

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

MASTER IN LINGUISTICS

The Role of Codeswitching in Children's Language Acquisition Case Study: Educated Algerian Parents

Submitted by

BENAIED Zohra

Members of the Board:

Chairperson:

Supervisor:Ms. BLAL, H.

Examiner:

Academic year: 2017-2018

Abstract

This dissertation provides an introduction concerning the role codeswitching has in a child's

language acquisition. The main aim of this research is to highlight the strategies that parents

employ to assist their children's first and second languages development at the home

environment. In this research, we opt for a quantitative approach to conduct the study and we

chose a questionnaire as a tool for data collection. The questionnaire aims at exploring the

parental attitude to support the child's first and second language development. The analysis of

the data shows that daily communication at home and incorporating a second language into a

child's daily routine are very important strategies that parents use for child language

development.

Keywords: Language Acquisition, First Language, Second Language, Bilingualism,

Codeswitching.

Dedication

To my parents, my friends and mates

Acknowledgements

I am overwhelmingly grateful for Allah for giving me such empowerment that provides am impetus of passion and perseverance to achieve my target.

My deepest gratitude and thanks go to my supervisor Miss Blal Hanane for her help, encouragement, and guidance, thank you for all what you did for us.

I acknowledge the help of Miss Benabdellah Fatima Zohra, who is considered as sister, for her kindness, help, and pieces of advice

List of Tables

Table 1.Parental strategies of developing bilingualism	31
Table 2.Parent's language.	31
Table 3.Preferred Age for Parents to Start Speaking a Second Language to their	
Children	32
Table 4.Parent's usage for the French language at Home	32
Table 5.Language of Parents' Response.	33
Table 6.Parental Methods of Helping Child's Language Development	33
Table 7.Parental Attitude towards Child's Language Development	33
Table 8.Factors of Motivating Children to learn Two languages	34
Table 9.Parental Ways to Improve Children's First and Second Development	34
Table 10.Parents Preference of their Children's Language	35
Table 11.Parental Ways of Motivating Children to Learn French	35
Table 12.Parent expectations for Multilingual Child.	36
Table 13.Parental Strategies Used to Make Children Focus When Learning Two	
Languages	36
Table 14.Parents Attempts for Improving Bilingualism at Home	37
Table 15The sources improving the child's bilingualism acquisition	37
Table 16.Parent's Efficient Strategy for Child's Language Development	38

Table of Contents

Abstract
Dedication
Acknowledgments
List of Tables
Table of Contents
General Introduction
Chapter One: Language Acquisition
1.1 Introduction.
1.2 Theories of First Language Acquisition
1.2.1 Behaviorist Theory.
1.2.2 Nativist or Innateness Theory
1.2.3 Cognitive Theory
1.2.4 Social interactionist Theory
1.3 Second Language Acquisition
1.3.1 Theories of Second Language Acquisition
1.3.1.1 Semantic Theory
1.3.1.2 Social Cultural Theory
1.3. 1.3 Universal Grammar
1.3. 1.4 Input Hypothesis
1.3. 1.5 Interaction Hypothesis
1.3. 1.6Output Hypothesis
1.4 Stages of Language Acquisition
1.5 Conclusion
Chapter Two: Bilingualism and Code Switching
Section One: Bilingualism
2.1Introduction.
2.2Definition of Bilingualism
2.3 Type of Bilingualism;
2.3.1Coordinate Bilingualism

2.3.2Compound Bilingualism.	20
2.3.2Subordinate Bilingualism	21
2.4 The Benefits of Bilingualism.	21
Section Two: Codeswitching	
2.5 Code Switching.	22
2.5.1Types of Code Switching.	24
2.5.1.1 Situational Code Switching.	24
2.5.1.2 Metaphorical Code Switching	24
2.5.1.3 Tag Switching	24
2.5.1.4 Intersentential Code Switching.	25
2.5.2Code Switching and Code Mixing	25
2.5.3Reason and Code Switching	26
2.5.3.1 The Topic	27
2.5.3.2 Quoting Someone	27
2.5.3.3 Emotions	27
2.5.3.4 Clarification	27
2.5.3.5 Identity	28
2.5.3.6 Nuance	28
2.6 Conclusion	28
Chapter Three: Data Analysis and Findings	
3.1 Introduction.	30
3.2 Participants	30
3.3 Data Analysis of the Questionnaire	30
3.4 Discussion of Result and Findings.	38
3.5 Conclusion.	39
General Conclusion	40
References	42
Appendix	44

General Introduction

The present thesis attempts to explore the role of code switching in the child's language acquisition, the main aim of this research is to highlight the parental role and their strategies used to assist their children's first and second language development this study focuses of parental attitudes towards bilingualism. The theme is not chosen randomly but I have been motivated by the simple reason that I adore the field of psycholinguistics, in addition to this, my interest started during university studies where I felt concerned about the subject related to the child and language.

In this research, we opt for the questionnaire as a tool for data collection due to the fact that it tends to elicit more detail responses and explanation from the participants. The questionnaire is for parents from an Algerian context. The focus of the questionnaire is on the parental attitudes to bilingualism and strategies that parents used to support the child language development.

The study seeks to find out how families assist children at the home environment in order to develop their mother tongue and second language. my research questions deal with the following:

• What strategies do families use to support first and second language development?

This question focuses on studying the following sub-question:

 What are the parental attitudes to developing bilingualism and codeswitching among children?

It is hypothesized that:

- Bilingual parents utilize code-switching as a strategy in order to develop their children's language(s) development.
- Using rich and varied vocabulary by parents at home encourages children acquire first and second languages.

The present research is divided into three chapters. The first is devoted to the literature review and it is about the different theories of first languages acquisition, the second chapter is divided into two sections, the section one is concerned with bilingualism (definition, types and its benefits), and the second section is about code switching (definition, types, code mixing and code switching; and the reason behind it). The third chapter is the practical part that is concerned with the analysis of the data collection based on a questionnaire given to 32 parents from the Algerian context. The analyses of the questionnaire discussed in terms of tables provide the result and offers suitable suggestions and justifications. This chapter is a general discussion of a questionnaire and it summarizes the results of all what has been mentioned in the previous two chapters.

Chapter One

Language Acquisition

1.1 Introduction

Language acquisition is the process by which humans acquire the capacity to perceive and comprehend language as well as to produce and use words and sentences to communicate. Language is one of quintessential human traits, because non-humans do not communicate by using language. Language acquisition, which studies infants' acquisition of their native language, involves structure, rules and representation. The capacity to successfully use language requires a range of tools including phonology, morphology... This chapter reveals notions about first and second language acquisition, theories and stages of child language acquisition.

1.2 Theory of First Language Acquisition

Various theories and approaches have been developed over the past years attempting to study and analyse how do children acquire their mother tongue. This chapter identifies the main theories that explain the learning process of the child first language

1.2.1Behaviourist Theory

During the first half of the twentieth century, the behaviourist view of language development was generally excepted. Behaviourists held that all learning including language learning happened as a process of stimulus and response. According to the behaviourist children's language learning begins when the child produces a sound and a parent or other caregivers reinforces that action positively. For example, if the child in the babbling stage utters something like "da da" and the father is nearby, he might pick the child up smile, and begin talking to the child. This positive reinforcement would lead the child to respond by producing this sound again. This general process of positive reinforcement eventually leads to fully adult language proficiency. This is a simplified account of the behaviourist view. This theory of language development fits popular ideas of learning today; behaviourists believed

that language is learned like anything else. Learning depends on the response of the individual in relation to the environment; whatever is reinforced is repeated. In this view, if children have the potential for language and are given the right circumstances, they will become proficient language users. The behaviourist view also fits the general idea that language is learned via imitation. Children try to imitate the sounds that adults make. When their attempts are rewarded they repeat them and eventually learn to make certain sequences of sounds. However, the behaviourists theory do not take into consideration the child's own cognition processes.

1.2.2 Nativists or Innateness Theory

The innateness hypothesis proposed by the linguist Noam Chomsky supports the idea that language acquisition has a biological foundation (Ortega, 2009). He claims that children learn their first language through cognitive learning and acquires them by natural exposure (Ortega, 2009). He hypothesized that children are born with a specific innate capacity to discover for themselves the underlying rules of a language system on the basis of the samples of a natural language they are exposed to. Spada (2006). This innate endowment was seen as a sort of a template, containing the principles that are universal to all human beings. This is called universal grammar (UG). As defined by Chomsky (1965) (universal grammar is the system of principles, conditions and rules that are elements or properties of all human language. According to Chomsky there are principles which allow or prevent a specific structure from occurring in all human languages, and parameters which govern ways in which human language differs, usually expressed as a limited choice between two options. For him, children have an innate faculty that instructs them while learning language. Chomsky also introduced the language acquisition device (LAD) to explain that there is some innate mental capacity which helps the children process all the languages they hear since they were born. (Cook 2001).

Thus, from the Innativism approach, language is an innate or an in-born process. Children language learning is not behaviour but a specific mental process and emphasizes on the important role of exposure to language.

1.2.3 Cognitive Theory

Jean Piaget was a Swiss psychologist who was famous for his four stages of cognitive development for children, which included the development of language. However, children do not think like adults and before they can begin to develop language, they first actively construct their own understanding of the world through interaction with their environment. A child has to understand a concept before he or she can acquire the particular language which expresses that concept. As a way of illustration, a child first becomes aware of a concept such as a relative size and only afterwards they do acquire the words and patterns to convey that concept.

Essentially, it is impossible for young children to voice concepts that are unknown to them. Therefore, once children learn about their environment then they can map language onto their prior experience. An infant's experience of a cat is that it meows, is fury and eats from a bowl in the kitchen; hence they develop the concept of a cat first and then learn to map the word Kitty onto that concept. Language is only one of the many human mental or cognitive activities, and many cognitivists believe that language emerges within the context of other general cognitive abilities like memory, attention and problem solving because it is a part of their boarder intellectual development. However, according to Good Luck (1991) once language emerges, it is usually within certain stages, and children go through these stages in a fixed order that is universal in all children. There is a consistent order of mastery of the most common function morphemes in a language and simple ideas are expressed earlier than more complex ones even if they are more grammatically complicated. Piaget's cognitive theory

states that, children's language reflects the development of their logical thinking and reasoning skill in stages with each period having a specific name and age reference. There are four stages of Piaget's cognitive development theory, each involving a different aspect of language acquisition.

1.2.4 Social Interactionist Theory

Vygotsky's social interaction theory incorporates nature arguments in that children can be influenced by their environment as well as the language input children receive from their care-givers. Although the theories of Skinner, Chomsky and Piaget are all different and very important in their own contexts. They do not necessarily take into account the fact that children do not encounter language in isolation. The child is a little linguist analysing language form randomly encountered adult utterances. The interaction theory proposes that language exists for the purposes of communication and can only be learned in the context of interaction with adults and older children. It stresses the importance of the environment and culture in which the language is being learnt during early childhood development, because this social interaction is what first provides the child with the means of making sense of their own behaviour and how they think about the surrounding world.

According to Williamson (2008) children can eventually use their own internal speech to direct their own behaviour in much the same way that their parent's speech once directed their behaviour. Speech to infants is marked by a slower rate, exaggerated intonation, high frequency, repetition, simple syntax and concrete vocabulary. This tailored articulation used by care-givers to young children to maximize phonemic contrasts and pronunciation of concrete forms is known as Child Directed Speech (CDS). Vygotsky also developed the concepts of Private Speech which is when children speak to themselves in a self-guiding and directing way initially out loud and later internally and the Zone of Proximal Development

(ZPD) which refers to the tasks a child is unable to complete alone but is able to complete with the assistance of an adult.

1.3 Second Language Acquisition

Sometimes as the distinction is made between a second and a third or even a fourth language. However, the term second is generally used to refer to any language other than the first language. In one respect this is unfortunate, as the term "Second" when applied to some learning settings, such as those in South Africa involving black learners of English, may be perceived as opprobrious. In such settings, the term "Additional Language" may be both more appropriate and more acceptable.

However, given that the second has become generally accepted epithet. We use the term second language acquisition to refer to the acquisition of any language after the acquisition of the mother tongue. Another distinction on that is often made is that between second and foreign language acquisition. In the case of second language acquisition, the language plays an institutional and a social role in the community (i.e. it functions as a recognized means of communication among members who speak some other languages as their mother tongue.) For instance, French as a second language is learnt in Algeria and Tunisia. In contrast, foreign language learning takes place in settings when the language plays no major role the in community and primarily learnt only in the classroom. Examples of foreign language learning are: English learnt in Egypt or French in Algeria.

The distinction between second and foreign language learning is best treated as a sociolinguistic rather than a psycholinguistic. The distinction is that between naturalistic and instructed second language acquisition, according to whether the language, is learnt through study with help of "guidance" form reference books or classroom instruction. These terms clearly imply psycholinguistic differences. Klein 1986 argued the learner focuses on

communication in naturalistic second language acquisition and thus the learner typically focuses on some aspect of the language system.

However, again there is a need to keep an open minded as to whether the process of acquisition is the same or different in naturalistic and classroom settings. The main goals of SLA research are to characterise learners' underlying knowledge of the L2. i.e. to describe and explain their competence. Those working in the generative tradition associates with Chomsky have defined it somewhat narrowly as linguistic competence: knowledge of both the L2 grammar and how this system is put in actual communication.

1.3 Theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

These theories are various hypotheses in the field of SLA. They are about how children learn a second language. They are semantic, sociocultural, universal grammar, and interaction hypotheses.

1.3.1 Semantic Theory

For the second language learner, the acquisition of meaning is arguably the most important task. Meaning is the heart of language, not the exotic sounds or elegant sentence structure. There are several types of meaning: lexical, grammatical, semantic and pragmatic. All the different meanings contribute to the acquisition of meaning resulting in the integrated second language possession. Lexical meaning is stored in our mental lexicon grammatical meaning comes into consideration when calculating the meaning sentence is usually encoded in inflectional morphology semantics meaning, word meaning.

1.3.2 Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural theory was originally coined by Wertschin (1985) and derived from the work of Lev Vygotsky and the Vygotsky circle in Moscow from the 1920s onwards.

Sociocultural theory is the notion that human mental function is a form participating cultural mediation integrated into social activities.

1.3.3 Universal Grammar

From the field of linguistics, most influential theory by far has been Chomsky's theory of Universal Grammar (UG): a Model of principles, basic properties which all languages share, and parameters, properties that can vary between languages that has been the basis for much second language research. From a UG perspective, learning the grammar of a second language is simply a matter of setting the correct parameters. Take the pro-drop parameter, which dictates whether sentences must have a subject in order to be grammatically correct or not.

This parameter can have two values: positive, in which case sentences do not necessarily need a subject, and negative in which case subjects must be present. In German Er spricht (he speaks) is grammatical, but the sentence spricht (speaks) is ungrammatical. In Italian, however, the sentence parla (speak) is perfectly normal and grammatically correct. A German speaker learning Italian would only need to deduce that subjects are optional from the language he hears and then set his pro-drop parameter from Italian accordingly. Once he has set all the parameters in the language correctly, then from a UG perspective he can be said to have learned Italian i.e. he will always produce perfectly correct Italian sentences. Universal Grammar Also provides a succinct explanation for much of the phenomenon of language transfer. Spanish learners of English who make the mistake "is raining" instead of "it is raining" have not yet set their pro-drop parameters correctly and are still using the same setting as in Spanish. The main shortcoming of universal Grammar in describing second language acquisition is that it does not deal at all with the psychological processes involved

with learning a language. UG scholarship is only concerned with whether parameters are set or not how they are set.

1.3.4 Input Hypothesis

When the learner comes into direct contact with the target language, this is referred to as input. When they process that language in a way that can contribute to learning, this is referred to as intake. By this way, the amount of input learners is one of the most important factors affecting their learning.

He does so by proposing a language acquisition device that uses L2 input to define the parameters of the L2 within the constraints of UG and to increase the L2 proficiency of the learner. In addition, Krashen (1982)'s Affective Filter Hypothesis holds that the acquisition of a second language is halted if the learner has a high degree of anxiety when receiving input. According to this concept a part of mind filters out L2 input and prevents intake by the learners, if the learners feel that the process of SLA is threatening. As mentioned earlier, since input is essential in Krashen's model, this filtering action prevents acquisition from progressing. A great deal of research has taken place on input enhancement, the way in which input lay be altered so as to direct learners' attention to linguistically important areas. Input enhancement might include blood-faced vocabulary words or marginal glosses in a reading text. Research here is closely linked to research on pedagogical effects and is comparably diverse.

Monitor model: other concepts have also been influential in the speculation about the processes of building internal systems of second language information. Some thinkers hold However, it must be at a level that is comprehensible to them. In this Monitor theory, Krashen advanced the concept that language input should be at the i+1 level just beyond what the learner can fully understand; this input is comprehensible but contains structures that are not

yet fully understood. This has been criticized on the basis that there is no clear definition of the i+1(comprehensible input) and that factors other than structural difficulty (such as interest or presentation) can affect where input is actually turned into intake. The concept has been quantified. However, in vocabulary acquisition research nation reviews various studies which indicate that about 98% of the words in running text should be previously known in order for extensive reading to be effective. In his input hypothesis, Krashen (1976) proposes that language acquisition takes place when learners receive input first beyond their current level of L2 competence. He termed this level of input i+1. However, in contrast to emergentist and connectionist theories, he follows the innate approach by applying Chomsky's government and binding theory and concept of universal grammar (UG) to second language acquisition.

He holds that language processing handles distinct types of knowledge. For instance, one component of the Monitor model proposed by Krashen posits a distinction between acquisition and learning. According to Krashen second language acquisition is a subconscious process of incidentally "picking up" language as children do when becoming proficient in their first language. Language learning, on the other hand, is studying consciously and intentionally the features of a language, as common in traditional classrooms. Krashen sees these two processes as fundamentally different with little or no interface between them. In common with Connectionism, Krashen sees input as essential to language acquisition.

Furthermore, Bialystok and Smith (1982) make another distinction in explaining how learners build and use L2 and interlanguage knowledge structure. They argue that the concept of interlanguage should include a distinction between two specific kinds of language processing ability. On the one hand, it is the learners' knowledge of L2 grammatical structure and ability to analyse the target language objectively using that knowledge, which they term "representation" and, it is the ability to use their L2 linguistic knowledge under time constraints to accurately comprehend input.and produce output in the L2 which they call

Control. They point out that often non-native speakers of a language have a higher level of control. finally, Biakystok has framed the acquisition of language in terms of interaction between what she calls analysis and control. Analysis is what learners do when they attempt to understand the rules of the target language. Through this process, they acquire these rules and can use them to gain greater control over their own production. Monitoring is another important concept in some theoretical models of the learner's use of L2 knowledge. According to Krashen, the monitor is a component of an L2 learner's language processing device that uses knowledge gained from language learning to observe and regulate the learner's own L2 production, checking for accuracy and adjusting language production when necessary.

1.3.5 Interaction Hypothesis

Long's interaction hypothesis (1985) proposes that language acquisition is strongly facilitated by the use of the target language in interaction. Similarly, to Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1926) the interaction Hypothesis claims that comprehensible input is important for language learning. In addition, it claims that the effectiveness of comprehensible input is greatly increased when learners have to negotiate for meaning. Interaction often results in learners receiving negative evidence. That is, if learners say something that the interlocutors may model the correct language form. In doing this, the learner can receive feedback on their production and on grammar that they have not yet mastered.

The process of interaction may also result in learners receiving more input from their interlocutors than they would otherwise. Furthermore, if learners seize to clarify things that they do not understand, they may have to process the input they receive. This can lead to better understanding and possibly the acquisition of new language forms. Finally, interactions may serve as a way of focusing learners' attention on difference between their knowledge of

the target language and the reality of what they are hearing, they may also focus their attention on a part of the target language of which they are not yet aware of.

1.3.6 Output Hypothesis

In the (1980s) a Canadian SLA researcher Merril Swain advanced the output hypothesis that Meaningful output is necessary to language learning as a meaningful input. However, most studies have shown little if any correlation between learning and quantity of output. Today, most scholars content that small amounts of meaningful outputs are important to language learning but primarily because the experience of producing language leads to more effective processing of input.

1.4 Stages of Language Acquisition

When a person begins to learn a language, they go through stages. These stages function differently depending on whether the person is acquiring their first or second language. Typically, first language acquisition happens during infancy which is a time when a person cannot consciously process the stages of language acquisition. The first stage of a person's first language acquisition process is referred to as, babbling: this stage is self-explanatory in which the child begins to male random sounds with their vocal cords. Some of these are for no purpose at all. This stage is an exploring stage for the speaker to develop sounds and may include a few phonemes. Also during this stage, the child may able to nod "yes" or "no" in response to questions or point to things they want.

Similarly, in second language acquisition the first stage is referred to as "Preproduction." During this stage, the child has minimal comprehension of the language and cannot make sense of words; neither in understanding more speaking much like first language acquisition. Non-verbal communication is important during this stage because the individual cannot yet effectively communicate their desires through language. Typically, during this stage the

learner would be able to point and nod "yes" or "no" in response to very basic questions and prompts.

The second stage of the first language acquisition is one-word stage or "Holophrastic" stage. At this stage, a child can begin to utter recognisable words or at least phonemes that resemble words or simple phrases. Children develop these singular words through association and experience; for example, a child's father is bald, the child may point to a bald man walking down the street and say "dada" assuming that all bald men are his father. This association shows that the child is beginning to understand the meaning of words, Through not yet in their entirety. In correlation, the second stage of second language acquisition is referred to as the early Production Stage. During this period the child begins to gasp simple concepts in the foreign language and has the ability to produce simple ones or two words, phrases in a language class the instructor can begin to ask more complex questions that require more than a "yes" or "no" answer. Most of the verbs the child uses during this stage are likely in the present tense.

The third stage the child begins to develop acquisition is called the two-word stage. The child begins to develop more complex phrases with multiple words which form a more complete thought than in previous stage. The child can better define items and personal belongings by combining two words at a time; for instance, the child may point to a car and say mommy car, communicating that either the child thinks that is his/her mother's car, or it actually is.

During this stage, though the child is only using two words at time they are still able to put the words in order that closely resemble the order in which the words should be in fully formed sentence.

The third stage of second language acquisition is referred to as Speech Emergence. Similarly, to the third stage of the first language acquisition, the child can construct simple phrases and communicate basic ideas, the child's comprehension improves greatly, but production is still low. This stage in which grammar errors occur frequently and sentence structure is not always accurate. Nevertheless, the child can communicate thoughts and ideas and he/she can respond effectively to more advanced questions like "why and how."

The fourth stage of first language acquisition is referred to as the "Telegraphic" stage. During this stage, the child's analytical skills enhance their ability to form complete sentences. Their words have more of a purpose rather than simple identifying objects and people like in the previous stage begin to acquire new words more rapidly and their vocabulary increases at a rate of as many as ten (10) words per weeks. Similarly, the fourth stage of second language acquisition is called "Intermediate Fluency" in which the child is able to form complete thoughts and sentences. Their grammatical errors are reduced and they make more conscious effort to speak correctly. The child's comprehension by this is excellent and production is advanced as well. In a language class, the instruction could begin to ask hypothetical questions.

1.5 Conclusion

This chapter has defined the terms first, and second language acquisition. First language acquisition refers to the way learners learn their native language, whereas second language acquisition refers to learning other languages beside the native language. This chapter focuses on the main theories of first and second language acquisition and explains how the child acquires his/her native and second language. At the end, of this chapter has dealt with the different stages of child acquisition.

Chapter Two

Bilingualism & Codeswitching

Bilingualism and Codeswitching

Chapter Two

18

2.1 Introduction

As globalization and population movements are increasing, different cultures

inevitably came into contact with each other. The resulting in growing numbers of

multicultural societies. These mixed communities led to multilingual families and children

who identify themselves with more than one culture and in many instances use different

languages for each parent that is they become bilingual. In this chapter, we will deal with

definition of bilingualism and its different types in the first section and code switching and its

types in the second one.

Section One: Bilingualism

2.2 Definition of Bilingualism

There is no universal definition of Bilingualism. However; each definition that has

been given to this term shared the same interpretation. A person is bilingual if they are able to

speak or use two languages. Although the given definitions may vary in terms of language

ability and language usage of an individual (Baker 2003), the word 'bilingualism' bears the

prefix 'bi-' that means 'having two elements or aspects'. It simply means having two lingua-

derived from Latin tongue or language.

However, this definition is too general and defining bilingualism is essentially

ambiguous and ultimately impossible as consequence, defining who is or is not bilingual

remain a hot topic of debate between researchers to propose different hypothesis in defining

bilingualism.

Colin Baker (2003) stresses that the foundation of defining bilingualism is to examine

the distinction bilingualism ability and bilingual usage. In other words, a person may be able

to speak two languages but use only one language in practice or an individual who use two

languages but the competence in one language may be limited. Hamers and Blanc (1989-2000) propose that bilingualism can be defined in terms of language function (function) and language behavior according to Hamers and Blanc when two different languages are in contact it not only influences the use (language function) in interpersonal and intergroup relation, but it also emphasizes the psychological state, (language behavior) of an individual who uses more than one language. On the other hand, Bloomfield (1933) described bilingualism as a native like control of two languages which means that a person has the capacity to use two or more languages at a native like competence; however this definition received criticism from other linguistics including Macmarain contrast of Bloomfield. Macmar (1967) proposes that a bilingual is an individual who processes a minimal competence in one of the four language skills as: listening, speaking; reading and writing in a language other than the individual mother tongue. In addition, Tritone (1967) defined bilingualism as the individual's capacity to speak a second language without paraphrasing his/her mother tongue .as opposed to these extreme definitions that focus on native like competence of two languages or minimal proficiency of a second language, Gros jean (2000) defines bilingualism as the sum up of two monolinguals who have developed two distinct language abilities and behavior when a person can function each language according to given needs, context and different types of interlocutor. Skutnab (1978) who defined it in relation to Bloomfield state that an individual who is able to function in two or more languages, either in monolingual or bilingual communities in accordance with socio culture demands made of individuals.

(

2.3 Types of Bilingualism

A discussion of bilingualism and second language learning distinguishes three types of bilingualism namely: Compound, Coordinate and sub coordinate.

2.3.1 Coordinate Bilingualism

Is the type of bilingualism that comes as a result of learning two completely different linguistic systems at the same time. This is a stage of early bilingualism because it is during a very early childhood that children are most likely to be exposed to two different languages groups by parents who speak different languages and used both at home. It is deemed as coordinate because each separate language will be spoken in its entirely and consistency. As a result, the child will learn both systems and their equivalent contents with exactness and accuracy, and without any problems.

2.3.2 Compound Bilingualism:

In compound bilingualism there is no such dividing line, the individual learns the language in the same environment and context and they are often used concurrently on even interchangeably. Sometimes known as additive bilingualism, an example would be when a child is raised by bilingual parents and both languages are used athome. In the individual's mind the languages are not separate and can be switched between atwill, even while speaking.

2.3.3 Subordinate Bilingualism:

Are those children who have learnt a second language and cannot understand it without the help of their first language Such people will translate the words of second language in their mother tongue. Then, they would be able to understand then. Thus, we can

say that the concepts in mind will remain in one system i.e. the system of mother tongue, but an additional language is attached to that system through the mother tongue

2.4 The Benefits of Bilingualism:

Speaking two languages rather than just one has obvious practical benefits in an increasingly globalized world. But in recent years, scientist has begun to show that the advantages of bilingualism are evenmore fundamental than being able to converse with a wider range of people. Being a bilingualist it turns out, makes you smarter. It can have a profound effect on your brain; improving cognitive skills not related to language and even shielding against dementia in the old age.

This view of bilingualism is remarkably different from the understanding of bilingualism through much of the 20thcentury. Researchers, educators and policy makers long considered a second language to be an interference, cognitively speaking, that hindered a child's academic and intellectual development.

They were not wrong about the interference; there is ample evidence that in a bilingual's brain both language systems are active even when he is using only one language strengthens its cognitive muscles bilingualism, for instance, seen to be more adapted than monolingual at solving certain kinds of mental puzzles, in 2004, a study by the psychologists Ellen Bialystok and Michelle Martin-Rhee, bilingual and monolingual preschoolers were asked to sort blue circle and red circle.

In the first task, the children had to sort the shapes by colors placing blue circles in the bin marked with the red square. Both groups did this with comparable ease. Next, the children were asked to sort by shape, which was more challenging because it required placing the

Bilingualism and Codeswitching

Chapter Two

22

images in a bin marked with a conflicting color. The bilinguals were quicker at performing

this task.

The collective evidence from a number of such studies suggests that bilingual

experience improves the brains so-called executive function a command system that directs

the attention processes that we use for planning, solving problems and performing various

other mentally demanding tasks.

These processes include ignoring distraction to stay focused; switching attention

distracts from one thing to another and holds information in the mind like remembering a

sequence of directions while driving.

Section Two: Codeswitching

2.5 Codeswitching

Bilingual communities use certain phenomena to make communication more effective

and meaningful. One of these phenomena is code switching which we can observe mostly in

second language setting. This section mainly focuses on the definition and types of code

switching.

Code switching is the use of two or more languages within the same discourse. This

phenomena has attracted the attention of researchers in several disciplines, this is the reason

why it has become an interesting area of discussion in relation to bilingual speech

communities.

Milroy and Muysken (1995) stated that sometimes code-switching occurs between the

turns of different utterances within a single turn. It can even occur within a single utterance

Hymes (1974) defines code switching as a common term for alternative use of two or more

languages, varieties of a language or even speech styles i.e. code switching is not restricted to

the use of several languages, it can be the use of varieties of one language and why not speech styles.

Gumperz (1973) refers to code switching as the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance on a conversation; this means that when speakers switches from one language to another means he just uses the second language as an alternative to the first language due to some reasons.

Hudson (1996) claimed that the term code-switching is preferred to language –switching in order to accommodate other kinds of varieties, dialects and registers.

Hudson stressed that the language should be understood by the addresses to understand the conveyed message. But the earliest definition of code switching has been given.

Weinreich (1953) who defines bilingual people as individuals who switch from one language to another according to the appropriate change in a speech situation. From this definition, one could understand that the situation of the speech is the main element that leads the speakers to switch from one language into the other.

2.5.1 Types of Code Switching

There are kinds of code switching as suggested by some sociolinguists; Blom and Gumperz (1972).

2.5.1.1 Situational code Switching

It occurs when the language changes according to the situation in which the conversation find them, it can be found in the use of speech level in a language which has speeches levels. Each of the level has its social function and it is used in certain interlocutors. For instance, a young speaker will use the upper (very formal) level of the language to the

older listener in a kind of situations and he will use the lower (intimate) level to communicate with person of the same age.

2.5.1.2 Metaphorical Code Switching

It has an effective dimension to the **choice** of code that caries symbolic meaning so that the language fits the message, this is illustrated in a quote attributed to Charles V the truly Roman Emperor who indicates the attitude about certain languages being holy; the language of love or male solidarity crude or bestial: (we speak Spanish to God).

2.5.1.3 Tag switching [emblematic]

With tag switching, it is the insertion of a tag phrase from one language to an utterance from another language which constitutes a switch and given the tags a monolingual utterance without syntactic rules.

2.5.1.4 Inter sentential switching

It occurs outside the sentence or the clause level and often takes place according to turns taken by the speaker in a conversation .For example a child Arabic-French bilingual say:

"Ma nabghichriyadiyat, c'est tres difficile"

2.5.1.5 Intra-sentential switching:

It concerns language alternation that occurs within a sentence or a clause boundary. Sometimes it includes mixing within word boundaries. The switch that occurs with a sentence, it often occurs when someone uses one language and suddenly switched into another language in a sentence

2.5.2 Code switching and Code Mixing:

In studying the outcomes of language context, we always meet terms like code switching, code mixing and borrowing the confusion which is made between these phenomena rising from the disagreement between searching the definition of each phenomenon, this is what Remaine (1995) tries to show when she writes:

Problem of terminology continues to plague the study of language contact phenomena with terms such as code switching mixing and borrowing not being used by all the researchers in the way even defined at all.

What has been agreed upon among many scholars is that both code switching and code mixing are communication strategies but they still receive different definitions in the literature Ritdiand Bhatia (2004) give the following definition for **code switching:**

We use code-switching (CS) to refer to the use of various linguistics units (words, phrases, clauses and sentences. Primarily from two participating grammatical systems across sentence boundaries within speech event. In other words, CS is intersentential and maybe subject to discourse principles. It is motivated by social and psychological factors.

And they define code mixing in the following way:

We use the term code mixing (CM) to refer to the mixing of various linguistics units (morphemes, wordsphrases, clauses, and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems within a sentence. in other words , (CM) is intra-sentential and is constrained by grammatical principles and may also be motivated by social psychological factors .

What can be understood from the above definition is that these researchers concentrated on making a clear distinction between intersentential code switching which

occurs between sentence and intra-sentential code mixing that occurs with sentence boundaries. But there is a shared feature between them which that both of them are motivated by social and psychological factors. This distinction between code switching and code mixing does not seem to be accepted by all researchers.

Hatch (1976) claims that there is sharp distinction between code switching and code mixing but others refuse it because they consider both code switching and code mixing as a situational shifting. Other scholars have also tried to draw a line of demarcation between CS and CM among them Mclauphlin (1978) who distinguishes between code mixing to refer to switches within sentence and code switching to refer to changing language over phrases or sentence. This distinction appears to be the same the formulated by William C Ritchie and Tej Bhatia since both of them differentiates between code mixing and codeswitching.

2.5.3 Reasons of Code Switching

Code switching is totally a natural phenomena that occurs in a bilingual and multilingual people. Especially when they speak to people who speak the same languages as them. And here are some reasons why people might do it:

2.5.3.1 The Topic

People who speak different languages sometimes feel more comfortable speaking about specific topics in specific languages. That might be because that topic requires specific vocabulary that they do not have in other languages or because they have never spoken about the topic in that language.

2.5.3.2 Quoting

For a multilingual person, it is much more natural to repeat exactly from what you heard someone say rather than have to think about how to translate it first. People who speak

multiple languages as hyper-aware of how much can be lost in translation. If they are telling an anecdote, it is easier for them to quote someone in the language they have used.

2.5.3.3 **Emotions**

We all develop different levels of emotional attachments to different languages. We can also be less or more sensitive to the things that we are saying, depending on how strongly feel about certain language. Which is one reason why people might tend to swear more in the language they do not speak natively.

2.5.3.4 Clarifications

Sometimes if people code –switch, it is to make themselves better understood. Maybe the person they are speaking to does not have such a wide vocabulary and so they need to use word from their stronger language to communicate what they are trying to say better.

2.5.3.5 Identity

The language we speak is inseparable from our identity. Sometimes code-switching will start language to gain more or less social statue or make different impression. Other times they might switch to different languages to introduce someone to a group when that person does not share the same language as them.

Commands and requests: Some people code-switch into different languages either to sound more authoritative or more appreciable. This is particularly common for parents bringing up children multilingually who might end up using specific languages for different interactions.

2.5.3.6 Nuance

Sometimes speakers are worried whether they translate a word, a saying or an expression that will become distorted. For some people, words in different languages have

totally separated and different connotations, depending on where they end up using them.

Conclusion

This chapter deals with the phenomena of bilingualism and code-switching. In the first section, we have defined bilingualism as an ability to speak two languages, and we mentioned the different types of bilingualism coordinated, compound and subordinated. as well as the benefit behind it. Whereas, section two tackles code-switching, code mixing and the reasons of their use.

Chapter Three

Data Analysis & Findings

3.1Introduction

This chapter is the practical part of the work, it includes the questionnaire in order to get in touch with different results and sequences, this questionnaire given to 32 educated parents from the Algerian context, the questionnaire is made of sixteen questions of different types which means, that some are yes/no questions, others WH question in terms of a direct one by giving some suggestions for each one, and others are indirect questions which allow parents give their justification in few lines. This chapter attempts to achieve what strategies do families use to support first and second language development for their children and what are the parental attitudes to develop bilingualism.

This study is based on the data collection that has been gathered through the principle of a quantitative research in the aim of achieving a reliable data concerning this research study. It consists of one tool which is a questionnaire for parents.

3.2 Participants

The participants for this study are parents of children of an Algerian nationality, the children are between one and five years old, the reason why this age group for children are selected because of the fact that parent tend to be more involved in assisting the younger children with respect to language skills at home. The participants in this research are educated families that are more likely to use first and second language at home.

3.3 Data Analysis of the Questionnaire

In this analysis; each question has been analyzed separately and many procedures have been taken, the data is analyzed quantitatively (the use of tables).

Question One: what are the strategies you opted for to make your child bilingual?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Conversation	14	42%
TV programs	5	15%
Listening to music	13	40%

Table 1. Parental Strategies of Developing Bilingualism

The table above demonstrates the results of the question one that looks for the strategies that parents opt for make their child bilingual. 42% of the participants said conversation, whereas 40% have chosen listening to music and practice minority language at home, while 15% said TV program.

Question Two: What are the languages you use to communicate with your child?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Arabic	14	42%
French	5	15%
Prench)	1370
Both	13	40%

Table2: Parents' Language

The table above shows the answer of the question two that seeks to find out which language that parents use to communicate with their children, 42% claimed Arabic, however 40% have chosen both languages, while 5% only they have answered that they used French to communicate with their kids.

Question Three: When should you start speaking to your child is second language?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages

One year	3	9%
Two years	12	37%
Three years	17	53%

Table 3. Preferred Age for Parents to Start Speaking a Second Language to their Children

The table above revealed that most parents start speaking to their children with second language at the age of three years old, 37% stated two years and 9% said one year.

Question Four: How often do you speak French with them?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Always	10	31%
Sometimes	16	50%
Rarely	6	18%

Table 4. Parent's Usage for the French Language at Home

The table above demonstrates the results of the question number four that seeks the time parents speak French with their kids. 50% of the participants said sometimes, whereas 31% of them said always and 18% left said rarely.

Question Five: When you communicate with your child in Arabic, Do you respond?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
In French	12	37%
In Arabic	19	59%
Others	01	3%

Table 5. Language of Parents' Response

When we asked the respondents, when they communicate with their children in Arabic which the language they respond in , the majority of parents have chosen Arabic , 37% they claimed that they respond in French. While, only 3% have answered with others.

Question six: How do you help your child learn to speak two languages fluently?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Communicate with them	14	43%
Read to them	08	25%
Allower than 15-4 and 4-		
Allows them listen to		
music or watch TV	10	31%
masie of water 1 v		3170
programs		

Table 6.Parental Methods of Helping Child's Language Development

It is clear from the results that the majority of parents answered that they help their children learn to speak two languages fluently by communicating with them. 31% of parents said that they allow them listen to music or watch TV programs and 25% left said they read to them.

Question seven: What are the attitudes towards your child language development?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Positive	11	34%
Negative	3	9%
Neutral	18	56%

Table 7. Parental Attitude towards Child's Language Development.

The results showed that most parents stated that attitudes towards their child's language development were neutral and this takes the biggest percentage, whereas positive attitude took 34% and negative 9%.

Question eight: which Factors that Motivate you teach their children two language?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Social factors	5	16%
Future job opportunity	16	50%
Communicating easily	11	34%

Table 8. Factors of Motivating Children to Learn Two Languages

From the table above, we noticed that 50% of parents claimed that the factors that motivated them teach their children two languages is future job opportunities, 34% said communicating easily and 16% opted for social factors.

Question nine: what are the methods and tools used to support child the first and second languages development?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Conversation	14	43%
Using rich and varied		
vocabulary in both	10	31%
languages		
Pictures Books	8	25%

Table 09: Parental Ways to Improve Children's First and Second Development

We see from the results gathered in the table above that 43% of parents used conversation to support child language development, whereas 31% state using rich and varied vocabulary in both language, while the 25% left they have chosen books.

Question ten: Do You prefer your child to be bilingual? and why?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Yes	30	93%
No	2	7%

Table 10: Parents Preference of their Children's Language

It seems from the results gathered from the table 93% of the parents say 'yes', they want their children to be bilingual, whereas few of the participants have answered with no .they explain that they prefer their children to be bilingual to communicate with a variety of peole.

Question eleven: How do you motivate your child to learn French?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
French is important for		
higher education	16	50%
It is Prestigious	08	25%
Allows communication		
with variety of people	08	25%

Table 11: Parental Ways of Motivating Children to Learn French

The table above shows the answers of the question number eleven that demonstrates how parents motivate their children learn French , 50% claim that French is important for higher education , and 25% said it is prestigious and the 25% left said it allows communication with a variety of people .

Question twelve: What are you expectations for a multilingual child?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Openness and acceptance	10	31%
Job opportunities	15	46%
Tolerance toward cultures	8	25%

Table 12: Parent Expectations for Multilingual Child

When we asked the respondents about their expectations for a multilingual child.

46% replied it was to job opportunities, another 31% claimed it was about openness and acceptance, and the 25% left assumed it was about the tolerance toward cultures

Question Thirteen: How do you make your child focus when learning two language at the same time?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
By raising the pitch of		
your voice	10	31%
Use special language	06	19%
Label words-noun and		
Action in the context	16	50%

Table 13: Parental Strategies Used to Make Children Focus When Learning Two Languages

When we asked the participants about the strategies that is used to make their children focus when they learn two languages at the same time, 50% claimed label wordsnouns and action in context ,31% replied by raising the pitch of the voice whereas , only 19% claimed use special language .

Question Fourteen: What can you do in a bilingual home?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Create a positive		
Learning environment	15	46%
Using big gestures and		
physical demonstrations	8	25%
Incorporating a second		
language into your child's	9	28%
daily routine		

Table 14: Parents Attempts for Improving Bilingualism at Home

The table above demonstrates the respondent's answers to question fourteen that seeks parental duties in a bilingual home, 46% claimed they create a positive learning environment, and 25% said they use gestures and physical demonstrations, and the 28% left have chosen to incorporate a second language into your child's daily routine.

Question Fifteen: Which resources do you use to help your child to be bilingual?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Dooles	10	210/
Books	10	31%
Audio tapes and CDs	12	37%
Video tapes and DVDS	10	31%

Table 15: The Sources Improving the Child's Bilingualism Acquisition

The results showed that 31% of the Algerian parents use video tapes and DVDs, 31% use picture books, However, the majority of them use audio tapes and CDs for helping their children to bilinguals.

Question sixteen: Which one of these is an efficient strategy?

Suggestions	Results	Percentages
Mixed language Policy	15	46%
One parent one language	8	25%
Practice minority language		
at home	9	25%

Table 16: Parent's Efficient Strategy for Child's Language Development.

The Table above shows the answers of the question number sixteen that seeks the efficient strategy for child's language development. 46% stated mixed languages policy (MLP) and 25% have chosen one parent one language (OPOL) whereas 25% said that practicing minority language at home was the efficient strategy to improve a child's language development.

3.4 Discussion of Result and Findings

The present study is an attempt to explore parental role and strategies that parents employ to assist their children's first and second language development in the home environment. The main aim of this research is to highlight parental role supporting language skills development. For achieving the purpose, a quantitative approach was used to for data collection and data analysis. The study seeks to answer the research question which is what strategies that families use to support first and second language development of their children. Concerning the results obtained from analyzing the questionnaire, we confirm our hypothesis. The aim of the parent's questionnaire is to know the parental role and strategies for first and second language learning at the home environment.

Statistical analysis of the questionnaire responses showed that majority of parents state it is important for their children to learn first and second language in pre-school. Daily communication at home was the most common activity by most of the parents who also state that television, DVDs, pictures, books are suitable resources, they use to help their children to be bilingual. The results from the questionnaire show that most of the parents wanted their children to learn a second language for a higher education and job opportunities.

Hence, Most of parents claim that motivation is a very important aspect for a child's second language development. The questionnaire responses show also that most of parents motivate their children by emphasizing the importance of French for higher education and future job opportunities.

Conclusion

To sum up the results of the analysis of the parents'questionnaire helped us to shed a light on the parental strategies and attitudes for childs language development. In this chapter, we found that daily communication at home was a very important strategy for a child\s language development. Yet, we have also found that parents used television, DVDs and pictures as strategies to improve the child language development.

General Conclusion

This research has investigated the role of code switching in a child language acquisition. This present study has also shed a light on the parental attitudes toward bilingualism, the study raised these questions:

What are the parental attitudes to developing bilingualism and code-switching among children? Or what strategies do families use to support first and second language development for their children?

A questionnaire was used as a research tool, the respondents were thirty-two parents from the Algerian context who were asked to confirm my hypothesis and my data of the parental attitudes and strategies used to support first and second language development for their children.

The findings have shown that daily communication at home and incorporating a second language into the child's daily routine are very important activities and methods that most parents used for the child's language development.

The findings also showed that DVDs, television and pictures books were utilized by most of the participants for the child's language development. The findings also revealed that the participants used a mixed language policy and practiced a minority language at home, my investigation has led me to answer the questions stated earlier in this research work: the practice of second language at home and the mixed language policy improve the child's language development.

As recommendations for further studies, some points should be taken into consideration. Bilingualism and codeswitching are two interrelated elements that researchers should check carefully. As for the case of Algeria, the pluralism of languages creates a

challenging fact in analyzing the phenomena of mixing and switching the code as well as multilingualism. The latter is apparent in different areas in Algeria where Algerian Arabic, Berber, French and even Classical Arabic are creating other instances of bilingualism and multilingualism.

The present study can be a reference to future research. A noticeable remark is that the case of French and Arabic are mostly appearing in the northern regions of Algeria. It is preferable to check the same case of bilingualism at earlier stages in the southern regions. By doing that, any result about the Algerian case can be more valid and reliable.

References

- Baker, C. (2003). Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism. 5th ed. Clevedon England: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Bloomfield, L. (1935). Language. London: George Allen and Unwin.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. Cambridge: MIT Press.
- De Villiers, J.& Roeper, T. (2011) *HandBook of Generative Approaches to Language Acquisition*. University of Massachusetts At Amherst.
- Ellis, R. (2008). The study of second language acquisition "(second Edition) Oxford: OUP.
- Goodluck, H. (1991). Language acquisition: A linguistic introduction. Malden (MA):

 Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1973). The communicative competence of bilinguals: Some hypotheses and suggestions for research. *Language in Society*, 2(1), pp.143–154
- Hamers, J.F & Blanc, H.A. (2000). *Bilinguality and bilingualism* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Hudson, R.A. (1996). Sociolinguistics . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Hertfordshire, England: Phoenix ELT.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M. H. (1991). An introduction to second language acquisition research. London.

Long, M, (1985), *Input and second language acquisition theory*. In Gass, S and Madden, C, (eds.). Rowley Mass: Newbury House.

Milroy, L., and Muysken, P. (1995). *One Speaker, Two Languages: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives on Code-Switching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ortega, L. (2009). Understanding second language acquisition. London: Hodder Education

Piaget, J. (1970). Science of education and the psychology of the child. New York: Viking.

Romaine, S. (1995). Bilingualism. Oxford: Blackwell.

Weinreich, U. (1953). Languages in contact. The Hague, Netherlands: Mouton.

Williamson, G. (2008). Language Acquisition. Retrieved May 4th, 2018, from Speech Therapy Information and Resources Website: http://www.speech-therapy-information-and-resources.com/language-acquisition.html

Websites

https://www.Cambridge.Org. Accessed on May 12th 2018

https://www.nnetesol.org>uploads>2013>11. Accessed on May 12th 2018

https://www.Brage.bidsys.no>xmlui>handleAccessed on May 12th 2018

https://www.Cambridge.org>core>article. Accessed on May 12th 2018

hhtps://www.csun.edu>Galasso>code. Accessed on May 12th

Appendix