PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA

MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

MOHAMED KHEIDER UNIVERSITY – BISKRA

FACULTY OF LETTERS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

SECTION OF ENGLISH

An Examination into the Effect of Learners' Mother Tongue Interference on the Occurrence of Code-Switching in an English as a Foreign Language Class: The Case of Third Year English Majors at Biskra University

Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for a

Master Degree in Sciences of Language

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Academic Year: 2019/2020

Declaration

I, the undersigned Kenza **SAOU**, do hereby declare that I am the sole author of this Master Dissertation, which represents my original work. I further declare that I developed this research project based on my personal efforts, except for quotations, paraphrases, and summaries that have been duly acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all of the material presented in this research synthesis has not been previously included in a thesis, dissertation, or report published in this university or in any other institution for the award of a degree, diploma, or any other similar titles of recognition.

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Dedication

To my beloved **PARENTS**

who instilled in me the virtues of perseverance and commitment, and from whom I learnt

"when there is a will, there is a way"

To my **BROTHERS** and **SISTERS**. God bless them!

To my mentors and those whom I learnt and benefited from their professional expertise

To my many motivators, assistants, advisors, and supporters

To the ones who do genuinely believe in the richness of learning and who are resolutely keen to pursue their studies despite the eventualities of life

To the pivotal person: The gentle reader

Acknowledgements

Foremost, praise be to Allah, the Ever-Magnificent; the Ever-Thankful, for His help, bless, and generosity in completing this work.

Then, I am particularly indebted to my teacher and supervisor Dr. Ahmed Chaouki **HOADJLI** for his constant supervision, wise guidance, constructive criticism, and stimulating feedback that made me complete this endeavour appropriately.

My thankfulness also extends to the Board of Examiners, namely Dr. Tarek **ASSASSI**, Dr. Meriem **ZAGHDOUD**, and Ms. Kenza **MERGHMI**, for the time they devoted reading and raising a number of insightful remarks and comments meant to refine the quality of this research synthesis.

I owe a deep sense of gratitude to Dr. **TURQUI** and Mr. **LEBIAR** for granting me the opportunity to conduct my observational sessions on their classes.

My sincere thanks also go to Dr. **MOUSTEFAOUI**, Mr. **SADRATI**, Mr. **TEMLALI**, and Mr. **NAILY** for providing me with the necessary information regarding my research project.

I would like to acknowledge with appreciation Dr. **KERBOUA** and Mr. **BOUHITEM** for providing me with any assistance requested.

Not least of all, my most heartfelt gratitude is also to my sample population (the Third Year English students at Biskra University) who partook in answering my questionnaire and who provided me with an account of their experiences and perspectives that were of a paramount significance to my research study.

Abstract

The sociolinguistic phenomenon of code-switching (CS) was addressed in dramatically different academic contexts where English is spoken as a first language (i.e., inner circle), as a second language (i.e., outer circle), as well as where English is spoken as a foreign language (i.e., expanding circle). Nevertheless, very few studies examined the issue of CS among undergraduate students in expanding circle countries such as Algeria. In the main, this study sought to find answers that would help apprehend the overriding reason (s) that stimulated the occurrence of CS in the third year students' oral production, identify the communicative functions of English-Arabic CS in the students' class interaction, and gauge its practicality and effectiveness in multilingual classes. Methodologically, following a qualitative research approach, a case study design was adopted with a purposively (deliberately) chosen sample. Accordingly, data were collected by means of two tools of inquiry, namely the observation and the unstructured questionnaire. The findings revealed that the underlying factor that prompted language-switching was that irresistible linguistic interference that germinated from the students' L1, in addition to other subsidiary linguistic factors. Furthermore, it was found that CS granted its appliers the opportunity to reiterate what they said exactly in another way, hold the floor and continue speaking for an extended period, and insist on what was being communicated. Addedly, it was concluded that the technique of CS might be considered as a productive and as a detrimental communication strategy as regards to the EFL students' developmental speaking competence. Finally, the findings of this study supported the hypotheses that were initially formulated and reported positive results.

Keywords: code-switching (CS), communicative functions, dominant language, language alternation, multilingual classes, speaking competence

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

ALM: Audio-Lingual Method

APA: American Psychological Association

CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CLL: Communicative Language Learning

CM: Code-Mixing

CS: Code-Switching

DM: Direct Method

EAH: Error Analysis Hypothesis

EFL: English as Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

FL: Foreign Language

GTM: Grammar Translation Method

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

SL: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SW: Silent Way

TPR: Total Physical Response

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General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

All human beings are genetically endowed with a mental capacity that enables them to acquire and, concurrently, learn a plethora of completely different languages besides to their first language (L1). This is exactly why people, during the process of communication and interaction, do typically make use of multiple usages of various linguistic repertoires to express their thoughts, as well as their feelings. Having the ability to employ grammatically different languages in exclusively different linguistic contexts has, consequently, made individuals employ several codes even inside educational (academic) settings.

The practice of moving back and forth between two or more languages within the same sentence or between the speakers' turns is known from a rather sociolinguistic perspective as code-switching (henceforth CS). The latter is deemed a widespread sociolinguistic phenomenon that has made its mark and left its impression in bi/multilingual classes. It is precisely for this reason that investigators endeavoured to tackle its prevalent occurrence in EFL classes with a focus on shedding light on the most significant factor that does necessarily prompt its manifestations (instances), especially and mainly in educational spheres.

As might possibly be foreseen, learning the English language with the goal of accumulating a sound knowledge apropos of the package of its linguistic forms and facets becomes a rather integral practice, especially for those who choose to enroll in it with the aim of complying with their personal, as well as professional demands. Nevertheless, and as it is explicitly revealed by EFL learners, learning the English language is not easy as it may seemingly appear to be. Rather, it is an intricate process, particularly for those whose major aims of learning are contingent on speaking English in a way that conveniently matches its linguistic frameworks and cultural values.

It is important to underline the fact that in real-life contexts, i.e., in EFL classes, the process of EFL learning is typically impacted by countless linguistic and social variables, including the learning environment, the learners' prior linguistic knowledge (schemata), their age, gender, ethnicity, religion, region, and many other subsidiary factors. However, and based on what was observed in the EFL classes, when it comes to the central linguistic factor that impacts the assessment of how proficient and appropriate the EFL learners are in communicating their thoughts in the target language, the learners' L1 seems to take the lion's share, mainly in directing what cannot be said relying solely on the English language. In view of what was previously mentioned in the content of the latter, it has been widely recognised that the more learners resort to their L1 in L2 learning, the easier and faster they seem to comprehend its convoluted linguistic items and suitably use them the way they are employed naturally in their authentic contexts.

In the Algerian context, research into promoting the EFL learners' linguistic competence conjointly with the communicative competence (as the latter proceeds only so far as the former is correctly built) is not given much importance as the point of emphasis of the majority of language instructors rests principally on developing either the pure linguistic knowledge that gives a primacy to the mastery of the productive and receptive skills ascribed to the target language (i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing) or on the communicative competence, with the latter being detached from an underlying competence (i.e., linguistic competence).

Other potential causes that may possibly decelerate the degree of interest in communicative competence studies can undoubtedly be attributed to the teachers' and learners' perceived lack regarding the sociolinguistic knowledge vis-à-vis the English language, the lack of training, busy schedules, in addition to the integration of the heavily old-fashionable language teaching methodologies and approaches that put a high premium on fostering learners' inner

criteria of correctness at the expense of their external criteria of appropriateness. Therefore, based on the assumptions laid down in the research findings in tandem with context specificities, the present research study aims at investigating the effect of the inexperienced learners' (or false beginners) L1 interference on the occurrence of CS in an EFL class.

2. Statement of the Problem

During our learning experience at Biskra University, we observed that at the tertiary level, where the English language is considered as the central means of communication and interaction, a noticeable number of EFL learners are, to some extent, linguistically incompetent to rely solely on the English language to communicate their ideas and thoughts in an academically-based context. This is precisely why they tend to make use of a myriad of combinations including distinct linguistic systems, such as the Arabic language, the French language, and even other countless forms of dialects and styles associated to their L1.

Owing to the fact that the Algerian academic setting, where the English language is taught as a foreign language (FL), is no longer monolingual, but a multilingual one, the EFL learners cannot easily get rid of those distinct styles and forms in which their L1 is a central component. Consequently, these learners are, in one way or another, affected by their L1 interference when they attempt to partake in their classroom conversational tasks.

As a matter of fact, this educational context can be considered as an accurate representation that is expected to help examine as systematically and plausibly as possible the occurrence of CS in language classes, figure out the pivotal linguistic factor (s) that pushes the EFL learners to employ it, comprehend profoundly the underlying communicative functions that are usually offered by the strategy of CS in achieving certain linguistic pedagogical intents and purposes, and realise what may result from the EFL learners' frequent use of CS during the

class interaction. Thus, it is for these reasons that this research work is seen to be worth-investigating and undertaking.

3. Research Questions

This research seeks to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the fundamental reason that triggers the occurrence of code-switching in an EFL class discourse?

RQ2: Which pattern (s) of code-switching that is most commonly used by the EFL students in their class conversational tasks?

RQ3: When and for what communicative purpose (s) do the EFL students code-switch?

RQ4: What are the effects of language-switching on the students' developmental speaking competence?

4. Research Hypotheses

Based on the abovementioned research questions, we propose the following research hypotheses:

RH1: The underlying reason behind the occurrence of code-switching in an EFL class is that irresistible linguistic interference deriving from the students' L1.

RH2: The most frequently used patterns of CS are the intra-sentential and extra-sentential types.

RH3: The EFL students shift from the English language to their L1 when engaging in their communicative tasks in order to keep the continuity/flow of their communication process and continue speaking for a more prolonged period.

RH4: The EFL students may guarantee that they will not be blocked by any communication barriers when they code-switch; however, they cannot assure whether or not their speaking competence is progressively developing.

5. Aims of the Study

The general aim of this research study seeks to concretely probe for a more intensive, profound, and weighty understanding of the effect of the learners' L1 interference on the occurrence of CS in EFL classes at the section of English at Biskra University. More specifically, this study aims at:

- Examining the occurrence of CS in EFL classes;
- Accentuating the principle reason (s) behind alternating codes during class communication, i.e., uncovering whether or not the learners' L1 interference does impact their communication performances and, consequently, makes them shift from the target language to their L1 during class discourse; and
- Bringing to light the effect of CS on the EFL learners' developmental speaking competence.

6. The Research Methodology for this Study

Methodologically, considering the fact that this research study is qualitative in nature, a qualitative research approach was implemented as it matched and suited ideally the ultimate objective of our research investigation, which is principally concerned with a subjective assessment of perceptions, attitudes, opinions, and behaviours. Under the umbrella of this research approach, a case study design was adopted as a research design with the goal of obtaining an extensive, a holistic, and an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under-examination. Differently stated, in the quest of answering as clearly and appropriately as possible the projected research questions that started our study and meet our research objectives, we opted for only one qualitative research design called the 'case study design' since our point of emphasis rested majorly on comprehending the idiosyncratic nature of only one case (the

third year EFL students), i.e., comprehending solely its specific particularities and details, not the generalities pertaining to the whole population of cases.

As a strategy to qualitative research, a case study design is a quite useful strategy, particularly if the central concern is to explore an area where only few is known or when the ultimate research aims seek to explicitly discover and understand as fully as possible a certain phenomenon rather than to confirm and quantify it. The goal of a researcher applying the case study design lies on having a case that may possibly supply him/her with a deep amount of information for the sake of understanding the case selected in its totality or entirety. One main advantage of the case study design is having the potential for rich contextualisation that may, in return, spotlight the intricacies, complexities, and specificities of particular cases in their particular contexts.

Additionally, with reference to the purpose of our research study and the nature of our research questions, two qualitative tools of inquiry, namely the observation and the questionnaire, were employed in an attempt to collect the necessary information from the sample assigned. Via conducting a classroom observation, we scrupulously observed the occurrence of CS and scrutinised the effect of the learners' L1 interference on triggering its functionality in the students' talk. Then, in the pursuit of cross-checking and validating our observational data, an unstructured questionnaire was submitted in an effort to comprehend the other subsidiary linguistic reason (s) behind alternating codes during class communication.

7. Population and Sampling Technique

The third year students enrolled in the section of English at Biskra University in the academic year 2020 constituted the population of this study. This section was selected since it embodied the students whose English speaking proficiency is of a medium level. Otherwise stated, it is due to the students' inadequate speaking competence, this population was

deliberately assigned. Additionally, considering that our research area belongs to the social sciences' domain, the targeted sample was purposively selected following the tenets of one qualitative sampling mode called the 'purposive sampling technique' for the reason that we wanted to study a small portion of a large population.

8. Significance of the Study

The first and principal motive behind conducting such a sort of research studies centers around examining the phenomenon of CS with the goal of deepening the understandability into the effect of L1 interference on prompting its occurrence in EFL classes, mainly in the students' talk. Considerably, the present research study, we believe, is significantly fruitful and insightful in the sense that it contributes primarily to the domain of Applied Linguistics, and secondly, to the field of Sociolinguistics since it is meant to serve as an authentic profile towards the realisation of those communication dilemmas that are oftentimes confronted by the EFL learners while trying to produce a coherent oral discourse that is correct and, most importantly, appropriate. This will, in return, make the EFL teachers unequivocally recognise the roots from where the learners' language speaking inconveniences are generated.

Additionally, this research study raises certain considerations which provide clear elucidations that seek, in an exchange, to pay heed to the comprehensibility of that undeniable role that the learners' L1 interference, be it positive or negative, plays in the overall process of ELT and learning. Taking this into account, the EFL teachers are likely to find out effective and practical teaching tactics with the intention of helping the EFL learners bridge the lexical loopholes and get rid of those speaking barriers that may potentially impede their oral progressive performances and make their L1 the first-aid communicative device to carry out their class discourse.

9. The Referencing Style for this Dissertation

The American Psychological Association (APA, sixth edition) was the referencing style based on which the report for this research study was consistently documented. We chose such a citation style since it is deemed the standard writing format typically used in the social sciences' discipline under which our research study falls (American Psychological Association, 2010). Nevertheless, a couple of exceptional cases should be acknowledged. Mainly, the use of the "Justify Function" of refining the lines to be aligned and the "Cover Page" standards are presented in accordance with the supervisor's instructions and the institutional conventions.

10. Structure of the Dissertation

The following is an intended structure according to which this dissertation is organised:

Chapter One consults a literature review on class communication, along with its major premises and barriers. Subsequently, it presents a theoretical basis that introduces the problem that launched our research study, which is the occurrence of CS, as a language contact phenomenon, in language classes together with its positive and negative implications on FL teaching and learning.

Chapter Two reviews the role of L1 interference in FL learning. That is, this chapter discusses the reasons of L1 interference, the role of language transferability in FL learning, the way mistakes and errors should be identified and treated, and provides a brief account of the former language teaching methods and their prominence in the teachability of FLs.

Chapter Three provides an extensive description that highlights the theoretical background about research methodology in educational research, then it proceeds to specify, rationalise, and describe the methodological framework that was meticulously pursued for the purpose of investigating systematically our research problem and testing the corresponding hypotheses.

Chapter Four displays, analyses, interprets, and synthesises what the qualitative tools of inquiry may bring as data in order to draw on inferences and conclusions that would help evaluate the extent to which the claims that were initially formulated are accurate, valid, and credible. Finally, a summary and synthesis of the main findings are presented in this chapter.

11. Demystifying Terminology

A number of terms require some elucidations to determine how and in which sense the researcher uses them.

Monolingualism. A monolingual society is a community in which no more than one language is used**.** Ellis (2007) demonstrates that a monolingual speaker is one who does not have an access to more than one linguistic code as a means of social communication.

Bilingualism. A bilingual speaker is someone who speaks two languages in a given speech community. According to Hamers and Blanc (2000), the concept of bilingualism refers to the state of a linguistic community in which two diverse linguistic repertoires are in contact with the result that a number of individuals are bilingual.

Multilingualism. This term denotes the existence of a multiplicity of languages spoken by people who belong to a particular ethnic group. The concept of multilingualism is used to refer to a particular racial group in which different languages coexist side by side, but are used disconnectedly (Blais, 2014).

Code-Switching (CS). It is a sociolinguistic phenomenon whereby individuals alternate between two codes or varieties related to a particular language. Nordquist (2019) considers the phenomenon of CS as the practice of moving back and forth between grammatically distinct linguistic systems or between two dialects or registers of the same language at one time. The notion of CS is written in three distinct manners: codeswitching, code switching, or code-switching. The latter will consistently be used in this research work because the term CS is

terminologically written as a hyphenated word in the English dictionary (Oxford Wordpower, 2006).

Mother Tongue Interference (L1). In its purist sense, L1 interference refers to the role that learners' dominant language plays in learning a SL/ FL. For Thyab (2016), L1 interference refers to that irresistible and unavoidable influence that learners' native language plays in their acquisition of the target language.

Chapter One: The Occurrence of Code-Switching in EFL classes

Introduction

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1.2 Code-Switching in Multilingual Classes

1.2.1 Definition of code-switching (CS

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Introduction

The aims of this chapter are twofold. The first section seeks to discuss and elucidate, from a broad perspective, the meaning in tandem with the signification of classroom communication in an EFL class. Subsequently, it proceeds to identify and explicate the commonest classifications of communication. Moreover, it presents the principles and even the operative communication models that are expected to bring on an effective class conversational interaction. Finally, yet importantly, the core of this section is meant to shed light on the popular communication strategies assumed to guarantee a successional communication process. Whereas, the second section is meant to scrutinise occurrence of CS in multilingual classes. Furthermore, it probes for the specific reasons, along with the particular communicative functions for which both teachers and learners switch codes during class engagement. Lastly, this section is devoted to painstakingly pinpoint the benefits and ill-effects of the integration of CS as a conversational strategy in ELT and learning.

1.1 Classroom Communication

Prior to comprehend both literally and functionally the core meaning of the term ‘classroom communication’, it would be preferable to expound, in the first place, what is meant by ‘communication’?

1.1.1 Definition of communication. There is no single definition of communication that was universally agreed upon by educationists and academicians. It is why, a considerable number of scholars provided a multiplicity of clarifications and interpretations that targeted particularly the notion of communication. Terminologically, as it is reported by Valentzas and Broni (n.d.), the concept of communication derived genuinely from the Latin word ‘communis’, which means ‘common’. Over and above this, Johnson and Savennah (1999) considers the

process of communication as a mutually ongoing procedure of sending and receiving messages with the goal of enabling humans to reciprocally share knowledge, attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and skills. Moreover, in line with this idea, Mehrabian (as cited in Valentzas & Broni, n.d.), emphasises that the process of communication can be considered as:

> Any act by which one person gives to or receives from another person information about that person's needs, desires, perceptions, knowledge, or affective states. Communication may be intentional or unintentional, may involve conventional or unconventional signals, may take linguistic or non-linguistic forms, and may occur through spoken or other modes. (p.117)

What can be drawn from the abovementioned clarification is that the process of communication may take place between two interlocutors who endeavour to share with each other information that may concern their personal opinions, feelings, perceptions, beliefs, and assumptions. In the context of this process, communicants may possibly employ those old-fashionable signals as they may communicate verbally (via uttering words) or non-verbally (through using body language). The following figure represents the way a communication process proceeds:

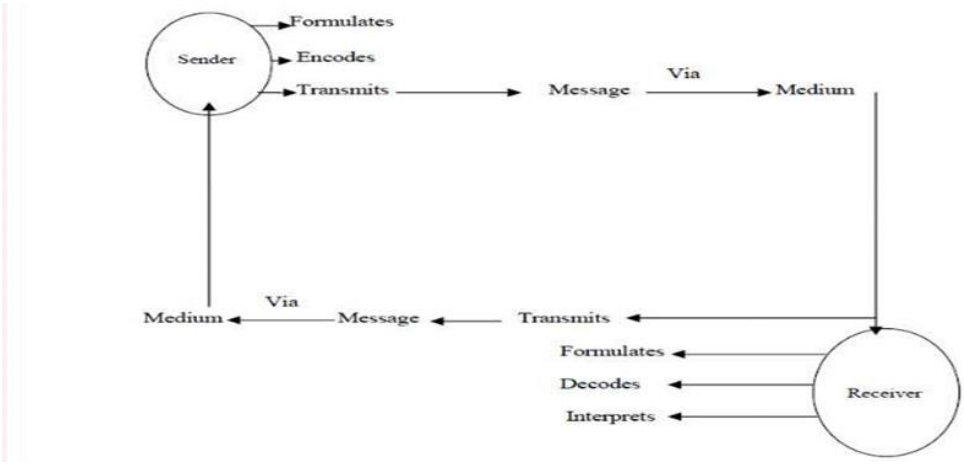


Figure 1.1 Main components of classroom communication. Reprinted from Communication and Classroom Interaction by S. S. Jose, 2016, retrieved from

https://sunithasusanbinu.blogspot.com/2016/11/module-3-communication-and classroom. html?m=1 Copyright 2016 © by Educational Technology.

As it is displayed in the figure above, the communication process is generally comprised of dual components, which are respectively the sender and the receiver. While the former intends to encode messages and convey them following a particular medium (code), the latter tries to decode the massage sent by the speaker and, accordingly, s/he tries to resend other new messages.

1.1.2 Definition of interaction. Terminologically, the term interaction comes from the verb 'to interact'. As specified by the Oxford Wordpower Dictionary, to interact means "To communicate or mix in a way that has an influence or effect on somebody else" (p.115). Beyond this, it is believed by Rhalmi (2016) that the term interaction is used to indicate the language used conjointly to maintain a conversation, teach, or interact with participants involved in a given communicative task.

To put it concisely and succinctly, interaction is indubitably more than an action followed by a reaction. Indeed, it is a process that necessitates from individuals to have an influence on each and one another. For this reason, it is agreed that the primary and the focal objective behind interaction lies on having a greater impact on the addressee. Therefore, if there is a nonexistent impact between interlocutors, then there will be no interaction.

Importantly, despite the fact that the process of communication is closely related to that of interaction, a conspicuous demarcation that delineates the dissimilitude between the two processes can be minutely extracted. One key difference between communication and interaction is that interaction is a broader term that involves communication. Having said this, it can be discerned that while communication refers to the act of exchanging information,

interaction refers to acting in such a way with an eye on affecting the interlocutor (Difference between communication and interaction, 2015).

1.1.4 Classroom communication. Substantially, the so-called 'communication' represents an integral component in language classes: "Communication though has a major role in all walks of life; it has a further more significant place in the teaching- learning processes" (Rawat, 2016, p.3059). Chinyeaka and Wichendu (2018) assert that classroom communication is the process by which the teacher, the learner, and the instructional materials interact purposefully to achieve certain pedagogical objectives.

1.1.5 Types of classroom communication. According to Johnson (1999), classroom communication can be typified into two modes: Verbal communication and non-verbal communication.

1.1.5.1 Verbal communication. Verbal communication requires from speakers to use sounds and language to pass on a massage and it is considered as the primary way or tool of expressions between two or more interlocutors (Live strong foundation 2013, as cited in Wordu, Chinyeaka & Wichendu, 2018, p. 25). That is, when communication is carried out through oral or written words, it is considered to be a verbal communication.

1.1.5.2 Non-verbal communication. Unlike verbal communication, non-verbal cues refer to the use of paralinguistic features, including movements, postures, facial expressions, and spatial distance (Johnson, 1999). Therefore, when communication is carried out without a sound or language, i.e., the spoken or written form of a particular language, it is considered as a non-verbal communication.

1.1.6 Linguistic and communicative competences. While devoting a great deal of time in studying systematically and scrupulously the traits of the human language, Chomsky (1965) ends up by introducing the notion of 'linguistic competence', which he explains as follows:

> Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows the language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and errors (random or characteristics) in applying his knowledge of language in actual performance. (As cited in Rhalmi, 2016, p. 158)

Chomsky (1965) introduces the notion of Generative Grammar that is the theory of linguistic competence. In doing so, he coins two dichotomies, which are, respectively, competence and performance. By competence, he means all the abstract linguistic rules which exist in one's mind. However, by performance, he refers to the individual's way of transforming those abstract rules into speech, be it spoken or written (as cited in Rhalmi, 2016).

Having the intention to continuingly elaborate and complete what was genuinely established by Chomsky (1965), Hymes (1970) criticises Chomsky's idealisation and abstraction to language by arguing that language is not only a matter of an ideal speaker-listener who should master the intangible linguistic constructions involved in it (as cited in Rihalmi, 2016, p. 159). Because of Hymes' objection and critical appraisal, a new dimension to language called 'the communicative dimension' was introduced. Conclusively, it has been pointed out that after all, human beings use language connectedly and simultaneously to communicate not in isolation, but in society. By dint of Hymes' contribution, a new approach called the 'communicative language teaching' was introduced.

1.1.7 Common models of communicative competence. There is a considerable number of scholars who worked on the communicative competence and who, consequently, modeled condensed classifications as regards to its progressive growth in language acquisition and use. In this study, much emphasis is put on the communicative competence models accomplished by Canal and Swain (1980), and Bachman (1990), simply because they are deemed the prototypical and exemplar taxonomies of communication.

1.1.7.1 Canal and Swain's model. The most widely cited model of communication is the one established by Canal and Swain (1980). On their part, the notion of communicative competence can be divided further into four major components, namely the grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, and discourse competence.

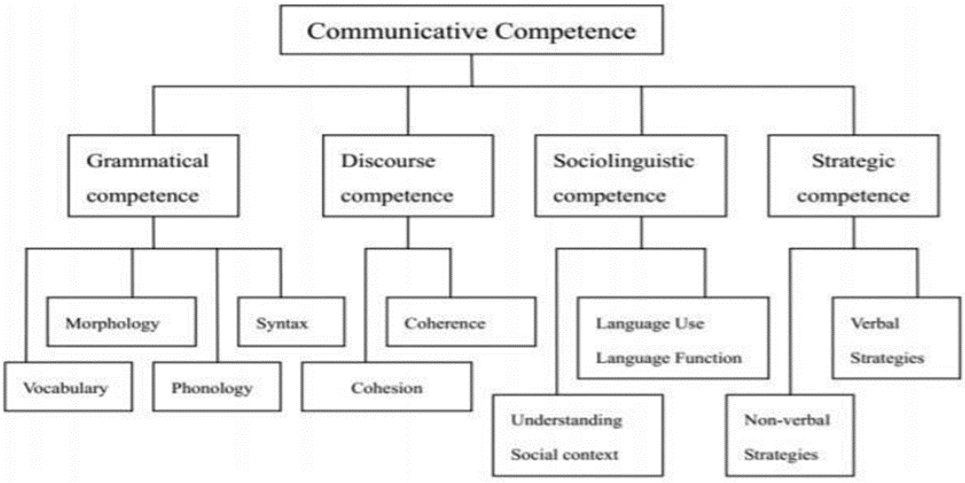


Figure 1.2 Canal and Swain's adoption of communicative competence (1980). Reprinted from *Research into the Development of Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence of EFL Learners in Northern Iraq* (p. 17), by Y.T. Alzeebaree, 2017, Nicosia: Cyprus International University. Copyright 2017 © by Cyprus International University.

Based on Canal and Swain's communicative competence model (1980), grammatical competence, also called the linguistic competence, is the cornerstone of the communicative competence and the staple diet in ELT. In its essence, the grammatical competence refers to the speaker's phonological, morphological, syntactical, lexical, and orthographical knowledge of a language. Differently stated, it is about how to build up morphemes into words and words into clauses and sentences, and how to spell words in the written record or pronounce them in speech. Additionally, the sociolinguistic competence refers to the speaker's knowledge of what is socially or culturally appropriate in a given speech community. More straightforwardly, the sociolinguistic competence entails the ability to use language conveniently based on the sociocultural conventions that govern a particular ethnic group in which a certain language is communicatively employed. Addedly, the strategic competence refers to the ability to use a heterogeneity of communication strategies to repair those abrupt communication breakdowns when they arise. Finally, discourse competence refers to the state of being able to produce a coherent, cohesive, and a unified discourse of distinct genres (as cited in Alzeebaree, 2017).

1.1.7.2 Bachman's model. Bachman's model of communicative competence can be seen as an amplification and enlargement of Canal and Swain's contribution (1980). Bachman (1990) changes the term communicative competence, the original concept, into 'language competence'. As a matter of fact, it was not until Bachman's prototypical paradigm in which the pragmatic competence was incorporated. Such a kind of competences was further subdivided by Bachman into two subcategories, which are the illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. While the former refers to the ability of using different linguistic formula to express different speech acts, the latter addresses the use of those linguistic formula in their appropriate context (as cited in Alzeebaree, 2017**)**.

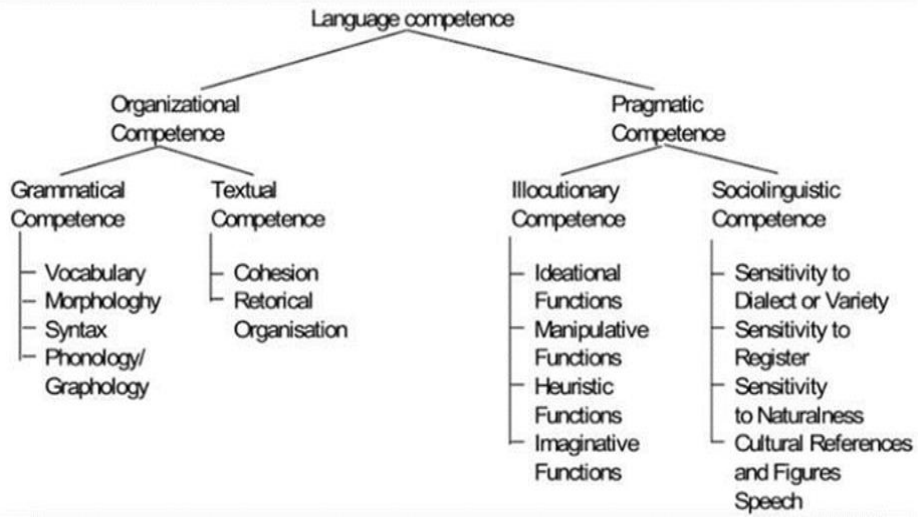


Figure 1.3 Bachman's model of language competence (1980). Reprinted from *Research into the Development of Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence of EFL Learners in Northern Iraq* (p. 19), by Y.T. Alzeebaree, 2017, Nicosia: Cyprus International University. Copyright 2017 © by Cyprus International University.

1.1.8 Principles of effective classroom communication. On the authority of Pal, Halder, and Guha (2016), we can speak about effective communication when the intention is successfully and effectually interpreted the way it was preliminarily planned by the speaker. More precisely, an effective class communication occurs when there is a direct linkage between the speaker's intended meaning and the listener's way of decoding that intended meaning as it was designed initially by the speaker. Joe (2016) informs that it is worthwhile to underline the fact that there are certain criteria that demonstrate the effectiveness of classroom communication. In his opinion, in order to guarantee a successful process of communication, communicants ought to take into consideration the following core principles:

- Principle of competency;
- Principle of suitability of content;
- Principle of focus;

- Principle of effective strategies;
- Principle of feedback and reinforcement;
- Principle of readiness and motivation;
- principle of sharing and interaction;
- Principle of centeredness; and
- Principle of mutual understanding (Joe, 2016, 5§).

As the abovementioned principles vividly demonstrate, it can be inferred that classroom interactants must firstly be linguistically well-versed because one cannot communicate accurately and fluently without knowing and mastering the phonological, morphological, syntactical, and lexical aspects of a given language. Supplementarily, while negotiating, classroom communicants should be relevant to the subject under-discussion and eclectic when it comes to the selection of which communication strategy they should particularly opt for when they negotiate.

Furthermore, when exchanging ideas, it is advisable if teachers keep prompting learners and providing them with a stimulating and constructive feedback so that learners will exceedingly continue being engaged in their act of communication. Besides, since today's teaching process is a learner-centered process, language teachers need to give the opportunity to learners for the sake of rousing and encouraging them to become actively involved in the class interaction. Not least of all, an effective class discourse is the one that entails a mutual understanding between interlocutors; otherwise, it would not be considered as being successful.

1.1.9 Common barriers to effective classroom communication. Communication barriers refer mainly to those intervening impediments that may conceivably hamper effective communication for an effective teaching-learning process (Wordu, Chinyeaka & Wichendu, 2018). The overriding objective behind learning any language lies not only on being able to speak it correctly, but also, and quite importantly, on being able to use it appropriately. However, Putra (n.d.) indicates that EFL learners do sometimes face some communication-related problems that may cease their sequential flow while communicating their thoughts. Before knowing how to solve abrupt communication stopgaps, it is essential to recognise first from where these stopgaps germinate. Table 1.1 summarises the common factors that can have an unfavourable impact on the part of the classroom participants' conversational tasks.

Table 1.1

Impediments of Classroom Communication

Factor	Explanation
The use of jargon	This refers mainly to the use of some technical items that are difficult for EFL learners to be understood.
Emotional barriers and taboos	EFL learners may find it difficult to communicate their feelings or speak about some topics like religion and politics which are closely related to their taboos.
Lack of attention or interest	learners are likely to face problems while communicating if they are inattentive, demotivated, or absent-minded.
Differences in perception and viewpoint	Communication breakdowns may take place if learners are unable to perceive the input or if they cannot smoothly convey their standpoints towards a specific topic.
Language differences	Because of the linguistic dissimilarities between their L1 and English, EFL learners may fail while communicating.
Expectations and prejudices	EFL learners' conversational interactions might be hampered, especially if they formulate incorrect assumptions about the English language.
Cultural differences	EFL learners may fail to communicate effectively if they are unfamiliar with the social norms that characterise the speech community where English is the language being spoken.

Note. Adapted from Barriers to effective communication. Copyright 2020 © by Skills You Need.

1.1.10 Effective classroom communication strategies. Similar to the marked divergence found in the principles meant to promote communication processes, a great diversity of perspectives exists among authors when it comes to the approaches towards effective communication strategies, in general, and when it comes to establishing a typology of CS, in particular. Therefore, based on multiple researches conducted in the field of second language acquisition (SLA), it has been concluded that learners may possibly rely on certain strategic tactics in order not to face potential impediments during class discourse.

Importantly, there was a myriad of communication strategies which proved their signification, especially when it comes to fostering EFL learners' classroom conversational interactions. Taxonomies established by Tarone (1978), and Faerch and Kasper (1983) are regarded as the commonest prototypes of communication strategies. Later on, these two taxonomies were further modified and renovated by scholars, such as Nijmegan and Bialystoke (1990), Dörnyei and Scott (1997), and Rababah and Avval (2012). Taxonomies of Tarone (1978), and Faerch and Kasper (1983) will be underlined in the upcoming accounts since they are considered as the most influential communication taxonomies.

- **Tarone's Taxonomy (1980)**

  From an interactional perspective, Tarone (1980) suggests that communication strategies can be, from an ample scope, ranked into three main categories, namely paraphrase, transfer, and avoidance. Under these large-scale categories, she mentions subcategories of approximation, word coinage, circumlocution (under Paraphrase), literal translation, language switch, appeal for assistance, mime (under Transfer), and topic avoidance and message abandonment (under Avoidance). This classification is shown in Figure 1.4.

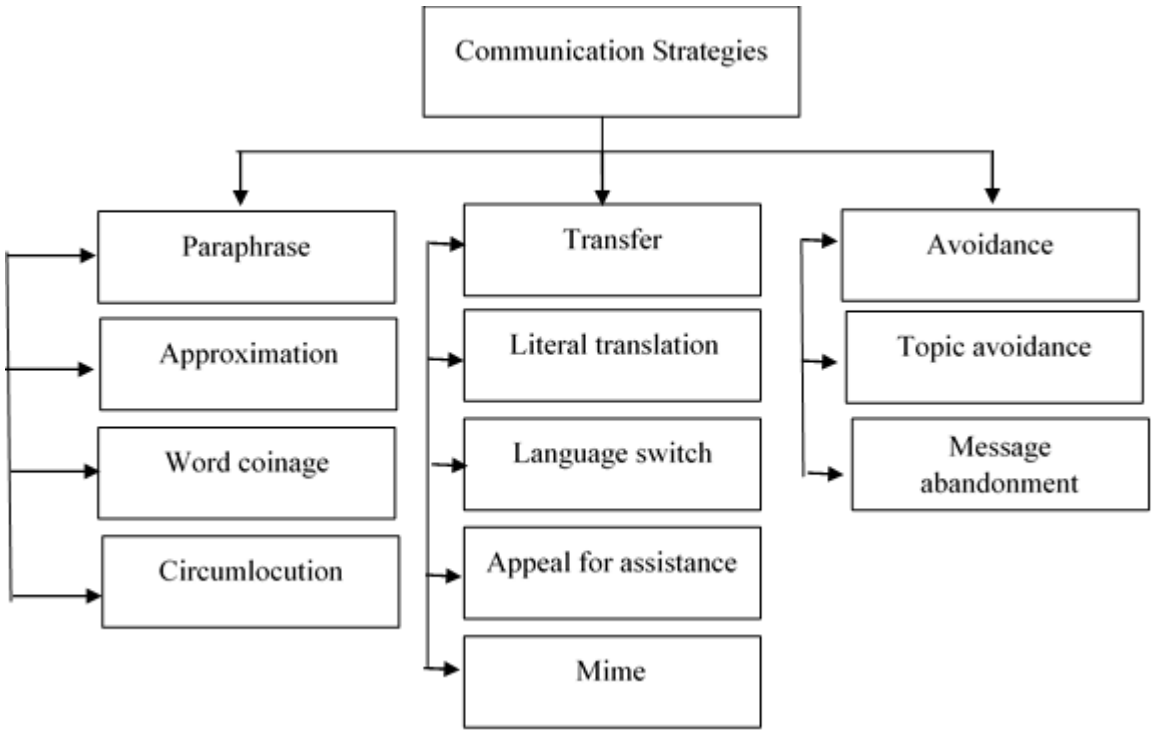


Figure 1. 4 Tarone's model of communication strategies (1980). Adapted from Some Thoughts on the Notion of Communication Strategy, by E. Tarone, 1980, *TESOL Quarterly*, *15*, p. 429. Copyright 1980 © by Wiley Online Library.

As it is displayed in the figure above, Tarone (1980) lists nine strategies and grouped them into three broad categories. The subcategories under paraphrase are: Approximation, word coinage, and circumlocution. Firstly, by approximation, Tarone (1980) refers to the "Use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker" (Tarone, 1980, p. 429). Secondly, word coinage is defined when learners tend to make up new words in order to communicate a desired concept (e.g., 'Airball' for 'Balloon'). Lastly, circumlocution is about learners' tendency to opt for describing the attributes, qualities, or elements of a certain object instead of employing the appropriate target language structure (e.g., she is using something. I do not know what its name is) (Tarone, 1980).

The transfer strategy comes into play when there is a problem related to language fluency and correctness. The subcategories embedded under this strategy are: Literal translation, appeal for assistance, and mime. By applying the literal translation strategy, learners tend to translate word-for-word what they want to say from their native language. In appeal for assistance, learners aim to look for any sort of an external help or assistance in order to find the exact and correct terms they want to communicate. Whereas, mime is displayed when learners make use of certain non-verbal techniques to express certain modes of expressions like clapping for an applause (Tarone, 1980).

When language learners decide to avoid those tough conversational tasks, then the strategy of avoidance springs into action. The avoidance strategy is of two types, namely topic avoidance and message abandonment. The former, as indicated by its label, occurs when language learners decide to avert speaking about concepts that they are linguistically unacquainted with. Whereas, the latter happens when learners start talking about certain topics, then they suddenly stop speaking as they are structurally unable to continue speaking due to a lack of meaning, structure, and abrupt stops in mid utterances (Tarone, 1980).

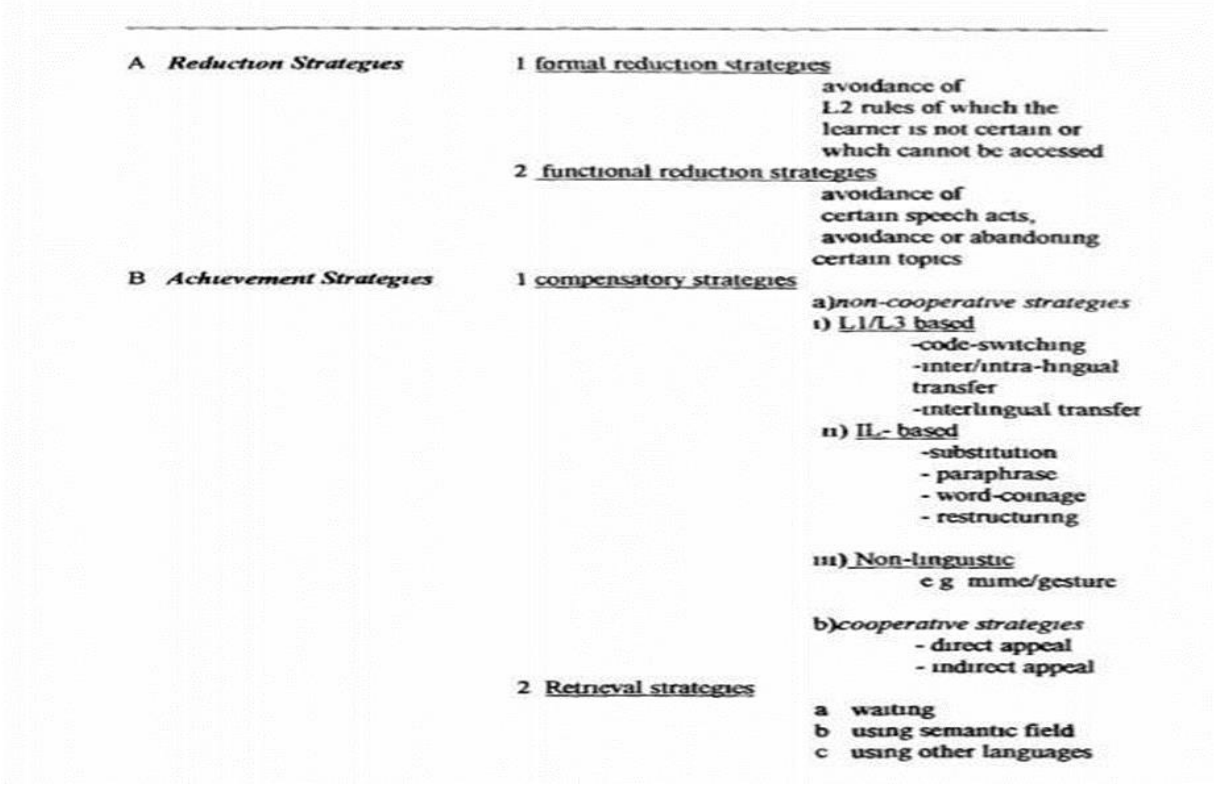
- **Faerch and Kasper' Taxonomy (1983)**

In the opinion of Faerch and Kasper (1983), "Communication strategies can be categorised in terms of reduction strategies and achievement strategies- the learners' attempt to avoid the problem being a reduction strategy and their attempt to achieve a solution being an achievement strategy" (as cited in Delamere & Dip, 1998, p. 10). This implies that learners may process communication through avoiding complexities and finding certain practical alternatives with the goal of overcoming them. Again, based on Faerch and Kasper's viewpoints, the achievement communicative strategies entail hypotheses, along with the interlocutors' practical statements that can promote language acquisition. However, the

reduction communicative strategies involve ways of avoiding sophisticated L2 rules and speech acts. Table 1.2 illustrates Faerch and Kasper's model of communication strategies (1983).

Table 1.2

Faerch's and Kasper's Model of Communication Strategies (1983).



Note. Reprinted from *Communication strategies of English-speaking learners of French on a Business Studies Course* (p.11), by B. Delamere and B. A. H. Dip, 1998, Dublin, Ireland: Dublin City University. Copyright 1988 © by Dublin City University.

As it is revealed in the figure above, reduction strategies can be further divided into two subsets, which are formal reduction and functional reduction. On the one hand, EFL learners may employ formal reduction strategies so that they can avoid those complex linguistic rules which may create certain speaking-related deficiencies and, consequently, hamper their communication process. On the other hand, EFL learners may rely on those functional

strategies in order to save their oral performances from the toughness of certain illocutionary forces (speech acts).

As far as the achievement strategies are concerned, the communication process can be promoted through employing two strategies that are of a paramount importance. The first strategy, labeled as 'the compensatory strategy', is a technique whereby EFL learners intend to alternate codes, employ their native language, divide utterances/sentences into constituents and restate them, create new words, reformulate certain complex syntactical structures of the target language, employ non-verbal cues, and ask for either a direct or an indirect assistance. However, the second strategy, named as 'the retrieval strategy', is meant to help EFL learners activate their schemata in order to make use of other languages and even other lexical items when they are conversing (Delamere & Dip, 1998).

1.2 Code-Switching in Multilingual Classes

King and Chetty (2014) consider the technique of CS as a mediation strategy that has the potential of elevating and enhancing learners' progressive oral performances. Before going farther than this, it is important to elucidate and expound primarily the literal, as well as the functional meaning of the so-called 'CS'.

1.2.1 Definition of code-switching (CS). With reference to Auer's (1998) sociolinguistic contributions, the pioneer who introduced and coined the concept of CS was Hans Vogt (1954). Terminologically, the term CS is a compound word, i.e., it is composed of two words, which are respectively, code and switching. Before perceiving the substantial meaning of the term CS, it is prerequisite to apprehend initially what does the word code mean? For Saragih (1997), a code is a term used to denote any system of verbal communication that is used by individuals

who live in a particular ethnic group. Whereas, switching refers to the alternative use of different verbal systems employed by bilingual speakers during the act of conversation (Shogren, 2011).

Indeed, there were many linguistic and sociolinguistic scholars whose whole focus of attention centered around studying the phenomenon of CS using interlocutors of communicative events and who provided a number of definitions for that phenomenon depending on the nature of the studies that they undertook (Poplack, 1980; Gumperz, 1982; Erman, 2002). For instance, Gumperz (1982) defines CS as "The juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (as cited in Cantone, 2007, p.54). Furthermore, in compliance with Gumperz's idea, Poplack (1980) claims that the phenomenon of CS is used to refer to the alternative use of two different linguistic systems within a single discourse, sentence, or constituent.

Additionally, Mesthrie, Swann, Deumart, and leap (2000) consider CS as the ability to switch back and forth between different languages or varieties attributed to the same language during the act of conversation. Besides, Wong (1979) affirms that CS is a criterion that denotes the switch that does typically take place between two linguistically diverse verbal systems, varieties, or speech styles. In this way, she broadens the scope of CS to make it include not only languages and varieties, but also, and quite importantly, speech styles.

Apart from this, Wei (1998) sees CS as a boundary-leveling or a boundary-maintaining conversational strategy used by interlocutors who do reciprocally understand the resources from where the codes, that they resort to, are drawn so that their communication act can constantly proceed. Furthermore, Nilep (2006) claims that as a common occurrence in multilingual settings, CS is deemed a communicative strategy used by speakers within a linguistic situation where two or more codes coexist within the confines of one speech community.

With reference to the foregoing theoretical foundations and reviews of CS, it is obvious that scholars look at the phenomenon of CS from completely varying dimensions and this is not surprising as these scholars do distinctively define the phenomenon of CS minding the nature, the underpinnings, along with the peculiarities of the studies that they themselves conducted. Nonetheless, a conjecture that can be drawn in this respect is that all of these scholars do, in one way or another, contend particularly on elaborating and expounding the gist of CS by considering it as a normal everyday practice among bi/multilingual speakers who tend to alternatively shift to completely distinct verbal systems, varieties, or even speech styles for the sake of making their communication act rhetorically meaningful.

1.2.2 Code-switching and other language contact phenomena. From a broad sociolinguistic dimension, it has been assumed that when two grammatically distinct linguistic systems get in touch, several language contact phenomena, namely CS, code-mixing (CM), borrowing, and diaglossia may arise. Concepts like these are, in a certain sense, obscure and confusing. Therefore, in order to avoid misconceptions and misapprehensions, it would be preferable to provide a conspicuous demarcation between all of them.

1.2.2.1 Code-switching versus code-mixing. Indeed, both of the two terms CS and CM may apparently seem to be ideally tantamount and synonymous. Nevertheless, based on their proper and decent practicality, these two concepts are not and cannot operationally be identical synonyms and, consequently, they cannot be used and referred to interchangeably. Concurrently, Mabule (2015) upholds that both of CS and CM are sociolinguistic phenomena, which may take place in poly-lingual speech communities. In fact, these two phenomena do emerge due to the existence of more than one code in a particular ethnic group.

In an attempt to functionally segregate between CS and CM, Ritchie and Bhatia (2008) offer the following analytical definition for CM:

> We use the term code-switching (CS) to refer to the use of various linguistic units (words, phrases, clauses and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems across sentence boundaries within a speech event. In other words, CS is intersentential and may be subject to discourse principles. It is motivated by social and psychological factors. (p. 337)
>
> Besides, they provide also the following definition for CM:
>
> We use the term code-mixing (CM) to refer to the mixing of various linguistic units (morphemes, words, modifiers, phrases, clauses and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems within a sentence. In other words, CM is intrasentential and is constrained by grammatical principles and [may] be motivated by social and psychological factors. (p. 337)

A conjecture that can be drawn in this respect is that both of CS and CM are two distinct sociolinguistic practices which may come into play when two or more linguistically different languages (codes) get and keep in contact. While the former occurs at the level of sentential boundaries, meaning that one sentence/utterance is written/uttered in one code, and the other in another code, the latter refers to the shift that occurs at the level of clausal boundaries, meaning that two codes are employed within one single clause. In spite of that clear cut between CS and CM, still a commonality in which both of the two phenomena converge can be extracted. That is, both of CS and CM are stimulated due to some social and psychological considerations attributed to the languages communicants tend to have recourse to.

1.2.2.2 Code-switching versus borrowing. In addition to CS and CM, borrowing is also another language contact phenomenon that is considered a remedy in case two distinct verbal communication systems contact one another. On the one hand, the notion of CS has been referred to by different scholars as the alternation from one linguistic repertoire to another

within the same speech exchange (Poplack, 1980; Gumperz, 1982; Mafredi & Simeone-Snelle, and Tosco, 2015). Traudgill (1992), on the other hand, sees borrowing, as a process through which bi/multilingual speakers tend to insert loan words in a sentence/utterance that is written or uttered in a substantially different language. Eventually, these loan words will, subsequently, become accepted as an integral part of the SL. In the light of the forgoing clarification, it can be said that borrowing is an interactional phenomenon whereby speakers of language A tend to adapt a linguistic element from language B and make it a persistent part that matches and corresponds the linguistic rules of their verbal communication system.

1.2.2.3 Code-switching versus diaglossia. Unlike CS, which is the use of more than one language in the act of conversation, Ferguson (1959) defines diaglossia as follows:

> Diaglossia 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 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. (As cited in Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 96)

Simply put, the concept of diaglossia refers to the state of having two varieties, with one variety is considered to be high (H) and the other one is deemed to be low (L). That high variety is employed by communicators in formal settings. However, that low variety is used by speakers in informal situations.

1.2.3 Patterns of code-switching. The fact that CS is a part of a bilingual's linguistic repertoire must be stressed. Bilingual speakers may use miscellaneous patterns of CS when they shift from one language to another (Poplack, 1980). In fact, there were many attempts in

which scholars, such as Milroy and Myusken (1995), Blom and Gumperz (1982), and Poplack (1980), tried to provide different typological frameworks as regards to the phenomenon of CS. The most influential categorisation of CS is the one provided by Poplack (2000), who divides CS into three major types, namely extra-sentential CS, inter-sentential CS, and intra-sentential CS (as cited in Mabule, 2015).

1.2.3.1 Extra-sentential switching. This type of CS, also labeled by other scholars as tag-switching, refers to the use of certain tag elements from one linguistic repertoire and inserting them into the same sentence/utterance that is written or uttered in a completely different language. Differently stated, extra-sentential CS refers to the use of short tags containing certain specific restrictions and specificities that do violate the structural rules of the base language (Poplack, 2000). Examples of tags might include: This lesson is quite clear**, /fhamtouh? /**.

1.2.3.2 Inter-sentential switching. Inter-sentential switches consist of language switches, which occur at the level of sentential boundaries. Occurring within the same sentence or between speakers' turns, this type of CS stipulates a greater competence level in both languages being spoken in order to linguistically adhere to their corresponding rules (Poplack, 2000, as cited in Mabule, 2015). According to Myers-Scotton (2006), inter-sentential switching occurs at the clausal or sentential level, where each clause or sentence is in one of two languages. An example of intersentential switching might include: **/Hada dars saib/.** Yet, we need to do our best to achieve better results/.

1.2.3.3 Intra-sentential switching. Poplack (2000) uses the term intra-sentential CS to refer to certain cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two different languages are employed within one single utterance/sentence (as cited in Mabule, 2015). Poplack (1980) pinpoints that intra-sentential CS involves a shift of smaller units, such as the mixing of affixes,

words, phrases, and clauses from more than one linguistic code within the same sentence or speech event. An example of intra-sentential CS can be seen in the following sentence: /**Bghit nakhdem el/** passport because I want to travel overseas.

1.2.4 Definition of classroom code-switching. Essentially, multilingual educational settings, where English is taught either as a SL or as a FL language, can never be free from language-switching as the latter is regarded as a spontaneous (natural) linguistic practice that may possibly be the working substitute when different linguistic systems contact one another. In agreement with this idea, Oubaidullah (2016) proves, "Code-switching becomes a natural phenomenon and an inevitable part of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), especially in EFL classrooms" (p. 926).

In the main, there were loads of studies in which researchers, like King and Hornberh (2008), attempted to investigate the bottom-line of classroom CS and who concluded that the concept of classroom CS denotes the exploitation of more than one language, by both of the classroom agents (teachers and students), in a pedagogical setting. Simply put, when classroom partners tend to alternatively switch between structurally and constructively different codes, varieties, or even speech styles, then they are with classroom CS.

1.2.5 Reasons for classroom code-switching. The occurrence of CS in bilingual classes is viewed by some scholars as being a relatively hindering communication strategy, which may hamper both of the teaching and learning processes. In line with this idea, Elridge (1996) ascertains, "It had been assumed that code-switching in the classroom was a counter-productive phenomenon and the whole focus of discussion centered around finding ways of preventing it, with almost no consideration of what caused it in the first place" (p. 304).

In educational contexts, where English is regarded as a FL, learners alternate codes due to some overpowering intervening factors. According to Inuwa, Christopher, and Bt. Bakrini

(2014), learners' choice of CS can be traced back to either linguistic constraints and/or social aspects. For them, linguistic constraints refer to the learners' inadequate mastery of the phonological, morphological, syntactical, and lexical aspects pertinent to the target language. Whereas, social aspects refer to certain factors which entail particularly the interlocutors, the setting, the subject at hand, the degree of formality, the social position along with the objective that is desired to be met through the participants' discourse which may work as determinant indices for the choice of one linguistic repertoire rather than another (Inuwa, Christopher & Bakrini, 2014).

When it comes to the reasons that do stipulate the occurrences of CS in the class discourse, Rios and Campos (2013) identify certain fundamental factors that play an indispensable role in triggering the language or variety that should be used to carry out the act of conversation in an EFL class. According to them, these factors can be listed as follows:

- To express some notions that are better expressed in the other language;
- Frequent exposure to given items in one language;
- Cultural untranslatability (cannot find words with the same cultural meaning in the other language that represent what they really mean);
- Items are more commonly used in either language A or B, but not in both;
- For emphasis or contrast;
- As a mechanism to control addresses by CS to exclude them from the conversation;
- The participants in the conversation are bilingual;
- To fill in the gaps when there is a vocabulary limitation;
- To explain specific items or negotiate meaning; and
- To express feelings like excitement, agreement, disagreement, fear, anger, and solidarity (Rios & Campos, 2013, p. 388).

1.2.6 Functions of teachers' code-switching. It has been assumed that resorting to the technique of CS in while conversing is a rather counter-productive practice and the whole focus of discussion fell on extracting remedies with the goal of minimising its manifestations, if not preventing it, with almost no consideration of what caused it in the first place (Eldridge, 1996). It should be stressed that whether in an ESL or in an EFL class, the teachers' instructions can never be free from CS as they can never get rid of the language that they master the most (their mother tongue). In order for fundamental questions, such as 'why do language teachers code-switch'? And 'for what communicative functions/purposes do teachers code-switch?', to be answered, Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) indicate that the strategy of CS is not subject only to a mere translation. In view of this, they outline five metaphorical functions of CS. For them, the functions of teachers' CS can be listed as follows:

1.2.6.1 Linguistic insecurity. Since EFL teachers' proficiency level in English is, to some extent, limited, if compared to native speakers, they do not usually feel at ease to strictly rely on the English language in their instructional process, simply because their linguistic knowledge towards English is rather insecure. In this case, teachers do not have any choice, but CS.

1.2.6.2 Topic switch. In this respect, instructors use the traditional language teaching methods, which encourage the use of the learners' L1, to teach those complicated grammatical structures. In this sense, teachers will recognise that learners are likely to get the most out of the input designed to be met.

1.2.6.3 Affective functions. As indicated by its label, CS may be used to serve affective contacts. So, in order to create affectively intimate and emotional relationships with their learners, EFL teachers do employ learners' L1 with the intention of creating a sympathetic and supportive learning atmosphere that lessens the learners' degree of anxiousness.

1.2.6.4 Socialising functions. Teachers may shift from the English language to learners L1 in an effort to create solidarity and friendliness, especially with low-proficient EFL learners.

1.2.6.5 Repetitive functions. EFL teachers may specifically use the learners' L1 in order to clarify some points that are under-investigation. In this respect, teachers may, to some extent, ensure whether or not leaners have well-grasped the content.

1.2.7 Functions of learners' code-switching. As it is the case for teachers who code-switch, EFL learners' interactional process can never be detached from CS, with the latter being a very natural speech behaviour. In fact, learners do change codes whilst speaking so that they can hide their language-related weaknesses and deficits. More specifically, and according to Elridge's semantic model (1996), the functions of learners' CS might entail equivalence, floor-holding, metalanguage, reiteration, group membership, conflict control, and alignment/ disalignment.

1.2.7.1 Equivalence. When the equivalent item of a particular word in English is not yet known for them, learners choose to revert to their L1 in order to conceal their linguistic inadequacy as regards to the English language.

1.2.7.2 Floor-holding. In order to ensure that their act of communication will not be blocked by certain speaking-related impediments, learners tend to alternate codes to maintain a successive continuity of communication.

1.2.7.3 Metalanguage. When learners are asked to answer difficult linguistic tasks, their answers are likely to take place in their L1.

1.2.7.4 Reiteration. When realising that what they said in English is axiomatically or proportionately misunderstood, learners seek to translate it using their L1.

1.2.7.5 Group membership. When learners from different origins meet all together, they tend to switch codes for the sake of introducing their identities.

1.2.7.6 Alignment and disalignment. Considering the fact that language can no longer be treated separately from its social context, learners tend to take into consideration some societal aspects whenever their act of conversation begins. Accordingly, they result in shifting from one language to another while negotiating their ideas.

1.2.8 The impact of code-switching on FL teaching and learning. Integrating the strategy of CS in language classes has become a discussable subject in the domain of bilingualism, in general and, even, in the field of ELT in particular. According to Chowdhury (2012), switching to learners' L1 while teaching a FL is a quite controversial issue. For him, some scholars do encourage the use of CS and call for its incorporation, especially in language classes, as they view it as a productive strategy that promotes maximally learners' process of learning. Nonetheless, others who come to be against the integration of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM), come to be even against resorting to the learners' L1 in language classes.

1.2.8.1 Positive implications of classroom code-switching. For many communicative purposes, it is considered that the process of CS can work as a productive conversational technique that may have the potentiality of fostering the learners' progressive learning in the course of studying a FL (Ellis, 1996; Modupeola 2013; Simasiku, Kasanda, & Smit, 2015).

According to Ellis (1996), "Code switching appears to be a natural and purposeful phenomenon which facilitates both communication and learning" (p.310). For Ellis, the pros of CS can be displayed in terms of three various points. First, CS may lead to some optimisations and refinements as regards to EFL learners' speaking competence. Second, CS is a constructive strategy towards a better teaching-learning situation. Finally, yet importantly, CS is a very significant tool that is related to the learners' learning styles. Thus, its use should not be extremely diminished. On the same train of thoughts, Simasiku, Kasanda, and Smit

(2015) acknowledge that CS is a quite helpful conversational means whose effectiveness can be summarised based on five major manifestations:

- CS helps language learners to actively answer their classroom-based activities;
- CS facilitates classroom instructions, especially if the native language is spoken by all the classroom parts;
- CS makes the subject under discussion easier to be understood;
- CS eases the task for teachers to explain those notions that learners are unfamiliar with; and
- CS fosters classroom participation. Accordingly, learners will be actively involved in their process of learning.

As it is elucidated in the aforementioned account, it can be understood that the phenomenon of CS is a very productive technique that appears to be quite significant in the overall process of ELT. Thereupon, the use of CS in language classes might possibly be fruitful, insightful, applicable, and serviceable at the level ELT and learning. In the light of this, its practicality should not be considered as a marker of a linguistic deficiency. Similarly, while investigating the effectiveness in tandem with the role of CS in EFL classes, Modupeola (2013) upholds:

> Code- switching is seen to be a useful tool in assisting English language teaching and learning process, especially at the foundation level where it is a skill being introduced to the pupils. It is also an opportunity for language development since it allows for effective transfer of ideas from the sender to the hearer. Exposure to code- switching at the early stages of learning enables learners to gain a head start towards effective and successful learning and gradually become proficient speakers of English language. (p.93)

As it is demonstrated above, incorporating the use of CS in language classes, especially amongst limited language proficient learners may, in return, bring on a successional language development. Consequently, EFL learners will progressively become qualified to speak English fluently and eloquently.

1.2.8.2 Negative implications of classroom code-switching. Despite the bright side of the strategy of CS, still its cons outnumber its pros in countless ways. In EFL classes, CS may seem to be productive, but as a matter of fact, it is not always as such since it sometimes demonstrates a lack of competence in the language (s) learners aim to learn. Therefore, it is reported, "Code-switching, above all, is interpreted as a linguistic deficit that [mirrors] the lack of proficiency of the speaker in both languages" (Fernandéz, as cited in Pollard, 2002, p.3). In other terms, even if the technique of CS may grant its appliers some sort of practicality at the level of their speaking performances, it is sometimes considered as a detrimental strategy whose frequent integration may lead to impeding the learners' progressive learning process.

Furthermore, according to Modupeola (2013), one major pitfall of CS in educational settings is that it hinders the linguistic rate of learning languages besides to one's original language. A case in point, if an EFL teacher clarifies a particular conception in English and then, s/he recites exactly the same explanation using the learners' L1, learners will not have enough time to maximise their efforts to learn the English language as they are imperturbably assured that the same clarification conveyed in English will be immediately translated into their L1. Hence, in order to increase the learners' proficiency level in English, the medium of instruction should not be any language, but English.

Additionally, the occurrence of CS in FL classes is oftentimes unwelcomed by educators as it introduces certain linguistic problems that may, accordingly, give rise to some long-lasting undesired outcomes: "Code switching is often considered a low prestige form, incorrect, poor

language, or a result of incomplete mastery of the target language" (Hammink 2000, as cited in Pollard, 2002, p. 3). Moreover, with regard to the learners' psychological aspects, it is claimed that the approach of alternating codes during class interaction may potentially create some challenging and devastating outcomes. According to Elridge (1996), such an approach might have a negative impact on motivation and confidence and might, above all, decelerate the speed of language development.

Addedly, for Rathert (2012), alternating codes during class communication is no longer lucrative. For him, such a practice is ineffective and infertile in the sense that it does virtually nothing to enhance L2 learners' linguistic competence. This is exactly why he calls for discouraging the use, as well as the incorporation of CS in language classes because he assumes that:

- EFL learners are supposed to develop their proficiency level in English, not to extend their knowledge in their L1;
- Learners, with whom CS is allowed, will not be able to develop effective strategies for a better learning process;
- CS encourages the use of those unfashionable language teaching methods like the GTM without considering the way the target language is going to be used in the real world;
- CS is counter-productive since it is seen as a sign or an indication of an inefficient teaching-learning process;
- The process of language-switching may show that there are no differences between learners' L1 and the language they are studying; and
- The integration of CS in FL classes would result in political and economic issues, which may endanger a country's educational system.

To put it succinctly, CS means that there is an admittance to the learners' L1. For many pedagogical intents and purposes, such an admittance is typically unwelcomed and objectionable in the sphere of ELT and learning. Given that it is a deviant behaviour that does usually induce unproductive, inefficient, and unpractical outcomes, CS should not be seen as a problem-solving tool or as a first-aid device towards a successful process of communication as it impedes more than it constructs an effective teaching-learning process. For this reason, its use should not be widely incorporated in language classes since it may leave language learners with a limited speaking proficiency level.

Conclusion

This chapter treated the most crucial concepts and benchmarks pertinent to classroom discourse. More clearly, it presented theoretical foundations that explored the principles of communication, the commonest linguistic barriers that may come into play when EFL learners engage in classroom conversational tasks, the effective communication strategies, the occurrence of CS in language classes, in addition to the underlying reasons and the basic communicative functions that stipulate its employment. Finally, this chapter ended up with providing a succinct clarification that highlights the implication of CS on ELT and learning. As pointed out in the aforementioned accounts of the latter, the instances of CS, particularly in language classes, might be traced back to that linguistic interference that germinates from the learners' L1 (language transfer).

In the forthcoming chapter, our point of emphasis will rest on elaborating a theoretical background on the peculiarities ascribed to the learners' L1 and their repercussions on prompting language-switching in an EFL class discourse.

Chapter Two: Mother Tongue Interference in the Content-Based English Classes

Introduction

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Introduction

The aims of this chapter are threefold. Firstly, this chapter seeks out to provide a theoretical overview of L1 interference and its key importance in the context of ELT and learning. Furthermore, it spotlights the signification of feedback and error treatment in the learners' oral performances. Likewise, the main accounts and principles that reveal and explain concisely the tenets of the former language teaching methods, starting from the old-fashioned ones until the most recent ones, along with their pivotal role in easing the instructional process of FL teaching, will be underlined in this chapter.

2.1 Mother Tongue Interference

2.1.1 Definition of mother tongue. It should be noted that the notion of mother tongue has been referred to by many linguistic theorists using a multiplicity of various, but closely-related labels, such as native language, primary language, first language, original language, and parent language (Sinha, A.V, Banerjee, Sinha, A.M & Shastri 2009; Thyab 2016). While trying to demarcate the accurate meaning of the term mother tongue (L1), scholars, such as Sinha et al., (2009), and Radika and Phil (2014), agree on the view that the concept of L1 refers to the language an individual intends to initially acquire during his/her early childhood, starting approximately before the age of three years, by observing his/her mother.

2.1.2 Second language versus foreign language. Even though there are slight commonalities between SL and FL in the sense that both of them are not the L1 of speakers and that both of them make bilingual communicators, a key defined distinction between the two languages can be conspicuously extracted. In an attempt to investigate the potential disparities and discrepancies between SL and FL, Hasa (2018) defines SL as follows:

> Second language (L2) is a language that is not the mother tongue of the speaker, but a language for public communication, especially, in trade, higher education, and

> administration. Second language also refers to a non-native language officially recognized and accepted in a multilingual country as a means of public communication. In other words, second language is the language you learn in addition to your mother tongue. (3§)

As opposed to SL, Hasa (2018) provides the following definition for FL:

> A foreign language is a language that is not widely spoken or used by the people of a community, society or nation. In other words, it refers to any language other than that spoken by the people of a specific place. For example, English is a foreign language to a person living in Algeria. However, English is not typically a foreign language to a person living in India; it is a second language. (6§)

As it is well-particularised in the abovementioned definitions, SL pertains to that language that gains a political authority, status, and which is widely used as a SL in a non-native environment. In contrast, FL refers to that language which is spoken by a limited group of people in order to serve a specific goal. Again, it can be said that the distinction between SL and FL is based mainly on the usage of a specific language in a certain geographical area (Hasa, 2018). Consequently, one language may have different positions in different countries while another language may not have this attribute.

2.1.3 First language acquisition versus second language learning. Notwithstanding the several studies which addressed particularly the distinction between L1 acquisition and SL learning, still there are some scholars who created some sort of confusion and misunderstanding because they kept using the terms acquisition and learning synonymously and/or interchangeably assuming that they do represent the same process. It is worth noting that L1 acquisition and SL learning are principally two contradistinctive linguistic processes. In Table

2.1, Ellis (1994) summarises the major differential criteria which make L1 acquisition substantially different from L2 learning.

Table 2.1

Differences Between L1 and L2 Acquisition.

Feature	L1 acquisition	L2 (foreign language) learning
1. Overall success	children normally achieve perfect L1 mastery	adult L2 learners are unlikely to achieve perfect L2 mastery
2. General failure	success guaranteed	complete success rare
3. Variation	little variation in degree of success or route	L2 learners vary in overall success and route
4. Goals	target language competence	L2 learners may be content with less than target language competence or more concerned with fluency than accuracy
5. Intuitions	children develop clear intuitions about correctness	L2 learners are often unable to form clear grammaticality judgments
6. Instruction	not needed	helpful or necessary
7. Negative evidence	correction not found and not necessary	correction generally helpful or necessary
8. Affective factors	not involved	play a major role determining proficiency

Note: Reprinted from *The Study of Second Language Acquisition* (p. 107), by R. Ellis, 1994, Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press. Copyright 1994 © by Regents of the University of California.

2.1.4 Definition of Mother tongue interference. One of the most controversial issues that received a considerable attention in SLA and pedagogy is L1 interference. Fundamentally, there are as many definitions as the number of scholars who attempted to provide a condensed explanation of what does the concept of mother tongue interference, also known as language

transfer, actually mean? While aiming to learn another language besides to their L1, SL learners are, to some extent, influenced by an overwhelming linguistic interference (language transfer) that germinates typically from their L1 at the level of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics (Sàrosdy, Bencze, Poor, and Vadnay, 2006; Denizer, 2017). Odlin (1989) offers his working definition of language transfer. He claims, "Transfer is the influence resulting from [the] similarities and difference between the target language and any other knowledge that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired" (p.27).

Besides, according to Denizer (2017), L1 interference can be regarded as a transfer that may influence the process of language learning, both positively and negatively. On the one hand, for Sàrosdy et al., (2006), "When there are no major differences between L1 and L2, the transfer will make language learning easier. Whereas when there are differences, the learners' L1 knowledge may interfere with learning L2, negative transfer will occur [...]" (p. 124). This indicates that when there are no linguistic dissimilarities between learners' L1 and L2, then their language learning process will be entirely facilitated by a positive transfer; nevertheless, when there are notable discrepancies between learners' L1 and L2, then learners' learning process is likely to be hindered by a negative transfer.

In consonance with the abovementioned differentiation between positive and negative transfer, Corder (1980) upholds the view that when learners' L1 is formally similar to the language they attempt to learn, learners will pass more speedily along the progressively developing continuum than where it is different. In the meantime, Corder (1983) comments "The greater the degree of difference/distance, the larger the learning task, or to put it another way, the longer the learning path to be traversed between L2 and L1" (p.28).

2.1.5 Background history of research on mother tongue interference. In essence, language transfer was the focal point of discussion in SLA for a long period. Its significance in language learning has been reassessed and revaluated on many occasions. It should be pointed out that during the twentieth century, the evolvement of research on language transfer fell principally under three significant viewpoints, namely the behaviourist, the mentalist, and the cognitive view (as cited in Lanfeng, 2010).

2.1.5.1 The behaviourist view. The behaviourist view vis-à-vis language transfer was restricted to habit formation with the latter being initially activated by a stimulus accompanied by a response. Behaviourists argue that language learning can be fostered if and only if: (a) learners do actively respond to a given stimulus, (b) promote target-like responses and repair non-target-like ones, (c) and breaking down sophisticated language structures into manageable constituents (chunks) and acquiring them little by little. Meanwhile, behaviourists advocate the idea that the degree of transfer in language learning depends majorly on how much the target language is similarly identical or contrastingly different from one's L1. Even if the crucial role that one's L1 plays in SLA is realised by behaviourists, they over-exaggerate L1 interference and nullify other important factors, such as learners' individual differences.

2.1.5.2 The mentalist view. As opposed to behaviourists, mentalists believe that human beings are innately born with a mental/cognitive ability that qualifies them to acquire and learn a range of languages besides to their L1. For them, language mastery is not subject to how similar or varied L1's and L2's syntactic structures. Rather, it is dependent on universal grammar rules. Dulay and Burt (as cited in Lanfeng, 2010) doubt L1 interference and argued that while learning a SL, learners do not rely on language transfer to construct L2 syntactic constructions. Instead, they, by nature, rely on their own inner mental abilities to formulate L2 grammatical structures. Even though the mentalist trend is no longer in a position that totally

eschews the role that language transfer holds, they are still under critique for their theory not being backed up by much empirical support.

2.1.5.3 The cognitive view. The shortcomings of the mentalist view have given birth to another view called the 'cognitive view'. Cognitivists, such as Faerch and Kasper (1987), believe that language learning entails the same cognitive or mental systems (like perception, memory, problem-solving, and information processing) as learning other different types of knowledge (Kelleman, 1977). Addedly, cognitivists argue that language transfer is not triggered solely by the amount of the similarities and difference between two languages (L1 and L2). For them L1 interference might be caused owing to some effective linguistic elements, such as social factors, language distance, psychotypology, and certain developmental factors that affect negatively interlanguage development (Lanfeng, 2010).

2.1.6 Reasons for mother tongue interference. EFL learners are expected, to be impacted by their L1 interference owing to a number of reasons. It is generally acknowledged by cognitivists that typological convergences or divergences cannot on their own serve as predictors for language transfer, but interact with other linguistic factors. The latter are systematically studied and, accordingly, listed by Ellis (as cited in Lanfeng, 2010) as follows:

- Social factors have an impact on language transfer;
- Markedness of a certain language;
- Prototypicality, the core meaning and the periphery meaning of a certain word;
- Language distance and psychotypology; and
- Some developmental factors that limit interlanguage development (p. 7).

From a completely different perspective, Weinrich (1970) identifies five major reasons, which he names as “Factors that cause language interference” (as cited in Arifini, 2011, p. 95). Table 2.2 illustrates succinctly the reasons that may cause L1 interference.

Table 2.2

Reasons for Mother Tongue Interference

Reason	Explanation
Speakers’ bilingualism background	This reveals that the linguistic status of FL learners, who are genuinely bilinguals, is probably one of the major factors of L1 interference as the speaker is affected by his dominant language and the target language as well.
Disloyalty to the target language	This determines that learners, whose linguistic knowledge towards the English language is somehow limited, are expected to use certain linguistic structures associated to their L1.
The limited vocabulary knowledge	Learning a target language equals mastering its lexical items. Nonetheless, it happens sometimes that EFL learners cannot exactly find the correspondent words in the target language and, consequently, they tend to deliberately adopt some words related to their L1 to manage particular L2 speaking weaknesses.
Needs of synonym	When they cannot find equivalent words to certain items, learners tend to resort to their L1 to continue speaking constantly.
Prestige and style	Showing pride and prominence are also other key factors that may cause language interference.

Note. Adapted from Interference: Its role in the target language mastery to Indonesian learners, by W. L. Arifini, 2011, *Register, 4*, p. 95. Copyright 2011 © by Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta.

2.2 Feedback and Error Correction in FL Teaching and Learning

Providing Feedback on learners' performances and correcting their language-related mistakes and errors represent an integral part and parcel in ELT and learning. Before proceeding to identify the major linguistic facets that govern feedback and error correction, an elucidation that brings to light the functional meanings of both of the two processes together with their significations, especially in academically-based contexts, must be grounded.

2.2.1 Meaning of feedback. Feedback constitutes a rather primordial component in language teaching and learning. For this reason, it is unimaginable to have a teaching-learning setting situation without feedback. Lexically, the term feedback has been defined in the Oxford Dictionary (2006) as an "information about something that you have done or made which tells you how good or successful it is [...]" (p. 287). Additionally, For Sàrosdy et al., (2006), feedback is "The information that learners receive from their teacher about their performance, which will help them take self-corrective action and improve their achievement" (p. 121). To put it into other terms, feedback refers to any constructive information, be it a comment, a remark, an evaluation, or even pieces of advice, provided by teachers in order to reinforce learners' performances and progressive learning.

2.2.1.1 Kinds of feedback. Feedback, the teacher's information about learners' progressive learning, can be further classified into different types. Lyster and Ronta (1997) distinguish between six different types of feedback, which are:

- **Explicit correction:** This suggests from teachers to provide overtly and directly the correction and indicate that what has been answered by learners is erroneous.

- **Recasts:** This entails the teacher's reformulation of learners' utterance, minus the problematic item (the error).
- **Clarification request:** This form of feedback is usually given to learners as a clarification request to solve either a comprehensibility or an accuracy-based problem.
- **Metalinguistic feedback:** As opposed to explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback is an implicit form of correction whereby teachers provide information, comments, or even questions that generally indicate that there is an error.
- **Elicitation:** This form of feedback involves mainly three major techniques. First, teachers may show certain pauses in order to make learners able to fill in the loopholes and attentively recognise the errors they committed. Second, teachers may ask questions in order to help learners extract the right answer. Third, teachers may also ask learners to reword their inaccurate utterances.
- **Repetition:** This refers mainly to the teacher's repetition of learners' erroneous utterances in an effort to highlight learners' language inconveniences.

2.2.2 Importance of feedback in FL learning. As it is somehow tough for learners to realise how well they performed something related to their own learning, remarks and comments about their performances should be supplied by their teachers accordingly. Considerably, constructive feedback might encourage learners to engage and reflect as much as possible in the classroom activities. Thus, if received information about how well they achieved a certain task, learners' performances are likely to meet positive learning outcomes. Besides, providing a focused and a more specific feedback guides learners not only in understanding their learning objectives, but also, and most importantly, in choosing the most convenient strategies that would help them accomplish better learning results (Holl, n.d.).

Again, on the part of Holl (n.d.), as the 'how' feedback is provided matters more than the 'how' much feedback is given, teachers must follow certain parameters that would help best evaluate and assess learners' progressive language performances. In her study *Giving Feedback and Correcting Errors,* Akhter (2007) lists the following six major techniques that teachers should meticulously observe for effective feedback and error correction:

- Break down the instruction by using simple sentences so that learners can easily understand;
- Use demonstrations whenever possible;
- Not to over correct the errors;
- Avoid giving negative feedback to increase learners' self-motivation;
- Provide sufficient independent practice to overcome their errors; and
- Re-teach the material when necessary (p. 10).

2.2.3 Errors versus mistakes. Even though many do consider errors and mistakes as identical synonyms, simply because they fall under the same category, a key significant distinction between both of them can be excerpted. In an attempt to differentiate between errors and mistakes, Amara (2015) asserts that errors can be considered as systematic deviations made by learners who have not yet mastered the rules of L2. Whereas, she considers mistakes as a random confirmation slip caused not because of learners' inadequate knowledge, but because of their excitement, tiredness, hesitation, and anxiety.

Moreover, mistakes are also regarded by Sàrosdy et al., (2006) as miscues in performance and "inaccuracies in linguistic production either in our native language (L1) or in the foreign language" (p. 122). However, errors are rather differently considered by Scovel (2006) who regards them as "Goofs in the learners' underlying competence" (as cited in Sàrosdy et al., p.122). Furthermore, when it comes to the correction of mistakes and errors, Amara

(2015) indicates that EFL learners can readily and immediately self-correct the mistakes they may make. However, they are incompetent to self-correct the errors they may commit because the latter are reflective products of their current stage of L2 language development.

2.2.4 Slips versus attempts. In the main, both of slips and attempts are considered as types of mistakes. Edge (as cited in Sàsosdy et al., 2006) differentiates between slips and attempts and points out that slips are "Mistakes that the teacher thinks that the learner could self-correct" (p.122). Contrastingly, she assures that attempts occur because learners are still trying and have not yet learnt the complete knowledge of a linguistic rule. For this reason, she reveals, "When the students want to express their meaning but they make a mistake because they have not yet learned the necessary language structure, their mistakes can be called attempts" (p.122). So, slips are mistakes that may occur because of carelessness. Yet, attempts are more serious than mistakes because they represent a lack of an underlying linguistic competence.

2.2.5 Performance versus competence. While studying the attributes and peculiarities that depict the idiosyncratic nature of the human language, Chomsky (1965) introduces two interrelated notions, which are competence and performance. By competence, Chomsky means the correct grammar knowledge, which is, in its essence, abstract. Whereas, by performance he refers to the way that abstract knowledge is represented, either through the spoken or written record, in a given language (as cited in Sàrosdy et al., 2006).

Although the concept of competence and the notion of performance bear different meanings, they are two intertwined and interconnected dichotomies that go hand in hand, especially when it comes to language use and production. Conforming to this, Chomsky (1965) emphasises, "Investigation of performance will proceed only so far as understanding of underlying competence permits" (p.10). This implies that one cannot perform the rules of a

certain language unless s/he constructs primarily an adequate language competence that embodies the linguistic rules which govern and characterise a particular grammatical system or sub-systems.

2.2.6 Error classification. There are as many classifications of learners' errors as the number of linguists who undertook studies in which SLA's errors are the focal points of interest. Generally, in applied linguistics, researchers distinguish mainly between two major types of errors, which are competence errors and performance errors.

Competence errors, on the one hand, include those errors that reflect an incomplete language learning. Typically, this type of errors is committed when the necessary language structure has not yet been adequately learnt. However, performance errors, on the other hand, represent those errors that are generally committed due to tiredness, hesitation, and lack of concentration (Touchie, 1986).

2.2.7 Sources of errors. Errors, in FL learning, may stem from more than one major source. According to Sàrosdy et al., (2006), errors might be committed due to language transfer (also called L1 interference), intraference, overgeneralisation, and also, they may germinate from the teaching process in itself that might possibly induce language-related mistakes and errors (teaching-induced errors). What follows is a brief account that explains individually the sources of errors as mentioned by Sàrosdy et al., (2006).

2.2.7.1 Language transfer. During the course of learning another language besides to their L1, EFL learners are likely to be affected by an undeniable interference that stems from their L1. According to Sàrosdy et al., (2006), language transfer refers to that influence that may originate from learners' L1 while learning a FL. For them, language transfer may affect all of the linguistic aspects related to the target language, such as phonology, morphology, syntax,

and semantics. Even if L1 interference is viewed as a significant factor that may make learners fall in the trap of committing errors, it is not the sole one.

2.2.7.2 Intraference. Intralingual errors or intralingual interference refers to the confusion EFL learners may encounter owing to the difficulty of the target language (Touchie, 1986). Simply put, while trying to regularly cope with the linguistic structure of the newly learnt language, EFL learners are likely to experience the toughness of certain conflicting patterns, which will, in return, make them commit certain errors since they have not yet learnt the necessary L2 syntactic structures.

2.2.7.3 Overgeneralisation. As the term indicates, overgeneralisation means extending the application of a certain linguistic construction into inappropriate contexts where it cannot and should not be applied: "Overgeneralisation means that whenever learners meet a new pattern or a new rule, they think that the pattern or rule applies to all cases without exceptions" (Sàrosdy et al., 2006, p. 124). Hence, being linguistically incognizant of the restrictions of certain specific rules indicates that learners will, in one way or another, fall in the trap of committing errors.

- ***2.2.7.4 Teaching-induced errors.*** Sometimes, it happens that learners commit errors because of the instructional process per se. In conformity with this idea, Sàrosdy et al., (2006) sustain that teaching-induced errors may stem from completely distinct aspects of the teaching process that learners are exposed to. This may, for instance, include the classroom situation, the selected material, the teacher's language use, and the language teaching method. So, EFL learners may commit errors due to the learning atmosphere of the class, the inappropriate teaching material, the teacher's limited proficiency level with regard to the target language, or even because of the unpractical teaching methods adopted in the teachers' way of instruction.

2.2.8 Indication of incorrectness. As the goal of teaching languages rests majorly on developing learners' linguistic level in that language by reducing their language inconveniences and promoting their gradual performances, language teachers ought to observe certain standardised parameters in the course of highlighting and correcting learners' language-related problems. Table 2.3 displays the most influential techniques, proposed by Harmer (2001), that language teachers may rely on for the purpose of indicating learners' language incorrectness.

Table 2.3

Indication of Incorrectness.

Indication of incorrectness	Its procedure
Repeating	Teachers may intentionally ask learners to rehearse what they said by saying "once more" coupled with an attractive intonation to indicate that there is something wrong.
Echoing	Teachers may repeat exactly what has been said by learners by stressing the section of the utterance that was erroneous.
Statement and question	Teachers might say "that is not quite right" or "do people think that's correct" to show that there is something unclear.
Expressions	This has to do with teachers' facial expressions. This must be cautiously done since the inappropriate facial expression might, in some cases, apparently seem to be cruel.
reformulation	Teachers might rephrase exactly what has been said by learners in the right way without making them feel that they have done something inaccurate or unfavourable.

Note. Adapted from *The practice of English language teaching* (p. 106), by J. Harmer, 2001, Harlow, UK: Longman. Copyright 2001© by Pearson Education Limited.

2.2.9 Error correction. From a pedagogical point of view, one of the most challenging tasks for language teachers is the 'how to correct learners' errors'? According to Amara (2016), "Error treatment is a very complicated and weighty problem. Language teachers need to be armed with some theoretical foundations and to be aware of what they are doing in the classroom" (p.61).

Therefore, in order to effectively adjust learners' errors, teachers ought to take into consideration certain standards that are likely to conduce for a better error correction process. In this regard, Hendrickson (1987) lists four essential questions that target mainly the error treatment process and argues that if language teachers are aware of these questions, then they may guarantee that their way of correcting learners' errors will be successfully achieved (as cited in Amara, 2016).

- **Should errors be corrected?**

  If learners' ultimate objective is learning, then their language-related wrongdoings should be amended. Therewith, teachers should correct learners' errors in order to enable them readjust the wrong mental representations that they formulated and substitute it with the correct one. In the meantime, teachers must realise that learners' errors should not all the time be corrected since the recurrent correction may make learners feel as if they are the source of errors.

- **When should errors be corrected?**

  One of the most discussable issues in FL teaching and learning is the when to correct learners' errors? In effect, language instructors claimed that the right moment to correct learners' errors will depend necessarily on the type of the error in itself.

This signifies that errors pertaining to accuracy (pronunciation and grammar), should be immediately treated, simply because post-correction will not make learners retrieve the error they committed. Whereas, errors that belong to fluency (producing coherent and cohesive discourse, be it oral or written) are preferable to have a delayed correction.

- **Which errors should be corrected?**

  Burt (1975) groups learners' errors into two categories: Global errors and local errors. More importantly, he differentiates between the two types of errors by arguing, "Global errors hinder communication and they prevent learners from comprehending some aspects of the message. Local errors only affect a single element of a sentence, but do not prevent a message from being heard" (as cited in Amara, 2015, p. 62). Differently stated, global errors are more in need of correction than local ones because they hamper the understandability of learners' messages and may create a breakdown in their communication process.

2.2.10 Ways of correction. Unquestioningly, there is no single way of error correction that can be employed in the classroom. As reported by Amara (2015), language teachers are no longer the only person in charge who must care about learners' errors. In the light of this, she identifies three basic ways of error treatment, which are as follows:

- **Self-correction.** Learners may correct themselves right after they recognise that they have done something wrong. This way of correction is seen as the most efficient technique ever since learners will effectively recall the inaccuracies that they have made.
- **Peer-correction.** In case learners could not really self-correct the erroneous language constructions that they have made or committed, teachers must immediately encourage

other learners to supply the correction. This way of correction should be done tactfully so that the learner who committed the error will not feel embarrassed.

- **Teacher-correction.** When no one can correct, teachers ought to recognise that learners are still facing certain language-related problems. In this case, teachers may intervene for the sake of re-explaining once again the convoluted language item that learners are still confronting.

2.2.11 Contrastive analysis versus error analysis. While learning a FL, learners are likely to be experiencing countless language-related blunders and fallacies at the level of sound system, vocabulary, structure, and meaning. Importantly, there were many attempts in which linguists tried to find out certain benchmarks to practically minimise learners' language learning difficulties. Consequently, they proposed some hypothetical analyses, such as the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis and the Error Analysis Hypothesis, in an attempt to mitigate learners' error commitment.

2.2.11.1 Contrastive analysis. The contrastive analysis hypothesis (CAH) is a methodical procedure whose core function lies systematically on identifying the similarities and differences between two distinct linguistic systems (Rustipa, 2011). This type of analyses was widely used over the 1960's and 1970's as a technique to explicitly exhibit why certain linguistic traits related to the target language were somehow harder to learn than others.

In his book '*Linguistics across Culture'*, Lado (1957) claims, "Those elements which are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult" (as cited in Rustipa, 2011, p.17). Therefore, providing a comparison between learners' L1 and the language they want to learn may scrupulously create a systematised language teaching-learning process. Technically, as specified by Rustipa (2011), the CAH was ultimately constructed based on the following cardinal principles:

- Foreign language learning is based on the mother tongue;
- Similarities facilitate learning and differences cause problems; and
- Via contrastive analysis, problems can be predicted and considered in the curriculum (p. 17).

Irrespective of its well-marked positive repercussions, the CAH faced a stringent criticism that conspicuously reviewed its marked flaws and insufficiencies in studying the discrepancies and disparities between languages. It was later revealed, "Some errors were made by learners irrespective of their L1[...] It thus became clear that contrastive analysis could not predict learning difficulties and was only useful in the retrospective explanation of errors" (Rustipa, 2011, p. 17). Proceeding from this, the CAH witnessed a decline that brought forth another theory called the Error Analysis Hypothesis, which examined not only the errors caused by language transfer, but also, and most significantly, those developmental errors that may descend from the target language in itself.

2.2.11.2 Error analysis. Stephen Pit Corder and his colleagues were the pioneers who generated the Error Analysis Hypothesis (EAH) in the 1960's. This theory came as a substitution for the CAH as a means to show that the latter was incapable to forecast a great extent of learners' errors. The gist of the EAH indicates that many learners' errors are sprouted not because of the positive and negative language transfer, but because of the conflicting patterns that learners may experience while learning a SL (Rustipa, 2011). As determined by to Rustipa (2011), the methodology of the EAH is based on the following procedure:

- Analysis of the source of errors (e.g., mother tongue interference, overgeneralisation, inconveniences in the spelling system of the target language, etc.);
- Determination of the degree of disturbance caused by the error (or the seriousness of the error in terms of communication, norm, etc.) (p.19).

Therefore, the process of EAH seeks out to discover first from where learners' errors are originally generated. Subsequently, it proceeds to uncover and divulge the extent to which learners are disconcerted and perturbed due to the errors they committed in L2.

By the same token, the EAH was also critically attacked for mistreating learner's language-related difficulties and for its nullification of certain sophisticated L2 components. Above all, it should be pointed out that neither the CAH nor the EAH was of an absolute advantage. Consequently, both of them were seldom used to designate learners' incorrect L2 particulars (Rustipa, 2011).

2.3 Former Language Teaching Methods: Their Signification in FL Teaching

Throughout the history of teaching a FL, there was a considerable number of language teaching methodologies (thereafter LTM) and approaches with some being more efficient than others are. It should be emphasised that each new LTM raises owing to the drawbacks of the method that precedes it. Indeed, it is assumed that being knowledgeable about the different LTM, FL teachers are likely to have a good background reference to their own stands on pedagogical concerns and classroom practices. Moreover, a knowledge of the different methods of instructions can potentially help teachers discern the process that language teaching has undergone, specifically through this century (Sàrosdy et al., 2006). What is listed below are brief summaries on the LTMs that were dominating SL educational contexts during the 1950's.

2.3.1 The grammar translation method. The grammar translation method (GTM) is also named by other scholars as the classical method, as it was used to teach classical languages, such as Latin and Greek (Sàrosdy et al., 2006). According to Freeman (2000), the GTM is a language teaching approach designed and used to enable learners to read written texts presented in the target language in its original form. For to Hell (2009), the GTM is deemed to be more practical for students in SL learning in that it teaches grammar via translation, broadens and

enriches one's vocabulary, increases the number of patterns of speech that one can employ, develops the modes of interpretation, and helps simple readers to produce similarly good texts through the imitation of competent writers (as cited in Mart, 2013). With reference to the premises of the GTM, the ultimate objectives behind learning a FL rest on:

- Enabling learners to read literature written in the target language;
- Providing them with good mental exercise which helps develop their minds;
- Giving them grammatical rules and examples to be memorised;
- Making them apply the rules to other examples; and
- Teaching them how to write in both their native and the target languages through translation (Bàrdos, as cited in Sàrosdy et al, 2006, p.11).

In the light of the abovementioned set of precepts, it can be said that the advocates of the GTM put a high premium on learners' L1. Therefore, it was exactly why they applied it as a mechanism to effectively translate the grammatical items of L2 into learners' L1. However, regardless of its positive implications in L2 learning, the GTM method was criticised in that it pays heed on translation (which is sometimes misleading) and places a relatively little attention and emphasis to content. Besides, this method did not afford opportunities to learners to actively participate in the class. Finally, yet importantly, the GTM is oftentimes regarded as an unsatisfactory LTM in the sphere of ELT, as it did virtually nothing to enhance L2 learners' communication abilities (Eisa, 2020).

2.3.2 The direct method (DM). Since the goal of the GTM was not to produce fluent L2 speakers but to create effective L2 translators, the DM, also labelled as the natural method, was established. In fact, the DM received its label owing to the fact that meaning is to be immediately conveyed in the target language by means of employing some sort of demonstration and visual aids without having recourse to learners' L1. Differently put, applying

this method, language teachers are, by all means, disallowed to literally translate L2 grammatical items into learners' L1, simply because this method stresses the view that every language item needs to instantaneously and solely be taught using L2. As opposed to the GTM, the central objective of the DM lies on enabling learners to communicate fluently and eloquently in the TL (Sàrosdy et al, 2006). Mart (2013a) contends that the fundamental objectives of the DM are:

- To grant L2 learners the chance to think and speak in the target language;
- To teach the target language through demonstration and conversation; and
- To enable learners to comprehend the language which will help them to use L2 at ease.

In spite of possessing a significant role, particularly in enhancing L2 learners' communicative competence, the DM faced a strong criticism since it requires from language instructors to speak with a native-like fluency, to have the stamina, energy, imagination, and time to create real fluency in the language they instruct. Moreover, given that the success of this method is confined exclusively to the competence of teachers, L2 learners will not have the chance to improve other skills (such as the listening skill) related to the language they aim to learn (Mart, 2013b).

2.3.3 The audio-lingual method (ALM). This method was majorly developed during world War II. At that time, there was a need for FL speakers who were required to achieve certain military services. As a matter of fact, the ALM was developed based on the principle that "A language is first of all a system of sounds for social communication; writing is a secondary deviation system for the recording of the spoken language" (Carroll, as cited in Mart, 2013c). It must be pointed out that some of the premises found in the DM came to be also used in the ALM; whereas, others were constructed according to the standards embedded in the

GTM. The focus of the ALM is to effectively produce fluent language communicants (Sàrosdy et al, 2006). The core aims of the ALM depend exclusively on:

- Developing L2 learners' communicative competence through dialogues and drills;
- Enabling learners' to, quickly and accurately, respond in spoken language; and
- Constructing native language habits in learners (Mart, 2013c).

Regardless of its crucialness and weightiness in FL teaching, the theoretical foundations of the ALM were attacked as being unsound with respect to the theories of language and learning. The ALM is a teacher-dominated method; it is precisely why it does not consider how learners think about their learning. More importantly, the essence of the ALM marginalised the mental properties of the classroom partners. In addition, such a type of LTMs is considered unproductive not only because it focuses mechanically on practices without stressing their contexts, but also, and quite importantly, it does not cultivate learners' communication ability and creativity (Mei, 2018).

2.3.4 The silent way (SW). At its heart, the SW shares certain assumptions and commonalities with the cognitive approach; this is exactly why it is concluded by its proponents that language learning is neither a matter of habit formation nor a matter of mimicry. Rather, it is a procedure that requires cognition to appropriately construct the rules of the language individuals aim to learn (Sàrosdy et al., 2006). Substantially, this method of teaching is built upon the assumption that teachers must remain silent leaving learners struggling to solve problems of the target language in order to be aware of its specific details (Rhalmi, 2009). Bowen (n.d.) mentions that the three basic premises of the SW are: a) learning is facilitated if the L2 learner discovers rather than recalls or recites; b) the learning process is concretely aided by physical objects; and c) that problem-solving is central to the learner. Applying the SW, language teachers endeavour to:

- Give false beginners oral and aural facilities in basic aspects of the target language;
- Enable learners to express their cognitive-based competences;
- Correct pronunciation and mastery of the prosodic aspects of the target language; and
- Provide L2 learners with a basic practical knowledge with regard to the grammatical part of the target language (i.e., developing learners' inner criteria for correctness) (Sàrosdy et al., 2006).

Aside from the prospective advantages it may possibly offer, the SW is typically considered as a harsh method that requires from L2 learners to work in isolation. In view of this, L2 learners are expected to learn in an environment that does nothing to support their communication processes. Furthermore, since only a minimum help from instructors can be provided, the SW may potentially put the learning process at stake (Rhalmi, 2009).

2.3.5 Suggestopedia. According to Shikare (2017), suggestopedia (also known as superlearning, hyperlearning, or the Lozanov Method) is a relatively interesting language teaching method used to instruct learners through their own learning styles which can be visual, auditory, or kinesthetic. Using this method, teachers are expected to base their instructional process on suggestions with the aim of boosting learners' self-confidence and making them recognise that they will be successful L2 language learners. Also, integrating this type of LTMs, teachers assume that the more confident learners are in learning L2 concerns, the better results they will achieve. The fundamental objectives behind employing this method rest on:

- Eliminating the learners' psychological problems;
- Accelerating the procedure that they use to communicate; and
- Cultivating learners' motivation in learning (Sarosdy et al., 2006).

However, Suggestopedia, as any other language teaching methods, received several points of criticism by many linguistic theorists and experts. The first limitation attributed to

suggestopedia is that it focuses particularly on the utilisation of media-assisted materials. That is, if language classes are not well-equipped with technological means, then this method cannot be implemented to teach the main input, as in suggestopedia classes, the majority of activities stipulate additional technological means. The second drawback in applying suggestopedia method is related to teachers' language ability. This denotes that when using this method, teachers ought to be, all the time, expressive. Thus, it will be relatively tough for inexpressive teachers to adopt it (Triwahyuni, 2018).

2.3.6 Communitive language learning (CLL). As the name indicates, the CLL draws its primary insights and its structured rational from Rogerian Counselling. It is for this reason that this method underlines the use of counselling learning theory to teach different languages besides to one's L1. In fact, the CLL is much more a learner-oriented method, as it is based on learners' needs and interests. Therefore, integrating the CLL, teachers must work only as facilitators who should provide support to learners who must, in return, determine exactly what must be learnt (Sàrosdy et al., 2006). The underlying objectives behind using the CLL lie on:

- Removing anxiety from learning and turning learners' negative assumptions into positive ones in order to promote their learning; and
- Producing competent language communicators who should be responsible for their own learning (Sàrosdy et al., 2006).

Despite its marked practicality in ELT, still the CLL is immensely criticised by different scholars, such as Mkhaled (2015) who contends that the CLL method places a little emphasis on the setting in which the teaching-learning process partakes. Again, Mkhaled (2015) highlights another significant disadvantage associated to the CLL approach; consequently, he argues that the CLL prioritises fluency over accuracy. That is, the CLL method disregards error

reduction and stresses highly on creating a situation where learners are left using their own techniques to find remedies for the communication challenges they may come across.

2.3.7 Total physical response (TPR). The TPR is a LTM that stresses the teaching of vocabulary concepts through using physical (motor) movements to make sense of verbal input (Rowland, n.d.). In other words, relying on this method, teachers tend to make learners comprehend by means of representative figures and lexical items pertaining to their L1. The goals of this method stand on:

- Decreasing fear and anxiety learners may experience while learning a FL; and
- Assisting low-proficient language learners and making them persist in their leaning process (Sàrosdy et al., 2006).

Even though the TPR method proved its successfulness in the teaching of FLs, it has certain shortcomings that cannot be overlooked. According to Nisa (2016), the TPR method is not very creative since learners are not given the chance to express their own standpoints and thoughts in a creative way. More importantly, she considers the TPR method as a limited approach to language teaching, simply because she considers it as a method which cannot explain everything to language learners. It is why, she acknowledges that in order to make the TPR method more effective, language instructors must use it together with other methods and approaches, as there are certain target languages which negate and refute the integration of this method.

In the light of the forgoing explanation, it is quite clear from the limitations that each LTM holds that there is no one LTM that is better than the other. Some of the LTMs are considered, from a purely scientific point of view, obsolete and some others come to be more current as they do fashionably match the recent trends and prerequisites of language teaching and learning. Importantly, it is important to highlight the fact that all of the LTMs created their

pedagogical signification, which introduced multiple innovations on the part of modeling an effective teaching-learning environment. Therefore, FL instructors should be eclectic, especially when it comes to the methods and techniques they should make use of to teach the input designed to be reached. Otherwise stated, teachers must approach their instructional process in a way that combines the different practical underpinnings laid down in the different LTMs with the goal of stressing not only on enhancing the productive and receptive skills at the heart of a given language, but also, and most importantly, on the permanent interaction among the curriculum, learners, activities, and the instructional materials.

2.4 The Case for and Against Switching to L1 in the EFL Class Conversation

The question of whether or not to incorporate learners' L1 in EFL classes received two contradictory standpoints since the practice of reverting to learners' L1 during the course of teaching a FL was considered as a double-edged sword. While one side favours the inclusion of leaners' L1, simply because it has a significant contribution over SL learning, the other side considers L1 use as an obstruction that impedes L2 learning (Yavuz, 2012).

According to Swan (1985), when learning a new language, learners would spontaneously suppose that L1's and L2's meanings and syntactic structures are somehow alike. He backs up his view by stating, "If we did not keep making correspondences between foreign language items and mother tongue items, we would never learn foreign languages at all" (p.85). Additionally, Atkinson (1993) concludes that learners' L1 can be considered as a worthy and valuable resource, especially if it is used at appropriate times and in appropriate ways. Moreover, Willis (1981) supports the use of L1 in L2 learning. Accordingly, he proves:

> There are times when it is preferable and more economical as far as time is concerned to drop English for a few seconds [...] to explain the meaning and use of a new word [...]

> To explain the aims of your lesson [...] as a check of your students' understanding [...] and to discuss the main ideas after a reading. (As cited in Cole, 1998, 17§)

This indicates that learners' L1 can be seen as a working substitute at a time the intended input cannot clearly be well-transmitted and, consequently, cannot properly be well-grasped. Hence, teachers should not waste time sorting out a particular language item when they can proportionately alternate from the language being learned to learners' L1. In this way, learners are likely to immediately understand the necessary language input.

From another point of view, Swain (1985) comments simultaneously on the use of L1 in FL learning and affirms, "If, then, the mother tongue is a central element in the process of learning a foreign language is it so conspicuously absent from the theory and methodology of the communicative approach? Why is so little attention paid, [...]" (p.86). That is, if reference to L1 is significantly constructive and prolific, then it would not be any more sidelined by the language teaching approach establishers. Thus, using L1 when it is necessary to keep using L2 is regarded by Swain (1985) as a technique that obstructs more than it constructs a proficient L2 language communicator.

Conclusion

In this chapter, a more elaboration, i.e., a theoretical foundation, on various concepts and characteristics related to L1 interference were concretely discussed. More precisely, this chapter started by reviewing a conceptual basis that provided certain operational definitions as regards to L1 interference (i.e., linguistic transferability). Subsequently, it proceeded to highlight the commonalities and the eccentricities between notions that may seemingly look alike in order not to give rise to certain intricacies that may intensely create some sort of confusion. Besides, this chapter presented a concise background history of research on L1

interference minding diverse triple perspectives (the behaviourist view, the mentalist view, and the cognitive view). Addedly, this chapter embodied a section in which the sources of errors, the way errors should be indicated and treated, the role of L1 interference in FL learning, in addition to the importance of feedback, were outlined. Finally, an account that discussed succinctly the LTMs that dominated SL educational contexts during the 1950's, in addition to the case for and against switching to L1 in L2 learning was underlined in this chapter.

In the upcoming chapter, our focus of attention will rest on providing a theoretical framework with respect to the underpinnings of research methodology in educational research both theoretically and in relation to the current research study.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology for this Study

Introduction

3.1 Research Methodology: Theoretical Background

3.1.1 Research paradigms in educational research

3.1.2 The Research approaches

3.1.3 The Research strategies

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3.2 Research Methodology for this Study: Choices and Rationale

3.2.1 Research approach

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3.2.6 Population/ sampling technique

3.2.6.1 Population

3.2.6.2 Sampling technique

Conclusion

Introduction

So far, the forgoing chapters presented only a theoretical basis with regard to the two main variables relevant to our research study. Hence, this chapter presents and depicts the fundamental theoretical assumptions and underpinnings with respect to research methodology in educational research both theoretically and in relevance to our research study. More clearly, throughout this chapter, the methodological framework that provides a description of the research paradigms, approaches, strategies, data collection methods, data analysis procedures in conjunction with the sampling techniques will be discussed. Subsequently, this chapter proceeds to specify, justify, and describe the overall roadmap that was followed with the intention of investigating systematically our research problem and testing the corresponding research hypotheses.

3.1 Research Methodology: Theoretical Background

The literature consulted in this section presents a general theoretical basis that describes the methodological components of research, including the research paradigm, approach, strategy, data collection methods, data analysis procedures along with the different sampling techniques that might be opted for to carry out scientific inquiries.

3.1.1 Research paradigms in educational research. Methodologically, researchers should not eschew the possibility of subscribing to several paradigms because of any subjects that they have to be mutually exclusive. Rather, the decision of selecting a philosophical framework to investigate a certain phenomenon should be based on the requirements of a certain research study instead of the obdurate insistence of adhering to one specific outlook to the exclusion of others (Abdul Rahman & Alharthi, 2016).

Lather (1986) explains, “A research paradigm inherently reflects the researcher’s beliefs about the world that s/he lives in and wants to live in. It constitutes the abstract beliefs and

principles that shape how a researcher sees the world and how s/he interprets and acts within that world" (as cited in Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 27). According to Abdul Rahman and Alharthi (2016), "A paradigm is a basic belief system and theoretical framework with assumptions about 1) ontology, 2) epistemology, 3) methodology and 4) methods" (p. 51). Considerably, it is, therefore, important to have a firm understanding of these concepts since they comprise the requirements that each research paradigm holds.

First, ontology is a branch of philosophy that examines the researcher's underlying belief and the nature of 'being' and 'existence'. It is concerned with the presuppositions that we make in order to conceptualise the nature and the form of reality and what we believe can be known about reality. Epistemology is the second component of a research paradigm that has its etiology in Greek where the concept of 'episteme' means knowledge. Epistemology focuses on the human cognizance and comprehension that researchers can possibly acquire for the sake of extending and broadening their understandability in their field of research (Abdul Rahman & Alharthi, 2006; Kivunja & Kuyini, 2007).

The third component of a research paradigm is 'methodology'. Keeves (1997) reveals that methodology summarises the inquiry process and guides the researcher in deciding what type of data is needed for a certain investigation and which data-gathering tools will be most suitable with regard to the purpose of his/her study (as cited in Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The fourth and the last component of a research paradigm is 'methods'. The latter entail the means of collecting and analysing data. It must be pointed out that the methods used in a research study will depend highly on the research design and the researcher's theoretical mindset (Abdul Rahman & Alharthi, 2016). As far as the typology of paradigms is concerned, Dörnyei (2007) indicates that the most dominant research paradigms are the post-positivism, constructivism, transformative, and pragmatic paradigms.

The epiphany of post-positivism, also known as logical empiricism or scientific method, was inspired by the works of two physicists Werner Heisenberg and Niels Bohr and was based on a philosophy called *'Critical Realism'*. The post-positivism research paradigm is labeled as such since it represents the way of thinking after positivism and challenges the classical notion of the absolute truth of knowledge. The post-positivism paradigm can be distinguished from that of positivism according to whether the focus is on theory verification or on theory falsification. It is quite important to note that the knowledge obtained from a post-positivism lens is reductionist and is based on meticulous observations and measurements of the objective fact that exists 'out there' around the universe. Moreover, adopting this scientific method, logical empiricists aim to verify the theories that govern the world so that they can make sense of it (Creswell, 2014).

Constructivism or social constructivism is another different worldview that is typically considered as an approach to qualitative research. The emergence of social constructivism can be traced back to the works of Berger and Luekmann (1967), and Licoln and Guba (1985). The goal of constructivist researchers is to rely as much as possible on the participants' viewpoints, which are subjective in nature, and on the specific context where these participants live and work to understand how those involved in it experience the world. Furthermore, when conducting research, constructivists seek to acknowledge how their subjective backgrounds shape their understanding and how their interpretation proceeds from their personal, cultural, and historical experiences. The intent of social constructivists is to inductively understand and interpret meanings individuals have about the world with the aim of developing a theory or a pattern to that meaning (Creswell, 2014).

Another most frequently used paradigm is called transformative paradigm or emancipatory research. This paradigm has been developed owing to some influential

philosophies, such as The *Marxist Theory* and *Racial and Ethnic Minorities*, with a common objective of emancipatory and transforming communities through group action. This form of paradigms stresses the view that social reality is historically bound and is permanently evolving, depending on social, political, cultural, and power-based factors. Transformative researchers have the intention to destroy myths, illusions, and falsehoods and empower people to act to transform society. The transformative paradigm lends itself more to qualitative studies in which participants are involved in the inquiry process from problem definition to the findings' dissemination (Chilisa & Kawulish, 2012).

Another philosophical underpinning that might be adopted to approach research is the pragmatic worldview. As a research paradigm, pragmatism arose out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions. As a philosophical foundation for mixed methods research, pragmatism draws attention primarily on the research problem and, then, it applies pluralistic approaches to extract knowledge about a given problem. Besides, it must be pointed out that pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute or unconditional unity. Similarly, proponents of the mixed methods research do not subscribe to only one single approach. Instead, they make use of many approaches for collecting and analysing data. Additionally, pragmatists concur that research always occurs in social, historical, political, and other contexts. It is exactly why they include a postmodern turn that echoes specifically social justice and political aims (Creswell, 2014).

3.1.2 The Research approaches. After having selected the appropriate research paradigm, researchers must appoint the convenient research approach that is compatible to the paradigm they decided to adopt. An approach to a systematic inquiry stipulates scrupulously designed plans and procedures that span the steps from general assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. The literature consulted presents a brief account

in respect to the three basic types of research approaches, including the quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2014).

As indicated by its label, the quantitative approach is a process of inquiry that seeks to quantity an amount and express it in terms of numerical values (Rajasekar, Philominathan & Chinnathambi 2006; John & Pennink, 2010). Moreover, while studying the main qualities that characterise the quantitative research, quantitatively-minded scholars, such as Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), affirm, "The major characteristics of the quantitative research are focus on deduction, confirmation, theory/hypothesis testing, explanation, prediction, standardized data collection and statistical analysis" (p. 18). Worth emphasising, the central objective of the quantitative approach lies on the idea of producing systematic, rigorous, firmly controlled, credible, and replicable research results that can universally be generalised to other contexts under the same circumstances (Creswell, 2014).

Despite its significant advantages in accomplishing research projects, it cannot be denied that there are some potential points of criticism related to the quantitative research approach. Brannen (2005) upholds, "The quantitative approach is overly simplistic, decontextualized, reductionist in terms of its generalisation, [...]" (as cited in Dörnyei, 2007, p. 35). Because of these shortcomings, another research approach called the qualitative approach has been developed.

Secondly, the qualitative approach is a type of research that is usually undertaken in the field of social sciences. Its growth during the mid-half of the nineteenth century was particularly related to the ever-growing recognition that every component belonging to language acquisition and use is substantially constructed by social, cultural, and situational factors (Dörnyei, 2007). Qualitative approach to research aims to explore, describe, and interpret subjectively peoples' attitudes, opinions, behaviours, and experiences within a small-sized sample with some sort of

flexibility that may lead to responsive changes of the research findings (Kothari, 2004; Dawson 2007; Hesse-Biber, 2010; Jonker & Pennink, 2010). On the side of Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), the basic characteristics of the qualitative research are "induction, discovery, exploration, theory/ hypothesis generation, the researcher as the primary 'instrument' of data collection and qualitative analysis" (p. 18). More importantly, according to Chelli (2016), the essence of the qualitative approach seeks to describe the variation and the diversity of a phenomenon, behaviour, or an attitude with a flexible approach in order to discover as much disparity and discrepancy as possible.

Regardless of its usefulness in the domain of social sciences, adherents of the quantitative approach offer several points that reflect the weaknesses of the qualitative research approach. The most significant criticism they highlighted is the idiosyncratic nature of smaller samples of participants that does not contribute to the generalisability of the research results. Besides, the qualitative research approach is an anti-methodological, an unprincipled, a fuzzy, a labor-intensive, and a time-consuming approach. Therefore, gaining a thorough comprehension of the strengths, as well as the limitations of both quantitative and qualitative research forms puts investigators in a position to mix the two approaches and use what is called 'the fundamental principle of mixed research' (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Around the late 1980's and 1990's, the mixed methods form of research was considered as a new methodology/ trend that originated with the introduction of the concept of 'triangulation'. Indeed, the mixed methods approach to research is considered as a form of inquiry that stipulates mixing both quantitative and qualitative data and using different designs which may include different philosophical assumptions. This approach is deemed an ideal form of research, especially if the researcher has an access to both forms of data (qualitative and quantitative). The core principle of this approach is the integration of quantitative and

qualitative data that may offer a more complete understanding of the problem in question than either approach alone (Creswell, 2014).

One key criterion that demarcates the traits of the mixed methods research approach is related to the validity of the research results. Another feature associated to this form of research is confined to having multi-level analysis of more complex issues. In this sense, researchers are likely to understand better certain sophisticated phenomena via converging numeric trends from quantitative data and detailed interpretations from qualitative data. In this way, numbers can be used to strengthen the precision to words and words can be used to add meaning to numbers. Finally, this type of approaches is expected to reach multiple audiences since the results are typically acceptable for a wider range of audience than those of a monomethod study would be (Dörnyei, 2007). While devoting a great deal of time in examining methodologically the mixed methods research approach, Strauss and Corbin (1998) stress the contribution that both quantitative and qualitative approaches provide for each other. They reveal:

> Qualitative and quantitative forms of research both have roles to play in theorising. The issue is not whether to use one form or another but rather how these might work together to foster the development of theory […] The qualitative should direct the quantitative and the quantitative feedback into the qualitative in a circular, but at the same time evolving, process with each method contributing to the theory in ways that only each can. (As cited in Dörnyei, 2014, p. 43)

Even though incorporating both quantitative and qualitative approaches has come to be seen by many research methodologists as an enriching approach, Creswell (2014) cautions researchers from the challenges the mixed-methods approach may pose for them. These challenges may entail the need for extensive data collection, the time-intensive nature of

analysing both quantitative and qualitative data, and the researcher's acquaintance with quantitative and qualitative approaches of research.

3.1.3 The Research strategies. According to Thyer (1993), a research strategy is an outline or a detailed plan of how a scientific investigation is to be accomplished through operationalising variables, assigning a sample to work on, selecting the data-gathering tools to be used as a basis for hypothesis testing, and determining the way data are going to be analysed (as cited in Kumar, 2011). On the same train of thoughts, Kumar (2011) considers a research strategy as a procedural plan or scheme adopted by researchers in an attempt to answer their research questions validly, objectively, accurately, and economically.

In the main, quantitative study designs are more specific, well-structured, and can explicitly be recognised and tested for their validity and reliability. Nevertheless, research strategies found in qualitative studies either do not have these attributes or have them to a lesser degree (Kumar, 2011). The most commonly recommended quantitative research designs are the experimental and the non-experimental designs. Experimental designs, on the one hand, include the true experimental design and the quasi-experimental design. Non-experimental designs, on the other hand, embody the correlational design and the causal comparative design (Creswell, 2014).

The primary method of investigations in quantitative research is the experiment. The latter is considered by Kabir (2016) as "An investigation in which a hypothesis is scientifically tested" (p. 271). Principally, the experimental research can be categorised based on whether or not a population is randomly chosen to different treatment groups (Kumar, 2011). The hallmarks of the experimental research design are "control over variables, careful measurement, and establishing cause and effect relationships" (Kabir, 2016, p. 271).

According to Marczyk, DeMatteo, and Festinger (2005), the true experimental design is one in which the items of a study are randomly selected to an experimental group and a control group. That is, the true experimental design includes at least two groups, namely the experimental group that receives the treatment and the control group whose function is to provide a baseline for comparisons (Dörnyei, 2007). Despite the fact that random assignment is the best way to guarantee the validity and reliability of the research results, it is usually unfeasible in the case of social sciences. Thus, when the principle of randomisation is impracticable, researchers should adopt the quasi-experimental design (Dörnyei, 2007).

Dörnyei (2007) approves that the quasi-experimental design, sometimes also referred to as the 'semi-experimental design' or the 'as if experimental design', is similar to that of true experimental in every aspect except that quasi-experiments do not assign the study population randomly. It is rather significant to mention the fact that this type of designs is usually undertaken in the spirit of the classic laboratory experiment, but stresses that the investigator cannot dictate circumstances and that s/he ought to observe events 'as they naturally occur' (Denscombe, 2007).

Additionally, non-experimental research is also another research strategy that might be used when undertaking quantitative research works. The non-experimental design, sometimes referred to as the 'ex post facto design' (after the fact), is retrospective in nature. Opting for this type of designs, an experimenter can either describe a group, or simply examine the relationships between pre-existing groups. The members of the groups are, according to Salkind (2010), "Not randomly assigned and an independent variable is not manipulated by the experimenter, thus no conclusions about causal relationships between variables in the study can be drawn" (1§). The non-experimental research can be further divided into two different

research strategies, which are the correlational research strategy and the causal comparative research strategy (Creswell, 2014).

The correlational research, also called associational research, is a quantitative mode of inquiry that is often used in survey-based research to test the relationship between two or more variables, and to make predictions (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Moreover, this research strategy is generally conducted to answer three basic questions about two variables. First, is there an interdependence between the dependent and the independent variable? If yes, then what is the direction of the interdependence? And what is the degree of the magnitude? (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000).

The other most frequently used non-experimental design is called the causal comparative research. This type of researches is used in order to determine and quantify relationships between two or more variables by observing two groups that are by either choice or circumstances exposed to different treatments. In precise terms, comparative research looks at two or more similar groups or conditions by comparing them focusing on few specific characteristics. For Bukhari (2011), "Comparative research plays a central role in concept formation by bringing into focus suggestive similarities and contrasts among cases/ subjects. It shapes our power of description" (n.p.). Importantly, comparative research may offer a significant contribution towards inductive discovery of new hypotheses and to theory construction.

Under the umbrella of qualitative research, the most commonly used research strategies are case study, ethnography, longitudinal, phenomenology, and action research. Firstly, although case studies are the most recurrently used qualitative research strategies, they are also prevalent in quantitative research. A case study could be an individual, a group, a community or a sub-group of a given population (Kumar, 2011). Case studies are often linked to the

longitudinal approach to research in which the phenomena being studied are planned at a periodic interval for an extended period of time (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Within a case study, the case selected becomes the basis of a holistic, intensive, and in-depth exploration of the specific aspects that a researcher endeavours to find out about. It should be noted that a case study design is a quite useful research strategy, especially if the focus of a researcher is to explore an area where only few is known or when a s/he aims to explicitly discover and understand rather than to confirm and quantify. Using this strategy, researchers are not allowed to select a random sample, but rather a case that might supply them with deep information to understand that case in its totality or entirety (Kumar, 2011). One main advantage of a case study is that it has the potential for rich contextualisation that may spotlight the complexities of particular cases in their particular contexts (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Ethnography is also another popular qualitative form of inquiry that has its roots in anthropology and sociology. Literally, the concept of 'ethnography' means a description of individuals or culture (Denscombe, 2007). For Mackey and Gass (2005), ethnographic research studies emphasise groups over individuals, focuses on situating the study within a wider sociocultural context, and strives to provide an emic and a detailed perspective with respect to the phenomenon in question. Adopting an ethnographic research strategy, "A researcher studies the shared patterns of behaviours, language, and actions of an intact cultural group in a natural setting over a prolonged period of time" (Creswell, 2014, n.p). The principle of ethnographic researches is that holistic approach that results in describing and explaining a specific pattern in relation to a whole system of patterns (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Another commonly used qualitative research strategy is called 'phenomenology'. Denscombe (2007) defines a phenomenon as a thing that human beings experience through their senses. In the same vein, he expounds, "Phenomenology is particularly interested in how social

life is constructed by those who participate in it" (p.78). As a research strategy, phenomenology stresses on human beings' experiences that are pure, basic, and raw with the condition that these experiences have not been exposed to processes of analysis and theorising. Besides, unlike those research strategies which prefer categorising patterns, measuring them, and theorising about them, phenomenology favours to get a clear picture of the 'things in themselves' as they are experienced by individuals. Therefore, the phenomenologist's main objective is not to interpret and analyse peoples' experiences, but to present them in such a form that is 'faithful to the original' (Denscombe, 2007).

Another qualitative research strategy is called the grounded theory strategy. In fact, small-scale researchers using nominal data to study people's way of interaction adopt this research strategy for the sake of generating theories without testing them. The grounded theory research emphasises the significance of empirical fieldwork and the need to associate any explanations as closely as possible to what occurs in practical instances in the real world (Denscombe, 2007). Taking into consideration the conditions that theories should be grounded necessitates from researchers to be immensely involved in the fieldwork as it is the essential section of the work they do. For Denscombe (2007), the grounded theory research does not approach the analysis of data using preordained ways of seeing things. In this sense, it avoids using previous theories and concepts to make sense of the data and, thus, is open to discovering new factors of relevance to an explanation of the area.

Action research is also one of the most frequently used qualitative research strategies. Hopkins (2002) defines action research as "A substance act with a research procedure; it is action disciplined by enquiry, a personal attempt at understanding while engaged in a process of improvement and reform" (as cited in Costello, 2003, p. 3). In support of this, Denscombe (2007) maintains that action research is a mode of inquiry that deals with real-world issues,

usually at work and in organisational settings. Undertaking action research, researchers ought to work collaboratively with a group of people who are open to new ideas and endeavouring to reflect them to alternate certain actions in a particular setting. That is, researchers do not 'do' studies on people, but cooperate with them and act as facilitators (Denscombe, 2007).

Aside from case studies, ethnography, phenomenology, and action research, researchers may adopt another qualitative research strategy called 'the longitudinal research strategy'. The latter is seen as an ongoing examination of a group of people or a phenomenon over a period of time with the goal of gathering normative information, plot trends, or observe the influences of particular elements (Dörnyei, 2007; Marczyk et al., 2005). As claimed by Menard (2002), in longitudinal research "(a) data are collected for two or more distinct time periods; (b) the subjects or cases analysed are the same or are comparable (i.e., drawn from the same population) from one period to the next; and (c) the analysis involves some comparison of data between periods" (as cited in Dörnyei, 2007, p. 79). Importantly, the essence of longitudinal research studies seeks to describe cases of change and explain causal relationships.

Up until this point, we introduced only the most commonly used quantitative and qualitative research strategies. However, in case a researcher adopts the mixed methods approach, then s/he needs to make use of the mixed methods research strategy (Dörnyei, 2007). According to Denscombe (2007), the mixed methods strategy to research refers to:

> A research strategy that crosses the boundaries of conventional paradigms of research by deliberately combining methods drawn from different traditions with different underlying assumptions. At its best, a mixed methods strategy is one that uses both qualitative and quantitative methods. (p. 107)

3.1.4 Data collection methods. After having formulated a research problem, decided on a research paradigm and approach, and selected a sample, researchers should, then, start collecting data from which they can draw on inferences and conclusions for their studies. For Kabir (2016), data collection is the process of gathering and measuring information on the variables of a research investigation, in a methodical and a systematic fashion that enables researchers to answer their questions, test hypotheses, and evaluate outcomes. Several methods can be used to collect the required information about the sample selected. Considerably, researchers may commence interviews, mail out questionnaires, conduct focus group discussions, or undertake observations (Kumar, 2011).

It should be pointed out that the choice of a certain data-gathering instrument will depend highly on the purpose of the study, the nature of the research questions to be answered together with the resources available (Marczyk et al., 2005; Kumar, 2011). Within the same continuum, Kumar (2011) provides a succinct description of the significant distinction between the data collection methods used in both quantitative and qualitative researches. Conclusively, he ascertains, "Most methods of data collection can be used in both qualitative and quantitative research. The distinction is mainly due to the restrictions imposed on flexibility, structure, sequential order, depth, and freedom that a researcher has in their use during the research process" (n.p.). While quantitative methods favour these kinds of attributes and restrictions, qualitative methods advocate against them.

One of the most commonly used data-gathering tools, particularly in case of big inquiries is the questionnaire. In fact, scholars consider the concept of 'questionnaire' as a 'misnomer' term since questionnaires do not include any, or many real questions that end with a question mark. For Kothari (2004):

> A questionnaire consists of a number of questions printed or typed in a definite order on a form or set of forms. The questionnaire is mailed to respondents who are expected to read and understand the questions and write down the reply in the space meant for the purpose in the questionnaire itself. The respondents have to answer the questions on their own. (p.100)

As far as the typology of the questionnaire is concerned, Dawson (2007) reveals that there are three main types of questionnaires, namely close-ended questionnaires, open-ended questionnaires, and a combination of both (semi-structured questionnaire). The close-ended questionnaire is frequently used to generate statistics in quantitative surveys. Moreover, this category of questioning subsumes several quite different item types through which respondents are asked to choose from ready-made responses by encircling, ticking, or by putting an 'X' in the most appropriate box. This type of questionnaires is sometimes referred to as a 'structured' or an 'objective' questionnaire, simply because it goes in accordance with quantitative statistical analyses, and because the response choices can be numerically coded for ease of analysis (Dörnyei, 2003).

Unlike close-ended questionnaires, open-ended questionnaires, also named as unstructured questionnaires, are used in qualitative research studies with the goal of having a holistic understanding of the phenomenon in question. This sort of questioning includes items that are no longer followed by ready-made response options. Rather, it leaves a blank space for the respondents to jot in their answers (Dörnyei, 2003; Dawson, 2007).

Finally, researchers may question respondents using a combination of close-ended and open-ended questions (semi-structured questionnaire). This category of questioning often begins with a series of structured questions, with slots to tick or scales to rank, and finishes with a section of unstructured questions for more detailed answers (Dawson, 2007).

Apart from questionnaires, researchers may collect information significant to their studies by means of tests. A test, as Naina (2012) reports it, is a systematic procedure that is used to examine someone's behaviour or knowledge of something to determine the level of skill or knowledge that has been thoroughly reached. Three of the most commonly applied types of tests are the achievement tests, aptitude tests, and personality tests.

On the one hand, achievement tests are designed to assess the extent to which an individual has developed a specific motor skill or acquired a particular knowledge. Typically, this type of tests is administered following some specific instructions that are designed to teach certain skills to be measured or quantified. It must be stressed that the underlying objective of achievement tests seeks to measure the extent to which an examinee has mastered an area of knowledge (Achievement, aptitude, and ability tests, n.d.).

Aptitude tests, on the other hand, represent another typology of tests that is designed to assess what a person is capable of doing or to expect what an individual is able to learn or do given the right and appropriate education and instruction. Undertaking aptitude tests, researchers tend to measure a person's level of competence/knowledge to perform a certain type of tasks. Further, this sort of tests is oftentimes used to assess an academic potential, a career suitability, and a cognitive (mental) or physical talent in exclusively diverse domains (Cherry, 2020).

However, personality tests refer to those well-methodical procedures used to diagnose human personality. This technique of testing is designed to measure the traits that individuals exhibit across distinct contexts. Usually, personality tests are administered for a number of different intents and purposes, such as clarifying clinical diagnosis, directing therapeutic interventions, and helping predict how individuals may respond in various situations. In the main, there are two basic types of personality tests, which are self-report inventories and

projective tests. The former requires from test-takers to read attentively the question and, then, rate to which extent the question or statement applies to them. Whereas, the latter necessitates from its appliers to provide their participants with a vague scene, object, or scenario and, then, asking them to present their interpretations of the tested item (Cherry, 2020).

Another most commonly used data collection method that can be applied in different applied linguistic contexts for different purposes is called the 'interview'. DeMarrais and Lapan (2004) allege that an interview is "A process in which a researcher and participant engage in a conversation [and] focus on questions related to a research study. These questions usually ask participants for their thoughts, opinions, perspectives, or descriptions for specific experiences" (p. 54). While interviewing, interviewers have the freedom to decide the format, wording, content in tandem with the order of the questions in which interviewees are to be asked. As far as the interview types are concerned, researchers conducting studies in social sciences may use three different types of interviews, which are structured, unstructured, and semi-structured interviews (Dörnyei, 2007; Dawson, 2007).

Structured interviews are usually used in quantitative research in situations where a written questionnaire is no longer feasible and approachable to a certain category of respondents (e.g., illiterate people). Again, this type of interviews is useful when the interviewer is aware of what s/he does not know and can construct questions that will, in return, yield the needed responses for his/her study (Dörnyei, 2007).

As opposed to the structured interviews, unstructured interviews (sometimes also referred to as 'in depth interviews', 'ethnographic interviews', or 'life history interviews'), are used only in qualitative studies with the goal of achieving a profound understanding of the interviewees' points of view. This category of interviewing allows maximum flexibility with only minimal interference from the research agenda with the intention of creating a comfortable

atmosphere in which interviewees may reveal more than they would in formal contexts, with the interviewer assuming a listening role (Dawson, 2007).

The third type of interviews that can also be used in qualitative studies is labelled as the 'semi-structured interview'. The latter is used in case the interviewer has abundantly plentiful and sufficient information on the phenomenon being discussed and is able to formulate, in advance, broad questions about a certain topic without using ready-made response options in order not to limit the depth and breadth of the interviewees' answers (Dörnyei, 2007). By means of holding interviews, researchers can investigate phenomena that cannot immediately and directly be observable. Besides, since interviews are, by nature, interactive, researchers can elicit additional information if answers are vague, inadequate, off topic, or not specific enough.

Apart from interviews, researchers may rely on focus group discussions, sometimes also referred to as 'group interviews', to gather the required data for their studies. In focus group discussions, researchers can ask a number of people, usually from seven to eleven participants, to come together in a group in order to discuss a certain topic (DeMarrais & Lapan, 2004). The moderator or facilitator, who directs the discussion, introduces the issue under-investigation, asks specific questions, controls deviations, and inhibits breakaway and unrelated conversations (Dawson, 2007). Among the advantages of the focus group discussions is that during one group, focus group moderators can receive a large number of responses. Additionally, conducting focus group discussions may succor participants from inhibitions, especially if they know each and one another. Finally, the group effect and interaction may work as helpful resources in the data analysis process (Dawson, 2007).

Besides to tests, questionnaires, interviews, and focus group discussions, researchers may conduct classroom observations to collect the necessary information about the sample they assigned. From a methodological point of view, an observation is seen as a purposeful,

systematic, and a selective instrument whereby a researcher observes attentively a certain phenomenon as it takes place in its real or natural setting (Kumar, 2011). As a method of data collection for research purposes, an observation is more than just observing and listening. In effect, Kabir (2016) pinpoints that an observation is a procedure through which researchers use all of their senses to examine individuals in a natural setting. In doing so, researchers must use methodical and tactical improvisations for the sake of developing a full understanding of the phenomenon under-examination.

As for the types of the observations, researchers may conduct either a participant or a non-participant observation. As the term suggests, participant observation, on the one hand, is when a researcher gets involved (participates) in the activities of the group being observed in the same manner as its members do, either with or without their realisation that they are under observation. Non-participant observation, on the other hand, is when a researcher does not partake in the activities of the group being observed but remains a passive observer, who watches and listens to the group's activities and, accordingly, constructs conclusions and inferences from them (Kumar, 2011).

According to Sapsford and Jupp (2006), as a data-gathering instrument, observations may offer a number of advantages over other types of data collection methods. Firstly, information about the physical world and the human behaviour can be obtained and recorded directly by the researcher without having to rely on the 'retrospective' or 'anticipatory' account of others. Secondly, many basic characteristics of the physical environment and behaviour are taken for granted by participants and, therefore, may be laborious for them to portray. Usually in such a case, 'the trained eye of the observer' is required to see the familiar as 'strange' and provide the necessary description. Thirdly, undertaking an observation can be quite useful in

giving opportunities to those participants who cannot participate in interviews or fill in questionnaires (young children is an obvious example) (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006).

3.1.5 Data analysis procedures. The methods a researcher uses to analyse data will depend highly on whether s/he decided to conduct a qualitative or quantitative research, and his/her choice will be highly impacted by personal and methodological preferences and educational background (Dawson, 2007). According to Denscombe (2007), "The process of analysis involves the search for things that lie behind the surface content of the data –core things that explain what the thing is and how it works" (p. 247).

Fundamentally, there are different types of qualitative and quantitative data analysis procedures. The choice of one type of data analysis will depend ineluctably on the research topic, the researcher's personal preferences, time, equipment, in addition to the finances available. In the main, the most commonly used data analysis procedures are the Content-based approach in qualitative research, Descriptive and Inferential statistics in quantitative research, and a combination of these in mixed methods research (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Dawson, 2007; Denscombe, 2007; Dörnyei, 2007; Gomez, 2013).

According to Nigatu (2009), qualitative data analysis entails a wide range of processes whereby a researcher moves from the qualitative data that have been gathered into some form of explanation and interpretation of a situation that a researcher aims to study. It is worth mentioning that qualitative data analysis is an iterative and a flexible process that starts as data are being gathered rather than after data collection has been ceased. For Guest, Macqueen, and Namey (2012), "While analysing qualitative data, not all information can be analysed since qualitative data are so dense and rich and, consequently, researchers need, to some extent, to winnow them" (as cited in Creswell, 2014, n.p.).

The Content-based analysis is the most frequently used data analysis procedure in qualitative research (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). As specified by Merton (1991), "Content analysis is a method for inquiry into social reality, which consists of inferring features of a nonmanifest context from features of the manifest text" (as cited in Ajay, 2011, 6§). This indicates that the Content-based analysis is a systematic coding and categorising procedure used to explore large amounts of textual data unobtrusively in order to determine trends and patterns of words, their frequencies, their relationships, along with the structures and discourses of a written text (Vaismoradi, Turunen & Bondas, 2013).

Before analysing data, the researcher must decide on whether the analysis should be conceptual (i.e., establishing the existence of the frequency of concepts in a text) or rational (i.e., identifying concepts present in a given text or set of texts) (Busch et al., 2012). Additionally, Bloor and Wood (2006) assent that the purpose of the Content-based analysis is to describe the features of the textual document's content by scrutinising who says what, to whom, and with what effect (as cited in Vaismoradi et al., 2013). Relying on the Content-based analysis, researchers need to observe the following stages:

- Identifying concepts;
- Defining relationships;
- Coding the text on the basis of 1 and 2;
- Coding the statements; and
- Graphically displaying and numerically analysing the resulting maps (Busch et al., 2012, 6§).

On the contrary, quantitative data analysis is a more accurate and straightforward process since it includes well-defined procedures, guided by universally accepted canons, to address certain research issues and produce relatively rigorous results (Dörnyei, 2007). One

way to analyse quantitative data is to rely on Descriptive statistics along with Inferential statistics (Gomez, 2013).

Descriptive statistics are procedures to describe, summarise, and present a set of data. This can be accomplished by displaying frequency distribution tables and graphical formats, such as pie charts, bar-charts, histograms, polygon, etc. In the main, Descriptive statistics can be computed using measures of central tendency and measures of variability. The selection of the most appropriate measures depends heavily on the measurement scale of the variables, which can be nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio (Gomez, 2013).

In general, measures of central tendency are values that describe a dataset by identifying the central position within that dataset. Such kind of measures can provide researchers with information on how a group or a collection of data performed overall. Technically, measures of central tendency can be estimated using three different ways, which are the mean, median, and mode (Gomez, 2013).

First, the most commonly used measure of central tendency is the mean value. Denscombe (2007) defines the mean, also known as the arithmetic average, as a value that describes "What would result if there was a totally equal distribution of values" (p. 260). The mean can be calculated by dividing the sum of all scores by the total number of scores. It is defined by the formula:

$$\overline{\boldsymbol{x}} = \frac{\sum \boldsymbol{X}}{\boldsymbol{N}}$$

Second, the median is the mid-point of a range or a distribution, with half of the scores lying above and half falling below. Thus, values in the dataset are placed in either ascending or descending rank order and the central score of the range is called 'the median'. In the following dataset, the median is 11.5 (Denscombe, 2007; Gomez, 2013).

1 4 7 11 ↓ 12 17 17 47

Third, the mode is the value or score that occurs most frequently in a given dataset. This measure of central tendency has no statistical formula and is straightforward. It should be pointed out that a distribution may have more than one mode if two or more values occur the same number of times. Such distributions are oftentimes called bimodals (two modes), trimodals (three modes), and so on (Gomez, 2013). In the dataset below, the mode is 17.

1 1 4 4 7 11 17 12 17 17 17

However, measures of variability, also known as dispersion or variation, are quite significant to understand the spread of values described for a variable. A measure of variability provides indices of how dispersed or varied the values in a dataset. The key measures of dispersion are: The range, variance, and standard deviation (Gomez, 2013; Sharma, 2019).

Gomez (2013) defines the range as, "The number of points between the highest score and the lowest one plus one to include the scores of both ends" (p. 6). As a measure of variability, the range may give a picture of the data as it just represents the extreme scores of the dispersion and, as a result, it is highly influenced by the behaviour that may not necessarily be representative of the dataset as a whole (Denscombe, 2007; Gomez, 2013). In the dataset below, the range is: 198 – 72= 126.

72 83 98 99 130 148 198

The variance is the arithmetic mean that measures the squared sum differences or squared distance from the mean. The variance is calculated by taking average values of the squared difference of each score and their mean (Gomez, 2013; Sharma, 2019). The formula of the variance is as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{S^2 = \frac{\sum(x - \overline{x})^2}{n - 1}}$$

Another alternative measure of variability that deals with the spread of data comes in the form of the standard deviation. For Denscombe (2007), "The standard deviation measures the spread of data relative to the arithmetic mean of the data" (p. 264). More subtly, the standard deviation uses all the scores to calculate how far the values tend to be spread out around the mean (Denscombe, 2007). The formula of the standard deviation is as follows:

$$\boldsymbol{S} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(\boldsymbol{x}-\bar{\boldsymbol{x}})^2}{\boldsymbol{N}}}$$

3.1.6 Sampling techniques. From a methodological perspective, it is not possible for researchers to contact every member since the population is infinite. Accordingly, researchers need to select a number of people to contact. This is referred to by Dawson (2007) as 'sampling'. A sample, as Sapsford and Jupp (2006) define it, is "A set of elements selected to some way from a population" (p. 26). The main aim of assigning a sample is to save time, efforts, and obtain consistent and unbiased estimates of the population in terms of what is being researched (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006).

The process of identifying a sample from a given population is often referred to as 'a sample design'. A sample design stipulates a definite plan a researcher adopts in selecting elements for a sample. A good sample design must result in a representative sample, bring about a small sampling errors, and help check the systematic bias in a better way (Kothari, 2004). Substantially, there are two basic types of sampling techniques, namely the probability sampling and the non-probability sampling (Kothari, 2004; Sapsford & Jupp, 2006). Before choosing any of these two sampling designs, researchers must consider the area of their research study, the research methodology, and their research preferences (Dawson, 2007).

On the one hand, probability sampling, also called random or chance sampling, is contingent on the condition of random assignment. That is, under this form of sampling, all

items within the research population have a specifiable or an equal chance of being selected. Typically, probability sampling techniques are used when the goal of the researcher is to explain, predict, or generalise the findings to the whole research population (Kothari, 2004; Dawson, 2007). This sampling technique includes simple random sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling, and systematic sampling (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006).

First, simple random sampling is viewed as the most commonly used probability sampling technique. This mode of sampling gives the elements in a certain population an equal probability of being selected each time in the whole population to have the same chance of being included in the sample assuring that the sample will represent the entire population (Kothari, 2004; Creswell, 2014). Actually, the term 'simple' does not signify that random sampling is easier to implement than other sampling techniques. Instead, it means that the steps are taken to guarantee that nothing influences selection since each time a choice is made, other than chance (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006).

Second, stratified random sampling combines randomisation and categorisation with some form of a rational grouping. Implementing the stratified random sampling technique, elements of the population should be divided into groups called 'strata' (Dörnyei, 2007). According to Creswell (2014), the concept of stratification denotes, "Specific characteristics of individuals [...] are represented in the sample and the sample reflects the true proportion in the population of individuals with certain characteristics" (n.p.). Thus, when the study elements are randomly chosen from a population, the previously mentioned attributes may or may not be present in the same spectrum as in the population. Often in such a case, stratification ensures their representation (Dörnyei, 2007).

In some circumstances, it could be challenging to make a random selection in certain research studies, especially when researchers have no clues to identify in advance a set of

elements from a given population. In such an instance, the use of systematic sampling would be more appropriate (Dörnyei, 2007). In the main, researchers have referred to systematic sampling as a mixed sampling design, simply because it has the hallmarks of both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. Opting for a systematic sampling, researchers start by grouping the sample frame into a number of segments called 'intervals'. From the first interval, the choice of an item is on a random basis. However, for subsequent intervals, the choice of items will depend strongly on the items assigned in the first interval (Kumar, 2011).

Additionally, cluster sampling is also another quantitative sampling technique that is based on the researcher's ability to split the sample assigned into groups (based on easily identifiable traits) called clusters. Throughout cluster sampling, groups can be formulated based on the geographical proximity or based on some ordinary characteristics that have a reciprocity with the main variable of the study (Kumar, 2011).

Non-probability sampling, on the other hand, does not follow the principle of random assignment in the selection of elements from the sampling population. Besides, this design of sampling is applied in situations where the number of elements in a given population is either anonymous or cannot be individually detected. The most commonly used non-probability sampling techniques are quota sampling, purposive sampling, convenience sampling, and snowball sampling (Kumar, 2011).

At its core, quota sampling, also called dimensional sampling, is a mode of sampling that is similar to that of stratified random sampling without the random selection. Applying this form of sampling, researchers must split the population of interest into non-overlapping subgroups, called 'quotas'. Under this form of sampling, researchers must begin with a sampling frame and, thereafter, they should identify the main proportions of the subgroups determined by the parameters included in the frame. Dörnyei (2007) clarifies that within quota sampling, "The

actual sample, then, is selected in a way as to reflect these proportions, but within the weighed subgroups no random sampling is used but rather the researcher meets the quotas by selecting participants s/he can have access to" (p. 98).

Besides to quota sampling, elements of a certain population could be selected using another sampling mode called the 'purposive sampling technique'. This type of sampling is particularly useful in qualitative studies in order to construct a historical reality, describe a situation, or elaborate something about which only few is known. The core assumption in the purposive sampling technique is the researcher' judgement concerning who can supply him/her with as much information as possible so that s/he can successively meet the objectives of his/her study. On this basis, researchers should approach only that category of people that have the needed information and which is willing to share it (Kumar, 2011).

Moreover, convenience sampling, also known as accidental sampling or haphazard sampling, is another type of non-random sampling techniques where elements of a population are included for the purpose of a study. Convenience sampling techniques are oftentimes considered as accidental samples because "Elements […] happen to be situated, spatially or administratively, near to where the researcher is conducting the data collection" (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016, p. 2).

Aside from quota, purposive, and convenience sampling techniques, snowball sampling is also another frequently used form of non-probability sampling techniques that necessitates a 'chain reaction' through which an investigator selects few people who meet the requirements of his/her investigation (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, it should be noted that the snowball sampling technique "Is useful when studying groups whose membership is not readily identifiable […] or when access to suitable group members is difficult for some reasons" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 98).

3.2 Research Methodology for this Study: Choices and Rationale

The bulk of this section seeks to provide a detailed outline that mirrors the fundamental theoretical framework on which our research investigation is based. This entails the research approach, strategy, data collection methods, data analysis procedures, along with the sampling technique that we adopted and applied for the sake of examining as systematically and plausibly as possible the problem that launched our research study.

3.2.1 Research approach. According to Jonker and Pennink (2010), "The choice of methodology [must be] framed by the nature of the question and by the paradigmatic considerations with regard to knowing" (p. 40). Likewise, considering the nature of our study, our objectives, our personal experiences, and the audience we aimed to target, a qualitative research approach was adopted in examining the "Effect of the Learners' L1 Interference on the Occurrence of Code-Switching in an EFL Class". In support of this, Daniel (2016) sustains:

> The fact that neither constructivists nor positivists have claimed that their instruments are more reliable and valid than the other, thus showing that they meant to achieve the same goal. It is worth knowing that since qualitative and quantitative research approaches are based on divergent theories and assumptions, one should be more advantageous than the other depending on the nature of research and data collection methods. (p. 92)

Furthermore, our research study stipulates the qualitative approach rather than other approaches since we were not objective outsiders, but instead we were involved in our study. In the light of this, we aimed to understand and describe as thoroughly as possible a social phenomenon as it is situated and embedded in the local context within a limited number of cases with some sort of flexibility that may result in flexible changes in the research results (Jonker & Pennink, 2010; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Moreover, the qualitative approach underlines the concept of respondent concordance whereby a researcher strives to reach agreement of his/her respondents with his/her presentation of the situation, interpretation, experiences, perceptions, and conclusions. In view of the forgoing considerations, the qualitative approach was implemented as it corresponded and suited perfectly the objective of our research study which is concerned with a subjective assessment of perceptions, attitudes, opinions, and behaviours (Kothari, 2004; Kumar, 2011).

3.2.2 Research strategy. Bearing in mind that our research inquiry is qualitative in nature, a case study design was adopted with the goal of obtaining an extensive, holistic, and a more profound understanding of the phenomenon we aimed to examine. In alignment with this idea, Creswell (2014) elucidates:

> Case studies are a qualitative design in which the researcher explores in depth a program, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals. The case (s) are bounded by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period. (n.p.)

Furthermore, for Gerring (2007), a case study can be understood as an intensive study of one single case where the aim of that study is, at least in part, to highlight a larger class of cases. Besides, the basic property of a case study "is to recognise the unexpected" (Gerring, 2007, p. 37). One of the chief advantages of the case study design is that it can deeply expand the researchers' knowledge about the variations or disparity in human behaviour. In addition, case studies have the advantage of developing analytical thinking and tolerance for different points of view on the same subject. Also, the profound qualitative accounts produced in case studies not only help to explore, understand, and describe data, but also they help clarify the complexities and specificities of real-life situations that might not be apprehended through experimental research (Marczyk et al., 2005; Zainal, 2007).

In the light of what has been introduced in the account of the latter, it can be concluded that the case study design suited excellently our research synthesis for three basic reasons. First, we wanted to find answers to the 'what' and 'when' types of question. Second, we aimed to capture what Hodkinson and Hodkinson (2001) call 'lived reality'. As they put it, when applied successfully, case studies have the potential to "retain more of the noise of real-life than many other types of research" (as cited in Murphy, 2014, 3§). Consequently, through implementing a case study design, we would be having the chance not only to collect data, but also, and most importantly, to authenticate the relevant data from its authentic context. Third, the case study design fitted exquisitely our situation since our primary and major concern was circumscribed by the case we aimed to study (the third year students) in its idiosyncratic peculiarities and details, not to the whole population of cases.

3.2.3 Data collection methods. In order to collect information relevant to our research study, a covert non-participant observation coupled with an unstructured questionnaire was undertaken. In this respect, direct and immediate information apropos of the research questions that initiated our investigatory project could conceivably be acquired.

3.2.3.1 The non-participant observation

3.2.3.1.1 Aim and structure. Relying on a covert non-participant classroom observation, we intended to examine the occurrences of CS and understand the role that L1 interference played in stimulating its functionality in an EFL class discourse. In doing so, we did not make use of any recording devices. Rather, we relied on a structured observation that was carefully guided by an observation checklist (see Appendix 03), which entailed the focal points (items) that we sought to observe.

As a matter of fact, the covert non-participant observation was the best means of data collection for many reasons. Firstly, since we were uninvolved in the activities of the group

being observed, individuals did not change the way they used to behave. Accordingly, our observational inferences and conclusions of their behaviours can be considered as valid and accurate representations of how they acted naturally. Secondly, we decided to remain passive observers considering that we were majorly interested in the phenomenon of CS per se, not in the individuals' views and perceptions towards it. Thirdly, through using this type of observations we could fortunately observe and take some field-notes not only on what class interactants were doing, but also on what they were not doing in the authentic (real-life) setting.

Having the intention to observe the students during their Oral Expression's sessions, we designed an observation checklist that involved the major items we sought to observe. Given that we were only non-participant observers, we could solely rely on the scheme we developed to tick in the appropriate column and write down any additional remarks and comments with respect to the problem under-investigation. In this way, we could collect direct, real, and immediate information apropos of language transfer (L1) and its effect on the use of more than one linguistic code in an EFL class discourse. The following is the framework of the observation checklist that we designed:

- **Section One:** *The Exploration Phase (02 items)*

  The first section is dedicated to examine the occurrences of language-switching in an EFL class discourse. Furthermore, including this section we sought to figure out the nature of CS that was typically employed by the classroom agents.

- **Section Two:** *The Identification Phase (03 items)*

  The second section was concerned with the specific linguistic repertoire (s) that were usually opted for when a breakdown in communication occurred. Considering this, we included three items in order to detect the frequently used language (s) in the students' talk with the intention of successfully accomplishing their communication

intents and purposes. The focal points of this section were followed by two columns, with five columns showing how often were the alternative spoken languages (regardless to the English language) resorted to by the EFL students when they cannot carry out their discourse in English, and a sixth column designed to jot down any additional remarks that we might have caught.

- **Section Three**: *The Production Phase (03 items)*

  The third section was devoted to identify the pattern (s) of CS (i.e., extra-sentential, intra-sentential, or inter-sentential) that were usually employed by the students in order to maintain their act of communication. Besides, including this section, we inserted five columns for the 'degree of frequency' (never, rarely, sometimes, usually, and always) and a sixth column to provide any additional comments we might have remarked.

- **Section Four:** *The Explanation Phase (06 items)*

  The forth and the last section was designed and organised to examine the effect of L1 interference in provoking the occurrence of CS in an EFL class discourse. In view of this, we listed six items, working as the main reasons that might stimulate L1 interference, accompanied by five columns to discover how many times did these reasons result in shifting from the English language to the dominant language that teachers and students alike share. The last column was devised to take notes of any further observation that we might have come across.

Table 3.1

The Structure of the Observation Checklist

The Section	The Content
Section One	The exploration phase (02 items)
Section Two	The identification phase (03 items)
Section Three	The production phase (03 items)
Section Four	The explanation phase (06 items)

3.2.3.1.2 Piloting and validation. Our supervisor who ultimately expressed his consent as for the layout, organisation, along with the content of the observation checklist, reviewed our observation. Moreover, he remarked that the checklist, we designed, was appropriate and the sections were meticulously well-organised and well-conceived to gather the relevant information relatable to our research study. However, he provided us with few remarks regarding the word choice (wording) of certain structures used in the instructions. For instance, he recommended to substitute the word 'classroom' with 'class'. Accordingly, we took into consideration our supervisor's remark and made the necessary adjustment.

3.2.3.2 The student's questionnaire

3.2.3.2.1 Aim and structure. Our observational checklist was supplemented with an unstructured questionnaire to grant the targeted sample the opportunity to provide their personal experiences with respect to the problem under-inquiry. The student's questionnaire aimed to collect and cross-check our observational data which were principally about the effect of L1 interference on the occurrence of CS in an EFL class discourse.

The student's questionnaire comprised four sections designed to tap into the necessary data to help solve the projected research questions. Given that our questionnaire was

unstructured, only open-ended questionnaire items were integrated. As for the administration of the questionnaire, we electronically forwarded it to the targeted sample. By doing so, some students spent only minutes to fill in the questionnaire; whereas, others took a considerable amount of time to answer it. What follows is the structure of the student's questionnaire:

- **Section One:** *The Students' English Proficiency Level*

This section was designed to explore how many languages that the EFL students were able to speak besides to their L1 (item 01). Moreover, the core of this section aimed to determine the language (s) that the students allowed themselves to speak in an EFL class discourse (item 02). Also, this section attempted to evaluate the students' speaking proficiency level with regard to the English language (item 03). Furthermore, including this section, we tried to figure out the major difficulties that did oftentimes challenge the EFL students while speaking English (item 04). At last, item five was included for the sake of discovering the substitutes that the students usually looked for in order to effectively deliver their oral messages.

- **Section Two:** *The Students' Use of the Code-Switching Strategy*

This section was constructed with a focus on scrutinising the occurrences of CS and discerning whether its use was done consciously or unconsciously (item 06). Besides, including this section, we sought to uncover the way CS was employed during class interaction (item 07). Furthermore, we intended, in this section, to point out with whom the EFL students code-switched with reference to the specific reasons that obliged them to behave as such (item 08 and 09). Finally, yet importantly, since we aimed at discovering the communicative function (s) that might be afforded by the technique of CS item 10 was added.

- **Section Three:** *The Effect of L1 Interference on the Occurrence of Code-Switching*

This section was developed with the goal of having an idea about how often did the EFL students shift codes during class conversation (item 11). Additionally, throughout this section,

we attempted to figure out the linguistic levels that were usually affected by the students' L1 interference (phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics) (item 12). Aside from this, we tried to determine the topics in which the students felt the need to shift to their L1 (item 13). Moreover, item 14 was included in order to extract the way the students viewed the phenomenon of switching to their L1 while speaking English. Again, in this section, we attempted to clearly and evidently reveal the most prominent causes that did specifically result in triggering L1 interference during class discussion (item 15). Besides, in order to know by whom/which were the students usually corrected when they were linguistically affected by their L1, we added item 16. Apart from this, item 17 was incorporated in order to understand the teachers' feedback when a language switching took place during class discourse. The final questionnaire item was included for the sake of giving the respondents the opportunity to add any additional remarks with respect to the effect of L1 interference on the occurrence of CS in an EFL class (item 18).

Table 3. 2

The Student's Questionnaire in the Piloting Stage

Structure	Content
Section One	The students' English proficiency level (from 01 to 05)
Section Two	The students' use of the code-switching strategy (from 06 to 10)
Section Three	The effect of mother tongue interference on the occurrence of code-switching (from 11 to 18)
The Opinionnaire	The items of the opinionnaire (from 01 to 08)

3.2.3.2.2 Piloting and Validation. Prior to the administration of the student's questionnaire, we piloted and validated it via the opinionnaire section that comprised eight items. It was prerequisite to take this step ahead to have the possibility to revise and adjust the

questionnaire in terms of layout, organisation, and content. Besides, relying on the opinionnaire, we could discuss the specific objectives related to this questionnaire with reference to the research objectives that directed our research project.

Having the intention to pilot and validate the student's questionnaire, we forwarded electronically seven copies to Oral Expression teachers and five copies to students (not necessarily from our population). Participants had been cordially requested to read the questionnaire items thoroughly and attentively without answering them as we were looking for their feedback as for the layout, organisation, and content of the questionnaire, not for their responses on the presented questionnaire items. After having read carefully the student's questionnaire, the participants provided us with their feedback in the opinionnaire section.

Our supervisor was the primary source of feedback and guidance in the development and refinement of our questionnaire during the piloting stage. Our supervisor provided us with some insightful remarks with respect to the correctness, as well as the appropriateness of the questionnaire we designed. In the light of this, we could modify and develop many points related to the questionnaire items before they were finally presented. Following our supervisor's remarks, we revised and edited the questionnaire minding the word choice of certain structures used in the instructions.

Aside from our supervisor's feedback, one of the teachers, who participated in the piloting stage, argued that the phrase "Are you allowed to speak", in question two from section one, has to do with the teacher's authority. Therefore, he suggested to say instead "Do you allow yourself to speak" since the students have liberty in making the choice of other alternative languages based on their idea of what EFL learning means/requires. The same teacher also recommended to omit the adverb "usually" in question seven from section two, simply because it obliged the students to code-switch (i.e., we were not yet sure of whether or not the EFL

students switched codes). Another teacher, who piloted the questionnaire, recommended to substitute the verb "notify" with "express" in question 18 from section three to sound more formal and academic. Accordingly, we took into account the remarks given and made the necessary changes as they were recommended.

Additionally, one of the teachers suggested omitting question ten from section two assuming that it was a repetition of what was asked in question nine from section two. We did not consider this remark since question nine aimed to find out the reasons that might potentially make the EFL students alternate codes during class conversation and question ten sought to detect the communicative functions that CS might offer when speaking English. The same teacher commented on the length of the questionnaire saying, "It is preferable to limit the number of the questions presented". Again, we did not take into account this remark since we were very selective during the course of constructing the most appropriate questionnaire items that would, in return, answer our research questions. Other participants including the students, who partook in the questionnaire's piloting stage, concurred that the language of the questionnaire was very simple and to the point. Moreover, they agreed that the organisation of the questionnaire items was well-managed, well-conceived, and not overloaded to the extent that they could possibly provide clear, straightforward, and real responses.

3.2.4 Data collection procedures. In an attempt to collect the necessary information relevant to our research questions, we relied on two different data-gathering instruments. The classroom observation was the principle data collection method that we primarily relied on to collect the relevant data. The classroom observation had been scheduled on February 2020 and targeted mainly the third year EFL students enrolled in the section of English at Mohamed Khider Biskra University. It lasted for two weeks, that is the total of seven hours, with two different Oral Expression teachers; nevertheless, we missed one session because the students

were supposed to have an oral test. In fact, the classes we observed were almost overcrowded (around 43-45 students per class) and the number of girls outnumbered that of boys in each class. Table 3.3 provides a brief summary on how the classroom observation had taken place.

Table 3.3

The Organisation of the Classroom Observation

Session	Date	Group	Teacher	Timeframe	Place
01	05/2/2020	06	T1	11:20-12:50	CEIL 05
02	06/2/2020	05	T2	08:00-09:30	BC 08
03	12/2/2020	06	T1	11:20-12:50	CEIL 05
04	13/2/2020	05	T2	08:00-09:30	BC 08

The student's questionnaire was the second tool of inquiry that was used in an attempt to collect information on the problematic that launched our study. Before having posted the questionnaire, we electronically forwarded it to seven teachers of Oral Expression and five students (not necessarily from our population) to pilot and validate it. After having piloted and validated the student's questionnaire, we uploaded it on the Facebook group of the targeted sample in order to obtain the necessary information related to our research investigation. Approximately, it took us one week to gather the responses significant to our study.

3.2.5 Data analysis procedures. This study is an examination into the effect of L1 interference on the occurrence of CS in EFL classes. Considering the fact that our research investigation is qualitative in nature, we opted for two qualitative data analysis procedures to analyse the information we collected with respect to our research problem. On this basis, we relied on the descriptive method as a procedure to analyse the field-notes generated from the classroom observation. Subsequently, in order to organise the obtained data into increasingly

more abstract units of information, we followed the 'Bottom Up Technique' as proposed by Creswell (2012). The latter was employed in the context of this research study since it is inductive in nature, and since it could supply us with a tool to narrow the voluminous data that we obtained. Applying this technique, we could work back and forth between the themes until we established a complete set of themes (Creswell, 2012).

After getting a sense of the raw data in their entirety several times, we tried to code our transcripts by aggregating them into small categories of information called 'segments'. The codes generated from all of the observation sheets were, then, reviewed to determine redundant codes. Then, we tried to collapse the codes into themes. Finally, we attempted to explore the relationships between the themes to build detailed descriptions and interpretations in the light of the views of perspectives in the literature.

However, the Content-based analysis was the procedure that we relied on to analyse the data we received from the students' questionnaire. Actually, we purposely used the questionnaire as we believed that it would help discover some pertinent points that would not had been obtained using other research instruments (observation) (Dörnyei, 2007). At an early stage in the analysis process, we familiarised ourselves with the whole database. Afterwards, we defined the units of meaning that should be coded and organised them into concepts based on a certain set of rules for coding. At last, we went through each response, recorded all relevant data in the appropriate categories, and tried to examine the relevant data in order to find out patterns and draw on conclusions.

3.2.6 Population/ sampling technique

3.2.6.1 Population. The population of our study was the third year students enrolled in the section of English at Biskra University in the academic year 2020. This section was selected since it represented the students with the appropriate level we majorly attempted to study in our

investigation. The third year students were expected to have a good competence level when it comes to their English speaking proficiency. However, we noticed that most of them did have a medium proficiency level with regard to the English language. It is for this reason that they could not rely merely on it when expressing their oral messages.

In addition to their inadequate speaking competence, we noticed that the third year students are linguistically incapable to keep using the English language to serve and fulfill their classroom communicative needs and interests because a compelling and an overpowering linguistic interference stemming from their L1 affected them. In this regard, this population was chosen to capture the accurate profile that might depict our research problem.

3.2.6.2 Sampling technique. Our choice of the purposive sampling technique was dictated by the nature of our research study, our final research objectives in conjunction with the paradigmatic considerations that guided our investigation. In the quest of obtaining a representative sample, we opted for a purposive sampling technique for the reason that it does not follow the principle of random assignment in the selection of elements from the population. Owing to the fact that our research area belongs to the social sciences' domain, we could not depend on the condition/principle of randomisation since our focus of attention was no longer confined with generalising the research findings to the entire population of cases. Instead, our aim was subject to the case we attempted to study in its idiosyncratic details and particularities.

In the light of what has been mentioned above, we, after taking permission and consensuses from teachers, selected two different groups (five and six) in order to conduct a covert non-participant observation. As for the respondents of the students' questionnaire, we forwarded electronically the questionnaire to 32 students of the third year from different groups to provide us with real responses as regards to the problem that started our research inquiry.

Conclusion

The aim of this chapter sought primarily to present, from a relatively broad perspective, a literature review on the pertinent philosophical assumptions as regards to research methodology and what they entail as research paradigms, approaches, strategies, data collection methods, data analysis procedures, along with the most frequently opted for sampling techniques. After that, we carried out a more precise and concise literature review, which specified, justified, and depicted the methodological framework under which our research study falls. Moreover, including this chapter, we tried to outline and elucidate the procedures and steps that were followed to collect and analyse data relevant to the problem that launched our research study.

In the following chapter, our focus of attention will rest on displaying, discussing, interpreting, summarising, and synthesising the results we obtained from the qualitative data with the goal of evaluating the extent to which the hypotheses we formulated, at the outset of our research study, are accurate and valid.

Chapter Four: Results and Data Analysis

Introduction

4.1 Results of the Study

4.1.1 The non- participant observation

4.1.2 The questionnaire

4.2 Discussion of the Findings

4.3 Synthesis of the Findings

Conclusion

Introduction

As the previous chapter particularised, rationalised, and described the methodological framework on which our research study rested, the present chapter aims to present the practical fieldwork and the analysis of the results we obtained from qualitative data. Furthermore, this chapter seeks out to reveal the evidence that supports our claims together with our interpretations. Therefore, for the sake of answering the projected research questions that guided our research work, this chapter aims to display, analyse, summarise, and interpret the data we gathered from the study we undertook to examine the effect of Learners' L1 interference on the occurrence of CS in an EFL class discourse. To achieve this goal, we opted for two qualitative data analysis procedures in order to communicate the information we gathered regarding our research problem. Finally, this chapter ends up with providing a summary and discussion of the main findings, implications, limitations of the study, in addition to some suggestions for further research.

4.1 Results of the Study

4.1.1 The non- participant observation. Based on the observational checklist we designed, we could observe and take notes with respect to the major points relevant to the problem we sought to investigate. We noticed that during class interaction, the instances of CS at the word, phrase, clause, and sentence level were all present. Additionally, we observed that the students applied this linguistic feature (CS) with their teachers, as well as with their peers. Besides, the language to which the students did frequently resort to, in addition to the English language, was the Arabic language. The total number of CS that had been turning out during class conversation in the selected groups (groups five and six) was about 198 to 245 instances respectively, used either for lesson or non-lesson intents and purposes.

Table 4.1

The Nature of Code-Switching employed in the EFL Class Discourse

Group	Item	Frequency	Percentage
06	Student-teacher CS	70	29%
	Student-student CS	175	71%
	total	245	100%
05	Student-teacher CS	40	20%
	Student-student CS	158	80%
	Total	198	100%

After the identification of the nature of CS that occurred in the two classes observed, it is axiomatically obvious that the students code-switched with both teachers and classmates when conversing during the class discussion. Besides, as it is eminently demonstrated in Table 4.1, the number of the total switches of the two groups varied markedly from one class to the other based not only on the students' English speaking proficiency level, but also based on other subsidiary linguistic reasons which required from them to immediately revert to the language that they could speak more accurately and fluently. Furthermore, it was found that the large occurrence of CS appeared most in the student-student interaction, not with the student-teacher interaction, in both of the two groups.

Table 4.2

The Frequently used Languages during the Class Discourse

Group	Item	Frequency	Percentage
06	Switching from English to Arabic	219	89%
	Switching from English to French	26	11%
	Switching to other language (s)	00	00%
	Total	245	100%
05	Switching from English to Arabic	155	78%
	Switching from English to French	43	22%
	Switching to other language (s)	00	00%
	Total	198	100%

Given the fact that the Algerian educational contexts are multilingual, we aimed to figure out the languages that were oftentimes employed in the students' talk during their class discussion. According to the observed groups, the most frequently used languages besides to the English language were the Arabic and French languages. Based on the notes that we took and based on the table above, the students, in both of the two groups, did recurrently employ their L1 since it was the language they mastered the most. In this sense, these students used the Arabic language to express their beliefs, assumptions, confusions, misunderstandings, and excitements. Apart from this, it had been pointed out that the students did frequently turn to their L1 as they qualified it as the first- aid device that might help them satisfy and fulfill their communication needs whenever a breakdown in communication occurred.

In addition to the Arabic language, a small minority of the observed groups used the French language for two different reasons. Taking into consideration group six, the students

used the French language because they did linguistically master it more than they did in the English language. Whereas, with reference to group five, we remarked that the students did resort to the French language not because of their linguistic incompetence towards the English language, but because they wanted to show the languages they master besides to the English language.

Table 4.3

The Patterns of Code-Switching Employed in the Class Discourse

Group	Item	Frequency	Percentage
06	Extra-sentential CS	110	45%
	Intra-sentential CS	90	37%
	Inter-sentential CS	45	18%
	Total	245	100%
05	Extra-sentential CS	98	49%
	Intra-sentential CS	75	38%
	Inter-sentential CS	25	13%
	Total	198	100%

According to Poplack's typology (1980), CS can be subdivided into three major types, namely extra-sentential CS, intra-sentential CS, and inter-sentential CS. Based on Poplack's three-pronged classification (1980), we attempted to integrate the different types of CS in our observational checklist and tried to investigate and examine the frequency of their occurrences in the students' talk. Actually, the students, in both of the two groups (Groups five and six), employed the three famous types of CS (i.e., extra-sentential, intra-sentential, and inter-sentential switching). Importantly, the most frequently used types of CS were the extra-

sentential and intra-sentential types. Thus, when aiming to engage in their class conversation, the students did revert to their L1 in order to insert some lexical items pertaining to it. Consequently, they resulted in uttering the first part of their utterances in one language (English) and the other in another language (Arabic). The students used this type of CS to give equivalents of utterances, expressions, and proverbs in an attempt to make the addressee attain as clearly as possible the message conveyed. Examples of intra-sentential CS might include: You should always be optimistic because ***/tôt ou tard, la vie te donnera ce que tu mérites; /Tu dois vivre avec tous que vous rendez positive et heureux*** because life is too short.

Additionally, extra-sentential switching (i.e., tag-switching), the switch from one language to another within one single clause, is another type of CS that was frequently used by both of the two groups observed. This pattern of CS was often used when the students inserted certain tag- elements (usually from their L1) in their utterances. Examples of these elements might include: **/*lazem*/**= obligatory, **/*jawab*/**= answer, **/*mithal*/**= such as, **/*hadi hiya*/**= that is it, **/*elkhalifa*/**= caliph. However, a small minority, i.e., 9% to 10%, (from groups five and six respectively), intended to incorporate some tag-elements by referring to the French language. A case in point, the students used: /***exactement/***= exactly, /***voilà/***= that is it, /***en particulier/***= particularly/in particular.

Besides, inter-sentential switching, the change of codes that occurs at the level of sentential boundaries, was the least frequently employed pattern of CS that was integrated in the students' speech. This type of CS was used to discuss certain topics related to the students' personal identities, assumptions, culture, traditions, and social belongings. Examples of this type of CS might include: *How do we say 'ambition' in Arabic? /**hna ngoulou tomoh/;** What do you think if we undertake presentations? /**Ndhon rah ykoun ahssen/; Personnellement, j'ai aucune idée.** What about you?*

Table 4.4

The Effect of Mother Tongue on the Occurrence of Code-Switching in an EFL Class

Group	Item	Frequency	Percentage
06	For emphasis or contrast	15	06%
	Because of cultural untranslatability	20	08%
	Because of L1interference	45	18%
	To express some notions that are better expressed in another language	100	41%
	Because of the inadequate vocabulary knowledge	65	27%
	Total	245	100%
05	For emphasis or contrast	24	12%
	Because of cultural untranslatability	45	23%
	Because of L1interference	98	49%
	To express some notions that are better expressed in another language	16	08%
	Because of the inadequate vocabulary knowledge	15	08%
	Total	198	100%

According to the data we collected, we noticed that the students' L1 played a vital role in guiding, shaping, and directing their oral performances. In fact, we remarked that the students, in both of the two groups, were conditioned to appeal to their L1 owing to certain compelling reasons and overwhelming linguistic circumstances that necessitated from them to behave as such. Firstly, when it comes to group six, the main reason for which the students switched to their L1 was to explain some specific lexical notions that the students themselves

felt that they were better expressed using other languages. This took place when two students presented a topic related to religious matters. Moreover, within the same group, the students were sometimes obliged to use their L1 due to their linguistic inadequacy to translate some words in English and their deficiency to find the appropriate equivalents to compensate for lexical gaps.

However, when it comes to group five, the students there referred to their L1 based on certain factors that were somehow different from the ones noted in group six. The fundamental reason for which these students employed their L1 could be traced back to that linguistic interference, be it positive or negative, which stemmed from their dominant language. This had been remarked when the students made structural errors and mistakes when they were speaking English, simply because they assumed that the Arabic language is syntactically similar to English. Then, the moment these students realised the structural and constructional dissimilarities between their L1 and the English language, they intended to immediately use Arabic, which is the language they were linguistically more acquainted with, to pursue delivering their oral messages. Furthermore, another reason that pushed the students to shift from the English language to the Arabic language was the cultural untranslatability between their L1 and English. That is, when the students could not conveniently find equivalent words in English, they had not had any choice, but their L1. In addition, we pointed out that the students, in both of the two groups, had the same language-basic problems that necessitated from them to switch to the Arabic language with an eye on hiding their speaking-related inaccuracies. Some examples of the students' language-related problems might include:

- The inadequate vocabulary knowledge that the students have towards English.
- The inefficiency to produce an accurate and a fluent oral discourse.

- The inability to pronounce and even to articulate certain English terms in the right way using the right accent, intonation, and stress.

Another remark that attracted our attention is that albeit having a good language speaking proficiency level, the students did intentionally make use of their L1 for the sake of having a greater emphasis and contrast on what was being communicated in the class. Besides, these students did purposefully resort to their L1 whenever they were in need of more elucidations about the different points pertinent to the objectives of the lesson. So, these students were, in certain circumstances, obliged to use the Arabic language as it expeditiously and unerringly served their pedagogical needs.

4.1.2 The questionnaire

Q1. As far as the languages that you can speak are concerned, how do you qualify yourself as a speaker?

Table 4.5

The Linguistic Status of the EFL Students

The response	Number of respondents	Percentage
Bilingual	17	53%
Multilingual	13	41%
monolingual	2	06%
Total	32	100%

The objective of the present question was to reveal whether or not the respondents were cognizant of their bilingualism/multilingualism. As it is displayed in the table above, 53% of the informants claimed to be bilingual speakers and 41% considered themselves as multilingual speakers. However, 06% of the respondents thought to be monolingual as they were not aware

of the fact that they are either bilingual or multilingual speakers since they are EFL students (i.e., although they did linguistically master their L1 and they aimed to learn another language besides to their L1, which is English, they considered themselves as monolingual speakers).

Q2. In an EFL class, what are the language (s) that you allow yourself to speak?

Table 4.6

The Languages spoken by the EFL Students in the Class

The response	Number of respondents	percentage
English	21	66%
Arabic	10	31%
French	1	3%
Total	32	100%

Adding this question, we wanted to figure out the language and/ or varieties (s) that the EFL students allowed themselves to speak in the content-based English classes. As expected, a good number of the informants, i.e., 66%, asserted that they could depend only on the English language during their classroom conversational tasks. On the other hand, out of 32 respondents, 31% answered that they did resort to the Arabic language (be it the Algerian Arabic or the classical one), in addition to the English language. Then, a small minority, that is 3% precisely, answered that they did shift to the French language when conversing since it was the language they mastered the most (more than the English language).

Q3. How do you evaluate your English speaking proficiency level?

Table 4.7

The Students' Speaking Proficiency Level

The response	Number of respondents	percentage
Good	18	56%
Average	10	31%
excellent	4	13%
Total	32	100%

Including this question, we aimed to conspicuously discover the students' speaking competence level vis-à-vis the English language. In fact, this question revealed varying answers that could possibly be ranked into three distinct categories depending on the level of the students' English speaking abilities. The sample majority, i.e., 56%, responded that their English speaking proficiency level is good. While 31% of the participants acknowledged that their English speaking competence level is neither good nor poor, but average. Addedly, only 13% of the informants responded that they are excellent (i.e., proficient) EFL speakers (communicators).

Q4. As an EFL student, what are the major difficulties that usually challenge you when speaking English in the class?

Table 4.8

The Students' Major English Speaking Difficulties

The response	Number of respondents	percentage
The inadequate mastery towards English	16	50%
Lack of attention and interest	05	16%
The unfamiliarity with the English culture	08	25%
Failure to perceive the input	3	09%
Total	32	100%

Asking this question, we aimed to discover the major problems that were usually encountered by the students while speaking English. The fundamental problem that 50% of the sample population faced when speaking English in the class was the incomplete linguistic mastery towards English. As one of the respondents claimed, "*My limited knowledge towards English is the central problem that does sometimes [hinder] my act of communication and [prohibit] me to start communicating once again".* Moreover, 16% of other informants responded that the lack of attention and interest was the major problem that usually challenged them when speaking English. As it is claimed by one of the respondents saying, "*Once the subject matter is out of my own interest, my attention will decrease, and consequently, I will not engage and deliver my voice".* Besides, 25% responded that the unfamiliarity with the English culture was the cardinal obstacle that they did experience while conversing using the English language. As one of the participants revealed, "*It is somehow difficult for me to engage in topics in relation to the English culture".* Aside from this, 09% of the respondents claimed that what often impeded them while communicating was the failure to properly perceive the input. As

one of the questioned students acknowledged, *"Communication becomes difficult for me as I cannot sometimes understand the exact topic that is [under-discussion]".*

Q5. Once you face a breakdown in communication, what cues do you usually look for to effectively deliver your oral messages?

Table 4.9

The Students' Ways of Solving Communication Breakdowns

The response	Number of respondents	percentage
I do directly switch to Arabic	16	50%
I employ some paralinguistic features	8	25%
I ask either my teacher or my peers to supply a word for me	8	25%
Total	32	100%

This question was asked with the goal of finding out the communicative strategy that the EFL students followed in order to recover or improve their speaking deficiencies. As it was the case of the previous questions, we could, likewise, group the completely different responses of this question into three subsets. The majority or 50% of the questioned students responded that they did directly or immediately switch to the Arabic language. Then, 25% of the sample answered that they employed some paralinguistic features in an attempt to deliver effectively their oral messages. The rest 25% of the respondents affirmed that when facing a communication stopgap, they ask either their teachers or fellow students to supply a word for them in order to help them deliver their speech.

Q6. How do you alternate codes while you are conversing?

Table 4.10

The Students' Awareness of the Strategy of CS

The response	Number of respondents	percentage
I do not know	16	50%
Subconsciously	09	28%
Consciously	07	22%
Total	32	100%

In response to this question, we aimed to extract information as regards to the speakers' awareness towards the functionality of CS. In other words, we wanted to recognise whether the informants alternate consciously or subconsciously to meet and, consequently, achieve their communication needs and purposes. As expected, a good number of the informants, that is 50% of the sample population, answered that they did not know (i.e., they were oblivious of how did the strategy of CS take place during their act of communication). Moreover, 28% of the sample asserted to code-switch subconsciously as they could not technically get rid of their L1 interference. However, 22% of the respondents affirmed to alternate consciously. This result may be interpreted according to the low-proficiency level with respect to the English language and the tendency to code-switch in an attempt to reach the peak to communicate effectively and to avoid making mistakes, particularly when speaking English in the class.

Q7. What do you do when you feel the need to switch to your L1?

Table 4.11

The Frequently used Patterns of CS during the Class Discourse

The responses	Number of respondents	Percentage
Extra-sentential CS	16	50%
Intra-sentential CS	05	16%
Inter-sentential CS	08	9%
All of them	03	25%
Total	32	100%

This question was asked in order to discover which pattern (s) of CS that was most frequently employed in the students' talk during class conversation. Half of the sample, that is 50% of the respondents, answered that they did only insert one lexical item related to their L1 into one utterance that is completely uttered in English (extra-sentential CS). Then, 15% of the informants answered that they did employ two codes, which are the Arabic and English languages, within one single English utterance (intra-sentential CS). However, a completely different answer was given by 9% of the sample who demonstrated that when they felt the need to code-switch, they started shifting from the English language to their L1 at the level of sentential boundaries (inter-sentential CS). That is, the different clauses related to their speech were uttered differently using various linguistic systems. Yet others, 25%, replied that when they were no longer able to supply their speech using the English language, they did result in shifting between different linguistic repertoires using all of the different patterns of CS (i.e., they used the extra-sentential, intra-sentential, as well as inter-sentential CS).

Q8. With whom do you code-switch most during class conversation?

Table 4.12

The Classroom Partners with whom the Students code-switch most

The response	Number of respondents	percentage
With fellow students	12	38%
With teachers	1	3%
Both of them	19	59%
Total	32	100%

Asking this question, we aimed to identify with whom the students switched codes during class communication. Thirty-eight percent of the respondents answered that they did often code-switch with their fellow students. Besides, only 03% revealed that they did usually alternate codes with their teachers. Lastly, for more than half of the sample population, that is 59%, replied that they did usually code-switch with both of their teachers and fellow students.

Q9. Specify the reasons that make you alternate codes during class discussion?

Table 4.13

Reasons of Alternating Codes during Class Discussion

The response	Number of respondents	percentage
Notions are better expressed in other codes	07	22%
Because of mother tongue interference	16	50%
Because of cultural untranslatability	04	13%
To insist and emphasise a specific message	03	09%
To facilitate speech	02	06%
Total	32	100%

This question sought to figure out the specific reasons that might potentially make the EFL students alternate codes while conversing. Answering this question, the respondents provided varying views related to the different factors that pushed them to switch codes during the class discussion. The fundamental reason for which 22% of the sample code-switched could be attributed to expressing some notions that the students themselves felt that they were better expressed using other languages. Besides, a good number, which is 50%, of the questioned students pinpointed that what caused language-switching in their talk could be associated to that overpowering linguistic interference which derived from their L1. As claimed by one of the questioned students who declared, "*As an EFL student, I cannot [overnight] get rid of the language that I have acquired first right after my birth. This language does have a significant effect that controls and guides my linguistic performances whenever I am speaking a SL/ FL".* Furthermore, 13% of the respondents replied that they code-switched when they could not translate a certain word into English and could not, accordingly, find equivalent items in order to compensate for lexical gaps. In addition, 19% responded that they alternated codes during the class discussion with a focus on insisting and emphasising a specific message they endeavour to communicate. Yet others, 6% of the respondents, answered that they shifted codes in order to facilitate speech in a way that might make the addressee attain maximally the most out of the intended meaning as it was initially designed.

Q10. In your opinion, what functions may language-switching offer whilst speaking a FL?

Table 4.14

The Main Functions offered by CS

The response	Number of respondents	Percentage
To reiterate what was said in another way	16	50%
To hold the floor and continue speaking for a longer period of time	10	31%
To emphasise and have a greater emphasis on what is being communicated	06	19%
Total	32	100%

In response to this question, we sought to obtain information that might concretely and pointedly expound the major communicative purposes (functions) for which the students shifted from the target language (English language) to their parent language (Arabic language). Half of the sample population, i.e., 50%, declared that the most significant communicative function that they profited from the strategy of CS rested on restating or reiterating what was exactly said in a simpler and straightforward manner. Furthermore, 31% of the participants expressed their appreciation towards the technique of CS as they considered it as a means that gave them the opportunity to hold the floor and continue speaking for a longer period. Other informants, 19% of the sample, answered that the purpose for which they alternated codes when partaking in their class conversational tasks lied on offering a greater insistence and assertion on what they intended to communicatively deliver.

Q11. How often do you resort to your mother tongue while speaking English in the class?

Table 4.15

The Students' Frequency of Employing their L1 during Class Conversation

The response	Number of respondents	Percentage
Sometimes	17	53%
Rarely	13	41%
Always	01	3%
usually	01	3%
Total	32	100%

This question required from the informants to precisely state how many times they reverted to their L1 while speaking English in the class. Indeed, the majority of the informants, that is 53%, responded that they did sometimes employ their L1 during class discourse depending on certain communicative reasons and circumstances that typically required from them to behave as such. Additionally, as unexpected, 41% asserted that they did rarely shift to their L1. Then, 3% affirmed that they always resorted to their L1 when speaking English. Addedly, the same number of the questioned students, that is 3% of the sample, acknowledged that they were, to some extent, linguistically incapable to carry out their speech using the English language only. It is why, they did usually turn to their dominant language with the goal of maintaining a successive flow/continuity in their communication process.

Q12. What are the linguistic levels that are usually affected by your mother tongue (L1) interference?

Table 4.16

The Linguistic Levels that are usually affected by the Students' L1 Interference

The response	Number of respondents	Percentage
Syntax	14	44%
Semantics	08	25%
Morphology	08	25%
Phonology	02	6%
Total	32	100%

In response to this question, we aimed at figuring out the linguistic aspects/levels that were typically affected by the students' L1 interference when speaking English. Forty-four percent of the informants answered that when speaking English, their speech was usually affected at the level of syntax (i.e., structure). Moreover, out of 32 participants, 25% responded that the linguistic level that was usually impacted by their L1 interference when speaking English was the semantic level (i.e., meaning). Besides, 25% of the sample answered that their L1 interference did oftentimes affect them, particularly once they tried to build structural morphemes (i.e., morphology). On the other hand, a completely different response was given by 6% of the sample who answered that their L1 interference did usually affect the way they accent, intonate, and stress words (i.e., phonology).

Q13. In which topic (s) do you feel the need to switch to your L1?

Table 4.17

The Major Topics in which Students feel the Need to Switch to their L1

The response	Number of respondents	Percentage
Religious topics	14	44%
Social topics	05	16%
English history and culture	10	31%
Psychological topics	03	09%
Total	32	100%

In fact, this question was included since we noticed that there were certain topics which stipulated significantly the selection and employment of one code rather than another. Therefore, in an attempt to explicitly reveal to what extent certain topics may affect the switching to the students' L1, the informants were asked if the integration of the strategy of CS depended heavily on the type of the topics they treated. Indeed, 44% of the participants affirmed that when engaging in religious topics, they did usually shift to their L1. Furthermore, 16% of the sample replied that when speaking about topics in which social issues were the focal point of discussion, they employed some lexical items peculiar to their L1. Then, 31% asserted that when dealing with topics related to English history and culture, they could not rely solely on the English language. It is why, they resorted to their L1 in order to keep being engaged in their conversational tasks. However, 9% of the sample declared that when speaking about topics ascribed to psychology, they usually resulted in shifting to their L1.

Q14. How do you consider the strategy of shifting from English to your L1?

Table 4.18

The Students' Evaluation of Shifting to their L1

The response	Number of respondents	Percentage
A productive communicative strategy	17	53%
A detrimental communicative strategy	15	47%
Total	32	100%

Asking this question, we aimed to assess the students' views as regards to the phenomenon of CS as a conversational technique in pedagogical settings. Actually, since this question was opinion-based, we could classify the responses we obtained into twofold controversial answers. More than half of the informants, that is 53%, showed their positive implications towards the practicality of CS, and consequently, called for its integration in EFL classes. This proportion of students qualified CS as a productive communication strategy that facilitated speech and fostered classroom instruction, interaction, and participation. Whereas, contrary to our expectations, 47% of the sample showed their negative implications towards the incorporation of CS in EFL classes. This category of students considered the phenomenon of CS as a detrimental strategy that impeded more than it constructed a progressive process of learning. For this reason, these students revealed that CS might apparently seem to be productive, but in the depths, it was not as such since it demonstrated a lack of an underlying competence in the target language.

Q15. According to you, what are the main causes that make you employ specifically your L1 when speaking English in the class?

Table 4.19

The Main Causes that necessitate employing specifically the Students' L1 during Class Discussion

The response	Number of respondents	Percentage
Because of certain similarities between Arabic and English languages	12	38%
Because of those conflicting patterns within the structure of the English language	11	34%
Because of the problem of overgeneralisation	06	19%
Because of the teaching process in itself that induces language-related mistakes and errors	03	09%
Total	32	100%

The same question asked in question nine, but the present is rather related mainly to the reasons that lead specifically to employing the students' L1 during the class discussion. Thirty-eight percent of the sample answered that because of certain coexisting interplays between their L1 and the English language, they tended to code-switch. Moreover, 34% of the respondents claimed that the major reason behind resorting to their L1 could be associated to the existence of those conflicting patterns within the structure of the English language. As one of the informants wrote, *"While I am speaking English, I do sometimes [make mistakes and commit errors] since I have not thoroughly learned the necessary language structure related to English. It is for this reason that I do refer back to my native language to ensure a [successive continuity] in my talk".* Then, out of 32 informants, 19% declared that it was the problem of overgeneralisation that made them employ specifically their L1. As it was claimed by one of

the questioned students who affirmed, *"When I learn a particular rule related to one context, I tend to keep [enlarging] and using this rule thinking that it suits all the contexts. The moment I realise that this rule can no longer be [applicable], I will have no choice, [but resorting] to my L1".* However, contrary to our expectations, 09% of the sample population answered that they were sometimes obliged to switch to their L1 due to the teaching process in itself that induced language-related mistakes and errors. As one of the respondents declared, *"When the teacher herself has a limited knowledge towards English, we become consequently unable to develop our oral and written performances. Therefore, we tend to make use of our L1 which we master the most".*

Q16. Who usually corrects you once you are linguistically affected by your L1 interference while speaking English?

Table 4.20

The Correction of the Speaking Problems caused by the Students' L1 Interference

The response	Number of respondents	percentage
The teacher	16	50%
My fellow classmates	13	41%
The classroom activities	3	09%
Total	32	100%

We asked this kind of questions for the sake of realising the classroom partners (teachers or students) that did usually intervene to solve the linguistic problems where the students' L1 interference is the central component. Fifty percent of the respondents who answered the questionnaire replied that when they were linguistically affected by their L1, their teachers often corrected them. As opposed to this, about 40% of the informants responded that they were,

most of the time, corrected by their fellow students (this is what we mainly noticed while we were conducting our classroom observation). However, only 10% of the sample replied that when their L1 transfer communicatively affected them, they were usually corrected by those classroom activities that the teachers did intentionally select and design in an attempt to boost the students' English speaking proficiency level.

Q17. How does your teacher behave when you resort to your L1 during class communication?

Table 4.21

The Teachers' Feedback towards the Technique of Code-Switching

The response	Number of respondents	Percentage
S/he stops me and asks me to rehears what I have said in English	14	44%
My teacher provides me with hints so as to continue speaking in English	10	31%
My teacher keeps asking me questions to show that there is something unclear	08	25%
Total	32	100%

This question was asked for the sake of elucidating the different attitudinal dimensions that the teachers might have towards the strategy of CS. When asking our informants about how did their teachers behave when they reverted to their L1, 44% replied that their teachers did usually stop them when employing their L1 (Arabic language) and ask them to rehearse what they said in English. Then, 31% asserted that when they turned to their L1, their teachers did usually provide them with hints to keep using the English language. However, 25%

responded that their teachers keep asking them questions to show that there is something unclear.

Q18. If you would like to add any additional remarks or comments with respect to the effect of L1 interference on the occurrence of CS, please express them below.

This questionnaire item was included as an extra space where the questioned students could provide us with their remarks, comments, or any further recommendations with regard to our research investigation. Most of the respondents expressed the necessity of employing their L1 in the content-based English classes, especially when their linguistic knowledge (mastery) towards English is not yet adequate. In this respect, one student talked about the usefulness of one's L1 and suggested that when the EFL students could not effectively encode and decode oral messages using the English language, they should not hesitate in adopting some lexical items related to their L1 in order to manage L2 speaking deficiencies/intricacies.

Another notification given by another student attracted our attention. It revealed, *"It is better to take into consideration that the more [students speak] about topics in relation to their culture, the more they will shift to their native language, which is the Arabic language".* However, another student upheld the view that "*EFL students should reduce speaking in Arabic in the class [...] and if they found themselves stuck, they should breath, calm down, and try to [take time] to think because they are not in a hurry to finish saying [what they want to say]".*

4.2 Discussion of the Findings

The present research study sought to examine "The Effect of Mother Tongue Interference on the Occurrence of CS in an EFL Class". In precise terms, our study focused mainly on the role that the students' L1 plays on triggering the strategy of CS during class communication. Furthermore, throughout our investigation, we aimed at figuring out the motivational reason (s) that stimulated L1 interference when speaking English. Additionally,

we attempted to discover the communicative functions that language-switching might offer its appliers while speaking a FL (English). Finally, we tried to explicitly uncover what can be yielded, as ultimate outcomes, from the frequent use of language-switching during the class conversation.

Opting for two data-gathering instruments, we collected data relevant to our research study and analysed them using two different qualitative data analysis procedures in an attempt to reach inferences and conclusions that report and support positive results. During the course of scrutinising the effect of the students' L1interference on the occurrence of CS, we decided to covertly be non-participant observers to collect the necessary information relevant to our research study. With this in view, we designed an observation checklist (See appendix 03) that entailed the major focal points to be observed in the class. Accordingly, we noticed that whenever a shift between codes occurred, the Arabic language became the first and principal operative substitute that the students resorted to since they were Arabic native speakers, who did master the Arabic language in all of its linguistic aspects (phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics) more than they did in the English language. Furthermore, we found that the nature of CS that took place in both of the two groups observed entailed more student-student interaction than student-teacher interaction. Besides, when it comes to the frequently used patterns of CS that were oftentimes employed, particularly in the students' talk, we noticed that the extra-sentential and intra-sentential types of CS were frequently used by the students when engaging in certain class communicative tasks.

Moreover, it had been pointed out that the majority of the students shifted from the English language to their dominant language (sometimes to French) due to certain overpowering linguistic factors that urged them to immediately change the language they were using and use instead another code and/or variety that they were linguistically more acquainted with. The

findings revealed that the fundamental factors that made L1 interference trigger the occurrence of CS are:

- The lexical items that come first to mind.
- The inadequate vocabulary knowledge.
- The incompetence to formulate correct grammatical utterances in English.
- The failure to perceive the semantic aspect of certain expressions.
- The notions that are better expressed in another language.
- Adding more emphasis and contrast (to reinforce or reject what has been already said).
- Conveying humor and irony.
- Smoothening the negative connotations of a given utterance.
- Cultural untranslatability.

These key findings go in accordance with what had been already consulted and particularised in the literature of Chapter One as the reasons that stipulate mandatorily the occurrences language-switching in EFL classes (Rios & Campos, 2013).

After conducting the classroom observation, we forwarded electronically an online questionnaire to 32 students of the third year in an attempt to carry on answering the central questions that started our research study. As the analysis of the students' questionnaire revealed, undertaking class discussion was quite important in the development of the students' speaking proficiency level. Besides, the majority of the questioned respondents asserted that they could not all the time keep using the English language to effectively deliver their oral messages, as they were communicatively conditioned to switch to their L1.

Moreover, the questioned students provided a multiplicity of reasons that might potentially result in stimulating the functionality of CS. Nonetheless, most of the informants

concurred that the underlying reason behind the occurrence of CS could be traced back to that compelling linguistic interference emanating from their L1. In addition to what was brought by our observational data as the reasons that do trigger the occurrence of CS in an EFL class discourse, the questioned students determined that the fundamental reasons that made particularly their L1 interference prompt the occurrences of language-switching could be attributed to other linguistic factors which are:

- The similarities between the Arabic and English languages.
- The existence of some conflicting patterns within the structure of the English language.
- The problem of overgeneralisation.
- The teaching process in itself that induces language-related mistakes and errors.

In a similar fashion, an already existing body of research (Chapter Two) underlined the fountainhead that caused the error commitment, especially in FL learning. Similar to what was presented in the abovementioned account of the latter, the central linguistic factors that might create certain language-related nuisances might spring from more than one major source, such as language transfer (also called L1 interference), intraference, overgeneralisation, and also, they may germinate from the teaching process in itself (Sàrosdy et al., 2006).

Furthermore, in line with what was obtained from the classroom observation, bridging the lexical gaps, expressing some notions that were better expressed in one's dominant language, cultural untranslatability, and showing more insistence and emphasis on what was being said represented the other subsidiary linguistic factors for which the EFL students shifted codes (not necessarily employing their' L1) when discussing.

In response to the major functions that might possibly be offered by the strategy of CS, the respondents declared that through shifting to their L1, they were likely to have the chance to restate or reiterate what they said in another way, hold the floor and continue speaking for a

prolonged period, and greatly insist on what was being communicated. These findings reported and adhered partially what was established earlier in the literature (Chapter One) by Elridge (1996) who sustains that the functions of the students' CS can be typified in terms of equivalence, floor-holding, metalanguage, reiteration, group membership, conflict control, and alignment/disalignment.

As far as the last research question is concerned, we sought to deeply comprehend the results that could arise out of the constant integration of CS in the class discourse. Answering this question, we could rely on the students' views with regard to the strategy of CS to clearly and succinctly understand the ultimate outcomes that might arise out of the frequent use of CS in EFL classes. As the questioned students qualified the phenomenon of CS as a double-edged sword, we could, accordingly, group their standpoints into two contradictory categories, i.e., those who viewed CS as an efficacious and a constructive communication strategy and those who considered it as a devastating and an unproductive technique whose use might hamper the learnability of other languages besides to one's L1.

Proponents of CS approved its crucialness in their communication acts and, consequently, called for its incorporation in EFL classes since it resulted in facilitating their speech and fostering their reciprocal interaction and involvement in the class. This plausible outcome can be pursued simultaneously with what was established in the literature (Chapter One) by those who upheld the view that the phenomenon of CS might possibly conduce in creating some provisional optimisations that might ease and foster the students' gradual oral performances in the course of studying a FL (Ellis, 1996; Modupeola, 2013; Simasiku, Kasanda & Smit, 2015).

Nevertheless, opponents of CS stressed its uselessness and unsuccessfulness in EFL classes for the reason that it obstructed the progress of their speaking proficiency level. By the

same token, an already existing body of literature (Chapter One) presented a comprehensive explanation as regards to the negative impact of CS on FL teaching and learning. In this connection, it can be said that the strategy of CS might be interpreted as a linguistic deficit whose practicality in language classes might leave the students with a poor linguistic knowledge towards the target language (English) (Elridge, 1996; Modupeola, 2013; Rathert, 2012).

Furthermore, the last questionnaire item was included as an extra space where the students could provide comments, remarks, and any further recommendations in relation to our research problem. Most of the respondents acknowledged that they were communicatively affected by their L1 interference, be it positive or negative, when speaking English during their class discussion. Besides, these respondents stated that when such a communication effect happened, usually a shift between two codes (From the English language to the Arabic language) would take place. Half of the sample expressed the necessity of using their L1 as they considered it as a chief mechanism that helped them to effectively and speedily deliver their oral messages and, consequently, address their class communicative needs. However, the other half considered L1 interference as a marker of a linguistic deficit that might negatively impact their speaking progresses and performances.

4.3 Synthesis of the Findings

Including this section, we aimed to reiterate and synthesise the major findings and conclusions we extracted from the present research work. As aforementioned, this study is an attempt seeking to examine the effect of learners' L1 interference on the occurrence of CS in an EFL class. Throughout our investigation, we tried to explore the main reasons that might possibly lead to stimulating language-switching in EFL classes. Furthermore, we sought to figure out the main linguistic intents and purposes for which the students shifted from the target language (English language) to another language that they were structurally more familiar with

(Arabic language). Lastly, we aimed to discover what could be yielded from the frequent use of CS in EFL classes.

In order to collect helpful insights as regards to our research problem, we conducted primarily a classroom observation in an attempt to examine the phenomenon of CS and discover the fundamental reason (s) behind its occurrence in EFL classes. Besides, since we wanted to discover the basic factor (s) that might cause the functionality of CS during classroom conversational tasks, we designed an unstructured questionnaire that was mailed to the targeted sample with the intention of gaining a clear basis and a thorough understanding of the most significant reasons that might stipulate language-switching on the part of the students while engaging in their class oral discourse.

Throughout our observation to the students in their Oral Expression's sessions, we realised that CS, the phenomenon of alternating between two or more languages or varieties, was largely practised by the students whenever they expected a breakdown in communication would take place. More importantly, we noticed that the fundamental reason for which the majority of the students code-switched was that overwhelming linguistic interference which proceeded from their L1. It is why, Arabic was the central language that they resorted to as it was their native language that they were predominantly exposed to other than the English language.

Besides, it had been pinpointed that the students, whose speaking proficiency level was not yet adequately developed, resorted to their L1 owing to other supplementary linguistic constraints in tandem with their L1 interference. These linguistic hindrances could be peculiar to their inability to pronounce properly some lexical items related to the English language, their limited vocabulary knowledge, their incompetence to construct well-formed syntactical

utterances in English, and their failure/disqualification to accurately discern the semantic aspect of certain English expressions.

Moreover, we remarked that the incorporating the technique of CS was not necessarily linked to how proficient or fluent the students were in speaking English, nor it was deemed an indicator of a linguistic deficit. From this perspective, some students did sometimes shift purposefully to their L1 in order to express some notions that they felt that they were better expressed in the Arabic language. Aside from this, it had been found that the students turned to their L1 in order to strengthen and even reject particular viewpoints pertinent to the topics they treated.

In addition to the classroom observation, we administered an open-ended questionnaire to the students in an attempt to cross-check the obtained observational data. Based on the students' responses, we concluded that the technique of CS was an unavoidable sociolinguistic strategy that did have its marked signification in EFL classes, especially on the part of the students' oral production. Indeed, we recognised that the motivational factor that necessarily stimulated functionality of language-switching was again that irresistible linguistic interference that germinated from the students' L1. Based on the students' responses, the occurrence of such a linguistic interference might germinate owing to certain impediments, which might entail the similarities between the Arabic and English languages, the coexistence of some conflicting patterns within the structure of the English language, overgeneralising the linguistic rules to other inappropriate contexts where they should not be applied, and also, it might originate from the teaching process in itself that might induce language-related problems.

Again, the occurrence of CS in the students' talk (not necessarily employing their L1) could be traced back to other subsidiary linguistic reasons, in addition to the students' L1 interference. This might include the students' inadequate linguistic competence towards

English, cultural untranslatability (or the inability to find equivalent words from Arabic to English), or failure to understand the meaning of certain expressions. Irrespective of this, we found that albeit having a good English speaking proficiency level, the students did intentionally shift to Arabic language to convey humour and irony, smoothen the negative connotations of certain expressions, and emphasise and highlight the semantic significance of certain utterances.

As far as the functions that might be offered by the strategy of CS are concerned, the respondents answered that through shifting to their L1, they may have the chance to reformulate what they said in another way, hold the floor and continue speaking for a longer period, and have a greater insistence and assertion on what was being communicated.

Considering the last research question, the incorporation of the technique of CS in EFL classes might be looked at from two divergent horizons. In this sense, CS could be considered as a productive communication strategy that might have the advantage of easing and fostering the students' speech and mutual interactions during class conversation. Nevertheless, as a conversational strategy, CS could be seen as a detrimental communication practice whose overuse might hamper the progressive development of the students' speaking competence.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the practical part related to our investigation. That is, it displayed, analysed, and interpreted profoundly the qualitative data we obtained by means of the two data collection instruments, namely the classroom observation and the student's questionnaire, that were used to gather the necessary information with respect to our research problem. In this regard, the descriptive method was employed to make sense of the observational data; whereas, the Content-based analysis was integrated to communicate and systematically analyse the questionnaire data. Finally, this chapter aimed at confirming and validating the working hypotheses that we formulated at the outset of our research study as

tentative answers to the questions that launched our investigation. This chapter supported the claims that were initially formulated and reported positive results.

General Conclusion

This study was inspired by our observation that the third year students' oral performances were rather unsatisfactory and unreflective as regards to the oral skill expected at their level. This is precisely why they tended to alternatively make use of various combinations including different languages, such as the Arabic language, the French language, and even other forms of dialects and styles ascribed to their L1. In the light of the forgoing considerations, a detailed literature, which supplied a relevant theoretical foundation, was reviewed. Accordingly, and in reliance on what had been theoretically presented, we could predict some tentative answers in response to the projected questions that initiated our research study.

The bulk of this study aimed to find out information that would help in deciphering the questions that started our investigation. Considerably, we tried first to find out the underlying reasons that did functionally stipulate the occurrences of CS in EFL classes (i.e., examining whether or not the students' L1 interference did have its own signification and magnitude in prompting language-switching at the level of the students' talk). Second, we intended to identify the patterns of CS that were oftentimes employed by the students during their class discourse. Third, we sought to detect the communicative purposes for which the students alternated between diverse linguistic repertoires. Finally, we attempted to bring to light the linguistic results oriented from CS as a conversational strategy amongst EFL classes.

The aforementioned research questions were accordingly accompanied by four main hypotheses working as tentative answers to the study's central problem. Firstly, it was predicted that the overriding factor behind that triggered language-switching was peculiar to that compelling linguistic interference originating from the students' L1. Secondly, it was

hypothesised that the students' class interaction encompassed most frequently the extra-sentential and intra-sentential patterns of CS. Thirdly, it was assumed that keeping or guarding a successive flow when communicating and continuing speaking for a more prolonged period represented the communicative purposes for which the students shifted codes during the class discourse. Finally, yet importantly, it was expected that, as a communicative technique, CS could be seen as a productive and, synchronously, as a detrimental strategy as far as the students' communication process is concerned. Having said this, the students might guarantee that they would not be blocked by any communication barriers when they code-switched; however, they could not assure whether or not their speaking competence is progressively developing.

Methodologically, in order to investigate the abovementioned research problem and scrutinise the corresponding research hypotheses as systematically and credibly as possible, a qualitative research approach was implemented as it suited ideally the purpose of our investigation, which was principally concerned with a subjective assessment of perceptions, attitudes, opinions, and behaviours. Moreover, based on the nature of this study, which was purely qualitative, a case study strategy was adopted as a research design with the goal of obtaining an extensive, a holistic, and an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under-examination. With reference to the questions and objectives that directed our research study, two qualitative tools of inquiry, namely the observation and the unstructured questionnaire were used as data collection methods. To clarify, the observation was the first data collection instrument designed to gather first-hand information by observing the assigned sample (the third year students) at a research site. By means of observing the targeted sample, we intended to examine the coexistence of CS and understand the role that L1 interference played in stimulating its occurrence in an EFL class discourse. Then, our observation was supplemented with an unstructured questionnaire with the goal of granting the sample selected the opportunity to

provide their personal experiences on the problem under-inquiry. The student's questionnaire aimed to collect and cross-check the data we obtained from the classroom observation, which was about the effect of L1 interference on the occurrence of language-switching in an EFL class discourse.

In order to analyse the raw data, we opted for two qualitative data analysis procedures to examine and assess the information we collected with respect to our research problem. In this regard, we relied on the descriptive method as a procedure to analyse the field-notes generated from the classroom observation. Therefore, with the intention of organising the preliminary data into increasingly more abstract units of information, we followed the "Bottom Up technique" as proposed by Creswell (2012). The latter was employed in the context of this research since it is inductive in its essence, and also, since it could provide us with a tool to narrow the voluminous information we gathered. However, the Content-based analysis was the procedure we applied to analyse the information obtained from the students' questionnaire. Following the premises of the Content-based analysis, we could define the units of meaning that should be coded and organise them into concepts based on a certain set of rules for coding (mainly colour coding). Then, we went through each response and recorded all relevant data in the appropriate categories and tried to examine the relevant data in order to find patterns and draw on inferences and conclusions in response to our research questions.

Since we aimed to cross-check the extent to which the obtained observational data were accurate, reliable, and credible, an open-ended questionnaire was supplemented. Depending on our cross-verification, we could validate the research results based on the commonalities between the two instruments of inquiry that were opted for. In the light of this, it was found that the motivational factor that caused the occurrence of CS in the students' talk during class interaction was that irresistible linguistic interference that germinated from their L1.

Additionally, it was figured out that the linguistic hindrances that could possibly oblige the students to shift, particularly to their L1, might be attributed to the similarities between the Arabic and English languages, facing certain conflicting patterns within the structure of the English language, overgeneralising the linguistic rules to inappropriate contexts where they should not be applied, and also, they could be ascribed to the teaching process per se that might induce language-related problems. Additionally, it was revealed that the general causes that necessitated from the students to shift codes (employing different languages, not necessarily their L1) might entail their inability to properly pronounce some lexical items related to the English language, their limited vocabulary knowledge, their incompetence to construct well-formed syntactical utterances in English, and their failure to accurately and precisely perceive the semantic aspect of certain linguistic expressions.

Moreover, it was revealed that the strategy of CS was not necessarily related to how proficient and fluent the students were in speaking English, nor it was deemed as a sign of a linguistic deficit. In this respect, it was proved that albeit having a good English speaking proficiency level, the students did intentionally shift to the Arabic language for the sake of having the opportunity to rephrase what they said exactly in a simpler and straightforward manner, hold the floor and continue speaking for a longer period, and have a greater insistence on what was being communicated. Last but not least, it was concluded that the phenomenon of CS could be regarded as a productive communication strategy that might have the advantage of easing and fostering the students' speech and mutual interaction. Concurrently, it could be considered as a detrimental communication practice whose overuse might hamper the gradual development of the students' speaking competence.

Implications and Recommendations

Throughout this section, a set of implications and suggestions will be dedicated with a focus on presenting some operative substitutes that may potentially lessen the linguistic reason (s) that plays a significant part in provoking the occurrence of CS in EFL classes at Biskra University, which is L1 interference. Inspired by the attained research results and the impressions of the targeted sample (the third year EFL students) regarding the issue of interest, a number of implications and recommendations for both language teachers and learners can be listed below.

- Adopting more practical methods of teaching that prioritise the use of the English language over any other language students can speak is recommended. Towards that end, the instructional process should be based on the Communicative Language Learning (CLL) since it gives a primacy to produce competent language communicators.
- Vocabulary and grammar teaching should be emphasised in the teacher's instructional process in order to enable learners realise the syntactical and semantic eccentricities and dissimilarities between the English language and their L1.
- Teachers must expand the amount of vocabulary with the goal of strengthening the way learners grasp the meaning along with the correct and appropriate word usage.
- It is essential on the part of language teachers to implement certain modern technologies that maximise the learners' use of the English language during class interaction. In this connection, teachers might resort to employing audio-visual aids/means when teaching and training learners to speak not any language, but English.
- It would be necessary to plan and organise workshops that attempt to systematically identify the phonological, morphological, syntactical, and semantic analogies and discrepancies between the English and Arabic languages in order to help learners

minimise the mistakes and errors they used to make and commit due to their L1 negative transfer.

- Aside from extracting linguistically the convergences and divergences between the English language and learners' L1, teachers should, then, highlight the sociocultural contrast between these two languages with the intention of promoting learners' cross-cultural and interactional competence.
- Learners should develop the capacity of collocations, employ correct and appropriate words according to the occasion they are on, and they should improve the fluency together with the accuracy of their expressions.
- Learners can apply certain word-remembering skills, such as using word-cards or notebooks, and write down the items they should retrieve and, then, take them to see as many words as possible.
- Activities such as presentations, role-plays, interviews, problem-solving, and field-visits must be parts and parcels of teaching the speaking skill of the English language as they would have their signification in making language learners get accustomed to speak the English language fluently and eloquently.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

Despite having answered certain research questions that were rather underemphasised and underinvestigated, this research study confronted a number of limitations. Firstly, since the qualitative approach was adopted in this study, generalising the research findings was inappropriate and unfeasible as there was only a limited number of participants who participated in this study (Dawson, 2007; Dörnyei, 2007; Creswell, 2014). Moreover, identifying the sex of the participants could not be accessibly approachable since the idea of gender was no longer considered throughout the whole study. Having said this, it was relatively challenging to

appoint the females' participations from males' participations. In the future, a more comprehensive research into the occurrence of the phenomenon of CS at Biskra University classes should be conducted, that not only embodies more participants, but also, and most importantly, takes into consideration the conception of gender for the sake of determining if it has a key role in the simultaneity of CS at the level of the students' talk.

Another constraint faced by this study was the observation's time span. The assigned sample was observed for a period of two weeks in order to examine the occurrence of CS, uncover whether or not the students' L1 interference does impact their communication performances and, consequently, requires from them to shift from English to Arabic during the class discourse, and identify what can be yielded as results from the employment of CS in FL classes. However, it would be more appropriate if the sample selected was observed for an extended period in order to enhance the credibility and reliability of the research results (Creswell, 2014).

Additionally, since the main purpose of this study sought to scrutinise the strategy of CS as a linguistic aspect, paralinguistic features, such as body language and gestures were excluded since they were not the focal point of this research study. Thus, it was realised that the exclusion of non-linguistic interactions from linguistic studies is deemed inappropriate, simply because the human language encompasses both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects, let alone at a sociocultural dimension because culture can specify and gauge meanings behind the kinesic language (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015).

Finally, this investigation examined the effect of the students' L1 interference on the occurrence of CS in an EFL class. The results determined and ascertained that the underlying stimulus that stipulated necessarily switching codes during the class interaction was that irresistible linguistic transfer that germinated from the students' original language. Despite

everything, no attempt was done to explicitly identify the reasons, as well as the communicative functions for which the EFL teachers at Biskra University switched codes. This limitation can be ascribed to certain compelling circumstances which stopped us from approaching teachers and interviewing them to reach their answers apropos of the problem under-examination. Therefore, it is suggested that future research should address the phenomenon of CS taking into account the linguistic factors and the communicative functions that necessitate from the EFL teachers at Biskra University to alternate from the English language to their L1 during their class interaction.

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Appendices

Appendix 01: Consent Letter for the Head of the Section of English

Dear head of the English section,

This is hereby to inform you that I am currently conducting my MA dissertation, entitled, "An Examination into the Effect of Learners' Mother Tongue Interference on the Occurrence of Code-Switching (CS) in an English as a Foreign Language Class". Accordingly, you are cordially being requested to get involved in this research synthesis in order to assist me with your participation, as well as your cooperation.

Indeed, I am looking forward to seeing your stamp of approval so that I can start gathering the significant information to accomplish the practical part related to my study. Within this time frame, I will be undertaking a classroom observation on the third year EFL majors for the sake of examining the motivational factors that do trigger the functionality of CS during the class discourse. Subsequently, I will be administering a questionnaire to the students in an attempt to comprehend the reasons that prompt the occurrence of the abovementioned problem.

Please, be certain that there are no anticipated risks or discomforts associated to this scientific investigation and that the students' personally identifiable information will trustworthily be kept confidential, private, and anonymous. Moreover, I would like to inform you that your participation in this research work is entirely voluntary. Therefore, it would be a great pleasure if you choose to participate in my study. Again, stay informed that your participation agreement can be withdrawn at any time for any reason.

If you decide to partake in this research project, please sign the attached consent format. Your assistance and coordination will be enormously appreciated.

In case you would like to require any additional information in respect to this research study, you may contact the researcher.

Yours respectfully,

Researcher Contact Details:

Kenza Saou

E-mail: kenzasaou2020@gmail.com

Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Section of English

I have read and clearly understood the researcher's request. I consent to the participation of the third year students at the section of English in the research project being undertaken by SAOU Kenza.

Name: .....

E-mail: .....

University: .....

Faculty: .....

Department: .....

Section: .....

Date: .....

Signature: .....

Appendix 02: Consent Letter for the Head of the Department of English
Informed Consent

Dear head of the English Department,

This is hereby to inform you that I am currently conducting my MA dissertation, entitled, "An Examination into the Effect of Learners' Mother Tongue Interference on the Occurrence of Code-Switching (CS) in an English as a Foreign Language Class (EFL)". Accordingly, you are cordially being requested to get involved in this research synthesis in order to assist me with your participation, as well as your cooperation.

Indeed, I am looking forward to seeing your stamp of approval so that I can start gathering the significant information to accomplish the practical part related to my study. Within this time frame, I will be undertaking a classroom observation on the third year EFL majors for the sake of examining the motivational factors that do trigger the functionality of CS during the class discourse. Subsequently, I will be administering a questionnaire to the students in an attempt to comprehend the reasons that prompt the occurrence of the abovementioned problem.

Please, be certain that there are no anticipated risks or discomforts associated to this scientific investigation and that the students' personally identifiable information will trustworthily be kept confidential, private, and anonymous. Moreover, I would like to inform you that your participation in this research work is entirely voluntary. Therefore, it would be a great pleasure if you choose to participate in my study. Again, stay informed that your participation agreement can be withdrawn at any time for any reason.

If you decide to partake in this research project, please sign the attached consent format. Your assistance and coordination will be enormously appreciated.

In case you would like to require any additional information in respect to this research study, you may contact the researcher.

Yours respectfully,

Researcher Contact Details:

Kenza Saou

E-mail: kenzasaou2020@gmail.com

Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Section of English

I have read and clearly understood the researcher's request. I consent to the participation of the third year students at the section of English in the research project being undertaken by SAOU Kenza.

Name: .....

E-mail: .....

University: .....

Faculty: .....

Department: .....

Section: .....

Date: .....

Signature: .....

Appendix 03: The Classroom Observation

Instructor's name: _____ Course: _____ Level: _____

Observer's name: _____ Date: _____ Group: _____

Observation Focus Points		Frequency					Additional Comments
		Never	Rarely	sometimes	Usually	always	
The nature of CS employed in the EFL class discourse	Student-teacher CS						
	Student-student CS						
The frequently used languages in the class discourse	From English to Arabic						
	From English to French						
	Switching to other language (s)						
The patterns of CS employed in the class discourse	Extra-sentential CS						
	Intra-sentential CS						
	Inter-sentential CS						
The effect of L1 interference on the occurrence of CS	For emphasis or contrast						
	Because of cultural untranslatability						
	Because of L1interference						
	To express some notions that are better expressed in another language						
	Because of the inadequate vocabulary knowledge						

Appendix 04: The Students' Questionnaire

Dear third year students,

You are cordially being requested to provide real responses to this questionnaire which is substantially an attempt seeking to examine **"The Effect of Learners' Mother Tongue Interference on the Occurrence of code-switching in an EFL Classroom".** Please, do read the questionnaire items carefully and, then, answer them. Be certain that your answers will trustworthily be kept confidential, private, and anonymous and will be used only for academic purposes.

The researcher

Section One: The students' English proficiency level (from 01 to 05)

Q1. As far as the languages that you can speak are concerned, how do you qualify yourself as a speaker?

.....

.....

Q2. In an EFL class, what are the language (s) that you allow yourself to speak?

.....

.....

.....

Q3. How do you evaluate your English speaking proficiency?

.....

.....

Q4. As an EFL student, what are the major difficulties that usually challenge you when speaking English in the class?

.....

.....

.....

Q5. Once you face a breakdown in communication, what cues do you usually look for so as to effectively deliver your oral messages?

.....

.....

.....

Section Two: The students' use of the code-switching strategy (from 06 to 10)

Q6. How do you alternate codes while you are conversing?

.....

.....

.....

Q7. What do you do when you feel the need to switch to your L1?

.....

.....

.....

Q8. With whom do you code-switch most during the class conversation?

.....

.....

.....

Q9. Specify the reasons that make you alternate codes during the class discussion?

.....

.....

.....

Q10. In your opinion, what functions may language-switching offer whilst speaking a English?

.....

.....

.....

Section Three: The effect of mother tongue interference on the occurrence of code-switching (from 11 to 18)

Q11. How often do you resort to your mother tongue while speaking English in the class?

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.....

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Q12. What are the linguistic levels that are usually affected by your mother tongue (L1) interference?

.....

.....

.....

Q13. In which topic (s) do you feel the need to switch to your L1?

.....

.....

Q14. How do you consider the strategy of shifting from English to your L1?

.....

.....

.....

Q15. According to you, what are the main causes that make you employ specifically your L1 when speaking English in the class?

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.....

Q16. By whom are you usually corrected once you are linguistically affected by your L1 interference while speaking English?

.....

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.....

Q17. How does your teacher behave when you resort to your L1 during class communication?

.....

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.....

Q18. If you would like to add any additional remarks or comments with respect to the effect of L1 interference on the Occurrence of code-switching, please express them below.

.....

.....

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.....

.....

Thank you ever so much for your cooperation

Appendix 05: The Opinionnaire

Opinionnaire

1. Do repetitive or redundant questions exist in the questionnaire?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, please notify them.

.....

.....

2. Did you come across any mistake in respect to grammar and language mechanics?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If so, please jot them down.

.....

.....

.....

3. Are there any irrelevant questions that ought to be removed?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, please state the number of questions underneath.

.....

.....

4. Is the questionnaire of a reasonable length?

Yes ☐ No ☐

5. Are there any unapproachable questions that must be reworded and/ or explained?

Yes ☐ No ☐

If yes, please provide which questions need to be reformulated

.....

.....

6. What can you add about the layout?

.....

.....

.....

7. What would you give as remarks about the content and organisation of the questionnaire items?

.....

.....

.....

8. In case you realise that some questions, that are closely and significantly relatable to the questionnaire objective are missed, you may write them down.

.....

.....

.....

.....

Thanks ever so much for your cooperation.

Appendix 06: The Questionnaire Validation Form

Questionnaire Validation Form

I do hereby confirm that I have thoroughly read the students' questionnaire in the study undertaken by Kenza SAOU, who is currently in the process of conducting her MA dissertation at Biskra University. Furthermore, I do assert that I have assisted and supported the researcher of the current research work by providing her with remarks minding the layout, organisation, and the content of the questionnaire.

Background Information on the Expert:

Name: .....

University: .....

Present Occupation: .....

Degree: .....

Telephone Number: .....

Email Address: .....

Signed: .....

Researcher Contact Details:

Kenza SAOU

Email: kenzasaou2020@gmail.com

Mohamed Khider University of Biskra

Faculty of letters and Foreign Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

Section of English

Résumé de l'Etude

Le phénomène sociolinguistique de l'alternance du code a été abordé dans des contextes académiques radicalement différents où l'Anglais est considéré comme première langue, deuxième langue, et aussi où l'Anglais est considéré comme une langue étrangère. Néanmoins, très peu d'études ont examiné la question de l'alternance du code chez les étudiants dans les pays du grand cercle comme l'Algérie. Dans l'ensemble, cette étude a cherché de trouver des réponses qui permettaient d'apprendre la raison qui stimule l'occurrence de l'alternance du code dans la production orale des étudiants de troisième année, d'identifier les fonctions communicatives de l'alternance du code, et d'évaluer son efficacité en tant que stratégie de communication dans les classes multilingues. Sur le plan méthodologique, suivant une approche de recherche qualitative, un plan d'étude de cas a été adopté avec un échantillon choisi délibérément. Selon les données, ils ont été méticuleusement collectés au moyen de deux méthodes d'enquête: l'observation et le questionnaire. Les résultats ont confirmé que le facteur fondamental qui oblige les étudiants à changer du code était cette interférence linguistique irrésistible qui a été germée à partir de la langue maternelle des étudiants. En outre, il a été constaté que la stratégie de changement du code peut donner pour les étudiants la possibilité de répéter ce qui' ils ont dit d'une autre manière, de garder la discussion et de parler d'une manière continue. De plus, il a été conclu que la technique de changement du code pouvait être considérée comme une stratégie de communication productive et aussi improductive en ce qui concerne le développement de la compétence orale des étudiants. Enfin, les résultats de cette étude confirment les hypothèses initialement formulées.

Mots-clés : changement du code, fonctions de communication, langue maternelle, facteurs linguistique, classes multilingues, compétence orale

ملخص **الدراسة(Back Page)**

إن التبديل اللغوي هو ظاهرة أثبتت وجودها بشكل خاص في الأقسام الثنائية أو بالأحرى المتعددة اللغات. غالبا ما تنتج هذه الظاهرة جراء ذلك الاتصال اللغوي للشيفرات التي تتفاعل فيما بينها بشكل معتمد وهادف. لذلك وبناءا على الملحوظات المدونة من طرفنا، فقد أصبحنا نتساءل ما إذا كان السبب الأساسي في تحويل الشيفرات من قبل الطلبة في مجال تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية يتمحور حول تدخل اللغة الأم (سواء كان إيجابيا أم سلبيا) للطلبة على مستوى إنتاجهم الناطق باللغة الإنجليزية. تهدف هذه الدراسة خاصة إلى البحث والتمحيص في تأثير دور اللغة الأم للطلبة في إحداث التبديل اللغوي على مستوى أدائهم الشفهي، كما تتطرق أيضا هذه الدراسة إلى البحث عن الوظائف التواصلية التي تؤثر على هذا السلوك اللغوي ومدى تأثير وفعالية هذا الأخير على استراتيجيات الكفاءة التواصلية للطلبة. منهجيا، اعتمادا على طبيعة هذا المشروع البحثي فقد تم اعتماد النهج النوعي بغية دراسة حالة العينة المختارة عمدا والتي شملت خصيصا السنة الثالثة لطلاب اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة بسكرة. فيما يخص البيانات المتحصل عليها، فقد تم جمعها بدقة عن طريق إجراء الملاحظة وتقديم استبانة للطلبة. كشفت النتائج أن العامل الأساسي الذي يحفز على التبادل اللغوي يكمن في ذلك التبادل الجذري المنبثق من اللغة السائدة للطلبة. علاوة على ذلك، فقد أثبتت النتائج أن ظاهرة تناوب الشيفرات تمنح مستخدميها الفرصة لتقديم وبث وظائف مرجعية وتعبيرية وتوجيهية كتكرار ما قالوه بطريقة أخرى والاستمرار في التحدث لفترة طويلة من الزمن وكذلك الإصرار على ما يتم تبليغه. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، فقد تم التوصل إلى أن تقنية التبديل اللغوي يمكن اعتبارها كاستراتيجية منتجة وهدامة في نفس الوقت من ناحية الأداء الكلامي لدارسي اللغة الإنجليزية. أخيرا، دعمت نتائج هذه الدراسة مدى صحة وتوافق الفرضيات المصاغة في بداية دراستنا مع النتائج المتحصل عليها.

الكلمات المفتاحية: التبديل اللغوي، الأداء اللغوي، اللغة الأم، المتعددة اللغات، الوظائف التواصلية