asked in MSA and the researcher has translated into English. All questions of the interview are in MSA in the appendix

9- In the case of the children's use AA, they may switch to MSA words

For example:

- When describing 'polyclinic' you have said: "what is polyclinic?"

One pupil answered that it means a place where we can treat "/maʕnatu **maka:n** ndawi:w fih/"

-When you asked them to tell you the story of their illness, one pupil said that a doctor examined him " /qalabni **ʔatʔabi:b/**"

How do you explain the children's switching in these situations and why do they do?

10- How do you explain that some pupils pronounce some words in an odd way when they code switch?

For example:

-In the lesson of the polyclinic, you had asked the pupils to tell you the story when they got ill what they did.

A pupil answered you that he was examined and he took his drug " /tʔaʕi:t wə ʕribt **ʔaddwa:ʔ/**"

-In the lesson about the description of the classroom, one pupil said that that white board is white and the coat is black " /**ʔassabu:ra baidʕa:ʔ wa ʔalmiʕʔaf ʔakħal/**"

In the description of daily activities, one pupil said that she washes her face " /**ʔaysil** wazħm/"

How do you explain the pronunciation of these words?

11- What is your opinion about the words children said in the lesson of meat derivatives and milk derivatives?

ʔaju:ʔt ʔapt,ISWIS ʔalfurmadʒ ʔatõ

12- What do you think about these examples?

- /ʔaysɪl jadi:h ʔafrabu hɪbɑh wə ʔaxrudj ʔɪla: ʔalmadrasa/
- /na:dʃ ʔatʃʃɪfl mɪn ʔalfira:ʃ ʔaðhaba ʔɪla: ʔalhama:m ʔafrab hali:bah/
- In the description of spring: “/ʔassamfu dafia/”
“/fi: fasʔl ʔarrabi:ʃ ʔalzawwu zami:l ʔalʔatʃfa:l jaru:hu lɪl ya:ba/”
- In the description of summer: “/fi: fasʔl ʔarrabi:ʃ ʔaffamsu muʃrɪqa
ʔalʔamtʃa:ru tusqitʃ/”

13- In your opinion; if we allow the use of code switching between MSA and AA in the classes of preparatory, how would the level of our children be in the future?

المقابلة مع أستاذ التحضيري

1. كم هو عدد سنوات التدريس في الابتدائي؟
2. وكم عدد سنوات التدريس في التحضيري (التربية التحضيرية)
3. ما هي لغتك الأم؟
4. هل تقومين بالمزج اللغوي بين الفصحى والدارجة والفرنسية؟
5. وفي القسم، هل تقومين بالمزج اللغوي؟ وما هي اللغات التي تمزجينها؟ ولماذا؟
6. هل تعتقدين أن المزج اللغوي مفيد لأطفال التحضيري؟
7. بالنسبة للقانون الوزاري الذي كانت الوزيرة السابقة بصدده تطبيقه، هل انتم كأستاذة مع هذا القانون أم ضده؟
8. من خلال حضوري مع الأطفال، لاحظت أنهم يقومون بالمزج اللغوي بين الفصحى والدارجة في حالة عدم وجود الكلمة الملائمة في الفصحى يضطرون إلى استعمال الكلمات من الدارجة على سبيل المثال في درس الأعداد من واحد إلى خمسة
عندما سألت التلاميذ وقلت لهم ماذا تحمل الطفلة التي في الصورة كانت إجابة إحدى التلميذات إنها: 'تحمل مبايل'.
- كيف تفسرين هذا؟ وعندما سألت التلميذ: ماذا تلبس؟ كانت إجابة إحدى التلميذات: تلبس شابو
- في رأيك، لماذا يحتاج التلميذ إلى استعمال كلمات من اللغة الأم؟
- وفي درس وصف القسم، قال التلميذ لون: 'الطاولة تشيني'. في رأيك لماذا استعمل التلميذ كلمات من لغتهم الأم؟
9. في حالة تحدث التلاميذ بالدارجة يمزجون كلمات من الفصحى:
مثال: في درس المستوصف سألت التلميذ قائلة: 'ما هو المستوصف؟'

- أجابتك إحدى التلميذات قائلة: 'معناته مكان نداويو فيه'

استعملت مكان في حين في الدارجة نستعمل كلمة بلاصة

- مثال آخر: طلبت منهم أن يحكوا لكي قصة مرضهم، قال احد التلاميذ: 'قلبني الطبيب'

إذا الطبيب هنا كلمة من الفصحى واستعمل قلبني التي هي من الدارجة

- كيف تفسرين هذا المزج؟

10. ما رأيك في أن بعض التلاميذ ينطقون بعض الكلمات بطريقه غريبة في حال المزج اللغوي

مثلا : في درس المستوصف سألت التلاميذ: من منكم مرض يحكي لنا ماذا فعل؟

أجابت التلميذة: 'تعشيت وشربت الدواء'.

الدواء من الفصحى تعشيت تحسين أنها ليست من الفصحى ولا من الدارجة

- مثال آخر: 'السيبورة بيضاء والمعطف أكحل'

- لماذا هنا التلميذ استعمل كلمه أكحل كان باستطاعته قول كحل

- وهناك تلميذة قالت: أغسل وجهها.

كيف تفسرين نطق هذه الكلمات ؟

11. ما رأيك في الكلمات التي تلفظ بها الأطفال في درس اللحوم ومشتقاتها:

الفرماج ابورت ابتسويس اتون

- ولماذا استعمل أ

12. ما رأيك في هذه الكلمات:

- 'اغسل يديه اشرب حليبه واخرج الى المدرسة'

هنا الطفلة تصف لنا الطفل من لحظة استيقاظه إلى أن يذهب إلى المدرسة

- نفس المثال حين قال طفل آخر : 'ناض الطفل من الفراش اذهب الى الحمام اشرب حليبه'
- وفي وصف الربيع الطفل قال : 'الشمس دافية'
- وفي وصف فصل الصيف طفل آخر قال: 'في فصل الصيف الشمس مشرقه الأمطار تسقط الأطفال يروحو للغابة'

13. في رأيك لو اتبعنا المزج اللغوي في أقسام التحضير، كيف سيكون مستوى التلاميذ مستقبلاً؟

Appendix D:

The Children's Interview

The Children's Interview

1. *What do you do in Eid-Al Adha?*
2. *Before the Eid, what does your father do?*
3. *Where do you take the ram?*
4. *In the morning of the feast, where does your father go?*
5. *Do you go with him?*
6. *What does your father wear?*
7. *And what do you wear?*
8. *And after coming back from the mosque, what does your father do?*
9. *And who helps him in slaughtering the ram?*
10. *When your father finishes the skinning of the ram, what do you do?*

المقابلة مع التلاميذ

1. ماذا تفعل في عيد الاضحى؟
2. قبل العيد، ماذا يفعل أبوك؟
3. أين تاخذون الكبش؟
4. في صبيحة العيد أين يذهب أبوك؟
5. هل تذهب معه؟
6. ماذا يلبس أبوك؟
7. وماذا تلبس؟
8. بعد العودة من المسجد، ماذا يفعل أبوك؟
9. ومن يساعده على ذبح الكبش؟
10. عندما ينتهي أبوك من سلخ الكبش، ماذا تفعل؟

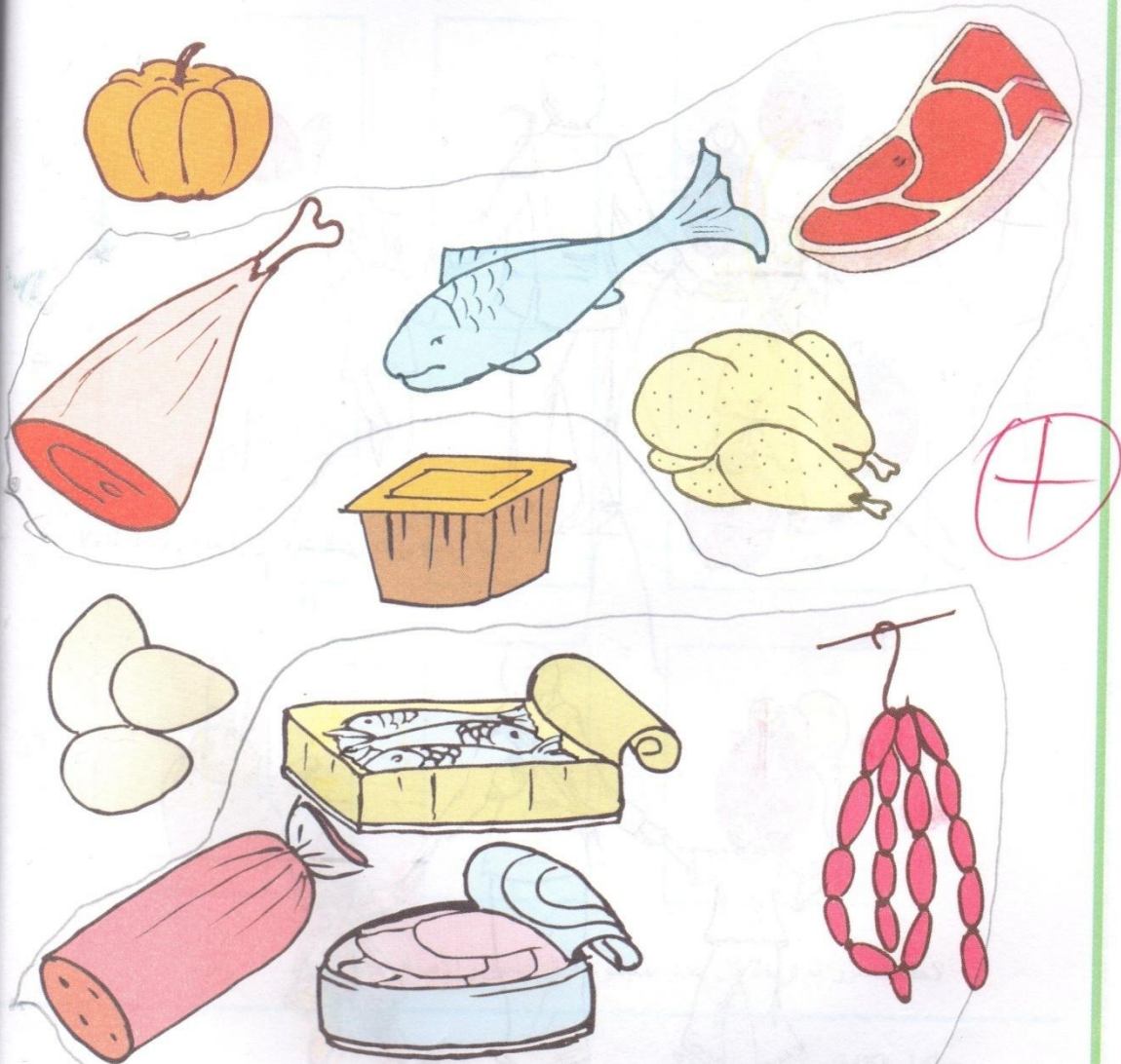
Examples of the Lessons Observed

الأهداف

- يميز بين مختلف أصناف الألبان (اللحوم ومشتقاتها).
- يسمي أنواع اللحوم ومشتقاتها.

أصناف الأغذية (2)

24



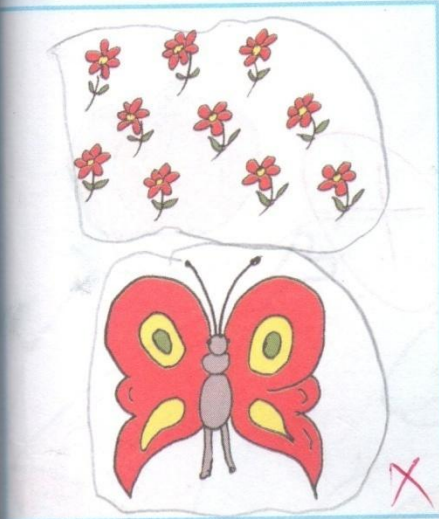
- لاحظ الصورة ثم:
- ضع داخل حيز اللحوم.
- ضع داخل حيز مشتقات اللحوم.

الهدف

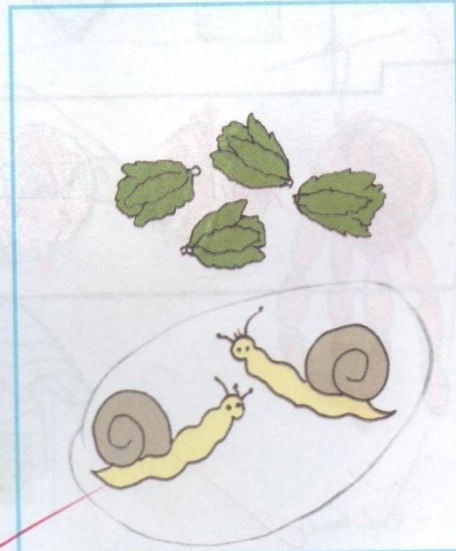
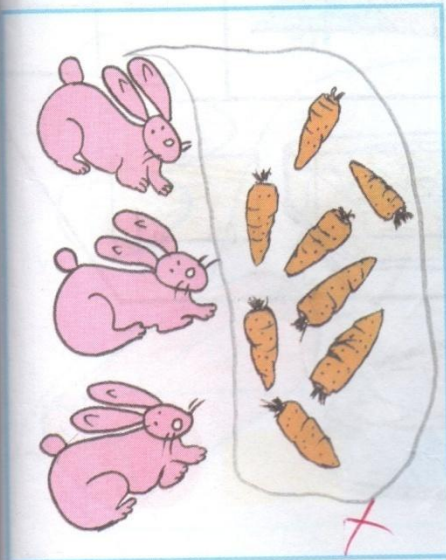
- يميز بين مقدارين
(أكثر من و أقل من)

أكثر من / أقل من

26



ضع داخل حيز مجموعة الأشياء التي عدد عناصرها أكثر من عدد عناصر المجموعة الأخرى.



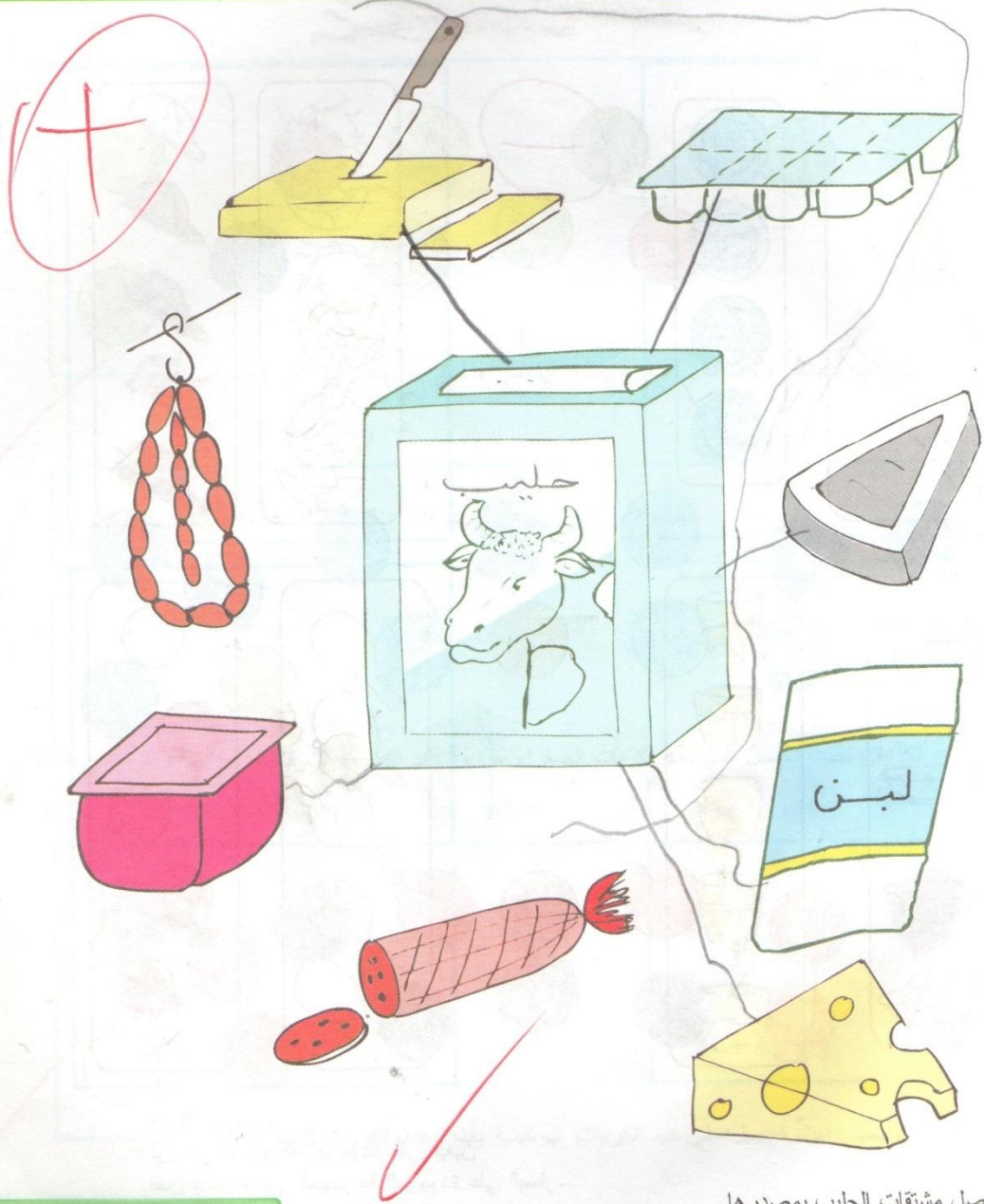
ضع داخل حيز مجموعة الأشياء التي عدد عناصرها أقل من عدد عناصر المجموعة الأخرى.

رياضيات

أصناف الأغذية (3)

الأهداف

- يميز بين مختلف أصناف الأغذية (الحليب ومشتقاته).
- يسمي مشتقات الحليب.
- يجمع الأشياء حسب عائلتها.



صل مشتقات الحليب بمصدرها.

الأهداف

- يميز بين مختلف أصناف الأغذية
- الخضرا، الفواكه، للحوم والحبوب
- يصنف الأشياء

أصناف الأغذية (4)

30



- اجعل اللحوم ومشتقاته في حيز أحمر .
- اجعل الحليب ومشتقاته في حيز أزرق .

- اجعل الخضرا في حيز أخضر .
- اجعل الفواكه في حيز أصفر .

- يحافظ على صحة جسمه.
- يسمي الأغذية.
- يصنف الأغذية.



لاحظ الأغذية الموجودة في الصورة ثم اختر واحد من كل نوع ووضعه على الطاولة لتحصل على وجبة غذائية متوازنة.

الأعداد 1، 2، 3، 4، 5.
(4)

- الأهداف
- يميز بين أرقام.
 - يطبق قواعد دليل.



لون الصورة وفق دليل الألوان المقترح.

الأهداف

- يميز بين الليل والنهار.
- يميز بين أحداث حسب التسلسل الزمني الموضوع.
- يعبر عن مميزات الليل والنهار.

الليل والنهار

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أرسم كل من الشمس والقمر والنجوم في الصورة المناسبة لها.

رياضيات

أحداث اليوم

الأهداف

- يرتب أحداثًا على أساس تسلسلها الزمني الفعلي.
- يعبر عن أحداث اليوم.



3



1



3



4

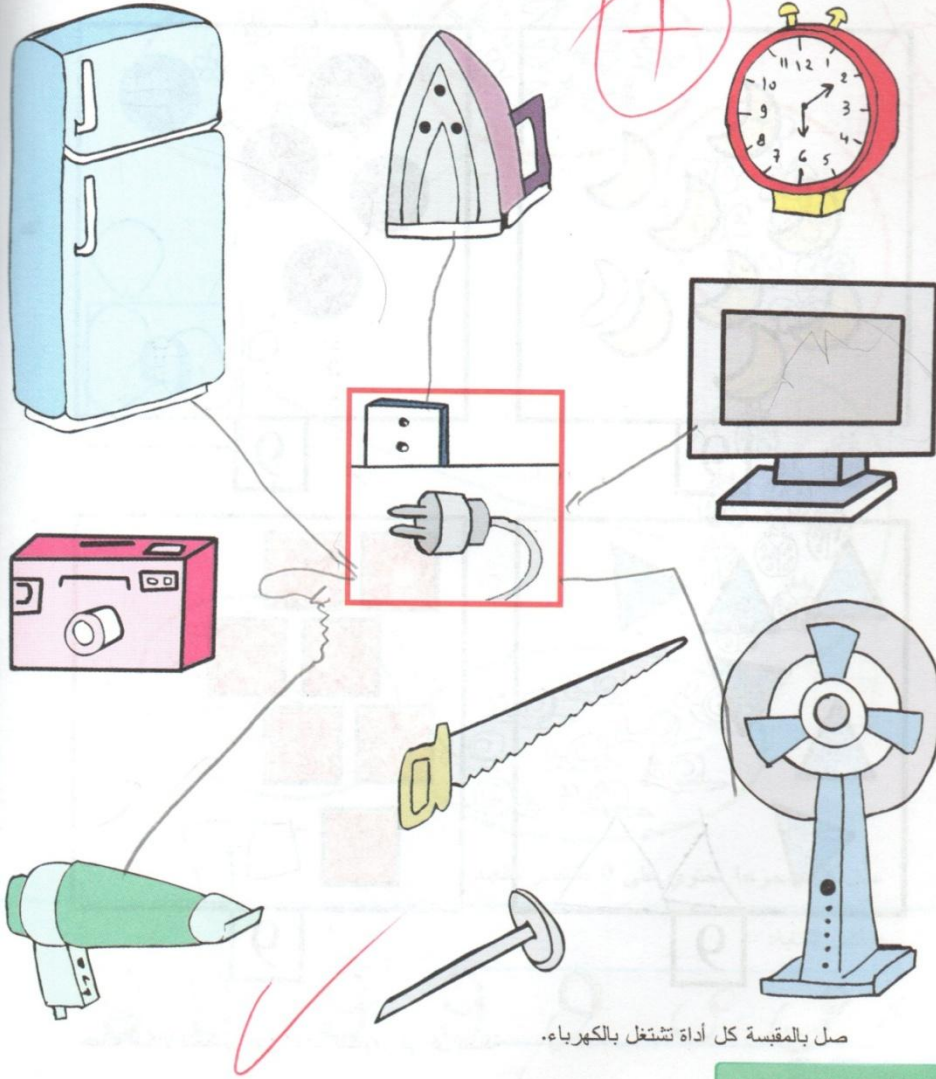
لاحظ الصور ثم رتبها حسب تسلسل الأحداث
بكتابة الرقم المناسب من 1 إلى 4 في كل بطاقة.

الأهداف

- يتعرف على بعض الأدوات الكهربائية.
- يعبر عن استخدامات بعض الأدوات الكهربائية.
- يتعرف على الإجراءات الأمنية عند استعمال بعض الأدوات الكهربائية.

الأدوات الكهربائية

84



صل بالمقبسة كل أداة تشتغل بالكهرباء.

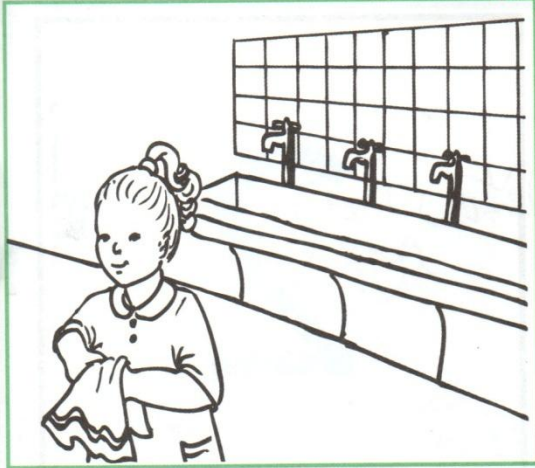
التربية العلمية والتكنولوجية

الأهداف

- يطبق سلوكيات ذات طابع مدني.
- يحافظ على الماء.
- يحافظ على الكهرباء.

أحافظ على الماء والكهرباء

90



لون صورة البنت التي تساهم في المحافظة على الماء.



لون صورة الولد الذي يساهم في المحافظة على الكهرباء.

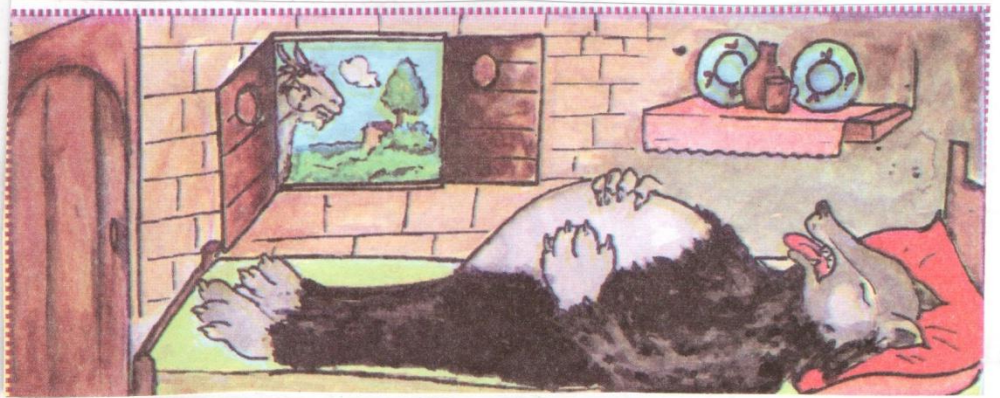
التربية العلمية والتكنولوجية

- يرتب أحداث قصة.
- يصف مشاهد قصة.
- يعمل بنصائح الوالدين.

A



B



C



Résumé

La présente étude vise à étudier la commutation entre l'arabe moderne et le dialecte algérien chez des sujets enfants. Cette étude vise à examiner les mécanismes de commutation diglossique, ses fonctions et ses structures, et l'influence du code utilisé sur le parlé des enfants

Pour atteindre ces objectifs, une étude qualitative est adoptée utilisant la méthode ethnographique avec 24 élèves d'âge préscolaire entre 5 et 6 ans à l'école primaire Dib Tahar, Elkhroub, Constantine, Algérie.

L'étude est basée sur la triangulation suivante : l'observation des sujets participants, questionnaire administré à l'enseignant et les élèves et l'analyse des livres scolaires. Les informations sont collectées à l'aide d'enregistrements et transcriptions utilisant le code IPA.

Les résultats obtenus révèlent que les enfants d'âge préscolaire basculent entre les variétés d'arabe et peuvent dévier de la prononciation du dialecte algérien. Ces enfants sont en mesure de produire différents types de commutation : dans la même phrase, hors phrase ou dans les mots, ce qui devient commun dans leur parlé. Le choix du code n'est pas influencé par le code utilisé par l'enseignant. Quand les enfants aboutissent à la maîtrise de la structure et des mots nécessaires pour le fondement des phrases en arabe moderne (académique), on remarque que même si leur enseignant utilise le dialecte algérien les enfants opteront pour l'arabe moderne à l'exception des mots inconnus ou ils reviennent vers le dialecte algérien.

Ainsi, les résultats défient la définition de Ferguson et appellent à reconsidérer la séparation des domaines. Cette étude revoit à la reconsidération des hypothèses obtenus et qui doivent être testés dans d'autres études.

Mots clés: arabe algérien, alternance codique, diglossie, alternance diglossique, arabe standard moderne.

ملخص

تبحث هذه الدراسة في التبدل اللغوي عند الأطفال بين اللغة العربية الفصحى و اللهجة الجزائرية. و تهدف الى فحص ميكانيزمات الازدواج اللغوي، الوظيفة و البناء اللغويين عند الأطفال و اذا ما كان المزج المستعمل من طرف المتحدث يؤثر على حديث هؤلاء الأطفال و اختيارهم الرمز اللغوي .

من أجل تحقيق هذه الأهداف، اعتمدنا مقارنة نوعية تعتمد على الطريقة الاثنوغرافية مع 24 تلميذا ذوي مستوى تحضيري، تتراوح أعمارهم بين 5 و 6 سنوات بالمدرسة الابتدائية ذيب طاهر بالخروب قسنطينة الجزائر، تعتمد الدراسة على الأسلوب الثلاثي من حيث ملاحظة المشاركين، سؤال التلاميذ و المعلم و تحليل الكتب المدرسية. يتم جمع المعلومات باستعمال التسجيلات و التدوين باستعمال رموز .

أظهرت النتائج المتحصل عليها أن أطفال التحضيري ينتقلون بين أنواع اللغة العربية في القسم وقد ينحرفون عن استعمال اللغة الفصحى الى اعتماد التحدث باللهجة العامية الجزائرية، اذ بوسع هؤلاء الأطفال التنقل بين اللغتين بسهولة، فنلاحظ تبدل لغوي على مستوى الجملة، بين الجمل و ما بين الكلمات اثناء حديثهم. علاوة على ذلك، أن اختيار الأطفال للرمز اللغوي لا يتأثر البتة بالرمز اللغوي المعتمد من طرف المعلم خاصة حينما يتعلمون أسس اللغة العربية الفصحى من بناء و تركيب الجمل، وحتى أن أعتمد معلمهم على اللغة العامية فان التلاميذ يفضلون اللغة العربية الفصحى و لا ينتقلون في حديثهم الى اللهجة العامية الا في حالة انعدام البديل اللغوي باللغة العربية الفصحى لديهم.

ومنه فان نتائج الدراسة الحالية تتحدى تعريف فيرغسون للازدواجية اللغوية و تدعو الى اعادة النظر في الفصل بين مجالاتها، كما تنصح ذات الدراسة باعادة النظر في الفرضيات المتحصل عليها و اختبارها في دراسات اخرى.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الدارجة الجزائرية، المزج اللغوي ، ازدواج اللسان، التبدل اللغوي، اللغة الفصحى