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**Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English
Section of English**

**Investigating the Use of Arabic in EFL Classrooms: Case of
3rd Year at Bouazza Miloud Secondary School Maghnia**

Dissertation submitted to the Department of English as a partial fulfilment of
the requirements for Master's degree in Language Studies

Presented by

Ms Asma MILOUD

Ms Meriem HACHEMI

Supervised by

Dr. Kamila BELHADJ-TAHAR

Board of Examiners

Prof. Mohamed Nassim NEGADI

Prof

President

Dr. Kamila BELHADJ-TAHAR

MCA

Supervisor

Dr. Fatima Zohra ADDER

MCA

Examiner

2024/2025

Declaration

We declare with full responsibility that the present work is the result of our collective efforts and intellectual contribution. It has not been previously submitted for any academic qualification at any institution. We affirm that this study is free from plagiarism, and all external sources and references have been properly acknowledged and cited throughout the work.

Dedications

I dedicate this work to the light of my life, my family

To my beloved father, may Allah mercy on his soul, whose care, strength, and constant support made the person I am today

To my precious mother, her love, warmth, and sacrifices transformed impossible challenges into possible achievements

To my devoted sister, brothers, and my grandfather, whose presence has been a steady source of encouragement and hope

And finally, myself for holding on when it was easier to give up

Meriem

To the ambitious warrior I have been, every dark season survived, every sleepless night, every battle fought in silence. You made it.

To my parents, whose sacrifices are the silent pillars behind every line of this work, and whose unwavering strength wrote the blueprint of my becoming. You are the silent architects of my becoming.

To my small, sacred circle: my only brother and my only sister, you are the echo of my laughter, the reason behind my resilience.

And to my beloved grandmother, your help, your care, and your presence, they carried me when the journey felt too long.

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Abstract

In Algerian secondary schools, the integration of both Arabic and English in classrooms where English is taught as a foreign language has become a frequent instructional practice. This study aimed to investigate the reasons behind the use of both the mother tongue, Arabic, and the foreign language, English, examined the effects of this bilingual approach on learners, and explored pupils' attitudes toward it. The research was carried out as a case study at Bouaazza Miloud third year Secondary School and employed a triangulated design that included questionnaires administered to both teachers and pupils, in addition to classroom observation. The collected data were analysed using both qualitative and quantitative methods. The results showed that teachers often relied on Arabic to clarify complex ideas and to manage class time effectively, especially when pupils had difficulty understanding content delivered in English. Pupils, in turn, expressed positive attitudes toward the use of Arabic in the classroom, considering it a supportive and helpful element in their learning process. However, it was also found that pupils' frequent dependence on their mother tongue limited their opportunities to practice English and negatively affected their ability to develop strong communication skills in the foreign language. The study concluded that while bilingual instruction can be pedagogically useful, it must be applied in a balanced way that promotes the development of the target language without overreliance on the native language.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

AA: Algerian Arabic

AAVE: African American Vernacular English

AF: Absolute Frequency

CS: Code Switching

EFL: English Foreign Language

FL: Foreign Language

ICT: Information and Communication Technology

L1: Mother Tongue (Arabic)

L2: Second Language (English)

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

Q: Question

RF: Relative Frequency

TL: Target Language

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

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One of the most debated topics in the field of language education is the role of the mother tongue (L1) in EFL classrooms. The presence of L1 in English language learning environments has drawn the attention of educators and researchers alike, as it remains a natural part of many teaching situations around the world. In contexts where English is taught as a foreign language, students often rely on their mother tongue to support their understanding and participation. This has led to growing interest in exploring the functions that L1 serves within EFL classrooms and the extent to which it contributes to or shapes the language learning experience. Consequently, the use of the mother tongue has emerged as a significant area of inquiry within the broader field of second language pedagogy.

In the Algerian EFL context, the use of Dialectal Arabic during the classroom remains a controversial and complex issue. Although English language inspectors officially prohibit the use of Arabic during instruction, many teachers still resort to it as a practical means of managing the classroom and clarifying difficult points. This ongoing contradiction between pedagogical policies and actual classroom practices has generated a growing need to examine the implications of using L1 in English language teaching. Teachers may use Arabic to gain time or facilitate learners' understanding, but the consequences of this choice are not always clearly defined. Some argue for English-only instruction to maximize exposure, while others advocate for the strategic use of L1 to enhance understanding and support learning. Moreover, the use of L1 in EFL classrooms often evokes varied attitudes among pupils, that can be either positive or negative. This ongoing discussion highlights the importance of examining how L1 is used in the classroom and how it influences pupils' engagement and language development.

This study aims to explore the role of Arabic in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language in third-year secondary classrooms. It focuses on how both pupils and teachers perceive and respond to the use of Arabic alongside English during English lessons. On the one hand, it seeks to understand pupils' attitudes toward this bilingual approach and how it may influence their motivation, participation, and

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language development. On the other hand, it examines teachers' views and practices regarding the use of the mother tongue as a pedagogical tool in the English classroom. It also aims to investigate why teachers rely on the use of the mother tongue during EFL sessions.

Three central research questions are formulated to achieve the aims outlined above:

1. What are the reasons behind using L1 by teachers during EFL classes?
2. What are the effects of using L1 on pupils during EFL classes?
3. What are Pupils' attitudes towards bilingual education?

Thus, three research hypotheses are proposed as follow:

1. Teachers use L1 in EFL classrooms to gain time, and facilitate ideas to pupils;
2. Pupils' frequent reliance on L1 in EFL classes lead to delay language acquisition process;
3. Pupils have positive attitudes towards the use of L1 during EFL classes, perceiving it as more supportive and encouraging for their learning and comprehension process.

The research was carried out as an exploratory case study in third-year secondary classrooms at Bouazza Miloud Secondary School in Maghnia and employed a triangulated design that included questionnaires administered to both teachers and pupils, in addition to classroom observation. The collected data were analysed using both qualitative and quantitative methods.

This work is divided into two chapters. The first chapter covers the key theoretical background of the study. It begins with an overview of language contact and its outcomes, followed by a discussion of bilingualism and code-switching. Then, it presents the language situation in Algeria and outlines the structure of the Algerian educational system, with emphasis on foreign languages. The chapter also addresses language planning and language attitudes, and concludes by highlighting the role of the mother tongue in English classrooms. The second chapter is dedicated to the practical

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aspect of the research. It introduces the research design, the type of research, and the sample and population. It then describes the data collection instruments and procedures. This chapter continues with the analysis and discussion of the questionnaires completed by pupils and teachers, along with classroom observations. The chapter finishes with suggestions and recommendations.

CHAPTER ONE

LITERATURE

REVIEW

1.1 Introduction

In today's increasingly multilingual world, classrooms have become spaces where multiple languages naturally coexist and interact. This is especially true in Algeria, a country with a rich and complex linguistic heritage shaped by history, culture, and policy. Within this context, English as a Foreign Language in classrooms (EFL) often reflects the broader linguistic reality, where the use of more than one language including the mother tongue becomes an integral part of the teaching and learning process. To fully grasp the implications of such practices, it is essential to explore the theoretical foundations that inform bilingualism and its pedagogical applications.

This chapter begins by addressing the phenomenon of language contact and its outcomes, most notably bilingualism. Definitions, types, and contributing factors of bilingualism and code-switching are discussed. Particular attention is given to the various forms and functions of code-switching within instructional contexts. The review, then, turns to the Algerian educational and linguistic landscape, providing an overview of the country's language planning, the historical development of its education system, and the ongoing influence of Arabic, Berber, and French. Within this context, the chapter, also, explores the role of the mother tongue in EFL classrooms and provides a general overview of the concept of language attitudes and their relevance to bilingual education. By combining theoretical insights with the specific linguistic and educational realities of Algeria, this chapter sets the stage for a deeper understanding of bilingual instruction and its implications for EFL teaching and learning.

1.2 Language Contact

At its core, language contact occurs when two or more languages are spoken and interact within the same geographic or social space. Sociolinguists have consistently aimed to understand the phenomenon of language contact and to analyse the linguistic outcomes that arise from such interactions. According to Weinreich (1968, p. 1) "Two or more languages will be said to be in contact if they are used alternately by the same persons".

Language contact is traditionally studied within historical linguistics and focuses on changes that arise from external interaction between languages, such as contact through colonization, trade, or migration, rather than from internal linguistic evolution, which involves natural changes within a language's structure over time, such as shifts in grammar, pronunciation, or vocabulary. It examines how the introduction of new languages into a speech community affects both speakers and their linguistic practices (Joseph, 2010). Therefore, such contact often results from increased social interaction between neighbouring communities with distinct languages, but more commonly emerges from the imposition of dominant and prestigious languages during periods of colonization and conquest, leading to significant linguistic and cultural transformations within the affected communities (Thomason, 2001).

Thus, Since the 1970s, the outcomes of language contact have attracted increasing attention from linguists. Researchers began moving beyond earlier deficit views of contact-induced language practices. Pioneering scholars such as Poplack (1980), Grosjean (1982), Myers-Scotton (1993), and Thomason (2001) have examined how language contact can lead to systematic outcomes, including code-switching, borrowing, bilingualism, and the development of pidgins and creoles. These phenomena are now understood not as linguistic irregularities but as natural processes of language evolution shaped by social interaction. Such outcomes are now viewed by linguists not as linguistic irregularities, but as natural processes of language evolution shaped by social interaction.

1.3 Introduction to bilingualism

Most communities throughout the world possess access to multiple language varieties, making bilingualism or multilingualism a far more widespread global reality than monolingualism. This can be illustrated by the existence of approximately 5,000 languages spoken within just around 200 nation-states (Edwards, 1994). Bilingualism, as a result, emerges naturally in many social and cultural contexts where languages come into contact whether due to migration, colonization, trade, education, or political change. It can be observed in both individual language use and broader societal structures where two or more languages function alongside each other.

1.3.1 Definitions of bilingualism

Bilingualism is commonly defined as the ability of an individual to use two languages. This general definition aligns with the view of Grosjean (1982), who states that “bilingualism is the regular use of two (or more) languages, and bilinguals are those people who need and use two (or more) languages in their everyday lives.” However, there is ongoing debate regarding who should be considered bilingual. Bloomfield (1933), for example, introduces the concept of “native-like” proficiency and argues that a person can only be called bilingual if they have achieved native-like control in both languages. In contrast, Haugen (1953) proposes a broader definition, suggesting that bilingualism begins when a person is able to produce complete and meaningful sentences in a second language. Some researchers adopt an even more inclusive perspective. Macnamara (1967) (cited in Hamers & Blanc, 1983) considers anyone with minimal competence in a second language to be bilingual. According to these views, a bilingual individual is someone who has at least basic ability in one of the four main language skills: speaking, listening, reading, or writing, in a language alongside with their mother tongue.

Both Weinreich and Haugen also provide definitions of bilingualism. Weinreich, for instance, refers to bilingualism as the daily practice of two languages, and to alternate between them. According to Haugen (1953), bilingualism begins when a speaker can produce meaningful sentences in another language.

1.3.2 Types of bilingualism

Bilingualism is divided into two types: societal bilingualism and individual bilingualism.

1.3.2.1 Societal Bilingualism

Bilingualism can be understood as a characteristic of an entire society, where more than one language is commonly used, and a significant portion of the population is capable of communicating in these languages. As noted by sociolinguist Mackey

(1967), societal bilingualism can be classified into two forms: de jure bilingualism (legally recognized), and de facto bilingualism (practiced in reality).

A. *De jure Bilingualism*

This type of bilingualism occurs when multiple languages receive official recognition, usually through constitutional frameworks or linguistic policies. These languages are generally promoted and maintained through public institutions such as education systems, government, media, and legal services.

Examples of de jure bilingual or multilingual societies:

Algeria: Arabic and Berber, are officially recognized as official languages.

Switzerland: Officially recognizes four national language German, French, Italian, and Romansh;

Kenya: Both Swahili and English are constitutionally recognized as official languages and used in public domains.

B. *De facto bilingualism*

De facto bilingualism refers to a sociolinguistic condition in which multiple languages are actively used within a society, despite the absence of formal or legal recognition of all of them. In such contexts, a nation may officially endorse a single language, yet other languages-often spoken by minority groups-are widely used in daily communication, education, or cultural expression. This practical coexistence of languages, without equal legal standing, results in a bilingual reality that is not reflected in the official language policy. As Romaine (2000) explains, de facto bilingualism often arises where linguistic diversity persists beneath the surface of state-imposed monolingualism.

Examples of de facto bilingualism:

United States: while English is the de facto national language, Spanish is so widely used that the country functions in many areas as a bilingual society, even without official bilingual status.

Canada is officially a bilingual country, recognizing both English and French at the federal level. However, in reality, it exhibits characteristics of a multilingual society, as many other languages such as Mandarin, Italian, German, and Punjabi are also commonly spoken by its diverse population. This situation illustrates *de jure* bilingualism alongside *de facto* multilingualism (Djennane, 2017).

France is officially a monolingual nation, with French designated as the sole official language in its constitution. However, in practice, the country is multilingual, with regional languages such as Alsatian, Breton, and Occitan, along with immigrant languages like Portuguese and Arabic, widely spoken across the nation. While French holds the formal status, the everyday linguistic landscape reflects a rich diversity of languages (Djennane, 2017).

1.3.2.2 Individual Bilingualism

Individual bilingualism is shaped by a combination of personal and environmental influences, such as one's upbringing, education, age, where they live, their attitude, and motivation. Researchers have proposed several ways to categorize this type of bilingualism, often focusing on four key dimensions in their classification (Djennane, 2017):

- Cognitive organisation of the two languages.
- Age of acquisition/learning.
- Language proficiency.
- Sequence of acquisition.

Classification according to the cognitive organization:

Compound Bilingualism: refers to a situation when a person acquires two languages at the same time within the same environment. For instance, a child raised in a bilingual household would naturally learn and use both languages for everyday interactions.

Coordinate Bilingualism: occurs when a person learns two languages in separate contexts, often through different methods. For example, in Algeria Arabic-speaking child

who learns French in school would be considered a coordinate bilingual, as they learn English at home and French through formal education, in distinct settings.

Sub-coordinate Bilingualism: happens when an individual learns a second language by translating it through their native language. For example, an Arabic speaker learning French might associate the French word 'livre' with its Arabic equivalent, /Kita:b/, using their knowledge of Arabic to understand the meaning of the new word.

Classification according to the age of acquisition: Early Bilingualism can be divided into two types: Simultaneous Bilingualism and Sequential Bilingualism.

Simultaneous Bilinguals: are individuals who acquire both languages at the same time, typically from birth. This form of bilingualism is known as additive bilingualism, where both languages are learned simultaneously, leading to strong bilingual development.

Sequential Bilinguals: In this case, the second language (L2) is learned after the first language (L1) is partially acquired. This often happens when a child moves to an environment where the dominant language is different from their native language. While this form of bilingualism can also lead to strong bilingualism (additive bilingualism), it requires time for the child to learn the second language. Here, the child's language development is bilingual, but it occurs in stages.

Late Bilingualism: This refers to learning a second language after the age of 6 or 7, often during adolescence or adulthood. Late bilingualism typically occurs after the first language has already been fully acquired, distinguishing it from early bilingualism. This is known as consecutive bilingualism, where the first language is already established and the second language is learned later on.

Classification according to language proficiency:

Balanced Bilinguals: These individuals possess equal competence in both languages, using them with similar ease and proficiency;

Unbalanced Bilinguals: In contrast, unbalanced bilinguals do not have equal proficiency in both languages. One language is typically stronger or more easily used than the other;

Active Bilinguals: These are individuals who can actively speak both languages, having developed productive skills (speaking and writing) in both languages;

Passive Bilinguals: These people can understand both languages but are only able to speak one. Their second language proficiency is mainly limited to receptive skills (listening and reading), with less development in productive use.

Classification according to the sequence of acquisition:

Simultaneous Bilingualism: This occurs when a person learns two languages at the same time from a very young age, typically starting in infancy. It represents a form of early bilingualism.

Consecutive, Successive, or Sequential Bilingualism: In this case, the second language (L2) is learned after the first language (L1). This type of bilingualism may develop either in early childhood or later in life.

According to Adler (1977), a further distinction can be made:

Ascribed Bilingualism: This refers to the natural acquisition of a second language during childhood, typically through immersion in a bilingual environment.

Achieved Bilingualism: This involves learning an additional language through formal instruction, often later in life or in academic settings.

1.3.2 Factors of Bilingualism in Algeria

Bilingualism in Algeria is a complex sociolinguistic phenomenon shaped by a multitude of historical, political, and cultural factors:

Colonial Legacy and French Influence

French colonization (1830–1962) left a lasting impact on Algeria's linguistic landscape. The French language became dominant in administration, education, and media. Even after independence, French remained widely used, especially in science, technology, and professional fields, fostering Arabic French bilingualism across generations (Benrabah, 2007).

Arabization Policies

After independence, the Algerian government implemented Arabization to restore Arabic as the national language and reduce French influence. This policy aimed to promote national unity, but it created tensions and linguistic inequalities, especially in regions where Berber (Tamazight) was widely spoken (Boukous, 1995; Benrabah, 2013).

Recognition of Berber

Tamazight was recognized as a national language in 2002 and an official language in 2016. This recognition followed years of activism by Berber cultural movements. However, integration into the education system and public life has been limited and uneven.

Educational Language Policies

Arabic is the primary medium of instruction, but French is introduced early in schooling and remains crucial in scientific and technical education. Recently, English is gaining ground due to globalization and official encouragement, reflecting a shift toward multilingualism in some areas (Benrabah, 2014).

Sociolinguistic Practices and Identity

In Algeria, code-switching between Arabic, French, and Berber is a prevalent linguistic practice, influenced by factors such as region, social class, and context. French is often associated with modernity and prestige, while Arabic is closely tied to national identity and religion. This multilingual dynamic reflects the complex sociolinguistic landscape of Algerian society. (Babou, 2021)

Globalization and the Rise of English

Globalization has significantly increased the role of English worldwide, making it a dominant language in international business, science, technology, and education. In many countries, including Algeria, English is increasingly seen as essential for accessing global knowledge and economic opportunities. This has led to a rise in English language

learning, supported by government policies and positive societal attitudes, especially among youth and in higher education. As a result, English has become a key factor driving bilingualism, often alongside local languages. (Crystal, 2003)

1.4 Code Switching

As a consequence of sustained language contact, code-switching emerges as a prominent linguistic phenomenon, particularly among bilingual and multilingual speakers. According to Fishman (1965), language choice is shaped by social context, as individuals select different languages depending on the setting, participants, and topic. This idea forms the basis of what he termed *domain analysis*, a framework captured by the guiding question: “Who speaks what language to whom and when?” It highlights how language use naturally shifts in response to social environments. The interaction between languages within a shared communicative space often leads individuals to alternate between languages in response to social, cultural, or contextual factors. Bilinguals, in particular, tend to switch codes fluidly, drawing on their full linguistic repertoire to achieve clarity, express identity, or adapt to their interlocutor’s language preference. This practice is not merely a by-product of knowing more than one language, but a strategic and context-driven response to complex communicative environments (Gumperz, 1982; Myers-Scotton, 1993).

1.4.1 Definitions of Code Switching

Code-switching has been approached from various linguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives, each highlighting different aspects of its structure and function in communication. Hymes (1974), as it is cited in Ayeomoni (2006, p. 91), offers a foundational definition of code-switching, describing it as “a common term for alternative use of two or more languages, varieties of a language or even speech styles.” Hymes' definition underscores that code-switching encompasses not only the alternation between distinct languages but also between language varieties and speech styles. It reflects the speaker’s ability to adapt linguistically to varying social contexts and communicative situations. Similarly, Trudgill (2003, p. 23) defines code-switching as

“the process whereby bilingual or bidialectal speakers switch back and forth between one language or dialect and another within the same conversation.” This definition highlights that code-switching occurs not only among bilingual individuals who speak two different languages but also among bidialectal speakers who alternate between different dialects of the same language during a single conversation.

In this respect, Gumperz (1982, p.59) also stands out as one of the most influential contributors to the study of code-switching, defining it as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems”. He also, believes that speakers code-switch unconsciously, as they are naturally programmed to do so without being aware of it. Expanding on this structural view. Furthermore, Milroy and Muysken (1995, p. 7) define code switching as “the alternative use by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation”. In addition to other pioneers in the field who have also made significant contributions to the study of code switching.

1.4.2 Types of Code Switching

The study of code-switching within the field of linguistics can be traced back to the seminal work of Blom and Gumperz (1972), which marked a foundational moment in highlighting its sociolinguistic significance. In their influential study, two key types of code-switching were identified: situational CS, and metaphorical CS. The former refers to language shifts prompted by changes in the external environment, such as setting, topic, or participants. As mentioned by McDermott and May (2023), situational code-switching “occurs when the languages used change according to the situations in which the speakers find themselves: they speak one language in one situation and another in a different one” (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2014, p. 98). In contrast, the later involves shifts that serve to convey subtle social meanings, emotional nuance, or shifts in tone, even when the situational context remains unchanged. In this context, according to Holmes (2000), metaphorical code-switching involves shifting between languages or codes to serve rhetorical functions, such as drawing the listener’s attention or reinforcing persuasive efforts in communication. Furthermore, Blom and Gumperz (1972, p.409) distinguish situational from metaphorical switching, noting that “situational switching

involves change in participants and/or strategies, metaphorical switching involves only a change in topical emphasis.” Building on this distinction, Gumperz (1982) further refined the concept by introducing conversational code-switching, a term that captures the strategic and dynamic use of language alternation within discourse, often serving nuanced social and contextual functions beyond mere topic shifts. Later, Gumperz (1982) describes these shifts as contextualization cues, emphasizing that switching serves as an implicit means of conveying meaning, shaping interpretation, and managing interaction between speakers. Hence, Gumperz identifies six key conversational functions of CS:

- **Quotations:** Incorporating direct speech or phrases from another language to convey authenticity or preserve original meaning.
- **Addressee Specification:** Switching languages to address or single out a specific individual within a multilingual context.
- **Interjections:** Using language shifts to express emotions, reactions, or emphasis.
- **Reiteration:** Restating information in another language to enhance understanding or reinforce meaning.
- **Message Qualification:** Clarifying, elaborating, or refining a message through language alternation.
- **Personalization vs. Objectivization:** Alternating languages to signal personal engagement or maintain neutrality and detachment.

These functions emphasize the socio-pragmatic nature of CS as a tool for conveying meaning and managing social relationships.

Moreover, Gumperz (1982) introduces the concepts of “we-code” and “they-code” to illustrate the social meanings embedded in language choice. The “we-code” typically denotes informal, familial, or in-group varieties, reflecting solidarity, intimacy, and group identity. On the other hand, the “they-code” is associated with more formal language use in public or institutional settings, signalling social distance and interactions with out-group members.

Viewed from a different angle, Poplack (1980) outlines three types of code-switching: inter-sentential CS, intra-sentential CS, and extra-sentential CS

1.4.2.1 Inter-sentential CS

It occurs at the boundaries between sentences or clauses, and commonly happens when speakers change during a conversation, as in:

1) səmhili ma radi:tʃ ʃlik. *j'étais occupée.*

"Sorry I didn't respond to you. I was busy".

2) **A:** *Ça vas? tu vas mieux?* **B:** *lhamdulil:a:h ʃxi:r ma kunt*

"How are you? Are you feeling better?"

"Thank God, much better."

In example (1), the speaker maintains a consistent use of one language in each utterance, with no blending of French and AA. In example (2), the first speaker's question is entirely in French, whereas the response is delivered solely in Arabic, indicating a complete switch between the two languages across turns.

1.4.2.2 Intra-sentential CS

Refers to the switching of languages within the same sentence or clause. As Poplack (1980, p. 586) explains, "codes may be switched after any constituent in discourse provided that constituent is not a bound morpheme.". As an example:

S'il te plait ʃtini les cours ndi:r photocopie w nrədhumlək

"Please give me the lessons so I can make photocopies and return them to you".

The above example shows a clear instance of intra-sentential code-switching because the speaker alternates between French and AA within the same sentence, where the two languages are interwoven within a single syntactic unit, forming one cohesive utterance.

1.4.2.3 Extra-sentential CS

Also known as tag switching, refers to the insertion of a tag phrase or ready-made expression from one language into an utterance that is otherwise entirely in another

language (Poplack, 1980). Examples include expressions such as “you know,” “I mean,” “n’est-ce pas,” and “tu vois.” These elements are often syntactically independent and can be inserted at various points within discourse. For instance:

c'est bon kəməlt l'xɛdma li ka:nɛt ʃandi

"It's okay, I have finished the work that I had."

Algeria's multilingual and multicultural environment fosters frequent code-switching, shaped by its Arabic, Berber, and colonial French heritage. It creates a setting where switching between languages is a natural part of daily communication. This multilingual reality encourages speakers to alternate languages based on context, topic, or audience, making code-switching a common and meaningful aspect of Algerian speech.

1.4.3 The Markedness Model

Myers-Scotton (1993) introduced the Markedness Model to explain how language choice in multilingual interactions reflects deeper social meanings. She argues that in daily conversations, speakers choose languages intentionally to fulfil specific communicative goals, and these choices are influenced by context and perceived as either marked or unmarked. As she states, “all code choices can ultimately be explained in terms of such speaker motivation” (1993b, p.113), which are tied to social roles defined by what she calls the rights-and-obligations (RO) set (quoted in Gustavo Javier Fernandez, 2010, p.23). For example, choosing a certain language signals how the speaker perceives their role and the listener’s role within that interaction.

In this model, she outlines three maxims: the unmarked choice: where speakers follow expected RO norms (e.g., Arabic in religious contexts in Algeria); the marked choice: used to challenge or renegotiate those roles, as it occurs when a speaker deliberately selects a language that differs from the usual expectation, thereby signalling a shift in social relations or emphasizing a particular social meaning within the interaction (Myers-Scotton, 1993), and the exploratory choice: occurs when the unmarked RO set is ambiguous or disputed, prompting speakers to use code-switching

as a means to probe, establish, or redefine the social roles and expectations within the interaction (Meeuwis & Blommaert, 1994, p. 395). Thus, code-switching becomes a tool to reinforce, question, or redefine social relationships.

However, the Markedness Model has faced criticism from several scholars for its reliance on external interpretations of language choice. Auer (1998, p.10) argues that the model relies too heavily on analyst-imposed interpretations, rather than focusing on the participants' own perspectives, stating that it depends on “conversation-external knowledge about language use”. Similarly, Blommaert and Meeuwis (1994) criticize the model’s static view of social roles, suggesting it fails to capture the dynamic nature of social interaction and the constitutive role of language in shaping social reality. Li Wei (2005) also challenges the model’s assumption that speakers make rational language choices based on a universal evaluator of markedness, noting that this overlooks the complexity and unpredictability of actual language behaviour.

1.4.4 Factors of Code Switching

The phenomenon of code-switching is influenced by a variety of interrelated factors, which can be outlined as follows:

1.4.4.1 Macro Factors

Macro-level factors refer to the broad societal influences that affect why bilingual speakers code-switch. These include economic opportunities, social status, education, cultural identity, and language dominance in a community.

According to Gumperz (1982), one reason speakers switch codes is to convey the intended meaning more accurately, particularly when they lack the exact word in one language or when addressing sensitive topics such as taboo words. More broadly, he highlights the role of code-switching in expressing group membership and managing social relationships. Fishman (1972) links language choice to the roles languages play in institutions. For Myers-Scotton (1993), switching often reflects social power and identity. On the other hand, Blommaert (2010) connects it to globalization and shifting language values.

1.4.4.2 Micro Factors

From a sociolinguistic perspective, micro-level factors refer to the immediate, individual, and situational reasons behind code-switching (CS), such as the speaker's

intention, the setting, or the audience. In Algeria, for instance, people often switch languages in prestigious situations to express personal attitudes, show alignment with modern values, or create a certain impression.

Labov (1971) notes that CS can serve as a conversational tool, helping speakers organize their discourse. Younger individuals may imitate code-switching they observe in others, especially in informal settings. Sometimes, CS is used to exclude others from a conversation or to create ambiguity common when one participant is bilingual and the other is not. According to Giles' Communication Accommodation Theory (1977), speakers may code-switch to seek approval (convergence) or to maintain distance (divergence), often reflecting their desire to connect with those who share the same identity. CS also appears in fields like science and medicine, where switching helps express specific terms or ideas more effectively.

Table 1.1. Grosjean's (1982) List on Factors Influencing Language Choice

FACTORS INFLUENCING LANGUAGE CHOICE	
Participants	Situation
Language proficiency	Location/Setting
Language preference	Presence of monolinguals
Socioeconomic status	Degree of formality
Age	Degree of intimacy
Sex	
Occupation	Content of discourse
Education	
Ethnic Background	Topic
History of speakers' linguistic interaction	Type of vocabulary
Kinship relation	
Intimacy	Function of interaction
Power relation	
Attitude toward languages	To raise status
Outside pressure	To exclude someone
	To request or command

(Quoted in DJENNANE 2010:26)

Code-switching is a common linguistic phenomenon observed in educational settings. While it is present in schools generally, it is strongly manifested in Algerian EFL classrooms, reflecting a range of instructional and communicative needs. Both teachers and students frequently engage in code-switching during instruction and interaction, driven by a range of pedagogical, cognitive, and social factors. The following table outlines the main reasons for code-switching as it occurs in the classroom context.

Table 2: Macro and micro functions of code switching (Canagarajah, 1995)

Macro- function		Micro- function	
Socio-educational situations	Content transmission		Classroom Management
	Negotiation of students' identities	Review	Opening class
	Co-group membership	Definition	Negotiating directions
		Explanation	Requesting helps
		Negotiating cultural relevance	Managing discipline
	Parallel translation	Teacher encouragements	
		Teacher compliments	
		Teacher's commands	
		Teacher admonitions	
		Mitigation	

(Quoted in Krudthong & Krudthong 2023:117)

1.5 Overview of the language situation in Algeria

The linguistic landscape of Algeria is complex and shaped by a history of colonization, cultural identity, and educational policy. The country is officially multilingual, with Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and Berber with its different varieties (Kabilyan, Tamazight, Chaoui, Targui, etc.) as official languages, French as a dominant colonial legacy language, and English as an emerging global language. This context gives rise to significant language phenomena such as diglossia, bilingualism, and code switching.

1.5.1 Multilingualism and Language Contact

Algeria's population navigates daily interactions through a repertoire that includes Algerian Arabic (Darija), Berber, French, and increasingly English. Although MSA is the official language used in administration and education, it is not the native spoken language of most Algerians. Instead, Darija and various Berber dialects are spoken in homes and communities.

The influence of French remains strong in scientific, technical, and administrative domains. Algeria is thus a multilingual society where Arabic-French bilingualism is widespread and often accompanied by the use of Berber, leading to a phenomenon of multilingualism in many regions (Benrabah, 2007).

1.5.2 Diglossia in Algeria

Classical diglossia is defined by Ferguson (1959) as a stable language situation in which two varieties of the same language coexist within a community, with the "high" variety used in formal settings and the "low" variety in everyday conversation. Extended diglossia, introduced by Fishman (1967), expands this concept to include different, often unrelated, languages that serve similar high and low functions within a society.

Algeria exhibits classical diglossia (Ferguson, 1959), particularly between MSA (the "high" variety) and Darija (the "low" variety). MSA is used in formal writing, official speeches, education, and media, while Darija is reserved for informal and everyday conversation. This functional separation of language varieties reflects

entrenched sociolinguistic hierarchies. In addition to Arabic diglossia, a triglossic situation is often proposed, with French acting as an alternative high variety in technical and academic contexts (Benrabah, 2007).

1.5.3 Bilingualism in Algeria

French is the most commonly spoken foreign language in Algeria. It is used in higher education, science, business, and media. The Arabic/French bilingualism seen in Algeria is often recognized and supported by society, a result of both colonial heritage and the failure of Arabization policies to fully eliminate French from the public sphere (Morsly, 1996; Grandguillaume, 2004).

Individual bilingualism is also prevalent, especially in urban areas. Algerians may be fluent in Darija and French, or Berber and French, depending on their linguistic and regional backgrounds.

1.5.4 Borrowing in Algeria

Borrowing is the process by which one language takes words, expressions, or structures from another language. According to Haugen (1950), borrowing occurs when linguistic items from one language are incorporated into another, typically to fill lexical or cultural gaps.

Lexical borrowing from French into Algerian Arabic is another prominent result of language contact. Borrowed terms span various domains such as technology, administration, the military and everyday life (e.g., frigo for refrigerator, fourchette for fork). These borrowed terms are often fully adapted phonologically and morphologically to fit Arabic patterns (Saadane & Habash, 2015).

The line between borrowing and code-switching can be blurry. While borrowings become integrated into the language over time, code-switching tends to involve more fluid and context-dependent language alternation (Poplack, 1980).

1.6 Overview of the educational system in Algeria- focus on foreign languages

The Algerian educational system is structured into several levels: primary (5 years), middle (4 years), and secondary (3 years), followed by higher education. The Ministry of National Education oversees the primary to secondary stages, while the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research manages the tertiary level.

Foreign language education in Algeria has undergone significant reforms over the years, particularly influenced by the country's colonial past and post-independence identity construction. French, due to the legacy of French colonization (1830–1962), continues to play a dominant role in education, administration, and media. However, Arabic is the official language, and Bereber has been recognized as a national and official language since 2016.

English as a Foreign Language (EFL) has gained prominence in recent years. Traditionally, French was introduced in the third grade of primary school, while English began in the first year of middle school. However, recent educational reforms aim to introduce English earlier in the curriculum, even at the primary level, as part of a broader effort to diversify foreign language education and reduce reliance on French.

In secondary education, students choose between different streams (e.g., science, humanities), with foreign language instruction continuing as a core subject. At the university level, English is often the medium of instruction in specific modules such as scientific and technical fields, while French still dominates in many faculties such as pharmacy department.

Despite government efforts to strengthen English teaching, challenges remain, including inadequate teacher training, limited resources, and a lack of immersive environments for language practice. Nonetheless, the demand for English proficiency is growing among Algerian youth, driven by globalization, access to international scholarship opportunities, and digital engagement.

1.7 Language Planning

The concept of language planning was introduced by Haugen (1966), who used the term to describe the strategic steps taken to implement a specific language policy. It encompasses a range of efforts designed to shape the role and form of language within society. According to Fishman (1974, p. 56), language planning involves the systematic regulation and enhancement of existing languages, or even the creation of new regional, national, or international languages. Similarly, Manser (2019, p. 43) characterizes it as a framework composed of rules, laws, and ideologies aimed at initiating deliberate linguistic changes.

Cooper (1989, p. 45) adds another layer by defining language planning as intentional actions taken to influence how people acquire, use, or assign functions to language codes. His perspective emphasizes the behavioural impact of such planning efforts. Cooper further asserts that “to plan language is to plan society” (1989, p. 182), highlighting the broader sociopolitical implications of linguistic choices.

Language planning can be categorized into four primary types. “Status planning” concerns elevating or altering the role of a language in a given society. “Corpus planning” focuses on refining a language’s structure such as standardizing spelling, developing orthographies, and compiling dictionaries. “Acquisition planning” pertains to the educational framework and strategies used to promote language learning, spanning from early childhood to higher education (Phillipson, 2003). Lastly, “prestige planning”, as noted by Djennane (2016, p. 20), seeks to cultivate positive social attitudes toward a specific language variety.

1.7.1 Language Planning in Algeria

Algeria’s language policy has undergone significant transformations, particularly with respect to the role of French and English, reflecting changing societal needs and political agendas. Following independence, the status of French was solidified through a comprehensive language planning strategy encompassing status, acquisition, corpus, and prestige planning. Initially, status planning was enacted through legislative measures that formalized French in key public sectors, including administration and media. This was followed by acquisition planning, which integrated French as a

mandatory subject across all levels of education, from the third year of primary school to the third year of secondary school. Simultaneously, corpus planning shaped instructional materials to ensure that the language was adequately represented in the educational system. The prestige planning aspect was particularly salient, as French is associated with colonial heritage and the Algerian elite, thus reinforcing its role as a language of cultural capital and social advancement. As a result, French continues to have a pervasive presence in Algeria's daily life, visible in areas such as public signage, commercial outlets, and service industries.

In contrast, the integration of English into Algeria's linguistic landscape has followed a more fluctuating trajectory, characterized by status planning, acquisition planning, and corpus planning as identified by Benrabah (2013). Initially, English's role was ambiguous, with intermittent efforts to formalize its status. Over time, however, a more structured approach emerged, leading to its inclusion in the school curriculum as a mandatory subject and its gradual introduction across educational levels. This process was accompanied by corpus planning, seen in the adaptation of teaching materials to reflect local norms and pedagogical approaches such as communicative language teaching (Savignon, 2002). Together, those efforts reflect a concerted attempt to elevate English to a significant place within Algeria's educational system, seeking to balance its international utility with the country's evolving linguistic and cultural identity.

1.8 Language Attitudes

Language attitudes have been a subject of academic inquiry since the 1930s, emerging as a prominent area of research within disciplines such as sociolinguistics, social psychology, and the anthropology of language. This broad academic interest has fostered the development of diverse theoretical frameworks, highlighting the multifaceted and interdisciplinary nature of language attitudes as a sociocultural phenomenon.

1.8.1 Definitions

Language attitudes refer to the perceptions, feelings, and beliefs that individuals or groups hold towards languages or linguistic varieties. These attitudes influence how

people evaluate and respond to the use of different languages in social contexts, and they can reflect broader social, cultural, and political dynamics. Linguists define language attitudes as the psychological and social reactions individuals exhibit toward various language features, such as accents, dialects, or specific language choices in particular contexts. According to Garrett (2010), language attitudes refer to individuals' evaluations of how languages or dialects are used and perceived, including judgments about their prestige, practical usefulness, and social value. These attitudes are not only shaped by linguistic factors but are also deeply embedded in social identity, group membership, and historical contexts. For instance, Labov (1972) emphasizes how language attitudes contribute to social stratification, as certain dialects or accents may be perceived as more "prestigious" than others, influencing how speakers are judged in various social contexts.

Additionally, Ryan et al. (1982) highlight the role of language attitudes in societal integration and cohesion, suggesting that language attitudes can reinforce or challenge social hierarchies, particularly when linked to issues of power and dominance between linguistic groups.

1.8.2 Types of Language Attitudes

1.8.2.1 Positive Attitudes

Positive language attitudes refer to favourable evaluations, perceptions, or emotional responses toward a language, its speakers, or its features. This can manifest as admiration, respect, or preference for a language, often due to its perceived cultural, social, or intellectual value. Building on this, Garrett (2010) suggests that positive language attitudes are linked to prestige, status, or a personal connection to the language. When people express positive attitudes toward a language, they may view it as a symbol of opportunity, identity, or societal progress. For example, Standard English is often viewed positively in many countries, associated with higher social status, education, and global connectivity. Labov (1972) found that speakers of prestige dialects were more likely to be viewed as intelligent and competent, reflecting the positive social perception of those who use these dialects.

1.8.2.2 Negative Attitudes

Negative language attitudes are characterized by unfavourable evaluations or prejudices toward a language or its speakers. These attitudes can involve stigmatization, discrimination, or devaluation of certain languages or dialects, often rooted in social, historical, or cultural biases. In this respect, Ryan et al. (1982) highlight that negative language attitudes can arise from societal hierarchies, where a language spoken by a minority or marginalized group is perceived as inferior or less legitimate. These attitudes can be seen in cases where local dialects or minority languages are considered "less prestigious" compared to dominant languages, such as when African American Vernacular English (AAVE) is devalued in mainstream society. According to Giles and Billings (2004), negative attitudes often result in language discrimination, which can affect the opportunities and social mobility of speakers of stigmatized languages or dialects.

1.8.2.3 Neutral Attitudes

Neutral language attitudes refer to an indifferent or unbiased stance toward a language, where there is neither strong approval nor disapproval. These attitudes reflect a lack of significant emotional or evaluative reaction toward a language, often resulting from limited exposure or perceived societal neutrality. Garrett (2010) defines neutral language attitudes as instances where individuals do not hold strong beliefs about the usefulness, prestige, or desirability of a particular language. In such cases, people may not have a preference for one language over another and may use languages interchangeably without significant emotional investment.

1.9 The role of the use of the mother tongue in EFL learning classrooms

The role of the mother tongue (L1) in foreign language (FL) classrooms has long been debated among educators and researchers, with studies highlighting both its advantages and limitations. L1 is often employed to convey the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary, clarify confusing terms, and explain abstract concepts. In addition to verbal explanations, teachers frequently rely on visual aids, props, and textbook illustrations to

support learners' understanding. However, Atkinson (1987) cautions that visual aids, while useful, can sometimes mislead learners if not carefully selected and graded. In such cases, L1 becomes the most precise and effective means of ensuring accurate comprehension.

Beyond its instructional function, L1 also plays a vital role in classroom management and communication. It is used to check learners' understanding and to negotiate disciplinary or organizational matters when necessary. In classrooms where noise or indiscipline may hinder the learning process, the immediate effect of using L1 can help restore order and clarity (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). In the Algerian context, Maouche (2015) stresses that the mother tongue facilitates comprehension and supports effective classroom management, particularly in foreign language learning environments.

Several researchers have emphasized the pedagogical benefits of integrating L1 into the FL classroom. The use of the mother tongue (L1) in foreign language classrooms can reduce learner anxiety, create a more supportive and comfortable learning environment, and help clarify complex instructions by connecting new concepts to learners' prior knowledge and cultural backgrounds (Auerbach, 1993). Similarly, *Jadallah & Hasan (2011)*, highlight that L1 use provides a sense of security, minimizes frustration, encourages learner confidence, and enables exposure to richer, more authentic materials. Furthermore, when students struggle to express themselves in the target language (TL), L1 serves as a useful communicative tool. Brown (2007) notes that when learners face difficulty expressing themselves in a second language, they often switch back to their first language as a communication strategy.

Despite these benefits, excessive reliance on L1 can have negative consequences. Overuse of the mother tongue may limit students' exposure to L2, reducing opportunities for authentic communication and fluency development. Rolin-lanziti and Varshney (2008), warn that without consistent L2 input, learners may lose confidence and motivation, ultimately hindering their language progress. Atkinson (1987) also identifies key problems associated with L1 overuse, such as dependency on translation, misunderstanding of linguistic equivalences, and a reluctance to use the target language,

even when capable. In addition to these learner-related concerns, teachers themselves face significant challenges when managing L1 use in the classroom. “Many teachers lack formal training on how to use the L1 in principled ways, leading to either avoidance or over-reliance” (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 275). Furthermore, Copland and Neokleous (2011) note that numerous teachers experience pressure from institutional rules that limit the use of the mother tongue, despite their belief that carefully planned L1 integration could support student learning. In addition, according to Macaro (2001), teachers frequently face difficulties in balancing the use of the target language and the mother tongue, particularly when teaching students with varying levels of proficiency.

1.10 Conclusion

To conclude, Algeria stands as a prime example of a multilingual society where various languages coexist and interact in daily life. This linguistic diversity is strongly reflected in educational settings, where bilingualism and code-switching are not only widespread but also deeply rooted in the linguistic behaviour of both teachers and learners. This chapter has highlighted the theoretical foundations necessary to understand these phenomena within the Algerian context. Even in EFL classrooms, the mother tongue remains present as part of a broader pattern of language choice shaped by social and educational factors. Such realities underscore how societal multilingualism influences language use in formal contexts, and highlight the importance of examining language attitudes to better understand how different languages are perceived, valued, and employed within the educational sphere.

CHAPTER TWO
RESEARCH
DESIGN AND DATA
ANALYSIS

2.1 Introduction

The Algerian educational system is currently experiencing a notable shift in its language education policies, with increasing emphasis on multilingualism and the integration of bilingual strategies in classroom instruction. One key aspect of this change is the growing recognition of Arabic as a supportive tool in English language teaching, especially in EFL classrooms. In light of this, the present chapter outlines the practical framework of the study, focusing on the methodologies and procedures used to examine pupils' attitudes toward bilingual instruction and the pedagogical use of Arabic in English sessions.

This chapter begins by presenting the research methodology employed in the investigation, followed by a description of the research instruments, namely the questionnaire and classroom observation. It then introduces the research design, including the setting in which the study was conducted, and provides information about the sample selection process. After that, it discusses the data collection procedures and ends with the analysis and interpretation of the findings in light of the study's objectives.

2.2 Research design

A research design provides a systematic framework that guides the research process, ensuring that data collection and analysis are conducted logically and effectively. Kerlinger (1966) describes the research design as "a systematic arrangement that defines the structure and methodological strategy of a study, aiming to answer research questions while maintaining control over potential sources of variation." This framework is essential for choosing the most suitable type of research design that aligns with the study's objectives

2.2.1 Type of research

Planning a research framework is an essential step in any investigation. The present study adopts the pragmatism paradigm, which allows the use of different methods and tools that suit the research context and objectives. It is conducted as fieldwork, meaning that data is collected directly from the natural classroom environment. The study follows the case study method, which enables a detailed exploration of a specific educational setting. According to the purpose of the research, it is an exploratory case study, as it

aims to understand the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms and to explore students' language attitudes. In terms of the number of cases, it is a single case study because it focuses on one case, namely third-year secondary school. The study also adopts an embedded design, as it investigates multiple sub-units within the same context including both teachers and pupils. Additionally, the study uses a mixed methods approach, combining both quantitative and qualitative data, and applies triangulation to ensure reliable results.

2.3 Sample and population

The quality of collected data in any research largely depends on the appropriateness of the selected sample. This study adopts the information-rich sampling paradigm, which emphasizes the inclusion of participants capable of providing relevant and insightful data. Accordingly, a non-probability purposive sampling method was employed to deliberately select individuals based on characteristics aligned with the research objectives. Building on this approach, the following section outlines the characteristics of the samples and populations of both pupils and teachers involved in the study

2.3.1 The Pupils' Population

This study targets a diverse group of third-year secondary school pupils from Bouazza Miloud Secondary School in the city of Maghnia, who were selected purposively. The total population comprises 120 pupils, including 50 males and 70 females. These participants come from various academic streams, namely Management and Economics, Sciences, Mathematics, Foreign Languages and Literature, and Philosophy, which provides a well-rounded representation of learners with different educational backgrounds.

2.3.2 The Pupils' Sample

For the purpose of data collection, a structured questionnaire consisting of seven questions was administered to the entire group of 120 pupils. The questionnaire included a combination of close-ended and multiple-choice questions, aiming to uncover pupils' attitudes toward learning English, their classroom experiences, and their perceptions

regarding the use of Arabic in EFL instruction. To enhance comprehension and ensure accurate responses, the questionnaire was designed in a bilingual format, featuring both Arabic and English. This approach was adopted to accommodate the linguistic diversity of the learners and to promote a clearer understanding of the research items.

2.3.3 The Teachers' Population

In addition to pupils, this study also includes a population of English language teachers from various high schools in Maghnia. A total of 32 teachers were purposively selected based on their direct involvement in EFL instruction and their familiarity with bilingual teaching practices. These educators represent a range of teaching contexts and bring diverse professional experiences to the investigation, thereby enriching the overall scope of the research.

2.3.4 The Teachers' Sample

From the total population, a sample of 32 teachers was selected using purposive sampling. The selected participants were asked to complete a structured questionnaire consisting of eleven (11) questions, which incorporated open-ended, closed-ended, and multiple-choice items. This instrument was designed to examine their professional perspectives on the use of Arabic in English language classrooms, the pedagogical reasoning behind such practices, and their perceived impact on learners' comprehension and language development. The distribution of teacher participants across secondary schools in Maghnia is summarized in the following table:

Table 2.1: Distribution of the Teachers' Questionnaire in Maghnia Secondary Schools

Secondary School	Number of Teachers
El Khawarizmi	05
Mofdi Zakaria	05
Bouazza Miloud	05
Ahmed Al Bayrouni	05
Dkhisi Mohamed	05
Al Ikhwa Liani	03
Al Ikhwa Ben Azza	04
Total	32

2.4 Data Collection Instrument and Procedures

To fulfil the objectives of this study, a mixed-methods approach was adopted, incorporating three primary data collection instruments: two structured questionnaires and classroom observation. In order to enhance the reliability and depth of the findings, triangulation was employed. This involved cross-validating data obtained from multiple sources and methods namely student questionnaires, teacher questionnaires, and classroom observations, to provide a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of bilingual instruction in EFL contexts.

The first questionnaire was administered to third-year secondary school pupils and aimed to gather information about their language learning experiences, their attitudes toward English as a foreign language (EFL), and their perceptions of the use of Arabic in facilitating English learning. The questionnaire consisted of seven questions, including a mix of close-ended and multiple-choice items, and was presented in both Arabic and English to ensure clarity and inclusiveness.

The second questionnaire targeted English language teachers and was designed to explore their professional perspectives on the effectiveness, challenges, and pedagogical implications of using Arabic in EFL classrooms. It comprised eleven questions, combining open-ended, close-ended, and multiple-choice formats to elicit detailed and reflective responses.

To complement the questionnaire data, classroom observations were conducted. The researcher observed a total of eighteen structured, non-participant teaching sessions between February 9 and 27, 2025, at Bouazza Miloud Secondary School. These included six sessions with third-year Science class, and six sessions with third-year Foreign Languages class. Additionally, further sessions were carried out with a third-year Literary Stream class between March 2 and April 10, 2025. Due to exam schedules and Eid holidays, these sessions were held intermittently. Moreover, the observations were conducted with different teachers for each group. The sessions were carried out following official authorization from the Directorate of Education, ensuring the ethical conduct of the research. All observations aimed to provide practical insights into the actual use of bilingual instruction in EFL classrooms and allowed for the documentation of spontaneous teacher-student interactions. Field notes were taken during each session, and a 13-item observation checklist was used to guide data collection and ensure consistency across sessions.

2.5 Analysis of Pupils' questionnaire

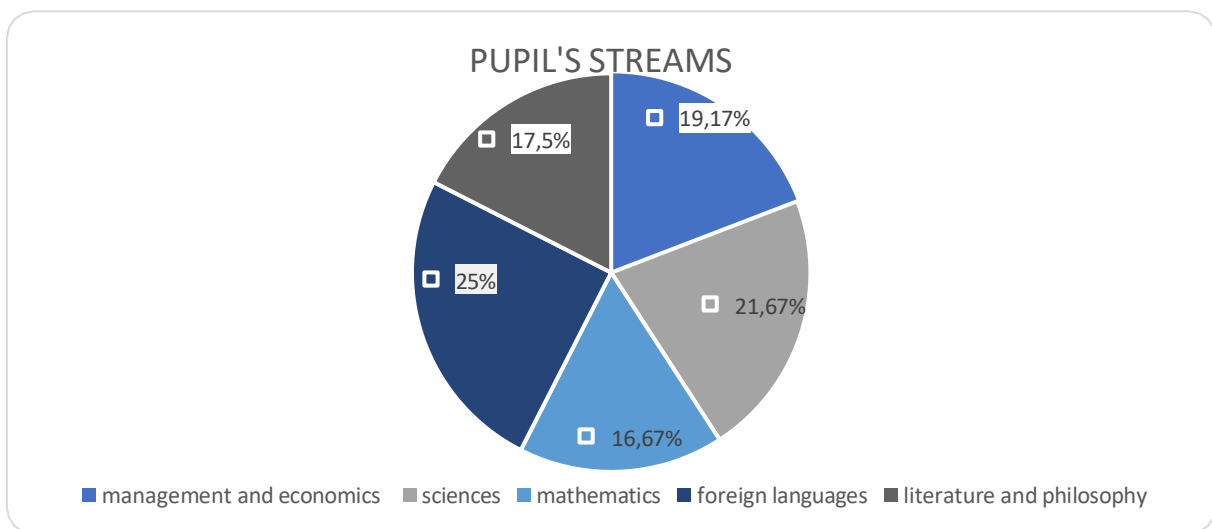
Section One: Pupils' Profile

The present section defines the most important features of the investigated sample. It outlines two essential aspects: the gender of the participants and the academic streams they are enrolled in. This classification helps in identifying the diversity within the sample and provides a basis for interpreting the responses in light of these demographic variables.

Table 2.2: Respondents' Gender

Respondents	AF	RF
Males	50	41,67%
Females	70	58,33%
Total	120	100%

The table above displays the gender distribution of the participants. Out of 120 respondents, 58.33% are females, while 41.67% are males. This indicates a slightly higher representation of female pupils in the sample, which may reflect the general gender composition of the classes surveyed.

Q1: What is your field of study?**Figure 2.1: Pupil's Streams**

As illustrated in the pie chart above, the participants in the study were drawn from a variety of academic streams, with the highest proportion belonging to the foreign languages stream, accounting for 25% of the total sample. This was followed by students from the sciences stream (21.67%), also management and economics (19.17%). The literature and philosophy stream represented 17.5%, while mathematics accounted for the smallest group with 16.67%.

Section two: Pupil's Learning Challenges

A set of questions was designed for the pupils to get enough information about the learning challenges and difficulties of pupils in EFL classrooms. Each answer is accompanied by a table, chart, or graph, as well as a detailed description.

Q2: Do you face any difficulties during English sessions?**Table 2.3: Difficulties that pupils face during English sessions**

Answer	AF	RF
Yes	87	72,5%
No	33	27,5%

As illustrated in the table above, the overwhelming majority of the respondents (72.5%) reported that they do, in fact, face difficulties during English sessions. In contrast, only 27.5% of the participants stated that they do not encounter any particular challenges. This significant percentage of learners experiencing difficulties highlights the presence of various pedagogical and linguistic obstacles that may hinder their active participation and academic progress.

➤ **If yes, what are these difficulties?**

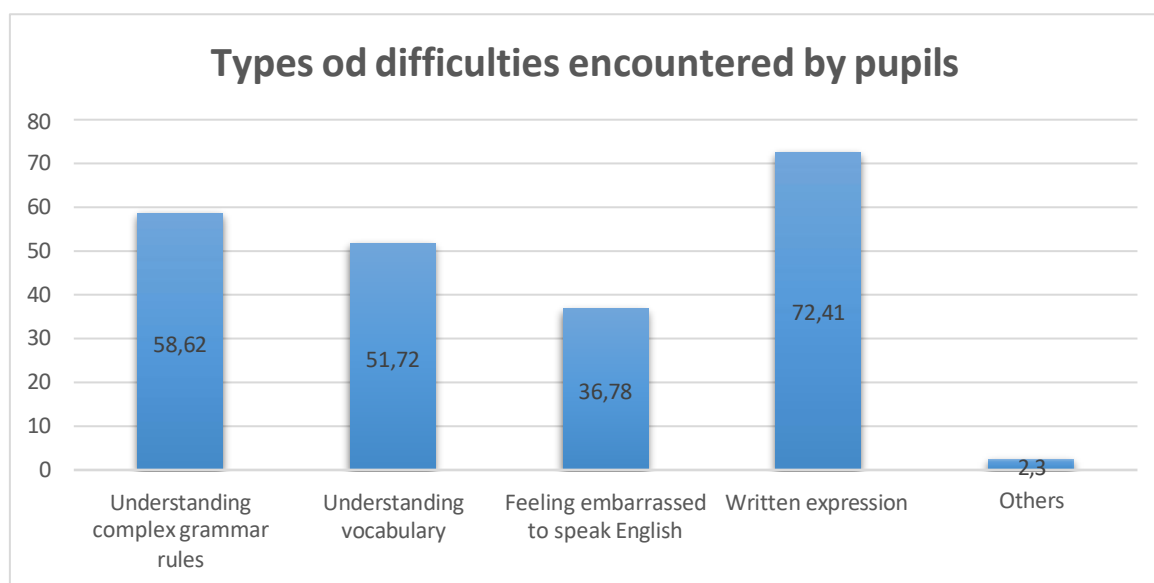


Figure 2.2: Types of difficulties encountered by pupils

The aim behind this question was to identify the specific difficulties pupils encounter during English sessions. As shown in the graph, the most frequently reported challenge was related to written expression, with 72.41% of participants indicating difficulty in organizing and expressing their ideas in writing. 58.62% of the respondents stated that they struggle with understanding complex grammar rules. Similarly, 51.72% reported difficulties with vocabulary acquisition, which could hinder their ability to comprehend texts or participate in discussions. Furthermore, 36.78 % admitted to feeling embarrassed when speaking English, a factor likely tied to low confidence and fear of making mistakes in front of their classmates. A small minority (2.3%) mentioned other difficulties, such as oral expression and understanding exam or test questions, pointing to more individual and contextual challenges. These findings emphasize the necessity of differentiated support in the English classroom to address

Section three: Teacher's Use of Arabic in English Classes

This section aims to explore students' views regarding the use of Arabic in English language classes. The responses are presented through graphs, tables, and charts each followed by a descriptive analysis. The objective is to understand learners' attitudes toward the presence of their native language in the EFL classroom context.

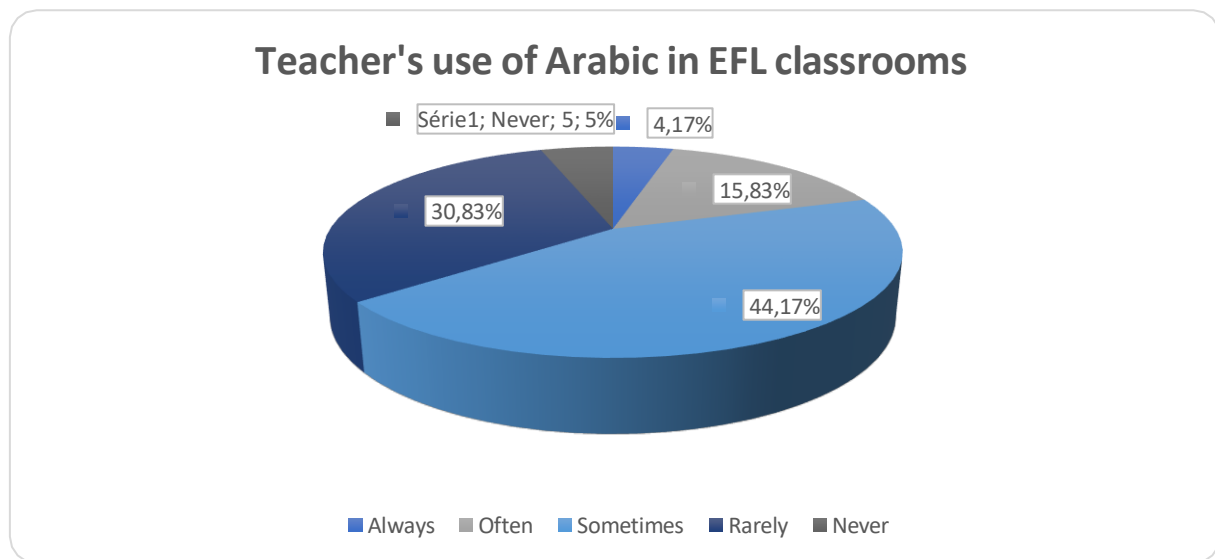
Q4: How often does your English teacher use Arabic during English sessions?

Figure 2.3: Teacher's use of Arabic in EFL classrooms

This question aimed to explore the extent to which Arabic is used by English teachers during classroom instruction. According to the results displayed in the graph, the majority of pupils (44.17%) reported that their teacher sometimes uses Arabic during English sessions. This indicates a moderate reliance on the mother tongue. In contrast, 30.83% stated that Arabic is used rarely, suggesting that the English language remains dominant in their classrooms. A smaller portion (15.83%) indicated that Arabic is used often, which may reflect a more bilingual approach to instruction. Interestingly, only 4.17% of respondents claimed that their teacher always uses Arabic, which may hinder full exposure to the target language. Finally, 5% of the participants said that Arabic is never used, reflecting a fully immersive English environment.

Q5: Do you agree that using Arabic in English classes help you understand better?

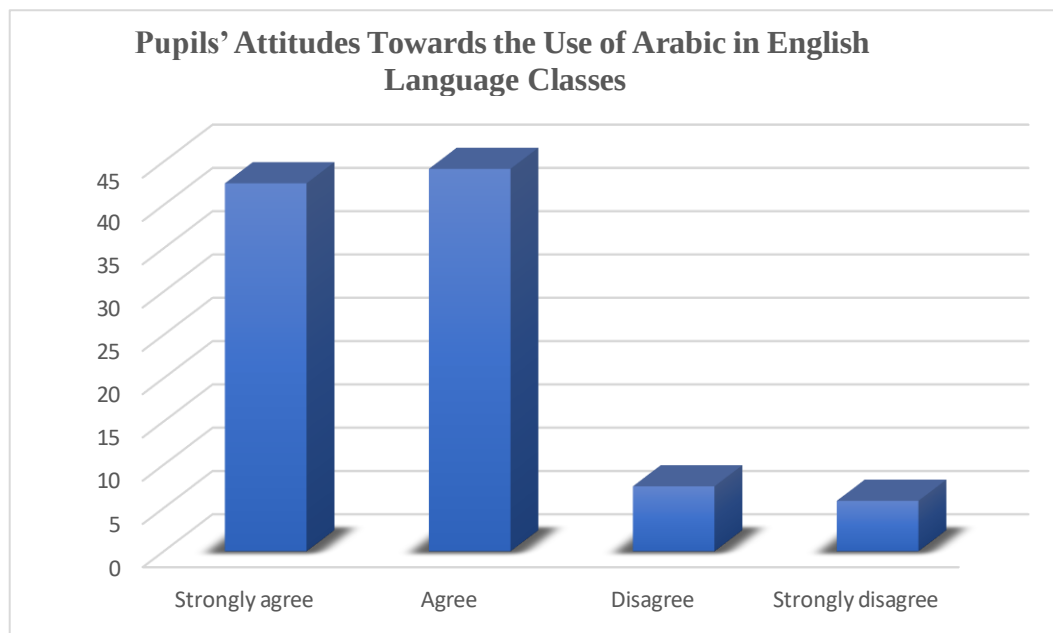


Figure 2.4: Pupils' Attitudes Towards the Use of Arabic in English Language Classes

This question was intended to examine pupils' attitudes toward the use of Arabic as a supportive tool in English language instruction. As shown in the graph, a significant proportion of students expressed positive views regarding the integration of Arabic, with 42.5% stating that they strongly agree and 44.17% indicating that they agree that it helps them understand English lessons better. These responses suggest that most learners perceive the occasional use of their native language as an effective strategy to facilitate comprehension, particularly when dealing with complex grammar or abstract vocabulary. On the other hand, 7.5% of participants reported disagreement, with 5.83% strongly disagreeing and 1.67% disagreeing, implying a preference for full immersion in the target language. Overall, the findings highlight a general acceptance of Arabic as a pedagogical aid, particularly among learners who may still be developing confidence and competence in English.

Q6: Do you feel more motivated to participate in class when your teacher explains using L1?

Table 2.4: Pupil's Motivation to Participate When Teachers Use L1 in EFL Classes

Answer	AF	RF
Yes	87	72,5%
No	33	27,5%

Results show that a substantial majority of the participants (72.5%) stated that they feel more motivated to participate in class when the teacher explains using their first language (L1). In contrast, only 27.5% of the participants reported that they do not feel an increased motivation under such circumstances. This notable preference for L1 support in the classroom suggests that the use of the native language may enhance learners' comfort, engagement, and willingness to interact, particularly when dealing with complex content or instructions.

2.5.1 Discussion of the Pupils' Questionnaire Findings

The analysis of the pupils' responses provided valuable insights into the dynamics of bilingual instruction in Algerian EFL classrooms, particularly with regard to the use of Arabic as a pedagogical tool. The findings contributed to a deeper understanding of the learners' perspectives on the reasons behind using both L1 and L2, the impact of this practice on their language development, and their general attitudes toward bilingual education.

To begin with, the results of the first section revealed that a majority of pupils (72.5%) reported facing difficulties during English sessions. These difficulties were primarily related to written expression, understanding grammar rules, and vocabulary acquisition. A significant number also reported feeling hesitant or embarrassed when speaking English in class. These challenges point to persistent linguistic and affective barriers, which may hinder learners' active participation and engagement. In such contexts, teachers often resort to using L1 as a compensatory strategy to clarify difficult

content, and support comprehension. The finding is aligned with the first research hypothesis, which proposed that teachers might rely on Arabic to facilitate understanding for pupils.

The data also revealed that the use of Arabic in EFL classes is neither excessive nor absent. The largest proportion of pupils (44.17%) indicated that Arabic is used “sometimes,” while 30.83% reported that it is used “rarely.” These results suggest that a moderate bilingual approach is employed, wherein Arabic is used selectively and strategically rather than being integrated continuously. Notably, only 4.17% of pupils reported that their teachers “always” use Arabic, and 5% reported that it is “never” used. Such distributions reflect a pedagogical tendency toward balancing L1 support with immersion in the target language.

In terms of effectiveness, pupils demonstrated overwhelmingly positive attitudes toward the use of Arabic in English classrooms. A combined 86.67% of pupils either “agreed” or “strongly agreed” that Arabic helps them better understand their English lessons. These responses provided strong empirical support for the third research hypothesis, which anticipated that learners would perceive the use of L1 as a supportive and encouraging strategy that enhances their comprehension. The learners’ views suggest that L1 can play a constructive role in demystifying complex grammar points and abstract lexical items, especially for pupils who have not yet achieved high proficiency in English.

Moreover, when they were asked about their motivation to participate in class discussions, 72.5% of pupils indicated that they felt more inclined to engage when the teacher provided explanations in Arabic. This reflects the affective dimension of bilingual instruction: the use of L1 may reduce learners’ anxiety and increase their willingness to participate. The comfort and familiarity associated with the mother tongue appear to foster a more inclusive and accessible classroom environment, particularly for learners who struggle with oral production in English.

However, despite the generally favourable perceptions of L1 use, a small but noteworthy portion of the pupils (7.5%) expressed disagreement with the integration of Arabic, favouring full exposure to the target language. This minority view may reflect a

belief in the efficacy of immersive environments for language acquisition or a personal preference for English-only instruction. Such perspectives suggested that while L1 can be a valuable support, it must be implemented judiciously to avoid excessive reliance that could hinder the natural acquisition process. This aligns with the second research hypothesis, which cautioned that frequent reliance on L1 might lead to reduced interaction in L2 and a possible delay in language development.

In summary, the findings confirmed that the use of Arabic in EFL classrooms is perceived by most learners as a beneficial instructional strategy that enhances comprehension and promotes participation. The data supported the first hypothesis, as teachers appear to use L1 to facilitate the explanation of complex ideas especially grammar and vocabulary, confirming its instructional value. The second hypothesis is supported, while moderate use of L1 aids understanding, there is evidence that excessive reliance could reduce L2 interaction and potentially delay language acquisition, as a small number of pupils expressed a preference for full English immersion. The third hypothesis is strongly supported, as most pupils demonstrated positive attitudes toward bilingual education, indicating that the selective use of Arabic fosters a more inclusive, motivating, and effective learning environment. Overall, the results highlight the importance of a balanced bilingual approach, where the mother tongue is used strategically to complement, rather than replace, exposure to English.

2.6 Analysis of Teachers' questionnaire

Section One: Teachers' Background

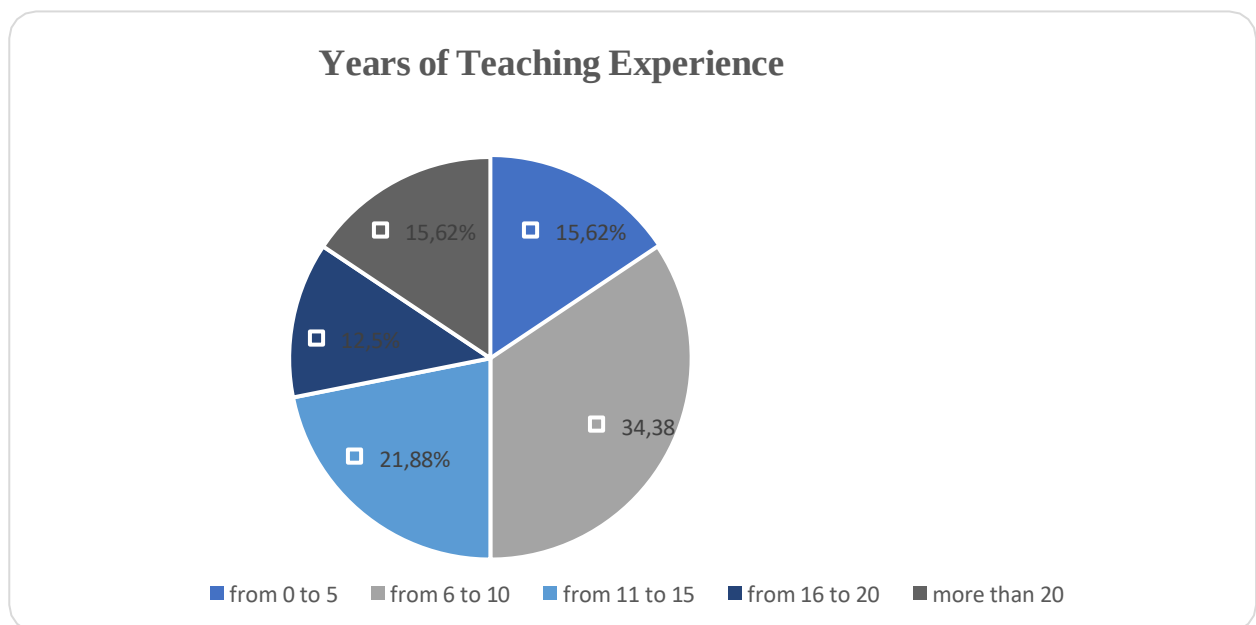
This section aims to describe the population that responded to the questionnaire, in different secondary schools in Maghnia city. It provides a detailed account of the participants' professional profiles, including their gender, years of teaching experience, the educational levels they are assigned to, and their respective teaching fields.

Table 2.5 Participants' Gender

Participants	AF	RF
Females	28	87,5%
Males	4	12,5%
Total	32	100%

In the table above, the vast majority of the teacher participants are female, accounting for 87.5% of the sample, while male teachers represent only 12.5%. This notable gender imbalance reflects a predominance of female educators within the surveyed population.

Q1: How many years of teaching experience do you have?

**Figure 2.5: Years of teaching experience of the participants**

As illustrated in the pie chart, the distribution of teaching experience among the participants varies considerably. The largest proportion of teachers (34.38%) has 6 to 10 years of experience, indicating a strong presence of mid-career professionals within the sample. Teachers with 11 to 15 years of experience represent 21.88%, followed closely by novice teachers with 0 to 5 years and highly experienced teachers with over 20 years, both groups accounting for 15.62% each. Notably, teachers with 16 to 20 years of experience constitute the smallest group at 12.5%. This distribution suggests a relatively

balanced representation across experience levels, with a slight concentration in the early to mid-stages of professional development.

Q2: Which levels do you teach?

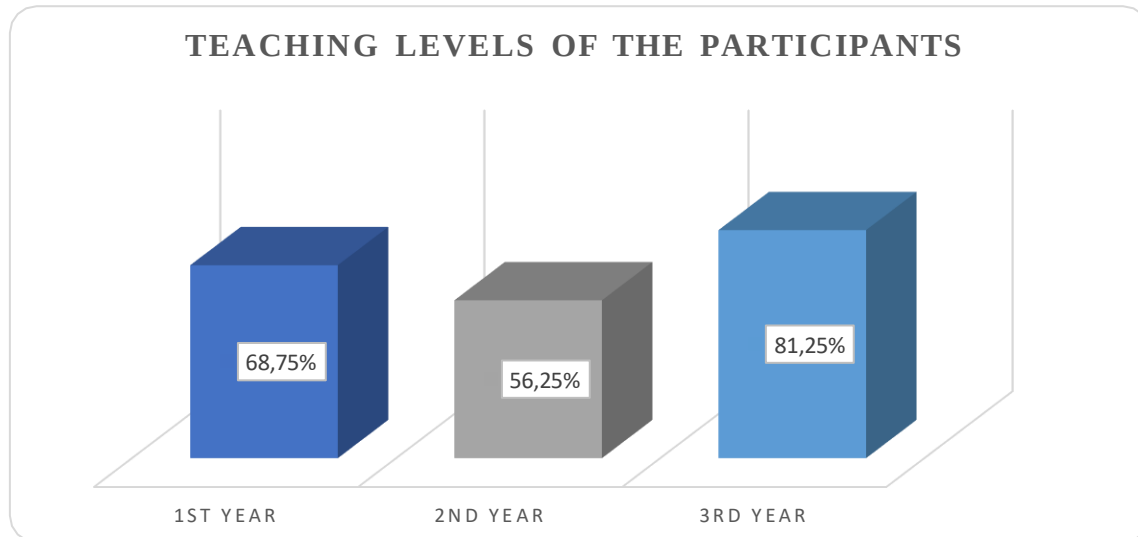
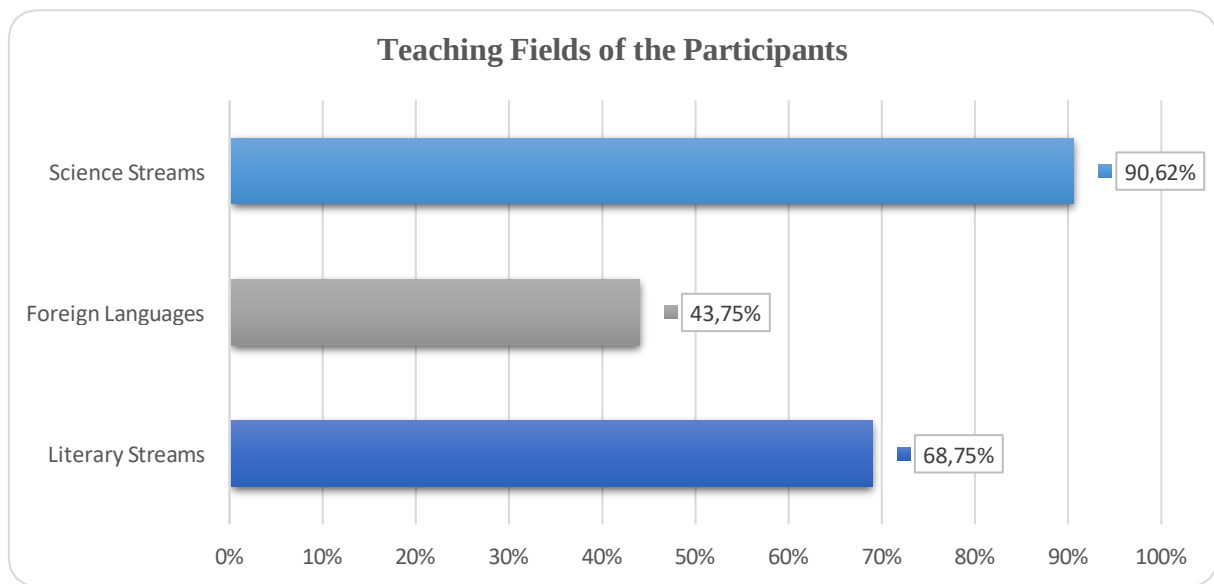


Figure 2.6: Teaching levels of the participants

The bar graph provides a clear representation of the teaching levels assigned to the participants within secondary education. As shown, a significant proportion of teachers (81.25%) are involved in teaching third-year secondary classes, making this level the most represented among the sample. This is followed by 68.75% who teach first-year classes and 56.25% who are assigned to second-year classes. This figure indicates that many teachers are engaged across multiple grade levels, with a notable concentration in the third year, which may suggest a strategic focus on final-year instruction, where academic performance and examination outcomes are particularly emphasized.

Q3: Which fields do you teach?**Figure 2.7: Teaching fields of the participants**

The horizontal bar graph presents the distribution of teaching streams among the surveyed participants. The aim of this question was to identify the academic specializations in which the teachers are involved. As indicated in the graph, 90.62% of the respondents reported teaching in science streams, 68.75% in literary streams, and 43.75% in foreign language streams. This figure provides an overview of the subject areas covered by the teachers in the sample.

Section Two: Language choice and student engagement in Bilingual Instruction

This section is designed to examine teachers' language choices in the EFL classroom and how these choices influence student engagement and participation. It investigates the extent to which Arabic (L1) is used alongside English (L2), the contexts in which Arabic is employed, teachers' attitudes toward bilingual instruction, and their perceptions of its effectiveness. The section includes primarily closed-ended questions, multiple-choice, alongside one open-ended question inviting respondents to elaborate on the challenges they encounter when using L1. These questions aim to provide a comprehensive understanding of bilingual teaching practices and their pedagogical implications.

Q4: Do you use Arabic in your EFL classroom?**Table 2.6: Teachers' Use of Arabic in the EFL Classroom**

Response Option	AF	RF
Yes	30	93,75%
No	2	6,25%
Total	32	100%

As shown in Table 2.6, out of the 32 teachers surveyed, 30 reported that they use Arabic in their EFL classrooms, representing 93.75% of the sample. In contrast, only 2 teachers indicated that they do not use Arabic, accounting for just 6.25%.

- If yes, with which level do you use L1?

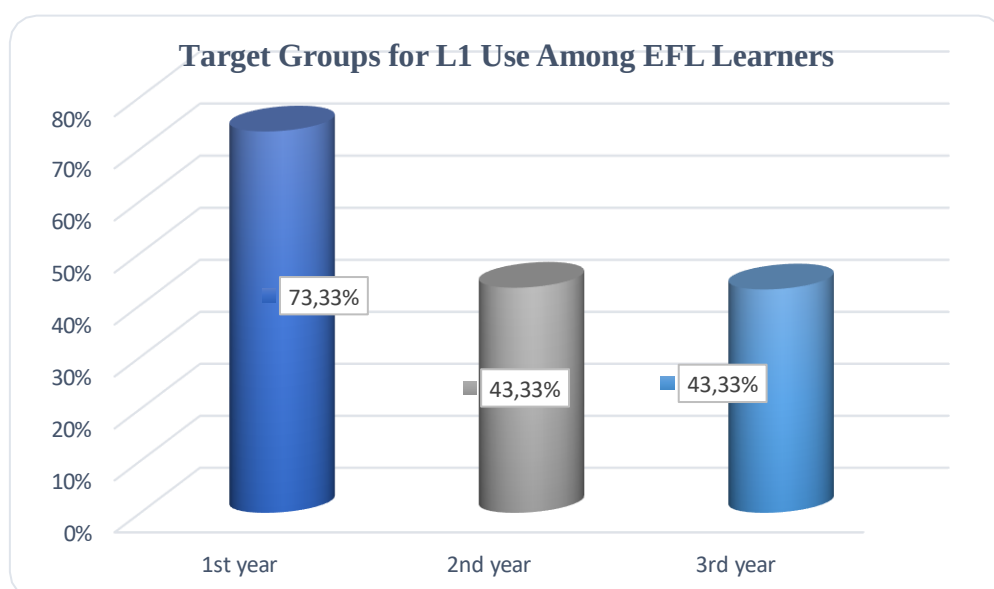
**Figure 2.8: Target groups for L1 Use among EFL learners**

Figure 2.8 presents the distribution of L1 use across different student levels, based on responses from 30 teachers who reported using Arabic in their EFL classrooms. Two participants were excluded from this analysis, as they indicated that they do not use L1 in their teaching. Since this was a multiple-choice question, teachers were allowed to select more than one level. The results show that 73.33% of the respondents use Arabic with first-year students. Additionally, 43.33% reported using Arabic with second-year students, and the same percentage indicated its use with third-year students. These

overlapping responses indicate that while L1 use is most prominent in beginner classes, it continues to play a role across various proficiency levels.

Q5: How often do you use Arabic in your classroom?

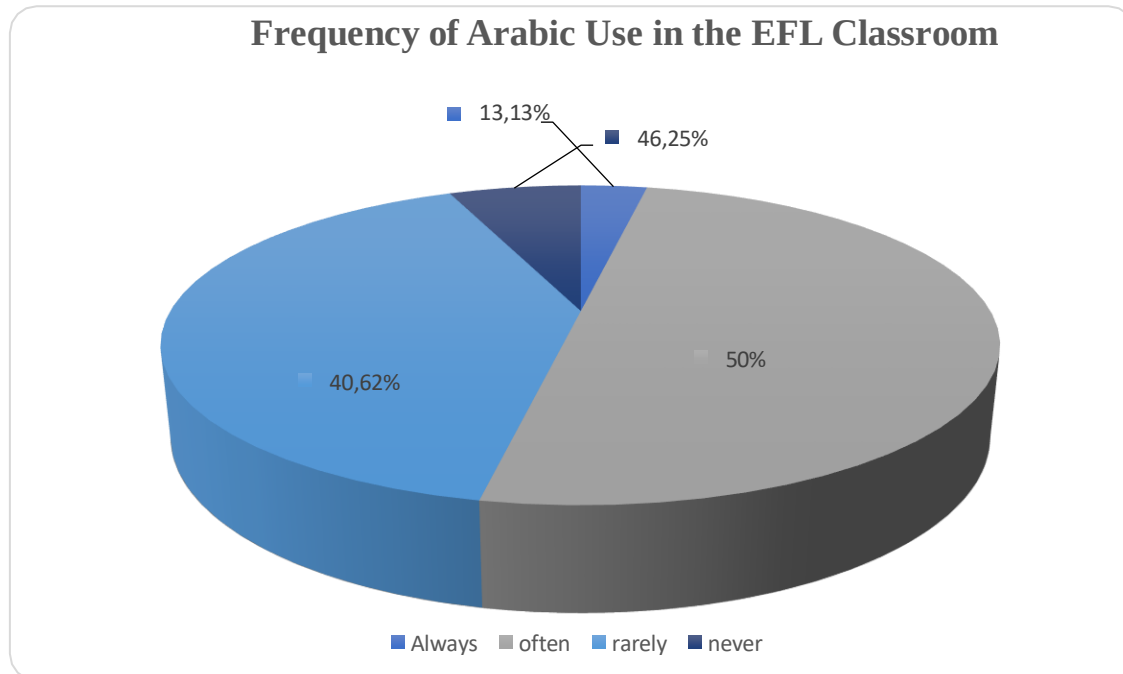
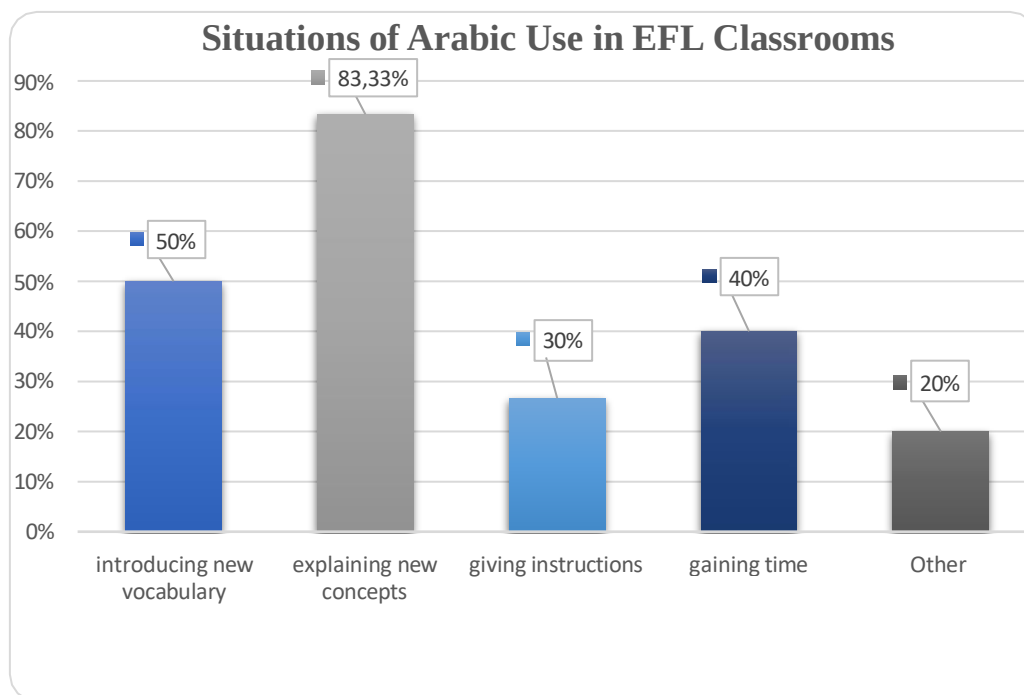


Figure 2.9: Frequency of Arabic use in the EFL classroom

The above figure illustrates the distribution of teachers' reported frequency of Arabic (L1) use in EFL classrooms. Among the 32 respondents, only 1 teacher (3.13%) reported that they always use Arabic during their sessions. A larger group of 16 teachers (50%) indicated that they often use Arabic in their teaching. Meanwhile, 13 teachers (40.62%) stated that they rarely use Arabic in the classroom. Notably, 2 teachers (6.25%) reported that they never use Arabic, which corresponds to those who previously indicated that they do not incorporate Arabic into their EFL instruction. These results reveal a diverse range of practices, with the majority of teachers employing Arabic at least occasionally, while a small percentage either use it frequently or not at all.

Q6: In which situations do you find using Arabic is most useful?**Figure 2.10: Situations of Arabic use in EFL classrooms**

The above bar graph presents the various classroom situations in which Arabic (L1) is used by EFL teachers, based on responses from 30 participants. Two respondents were not included in this item, as they indicated that they never use Arabic in their teaching. As this was a multiple-choice question, participants could select more than one option. The most frequently reported reason for using Arabic was to explain complex concepts, selected by 83.33% of the teachers, while 50% indicated its use when introducing new vocabulary. Additionally, 40% reported using Arabic to gain time during the lesson, and 26.66% stated that they use it to give instructions.

Regarding the open-ended "other" category, which accounted for 20% of responses, teachers mentioned a range of specific and context-sensitive situations. These included using Arabic to explain culturally or religiously rooted concepts, to support understanding of abstract or highly technical ideas, to clarify keywords in a new unit, or to manage the classroom more effectively. One teacher noted that Arabic is helpful when meanings cannot be conveyed through visual aids or examples, reinforcing the idea that L1 use is often a practical response to communicative limits in L2.

Q7: Do you agree that using both Arabic and English increases Pupils' participation?

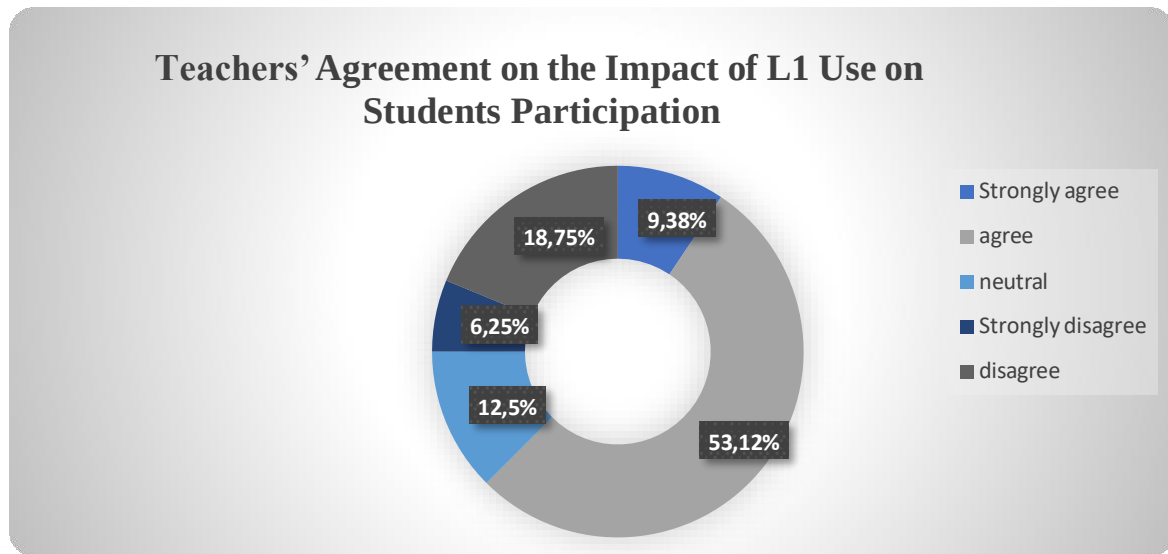


Figure 2.11: Teachers' agreement on the impact of L1 use on students participation

The above figure illustrates teachers' levels of agreement regarding the impact of using both Arabic and English on pupils' participation in EFL classrooms. Among the respondents, 9.38% strongly agreed with the statement, while a majority of 53% expressed agreement. A smaller portion, 12.5%, remained neutral, indicating neither agreement nor disagreement. On the other hand, 18.75% of teachers disagreed, and 6.25% strongly disagreed with the notion that the use of both languages enhances pupils' engagement. These percentages reflect a general tendency toward agreement, though a notable minority either expressed uncertainty or disagreement.

Q8: Do you find that using both L1 and L2 in classrooms is Challenging?**Table 2.7: Teachers' Responses to Whether Using Both L1 and L2 Is Challenging**

Response Option	AF	RF
Yes	20	62,5%
No	12	37,5%
Total	32	100%

The table displays teachers' perceptions of the challenges associated with using both L1 and L2 in the classroom. A majority of 62.5% of teachers (20 respondents) reported that they find this practice challenging, while 37.5% (12 respondents) disagreed, indicating that they do not find it challenging.

➤ **If yes, what are these challenges?**

In response to the open-ended item addressing the challenges of using both Arabic (L1) and English (L2) in the classroom, teachers provided a range of insights reflecting their practical experiences. The dominant concern expressed by many respondents is the risk of pupils becoming overly dependent on their native language, which may hinder their exposure to and practice of English. Several teachers emphasized that reliance on L1 reduces pupils' motivation to engage actively in English, potentially leading to reduced confidence, limited participation, and lack of initiative to understand content through context. Another frequently mentioned challenge involves balancing the use of both languages effectively, particularly in classes where pupils' proficiency levels vary significantly. Teachers noted that finding the right strategies to alternate between L1 and L2 without disrupting the learning process can be difficult and time-consuming. Some also pointed out that excessive use of Arabic can create confusion or lead to negative transfer, especially when students struggle to distinguish between language systems.

Moreover, several responses reflected pedagogical concerns, such as the misalignment of L1 use with communicative language teaching approaches, and the difficulty in maintaining an immersive English environment. A few teachers highlighted classroom management issues, including pupils becoming passive or disengaged,

particularly in literary streams or among first-year learners who are used to instruction in Arabic. In addition, some teachers noted contextual and motivational challenges, such as lack of institutional support, the low social status of English in Algeria, and pupils' weak linguistic and cultural competence, all of which compound the difficulty of managing bilingual instruction.

Section Three: Teaching Strategies and Recommendation

This final section of the questionnaire aims to explore the instructional practices and pedagogical preferences adopted by EFL teachers in managing bilingual instruction. It includes a combination of one multiple-choice question and two open-ended questions designed to identify the tools teachers use to minimize reliance on L1, the strategies they employ to balance both languages effectively, and their personal recommendations for future practitioners in the context of bilingual education. The collected responses provided insights into practical classroom techniques as well as reflective suggestions grounded in teachers' professional experiences.

Q9: What are the learning tools do you use to make students learn English without using L1?

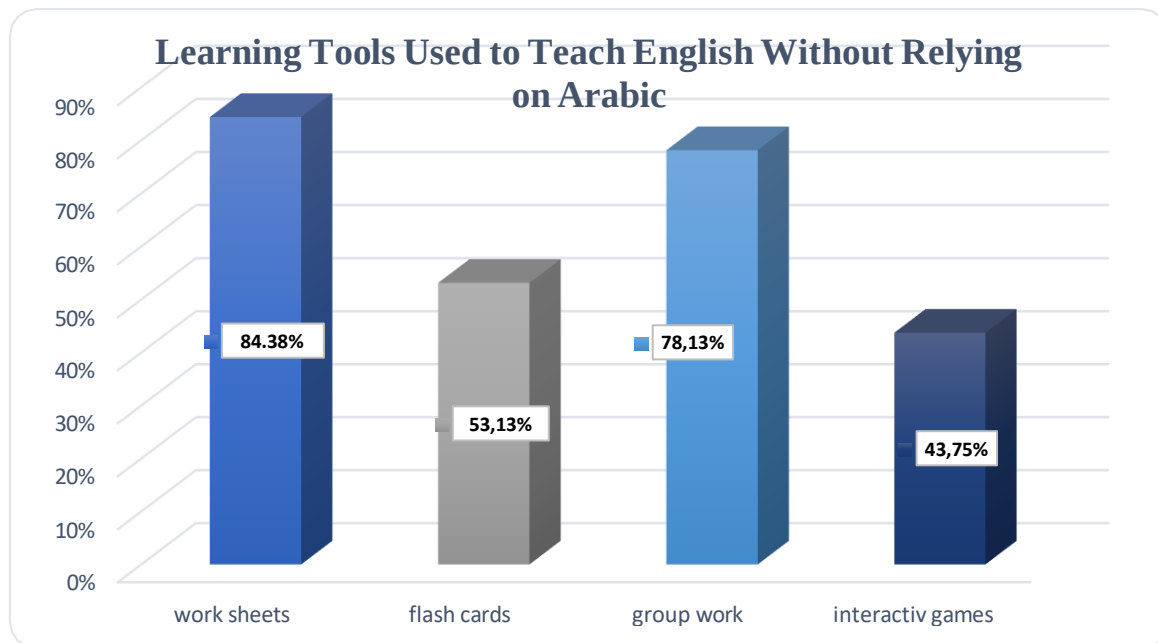


Figure 2.12: Learning tools used to teach English without relying on Arabic

The bar graph indicates that worksheets are the most frequently used tool (84.38%), followed by group work (78.13%), reflecting a strong reliance on both structured and collaborative strategies to support English learning without the use of Arabic. Flashcards were selected by 53.13% of teachers, while interactive games were used by 43.75%, showing a moderate integration of visual and engaging activities.

Q10: How do you balance the use of both languages in your classes?

This open-ended question explored the strategies employed by teachers to manage the integration of both Arabic and English during instruction, highlighting how they navigate between the two languages to support learning and maintain classroom effectiveness.

The responses to this item were qualitatively analysed to gain insight into the methods teachers use to balance Arabic (L1) and English (L2) in their EFL classrooms. A wide range of strategies emerged, reflecting diverse teaching styles and contextual adaptations. Many teachers emphasized minimizing the use of Arabic, stating that they resort to it only when necessary, particularly for explaining complex grammar rules,

abstract ideas, or unfamiliar vocabulary. Visual aids, gestures, body language, and simplified English were frequently cited as primary tools to reduce reliance on L1 and enhance understanding. Several teachers highlighted the effectiveness of pictures and authentic materials in conveying meaning without reverting to Arabic, especially when dealing with young or beginner learners. Some educators reported initiating lessons in Arabic to build background knowledge, then transitioning to English for practice and interaction. Others noted that Arabic is more often used with certain levels or streams, especially with third-year literary or philosophy students, either to manage time effectively or due to their specific learning needs. Group work, real-life examples, classroom routines, and ICT-based tools also featured prominently as means to support English comprehension without overusing the mother tongue. A few teachers acknowledged the difficulty of maintaining a strict balance, particularly in overloaded classrooms or with learners who have weak English foundations. Overall, the data reflect a common intention to promote English fluency while pragmatically incorporating Arabic to support clarity, motivation, and learner engagement.

Q11: What recommendations would you provide for future teachers concerning bilingual education?

The responses to the open-ended question regarding recommendations for future teachers in the context of bilingual education reveal a rich mosaic of pedagogical insight shaped by real classroom experience. A majority of teachers emphasized the importance of maintaining a balanced and strategic use of the learners' mother tongue (L1), advocating for its role as a supportive tool to aid comprehension particularly when concepts are abstract or when pupils are at lower proficiency levels while warning against its overuse, which can hinder the development of communicative competence in the target language (L2). At the same time, several teachers acknowledged that balancing between the two languages in the classroom remains a complex and often challenging task, requiring sensitivity to learners' needs and situational demands. Teachers consistently encouraged future educators to prioritize exposure to and immersion in English, recommending the use of simple, contextualized English, multimodal instruction (e.g., visuals, gestures, ICT tools), and interactive activities such

as group work, debates, and games to foster an engaging and communicative environment. Lesson planning emerged as a central concern, with several respondents highlighting the need to adapt content and instruction to pupils' linguistic levels and learning styles. Moreover, many teachers advised novice educators to adopt a flexible, learner-centred approach that builds confidence and motivation, emphasizing that learners must be treated with empathy, patience, and respect. Alongside methodological suggestions, a number of teachers also highlighted the importance of ongoing professional development, critical self-reflection, and a sense of ethical responsibility in teaching, reminding future educators that their role extends beyond exam preparation to equipping learners with skills for life in an increasingly globalized world. Collectively, these recommendations underscore the need for thoughtful, context-aware bilingual teaching that respects both linguistic realities and the broader educational journeys of learners.

2.6.1 Discussion of the teachers' questionnaire findings

Based on the analysis of the teachers' questionnaire, the findings offered compelling insights into the reasons behind the use of both Arabic (L1) and English (L2) in Algerian EFL classrooms, the perceived effects of such bilingual practices on learners, and the pedagogical reflections drawn by the teachers themselves. These results align meaningfully with the research questions and the proposed hypotheses, offering empirical grounding for understanding bilingual dynamics in secondary education settings. To begin with, the data strongly supported the first hypothesis, which posited that teachers employ L1 in EFL classrooms to save time and facilitate pupils' understanding of complex content. Teachers reported that Arabic is frequently used to explain abstract ideas, introduce new vocabulary, or clarify culturally embedded notions that may be difficult to convey using English alone. The functional role of L1, in this context, is closely tied to instructional efficiency and comprehension support, especially in moments where full English immersion might impede understanding. These insights resonate with the micro-level functions of L1 use, such as explanation, content transmission, and classroom management, as outlined in Canagarajah (1995) and cited

in Krudthong and Krudthong's (2023) classification, thus reaffirming the pedagogical relevance of Arabic in facilitating learning processes.

When considering the second hypothesis, which suggested that excessive use of L1 may hinder learners' exposure to English and limit their opportunities for spontaneous L2 practice, the findings reflect a more complex reality. While teachers acknowledged the usefulness of Arabic in building comprehension, they also expressed concerns over its potential to encourage linguistic dependency and limit communicative practice in English. Some noted that students tend to revert to Arabic even when prompted to use English, particularly when they lack confidence or struggle to formulate ideas. This point aligns with Krudthong and Krudthong's macro-level framework, which includes the negotiation of student identity and group membership. The sociolinguistic dynamics of the classroom, where students often feel more secure expressing themselves in L1, may inadvertently reduce their incentive to engage in active L2 use. Thus, the findings supported the hypothesis by illustrating that while Arabic can be an effective tool, it also requires thoughtful management to avoid undermining L2 acquisition.

In relation to the third hypothesis, which anticipated that students would react positively to the integration of Arabic in English classes, teachers' reflections confirmed this assumption. Many reported that the selective use of L1 contributes to a more supportive and inclusive classroom atmosphere, especially for less proficient learners. By lowering anxiety and creating space for clearer understanding, Arabic helps build learner confidence and encourages participation. These affective and motivational benefits align with several of the micro functions described by Krudthong and Krudthong, including teacher encouragement, mitigation, and the use of L1 for establishing rapport and maintaining classroom discipline. Rather than viewing Arabic as an obstacle, teachers advocated for its use as a means of scaffolding student learning and fostering engagement, provided it is employed strategically and with sensitivity to learners' needs.

Overall, the teachers' responses offered strong support for all three research hypotheses. They reveal that while Arabic plays a key role in clarifying instruction and managing classrooms, it must be balanced carefully to support, rather than replace,

English immersion. Teachers reported using various pedagogical strategies, such as visual aids, real-life materials, and communicative tasks to bridge between languages and encourage English use. Their recommendations emphasized a balanced and learner-centred approach to bilingual instruction, one that is informed by context, flexibility, and a clear understanding of when and why to use the L1. These perspectives reflect the nuanced and functional nature of code-switching and bilingual practices described in the literature, and demonstrate how bilingual instruction when implemented thoughtfully can be a powerful asset in Algerian EFL classrooms.

2.7 Observation of the Classroom's Environment

A. Science classes

During the observations of the Science stream classes, which included approximately 40 pupils, we noted several trends related to language use and interaction patterns. Overall, the teachers rarely used Arabic during instruction; when it was used, it appeared to occur unconsciously or was limited to the explanation of specific vocabulary items, translating from English to Arabic to aid comprehension. This limited use of Arabic, although not formally encouraged by teachers, proved to be beneficial for pupils' understanding, especially during complex tasks. It was observed that pupils were generally able to follow the lesson and participate more actively when occasional use of Arabic was incorporated.

Despite the minimal use of Arabic by teachers, pupils made visible efforts to engage in English, particularly during interactions with the teacher. Their pronunciation was noted to be relatively strong, and they consistently attempted to express themselves in English during whole-class discussions. However, during group work or peer collaboration, pupils often shifted to Arabic, especially when they encountered difficulties in understanding or expressing ideas. Code-switching between Arabic and English seemed to serve as a useful strategy for clarifying meaning among peers and maintaining the flow of the activity.

When pupils required clarification, they would either ask questions in Arabic or English. Teachers responded by initially answering in English, followed by a translation

into Arabic to ensure comprehension. This bilingual approach facilitated pupils' understanding without compromising the emphasis on English as the primary language of instruction.

Although the pupils demonstrated comfort and confidence when using Arabic, particularly in informal classroom exchanges or group work, the teachers did not actively support or encourage the use of Arabic as a classroom resource. Instead, they consistently emphasized the importance of using English, especially in formal assignments such as written expression. Nevertheless, the informal use of Arabic among pupils seemed to contribute positively to their overall engagement and willingness to participate.

b. Foreign Languages classes

In the Foreign Languages classroom, consisting of approximately 40 pupils, Arabic was frequently used by the teacher, particularly for explaining instructions, clarifying new concepts, and managing pupils' behaviour. This use of Arabic appeared to support pupils' comprehension and engagement. During group and pair work, pupils regularly used Arabic to clarify tasks and resolve misunderstandings. The use of Arabic in these contexts was observed to be beneficial, as it enabled pupils to follow lessons more easily and participate more actively.

Although the teacher encouraged the use of English, this support was occasional rather than consistent. To promote English use, the teacher employed specific strategies such as visual aids and pictures. For example, English vocabulary was introduced with visual support, and pupils were asked to provide the equivalent meaning in Arabic. Most pupils responded in Arabic during such tasks, although they made efforts to use English when addressing the teacher. Pronunciation among students was generally good, and responses to direct questions were mainly in English, despite some grammatical inaccuracies.

In speaking tasks, the teacher applied strategies to stimulate oral production, such as prompting pupils to imagine scenarios and describe their responses. However, when pupils were unsure of how to express their ideas in English, they often relied on peers

for translation or switched to Arabic. Visual support and body language were frequently used by the teacher to convey meaning, and tone variation was applied to emphasize key points. Writing tasks involved vocabulary gap-filling activities designed to reinforce spelling and word recognition.

While grammar rules were usually explained in English, pupils occasionally used Arabic to save time during interactions. The teacher also switched to Algerian dialect when clarification was needed. Pupils were observed to converse in Arabic during correction activities and often translated concepts between themselves. Although Arabic was used frequently in this classroom, pupils demonstrated a willingness to participate in English and made noticeable efforts to use the target language, especially in teacher-led interactions.

C. Literature and Philosophy Classes

The classroom observations conducted in the Literary Stream of the Third-Year Literature and Philosophy class revealed several critical aspects regarding language use, student engagement, and the overall learning environment.

One of the most immediate and recurrent concerns was the high rate of pupils' absenteeism. Despite an official class register of 30 pupils, attendance fluctuated significantly, with only 18 pupils present in the first observed session, followed by 14 in two consecutive sessions, 10 in another, 13 in one, and as low as 9 in the final session. This inconsistency in attendance not only disrupts the continuity of instruction but also hinders the effectiveness of pedagogical strategies, especially in a subject that requires consistent exposure and practice, such as English.

Throughout all observed sessions, Arabic was heavily used by the teacher. In fact, it served as the primary medium for delivering explanations, clarifying instructions, and addressing vocabulary even when the terms were relatively simple. This consistent use of Arabic was not arbitrary; rather, it seemed to be a direct response to the pupils' low proficiency in English. Due to their limited comprehension, the teacher often resorted to Arabic to gain time and ensure students could follow the content. Whenever the teacher attempted to use English exclusively, the educator was frequently met with

silence or visible confusion. As a result, the teacher regularly switched back to Arabic to maintain lesson flow and support understanding.

Although English was occasionally used through translation tasks or sentence formulation, pupils nevertheless struggled to respond, often failing to produce coherent English sentences or retrieve basic vocabulary. As a result, many remained silent or requested translations into Arabic, as they lacked the linguistic tools to express their thoughts in English. Consequently, class discussions were mostly conducted in Arabic, with the teacher frequently resorting to it for questions and clarifications.

Moreover, pupils rarely used English spontaneously in interactions, relying heavily on Arabic, especially when seeking clarification. This suggests that participation dropped when the teacher attempted to use English exclusively, further indicating a significant reliance on translation. While this reliance hindered oral English production, it helped students' basic comprehension of lesson content.

In addition, the teacher often used Arabic to explain grammar, provide feedback, and manage corrections, frequently reverting to it when pupils struggled to keep up with English. Thus, the consistent use of Arabic was driven by necessity rather than preference, yet it limited pupils' exposure to English, ultimately hindering their fluency and confidence.

In contrast, pupils in the Foreign Languages classroom demonstrated a greater willingness to engage in English and actively communicated with the teacher. This highlights the impact of the overreliance on Arabic in the Literary Stream, where absenteeism and skill gaps contributed to minimal meaningful communication in English.

To sum up, although Arabic helped with comprehension, it also emphasized the need for targeted strategies to gradually improve pupils' English proficiency and reduce their dependence on the mother tongue. The observations showed a strong reliance on Arabic in instruction and classroom interaction, which limited pupils' exposure to English. In contrast, students in the Foreign Languages stream were more engaged in

English, suggesting that greater use of the target language is possible with appropriate strategies and support.

2.8 Suggestions and recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, it becomes clear that the use of the mother tongue (Arabic) in EFL classrooms can serve as a supportive tool, but only when used strategically and within reasonable limits. While occasional recourse to L1 may facilitate comprehension and reduce learner anxiety, excessive reliance on it tends to hinder the acquisition of English and lead pupils to over-depend on translation rather than active language use.

Therefore, it is strongly recommended that EFL teachers minimize the use of Arabic during English instruction. Teachers who consistently rely on Arabic often see weaker student outcomes, as learners tend to over-rely on translation and struggle to engage actively in English. In contrast, teachers who use Arabic sparingly create an environment that encourages greater exposure to English, leading to stronger pupil performance and higher levels of engagement. By limiting Arabic to moments of real necessity, teachers can foster a more immersive language-learning experience, which significantly enhances learners' proficiency and confidence in using English.

To support this shift, teachers should be encouraged to adopt alternative strategies for explaining difficult concepts, such as using visuals, simplified language, gestures, or collaborative tasks, instead of immediately turning to L1. In addition, training programs and workshops can be introduced to equip teachers with practical techniques that promote the exclusive or optimal use of the target language. Finally, the development of creative, learner-friendly methods and materials may help students navigate language learning more independently and confidently, without an overreliance on Arabic.

2.9 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the core of the research by analysing and interpreting the data collected through a mixed-methods approach. By combining questionnaires for both teachers and students with classroom observation, the study offered a well-rounded exploration of the effectiveness of using Arabic in EFL classrooms. Each research tool contributed uniquely: while the questionnaires provided insight into the participants' beliefs and attitudes, the classroom observation allowed for a closer look at how Arabic was actually used during instruction and whether this use supported or hindered learning.

Moreover, the use of triangulation bringing together data from multiple sources enhanced the credibility and depth of the findings. This approach made it possible to identify not only areas of agreement between what participants reported and what was observed, but also instances where perceptions and practice diverged. Such comparison was essential in assessing the real impact of Arabic on the learning process. To interpret the data, both thematic and statistical analyses were used. This combination allowed for the identification of key patterns in participant responses as well as the measurement of overall trends. As a result, the findings provided clear and balanced answers to the research questions and confirmed all of the initial hypotheses. Together, the results highlighted both the practical and pedagogical implications of Arabic use in EFL classrooms.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

GENERAL CONCLUSION

General conclusion

In today's interconnected world, the ability to communicate in more than one language has become not just an asset but a necessity. Within the educational field, this shift has encouraged many systems to explore more inclusive and effective teaching strategies, one of which is the use of L1 in EFL classes. In Algeria, pupils are increasingly exposed to both Arabic as their native language and English as a foreign language, which creates a learning environment where two languages interact and shape the educational process. As English continues to grow in importance, educators have started to consider whether instruction should rely solely on the target language or include the learners' mother tongue to enhance understanding and support the learning process.

This study was organized into two main chapters that together provided a comprehensive exploration of the topic. The first chapter laid the theoretical groundwork by presenting key concepts related to language contact, bilingualism, and code-switching. It also offered insight into the linguistic landscape of Algeria and the structure of the national education system, focusing particularly on the role of foreign languages. Furthermore, this chapter discussed language planning and attitudes before concluding with an analysis of how the mother tongue influenced English language classrooms. The second chapter, on the other hand, focused on the practical side of the research. It outlined the methodology, including the research type, sample, and population. It also described the tools and procedures used to gather data. This chapter then analysed the findings drawn from questionnaires completed by both pupils and teachers, supplemented by classroom observations. Finally, the chapter offered suggestions and recommendations based on the results.

The results of this case study confirmed the overall relevance of the research hypotheses. The first hypotheses was strongly approved, findings showed that teachers used the mother tongue to manage time efficiently and to explain complex concepts, particularly in grammar and vocabulary, while pupils viewed it as a helpful tool that improved their understanding and encouraged their participation. Concerning the second hypothesis, based on teachers' recommendations and classroom

GENERAL CONCLUSION

observations, the findings revealed that pupils' frequent reliance on Arabic in EFL classes delayed the language acquisition process. However, a few numbers of pupils expressed a preference for full English immersion, highlighting the necessity of a balanced approach. As for the third hypothesis, it was strongly approved. Most pupils exhibited positive attitudes toward the use of L1 in EFL classes, and teachers emphasized the importance of strategic code-switching to maintain learner engagement and foster a supportive classroom environment.

This research primarily explored the effectiveness of using L1 in EFL classes in Algerian EFL classrooms, focusing on Arabic as a supportive tool in learning English. By highlighting learners' and teachers' attitudes, it reveals how the mother tongue can ease comprehension, reduce anxiety, and promote participation. The findings show that using Arabic strategically helps clarify complex content, manage time, and create a more inclusive learning environment. It contributes to language education by offering context-specific insights from the Algerian EFL setting, a dynamic language landscape that offers valuable insights but has received limited scholarly attention. The study demonstrates that purposeful code-switching can support understanding without limiting English exposure, while also guiding educators toward more flexible, learner-centered practices. It encourages policymakers to reconsider rigid monolingual approaches in favour of strategies that value linguistic diversity and support effective language acquisition.

Like any research, this study faced several limitations that should be acknowledged. One of the main challenges was related to the methodological aspect, as we encountered difficulties in navigating certain research procedures due to limited time. In terms of data collection, the process was time-consuming and faced several delays, especially due to the overlapping of data collection with. Additionally, some teachers were reluctant to participate, which further limited the size and diversity of the sample. The logistics of moving between different secondary schools to reach participants proved to be both time and cost-intensive. Moreover, administrative delays, particularly in obtaining official authorization from the Directorate of Education, affected the timeline of the research.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

Based on the outcomes of this study, several directions for future research are suggested. First, further investigations could explore the long-term effects of using Arabic in EFL classrooms on learners' motivation, participation, and overall performance. Studies that follow learners across different school years could provide deeper insights into how their attitudes evolve over time. Moreover, future researchers are encouraged to conduct their studies across multiple secondary schools rather than focusing on a single institution, as this would allow for broader comparisons and more representative findings. In addition, examining how bilingual classroom practices are received in different regions and educational stages within Algeria could help highlight contextual variations. Another valuable area of exploration is the role of internal factor such as learners' personalities, beliefs, and learning preferences which were not addressed in this study but may significantly shape attitudes toward bilingual instruction. Finally, future studies could also investigate the practical challenges teachers face in applying bilingual strategies under monolingual policy constraints, thereby contributing to more grounded and effective educational recommendations.

To conclude, this study reaffirms the relevance of using L1 in EFL classrooms, emphasizing the value of learners' linguistic backgrounds as a supportive tool rather than an obstacle. While English should remain the primary medium of instruction, purposeful and limited use of Arabic can enhance comprehension and learner engagement when truly needed.

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Appendix A

Pupil's Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims to explore the attitudes of third year pupils at Bouazza Miloud secondary school in Maghnia city toward using both Arabic and English in EFL classrooms, as compared to the use of only English. Your opinion as a pupil is very helpful, for this reason you are kindly invited to answer the following questionnaire.

Section one: Personal Information

1. Gender:

Male ☐

Female ☐

2. What is your field of study?

Foreign languages ☐

Literature and philosophy ☐

Science streams ☐

Section two: Learning Challenges

3. Do you face any difficulties during English sessions?

Yes ☐

No ☐

4. What are these difficulties?

Understanding complex grammar rules ☐

Understanding vocabulary ☐

Feeling embarrassed to speak English ☐

Written expressions ☐

Others:

.....

Section three: Teacher's Use of Arabic in English Classes

5. How often does your English teacher use Arabic during English sessions?

Always ☐

Often ☐

Sometimes ☐

Rarely ☐

Never ☐

6. Do you agree that using Arabic in English classes help you understand better?

Strongly agree ☐

Agree ☐

Disagree ☐

Strongly disagree ☐

7. Do you feel more motivated to participate in class when your teacher explains using L1?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Appendix B

استبيان التلاميذ

يهدف هذا الاستبيان الى استكشاف مواقف تلاميذ السنة الثالثة في ثانوية بوعزة ميلود في مدينة مغنية تجاه استخدام كل من اللغة العربية والانجليزية في الفصول الاجنبية، مقارنة باستخدام الانجليزية فقط. رأيك كتلميذ مهم جداً، ولهذا ندعوك بكل لطف للإجابة على هذا الاستبيان.

لقسم الأول: المعلومات الشخصية

1. الجنس

☐ ذكر

☐ أنثى

2. ما هو تخصصك الدراسي؟ اللغات الأجنبية ☐

☐ الأدب والفلسفة

☐ الشعب العلمية

القسم الثاني: التحديات التعليمية

3. هل تواجه أي صعوبات أثناء حصص اللغة الإنجليزية؟

☐ نعم

☐ لا

4. ما هي هذه الصعوبات؟

فهم القواعد النحوية المعقدة ☐ فهم

المفردات ☐

الشعور بالإحراج عند التحدث بالإنجليزية ☐ التعبير الكتابي ☐

أخرى.....

لقسم الثالث: استخدام الأستاذ للعربية في حصص الإنجليزية 5. كم يستخدم أستاذ

اللغة الإنجليزية العربية أثناء الحصص؟ دائماً ☐

☐ غالباً

☐ أحياناً

☐ نادراً

☐ أبداً

7.توافق على أن استخدام العربية في حصص الإنجليزية يساعدك على الفهم بشكل أفضل؟ أوافق بشدة ☐

☐ أوافق

☐ لا أوافق

☐ لا أوافق بشدة

8.هل تشعر بالتحفيز للمشاركة في القسم عندما يشرح المعلم باستخدام لغتك الأم؟

☐ نعم

☐ ال

شكراً جزيلاً

Appendix C

Teachers' Questionnaire

This questionnaire is delivered to secondary schools' English teachers of Maghnia. It aims to explore the effectiveness of using Arabic (L1) in EFL classrooms compared to using only English (L2). Your experience as a teacher is very helpful, for this reason you are kindly invited to answer the following questionnaire.

Section one: Participants' background

Gender:

Male ☐

female ☐

1. How many years of teaching experience do you have?

.....years

2. Which level do you teach?

1st year ☐

2nd year ☐

3rd year ☐

3. Which fields do you teach?

Literature and Philosophy ☐

Foreign Languages ☐

Science Stream ☐

Section two: Language Choice and Student Engagement in Bilingual Instruction

4. Do you use Arabic in your EFL classroom?

Yes ☐

No ☐

• If yes, with whom do you use Arabic?

First year ☐

second year ☐

third year ☐

5. How often do you use Arabic in your classroom?

Always ☐

often ☐

rarely ☐

never ☐

6. In which situations do you find using Arabic most useful?

Introducing new vocabulary ☐

Explaining complex concepts ☐

Giving instructions ☐

Gaining time ☐

other (please specify)

.....
.....

7. Do you agree that using both Arabic and English increases students' participation?

Strongly agree ☐ agree ☐ neutral ☐ Strongly disagree
disagree ☐

8. Do you find that using both L1 and L2 in classrooms is challenging?

Yes ☐ No ☐

- If yes, what are these challenges?

☐

.....
.....
.....
.....

Section 3: Teaching strategies and recommendations:

9. What are the learning tools do you use to make students learn English without using L1?

Work Sheets ☐ Flash Cards ☐ Group Work ☐ Interactive Games
☐

10. How do you balance the use of both languages in your classes? (methods)

.....
.....
.....
.....

11. What recommendations would you provide for future teachers concerning bilingual education?

.....
.....
.....
.....

Thank you

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى التحقيق في استخدام العربية الدارجة إلى جانب اللغة الإنجليزية في أقسام السنة الثالثة ثانوي بثانوية بوعزة ميلود بمدينة مغنية، حيث تُدرّس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية ثانية. تركز الدراسة على مواقف التلاميذ تجاه هذا الأسلوب وتأثيره على تطوير مهاراتهم اللغوية. وقد تم إجراء البحث على مستوى أقسام السنة الثالثة، باستخدام استبيانات موجهة لكل من الأساتذة والتلاميذ، إلى جانب الملاحظة الصفية. وتم اعتماد منهج يجمع بين الطريقتين الكمية والنوعية. أظهرت النتائج أن اللغة العربية كانت تُستخدم غالبًا لتوضيح المحتويات الصعبة وتسيير الوقت داخل الحصة، وهو ما لقي استحسانًا من طرف التلاميذ. ومع ذلك، فقد بيّنت النتائج أن الاعتماد المفرط على اللغة الأم حدّ من فرص ممارسة اللغة الإنجليزية وأثّر سلبيًا على مهارات التلاميذ التواصلية. وتؤكد الدراسة على ضرورة تبني أسلوب متوازن في التعليم الثنائي اللغة، بما يدعم عملية التعلم دون أن يعيق اكتساب اللغة الأجنبية.

Résumé

Cette étude vise à examiner l'utilisation de l'Arabe Dialectal lors des séances d'anglais de classe de troisième année secondaire au sein du lycée Bouaazza Miloud à Maghnia. Elle s'intéresse aux attitudes des élèves face à cette pratique ainsi qu'à son impact sur le développement de leurs compétences linguistiques. L'enquête a été menée spécifiquement auprès des classes de troisième année, en s'appuyant sur des questionnaires adressés aux enseignants et aux élèves, ainsi que sur des observations en classe. Une approche méthodologique mixte, combinant méthodes quantitatives et qualitatives, a été adoptée. Les résultats ont révélé que l'arabe était fréquemment utilisé pour clarifier des contenus complexes et gérer le temps d'enseignement, ce que les élèves ont perçu de manière positive. Toutefois, un recours excessif à la langue maternelle a limité les opportunités de pratique de l'anglais et a eu un effet négatif sur le développement des compétences communicatives des apprenants. L'étude souligne ainsi la nécessité d'un enseignement bilingue équilibré, permettant de soutenir l'apprentissage sans freiner l'acquisition de la langue cible.

Summary

This study aims to investigate the use of Dialectal Arabic alongside English in third-year secondary classrooms at Bouaazza Miloud Secondary School in Maghnia, where English is taught as a second foreign language. It focuses on pupils' attitudes toward this practice and its impact on their language development. Conducted at the level of third-year classes, the research used questionnaires for both teachers and pupils, along with classroom observation. A mixed methods approach was applied. Results showed that Arabic was often used to clarify difficult content and manage instructional time, which pupils viewed positively. However, excessive reliance on the mother tongue limited opportunities for practicing English and negatively affected pupils' communicative skills. The study emphasizes the need for a balanced approach to bilingual instruction that supports learning without hindering language acquisition.