



Faculty of Graduate Studies

English Department

Code-Mixing in a Trilingual Context: The Case of Minor French for English Majors at

Hebron University

By

Dua'a Abdel Ra'ouf Mohammad Abuzeinah

Supervised by

Professor Ahmad Atawneh

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This thesis was successfully defended on March 8<sup>th</sup> 2017 and approved by:

Committee members:

Signature

1- Prof. Ahmad Atawneh

(Supervisor)



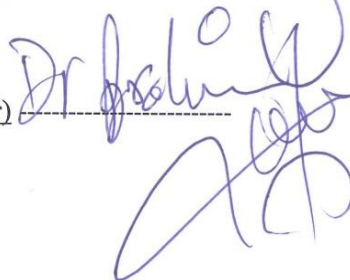
2- Dr. Mahmoud Imeizeh

(External Examiner)



3- Dr. Brahim Melouki

(Internal Examiner)



## **Dedication**

This work is dedicated to my father and my mother who have always been the happiest for my success I achieve. It is also dedicated to my husband for his continuous encouragement, and to my sisters and brothers for their constant support. Moreover, I want to thank my mother in law and my sister in law for their daily and continuous support. Finally, this work is dedicated to my lovely son "BARAA" who provides me with the spirit of my life.

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## **Table of Content**

<b>Dedication.....</b>	<b>I</b>
<b>Acknowledgement.....</b>	<b>II</b>
<b>Table of contents.....</b>	<b>III</b>
<b>Abstract.....</b>	<b>VI</b>
<b>Arabic Abstract.....</b>	<b>VII</b>
<b>Definitions of Key Terms.....</b>	<b>VIII</b>
<b>List of Tables .....</b>	<b>IX</b>
<b>Chapter One.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>1. Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Code- Switching & Code-Mixing in the Palestinian Context.....	2
1.2 Statement of the Problem .....	3
1.3 Purpose and Significance of the Study.....	4
1.4 Research Questions .....	4
1.5 Hypothesis and Objectives .....	4
1.6 Limitations of the Study.....	4
1.7 Definitions of Terms .....	5
<b>Chapter Tow : Literature Review.....</b>	<b>6</b>
2.1 Historical Background about English and French.....	6
2.2 Status of French Language among other Languages in Palestine.....	8
2.2.1 Arabic.....	8
2.2.2 English.....	8
2.2.3 Hebrew.....	8
2.2.4 French.....	9

2.3 Code-Mixing and Code-Switching.....	9
2.4 Reasons and Motivations of Code-Switching and Code-Mixing.....	10
2.5 Types of Code-Switching and Code-Mixing.....	11
2.6 Review of CM studies in Relation to their Methodologies .....	12
<b>Chapter Three : Methodology .....</b>	<b>24</b>
3.1 Subjects.....	24
3.2 Data Collection .....	24
3.2.1 Observation .....	24
3.2.2 Semi- Structured Interview.....	25
3.2.3 A questionnaire .....	28
<b>Chapter Four : Results and Analysis .....</b>	<b>30</b>
4.1 Syntactic Categorization.....	30
4.2 Discussion of the Categorization of Parts of Speech.....	33
4.2.1 Question One: What Kinds of Contexts Allows for Mixing?.....	33
4.3 Discussion of the Reasons of Code-Mixing inside the Classroom.....	35
4.3.1 Questions Two: Why Do Learners Mix?.....	35
4.3.2 Lack of Vocabulary.....	37
4.3.3 Linguistic Insecurity.....	39
4.3.4 No Equivalence of some English or Arabic Expressions in French.....	40
4.3.5 Similarity of Spelling.....	41
4.4 Additional Results of the Questionnaire.....	43
4.5 Additional Outcomes of the Interviews.....	46
4.6 Universal Constraints .....	46
4.6.1 The size of the Constituent Constraint.....	47

4.6.2 The Conjunction and Complementizer Constraint.....	48
4.6.3 The Adjectival Phrase Constraint.....	50
4.6.4 The Clitic Pronoun Object Constraint.....	51
4.6.5 The Free Morpheme Constraint.....	52
4.6.6 The Equivalence Constraint.....	53
4.6.7 The Dual Structure Principle.....	53
<b>Chapter Five : Conclusion.....</b>	<b>56</b>
<b>References.....</b>	<b>59</b>
<b>Appendices.....</b>	<b>64</b>
Appendix A: Questionnaire in Arabic.....	64
Appendix B: Questionnaire in English.....	66
Appendix C: Questions of Interviews .....	68
Appendix D: IPA Symbols Used for the Transliteration of the Code-Mixing Instances of the 61 French Minors at H.U .....	69
Appendix E: Phonetic Symbols for English .....	70
Appendix F: Code-Mixing Instances of the 61 French Minors at H.U.....	72
Appendix G: Transcription Conventions of Interviewees.....	76
Appendix H: Answers of Interviews.....	78

## **Abstract**

Code-Mixing is a linguistic phenomenon by which speakers use utterances of other languages within the same sentence, and it is common in EFL and FFL contexts. Researchers have identified many communicative functions and motives explaining why people mix languages during their speech. In Palestine, French is a second foreign language taught in some public and private schools. Learners of French code-mix English and Arabic in their interactions. In this study, the functions and motives of code-mixing of Palestinian French minors' at H.U were investigated. However, the reasons for their code-mixing and the application of the universal constraints were also examined. The research design has qualitative and quantitative methods. The observation was made to 61 French minors ages between 20 and 24 over a period of four months. Their interactions during French sessions were observed and the code-mixing instances were recorded. The instances were categorized according to their frequency, and then they were analyzed. Subjects filled the questionnaire that inquired about the functions and motives of their code-mixing. The results showed that the French minors at H.U had reasons and motives behind their code-mixing like compensating for the lack of vocabulary items, expressing feelings and habitual use, discussing Western societies, responding to a French or an English utterance, and finally, showing knowledge of technology.

It is recommended to have more detailed analysis of a larger study including French majors instead of minors.



## Arabic Abstract

### ملخص الدراسة

الخط اللغوي هو ظاهرة يستخدم خلالها المتخاطبون أكثر من لغة واحدة في نفس العبارة، وهي شائعة في السياق الاجتماعي الذي تكون فيه اللغة الانجليزية أو الفرنسية لغات أجنبية ثانية أو ثالثة. وقد قام الباحثون بتحديد دوافع ووظائف تفاعلية عديدة تفسر قيام المتخاطبين بالتحويل من لغة إلى أخرى. تعتبر اللغة الفرنسية هي اللغة الأجنبية الثانية التي تدرس في بعض المدارس الحكومية أو الخاصة. لاحظت الباحثة أن طلاب اللغة الفرنسية في جامعة الخليل يخلطون اللغة الانجليزية أو اللغة العربية خلال محادثاتهم باللغة الفرنسية داخل الصف. لذا فإن هذه الدراسة بحثت في الدوافع والوظائف المتعلقة بالخط اللغوي لهؤلاء الطلاب. وبحثت أيضا الأسباب التي أدت بهؤلاء الطلاب لخلط لغات أخرى، وقامت بتطبيقهم على المعايير الدولية الخاصة بظاهرة الخط اللغوي. استخدم الباحث تصميم البحث المختلط (النوعي والكمي): أجريت الدراسة على 61 طالب وطالبة لغة فرنسية تخصص فرعي لغة فرنسية تتراوح أعمارهم من 20 الى 24 عاما. كما قاموا بتعبئة استبانة عن دوافع ووظائف الخط اللغوي عندهم. وقد أظهرت النتائج أن الخط اللغوي عند هؤلاء الطلاب له عدة دوافع ووظائف مثل التعويض عن النقص في المفردات والتعبير عن المشاعر والممارسة الاعتيادية. ومن الدوافع والوظائف الأخرى : مناقشة المجتمعات الغربية والرد على كلام قيل باللغة الانجليزية أو الفرنسية بالإضافة إلى إظهار المعرفة بأمور التكنولوجيا. وأخيرا المباهاة في معرفة اللغات هي دافع إضافي للخط اللغوي عند هؤلاء الطلاب. وبناء عليه، فقد أوصت الباحثة بإجراء دراسة تحليلية مفصلة لعدد اكبر من الطلاب الذين يدرسون اللغة الفرنسية في الجامعات الفلسطينية كتخصص رئيسي بدلا من إجرائها على الطلاب الذين يدرسونها كتخصص فرعي لتخصصات رئيسية أخرى.

### Definitions of Key Terms

- **Bilingual** is a person who is fluent in two languages.
- **Code-Mixing** takes place inside the sentence or the clause level, which also referred to as Intra-sentential.
- **Code-Switching** is a practice by which interlocutors alternate between two or more languages, or even varieties of the same language, in a conversation.
- **Constraints** are the limitations or restrictions that control Code-Switching or Code-Mixing in a conversation.
- **Constituent** is one of the parts that a substance or combination is made of.
- **Multilingual** is a person who is able to use several languages for communication especially with equal fluency.
- **Trilingual** is a person who is able to use three languages, especially with equal or nearly equal fluency.

## **List of Tables**

Table 1: The Questions of the Interviews Related to the Research Questions.....	27
Table 2 : Single Words and Phrasal Categories in English and Arabic Mixes.....	32
Table 3: French Learners Answers about (yes) or (No) Questions of the Questionnaire...	44
Table 4: The Situations in which French Minors Mix English or Arabic with Persons who Speak French .....	45

## Chapter One

### Introduction

A bilingual or a trilingual may code-mix one language and another when they communicate inside or outside the classroom. Code-Mixing in this case is understood as "the use of elements (phonological, lexical, and morpho-syntactic) from two languages in the same utterance or stretch of conversation (Genessee, 2008, p. 3). Code-Mixing is a phenomenon that can be observed in the conversations of children and adults in different contexts and situations. It is called intra-sentence in which two languages are used in the same sentence ( $S = L1 + L2$ ). (E.g., "*give me le cahier*" / "*give me the notebook*"). In Code Switching (CS), which is inter-sentential, the switch takes place from one language to another across sentences ( $S1 + S2 = L1 + L2$ ). (E.g., Mother: "*What's this?*"; child: "*c'est un cahier*"). Some researchers have also referred to the formal and informal situations where bilinguals mix or switch languages. They referred to mixing as 'situational mixing', Genessee (1989). This type of mixing depends on the context itself.

"Cook(2002) defines CS as the phenomenon which occurs when bilinguals switch between two common languages they share in the middle of a conversation. The switch takes place between or within sentences, involving phrases, words or even parts of words". (Alshehab, 2014, p. 2).

It has been mentioned that students code-mix from French to English and Arabic in their conversations inside and outside the classroom. This linguistic behavior at H.U would be an interesting area of investigation. It was decided to explore the areas of this phenomenon among French- English learners at H.U. It must be important to investigate the reasons behind the learners' French- English and Arabic Code-Mixing in the classroom, and to investigate the constraints of such Code-Mixing. Seeing that such a domain has rarely been investigated by other researchers to the best of the researcher's knowledge,

makes the researcher hope to contribute to the field of French-English and Arabic Code-Mixing.

Code switching (CS) and Code-Mixing (CM) are two important topics in bilingualism research. According to Hijazi (2013), some researchers have got interested in Code-Switching and Code-Mixing as psychological phenomenon while others have got interested in them as a linguistic one. She explains in her research different factors that affect the two linguistic behaviors (CS & CM). These factors include education, age, gender, topic and setting. Other researchers consider other factors to be more important than the previous ones like: situation, function, and the interlocutors. Genesse (1989) states that the long period of exposure to the languages is an important factor that affects Code-Switching and Code-Mixing. Long exposure to the languages leads to more frequent CS & CM among interlocutors. Others like Kanakri & Lonescu (2010) state that the relationship between interlocutors influence CS and CM.

Code-Mixing will be investigated in relation to the communicative functions that the learners of French-English at H.U aimed at. The constraints of mixing will also be investigated. In brief, this study focuses on why and how learners of French-English at H.U mix during their conversations inside the classroom.

### **1.1 Code- Switching & Code-Mixing in the Palestinian Context:**

CS and CM are two phenomena that can be practiced in Palestine since it is a non-native country in which English is taught as a first foreign language in schools and at Universities, while French is the second foreign language that is taught in some Palestinian schools and Universities. Following the signing of several agreements with the French General Consulate in Jerusalem since 1995, French has been approved to be taught as a second foreign language in some public schools in the West Bank and Gaza Strip which were called *Pilot Schools*. They have become more numerous to reach the figure of 26

schools. They serve as a test for the official introduction of French into all public secondary schools (Bishawi, 2014). According to the Palestinian Ministry of Education, 72 teachers are teaching French in 79 public schools in the current academic year (2016/2017) with a total of 5954 students in Palestine (West Bank and Gaza Strip). At the same period, French is taught in 35 private schools (27 of them in the West Bank and 8 of them are in Gaza Strip). (accessed May 2<sup>nd</sup>, 2017).

French is usually taught at some Palestinian Universities as a Major or a Minor. The previous foreign languages are used by teachers, college educators and learners. It is clear that English is used in some workplaces and establishments in Palestine since foreign languages are important to be learnt among Palestinians and to be used in their national and international companies.

In 1999, French became taught as a Major specialist in some Palestinian Universities after the signing of French Linguistic and academic cooperation with the Palestinian Authority (Bishawi, 2014). With more reading about Code-Mixing of different languages, it has been decided to investigate this phenomenon since the learners of French at Hebron University Code-Mix French and English or French and Arabic in their conversations inside the classroom.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem:**

In the Palestinian context, French is taught as a second foreign language, coming after English, in some universities and some particular (private and public) schools. It is seldom needed outside the formal setting of the classroom. Minors of French at Hebron University whose L1 is Arabic code mix in their interactions between French (L3), English (L2) and Arabic in the classroom. They mix English or Arabic during their communications in French. The reasons behind code-mixing whether it is for lack of vocabulary or for clarification will be investigated in this study. Research usually

investigates Code-Mixing in bilinguals in one of the native countries of the bilingual. This study investigates Code-Mixing in non native country context for speakers who learn English and French as foreign languages. Linguistic aspects of the Code- Mixing used by the French learners at H.U will be analyzed.

### **1.3 Purpose and Significance of the Study :**

This study aims at investigating the linguistic aspects of Code-Mixing. It will also look at the functions and the constraints of Code-Mixing in the performance of the French learners at H.U. It could be important to investigate such a practice because it occurs in a context in which L3 is used in the repertoire of trilinguals. It also aims at exploring the theoretical and practical application of Code-Mixing whereby the theoretical application tests the existing theory of Code-Mixing; the practical application should be directed to teachers of French to understand the natural behavior of learners who mix English, French and Arabic.

### **1.4 Research Questions:**

1. What kind of context allows for mixing?
2. Why do learners mix?
3. How do mixers follow the universal constraints in their mixes?

### **1.5 Hypotheses of the Study:**

- 1- Students use mixing in context like classroom sessions.
- 2- Students mix for both lack of vocabulary and for clarification.
- 3- Mixers do not follow the universal constraints.

### **1.6 Limitations of the Study:**

French has been approved to be taught at Hebron University as Minor for English Majors from the first academic semester (2004/2005) to this current one (2016/2017). According to the Department of Admission and Registration at Hebron University, 1350

students were registered to study French to be Minor besides English which is Major during the previous academic semesters (accessed April 23, 2017). Some of them continued their studying of French, but others stopped for different academic or personal reasons. According to the Department of Admission and Registration, English Majors who were registered at H.U during the same academic semesters were 1970 learners (accessed April 30, 2017). The sample of this study is limited to 61 students who were registered at H.U in the second academic semester of (2015/2016). They study French for 3 years finishing 30 credits in French. Researches on French Majors may have different results since they study more than 30 credits in French.

### **1.7 Definitions of Terms:**

- 1 - *Bilingualis* a person who is fluent in two languages.
- 2 - *Code-Mixing* takes place inside the sentence or the clause level, which also referred to as Intra-sentential.
- 3 - *Code-Switching* is a practice by which interlocutors alternate between two or more languages, or even varieties of the same language, in a conversation.
- 4 - *Constraints* are the limitations or restrictions that control Code-Switching or Code-Mixing in a conversation.
- 5 - *Constituent* is one of the parts that a substance or combination is made of.
- 6 - *Multilingual* is a person who is able to use several languages for communication especially with equal fluency.
- 7 - *Trilingual* is a person who is able to use three languages, especially with equal or nearly equal fluency.



## **Chapter Two**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.1 Historical Background about English and French**

Since this study investigates the mixing of French and English, then it is relevant to give a historical background about the two languages as they have a lot in common. Latin and German were considered to be the most important languages that affected English over the world. French had influenced the shape of English language which was the fact that many people did not realize.

Angles, Jutes, and Saxons who settled in Britain in about 450 A.D were the three German tribes whose dialects affected the shape of the English language, Lawless (2015). These dialects' forms had also created what linguists referred to as Anglo-Saxon. After that, this language had been developed into what was known as Old English.

"Anglo-Norman French became the language of the kings and nobility of England for more than 300 years (Henry IV, who came to the English throne in 1399, was the first monarch since before the Conquest to have English as his mother tongue)" ([http://www.thehistoryofenglish.com/history\\_middle.html#Top](http://www.thehistoryofenglish.com/history_middle.html#Top)).

According to Lawless (2015), The Norman Conqueror, Duke of Normandy and, later, the first Norman King of England, reigning from 1066 until his death in 1087, was the final cataclysm which awaited the English language. Side by side, English had been used in England in everyday uses without problems. Although English was ignored by grammarians during that time, it had become grammatically simpler language after only 70 or 80 years of its existence. Side by side with French, Old English had been developed into Middle English.

According to Lawless (2015), about 10,000 French words were adopted into English during the Norman occupation. Some of them are still in use until today. Those

French words are found in law, in government, in art and even in literature. (E.g: *agent provocateur*= *provocative agent*/ *aide-de-camp*= *camp assistant*). It is estimated that more than a third of English words derived directly or indirectly from French. As a result, 15,000 French words are known by speakers who have never studied French. However, there is 1,700 true cognates in the two languages (they mean the same in both languages): *Sciences/ maths/ information, ..... etc* .

"English pronunciation owes a lot to French as well. Whereas Old English had the unvoiced fricative sounds [f], [s], [θ] (as in *thin*), and [ʃ] (*shin*), French influence helped to distinguish their voiced counterparts [v], [z], [ð] (*the*), and [ʒ] (*mirage*), and also contributed the diphthong [ɔy] (*boy*)" (Lawless, 2015, p.1) .

The previous quotation shows us the influence of French on English pronunciation. A lot of English pronunciation relates to French. French influence helped Old English to distinguish the voiced counterparts ([v], [z], [the], and [ʒ] ) from the unvoiced fricative sounds [f], [s], [thin], and [shin]. Moreover, French also contributed the diphthong [boy].

French had also rarely influenced English in grammar in the word order of expressions like *surgeon general*. While French had the (noun+ adjective) word order: *une personne contente*, English had the (adjective + noun) word order: *happy person*.

Given this background, French and English are strongly connected linguistically. As a result, it is natural to see several similarities between them. Code- Mixing is considered to be one of several linguistic phenomena that appear among persons who speak those two languages. These similarities will be taken in consideration by the researcher in conducting this research.

## **2.2 Status of French Language among other Languages in Palestine**

To learn more about the status of French language in Palestine, the researcher gives a historical background of languages in Palestine according to their importance.

### **2.2.1 Arabic**

Arabic is the mother tongue of most of Palestinians. Arabic variety is the language of the Palestinian community. It is used orally outside the classroom; while classic Arabic (Al Fusha) is the principle language of teaching in Palestinian schools and universities. It is also the official language of the Palestinian Authority which is used for different purposes. (Itma, 2010).

### **2.2.2 English**

After the British Mandate of Palestine (1920-1948), English became the principle language for the British government, and Arabic became the language of education in Palestinian schools and universities (Itma, 2010). As a result, English became the first foreign language in Palestine which is used for different purposes in education like scientific domains (e.g: medicine, pharmacy,...etc). Nowadays, it could be difficult for learners to study at Palestinian universities without having a principle level in English.

### **2.2.3 Hebrew**

Despite the existence of the Israeli occupation of the Palestinian Territories, Hebrew, the Israeli language, is not widely spread. The majority of Palestinians who speak Hebrew are from those who work in Israel in different companies like restaurants, hotels, industries or construction.....etc. They practice it informally at work. Others, like traders, advocates,...etc, use it formally and for personal purposes at their work. Palestinian Universities present Hebrew as optional courses with basic knowledge for the students. As

a result, Hebrew is still used by a small group of Palestinians who are concerned to use it for personal purposes. (Bishawi, 2014).

#### **2.2.4 French**

The Ottoman Empire (1516-1917) granted privileges to religious congregations to Christians who had come to protect the Christian holy places in the Holy Land (Palestine). At that time, France opened schools, reception centers, hospitals and orphanages for pilgrims. These congregations brought together several nationalities from Russia to America. This action has been concentrated in the Jerusalem- Bethlehem because the Christian presence is very important in the cities. Later, during the British Mandate, there were French Biblical Schools. They taught French in the first class (7 years) until the terminal (eighteen years). It was not until the 1980s that French cultural centers in Jerusalem, Nablus, Ramallah, and Gaza. Thus during the same period, French invaded higher education initially as an optional module and then as a Minor specialty with a Major specialty that was English. A few years later, a Major French specialty was born in 1999 after the signing of the linguistic and academic cooperation with the Palestinian Authority. (Bishawi, 2014).

#### **2.3 Code-Mixing and Code-Switching**

The present study was based on a selection of theoretical assumptions related to the phenomenon of Code-Mixing, one of which is the definition itself. Poplack (1980) in his study *'Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish Y TERMINO EN ESPANOL: toward a typology of code-switching'*, had not distinguished between Code-Mixing and Code-Switching. He provides some examples of Code-Mixing to what he referred to as Code-Switching. In the following example, there was no exact distinction between the two phenomena.

'Leo un MAGAZINE'. [mreg~'ziyn],  
[ 'I read'-ainagazine'] .

As reported in Ayeomoni (2006), Bokamba (1989) defines CM to be the embedding of different linguistic units such as words (unbound morphemes), affixes (bound morphemes), clauses and phrases in a co-operative activity of two participants. Bokamba (1989) states that CS is the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two grammatical (sub) systems across sentence boundaries within the same speech event while CM is the embedding of various linguistic units such as words within a sentence. Ayeomoni (2006) claims that CM versus CS distinction is poorly motivated because both of them can occur as part of the same conversational turn, and both can serve the social function. The researcher in this current study did not find a big difference between CS and CM inside the classroom since each one could involve the other. On the other hand, the researcher observed English/ French and Arabic Code-Mixing inside the classroom, so that her concentration was on the instances of CM rather than on the difference between the instances of CS and those of CM.

As it is mentioned in Kim (2006), Muysken (2000) defines code-mixing as all cases where grammatical features and lexical items from two languages appear in one sentence. Bhatia and Ritchie (2004) state that code-mixing refers to the mixing of various linguistic units (words, morphemes, phrases, modifiers, clauses and sentences) primarily from two participating grammatical systems within a sentence. Wahdani (2008) states that Code mixing takes place without a change of topic and can involve different levels of language like morphology and lexical items.

## **2.4 Reasons and Motivations of Code-Mixing and Code-Switching:**

Linguists have investigated in their studies the reasons, types and functions of Code-Mixing and Code-Switching. Ayeomoni (2006) presents in his study the reasons of

CS and CM. He points to sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic reasons. He also reported in his study other reasons of CM and CS like self-pride, integrity, comfortability, prestige and status. Other reasons include westernization, modernization, professionalism, efficiency and social advancement are also considered to be important reasons for CS and CM (Akere, 1977; Bokamba, 1989; Hymes, 1962; Kachru, 1989; Kamwangamalu, 1989).

Direct quotation or reported speech leads to language mixing or switching among bilinguals cross-linguistically (Bhatia and Ritchie, 2004). Some bilinguals mix two languages when they cannot find appropriate words or expressions or when there is no exact translation for the language being used. Also, bilinguals' situations, interlocutors, emotions, messages, and attitudes generate Code-Mixing according to Grosjean (1982), as reported in Kim (2006).

Expressing group identity, repetition used for clarification, being emphatic about something, softening or strengthening request or command, intention for clarifying the speech content for interlocutor and excluding other people when a comment is intended for only a limited audience also lead to Code-Mixing according to Hoffman (1992), as cited in Wahdani (2008).

## **2.5 Types of Code-Switching and Code-Mixing:**

Linguists have discussed various types of CS and CM. Code-Switching takes a variety of forms. It can occur within or at the end or beginning of sentences, Bista (2010). Bista (2010), Hijazi (2013) and Esen (2016) present in their studies *Intersentential* and *Intra-sentential* Code-Switching. In Intersentential Code-Switching, the language switch is done at sentence boundaries. This type is often seen between fluent bilingual speakers (Jisa, 2000). Esen (2016), Bista (2010) and Lipski (1981), as reported in Hijazi (2013), refer to the Intra-sentential Code-Switching and state that it occurs in the middle of the sentence without hesitation or making pauses that may indicate the shift. This type of

Code-Switching is more sophisticated than the first one. "The complexity of this type of switching is explained by the high probability of violation of syntactic rules, as well as the requirement of a great knowledge of both grammars and how they map onto each other" (Jalil, 2009, p.4).

The third type of Code-Switching is *tag-switching* (which is also referred to in Esen (2016) as *Extra Code-Switching*). "Tag-switching involves the inclusion of a tag (e.g. oh my God, you know, right, etc) in a language other than that of the whole sentence and these tags may freely insert at any point in a sentence" (Hijazi, 2013, p.24). Jalil (2009) states that *tag-switching* is considered to be a very simple type of switching and does not involve a great command of both languages because there is a minimum risk of violation of grammatical rules. For example, from a Portuguese-English bilingual as cited in Jalil (2009) : "I look like Lilica, *you know*, nuncaparo!" [I look like Lilica, you know, I never stop!] (Jalil, 2009 , p. 4).

Bista (2010) states another type of Code Switching which is called "*Code Changing*". It is characterized by fluent intra-sentential shifts, transferring focus from one language to another. It is motivated by situational and stylistic factors and the switch between two languages is conscious and intentional (Lipski, 1985).

Reviewing such types of code mixing and switching, gives back ground on both types; however, the work will only be limited to mixing rather than switching and therefore, only mixing types will be our focus in the study.

## **2.6 Review of CM Studies in Relation to their Methodologies**

To make benefit of the past major studies in CM, such studies will be reviewed according to the following dimensions: Population of study, methods of data collection, analysis and results of these studies.

To begin with the most recent study, Yousef (2015-2016) will be reviewed according

to the outline given above:

A study of Code-Switching by Yousef (2015-2016) will be analyzed in this study. In his study: *English-Cairene Arabic Classroom Code Switching: An Interactional-Sociolinguistic Approach*, Youssef (2015-2016) has discussed English-Cairene Arabic Code-Switching in university classrooms.

The **subjects** of the study were seven university staff members bilingual Egyptian professors in the academic year 2001/2002 at Ain Shams University in Cairo (33–53 years old). One was male, and six were females. They had semi-native proficiency in English. Their personalities were coded. The researcher referred to all participants generically as ‘professors’.

The **methods** of collecting data in Yousef (2015-2016) were as follows:

1. Collecting naturally occurring classroom instances of CS and not provoked by the researcher. By this method, the researcher minimized the speakers' avoidance of CS in their speech.
2. The researcher adopted Weinreich's (1953) technique which was studying written observations of naturalistic speech.
3. Data collection involved keeping a field diary.
4. A questionnaire to solicit the participants' reflections on what had been happening.
5. Audio or video recordings were avoided as they could compromise the naturalness of the data, which would be counterproductive for the research.

The **analysis** of data was by explaining the types of CS providing examples to simplify them. After that, the researcher turned to the functions of CS so that the analysis was based on classifying the utterances collected into categories according to these functions. The examples produced by the observed professors were classified according to their categories as mentioned before.



The **results** of the study were as the following:

1. All code-switches are structurally rule governed. The study was concerned with L2 classroom CS, and so it had focused on the social functions that CS performed in this particular context.
2. As a verbal strategy of bilingual instructors, CS was used to compensate for lack of facility, to communicate emotional states, to express solidarity with the students, to boost their comprehension, and to show respect for their background, culture, and life experiences through discourse-related usage.
3. The researcher has shown that bilingual educators vary in their levels of awareness of attitudes toward CS.
4. Many are unaware of the fact that they code-switch; many condemn it as a linguistic impurity or a sign of laziness; and only a few view it as a linguistic asset for bilingual speakers.

**Sridhar (2015)** states particular functions concerning Code-Mixing discussing the mixing of Perso-Arabic and Kannada and then turn to English-Kannada Code-Mixing as the following:'

1. Social functions (commendation and criticism)
2. To evoke a certain type of attitudinal association
3. CM is regarded as an indicator of 'rowdy' behavior and a strange non-normal upbringing
4. A role-identifying device and register identification
5. A matter of prestige
6. A mark of education, urbaneness and sophistication
7. To fill certain types of lexical gaps in the absorbing language

8. Pragmatic functions of CM (relate to the perception-real imagined by the user of the mixed language, of the special connotations of expressiveness, refinement, etc, of the mixed elements as opposed to their equivalents in the absorbing language).

The **subject** for his study, Sridhar(2015) has focused on the functional roles of Code-Mixing. He starts by studying the nature of the mixture between those languages. He has analyzed a text from a contemporary ‘social’ play in Kannada. The analyzed text is spoken by an irritated father, who is outraged by his prospective son-in-law’s demand of ‘dowry’ in relation to his daughter’s wedding.

Sridhar's (2015) **methodology** depends on examining representative samples of mixed speech (and writing) in relation to their context of situation. He starts by discussing the mixing of Perso-Arabic and Kannada and then turns to English-Kannada code-mixing.

Sridhar (2015)in his analysis found several features in the text that need careful attention.

1. In the level of grammatical organization of mixing, there are single nouns (*dowry*), verbs (*arrange*) attributive and predicative adjectives (*commercial minded, educated*), and entire noun phrases with complex internal structure (*the sacred occasion of arranging the holy alliance of marriage*).
2. The mixed elements are not particularly culture bound, they are for the most part ordinary, day to day items for which perfectly acceptable equivalents exist in colloquial Kannada (and are used in non-mixed varieties).
3. The mixed elements obey the rules of their original language (in this case English) with respect to their *internal* grammatical organization, while they obey the rules of the absorbing language (in this case Kannada) with respect to their *external* grammatical organization.

4. He noticed that the mixed elements do not necessarily fill a 'lexical gap' in the absorbing language; they exist side by side with perfectly acceptable equivalents in the absorbing language, forming an additional lexical stratum. It is conceivable that there might be a subtle *pragmatic* difference in the minds of the users of the mixed language between the mixed elements and their absorbing language counterparts.
5. Sridhar (2015) also states that the chosen text of his study illustrates that mixing takes place rapidly, frequently, and almost unconsciously, within a single social event, within a single text, and, in fact, several times within a single sentence. It is a hopeless task to try to find distinct, isolatable sociolinguistic correlates for every instance of the shift. According to him, it seems best to attempt a sociolinguistic explanation of code-mixing in terms of the alternation between the mixed and the non-mixed (or 'pure') varieties.

The **results** of Sridhar's (2015) study are:

1. The more educated a person the more he tends to mix elements from English in his Kannada.
2. The more earthy and 'physical' a person the greater the mixture of Perso-Arabic elements in his Kannada.
3. Code-Mixing in Perso-Arabic is seen as an indicator of 'rowdy' behavior and a strange, non-normal upbringing.
4. He also, in his given examples, illustrates the participant-governed nature of Code-Mixing and the speakers' sensitivity to its appropriateness in a given sociolinguistic context.
5. Code-Mixing can be a role identifying device. Eventually, the qualities of tenderness, helpfulness, etc., are not to be expected of a person who mixes Perso-Arabic elements in his language. In contrast with the mixture of Perso-Arabic elements, the mixing of

English with Kannada is considered a matter of prestige, a mark of education, urbaneness and sophistication.

6. Code-Mixing also performs the function of 'register identification'. In a multilingual community, the use of different languages in different functional settings results in each language being associated with a particular register or set of registers.
7. The last function of Code-Mixing is pragmatic. This relates to the perception- real or imagined- by the user of the mixed language, of the special connotations of expressiveness, refinement, powerfulness, etc., of the mixed elements as opposed to their equivalents in the absorbing language.

### **Hijazi (2013)**

It is the second in the most recent research of CS. She states communicative functions concerning Code-Switching discussing the switching of Palestinian children in family conversations as the following:

1. Emphasizing a point, showing solidarity with a group and exchange
2. The equivalence function
3. To bridge a gap in communication
4. To guarantee the continuity of the interaction and to avoid a breaking in communication
5. Emphasis and clarification through reiteration
6. Emphasis in addition to topic shift and accommodation
7. Facilitate understanding
8. To mark quotations
9. To express affective feelings such as anger

The **subjects** of Hijazi (2013) are four Palestinian children, aged between 8 and 15, whose mother tongue is Arabic and who attended private school in the city of Jerusalem. They are the researcher's own children.

**Methods** in Hijazi (2013) were as follows:

1. Observation over a period of six and a half months.
2. A questionnaire.
3. A structural interview based on the questionnaire.
4. Writing in the diary.

**Administration of the questionnaire:**

The questionnaire was distributed for school children, of the same age range, to explore their motives and the functions they desire to achieve (if they affirm the fact that they do switch codes). The researcher was sure to choose children with the most similar conditions to those of her four children. Some of the questionnaire sentences had to be explained for the children in slang Arabic and others had to be exemplified with real life situations so that the children can understand them well.

The **analysis** of Hijazi (2013) was by classifying and analyzing the instances according to the functions that those instances aimed at. She has depended on qualitative and quantitative analysis for the utterances themselves and the contexts in which they were produced. During the classification procedure, the activity the children were involved in, the interlocutor, the subject, the mood of the speaker/or the listener and the level of competency were all taken in consideration by the researcher.

The **results** of Hijazi (2013) were given in her study in a variety of graphs depending on the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the interview and the questionnaire of the groups of children who she had chosen to collect information about their Code-Switching. The results were as the following:

1. The four children of the researcher produced code-switched utterances of three main types: inter-sentential, intra-sentential and intra-word.

2. The eldest children produced less complex CS than the younger children which was the unexpected result for the researcher.
3. There were many similarities between the different results of the interview and the questionnaire.

### **Bista (2010)**

It is one of the recent studies of Code-Switching. It investigated factors of Code-Switching among bilingual English students in the university classroom.

The **subjects** of the study were 15 international students from Troy University located in Troy, Alabama. 10 were graduate students and 5 were undergraduates. The ages of participants ranged from 19 to 31. One third of the subjects came from a 22-25 age groups. For all the participants, first language (L1) was their national language, and second or target language was English (L2). Students who participated in this study were enrolled in English classes where they learned and exercised the second language in a classroom setting. The subjects spoke both L1 and L2 outside the classroom as well as during classes.

#### **Methods** of collecting data:

1. A questionnaire
2. Classroom observation
3. Recording the classroom interactions and the particular circumstances where Code-Switching occurred.

The **analysis** of data was done step by step in the order that the questions appear. It was compared and contrasted with related studies. Aspects of the findings were graphically displayed.

The **results** of the study revealed that the factors that influenced code-switching were as the follows:

1. No similar words 14%
2. Did not know the word 9%
3. To fill a gap 9%
4. Easier to speak 23%
5. To avoid misunderstanding 15%
6. To add emphasis 9%
7. To add emphasis 12%
8. For privacy 6%
9. Other 3%

### **Atawneh (1992)**

It is one of the most important research in Code-Mixing. It investigated Code-Mixing In Arabic-English Bilinguals.

The **subjects** of the study were three Arab children learned English during their stay in Britain for one year (1982-1983). Their ages were between 9-11 years.

#### **Methods** of collecting data:

1. Recording the mixed utterances over the period from March 15, 1988 to April 15, 1988 in a diary by both parents of the children (the researcher being the father).
2. Children's tape-recording of a message about life in Stony Brook to their relatives back home

The **analysis** of collected data was made at two levels:

1. A syntactic categorization of the mixes in order to investigate the type and frequency of linguistic units that are likely to be mixed and to determine the point in an utterance where the mix occurs.
2. Applying the so-called universal constraints to examples from the data to test their validity in relation to Arabic-English Code-Mixing.

The **results** of the previous study were as follows:

1. One-word mixes were of higher frequency than phrasal mixes.
2. Among the one-word categories, nouns were ranked as first highest in frequency followed by verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. The frequency of verbs in the previous study was significantly different from that found in other studies.
3. Among the phrasal mixes, noun phrases ranked highest followed by verb phrases.
4. None of the constraints were tested in this study was found to hold perfectly.
5. There had been a systematic evidence that the rules of the word order of the language of the adjective, rather than the head of the NP, in CM determined the word order of the adjective and noun in code-mixing structures.
6. There was a general tendency to assimilate English verbs onto Arabic verb patterns, while English nouns were much less likely to be assimilated. Applying the rules of borrowing in languages to either mixes in general and verb mixes in particular did not seem to indicate that such kind of mixed verbs were of a borrowed nature.
7. Articles, prepositions and conjunctions were not part of the code-mixing process as single units.

### **Poplack (1980)**

It is one of the most important studies toward a typology of Code-Switching. The **subjects** of his study were the speech of 20 Puerto Rican residents of a stable bilingual community, exhibiting varying degrees of bilingual ability.

#### **Methods** of Collecting Data:

1. A questionnaire.
2. Recorded speech data in both interview and 'natural' settings.
3. Sociolinguistic interview with each informant.
4. Ethnographic information.



5. Speakers' own reports.

The **analysis** of collected data was as the follows:

1. Quantitative concerning both linguistic and extra-linguistic questions. The answers were incorporated into a single analytic model. The linguistic questions concerned the surface configuration of the switches, and the extra-linguistic questions concerned the code-switcher.
2. Multivariate statistical technique was used to determine which factors made a significant contribution, independent of the effects' of other factors, to the choice of code-switch type.
3. A maximum likelihood approach was taken for the evaluation of factor effects, together with log-likelihood tests of significance.

The **results** of the study were as the follows:

1. Both fluent and non-fluent bilinguals were able to Code-Switch frequently and still maintain grammaticality in both L1 and L2.
2. Fluent bilinguals tended to switch at various syntactic boundaries within the sentence.
3. Non-fluent bilinguals favored switching between sentences, allowing them to participate in the Code-Switching mode, without fear of violating a grammatical rule of either of the languages involved.
4. The Code-Switching mode proceeds from the area of the bilingual's grammar where the surface structures of L1 and L2 overlap.
5. Code-Switching is actually a sensitive indicator of bilingual ability.

In conclusion of the review, it can be summarized as:

1. How data can be collected (observation, dairy method, recording classes, interviews, questionnaires etc...).

2. The way of analyzing data (categorization of grammatical items in mixing; nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc...).
3. Comparing examples from this study to examples from reviewed studies (only examples from similar situations even though of different languages)
4. The scope of study compared to the scope of reviewed studies (scope of size of sample or number of participants and relationship to researcher).

## **Chapter Three**

### **Methodology**

#### **3.1 Subjects**

Given this background from the review, the current study has unequal number of gender. Their communication is limited to the classroom. 61 students were selected to be subjects for this study. They were five males and fifty six females. Their ages were around 22 year-old. (44.3%) of them were in the third level and (55.7%) of them were in the fourth level at University. They had never studied French before University. They had never been to France or to any English speaking country. They use English for academic purposes and they rarely use it outside the classroom; the same thing applies to French. Because French is studied as a Minor and English is studied as a Major, they are expected to fall in English or Arabic (their native language) for filling gaps in their French communication.

#### **3.2 Data Collection**

Due to the context of the present study, three instruments were used to collect data. The researcher used observation, accompanied with documentation in a diary, a structured interview with French minors at H.U, and a questionnaire had been answered by the same French minors who were observed.

##### **3.2.1 Observation**

Given the background of data collection of other studies, the researcher in this study used observation of French sessions at Hebron University as a main source of collecting data. During her observation, the researcher also detected instances of Code-Mixing and collected data for analysis. This procedure was conducted over a period of 4 months, from February to May 2016. The observation included 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup> year students inside the classroom.

The researcher wrote the instances that included Code-Mixing in a diary, specified who produced the utterance, who was addressed and the specific context in which the instance occurred. During this process, it was important for the researcher that the French minors did not know that they were being observed in order to get the utterances in a natural setting. Moreover, the researcher avoided tape- or video-recording for not catching the learners' attention or for not changing their behavior inside the classroom sessions. Even writing in the diary attracted their attention a few times, but they were always content with the researcher's answer that she was writing down ideas to revise what she had learnt at University (since she was one of French minors at H.U). Consequently, the instances that were collected were natural and spontaneous.

The observation took place in the classroom sessions during French learners' participations and discussions with their teachers or together. The researcher didn't participate in their discussions at all. However, she changed her seat every session for not being with the same group of learners all the time. As a result, 79 instances of Code-Mixing were collected inside the classroom.

### **3.2.2 Semi-Structured Interview**

According to Talmy (2010), Interviews have been used for a long time to be one or the primary mean of collecting data in empirical inquiry across the social sciences. In applied linguistics, interview research has increased dramatically in recent years, especially in qualitative studies that aim to investigate participants' experiences, beliefs, identities, and orientations toward a certain subject or phenomena. There are several types of interviews in applied linguistics like, structured interview, semi-structured, and unstructured. After four months of observation, data were collected by semi-structured interviews that didn't limit respondents to a set of pre-determined answers (unlike a structured interview). The semi-structured interview was used to understand the

interviewees interventions work and how they could be improved. It also allowed respondents to discuss and raise issues that the researcher may not have considered. Doly (2015) defines the semi-structured interview to be a meeting in which the interviewer does not necessarily follow a formalized list of questions. The interviewer may prepare a list of questions but does not necessarily ask them all, or touch on them in any particular order. In some cases, the interviewer has only a list of general topics to be addressed, called an *interview guide*. Four French learners were selected to be interviewed. Three of them were females (Dima, Rawan and Sanaa), and one was male (Rami), (see appendix H, p.78). They were from the same group of French learners who were observed by the researcher for an academic semester. As it is mentioned before, they were between 20 and 23 years old, and they were from the same linguistic level of that of their classmates whom were observed inside the classroom. The interviews were conducted on campus away from their teachers, so that the learners were out of the impact and the observation of their teachers. By such a strategy, the researcher was sure that those learners were speaking freely and honestly about their English or Arabic code-mixing inside the classroom.

Basically, the questions of the questionnaire were the basis for the interview. They were seven questions (see appendix C, p. 68). The learners were asked about the duration of their learning of French, and if they learnt it before university or not. They were also asked about the situations in which they mix English or Arabic inside the French classroom sessions. For clarification, the researcher asked the five selected interviewed learners if they mixed Arabic more than English in French sessions or the contrary to know the frequency of their mixed, and the reasons for those mixes. Finally, the researcher asked about the linguistic knowledge (English / French) of the family members of those learners to know it's effectiveness on their linguistic level. (See table 1, p. 27).

All the above questions were included in the questionnaire but the researcher chose to do this questioning procedure orally with some of the French minors to expand the question-answer interaction between her and the learners. This interaction helped her to get more detailed information. The interview also made the researcher sure if the questions of the questionnaire were clear for the minors and if they had answered them honestly. Finally, the researcher compared between the answers of the French minors get more information about the situations in which they Code-Mix French, English and Arabic during their interactions.

Table 1

*The Questions of the Interviews Related to the Research Questions*

Question	Objective
1. For how many years are you learning French? 2. Did you learn French before University? If yes, for how many years? 3. In what subjects you mix other languages (French or English)?	To know the French level of competency for the learner related to the kind of context in which the learner mix inside the classroom.
4. Do you mix English more than Arabic while you are speaking French or you tend to mix Arabic more than English? Why? 5. 5. When do you mix English or Arabic while you are speaking French inside the classroom sessions?	To know the frequency of mixing Arabic or English while speaking French, and to know the reasons of Arabic or English code-mixing inside the classroom.
6. Do your parents or one of them speak English or French? 7. Have you any family member who speaks French other than you? If yes, do you speak French with him/ her?	To know the relation between the parents of French learners or any of their family members' having knowledge about English/ French languages and their code-mixing of such languages.

### 3.2.3 A Questionnaire

The last procedure was using a questionnaire (see appendix A, p. 64) which was an adaptation of Hijazi's (2013) questionnaire included questions about the motives and desired functions of Code-Mixing. To validate the questionnaire, it was distributed four experts in the field of education and TEFL. Consequently, after some modifications, it was judged as being a suitable instrument of the study. The questionnaire was distributed to 61 French learners. Their ages were between (20) and (24) years. (56) of them were females and (5) of them were males. (44.3 %) of them were in the third year at University, and (55.7 %) of them were in the fourth year. ( $44.3 \% + 55.7 \% = 100 \%$ ). (See table 3, p. 44 ).

Conducting such a questionnaire was meant to examine the existence of the code-mixing phenomenon among the French minors at H.U, and compare its results with the observational ones. For that reason, the researcher made sure to question all of the 61 French minors.

As what was mentioned in the above section, the researcher used the questions of the questionnaire as a basis for interviewing some of the French minors who were observed. All of the questionnaire items were in Arabic so that the French minors could understand them well. The questionnaire consisted of four main sections, the first was an inquiry about age, gender and years of learning French. Those inquiries could be an evidence to the researcher that the French minors were from the same level of knowledge in French and how gender affected their French/ English and Arabic mixing inside the classroom. The previous evidence could be important for the researcher to indicate how much the level of the French language competency of the French minors affected their French/ English and Arabic mixes.

The second section included 'Yes' or 'No' questions about the French learners' mixing of French/ English and Arabic while speaking with their classmates inside the

classroom. The researcher in this previous question aimed to know which languages did the French minors mixed more than others. In this section, the researcher could also indicate which language the French minors liked to mix more, and this could indicate that the language that the French minors mixed more could be the easier language for them to use inside the classroom. Other questions were about the ability of their parents to speak English or French to know if their parents speak English or French. This question examined if the French minors' parents affected their mixing of languages or not, and finally about the French minors' feeling during Code-Mixing to know whether they were comfortable during their mixing or not. (Results will be discussed in chapter 4). The third section included ten situations in which Code-Mixing commonly takes place, and motives that trigger Code-Mixing. Those situations were considered to be the reasons of French/English and Arabic mixes by the French minors during French sessions. Some of those situations were academic ones like not finding the suitable word or expression from the target language, especially some proverbs or advises that related to certain languages or cultures, emphasizing French minors' speech, and showing off their knowledge and skills of using English and French (showing prestige to know foreign languages, examples: *Merci, d'accord, bonne nuit, ....etc*). Others were social like expressing their feelings, responding to someone, excluding a person who didn't understand them, or just a habit they used to do. The French minors had to choose the ones that were true for his/her case. In the last section, the researcher listed seven topics that the participants judged in relation to how much French/ English and Arabic Code-Mixing practiced. Those topics were: studying, friends, family matters, electronic games and world of technology, movies and TV programs, songs and singers. The scale of judgment ranged from 1 to 5, 1 referred to the least amount of code-mixed utterances and 5 referred to the most ones. The researcher will analyze and discuss the results of the questionnaire in details in the following chapter.



## **Chapter Four**

### **Results and Analysis**

This chapter will present the analysis of the collected data in the sequence outlined before. It begins with the analysis of syntactic categorization followed by the application of the universal constraints of Code Mixing. Then the results of the questionnaire and the outcomes of the interviews will be discussed.

#### **4.1 Syntactic Categorization**

Syntactic categories give an idea about which categories are more frequent than others in mixing. This may give an idea of which categories are more important and frequent than others in mixing. It is usually understood that content words like verbs, nouns and adjectives are more used in language than function words which do not usually carry much meaning. The analysis will show if the results of this study are in line with former studies or different from those which are given in the context.

In their analysis of Spanish-English Code-Mixing of eighteen bilingual children living in the U.S. from Mexican origin, Lindholm & Padilla (1978) categorized the mixed utterances according to the level of mixing and the language environment. Two types of categories were identified: lexical mixes (the insertion of a single word from second language into the utterance), and phrasal mixes (the insertion into an utterance of a phrase from the second language). Nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions were considered to be lexical mixes, while noun phrases, verb phrases,....etc were considered to be phrasal mixes. A syntactic categorization of the mixes was also done by Atawneh (1992) in his analysis of Code-Mixing in Arabic-English Bilinguals. He followed the same distribution patterns of Lindholm & Padilla (1978) to determine which parts of speech were likely to be mixed and the frequency of their mixing. The analysis of Hijazi (2013), in her study of communicative functions and motives of Palestinian children's Code-

Switching in family conversation, was by classifying and analyzing the instances according to the functions that those instances aimed at. She depended on qualitative and quantitative analysis for the utterances themselves and the contexts in which they were produced. In Youssef (2015-2016), the analysis of data was by explaining the types of CS providing examples to simplify them. After that, the researcher turned to the functions of CS so that the analysis was based on classifying the utterances collected into categories according to these functions. The computation of this study will follow the same categorization of Atawneh (1992) and Lindholm & Padilla (1978) of the mixed elements to determine which parts of speech are likely to be mixed and the frequency of their mixing. The following Table 2 in the following page shows the percentages of the two main categories (single-word category and phrasal category) found by the researcher:

Table2

*Single Word and Phrasal Categories in English and Arabic Mixes*

Category	Mixes #	%	Category	Mixes #	%
Nouns	25	28.7%	Noun phrases	2	2.3%
English nouns	11	12.6%	English N.Ps	-	
Arabic nouns	14	16.1%	Arabic N.Ps	2	2.3%
Verbs	19	21.8%	Verb phrases	6	7%
English verbs	11	12.6%	English V.Ps	1	1.1%
Arabic verbs	8	9.2%	Arabic V.Ps	5	5.7%
Adjectives	18	20.7%	Numbers	1	1.1%
English Adjs	16	18.4%			
Arabic Adjs	2	2.3%			
Adverbs					
English advs	6	7 %			
Arabic advs					
Preps (Arabic)	1	1.1%			
Conjunctions	8	9.3%			
English Conjs	2	2.3%			
Arabic Conjs	6	7%			
Articles	1	1.1%			
<b>Total</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>89.7</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>10.3</b>

Total of mixes from both types:  $78+9=87$

Total of percentages in both types:  $89.7\% + 10.3\% = 100\%$

## **4.2 Discussion of the Categorization of Parts of Speech**

### **4.2.1 Question One: What Kind of Context Allows for Mixing?**

The previous table 2 shows that single-word mixes (89.7%) occur more frequently than phrasal mixes (10.3%). The noun category has the highest frequency of mixing among single words (28.7%). For more details, Arabic nouns (16.1%) are more frequent than English nouns (12.6%); whereas among the phrasal categories is the verb phrase (7%) (1.1% for English verb phrases and 5.7% for Arabic verb phrases). The second most common among single-word mixes is the verb category (21.8%), (12.6% for English verbs and 9.2% for Arabic verbs), and in phrasal types is the noun phrase (2.3% all of them are English). In the third place among single-word mixes come the adjectives (20.7%), (18.4% are English adjectives and 2.3% are Arabic), followed by the conjunctions (9.3%) (7% for Arabic conjunctions and 23% are English ones), adverbs (7%), and finally prepositions, articles and numbers that show the same percentage (1.1%).

The previous findings lend support to Redouane (2005) in her study of Linguistic Constraints on Code-Switching and Code-Mixing of Bilingual Moroccan Arabic-French Speakers in Canada. One finding found in her study is that those Moroccan speakers switched more smaller constituents (e.g., adjectives, adverbs, determiners, nouns, and verbs) than larger constituents. More importantly, nouns were the most often highly switched syntactic category among smaller constituents. Lindholm & Padilla (1978) and Atawneh (1992) have the same findings in some parts and differ in others. Their samples indicate that one-word mixes are more common than phrasal mixes which is the same as this research findings. Their findings indicate that nouns and noun phrases are the first highest among the two types. The previous findings of this research indicate that nouns are the first highest among one-word mixes and verb phrases are the first highest frequency among phrases. In the samples of Lindholm & Padilla (1978), as reported in Atawneh

(1992), single-word mixes involved nouns with the highest frequency followed by verbs and then adjectives, while verbs came last in fourth place. In Atawneh (1992), nouns are the most common mixes among single-word category followed by verbs, followed by adjectives, then, adverbs and finally prepositions. In the same study, noun phrase is the most common mixes among phrasal category, whereas verb phrase is the second most common among phrasal types of mixes. Articles and conjunctions did not appear at all.

According to Berk-Seligson (1986) who studied Code-Switching and Code-Mixing of eighty seven Spanish –Hebrew bilinguals, the order of one-word mixes was as follows: nouns (40%), adverbs (4%), adjectives (3%), pronouns (0.3%), and verbs (0.1%) while in phrasal categories the order was noun phrases (10%), verb phrases (1%), and adverbial phrases (0.03%). As reported in Atawneh (1992), it was found in McClure (1977) study of Mexican-American children that single nouns were inserted in about half of all mixed utterances, second in frequency were adjectives, third were verbs, and fourth adverbs.

The results obtained from different studies show some agreement on the frequency of certain syntactic categories in different code-mixing situations: nouns rank highest. But they also show some disagreement on the frequency of other categories, such as adjectives, verbs and adverbs which in some studies take second and third position in frequency, respectively, but in this study their order of frequency is reversed, with verbs occurring with higher frequency than adjectives. However, the results obtained from this study for verbs are the same with some studies (ranked second in position) and differ from those reported in other studies (adjectives being ranked second in position). This study shows that verbs rank the second position among one-word categories, and verb phrases rank the first position among phrasal categories which is different from the above mentioned results of the previous studies. Prepositions, numbers and articles are the least to be used. One generalization emerges for the comparison of these results: the frequency order of nouns is

always the first highest position. Articles and numbers occupy the lowest position. Consequently, the previous results of the previous studies make it difficult to generalize an order of frequency for adjectives, adverbs and verbs.

Joshi (1985) explained the low frequency, and in some cases, the absence of mixing of some categories like prepositions and articles to their closed class in any language. He also stated that categories belonging to an open class are imposed by the surface structure of the host language. This observation suggests that Code-Mixing is a patterned phenomenon and not random, Sridhar (1980). Therefore, the restrictions of the host language determine the lexical items that can be mixed.

The above discussion answers the first research question of the current study: *"What kind of context allows for mixing?"*. Mixes occurred inside the French classroom. However, all of those mixes were answers to different questions asked by the teachers or students. Some of them resulted in general French discussions inside the classroom. It means that all of the previous examples have totally taken place in academic non-social contexts.

### **4.3 Discussion of the Reasons of Code-Mixing inside the Classroom**

#### **4.3.1 Question Two: Why Do Learners Mix?**

Code-Mixing is a linguistic phenomenon that appears among bilinguals or multilinguals in academic or social contexts. Many linguists have investigated this linguistic phenomenon in order to know and to analyze the reasons of Code-Mixing. Code-Mixing may appear among both teachers and students. Lam (1999) distinguished between the reasons of CM among teachers and those among students. He presented two categories of the reasons of Code-Mixing in Chinese among teachers and students as the following:

1- Students' reasons:

- students did not understand the teacher

- students responded positively to the use of Chinese
- Students lack discipline
- Individual students needed the help of using Chinese
- There was not enough time left in the teaching period

2- Teachers' reasons:

- The teacher enjoys using Chinese in teaching English
- The teacher was over-worried about students' understanding
- The teacher considered the use of Chinese to be expedient

As it is mentioned above, the main reason of Code-Mixing among those Chinese teachers is the low level of English proficiency of the Chinese students and consequently their lack of comprehension. In this case, teachers code-mix to promote and to help English teaching. Moreover, some teachers prefer Code-Mixing inside the classroom according to the student's abilities and their linguistic needs. Enoka (2013) presented some factors that influence teachers' CS inside the classroom like the student's low proficiency of the target language and the teachers' desire to reduce the social distance between them and their students. Teachers' Code-Mixing is avoided and not investigated in the current study since it only concerns students' Code-Mixing inside the classroom.

The reasons of students' Code-Mixing have been investigated in several studies, and therefore, it will be our concern in this current study. As reported in Lam (1999), Catchen (1990) compared two types of contexts of learning English in Hong Kong. The first one is ESL context and the second one is EFL context. In ESL contexts, English is used as a second language and students use it in their daily life, and they were motivated to learn it since it is the dominant language in their society. In contrast, in EFL contexts, English is used as a foreign language inside the classroom. In this case, teachers may use Chinese inside the classroom to enhance learning English, to help students understand and

to save time. However, students deal with English as a foreign language which is rarely used outside the classroom and so they code-mix English and Chinese inside the classroom. Their Code-mixing could be as a result of lack of vocabulary and the low level of competency in English.

In the current study, students Code-Mix inside the classroom for several reasons. Some of these reasons are observed by the researcher during the French sessions. Other reasons were concluded from their answers to the questionnaires. More reasons were taken from the interviews with some students. The majority of students' mixes shown in table 1 resulted from their lack of French vocabulary. Others resulted from the students' desire to confirm that they exactly understood what their teacher asked and their answers. The interviewed students confirmed that they Code-Mixed because of some traditional expressions that had no equivalence in French or even in English. Finally, some mixes occurred as a result of the similarity of some of English and French words in spelling, so students bring the French words in their speech while pronouncing them in English or French.

Given this background, the next section will discuss specific reasons with examples.

#### **4.3.2 Lack of Vocabulary**

It was clear that the majority of the mixes of French-English and French-Arabic among the students during their sessions resulted from the lack of vocabulary. As it is observed in the French Sessions, (45) of mixes from both English and Arabic (51.7% of the mixes) resulted because the students didn't find their synonyms in French. They tried to convey the meaning by giving the same meaning of the missed word from both English or Arabic. The following examples were observed by the researcher through the French sessions:



(1) Les enfants pleurent de parce qu'ils ont *hungry* ('*hʌŋgrɪ*).

The children cry because they are hungry

(2) D'une première *na:ðʕrah*

From the first look.

The results of the questionnaire confirmed that the French Minors at H.U mixed English/ Arabic for the lack of vocabulary. (90.2%) of those learners answered that they mix English or Arabic when they did not find the suitable or the correct expressions they needed in French. Their mixing was particularly to convey the meaning. (See table 4, p.45)

The Interviews showed the same result about the French Minors' lack of vocabulary that led them to mix English or Arabic. Some interviewed learners confirmed that their code-mixing resulted from their ignorance of some vocabulary or expressions in the target language (French). Two of the interviewees confirmed that they mixed when they didn't have enough vocabulary about the subjects they discussed. "*I mix English or Arabic when I speak about difficult subjects that I don't have enough vocabulary about it, and when I have difficulty in finding the meaning or in saying the sentence appropriately*" (I. 1. Q.7).

One of the interviews showed that code-mixing may occur because of some problems that the learners may have in the syntactic level of the sentence in the target language. The following quotation supported clearly this idea: "*I have some linguistic problems the structure of the sentence and the pronunciation that sometimes lead me to mispronounce the French vocabulary*" (I. 4. Q.7).

Thus, it has become obvious that such lack of vocabulary items forced the students to use English and Arabic.

### 4.3.3 Linguistic Insecurity

According to Nordquist (2014), linguistic insecurity is an old linguistic term used in 1960s by the American linguist William Labov. It refers to the anxiety or the lack of confidence experienced by speakers and writers who believe that their use of language does not conform to the principles and practices of Standard English. During her observation of the French learners inside the classroom sessions, the researcher observed that some learners repeated some French words or expressions in Arabic or in English after being said in French. According to the learners' discussions with their teachers or with their colleagues inside the classroom sessions, it was clear that the students repeated those words and expressions because they weren't sure if they chose the appropriate meanings of those words and expressions or not.

During her observation inside the classroom, the researcher got some examples from the French Minors which clarified their code-mixing of English and Arabic vocabulary and expressions. The following examples would emphasize the existence of the previous linguistic phenomenon:

(3) Ils ne sont pas généreux *jaʕni: mwʃkari:mi:n*

They are not generous

(4) D'une manière visuelle *na:ðʕarjah*

From a visual side.

In the previous examples, the students spoke the sentence in French, and then, they translated them into Arabic to confirm understanding the meaning that they wanted as a result of their linguistic insecurity of French.

The results of the questionnaire showed that (26.2 %) of French Minors mixed English or Arabic as a result of linguistic insecurity. They emphasized that they mixed

because they were not sure about their linguistic competency and about their vocabulary of the target language (French). (See table 4, p. 45).

To emphasize the previous phenomenon, the researcher asked the interviewed learners about their repetition of words and expressions in English or in Arabic. According to their answers, she noticed that their linguistic insecurity of French led them to English and Arabic Code-Mixing inside the classroom sessions. When they felt that they were not sure that they had the appropriate word or expression, they tended to bring its meaning from English or from Arabic. The Latin origin of English and French led some learners to mix English, so that they felt safe that they would be less mistaken than if they mixed Arabic. The following response confirmed the previous results. *"I prefer to mix English rather than Arabic, so that the probability to be mistaken could be less when I choose English word because of their similar origins. As a result, I feel that the English word could have the similar meaning of that of the French one"* (I. 2. Q.7).

Thus, it has become obvious that such linguistic insecurity forced the students to use English and Arabic.

#### **4.3.4 No Equivalence of some English or Arabic Expressions in French**

During her observation inside the classroom, The researcher observed some examples that confirm that French learners' code-mixing of some expressions related their cultural life. The following examples were taken from the learners during their classroom discussions:

(4) Hier, J'ai mangé de la *makluba*.

Yesterday, I ate makluba.

To confirm this idea, the results of the questionnaire showed that (34.4%) of those French Minors mixed English or Arabic when they were speaking about cultural and traditional issues which were away from their culture and traditions. They emphasized that

the cultural and the geographic distances between Palestine and the Western Societies affected their French learning and led them to mix some expressions which were away from their Palestinian culture and traditions (see table 4, p. 45). Others, mixed political, environmental, western societies, and foreign subjects that they didn't know their equivalence in French.

The results of the interviews confirmed that the French Minors mixed inside the classroom because they did not easily find the equivalence of some cultural expressions of the target language. Their ignorance of the French culture and traditions led them to find difficulties in finding the meanings of some words and expressions. The students in this case mixed Arabic in the French sentence. They sometimes felt obliged to mix Arabic or English words especially in some proverbs to explain the cultural meanings of those proverbs. *"Culture, sport, politics and Western societies are the domains in which I may mix English or Arabic because I don't have enough vocabulary about those subjects"* (I. 3. Q.7). Other interviewees confirmed that they mixed when they spoke about songs, films, series, .....etc. *"I mix Arabic when I speak about cultural issues like proverbs that have no equivalence in French. Sometimes, I use foreign languages like English or French when speaking about western societies. For example, when speaking about songs, sports, series, films"*. (I. 1. Q.7)

#### **4.3.5 Similarity of Spelling**

According to Winkler (2016), 45% of English words have a French origin. Most of this import of French vocabulary took place after the Norman conquest of England in 1066. As a result, many words in English and French have the same spelling and meaning, but differ in pronunciation. This linguistic phenomena is called *Cognate*. Nordquist (2017) defines cognate to be 'a word that related in origin to another word', such as English *television* and French *télévision*. This type of cognates is called true cognates, while partial

and false cognates were excluded by the researcher in this current study. As it is observed by the linguists, cognates are often derived from Romance languages (French, Spanish, Italian) that have their origins in Latin (Vadasy & Nelson, 2012). This similarity led to English/ French Code-Mixing since the students found it easy to mix the same word even in different pronunciations instead of being unable to use it correctly. Mixing English/ French was very common in this current study, but mixing Arabic didn't show up since there is no similar spelling. Examples (6) and (7) were observed by the researcher during the classroom observation and illustrate this type of mixing:

(6) Ce n'est pas *æk 'septəbəl*

It is not acceptable

(7) La similarité entre les deux *définitions*

The similarity between the two definitions

The two previous examples illustrate mixing English words that have the same meaning in English and French and differ in pronunciation. The equivalent of the word 'acceptable' in French is: 'acceptable'. It has the same spelling in the two languages but differs in pronunciation. The same case is noticed in example (7). The French synonym of the word "definitions" is: 'définitions' which is also has the same meaning and spelling, but doesn't have the same pronunciation.

When the French Minors at H.U asked if they mixed English words while talking with their classmates in French sessions, (78.7%) of them answered that they did and (21.3%) of them answered that they did not (see table 3, p. 44). So, It is expected that there were some learners among them who mixed because of some similarities of spelling among the two languages.

Interviews also showed the same results about similarity of spelling and its effect on their code-mixing of English. As it is mentioned above, some of the interviewees

confirmed that they tried to mix English more than Arabic to be less mistaken since it has the same Latin origin of that of French. *"Sometimes, I brought the English word and I pronounce it in French if it has the same orthography, but I try to pronounce it in French"* (I. 2. Q.7). Other answers of the interviewees confirmed that they mixed English more than Arabic to be less mistaken. (See I. 1, 2, 4. Q.6).

The previous discussion was an explanation to different reasons of English, French and Arabic Code-Mixing in the current study. The following section will discuss the universal constraints and the possibility of their application to mixes in data collected for the current study.

The previous reasons of Arabic/ English mixing are considered to be the answer of the second research question *"why do learners mix?"*. And the following analysis of the questionnaires will give us more details about other different reasons that led to those students' mixing inside and outside the classroom.

#### **4.4 Additional Results of the Questionnaire**

As it is mentioned in chapter Three. A questionnaire was distributed to the 61 French Minors who were observed by the researcher in their classroom sessions (see Appendix A, p.28). (78.7 %) of them answered that they mixed English while speaking French; while (21.3%) of them answered that they did not. In the same section, when the students were asked if they mixed Arabic (words) while talking with their classmates in French sessions, (75.4%) of them answered they did and (24.6%) of them answered that they did not. However, when asked if one, or both, of their parents can speak English, (60.7 %) answered that their parents can speak English while (39.3 %) of them answered that one or both of their parents can speak English. (96.7%) of the students' parents cannot speak French while (3.3%) of them have one of their parents who can speak French. (49.2 %) of the students felt that it was more comfortable and easy to mix English or Arabic in a

French dialogue while (50.8 %) of them did not feel the same. Table 3 presents these percentages in details:

Table 3:

*French Learners' Answers about (Yes) or (No) Question of the Questionnaire*

Questions	Yes #	No #	%
1. Do you mix English words while talking with your classmates in French sessions ?	48 / (78.7%)	13 / (21.3%)	100%
2. Do you mix Arabic words while talking with your classmates in French sessions ?	46 / (75.4%)	15 / (24.6%)	100%
3. Can one , or both , of your parents speak English ?	37 / (60.7%)	24 / (39.9%)	100%
4. Can one , or both , of your parents speak French ?	2 / (3.3%)	59 / (96.7%)	100%
5. Do you feel it more comfortable and easy to mix English, Arabic and French in the same dialogue ?	30 / (49.2%)	31 / (50.8%)	100%

In addition to the lack of vocabulary, no equivalence of some words or expressions, linguistic insecurity and similarity of spelling, French Minors mentioned other different situations in which they mixed during their classroom sessions. When the researcher asked the students to circle the cases in which the students mixed English or Arabic with students who speak French, (46%) of them mixed to exclude a person who did not understand English while they were speaking French. Among the 61 French learners who answered the questions of the questionnaire, (14.8%) of them answered that they mixed languages as a habit that they acquired through time. However, (14.8%) of them answered that they

mixed at times of happiness and excitement and. (13.1%) of the students mixed in case of Western societies were being discussed while (8.2%) of them answered that they mixed when they felt sad and angry. (5%) of the students code-mixed to English or to Arabic if their speech was a response to someone who started to speak English while they were talking in French. However, Finally, (3.3%) of the students didn't choose any of those options included in the questionnaire.(See the following table 4)

Table 4:

*The Situations in which French Minors Mix English or Arabic with Persons who Speak French*

	Situations	# subjects	%
1	Lack of Vocabulary	55	90.2
2	Linguistic Insecurity	16	26.2
3	Happiness and excitement	9	14.8
4	Sadness and Anger	5	8.2
5	Showing Knowledge	6	9.8
6	Discussing Western Societies	8	13.1
7	Excluding a Person from Conversation	28	46
8	Response to Someone Started Talking in E/Fr	3	5
9	Cultural Issues	21	34.4
10	Habit Through Time	9	14.8
11	Nothing	2	3.3

The above results included other reasons for French Minors' code-mixing in addition to those were previously discussed by the researcher.



#### **4.5 Additional Outcomes of the Interviews**

The researcher in this study supported her research by interviewing some of French learners at Hebron University. The interviews were done to fulfill the gap the questionnaire failed to complete. Four French learners were interviewed. Three of them were females (Dima, Rawan and Sanaa) while one of them is a male (Rami). When those French minors were asked if one or both of their parents speak French or English, all of them answered that none of their parents can speak French. Two of them confirmed that at least one of their parents speaks English while two of them confirmed that both of their parents speak English well. All of them confirmed that he/she is the only family member who speaks French after studying it at University.

One of the interviewed learners answered that he did not mix English or Arabic while speaking French, but when he is speaking English he mixed French, (I. 3. Q.6). When asked about the reasons, he answered that the French language was more preferable for him than English. He confirmed that in this case he preferred being corrected directly with the appropriate French words by his teacher or by his classmates instead of mixing another language. In this case, he learnt more vocabulary and they avoided mixing English or Arabic in future. "*I learn more French vocabulary instead of mixing English or Arabic*". (I. 3. Q.7)

The previous outcome of the interviews could be a summary of the reasons of Code-Mixing English Arabic among French learners at H.U. Others could be a repetition of the same reasons of CM which were discussed before.

#### **4.6 Universal Constraints**

In this level of this study, the researcher applies what so-called the universal constraints to examples from the collected data to test their validity in relation to French, English and Arabic Code-Mixing.

Several studies among the world discussed some universal constraints of Code-Mixed speech among languages. Atawneh (1992), Poplack (1980), Sridhar (1978), Bokamba (1989), Seligson (1986), presented several constraints on Code-Mixing. As reported in Atawneh (1992), those constraints are assumed to apply at the syntactic level, and they may also extend to the morphological one. Seven universal constraints were discussed in previous studies and will be applied to this current study's mixes:

1. The size of the constituent constraint
2. The conjunction and the complementizer constraints
3. The adjectival phrase constraint
4. The clitic pronoun constraint
5. The free morpheme constraint
6. The equivalence constraint
7. The dual structure principle

In this section, the researcher will examine the previous constraints in relation to the data from French, English and Arabic Code-Mixing.

#### **4.6.1 The Size of the Constituent Constraint**

Poplack (1980), as reported in Atawneh (1992), states that the higher-level constituents (phrases, clauses, and sentences) are more frequent mixed than lower-level constituents (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). Poplack (1980) states that Code-Mixing within the sentence means that bilingual has higher bilingual ability and Code-Switching across sentences means that the bilingual has lower bilingual ability of the target language. Berk-Seligson refused considering the previous claim of Poplack that Mixing is a measure of bilingual competency among bilinguals.

A number of recent studies mentioned above showed that nouns and verbs were the largest number of constituents used in Code-Mixed speech. This frequency violated this

constraint. The current study supports this constraint (See Table 2, p. 32). It shows that the lower-level constituents are more frequent mixed than higher-level constituents. Nouns, verbs and adjectives were the largest number of constituents in Code-Mixed speech which was a contradiction to the constituent constraint mentioned above. As a result, it is clear that the size of the constituent constraint is not strict to be a universal one on Code-Mixing.

#### **4.6.2 The Conjunction and Complementizer Constraint**

This constraint concerns the occurrence of function words in certain structural contexts in code-mixed speech. Atawneh (1992) reported that Gumperz (1976) and Kachru (1978) presented that the conjunction between two joined sentences must always be in the language of the second sentence, and it is possible to be in a different language from the clause it conjoins. Conjunction constraint disallows the occurrence of a guest language conjunction in a host language coordinate sentence. Atawneh (1992) supported this constraint and at the same time violated it by providing some related examples. Examples (8) and (9), respectively are reported in Atawneh (1992) in which we can find evidences that support and violate this constraint.

(8) *binnam fi-l-leel at ten o'clock and bnisha fissubh bnaakul at nine o'clock.*

*we get up in the morning to eat breakfast at nine o'clock*

(9) *kantli't 'amustashfawi-l A Team was on.*

*you could have gone to the hospital while A Team was on*

Bentahila & Davis (1983) supported this constraint and provided some examples of Arabic French Code Mixing. Example (10) has an Arabic conjunction (*w*) in the same language of the second clause and violated it in example (11) where an Arabic conjunction (*wa*) "and" was used to join two French sentences, respectively.

(10) *J'avais faim w xft naikul*

*"I was hungry and I was afraid to eat"*

(11) Je me rase *wla* je ne me rase pas.

"I shave or I don't shave"

This study shows that this constraint is not always applicable. Examples (12) and (13), respectively, provide evidences that go in line with the constraint and others violate this constraint.

(12) Nous sommes arrivés en retard *br'kozovfi*:

we arrived late because of her.

In the previous example, the conjunction *because* joins two clauses. The first is French (the host language), and the second is English (the guest language). The English conjunction *because* comes in the language of the second joined clause which is in English and this could be an evidence to support this constraint.

(13) Tu n' irais pas à la plage *unless* (*an 'les*) finir ton travail

You would not go to the beach unless finishing your work

The previous example violates the conjunction constraint. The conjunction *unless* isn't in the language of the second clause (the guest language). It is an English conjunction that conjoins two French clauses (the host language).

As reported in Redouane (2005), Gumperz (1976), however, did not support the finding that the conjunction can be in different language as the first or second clause by claiming that the conjunction must always be in the same language as the second clause when a switch occurs between the two conjoined clauses. Similarly, Kachru (1977) in his study, investigating Hindi-English Code-Switching, states that when a switch occurred between two clauses, it is impossible that the conjunction be in a different language from both the clauses it conjoins.

Example (14), *fari:tʕata :nna:* is also a conjunction that conjoins two French clauses. It is not in the same language of the host language nor it is in the guest one. However, the violation of the conjunction constraint is also clear in this example.

(14) Je vais aller à Amman *fari:tʕata :nna:* ma belle mère ne vient pas ici

I will go to Amman if my mother in law do not come here.

Complementizers' mixes were not found at all in this current study. So that the researcher cannot decide the complementizers constraints' validity to the mixes that occurred in the mixed speech.

### **4.6.3 The Adjectival Phrase Constraint**

This constraint disallows mixing of adjectives and nouns within a Noun Phrase. Pfaff (1979) states that adjective/noun mixes should respect the word order of both the language of the adjective and the language of the head noun. Atawneh (1992) presented in his study some examples of noun phrases where an adjective is followed by a noun from the guest language, and another example showing a noun following an adjective from the host language violating this constraint. Examples (15) & (16) illustrate these ideas:

(15) ʔil-ha nose zyïir

Own-she nose small

"She has a small nose"

(16) haada ʔahla dinner fihayaati

This is the best dinner in my life.

This current study presents examples of adjective- mixing that respect the noun/ adjective order of the host language which is in this case the French language. Examples (17) and (18), respectively, present sentences where English adjectives follow French nouns respecting the noun/adjective order of French:

(17) C'est une decision pɜ:sənəl

This is a personal decision

(18) C'est un amour *real*

This is a love real

"This is a real love"

In the previous examples (17&18), the adjectives come after the nouns. The position of the mixed adjectives (those in the guest language) respected the word of the noun-adjectives in the host language. This violates this constraint since the adjective/noun mixing respected the word order of the host language (French), but didn't respect the word order of the guest language (English).

Other examples of this current study show respect to the order of adjective-noun in Code-Mixing for both the host language (French) and the guest language (English/Arabic). Examples (19), (20) & (21) respectively illustrate this validity and respect the adjectival constraint:

(19) La fin de l'histoire est *sæd*

The end of the story is sad

(20) les enfants pleurent lorsqu'ils sont *hungry* (*hʌŋgrɪ*).

The children cry because they are hungry

(21) les enfants sont *dʷwʕafa:ʔ*

"The children are weak"

The previous discussion show respect to the adjectival constraint in some examples, and violation in others. This contradiction proves that this constraint is not universal.

#### **4.6.4 The Clitic Pronoun Object Constraint**

As reported in Atawneh (1992), Pfaaf (1979) states that according to this constraint, clitic pronoun objects are realized of the same language of that of the verb to which they are cliticized, and in the position specified by the syntactic rules of that language. In the

current study, clitic object pronoun didn't exist at all in collected data. This disappearance does not allow the researcher to decide whether this constraint is valid and Universal or not. Example (22) illustrates this constraint:

(22) Il l'a pris au supermarché.

He took *the dog* to the market.

It is obvious that the French rule of the direct object is different from that of English. As it is seen above, the French direct object (*l'*) is moved to be before the main verb according to the grammatical rule of French; while the English direct object (*the dog*) comes after the verb according to the English grammatical rule of direct object.

#### **4.6.5 The Free Morpheme Constraint**

This constraint states that mixing could happen after any constituent in a discourse where the constituent is not a bound morpheme. Another version states that: "a switch is prohibited from occurring between a bound morpheme and a lexical form unless the latter has been phonologically integrated into the language of the former" (Poplack 1982:12). Atawneh (1992) presented examples that violate this constraint as follows:

(23) Binuse elcomputer

We-use the- computer

(24) Sirna nride together

Become-PST-we we-ride together

we got used to riding together

In this current study the free or bound morphemes didn't appear at all in the collected data. Therefore it cannot be decided whether French for English majors can support or stand against this constraint.

#### 4.6.6 The Equivalence Constraint

Poplack (1979) states that mixes in this constraint tend to occur in discourse where the juxtaposition of L1 and L2 elements doesn't violate the syntactic rule of the two languages, and where the surface structure of the two languages map onto each other. Atawneh (1992) presented some examples that support this constraint and others that violate it. Example (24) illustrates using the preposition *about* in a position so that the word order doesn't violate the rules of the other language:

(24) About eeyser-risali?

About what the letter?

What is the letter about?

In this current study, similar examples occurred in which CM didn't affect the syntactic rules of both the host language (French) and the guest language (Arabic). Example (25) illustrates and supports the validity of this constraint:

(25) On les fait *ma:ʕ ʔi:*? verbe?

*ma:ʕ ʔi:* verbe on les fait?

We do them with which verb? = "With which verb we do them?"

In the previous example, the juxtaposition of *ma:ʕ ʔi:* didn't affect the surface structure and the syntactic rules of the host language (French) and the guest language (Arabic).

#### 4.6.7 The Dual Structure Principle

This constraint states that the internal structure of the guest constituent doesn't necessarily conform to the constituent structure rules of the host language if its place in the sentence doesn't affect the rules of the host language. All examples of English mixed noun phrases in Atawneh (1992) have their internal structure unaffected when they fill the place of a noun phrase in an Arabic sentence, as in (26) & (27):

(26) ilha big nose



Has-she big nose

She has a big nose

(27) btiʔmalu second floor zay heyk.

PRS-you-do second floor like this.

You do second floor like this.

Other examples in Atawneh (1992) violate this constraint as example (28):

(28) haada ʔilli ʔana spelleyt-o

This that I-PST-it

this that I spelt

In the previous example, the verb *spelt* inserted in the Arabic sentence to function as a past tense verb, and it became *spelleyto* to match the syllable structure of the Arabic verb and its pattern. Atawneh (1992) found that there is no lexical gap to be filled by the English verb (spelt) since Arabic has another verb *hazzeyto* with the same meaning. The problem here is that the verb in Arabic carries a pronominal morpheme which agrees with the subject of the verb unlike its counterpart in English. For this reason, English verbs mixed in Arabic sentences must take the agreement morpheme, thus changing the internal morphological structure of the verb and adapting it to the Arabic pattern.

In the current study, two Arabic NPs occur in the collected data in which French is the host language. Their places violate the structural rules of the host sentence and affected by the structural word order of the guest language which is Arabic, as in example (29)& (30), respectively:

(29) L'hypocrisie est une *qadʕjja mwʕaqada*

L'hypocrisie est une *question complexe*.

The hypocrisy is a *complex case*

(30) En raison de *ʕadam wdzu:d* la police, les rues sont très anarchistes

En raison de *l'absence* de la police, les rues sont anarchistes

Because of the absence of the police, the roads are jammed

The previous two examples support this constraint since the internal structure of the guest constituent *qad<sup>ʕ</sup>jjja mwʕaqada & ʕadam wdzu:d* did not affect the structural rules of the host sentence (French), and this could be an evidence that this constraint is valid.

The following section will discuss the results of the questionnaires administered to the subjects of study.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Conclusion and Recommendations**

Because Palestine is a bilingual country where English is a foreign language, speakers may mix English and Arabic in certain situations. However, with the introduction of French in Palestinian schools and universities, it has been noticed that there is code-mixing between French and English besides French and Arabic. There are some reasons that led to mixing French with English and Arabic with French. This current study investigated this linguistic area among English Majors who have Minor in French at H.U. This investigation included CM inside the classroom sessions and excluded CM outside the classroom where French language is rarely used. The researcher looked at the contexts in which CM occurred. Reasons for mixing were found to include lack of knowledge, clarification. Investigation was also made in finding out the possibility of observing the universal constraints for mixing among the users of the target group.

Analysis in this research was both qualitative and quantitative. The qualitative part analyzed data the researcher collected by observing the Code-Mixing instances inside the classroom sessions for 61 French learners at H.U. The instances were then categorized according to the frequency of the mixed categories. They were discussed according to the reasons and motives which caused them to be produced. In addition, the questionnaires and the interviews were analyzed quantitatively.

The findings of this research proved that Code-Mixing among French learners at H.U was not random. They aimed at achieving specific functions and had their own motives to do so. The qualitative analysis showed that they aimed at achieving three main functions and had three main reasons. They aimed at compensating the lack of knowledge (lack of vocabulary), emphasizing understanding their teacher, and clarifying or emphasizing something they want to say. They were motivated by a desire to make a point,

especially when there was no equivalence of some French or English expressions in Arabic, to show knowledge of the foreign language for prestige, and simply because of similarity in spelling for some English and French words.

As for the results of the questionnaire, they supported the previous results. The majority of the French learners admitted that they mixed Arabic or English to compensate for the lack of vocabulary and when they did not find the suitable expression they needed in French during sessions. Some of them agreed that they mixed when they responded to someone who started to speak English while they were speaking French. Others agreed that they mixed just as a habit that they acquired through time. They also agreed that they mixed to emphasize their speech and to increase its strength and impact. Excluding a person who doesn't understand English while they were talking French, feeling sad and angry and showing knowledge of technological and cultural advancement were also other reasons that motivated those learners to mix other languages. Finally, some of them agreed that they mixed at times of happiness and excitement and during discussions of Western issues.

On the other hand, when the French learners at H.U were interviewed, some of them agreed that they did not mix English or Arabic while speaking French. But when they spoke English, they mixed French because it was more preferable for them than English. The interviewed French learners strongly agreed that they mixed Arabic or English words when they did not find the appropriate item or expression in the target language (French), so that this could be a support for their answers for the questionnaire. The French learners' ignorance of the syntactic rules of the French sentences and their desire to confirm meaning in order to make sure that others understand them. There were also other reasons that motivated those French learners to mix Arabic or English during their speech.

This research will hopefully encourage more research on Code-Mixing in EFL/ FFL contexts. It is highly recommended to conduct similar studies, both qualitative and quantitative, to reveal more about the reasons and the motives that cause Code-Mixing in such a context. When considering future research, it is suggested that the following points will be taken into consideration:

1. Studying other aspects of Code-Mixing of those French learners, such as the phonological and syntactic ones.
2. Studying the aspects of Code-Mixing for the same learners outside the classroom sessions (on campus), and studying the differences of CM inside and outside the classroom.
3. Studying the Code-Mixing practices of other Minor French Palestinian learners, (who have the same level of competency), at other different Palestinian universities and comparing results.
4. Studying Code-Mixing of French Majors in English and Arabic to compare the relationship between their linguistic competency in French and the frequency and the types of mixes.
5. Studying French/ English Code-Mixing in separation from studying French/ Arabic Code-Mixing, so that the researcher could concentrate more on the syntactic and morphological aspects of each language during Code-Mixing.

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## Appendices

### Appendix A: Questionnaire in Arabic

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

#### استبانة

هذه الاستبانة هي جزء من بحث لرسالة ماجستير هدفها البحث في ظاهرة خلط طلاب اللغة الفرنسية في جامعة الخليل للغة الانجليزية او العربية أثناء محاضراتهم في اللغة الفرنسية. تعبئة هذه الاستبانة ستستغرق 10 إلى 15 دقيقة لذا ارغب منكم الإجابة على فقرات الاستبانة بصراحة وحرية , مع شكري سلفا على ما ستقدمونه من معلومات وجهد ووقت .

(1) املا البيانات الاتية :

العمر :	الجنس :
عدد سنوات تعلم اللغة الفرنسية :	
السنة الدراسية:	

(2) ضع دائرة حول ( نعم ) أو ( لا ) :

1	هل تخط اللغة الانجليزية (كلمات ) أثناء حديثك مع زملاءك أو أستاذك باللغة الفرنسية في محاضرات اللغة الفرنسية ؟	نعم	لا
2	هل تخط اللغة العربية (كلمات ) أثناء حديثك مع زملاءك أو أستاذك باللغة الفرنسية في محاضرات اللغة الفرنسية؟	نعم	لا
3	هل يستطيع احد والديك أو كلاهما التحدث باللغة الانجليزية ؟	نعم	لا
4	هل يستطيع احد والديك أو كلاهما التحدث باللغة الفرنسية ؟	نعم	لا
5	هل تشعر بسهولة وراحة اكبر عندما تخط اللغتين الانجليزية او العربية عند الإجابة على أسئلة اللغة الفرنسية في الصف ؟	نعم	لا

(3) ضع دائرة حول رقم الجملة الصحيحة بالنسبة لك :

اخلط اللغة الانجليزية أو العربية مع أشخاص يتحدثون باللغة الفرنسية في الحالات الآتية:

1. عندما لا أجد التعبير المناسب من اللغة الفرنسية .
2. للتأكيد على كلامي أو لزيادة قوة تأثيره.
3. عند الشعور بالفرح أو الإثارة .
4. عند الشعور بالحزن أو الغضب.
5. للتباهي بمعرفتي باللغة الانجليزية وباللغة الفرنسية وبمهارتي في استخدامهما .
6. عندما يكون الحديث عن المجتمعات الغربية .
7. إذا كان كلامي رداً على شخص بدأ بالحديث باللغة الانجليزية أثناء حديثنا باللغة الفرنسية.
8. لإظهار بعض المواضيع الثقافية.
9. هي مجرد عادة اكتسبتها مع الوقت .
10. لاستبعاد ( أو إخراج ) شخص لا يفهم اللغة الانجليزية أثناء حديثنا باللغة الفرنسية.

(4) احكم على كل من النقاط التالية ، بما يتعلق بخلطك للغة الفرنسية و الانجليزية او

العربية ، على مقياس من 1-5 ، بحيث يكون 1 هو الحد الأدنى و 5 هو الحد الأعلى

المجالات	قليل جداً أو معدوم	قليل	متوسط	درجة عالية	درجة عالية جداً
الدراسة	1	2	3	4	5
الأصدقاء	1	2	3	4	5
الأمر العائلية	1	2	3	4	5
الألعاب الالكترونية وعلم التكنولوجيا	1	2	3	4	5
البرامج والتلفاز والأفلام	1	2	3	4	5
الأغاني والمغنيين	1	2	3	4	5
الأحداث العالمية	1	2	3	4	5

## Appendix B : Questionnaire in English

**In the name of Allah**

### **A Questionnaire**

This questionnaire is a part of a Master's degree research which aims at investigating phenomenon of Code-Mixing of French and English or Arabic among students of French at Hebron University in their daily conversations in the classroom. Filling this questionnaire will take 10 to 15 minutes. Therefore, I would like you to respond to its questions honestly and freely. Thanking you in advance for the information that you are going to present and for the effort and time that you are going to spend.

**(1) Fill in the following information :**

Age :	Gender :
Years of learning French :	

**(2) Circle ( yes ) or ( No ) :**

1.	Do you mix English (words) while talking with your classmates in French sessions ?	Yes	No
2.	Do you mix Arabic (words) while talking with your classmates in French sessions ?	Yes	No
3.	Can one , or both , of your parents speak English ?	Yes	No
4.	Can one , or both , of your parents speak French ?	Yes	No
5.	Do you feel it more comfortable and easy to mix English, Arabic and French in the same dialogue ?	Yes	No

**(3) Circle the number the sentence that is true for you :**

I mix English in my conversations with people who are speaking French in the following situations :

1. When I do not find the suitable word or expression from French .
  2. To emphasize my speech and to increase its strength and impact.
  3. At times of happiness and excitement.
  4. At times of sadness and anger.
  5. To show off my knowledge and skills of using English and French.
  6. When Western societies are being discussed .
  7. If my speech was a response to someone who started to speak English while we are talking in French .
  8. To show some cultural issues.
  9. It is just a habit that I acquired through time .
  10. To exclude a person who does not understand English while we are talking French .
- 

**(4) Give your judgment on each of the following points in relation to your mixing of French and English on a scale of 1-5, 1 being the least and 5 being the most.**

Domains	Very little or nonexistent	Little	Medium	High Degree	Very High Degree
Studying	1	2	3	4	5
Friends	1	2	3	4	5
Family matters	1	2	3	4	5
Electronic games and world of technology	1	2	3	4	5
Movies and TV programs	1	2	3	4	5
Songs and Singers	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your cooperation

## **Appendix C: Questions of Interviews**

1. For how many years are you learning French?
2. Did you learn French before University? If yes, for how many years?
3. Do your parents or one of them speak English or French?
4. Have you any family member who speaks French other than you? If yes, do you speak French with him/ her?
5. In what subjects you mix other languages (French or English)?
6. When do you mix English or Arabic while you are speaking French inside the classroom sessions?
7. Do you mix English more than Arabic while you are speaking French or you tend to mix Arabic more than English? Why?

## Appendix D: IPA Symbols Used for the Transliteration of the Code-Switching

Instances of the 61 French Learners during Sessions.

Letter	Name	<u>IPA</u>	Letter	Name	<u>IPA</u>	Letter	Name	<u>IPA</u>
ء	Hamza	ʔ	ش	Shin	ʃ	ه	Ha'	h
ا	Alif	a:	ص	Sad	s <sup>ʕ</sup>	و	Waw	w,u:
ب	Ba'	b	ض	Dad	d <sup>ʕ</sup>	ي	Ya'	j,i:
ت	Ta'	t	ط	Ta'	t <sup>ʕ</sup>	أ	Alifmaddah	ʔa:
ث	Tha'	θ	ظ	Za'	ð <sup>ʕ</sup>	ة	Ta' marbutah	a,at
ج	Jim	dʒ	ع	'ayn	ʕ	ي	Alifmaqsurah	a:
ح	Ha'	h	غ	Ghayn	ɣ	ال	Alif lam	(var)
خ	Kha'	x	ف	Fa'	f			
د	Dal	d	ق	Qaf	q			
ذ	Dhal	ð	ك	Kaf	k			
ر	Ra'	r	ل	Lam	l			
ز	Zany/zay	z	م	Mim	m			
س	Sin	s	ن	Nun	n			



## Appendix E: Phonetic Symbols for English

Consonants		Vowels	
<b>P</b>	<i>pen, copy, happen</i>	<b>ɪ</b>	<i>kit, bid, hymn, minute</i>
<b>B</b>	<i>back, baby, job</i>	<b>E</b>	<i>dress, bed, head, many</i>
<b>T</b>	<i>tea, tight, button</i>	<b>Æ</b>	<i>trap, bad</i>
<b>D</b>	<i>day, ladder, odd</i>	<b>ɒ</b>	<i>lot, odd, wash</i>
<b>K</b>	<i>key, clock, school</i>	<b>ʌ</b>	<i>strut, mud, love, blood</i>
<b>G</b>	<i>get, giggle, ghost</i>	<b>ʊ</b>	<i>foot, good, put</i>
<b>tʃ</b>	<i>church, match, nature</i>	<b>iː</b>	<i>fleece, sea, machine</i>
<b>dʒ</b>	<i>judge, age, soldier</i>	<b>eɪ</b>	<i>face, day, break</i>
<b>F</b>	<i>fat, coffee, rough, photo</i>	<b>aɪ</b>	<i>price, high, try</i>
<b>V</b>	<i>view, heavy, move</i>	<b>ɔɪ</b>	<i>choice, boy</i>
<b>θ</b>	<i>thing, author, path</i>	<b>uː</b>	<i>goose, two, blue, group</i>
<b>ð</b>	<i>this, other, smooth</i>	<b>əʊ</b>	<i>goat, show, no</i>
<b>S</b>	<i>soon, cease, sister</i>	<b>aʊ</b>	<i>mouth, now</i>
<b>Z</b>	<i>zero, music, roses, buzz</i>	<b>ɪə</b>	<i>near, here, weary</i>

<b>ʃ</b>	<i>ship, sure, n<u>a</u>tional</i>	<b>eə</b>	<i>square. fair, various</i>
<b>ʒ</b>	<i>plea<u>s</u>ure, vi<u>s</u>ion</i>	<b>ɑː</b>	<i>start, father</i>
<b>H</b>	<i>hot, whole, ahead</i>	<b>ɔː</b>	<i>thought, law, north, war</i>
<b>M</b>	<i>more, hammer, sum</i>	<b>ʊə</b>	<i>poor, jury, cure</i>
<b>N</b>	<i>nice, know, funny, sun</i>	<b>ɜː</b>	<i>nurse, stir, learn, refer</i>
<b>ŋ</b>	<i>ring, anger, thanks, sung</i>	<b>ə</b>	<i><u>a</u>bout, comm<u>o</u>n, stand<u>a</u>rd</i>
<b>L</b>	<i>light, valley, feel</i>	<b>ɪ</b>	<i>happy, radi<u>a</u>te. glori<u>o</u>us</i>
<b>R</b>	<i>right, wrong, sorry, arrange</i>	<b>U</b>	<i>thank <u>y</u>ou, influ<u>e</u>nce, situ<u>a</u>tion</i>
<b>J</b>	<i>yet, use, beauty, few</i>	<b>ŋ</b>	<i>sudden<u>l</u>y, cotton</i>
<b>W</b>	<i>wet, one, when, queen</i>	<b>ɪ</b>	<i>middle, met<u>a</u>l</i>
<b>ʔ</b>	<i>(glottal stop) depart<u>m</u>ent, foot<u>b</u>all</i>	<b>'</b>	<i>(stress mark)</i>

## Appendix F: Code-Mixing Instances of the 61 French Minors at H.U

1. C' est une relation illegal (r'li:ɡəl)
2. Elle joue une role principile ('prinsipəl )/(principale)
3. Il y a double s ('dʌbəl )/ (double)
4. C' est un pronom relative ('rɛlətɪv)
5. C'est une phrase complex ('kɒmpleks)
6. Ce n'est pas acceptable (ək'septəbəl)
7. C' est une décision personal ('pɜ:sənəl)
8. Il pense qu' il est respected (rɪ'spektəd)
9. La fin de l'histoire est sad (sæd )
10. Les enfants pleurent parce qu'ils ont hungry ('hʌŋɡrɪ )
11. Le temps est passé très rapid ('ræpɪd )
12. D' une première na:ðʳah (seen)
13. Les enfants sont dʷʃafa:ʔ(weak)
14. C'est un conseil semantic (sɪ'mæntɪk)
15. Les personnes étaient outcast (sɪ'mæntɪk)
16. Le monde de Simon ne ma:nbu:ð (outcast)
17. C'est un amour real ('rɪəl)
18. Maximum, combien? ('mæksɪmə)
19. Elle a vite fait sa valise de craindre d'arriver late (leɪt)
20. C'est a cause de salaries ('sæləri)
21. C'est un symbole de richness ('rɪtʃ,nɪs)
22. Ce qu'est passé a Bruxelles est de faire des muʃa:hada:t (treaties) ce  
qui concerne la Palestine
23. La fume de ʔa:lmasʳa:eʃ (factories )

24. A cause de la guerre, il y a beaucoup de ma:s'a:ʕeb (difficulties)
25. L'ecrivain respecte le mot comme paraphrase ('pærə, freɪz)
26. Pourquoi les étudiants de l'université d'Hébron changent leur specialist? ('spɛʃəlɪst)
27. On les fait ma:ʕ ʔi: (with which verb) verbe?
28. Le poète présente une chose de ma:wa:qef (attitudes) que c'est passé avec lui.
29. C'est une ʔdʕjha:d (persecution) des gens
30. Il ya une taʕli:q (suspension) des cours à l'université
31. Quand on voit cette scene? (si:n)
32. ʔlta:ʃa:buh entre les deux définitions
33. Il va avoir la bread (brəd).
34. Ce n'est pas sʕah (correct) à continuer
35. Il reste deux sa:trjn (lines)
36. C'est déjà une mwla:xa:sʕ (summary)
37. J'ai une family ('fæmɪli)
38. Les enseignants n'acceptent pas le system ('sɪstəm) de gouvernement
39. a description prend une side informative (said)
40. D'une manière na:ðʕarjah (theoretical)
41. Madame, c'est na:fsha:le problématique
42. J'espère que le paix spread (sprəd)
43. Les méthodes modernes came to compléter la lacune des méthodes anciennes (kʌm)
44. Complete la fonction de lier les deux phrases (freizez)

45. Il est important que tu depart (dɪ'pɑ:t)
46. Il a pledged de faire ça (plɛdʒ)
47. Il a challenged la situation ('tʃælɪndʒd)
48. Pour amuse les autres (ə'sju:m)
49. Tous le monde est rich (rɪtʃ)
50. Qu'est ce que le printemps jaɲni: pour les enfants
51. Jack complain de son professeur (kəm'pleɪn)
52. Tout le monde peut jwsʰawwet
53. Pourquoi les Égyptiens ʔjxtaraɬu:le pronom Ismiralda
54. Elle wear beaucoup de vêtements de crainte que d'avoir froid  
(weə)
55. Il travaille bien pour take son diplôme (teɪk)
56. Les enfants parlent fort pour jadʒðjb l'attention des parents
57. Les sentiments tatala:ɬa:
58. Le poète jatʔa: mal avec les fleurs comme un bon souvenir
59. Les gens il le bjfakru: qu'il n'a pas de papa et n'a pas de maman
60. Parce que c'est le courant de la vie , elle continue (kən'tɪnju:)
61. Elle ne voit pas the personne (ðə)
62. Ils ne sont pas généreux jaɲni: mwɬ kari:mi:n
63. Les gens qui janhabu: ʔl θa:rwa:t
64. Combien de temps rah njhki:
65. It is not supposed d'être normal (ɪtɪznɒtsə'pəʊzd)
66. Il n'a pas compris ɬu: qasʰdwh
67. jaɲni: qasʰdwh il y a des conjonction
68. L'hypocrisie est une qadʰjja mwɬaqada

69. En raison de ʕadam wdʒu:d de la police, les rues sont très anarchistes
70. Nous sommes arrivé en retard because of she (bɪ'kɔzɒvʃɪ:)
71. C'est ʕaʕa:nhi:kle romain n'existe pas en Bretagne
72. Tu irais à la plage unless finir ton travail (ʌn'les )
73. Je vais aller à Amman ʃari:tʕata:nna: ma belle mère ne viennent pas  
ici
74. Je vais rencontrer mon amie ʃari:tʕata:nna: qu'elle m'appelle
75. On va faire le ménage tu nous pays ʃari:tʕata:nna: qu'elle m'appelle
76. bi:hwdʒat elle est malade, elle n'est pas allée à l'université
77. tahta: ʔdʒba:r le demande de son père, elle s'est mariée son cousin
78. C'est un extrait de l'enfant de 1922 (,nam'ti:n 'twenti tu:)
79. bi:sa:ba:b les prix des appartements, il est difficile de loger à Paris

## **Appendix G:Transrcription Conventions of Interviewees**

(ID S1): First Speaker

(S2): the speaker who speaks secondly

(?) Words spoken with risen intonation

(.) Words spoken with falling intonation

( CAPITAL syllabus) like toMORrow: Emphasis

(.) Brief pause in speech (up to a good half second)

(.1), (.2), (.3) : longer pauses are timed to the nearest second (.1) =1 second, (.2) = 2 seconds,.....etc.

(:) lengthening sounds

(:) Long sounds (approximately 2 seconds or more)

(to to) : Repetition

(joi-joint) : Word fragments

(@) Laughter

<@> Utterances spoken laughingly

(generous)/ company(ies) : word fragments, words or phrases which cannot be reliably identified.

<LNde> Utterances in languages which are neither English nor the speaker's first language.

<fast> utterances which are spoken in a particular mode, and are notably different from the speaker's normal speaking style.

(hh) Noticeable breathing in or out (relatively short)

(hhh) Noticeable breathing in or out (relatively long)

< > speaking noises like (coughs, sneezes, applauds,.....etc).

< > non verbal feedback like <nods>, <shakes head>.

< 2> non verbal feedback = 2 seconds, 3= 3 seconds, .....

[ ] names of people, companies, organizations, institutions, locations,  
numbered starting with 1, ..... etc.



## **Appendix H: Answers of Interviews**

### **Interview 1**

**Date: April 15, 2016**

**Time: At 11:15 Am**

**Duration: 5minutes**

**ID S1: Q.1) What's your name?**

**S2: My name's Dima.**

**S1: Q.2) For how many years are you learning French?**

**S1: for THREE years (.2)**

**S1: Q.3) Did you learn French before University? If yes, for how many years?**

**S2: No, I didn't (.1) I JUST learnt it at [Hebron University](.)**

**S1: Q.4) Do your parents or one of them speak English or French?**

**S2: Yes (?), I have my *faTher* and my *HUSband* who are *WELL* in speaking English (:) I used to send my husband who studied in America in English He is also considered to be a native *native* speaker of English (*hh*) he was born and lived in the US <*nodding the head*> *NONE* of my family members speaks French.**

**S1: Q.5) Have you any family member who speaks French other than you? If yes, do you speak French with him/ her?**

**S2: <@> In fact (*hh*) there is *NO* one in my family speaks French (.:)**

**S1: Q.6) Do you mix English more than Arabic while you are speaking French or you tend to mix Arabic more than English? Why?**

**S2: (:) It is more confident to me to mix English rather than Arabic (*hhh*) because I feel that the English word that I choose could (?) carry the *sAMe* meaning in French rather than in Arabic (.3)**

**S1: Q.7) When do you mix English or Arabic while you are speaking French inside the classroom sessions? And in what subjects you mix other languages (French or English)?**

**S2:** (.3) When we speak about difficult subjects that I don't have enough vocabulary about them (*hhh*) when I have difficulty in finding the meaning or (.2) in saying the sentence appropriately <*cough*> (.3) I mix Arabic when I speak about cultural issues like proverbs that have no equivalence in French. Sometimes, I use foreign languages like English or French when speaking about western societies (:::) For example, when speaking about songs (.1) sports (?) series (.2) films (.)

## **Interview 2:**

**Date: April 15, 2016**

**Time: At 11:30 Am**

**Duration: 5 minutes and a half**

**ID S1: Q.1)What's your name?**

**S2: Rawan**

**S1: Q.2): For how many years are you learning French?**

**S2: ONLY (?)** For three years (.3)

**S1: Q.3) Did you learn French before University? If yes, for how many years?**

**S2:** No (:) I (.2) didn't.

**S1: Q.4) Do your parents or one of them speak English or French?**

**S2:** Yes (.1) my mother speaks English <*nodding the head*> and my father doesn't.

**S1: Q.5) Have you any family member who speaks French other than you? If yes, do you speak French with him/ her?**

**S2:** No *NONE* of my family members speaks French So, I (?) just speak French at (.1) [University] (.2) with my colleagues and (.) my teachers.

**S1: Q.6) Do you mix English more than Arabic while you are speaking French or you tend to mix Arabic more than English? Why?**

**S2:** (*hhh*) I mix English more than Arabic because (.1) I feel that the English word (:) could have the same meaning of that in French (.2) So (*hh*) my mistakes could be less than those (.1) if I mix Arabic words (.3)

**S1: Q.7) When do you mix English or Arabic while you are speaking French inside the classroom sessions? And in what subjects you mix foreign languages (French / English)?**

**S2:** (*hhh*) when I don't find the meaning in French (.2) I mix English or Arabic when I don't find the suitable word I need in (.) French (*hh*) sometimes <@> I brought the English word and I pronounce it in French (.1) if it has the same orthography, but I try to pronounce it in French (.) I mix English or Arabic when speaking about some political subjects (*hhh*) (.4) because I don't have enough vocabulary concerns them (.2) (*hh*) I prefer to mix English rather than Arabic so that the (*the*) probability to be mistaken could be less when I choose English word because of their similar origins (.1) as a result (.) I feel that the English word could have the similar meaning of that of the French one (*hh*) I mix foreign languages when I speak about foreign subjects (.3)

**Interview 3:**

**Date: April 15, 2016**

**Time: At 11:35 Am**

**Duration: 3 minutes and 40 seconds**

**ID S1: Q.1) What's your name?**

**S2: My name's Rami (hh)**

**S1: Q.2) For how many years are you learning French?**

**S2: (.1) For three (?) years**

**S1: Q.3) Did you learn French before University? If yes, for how many years?**

**S2: No (.2) I DIDN't learn French (?) before university**

**S1: Q.4) Do your parents or one of them speak English or French?**

**S2: My father speaks English and my mother <@>doesn't (.2) None of them speak French (hh)**

**S1: Q.5) Have you any family member who speaks French other than you? If yes, do you speak French with him/ her?**

**S2: NO none (?) of my family members speaks (@) French (.2)**

**S1: Q.6) Do you mix English more than Arabic while you are speaking French or you tend to mix Arabic more than English? Why?**

**S2: Usually (.1) I don't mix English or Arabic while speaking French but (?) when I (speak 2speak) English I mix French <nodding the head>**

**S1: Q.7) When do you mix English or Arabic while you are speaking French inside the classroom sessions? And in what subjects you mix foreign languages (French/ English)?**

**S2: As a foreign language (hh) I PREfer French rather than English (.2) I <@> wait the teacher to correct me (.1) to get the meaning in French (hhh) I learn more French**

vocabulary instead of mixing English or Arabic (.2) Culture, sport, politics and Western societies <nodding the head> are the domains in which I may mix English or Arabic (?) because I don't have enough vocabulary about those subjects (.3)

**Interview 4:**

**Date: April 15, 2016**

**Time: At 11:50 Am**

**Duration: 4 minutes**

**ID S1: Q.1) What's your name?**

**S2: Sanaa**

**S1: Q.2) For how many years are you learning French?**

**S2: ONLY for THree years (.)**

**S1: Q.3) Did you learn French before University? If yes, for how many years?**

**S2: No I JUST (?) learn French at (.1) [Hebron University]**

**S1: Q.4) Do your parents or one of them speak English or French?**

**S2: My father speaks English and (:) my mother <@> doesn't.**

**S1: Q.5) Have you any family member who speaks French other than you? If yes, do you speak French with him/ her?**

**S2: No, none of my family members speaks French. So, I just speak French at University inside the French classroom sessions.**

**S1: Q.6) Do you mix English more than Arabic while you are speaking French or you tend to mix Arabic more than English? Why?**

**S2: I prefer mixing the other foreign language [English] rather than [Arabic] (.3) there is NO particular reason for mixing English (hh) and not Arabic**

**S1: Q.7) When do you mix English or Arabic while you are speaking French inside the classroom sessions? And in what subjects you mix foreign languages (French/English)?**

**S2:** I mix [English] or [Arabic] when (.2) I don't find the suitable word or meaning in [French] (hh) on one hand (.1) I have difficulty in finding some political meanings and expressions (.2) also (.1) I have difficulties in expressions that concern nature and environment (.1) on the other hand (.1) I have some linguistic problems like (.2) the structure of the sentence and the (?) pronunciation that sometimes lead me to mispronounce the French vocabulary (.3) I mix French English when speaking about (.2) daily famous news at the Internet (hh) news papers (?) televisions and (.2) magazines (hh) when speaking about (.3) films and songs (?)