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**A Proposal for an Educational Transitional Program Where
Algerian Arabic is Used as a Medium of Instruction**
The Case of First and Second year Pupils of Mihi Mohamed Belhadj Primary
School- El Oued

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to:

My dear wonderful parents

To my beautiful mom

And my hero papa

To my brothers and sisters

Hadjer, the trouble maker Oussama, Mouhamed, and Souma

To my special one little brother Ilyes

I am grateful for all the unconditional love, guidance and support you have endlessly

given me

This humble work is also dedicated to my gang Lamo, Metira, Sarsour, Halima, Dodo, Wail,

Hana, and Roufaida thanks for being always there for me

...Love you guys...

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Abstract

The current dissertation examines the complexity of the Algerian sociolinguistic situation and its influence on the educational system. The existence of modern standard Arabic as a medium of instruction on one hand and Algerian Arabic, the first language of the Algerian learner, on the other hand, makes the learning process an arduous one. In our research, we are aiming at investigating the possibility of planning and implementing a suggestive pilot program for using mother tongue as a medium of instruction in primary school education to facilitate the learning/ teaching process, to develop the students' educational level, and to improve schools results. To reach our goals, we followed the mixed method approach, where we opted for two different research tools to gather the needed data and fulfill our research needs. The used research tools are namely, two classroom observations and a semi-structured questionnaire. The research population was first and second year primary school students' of '*Mihi Mohamed Belhadj*', in El-Oued, from which a sample of two classes (n=70 students) and two teachers were chosen. For the questionnaire, it was handed to thirty teachers (n=30) chosen randomly from a population of nearly 120 teachers (N=120) from three different primary schools in El-Oued namely: *Mihi Mohamed Belhadj*, *Naghmouh Salah Tahar*, and *Nssira El Mouldi primary school*. The findings indicate that the teachers lack awareness about this linguistic problem which overwhelms their classrooms. They believe that the lack of exposure to modern standard Arabic is the primary reason for language problems and that Algerian Arabic, the mother tongue is a low variety and does not need to be promoted in the school. However, they use it widely in their classes. The thesis concludes that planning and implementing a pilot transitional program using the first language as a medium of instruction in primary school education may solve the problem.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AA: Algerian Arabic

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

BR: Berber

CA: Classical Arabic

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

H: High

L: Low

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LiEP: Language in Education Policy

LP: Language Planning

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

Q: Question

SLL: Second Language Learning

General Introduction

The sociolinguistic reality of the Algerian society is complicated. Algeria is considered a multilingual country where more than one language is used in different domains like administration, media, education, and in everyday life activities. The Algerian socio-cultural context shapes one of the richest and most diverse linguistic situations. Algerian linguistic background is largely the outcome of many historical developments as well as a geographical and ethnic diversity.

The contact of different linguistic groups and cultures in Algeria, such as Carthaginians, Roman, Vandals, Spaniards, Phoenicians, Byzantines, Arabs, Ottomans, and French caused the linguistic multi-layered background of Algeria in one hand. On the other hand, the geographical strategic location of the country in the north of Africa where it is situated on the Mediterranean border between Tunisia and Libya to the east, Morocco to the west, and Portugal, Spain, and France to the north of Mediterranean Sea. This made it as a meeting point to both Europe and the Middle East. Not mentioning its wide southern part, where it has been influenced by cultures and languages of its African neighbors from west to east Niger, Mali and Mauritania. Its spectacular location has always encouraged other cultures from different parts of the world to settle and exploit its resources.

These factors have contributed to the Algerian linguistic diversity the production of the present rich Algerian profile that consists of Classical Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic, Algerian Arabic, 13 Tamazight varieties, French, and English. During the French colonization, the French language was imposed as the official language of the country and was taught at school. After independence in 1962, Arabization efforts intended as a means to build an official identity. This step neglected the cultural and the sociolinguistic reality of the Algerian society.

Algeria is also considered as a de-facto diglossic community where a number of mutually intelligible regional dialects are broadly used. In addition to other varieties of Arabic, such as Classical Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic, Classical Arabic is the Arabic used in Qur'an and the earliest literature from the Arabian Peninsula, whereas, Modern Standard Arabic is retained as the official language in Algeria and a common language to all the Arabic countries. In other words, Standard Arabic is used as a Lingua franca. In Arabic countries there is no community of native speakers of Standard Arabic. Not mentioning Maghreb and Middle-east dialects that may face Algerians in media and social media. Algerian Arabic is the common linguistic layer used and spoken by the majority of Algerian people in their everyday life. In the market, at home, and even in administrations their home language is used. Statistics shows that Algerian Arabic is spoken by about 72% and Tamazight by 27.4 % this complex sociolinguistic situation of the region poses one of the biggest challenges of language crisis in term of choosing a medium of instruction.

In the Algerian primary school for instance, The Arabization policy took a place in the Algerian educational curriculum after independence, as an attempt to stress the Algerian identity and to restore the Arabic language in education. This policy is still used until the present day with some reforms from that time. The Algerian primary school curriculum is totally arabized at first and second year. Third, fourth and fifth grade are also arabized with French as a foreign language. The language of instruction used is Modern Standard Arabic (learners L2) for all subjects of school such as math, science, history...etc. Modern Standard Arabic is also taught as an independent subject, where pupils come from different language backgrounds which are in this case Algerian Arabic or Tamazight (learner L1).

Finally, solving such a problem is a big challenge. It is not easy to plan an effective educational policy that enables children to receive high-quality education regardless of

their social backgrounds, gender, age or ethnicity. But finding a way to make the acquisition of a second language easier could be the first step to achieve this goal.

1. Statement of the Problem

In Algeria, virtually most pupils come from a language background that is different from the language taught at school. This difference is referred to as a gap which exists between home language and school language. The aforementioned situation may be a source of pedagogical problems for primary school students in learning Standard Arabic and it also creates a challenge for teachers to bridge the gap between the two varieties. It is noticed that learner's oral answer in Modern Standard Arabic are mostly characterized with strong Algerian Arabic interference and sometimes they switch completely to their home language to express themselves.

Algerian Arabic is used as a transitional method to solve this issue. Since the best learning tools of instruction are those which show continuity between the home and the school language, using the Algerian Arabic as medium of instruction at the early stages of primary school will simplify and facilitate the learning process of Standard Arabic. There are several voices encouraging the use of Algerian Arabic as a transitional period to solve this problem, whereas, other look down to it as not needed to be maintained or promoted at schools.

During a discussion, Algerian Education Minister proposed that children should be taught in their mother tongue in the first stages of their primary school. This proposal has made a firestorm of protest, deep sensitivities about language and identity half a century after independence show up. The negative reaction from approximately the whole Algerian population shows the lack of awareness about such a problem which is deeply affecting the learning process of their children.

This gap may cause various problems for learners; a difficulty in expressing themselves freely because of the weakness and inability to control the school language, whereas Algerian Arabic represents the unique language that allows children to express their emotions and thoughts. The possibility of encountering linguistic insecurity and language disorder that leads to a drop out from school in an early age.

Nelson Mandela stated that “If you talk to a man in a language he understands, that goes to his head. If you talk to him in his own language, that goes to his heart” for better comprehension at schools, curriculum should contains understandable instructions to achieve its objectives. Mother tongue education initiatives in Southeast Asia have been primarily implemented through community-based pilot programs countries like Finland, South Korea, Canada and Japan using their mother tongue as Medium of instruction led them to rank the highest in terms of education.

Several countries in Europe have successfully dealt with the use of varieties is education in the last thirty years or so. Dual education programs have been implemented in Haiti, Australia, Papua New Guinea and Guinea-Bissau. They use of French varieties is schools along with French. As a result action, in 1982, that Creole became the medium of instruction in primary school. Later on, Haitian Creole was made an official language along with French in the 1987 constitution, and it is now used in primary education throughout the country.

In this research, what we are aiming to investigate is the possibility of suggesting a pilot program for planning and implementing an Educational Transitional Program in the Algerian Primary School where Algerian Arabic is used as a medium of instruction.

2. Aims of the study

General aims:

In this research we are aiming at investigating the possibility of planning and implementing a suggestive pilot program of educational transitional method where Algerian Arabic is used as a medium of instruction in primary school.

Specific aims:

- Investigating the complexity of Arabic language situation in Algeria and how it impacts the educational system.
- Defining learners' weakness and inabilities to control the school language at their early beginning.
- Investigating the effectiveness of using Algerian Arabic as a medium of instruction in the classroom compared to Mother Standard Arabic.
- The needed acceptable steps that can be taken to implement a concrete educational curriculum which will facilitate the learning process.
- Investigating teachers' attitude towards Algerian Arabic as a language of instruction inside the classroom.
- Emphasizing the transitional aspects of this program.

3. Research Questions:

This research seeks to answer the following questions:

RQ1: - What are the mains difficulties encountered by the first and second year Algerian primary school learners?

- Does this problem still persist?

- Are there any reforms?

RQ2: How a new curriculum will be suggested to implement the Algerian Arabic language as a transitional phase?

- Is an experimental phase as a pilot study needed?

RQ3: Why is it still not implemented?

4. Research Hypotheses

Based on the above research questions we propose the following research hypotheses:

RH1: If Algerian primary school pupils are taught in their home language their educational level will be developed.

RH2: If an implemented curriculum considers learners' needs and sociolinguistic background, school results will be improved.

5. Significance of the study

The significance of this research study is, first, to shed the light on the complex linguistic background of the Algerian society and the diversity of languages. Besides, the other significance is to highlight the difficulties facing the Algerian primary school students, concerning the medium of instruction used in the classroom. The current study may also help decision-makers to develop the curriculum by facilitating the learning process for students and help to maintain and manage the interaction within the classroom. Eventually, future researcher students will gain benefit from such a study.

6. Methodology

The research approach is based on the nature of the present study, we are aiming to adopt the mixed method approach since the major aim of this study is to observe the classroom situation and to investigate teachers' attitudes. The mentioned approach is an

approach to inquiry that matches both quantitative and qualitative data within the same research. In relevance to the mixed method approach, the case study design is considered to be the most suitable for our study and using two research tools namely, classroom observation and semi-structured questionnaire. Its role is to collect data of a limited number of participants through a variety of data collection procedures over a sustainable period of time.

6.1 Population and Sample

Since we are opting for two classroom observations, we chose two different classes at the same school named *Mihi Mohamed Belhadj*, the sample contained two teachers and nearly seventy students. The questionnaire will be handed to thirty teachers whom will be selected randomly from a population of nearly 120 teachers from three different primary schools in El-Oued namely: *Mihi Mohamed Belhadj, Naghmouh Salah Tahar, and Nssira El Mouldi primary school*.

6.2 Data Analysis and Collecting Tools

The research hypothesis requires the use of two means of data collection in order to gather reliable data that serve the study aims. The choice fell upon the instruments of classroom observation and questionnaire. Concerning the classroom observation, it is chosen to help in describing and analyzing the classroom environment by taking notes during the observation. The questionnaire will be required as semi-structured, which will be handed to teachers and it may include the use of clarification of certain questions. The questionnaire will help to discover the attitude of teachers towards the proposal model and their awareness of the linguistic issue in their classrooms. A critical analytical study of the proposal will be conducted.

7. Structure of the work

Our work is divided into three main chapters:

Chapter one: in this chapter, we will try to provide a general overview about language planning and language policy and we will tackle their activities and types briefly in the first section. In the second section, the focus will be on the language contact and its different phenomena emerged in Algeria.

Chapter two: in the present chapter, we will shed the light on the complex sociolinguistic situation of Algeria and the different spoken languages in the first section. Concerning the second section, we will try to focus on the educational system in primary schools mainly the medium of instruction used in classes and its impact on the learning process.

Chapter three: this chapter will be devoted to the methodology we chose, research tools, procedure, the analysis of data and finally discerning the findings we reached.

8. Limitation and delimitation

Due to the small sample we could arrange for this study, results may not be generalizable on the complete population from which the sample was taken. The topic of our research was also somehow vague; we could not cover all the points needed because of the lack of time. Another difficulty we faced was the sensitivity of the topic. The attitudes of the respondents were sometimes inappropriate. Another problem we faced was the lack of references handling this topic in relation to the Algerian case.

Chapter One

Theoretical Framework of the Issue

1.1 Introduction

Language planning and language policy are two important processes that have been emerged as a result to the growing number of language contact phenomena, especially in countries like Algeria where a number of languages and varieties coexist side by side. The aim of this chapter is to provide a brief overview of language policy, language planning, and language contact.

The chapter is divided into two sections. The first one is meant to circle general concepts in the field of language policy and language planning. It also tackles the different activities and processes of language planning provided with examples.

In the second section, we will focus on some language contact phenomena that define the linguistic situation of Algeria. It is necessary to shed some light on the following concepts: bilingualism, multilingualism, diglossia, lingua franca, mutual intelligibility, borrowing and code switching. Such a theoretical framework of language will help to understand easily the second and the third chapter.

1.2 Section I: Basics in language policy and planning

This section, as it is stated above, provides general key concepts concerning the field of language planning and language policy.

1.2.1 Language planning and policy definitions

Mostly, the terms language planning (henceforth LP) and language policy are used synonymously referring to decisions related to language issues with regard to language development, linguistic diversity, and language teaching. Ammon (1987) revealed that Cooper (1989), Schiffman (1996), Baldauf, and Kaplan (2003) agree that LP and language policy are two different concepts where Language policy is concerned with making decisions

and setting goals, LP seeks for the implementation of some policies in order to reach certain results. In contrast, Rubin (1971) argues that language policy is a part of language planning.

1.2.1.1 Language policy

Language policy refers to general linguistic, political, and social goals that the actual LP process aims to achieve. According to Noss (1971) and Bamgbose (1991) who observe that:

Policies exist at three levels: official, educational, and general. Official policy is concerned with what language(s) is/are to be used at governmental level; educational policy deals with the question of language use in different kinds of schools; while general language policy refers to language use in mass communication, business, and contacts with foreigners

(as cited in Elangaiyan ,2007, p. 19)

In short, language policy is concerned with deciding which language will be used in government, at school, for communication, and economics.

1.2.1.2 Language planning

In general, LP is described as a set of strategies to solve various problems that occur in multilingual situations. The term '*language planning*' was first introduced by Haugen (1959), who defined language planning as follows:

By language planning I understand the activity of preparing a normative orthography, grammar and dictionary for the guidance of writers and speakers in a non-homogeneous speech community. In this practical application of linguistic knowledge we are proceeding beyond descriptive linguistics into an area where judgment must be exercised in the form of choices among available linguistic forms.

(as cited in Firchow 1972, p. 422)

According to Haugen, LP is the act of setting grammar, orthography, and dictionary to guide writers and speakers in non-homogeneous speech communities. Other definitions have been proposed, such as Rubin and Jernudd (1971) "future-oriented; that is the outcomes of policies

and strategies must be specified in advance of action taken.” (as cited in Ammon, 1987, p. 2422). For Fasold (1996) “language planning is usually seen as an explicit choice among alternatives. This, in turn, implies that there has been an evaluation of alternatives with the one that is chosen having been evaluated as the best.” (as cited in Hartford & Obeng, 2002, p. 199) and finally, Fishman (1973) defined it as “the organized pursuit of solutions to language problems.” (as cited in Mabry, 2015, p. 39)

1.2.2 Language planning activities

How do language planners proceed? This question discusses three areas of LP. Kloss (1969) identified two basic types of LP: Status planning and corpus planning. However, recently, another type of LP has been identified. That is acquisition planning, and which we are going to discuss below:

1.2.2.1 Status planning

Status planning is done primarily by the government officials. It addresses the function of language in society, and involves the allocation of languages to official roles in different domains (Ferguson, 2006). To explain more, status planning is the activities and decisions that aim to change the functions or uses of languages within a particular community. It involves the functional development of a language in a society and it is mostly done by people with formal power who make constitutional provisions, regulations, and laws. Example of status planning is the Malay language. Earlier Malay was used as lingua franca among the traders in the coastal area, but now it has been selected as Bahasa Indonesia.

Hornberger (1994) states four main status planning goals: Status standardization, officialisation, nationalization, and proscription.

1.2.2.1.1 Status standardization

Hornberger (1994, p. 81) states that standardization is “language planning activities that accept or impose a language as a standard”. To explain more, it is a process of providing or increasing the prestige of a dialect or a regional language where a number of variants exist, and one of them has to be chosen and transformed into a major language. This process usually includes the development of grammar, dictionaries, and literature. It also aims to raise the speakers’ number of the standardized language.

1.2.2.1.2 Officialisation

Officialisation refers to the decision of the government in making a language or languages the official language of the country. Cooper (1989) explains the existence of three senses of the term officialization: statutory (a language declared official by law); working, (a language for everyday activities); and symbolic (a symbol of the state). One language can be official for the three senses.

1.2.2.1.3 Nationalization

According to Shohamy (2006) nationalization is:

This term is associated with the notion of the nation that certain e languages are viewed as representing the ideology of the nation-states, although there may be other languages that can be considered official. It is especially noted in situations in which there are a number of official languages in a given political entity.

(p. 65)

The term nationalization can be used in two senses: First, the case where the language serves the whole nation rather than just a regional or ethnic subdivision and the second case, where the language serves a national symbol.

1.2.2.1.4 Proscription

Sometimes, the government bans the use of a particular language for political purposes. For instance, in Ukraine, the mother tongue of Greeks was banned after it was an official minority language in Ukraine. This decision of banning the Greek language was totally about political issues because Greek is seen as a minority in the country. In the case of Algeria, proscription is clearly not included in the government policy. (ibid, p. 77)

1.2.2.2 Corpus planning

Built upon Hagen's (1983) framework, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) see corpus planning "as those aspects of language planning which are primarily linguistic and hence internal to language". (as cited in Djennane, 2016, p. 14)

Once the decision makers have decided which language is to be used, the next step is corpus planning, which is usually done by linguists or language experts. Their job is to spread the use of the chosen language by making changes to the linguistic code, designing orthography, preparing dictionaries and so on. These changes show the main concern of corpus planning which refers to the intervention in the form and the structure of the language.

Ferguson (1968) suggests three traditionally recognized types of corpus planning: graphization, standardization, and modernization.

1.2.2.2.1 Graphization

Hornberger (1994) argues that graphization is the adaptation of a writing system; which means the development, selection, and modification of scripts and orthographic conventions for a certain language. This process will ensure an easier transmission of materials for the next generations and facilitate communication between them. To build a writing system for the language, corpus planners face two options: to use existing systems or create new ones.

1.2.2.2.2 Standardization

Hornberger (1994) also claims that Language standardization is not only about language. It is a socio-political process where politics and the identity of society play a big role in standardizing a language. Process of standardization is the selecting of variety and leaving the others in a subordinate position.

1.2.2.2.3 Modernization

Language modernization has been defined by Ferguson (1968) as:

the process by which (a language becomes) the equal of other developed languages as a medium of communication; it is in a sense the process of joining the world community of increasingly intertranslatable languages recognized as appropriate vehicles of modern forms of discourse.

(as cited in Shohamy, p. 82)

Modernization is applied and used when language needs to expand the resources to fulfill the function. The most significant impact of modernization is the expansion of the lexicon, which permits the language to discuss topics in the modern semantic field.

1.2.2.3 Acquisition planning

Cooper (1989) was the first who opted for the adding of ‘Acquisition Planning’ as a separate third type of LP. He claims that Acquisition planning refers to “organized efforts to promote the learning of a language” (as cited in Ghoul, 2012, p. 47). In fact, acquisition planning is related to language teaching/learning in schools. For this reason Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) prefer the term ‘language in education policy’ (LiEP) (as cited in Djennane, 2016, p. 18). Such a term seems quite narrow because it focuses only at schools, where in fact there are other places where acquisition takes place like home. Therefore, the term ‘Acquisition Planning’ is the most suitable to cover all places where the language is acquired. Acquisition planning is the type of LP which aims either to impact the aspects of language such as language status, distribution and literacy through education by the state or local

government system. Or it can be used by non-governmental organizations, but it is more commonly associated with government planning.

Cooper (1989) stated three types of acquisition planning relying on its goals which facilitate the progress of language acquisition planning:

- a- Acquisition of a language as a second or foreign language, such as in the case of Britain that has programs to teach English to immigrants, and teaching French in Algeria.
- b- Reacquisition of a language that is recognized as a vernacular for its people as in the case of Maori in New Zealand.
- c- Language maintenance as efforts to eliminate the death of a language.

1.2.2.4 Prestige planning

Haarmann (1990) proposed ‘prestige planning’ as a new range of LP activities. The previously mentioned types have not paid much attention to an important hidden fundamental side, which is the side of human behavior and psychological aspects in receiving the planned language. After adding prestige planning the LP implementation began to be examined from the receiver perspective, as well as the approval of the public and recipients’ attitudes toward the planned language. He also differentiates between aspects of LP by claiming that corpus planning and status planning are productive activities, whereas prestige planning studies how productive planning activities are acted upon by policymakers and received by the people. Haarmann (1990) stated that prestige planning is “receptive, required for both status and corpus planning, and required by both the actors and the targets of planning” (as cited in Goul, 2012, p. 47)

1.2.3 Stages of Planning Language Variety

Djennane (2016) stated that Einar Haugen (1972) claims that the planning process goes through the following stages:

a) - Selection:

The first stage is selecting a language variety to fulfill a certain function in a given community. In the case of a multilingual society where different regional dialects and languages are used, the solution is to eliminate this high degree of variability by choosing one of the many forms that exist in a society to be standard.

b) - Codification:

Once the variety is selected and gained general approval, creating a linguistic code to the chosen variety comes as a second stage. It basically means to develop a writing system; setting up rules for grammar, pronunciation, syntax, and vocabulary. And even more, publishing grammar textbooks and dictionaries. The stage of codification is divided into three levels: Graphitization, grammaticalization, and lexicalization.

c) - Implementation:

Promoting the previous stages is done by making society more exposed to this language. This level is usually done by the government. It typically involves materials production (books, newspapers, websites, etc.) in the codified language variety.

d) – Elaboration

Elaborating a language is developing it to meet the needs of modern society. Since the world and technology are in constant evolution, the language needs to be updated. Borrowings from another language, creating new terms and neologisms can help with this.

This process is summarized in Haugen's revised model of language planning as follows:

Table1.1: Haugen's Revised Model of Language Planning.

	Form (policy planning)	Function (language cultivation)
Society (Status planning)	1. Selection (Decision procedures) (a) Problem identification (b) Allocation of norms	3. Implementation (Educational spread) (a) correction procedures (b) evaluation
Langauge (Corpus planning)	2. Codification (Standardization procedures) (a) graphization (b) grammatication (c) lexication	4. Elaboration (functional development) (a) terminological modernization (b) stylistic development

(as cited in Djenanne, 2016, p. 16)

1.3 Section II: Language Contact Phenomena

This second section, as mentioned before, focuses on some language contact phenomena.

1.3.1 Language Contact

There is no pure language; all languages went through major changes at some point in time and that is what we call *language change*. There are many factors that led to language change. In this part, we will discuss one of them which is *language contact* as Gramely (2012) noted that "Language contact is a major factor in language change". (as cited in www.thoughtco.com)

The simplest definition of language contact is the use of more than one linguistic code in the same place and at the same time. According to Gramely (2012) "Contact with other languages and other dialectal varieties of one language is a source of alternative

pronunciations, grammatical structures, and vocabulary" (ibid). To explain more it shows up when the speakers of different languages communicate and their languages impact each other at many levels such as pronunciation, vocabulary, structure, and others which means there is no language to be free of foreign elements because languages influence each other.

Sujoldzic (2009) mentioned that Language contact developed and changed its profile to become the field of *contact linguistics*. This complex approach includes a number of disciplines related to the phenomenon of language contacts like sociology, anthropology, ethnology, and psychology. The history of contact linguistics can be traced back to the end of the eighteenth century. During collecting materials for dictionaries, lexicographers faced the problem of deciding whether to include words and expressions from foreign origins in their dictionaries. This problem made linguists aware of what they used to call at that time *mixed languages* is a serious phenomenon should be dealt with by language researchers. Language contact occurs in a variety of phenomena we will discuss below.

1.3.2 Bilingualism and multilingualism

Both terms multilingualism and bilingualism are deriving from Latin words. Bilingualism means a person's ability to use two languages *bi+lingual* are two Latin words mean two-tongued. Whereas, multilingualism refers to the speaker who has the ability to express himself/ herself in several languages *multi* means many, and *lingua* means language.

From what we mentioned before we can say that bilingualism is a specific case of multilingualism, but the two terms have been in terminological and epistemological conflict. Although it is clear from the prefixes bi and multi, Kadem (2015) stated that some linguists like Fishman (1971) use these terms interchangeably. To be more practical and to overcome the issue of terminology, the term bilingualism and multilingualism will be used

interchangeably in the second chapter to refer to the presence of at least two languages in the same speaker.

1.3.2.1 Bilingualism

Bilingualism is described as the most complex process of language contact. It is simply the situation where two or more languages are used by an individual or a community as it is defined by Bouamran (1986): “The use by an individual, a group or nation of two or more languages in all uses to which put either” (as cited in Ghoul, 2012, p. 27). From this definition, we can construct two forms of Bilingualism which are societal bilingualism and individual bilingualism.

Downes (1998, p.46) defines societal bilingualism as “the situation in which two or more distinct languages form the repertoire of a community”. Societal bilingualism is the case of a society in which two languages equally used in all the sectors of life by the whole population. But in fact, this is somehow impossible because often there is a superiority of one language or a variety over the others. On the individual level, P.Jones and Baker (1998, p. 117) stated that “the term ‘bilingualism’ is typically used to describe the two languages of an individual” and they added:

A person may be able to speak two languages, but tends to speak only one language in practice. Alternatively, an individual may regularly speak two languages but has a halting fluency in one language. People’s ability or proficiency in two languages may be separate from their use of two languages. This is sometimes referred to as the difference between degree (proficiency or competence in a language) and function (actual use of two languages).

(ibid, p. 3)

Most of the linguists agree on the part that individual bilingual is the person who uses two languages or more. He could be able to speak both of them, but in ordinary life, he prefers to

use one of them. Or perhaps he uses each language as frequently as the other, but he masters one better than the other. Or maybe he uses each language for a different purpose. This variation in proficiency, linguistic ability, and language utilization made linguists disagree on one definition for individual bilingualism. We will discuss this point in details in the coming parts.

There is a third form of bilingualism called political bilingualism, K.Bahatia (2017) defines it as the process of promoting bilingualism as a language policy of the country, where in fact, it does not reflect its real linguistic situation. For instance, Canada is officially a bilingual country, but in reality, it is not. English is the only official language except for New Brunswick where they added French as a second official language.

1.3.2.1.1 Bilingualism levels

The definition of bilingualism differs from one linguist to another, and this variation is related to the level of proficiency concerning the two languages. In fact, there are two opposing views, which are the maximalist and the minimalist approach.

1.3.2.1.1.1 The Maximalist approach

According to Kadem (2015), the maximalist approach is presented by a number of scholars such as Holliday, Bloomfield, and others who believe in ambilingualism. The term ambilingualism means that the individual has an equal proficiency in both languages in all domains and where no language impacts the other. For example, Bloomfield (1933) identifies a bilingual as a speaker who should have “native-like control of two or more languages” (as cited in Singleton & Aronin, 2012, p. 2)

1.3.2.1.1.2 The Minimalist approach

This opposing view argues that there are no ideal ambilingual individuals because of many factors, such as ethnic specialization, society, and culture. The mentioned factors unable

speakers to be fully competent in two different languages, without neglecting the preference paradigm where the speaker prefers one language over the other in a bilingual situation. Haugen (1953) states that “bilingualism is understood...at the point where the speaker of one language can produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language” (as cited in Kadem, 2015, p. 10). Weinreich (1953) also defines it as “The practice of using alternately two languages” (ibid). Both Haugen and Weinreich agree that the speaker who masters his mother tongue and has the ability to produce or receive in the second language is labeled as bilingual.

1.3.2.1.2 Bilingualism typology

Kadem (2015) mentioned that to overcome the problem of giving a suitable definition for bilingualism where most linguists are satisfied with, researchers classified it into different types. Some of the individual bilingualism types are mentioned below:

- **Early bilingual:** is the person who acquired two languages at an early stage from his life. An example of this is the situation of Algerians where most of them are considered early bilinguals because they acquired French in addition to their mother tongue (AA/BR).
- **Successive bilingual:** According to Grosjean (2010) “As for successive bilinguals, children who first acquire one language and then the other.” (p.198) we can say that a successive bilingual is a person who starts learning a new language while he is still consolidating his first language. An example of this is an Algerian individual who starts to learn English as a third language at school.
- **Passive bilingual:** someone who understands a second language in either its spoken or written form, but cannot speak it.
- **Dormant bilingual:** Someone who is living his life with using just one language even though, he masters other languages and used them before. In other words, he used to be

active bilingual interacting with the world around him using his different languages to become a single language user. As Grosjean (2010) stated:

Changes in the life of bilinguals, such as immigration or the loss of a close family member, may be the start of what is sometimes referred to as language loss or language attrition...People who are in this extended process of forgetting a language and are using only one language are “dormant bilinguals” they often avoid using the fading language because they no longer feel sure about their knowledge of it.

(ibid, p. 90, 92)

So, this can happen at any time and is usually due to major life changes such as the loss of someone he/she loves or the immigration to a foreign country for a long period of time which will decrease his/her opportunity to use the first language.

Societal bilingualism is a sociolinguistic phenomenon that characterizes a whole society whereas individual bilingualism characterizes individuals. Pohl (1965) set three types of societal bilingualism:

- **Horizontal bilingualism:** P.Jones and Baker (1998, p. 701) define horizontal bilingualism as “situations where two languages have similar or equal status.”

B.Beardsmore (1986) also stated that :

Horizontal bilingualism occurs in situations where two distinct languages have equivalent status in the official, cultural and family life of a group of speakers and it is mostly found, according to Pohl, amongst upper-level speakers.

(p. 5)

To simplify this, horizontal bilingualism is the situation where two different and unrelated languages have the same official, cultural, and family life status in a speech community. An example of this is the status of standard Arabic and French in Algeria.

- **Diagonal bilingualism:** according to B.Beardsmore (1986) :

Diagonal bilingualism occurs with speakers who use a dialect or non-standard language together with a genetically unrelated standard language, as can be found in Louisiana in the United States (Louisiana French and English). (ibid)

In other words, it shows up in communities where speakers use dialect (non-standard language) along with a non-related standard language. Like French/Algerian Arabic, and French/Tamazight in Algeria.

- **Vertical bilingualism:** it occurs in communities where speakers use standard language with a different but related non-standard language (dialect). As Pohl mentioned:

For Pohl vertical bilingualism obtains when a standard language, together with a distinct but related dialect, coexist within the same speaker, the more generally accepted term for this situation is diglossia.

(ibid)

A good example of vertical bilingualism is the situation of standard Arabic and Algerian Arabic within the Algerian society. This point will be the focus of our research, and it will be discussed in details in the second chapter.

1.3.2.2 Multilingualism

The term multilingualism will be discussed in this part, referring to the use of three or more languages and is distinguished from bilingualism.

The term/concept of multilingualism is to be understood as the capacity of societies, institutions, groups, and individuals to engage on regular basis in space and time with more than one language in everyday life... Multilingualism is a product of the fundamental human ability to communicate in a number of languages. Operational distinctions may then be drawn between social, institutional, discursive and individual multilingualism.

(Aronin & Hufeisen, 2009, p. 33, 34)

Generally speaking, multilingualism is an interdisciplinary phenomenon that refers to the ability to speak and to understand three or more languages. And as it is the situation for bilingualism, multilingualism also can be studied from two perspectives individual and societal.

Individual multilingualism or multilingual citizens have the ability to communicate in several languages. However, there are no perfect multilingual speakers, because even if they acquire several languages in one place, there will always be a language that dominates over the others. As C. Maher (2017) stated in his book that “A multilingual person is not someone who has mastered several languages; rather it is someone who uses language for different functions in different contexts.” (p. 5)

The second perspective is societal multilingualism, which is the co-existence of several languages within one society. These languages could be native or foreign, official or unofficial, and national or international languages.

Due to immigration, colonialism, and imperialism, most societies of the world became multilingual societies. Algerian society is not an exception, where a number of languages are spoken in Algeria such as standard Arabic, Algerian Arabic, Berber varieties, French and English.

1.3.2.2.1 Lingua franca

The consequences of multilingualism are numerous. Lingua Franca is a famous one of them. Bakker (1997, p. 10) defines lingua franca as “ a language-not necessarily reduced in lexicon on in its grammatical system-used by people who have different mother tongues in order to communicate with one another”. When people from different linguistic background interact in a condition that no one knows the language of the other, in such situation interlocutors will tend to create a new language in order to communicate with each other.

Today, the most famous language that is used as lingua franca is English. According to Björkman (2013, p. 3):

To many, the nineteenth century was the time when English first reached a strong global position. By the end of the nineteenth century, Britain, with its many communities of English speakers settling around the world alone with trade, enables English to become the world's lingua franca.

Due to trade and colonialism, English language expanded largely in the world and gained the status of the global lingua franca. Arabic also functions as lingua franca among Arabic countries because it is related to the spread of Islam.

1.3.2.2 Mutual intelligibility

In this part, we will discuss another consequence of multilingualism, which is mutual intelligibility. The term mutual intelligibility refers to a situation where two or more speakers of closely related languages or dialects can understand each other because of the similarities between their languages. Campbell (2004) mentioned mutual intelligibility in her book saying that:

Mutual intelligibility: when speakers of different linguistic entities can understand one another. This is the principal criterion for distinguishing dialects of a single language from distinct languages (which may or may not be closely related). Entities which are totally incomprehensible to speakers of other entities clearly are mutually unintelligible, and for linguists they, therefore, belong to separate languages.

(p. 217)

According to this, we can guess whether languages or dialects are from the same linguistic entities or not, according to the mutual intelligibility between them. So we can take mutual intelligibility as a gauge to see how languages are related.

1.3.3 Diglossia

Diglossia is a common sociolinguistic phenomenon that characterizes bilingual/multilingual societies, where two or more linguistic systems coexist within the same speech community

1.3.3.1 Definition of diglossia

Ferguson (1972) defines diglossia as a concept used “ to refer to a situation where two varieties of a language exist side by side throughout the community, with each having a definite role to play” (Cooper et al, 2001, p. 137). He also describes it as a situation in which “two or more varieties of the same language are used by some speakers under different conditions” (ibid). To conclude, we can describe diglossia as a type of sociolinguistic situations in which there is a clear differentiation in function between the languages or language varieties used in the community.

Ferguson sees diglossia as two varieties of a given language that are undoubtedly related.

He summarized diglossia as follows:

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

(A. Ferguson, 1959, p. 336)

Ferguson made a division between a High (henceforth H) variety and a Low (hereafter L) variety. Both are linguistically related, but significantly different from one another. The L variety and the H variety of Arabic language are optimally distant, which make Arabic language one of the most prominent examples of diglossia. In addition to other languages such as Swiss German and Greek, the table below summarizes it all:

Table1.2: Ferguson division of H and L, 1959, p. 327 (ibid)

	H is called	L is called	
Arabic	<i>Classical (=H) ' </i>	<i>al-fusha</i>	<i>'al-'ammiyyah,</i> <i>'ad-darij</i>
	<i>Egyptian (=L)</i>	<i>'il-fasih, 'in-nahawi</i>	<i>'il/-ammiyya</i>
Sw. German	<i>Stand. German (=H)</i>	<i>Schriftsprache</i>	<i>Hoochtiitsch</i>
	<i>Swiss (=L)</i>	<i>[Schweizer] Dialekt,</i> <i>Schweizerdeutsch</i>	<i>Schwyzertuutsch</i>
H. Creole Greek	<i>French (=H)</i>	<i>franccais</i>	<i>creole haltien</i>
	<i>Hand L</i>	<i>katharevusa</i>	<i>dhimotikl</i>

Fishman (1970) developed the definition of diglossia by distinguishing four sociolinguistic situations which are:

- H as classical and L as vernacular; in this situation, the two are genetically related. Such as the situation of standard Arabic and Algerian Arabic.
- H as classical and M as a vernacular; the two are genetically unrelated, e.g. Standard Arabic and Berber.
- H as written/formal spoken and L as vernacular; the two are not genetically related.
- H as written/formal spoken and L as vernacular; the two are genetically related.

1.3.3.2 Characteristic features of diglossia

Arokay, Gvozdanovic, and Miyajima (2014) mentioned that Ferguson (1959) defined the following characteristic features of diglossia:

- a- Function:** One of the most important features of diglossia is setting a function for both H and L varieties, for instance, using the H variety for formal situations and the L

variety for informal situations. As an illustration, a sample of possible situations is given as follows:

Table1.3: Ferguson's 1959 illustration of the status of French and Creole in Haiti²

	H	L
Sermon in church or mosque	X	
Instructions to servants, waiters, workmen, clerks		X
Personal letter	X	
Speech in parliament, Political speech	X	
University lecture	X	
Conversation with family, friends, colleagues		X
News broadcast	X	
Radio "soap opera"		X
Newspaper editorial, news story, caption on picture	X	
Caption on political cartoon		X
Poetry	X	
Folk literature		X

(Ferguson, 1959, p. 329)

- b- Prestige:** nearly most of languages speakers regard H as superior to L. they have the feeling that His real and L is the fake version. For example, Arabic speakers may say that L speakers do not know Arabic where in fact they mean they do not know H, although they may be fluent and effective speakers of L. In other words, they consider H variety the prestigious one.
- c- Literary heritage:** a sizable body of written literature is in H, which is held in high esteem by the speech community.
- d- Acquisition:** The majority of parents use L in speaking to their children. And children themselves interact with each other with L. As a result, children acquire L first as their

mother tongue (first language), and Hi is learned later on through formal education as a second language.

- e- **Standardization:** H has established norms for pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and orthography while L variety has neither codified norms nor settled orthography, but it has a wide variation in pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary.
- f- **Stability:** Diglossia can typically survive at least several centuries, due to adjustment and borrowing.
- g- **Grammar:** Generally, in all cases of diglossia, there are wide differences between the grammatical structures of H and L. H has grammatical categories and inflectional system of nouns and verbs which is reduced or totally absent in L.
- h- **Lexicon:** it is the existence of paired items referring to common concepts used in both H and L, in other words, it is the case where the vocabulary of H and L is shared with variations in form, use, and meaning.
- i- **Phonology:** according to Ferguson (1959), H and L have a single phonological structure in which L phonology is basic, and the divergent features of H phonology are either a subsystem or a parasystem.

1.3.4 Borrowing

Borrowing is a natural outcome of language contact and a consequence, and it is simply defined as loaning a word, phrase, or idiomatic phrase from one language and using it in another. Gumperz (1999) defines borrowing as follows:

Borrowing consists of the introduction of single words or short, frozen, idiomatic phrases from one language into the other. The items in question are incorporated into the grammatical system of the borrowing language and they are treated as part of its lexicon, take on its morphological characteristics and enter into its syntactic structure.

Once a language adopts a new word or phrase from another language, it becomes a part of the recipient language grammatical system, lexicon, morphology, and also enters its syntactic structure.

According to Ghoul (2013), borrowing can be caused by several factors such as the close contact between two languages, educational or technological needs (filling gaps of the vocabulary in the recipient language), or the domination of some languages on the others (for cultural, economic, political, or other reasons). Weinreich (1968) believes that borrowing can also be used for prestigious purposes (ibid, p.11) because the speakers of the recipient language believe that those words are more prestigious than their language words.

Katamba(2005), stated in his book two types of borrowing which are direct and indirect borrowing. If the recipient language took the word directly from the donor language, as English took the word *omelette* from French, we call this direct borrowing. But in other situations, the word may be borrowed indirectly from a language that itself borrowed it from another language. An example of indirect borrowing is the word coffee in English: *Kahveh* (Turkish) ► *Kahva* (Arabic) ► *Koffie* (Dutch) ► *Coffee* (English).

1.3.5 Code switching

In linguistics, code-switching occurs when a bilingual individual easily switches from one language into the other in the same conversation to fulfill a certain communicative purpose. Haugen (1956) stated this in his definition saying that code-switching is a linguistic process “which occurs when a bilingual introduces completely unassimilated words from another language to his speech” (as cited in Schmidt, 2014, p. 20).

Researchers recognize three types of code switching: intra-sentential code switching, used to refer to alternation within sentences, and inter-sentential code switching when switching occurs between sentences. The third type is tag-switching, which involves the insertion of a tag from one language into an utterance in another language.

1.4 Conclusion

As we have highlighted in the introduction to this chapter, we first reviewed a number of traditional and current definitions of language planning and language policy in addition to the relationship between them. We also tried to provide a general overview of different language planning activities.

Secondly, we explained some language contact phenomena and how language varieties are mixed within the same community, which causes the emergence of bilingualism, diglossia, borrowing, and code-switching. These different notions have been tackled by providing concrete definitions, listing, and discussing their types.

This chapter is a preliminary framework of language and is considered as a platform on which we will build the coming chapters. In the second chapter, we aim to describe the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria and how it affects primary school education policy.

Chapter Two

**The Implementation of Mother
Tongue as a Medium of Instruction in
the Algerian Primary School
Education.**

2.1 Introduction

Maghreb inhabitants in general and Algerians, in particular, have always been in contact with other foreign nations at different periods of history. This contact had a great impact on the present sociolinguistic situation of Algeria, which is particular and very complicated due to many factors such as historical, geographical, and socio-cultural factors.

Algeria went through a long and very interesting history full of events and different invasions from various cultures, due to its strategically important location and its richness. Such a complicated sociolinguistic situation had a noticeable impact on the Algerian primary school education policies.

This chapter discusses the possibility of using mother tongue as medium of instruction in the Algerian primary school education. We divided the chapter into two sections. The first section is an overview of Algeria's sociolinguistic situation, where it begins with general information about the geographical and historical background of the country, then we mentioned the different varieties and languages used in the Algerian society.

In the second section, we discussed language policy applied in primary school education and its issues. Then we suggested Mother tongue-based education as a solution with mentioning some successful endeavors from other countries experiences.

2.2 Section I: The sociolinguistic situation of Algeria

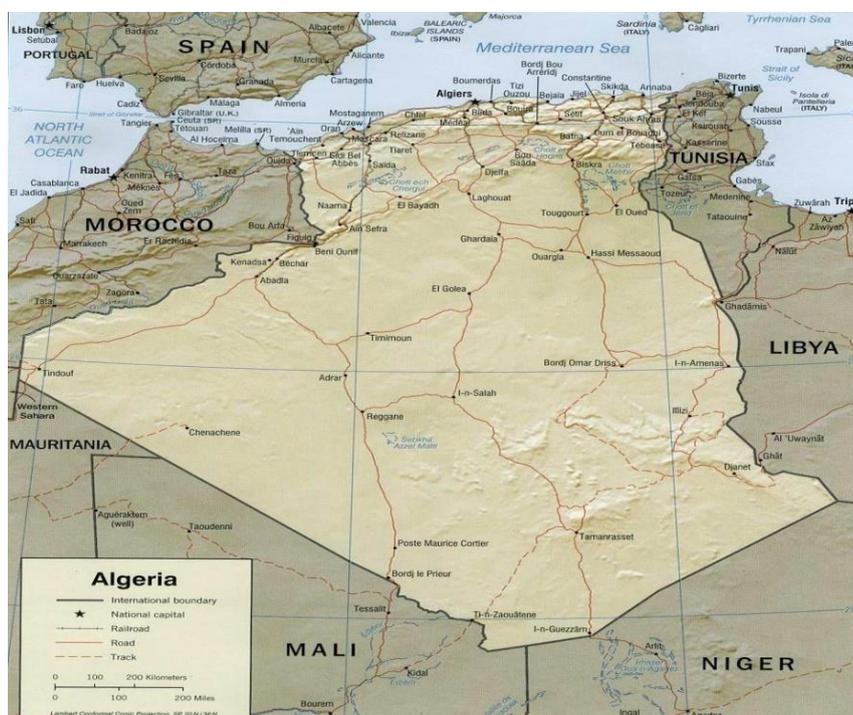
In order to understand the linguistic diversity within the Algerian society, we need first to take a look at its geographical situation and its history.

2.2.1 Geographical situation

Geographically, Algeria or the People's Democratic Republic of Algeria is situated in North Africa and made up of 48 provinces (Wilayas). According to McColl (2005), Algeria is

bordered to the west by Morocco, to the east by Tunisia and Libya, to the southeast by Niger, to the southwest by the Western Saharan territory; Mauritania; and Mali, and to the north by Portugal; Spain; and France behind the Mediterranean Sea. Such a strategic location made Algeria a meeting point for three important powerful civilizations which are: the European civilization, the Asian civilization, and the African civilization. Its location and its rich natural resources attracted the greedy invaders from all around the world.

Algeria is considered as the largest country in Africa, among Arab countries, and the tenth largest country in the world with a total area of 2,381,751 square kilometers. The population of Algeria is estimated at 42.68 million with a messy distribution throughout the country. The most populated area in Algeria is the northern part of the country due to its fertile coastal cities that are located on the shores and its pleasant rainy climate. The most famous city in the north is Algiers the capital of Algeria. As we move southward, the population distribution decreases which is normal because of the hot climate in Sahara.



Map 2.1: Algeria Geographical Location (www.geographicguide.com)

2.2.2 Historical background

Since time immemorial, North of Africa (Algeria) was the object of many invasions like the Phoenician, the Roman, Carthaginian, Arabs, French, and others. These historical events had a great impact and formed the current sociolinguistic situation of Algeria, which is distinguished by its diversity and complexity. Therefore, it is very important to provide an overview of the historical background of Algeria in order to understand the present complex linguistic profile of Algeria.

2.2.2.1 Prehistory

North of Africa is a very ancient civilization. Its history is traced back to 200.000 B.C. where significant remnants from the Neolithic civilization were found near Saïda. The Neolithic civilization in the North of Africa was characterized by subsistence agriculture and animal domestication. This type of economy is widely depicted in Tassili cave paintings in the southeast of Algeria.

The amalgam of peoples in the North of Africa produced eventually distinct native inhabitants that came to be known as the Berbers nowadays. Their life was quite simple based on hunting and agriculture, and they spoke different Berber languages such as Kabyle, Mozabi, and Shawia. But these languages lacked a written language and hence tended to be overlooked or marginalized in historical accounts.

The origins of Berber seem to be unknown or clearly stated as Humbarci (1981, p.12) mentioned that “The Berbers, apparently, one of the oldest races in the world, no one seems able to trace their origins”

2.2.2.2 Classical period

In 900 B.C, Phoenician traders settled on the North African coast and established the Carthaginian state around 800 B.C. During this period, the territorial expansion enforced the enslavement, taxation, and the military recruitment of some Berbers. However, trade between Berbers and Phoenician was growing. After seven centuries of ruling the region, the Phoenicians were defeated by the Romans during the Punic wars.

The Berber territory became a part of the Roman Empire, where the Roman occupation lasted for more than six centuries. It expanded largely in the areas under cultivation and obliged the Nomadic tribes to move from traditional rangelands which caused wholesale dislocations of the Berber tribes. Consequently, they lost the connection with their land, which made the resistance constant by the tribes towards the Romans. During this period, most of the towns were depending on agriculture and the area was called “the granary of the empire”. Concerning religion, Christianity arrived in the second century and by the end of the fourth century, the settled areas had become Christianized, and some Berber tribes had converted to Christianity.

The Vandals invasion did not last long and its influence was as weak as the short period they spent in the area. Byzantines put an end to their domination in the area. Byzantines occupied Algeria in 534 A.C and lasted for more than a century. During this period, Berbers returned to their lands after they had been pushed out. Arabs were next to invade Algeria, which ends up the Byzantine occupation.

During this period, the Berber kings wrote in the languages of their invaders (Greek and Latin), which shows their complete cultural and linguistic assimilation as Maougal (1997, p. 76) stated:

With the establishment of the first Berber kingdoms that we know; the history of the Berber people and dynasties will be transcribed in the Greek and Latin languages. Under the Roman occupation particularly, the language written by the Berber kings proves their total linguistic and cultural assimilation to the Hellenism and Latin.

The areas witnessed major changes in the language with the expansion of the Arabic language, as we will see in the next point.

2.2.2.3 Arab conquest

The first Arab expedition into North Africa was between 642 and 669. According to Morthad (1970), Arabs had the greatest impact and long lasting effects on the area until nowadays. Unlike the previous invasions, their main goal was religious by spreading Islam in the region. Many social norms and practices have been changed with the new comers, remarkable shifts considering linguistic, religious and socio-cultural view. (as cited in Medjdoub, 2010, p.40)

The Arab wave was undefeated and lasted for a long period of time. Berbers and Byzantines were not pleased with this and tried their best to defeat it. In 670, Uqbah Ibn Nafi was sent to take control of this resistance. To facilitate this operation, he built a town and named it Kairouan, in 674. It is situated in what we call today Tunisia, Ibn Nafi used Kairouan as a base for further operations.

At first, the contact between Arabs and Berbers was basically for the purpose of commercial exchange. Gradually, the Arabs start settling in the region bringing with them a modern lifestyle. At that time, Arabs were more advanced in poetry, art, and science. This obliged Berbers to learn the Arabic language especially that many of them converted to Islam. We can say that the Arabic language gained a high status in the North African community due to the rich culture that Arabs present. Marçais (1938) describes this saying:

In the 7th century, the Berber region broke up with the West, and was totally connected with the East, without conflict or crisis of consciousness. The new leaders of this region were the Arabs. They ceased to govern directly the country, but they marked it with an eternal stamp which is the Arabism as much as the whole of the Maghreb of today is considered as an eccentric province of Arabism.

(ibid, p.39)

The displacement of Berber varieties happened gradually, first with the use of the two languages side by side in a bilingual state, the marriages between the two ethnic groups and the growth of the Arab population. In addition to the new religion of Islam, where the new Muslim person had to learn Arabic to pray and read the Quran.

In the 11th century, the linguistic situation of the region witnessed a new transformation with the invasion of Banu-Hilal. They spoke a rural Arabic which led to the existence of two varieties together: the rural variety of Banu Hilal and the urban variety spoken by the first coming Muslims.

2.2.2.4 Spanish and Turkish invasions

Whatever the historical events that took place during the first century of Arabic occupation, the situation became more complicated because of the new linguistic contact with new invaders languages: Spanish in the west, and Turkish occupation in the 16th century.

Mnisi (1990) stated that both of Spain and turkey wanted to occupy Algeria, and this is somehow caused a conflict between these two countries. Turkey won this war, and Algeria turned to be a province of the Ottoman Empire for nearly 300 years under the rule of Kheirreddine ,the Ottoman Mediterranean fleet captain, who also known by Barbarossa. Algeria was named *Djezayir* (i.e. *islands*) by Barbarossa in 1517 he also named Algiers by the same name *Djezayir*.

Turkish was the spoken language during the Ottoman occupation. Both of Turkish and Spanish language left a clear influence on the linguistic situation of Algeria where some borrowed words clearly exist in urban speech. Such as *ṭabse* which means a plate and *Karantita* which means hot. These new inserted words have left a big impact on Algerian Arabic. However, the greatest influence was from the French language, which has a massive role in changing the Algerian linguistic profile during and after the occupation, as we will see next.

2.2.2.5 French occupation

The world witnessed a wave of colonization where European countries, like Britain and France, were powerful and tried to be more powerful as a kind of competition by acquiring the world's wealth and affirmation of power. Asia, America, and Africa were perfect sources for them and rich lands to be explored.

Algeria was one of the most famous French colonies in Africa. The story started as the French side with what is called the fly Swatter incident in 1830, as Prochaska (1990) stated:

The French invasion of Algeria in 1830 is usually treated as an attempt by Charles X to deflect internal discontent in France by engaging in an external adventure in Algeria, using as an excuse the fact that the French consul in Algiers had been slapped in the face by the Dey of Algiers with a fly swatter, literally losing face in the process. (p.62)

The fly swatter incident was just an excuse to invade Algeria, where in fact the real reason was distracting the French population from what is happening in their country. As a consequence of this excuse, France blockade Algiers for three years, and then they used the failure of the siege as another excuse for a military expedition against Algiers in 1830.

The French occupation lasted for more than a century in Algeria. During this period, they applied many strategies to ensure their existence in the area. One of the policies that French

applied right after the invasion was, in one hand, reducing the use of Arabic language and limiting the culture. On the other hand, they imposed French language as the official language and the only language used as Versteegh (1998, p. 260) stated that “During the long years of French occupation (Morocco 1912-56; Algeria 1830-1962; Tunisia 1881-1956), the population of the ‘colonies’ was constantly exposed to the French language and French culture.” And he added:

Unlike British colonial policy, the French authorities aimed at the assimilation and integration of the indigenous population. The official point of view was that France did not colonize other countries in order to exploit them, but in order to bring them French civilization.

(ibid, p.259)

France saw that imposing the French language and spreading it in the Algerian society is the most effective way to dominate the country and to exterminate the Algerians’ language. Because language is the mirror of the nation identity and if you want to succeed in destroying a country, the easiest way is to destroy its language and culture.

Occupation is one of the most famous causes of bilingualism in the world, and this is exactly the case of Africa in general and Algeria in particular. According to Guernina (1994), the French occupation aimed at fighting Arabic education, and encouraged Algerians to learn French, which they pictured it as the language of knowledge and civilization. As a result, bilingualism shows up when Algerians started learning with French because they were sent to French schools. However, Algerians learned the colonizer language and became as proficient as French people, but they were aware that French was a foreign language to them rather than their mother tongue.

2.2.3 Today's sociolinguistic situation of Algeria

Today's linguistic situation of Algeria is characterized by its richness and complexity. It is very intricate due to the historical, educational, political, ethnic, geographical, and socio-cultural factors in addition to the colonial occupation influences as we mentioned above. All these factors gave Algeria this sort of mosaic linguistic image where a number of local and foreign languages are used in the country. This situation is considered as a challenge to language planners, Ephraim Tabory and Mala Tabory (1987) have summarized Algeria's interest in language planning and policy as follows:

The Algerian situation is complex, as it is at a crossroad of tensions between French, the colonial language, and Arabic, the new national language; Classical Arabic versus colloquial Algerian Arabic; and the various Berber dialects versus Arabic. The lessons from the Algerian situation may be usefully applied to analogous situations by states planning their linguistic, educational and cultural policies.

(as cited in Kaplan and Baldauf, 2007, p. 7)

There are three main languages coexist side by side, chronologically, Berber, Arabic, and French language.

2.2.3.1 Berber/Tamazight

It is the language of the original people of Algeria since antiquity as Humbaraci stated that "The Berbers, apparently, are one of the oldest races in the world, no one seems able to trace their origins" Humbaraci Arsalan (1966, p. 12). BR is originated from an ancient language named Libyan which is a subdivision of an Afro-Asiatic language family named 'Hamito-Semitic'. Most of the BR varieties are used orally and lack an appropriate written form. But generally, the Latin script is the most commonly used. Abu-Haidar (2003) mentioned that:

Tamazight literature, originally oral, is now being written mostly in

Latin script. Several novels, collections of short stories and poems, by contemporary writers, have become available in print since 1970.

(as cited in Ghoul, 2013, p.21)

It was a challenge for Berbers to institutionalize their language. According to Turner (2006), in 2002 the Algerian president Bouteflika announced BR as a 'national language' after he stated that the officialization of Tamazight is not in his agenda as long as he is president, in 2002. This decision was disappointing for Berbers especially that their main request was to declare it as a 'co-official' language such as the case in Morocco. They did not give up until the good news came in 2016. After a long wait, the director of the Presidential Office Ahmed Ouyahia announced the article three within the constitutional draft which recognizes Tamazight as 'joint-official' language alongside Arabic. This decision gained politician approval as a step to reduce tensions, but it did not receive social approval. The society labeled Tamazight as a dialect of a minority and not a language. These negative judgments towards Tamazight need effective prestige planning to foster positive attitudes towards the new official language.

Ammon, Dittmar, Mattheier, and Trudgill (2014) stated that the use of Berber varieties in Algerian society is limited. It is mostly used as a medium of communication among their native speakers and there are a radio, and a public television station broadcasting in Tamazight. Tamazight has been introduced in schools as an optional subject. Teaching such varieties is highly challenging because of the status of BR and the negative attitudes towards it, not mentioning the lack of elaborated teaching materials. The learner of this language will find difficulties in finding suitable jobs in comparison with Arabic, French, and English unless he chose to teach it.

In Algeria, there are five major varieties of Tamazight can be distinguished: Takbaylit, Shawi, Shenwi, Mzabi, and Targui.

- Kabyle (Takbaylit): It is mainly spoken in four wilayas which are Tizi Ouzou, Bejaia, Bouira, and Boumerdès. It includes the largest number of speakers compared to other varieties.
- Shawi (Tashawit): is spoken in in Batna, part of Constantine, Khenchla and Oum-El-Bouaghi.
- Shenwi (tachenwit): is spoken in the Mountain of Chenwa located in West of Algiers by a minority variety
- Mzabi (Tamzabt): is spoken by the population of Ghardaïa.
- Targui: is the language of Touareg, the inhabitants of the Sahara like Ahaggar.

2.2.3.2 Arabic

According to Gates and Appiah (1999), Arabic is classified as a Semitic language used by mostly 400 million speakers around the world. It was introduced to North Africa since the 7th century by the Islamic expansion and the emigration of Arabic tribes such as Banu Hilal from the Arabian Peninsula in the 11th century. Today, Arabic is the official language of about 22 countries, including Algeria, and it has been developed as the *lingua franca* of the Arab Middle East.

Algeria defines itself as part of the Arab and Muslim world where eighty percent of the Algerian population speak at least one variety of Arabic. In Algeria, the term Arabic is a generic term where it covers 3 separate groups: Classical Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic, and Algerian Dialects.

2.2.3.2.1 Classical Arabic

Classical Arabic (henceforth CA) is also known as ‘*Quranic Arabic*’ which is labeled as a pure, original, and the archaic variety of Arabic language. It is also a prestigious and high variety used in classical literature, religious ceremonies and pre-Islamic poetry which

highlights the ancient periods of glory in the history of Arabs and Muslims. Sanneh (1989) describes one of the important characteristics of Classical Arabic:

Muslims ascribe to Arabic the status of a revealed language, for it is the medium in which the Qur'an, the sacred Scripture of Islam, was revealed in several passages the Qur'an bears testimony to its own Arabic uniqueness, what the authorities call its I'jaz or "immediate eloquence"... The author of the Qur'an, which is God, thus came to be associated with its speech, so that the very sounds of the language are believed to originate in heaven. Muslims have instituted the sacred Arabic for the canonical devotions.

(cited in Moha Ennaji, 2005, p.51)

CA is no one's mother tongue but it is used for Islamic liturgies by Muslims all over the world, irrespective of what their mother tongue is. The majority of Muslims study CA in order to read the *Quran* in its original language and pray correctly. The situation of CA in Algeria is not different, it mostly has religious connotations.

2.2.3.2.2 Modern standard Arabic

Modern Standard Arabic (henceforth MSA) is the simple form of CA concerning style and lexis. MSA is a result of changes that classical Arabic witnessed linguistically. Kagda (2018, p.96) defined it as "A modern form of Arabic, called modern literary Arabic or modern standard Arabic (MSA), is used for radio, television theater, and public speaking." . MSA is normally used in television, radio, theater, in public speaking, and as a medium of instruction in the Algerian school.

MSA is not anyone's mother tongue, but it is mostly used as a lingua franca between Arab countries or within the same Arabic community where more than one language or varieties are used. In the Arabic speaking societies generally, and in Algeria particularly, MSA is seen as a result of the two varieties of Arabic: Algerian Arabic as L and Standard Arabic as H. MSA is seen as an intermediate variety as Sujoldzic (2009) explains:

Members of the same speech community need not all speak the same language nor use the same linguistic forms on similar occasions. All that is required is that there be at least one language in common and that rules governing basic communicative strategies be shared that speakers can decode the social meaning carried by alternative modes of communication. (p. 82)

2.2.3.2.3 Algerian Arabic

Algerian Arabic (AA henceforth) is the mother tongue of the majority of the Algerians and it is also called *Darija* or *amiya*, as Nitzany (2017, p. 88) stated:

Out of estimated forty million people who live in Algeria (2016), around 75 % to 80 % speak Algerian Arabic, or Algerian (known as Darja or Dziria) as their first language, and another 20 % speak it as a second language.

AA is used in everyday life at home, in the supermarkets, and in the streets. It exists in many forms which of regional varieties: the central variety, the western variety, and the eastern one.

Mainly, AA is Arabic affected by the invaders languages as Nitzany(2017) stated:

Like other varieties of Maghreb Arabic, Algerian Arabic dialects have a mostly Semitic vocabulary, with significant underlayers and numerous loanwords from French, Ottoman, Turkish, and Spanish.

(ibid)

AA is not officially codified language but sometimes Algerians write it using Arabic, Latin script, and even numbers. And this is usually the case for chat rooms, Facebook posts, and phone short messages. Regardless of how widely it is used in the society, AA speakers perceive it to be less prestigious (the L variety), and informal in comparing with the other languages.

2.2.3.2.3.1 Algerian Arabic and language contact

AA is a good example of what we call an outcome of language contact. From a lexical point of view, AA contains a big number of borrowed words from different languages. The

borrowed words are mostly taken from the invaders languages. AA includes many Turkish words such as *Tobsi* (plate) and *maa'dnous* (parsley), etc. Spanish influence is also noticed in words such as *sberdina* (shoes), *bogado* (lawyer), etc. Many languages affected AA linguistically, but still the French language has the most powerful influence on it. A great number of words and expressions are borrowed from French into AA, as shown below:

Table 2.4: Some examples of borrowings from French into Algeria Arabic.

Dialect word	Dialect phonetic transcription	French word	English
كوزينة	/ku:sina/	Cuisine	Kitchen
طاباية	/t'a:bla/	Table	Table
كونكسيون	/kɔnnɛksjɔ̃/	Connection	Connexion
دوفيز	/d'əviz/	Devise	Currency

Code switching is also widely used among AA speaker, where in one sentence he can use a number of languages and varieties. Example of this, *nadfi t'a:bla w aghasli tbase*. *nadfi* means clean, *aghasli* means wash and both of them are Arabic verbs. *T'a:bl* means table and it is originally French. And finally, *tbase* means plates and it is originally Turkish.

2.2.3.3 French

As we discussed before, during the French occupation, which lasted nearly 130 years, French was imposed as an official language in the country in one hand. On the other hand, standard Arabic was given the status of a foreign language.

After independence in 1962, French is still used among Algerians until today, but this time as a foreign language. The use of French language was widely expanded in different domains such as administration, education, mass media, press, and even in everyday life for

some people. The French language is also widely used among politicians in speeches, in the summer of 1999, the previous Algerian president Bouteflika declared:

Algeria does not belong to Francophonie, but there is no reason for us to have a frozen attitude towards the French language which taught us so many things and which, at any rate, opened (for us) the window of French culture

(as cited in Baldauf & Kaplan 2007, p.10)

French language is also implemented as a foreign language since primary school as Grandguillaume (1983) points out:

The acquisition of the French language was widened to more important number of citizens after the independence with the including of its learning since primary school.

(as cited in Medjdoub, 2010,p.73)

2.3 Section II: Language policy in the Algerian primary school education

The Algerian student studies for a period of five years in primary school education where the normal age to admit to is six years. The main purpose of primary school is to help children to master three basic skills which are reading, writing, and numeracy. Moreover, its aim is to promote the personality of the student and to prepare them for societal life. The student finishes his primary school education by a final examination to gain a certificate of success called "Certificate of Primary Education. In this section, we will discuss the primary school policies, its issues, and a suggested solution with examples from the word.

2.3.1 Arabization as a language policy

In this part, we will try to discuss the Arabization policy, from its definition, its application in primary school education, and its issues. This process that the Algerians had

gone through was meant to get back one of their most significant features that shape their identity.

2.3.1.1 Definition

The main purpose of the Arabization policy was to discard the new Algeria from anything related to the French occupation and to establish a language restoration that promotes MSA as the official language of the state. In fact, the political aim that would be reached was to replace the French language by MSA. However, this process was not that easy because of the powerful impact that French had left among the Algerians as Weinstein (1990) stated:

Following their independence, each of the three states planned their Arabization. Their ultimate goal was to advance the Arabic language as the official and national language. They conceived of this enterprise as a restoration of the national personality in opposition to the cultural alienation associated with colonization during which written Arabic had been pushed aside by French in important domains... In other words, an Arabization policy consisted of replacing the French language by an Arabic language through a process which was much more difficult than it originally seemed enthusiasts. (p. 153)

So the term Arabization refers to the linguistic process that has been applied after independence in Algeria where policymakers decided to set MSA as the official and national language of the state. MSA was set to represent the country, allow its unity, restoring the national identity, and unifying it by using one language.

2.3.1.2 Arabization in Primary School Education

The government of President Houari Boumediene decided to implement Arabization, and the first step was to promote MSA in the administrations and at schools. Arabisation was introduced progressively in schools starting with the primary school where Arabic has been introduced as the language of instruction. According to Jacob and Beer (1985):

As to Arabization and Algerianization, by 1974 the first two years of primary school have been exclusively in Arabic, with French only introduced as a second language in the third year, and all of the teachers in primary school are Algerians (even if they teach subjects in French). (p. 137)

In 1974, Arabization took place in primary school education. The first and second years are Arabized where MSA is used as a medium of instruction. The French language is added as a foreign language in addition to MSA in the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth year. The following table by Granguillaume (1983) shows the status of Arabization in primary school:

Table 2.5: the status of Arabization in primary school (1973/1974).

Grade	Status of Arabization
1 st	Totally arabized.
2 nd	Totally arabized.
3 rd	Totally arabized and French is a foreign language.
4 th	Totally arabized and French is a foreign language.
5 th	1/3 of the classes totally arabized and French is a foreign language.
6 th	1/3 of the classes totally arabized and French is a foreign language.

(as cited in Ghoul, 2013, p. 59)

2.3.1.3 Arabization issues

Linguistically, the implementation of Arabization appears to meet several problems related to the presence of other languages and varieties which serves different and sometimes similar roles within the Algerian community. According to Ghoul (2013, p. 62):

The implementation of the process of immediate and total Arabization sharpened the gap between written languages, that is, MSA, FR, and sometimes English, on one hand, and spoken languages: AA and BR on

the other hand. Furthermore, the attempt to introduce MSA in all fields of activity heightened the problem of which language should be used for what purpose.

During our research we will focus on the inconsistency found between AA and MSA, and how it affects primary school education process.

After independence, The Algerian government reinforces MSA in education through language planning policy. The curriculum in the primary school includes teaching MSA as a subject, and it is also the sole language of academic instruction, in reading, writing, oral expression, and grammar. The native language of these students is AA, which they acquired first. Most of them would have developed some knowledge in MSA from children's TV shows, and their proficiency in it also varies according to their parent's level of education.

As Ayat Benmati (2008), stated that from the beginning, the Arabization of the education level was poorly supervised and suffered from inappropriate planning and a lack of clearly-defined pedagogical methods. The comprehension of the new curriculum was not easy for Algerian students for many reasons. First, the complexity of MSA, and the huge phonological and lexical differences between it and their mother tongue (AA/BR). Second, according to Boudellia Greffou (1989), the teacher was asked to correct pupils' mother tongue in the class as it is mentioned in the teacher's guide of primary school. So the child was forced to switch from AA/BR used at home to MSA. This step made students feel guilty for speaking their mother tongue, which is supposed to be wrong. Algerian students are faced with the need to learn their curriculum through the medium of MSA which is considered a new language for them. (ibid, p. 71)

2.3.2 Bilingual/ Dual education policy

As we have mentioned before, the sociolinguistic situation of Algeria is very complicated, and this is obvious and reflected by primary school education. The coexistence of many varieties and languages within the Algerian society affected the primary school policy where a number of dual bilingual situations appear in the classroom, such as AA/MSA, BR/MSA, FR/AA, FR/BR, and MSA/FR. During this investigation, we will focus on AA/MSA within the classroom.

According to Azzoug (2014), Primary schools provide a special type of contact situation between AA and MSA. It is true that MSA is set as a medium of instruction within the classroom, but both teachers and students find themselves obliged to use AA in some situations during their spoken interaction. Teachers sometimes, intentionally or unintentionally, switch to AA to explain better or to give instruction to students when they find difficulties in understanding with MSA. Students also express themselves freely when using their mother tongue.

At the case where the child speaks a certain language as his mother tongue, he will bring it to the classroom which will make it a linguistically rich environment. For this reason, it is more appropriate to avoid monolingual education especially at the first stages of primary school education where MSA is the only one to use. Rather, a bilingual environment that includes both AA and MSA is more appropriate.

2.3.2.1 Modern Standard Arabic vs. Algerian Arabic

MSA and AA are two varieties that genetically related but different to the extent that it has a certain impact on the learning-teaching process. The diglossic relationship between MSA and AA in which the official standard variety differs from the spoken one caused a major educational problem in primary schools. Diglossia contributed school dropout among

Algerians students because they are forced to start their education in a language other than their mother tongue. As we mentioned before there are many differences between MSA and AA, but in this part, we will discuss it from the diglossic point of view.

2.3.2.1.1 First and second language

One of the most significant differences between MSA and AA is that AA is considered the first language (henceforth L1) for the majority of the Algerians where they acquired it at home. Seel (2012, p.2980) defined L1 as “A first language, native language or mother tongue is a language that a person has been exposed to from birth or within the critical period.” Whereas MSA is the students second language (L2) where they learned in a formal setting such as schools as Seel stated (2012)“Second language learning (SLL) is concerned with the process and study of how people acquire a second language, which is often referred to as L2 or target language, as opposed to L1 (the native language).” (ibid) The existence of AA as L1 is a fact that cannot be denied. It absolutely has a certain role to play within the classroom.

2.3.2.1.2 Acquisition vs. learning

The two terms acquisition and learning are sometimes used interchangeably which is totally wrong, they are two different processes as Rosenthal (1996, p. xii) stated that:

Language acquisition (compare language learning): The unconscious development of language proficiency which does not involve schooling, classes, homework, textbooks, memorization, lessons, or drills; by means of acquisition, children became fluent in their first language and according to Krashen, only by acquisition can individuals become fluent in a second language.

The process of acquisition is mostly related to L1 (mother tongue). It is an innate or unconscious process of acquiring a language at home, in an informal setting, and at an early

age acquiring AA is a good example of this process. Rosenthal (1996) also defined the process of learning:

Language learning (compare language acquisition): The conscious study of a language, generally involving a teacher, textbook, a series of lessons, homework, memorization, and drills; according to Krashen, does not lead to second language fluency. (ibid)

Learning is the process related to the languages learned after the L1 like L2, L3, and L4...etc. It is a conscious process that takes place in a formal setting such as schools with structured lessons and textbooks as it is the situation of MSA in Algeria. The following table summarizes the differences between the two processes:

Table 2.6: A comparison between the acquisition process and the learning process.

Acquisition (L1/AA)	Learning (L2/MSA)
Unconscious process	Intentional process
Does not presuppose teaching	Presuppose teaching
The child controls the pace	The teacher controls the pace
No translation; no L1	Translation and the use of L1 included
Priority to the speaking language	Priority to the written language

(www.utesinternationallounge.com)

2.3.2.1.3 Structural level

Another acknowledged difference between them lies on their structural level. Some linguists stated that the AA structure reflects its analytic aspect, whereas the MSA structure reflects its synthetic aspect. This structural divergence did not come randomly, but it is a result of the complex linguistic process that MSA went through in the Algerian society. Kouloughli (1977) mentioned the main cause to the development of MSA when he stated that:

Once a language [Arabic] goes down to the street it will not degenerate but rather it will undergo the necessary linguistic evolution from synthetic to

analytic", it is to infer that the Arabic language is by definition a synthetic language, i.e. syntactic functions and changes in meaning are marked by the addition of affixes or prefixes, i.e. the morphological modification of the same root word.

(as cited in Azzoug, 2014, p.23)

MSA variety went through major changes at the structural level when it was introduced to the Algerian society. This change had an impact on its internal structure, which changed it to become less elaborated.

2.3.2.1.4 Function

Algerian speakers are aware of the dissimilarities in the function or the use of MSA (*al fussha*), which is considered H variety, and AA (*al amiya*) which is considered as the L variety. The use of two varieties can be differentiated according to the function of each one in the community as Wei (1994, p.7) stated that "One of the most important features of diglossia is the specialization of function for H and L." Saville-Troike (2003, p.45) summarized the major differences between the H and L varieties that we mentioned before as follows:

1. There is a specialization of function for H and L.
2. H has a higher level of prestige than L, and is considered superior.
3. There is a literary heritage in H, but not in L.
4. There are different circumstances of acquisition; children learn L at home, and H in school.
5. The H variety is standardized, with a tradition of grammatical study and established norms and orthography.
6. The grammar of H variety is more complex, more highly inflected.
7. H and L varieties share the bulk of their vocabularies, but there is some complementary distribution of terms.
8. The phonology of H and L is a single complex system.

2.3.3 Mother tongue as a medium of instruction policies

To overcome the problems that we have mentioned previously language planners need to bridge the gap between MSA and AA as Taleb El Ibrahimy (1973) stated that “In order to succeed, Arabisation has to bridge the gap between the spoken and the written forms of the language.”(as cited in Ghoul, 2013, p.63). We suggest as a potential solution, a transitional program which includes implementing the students’ Mother tongue (L1/*dardja*) as a medium of instruction. This program should be implemented at the first stages of primary school education along with teaching MSA (L2/ *fussha*) as an independent subject then to switch gradually to MSA as the new medium of instruction.

2.3.3.1 Mother tongue-based education policy

Pefianco Martin (2018) defined Mother tongue-based education as follows:

The MTBLE program emphasizes the role of the mother tongue in the acquisition of other languages. The presence of this policy provides for a more linguistically diverse period of early schooling. The policy relies on the mother tongue as a scaffold for learning therefore, the approach to language learning is clearly additive...the mother tongue is only a means to an end and not an end in itself. It is a scaffold but not the primary language of learning. This first language will be blanketed by a second and third language. The mother tongue is used for the first 3 years and gradually replaced by Filipino as the medium of instruction. (p. 43)

To summarize, MTBE is a transitional program applied in primary school education of multilingual/bilingual societies where a number of languages and varieties are used. This policy provides the students’ mother tongue as a platform for learning other languages during the first three years and then gradually replaced by the L2 as the new medium of instruction.

2.3.3.2 Bidialectal program

The issue of which variety to use as the medium of instruction in the primary school education of a bilingual community brought out much-heated debate to the society.

Bidialectal educational program involves the use of both mother tongue and the standard variety side by side in the classroom. This program helped children to have greater proficiency in the standard language than children taught in monolingual program using only the standard variety. Sharifian (2015) commented on this saying that:

The use of the students' D1 in the classroom had none of the detrimental effects predicted by educators and parents. On the contrary, the approaches in general led to higher scores in test measuring reading, writing or oral skills in the standard D2 and in overall academic achievement. Other benefits included greater interest and motivation, and higher rates of participation. (p. 434)

2.3.3.3 BICS and CALP

According to Gallagher (2008), Jim Cummins was the first who coined the terms BICS and CALP in the early 1980s. BICS is an acronym stands for Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills, in other words, it refers to the language (AA) skills needed for everyday life, social situations, and conversational communication including conversations with friends, and informal interactions. CALP, on the otherhand, stands for Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency, which refers to the language necessary (MSA) to understand and discuss the content of the classroom curriculum.

There is another idea of Cummins, around the language threshold, where he stated that the ability to develop competence in a new language relies on the competence of the first language, just like the strong building which depends on the strength of its foundation. Cummins (1980) has also stated that CALP is transferable from one language to another which means that the student who is proficient in his native language will easily acquire CALP in the second language because such a skills transfer from one language to another.

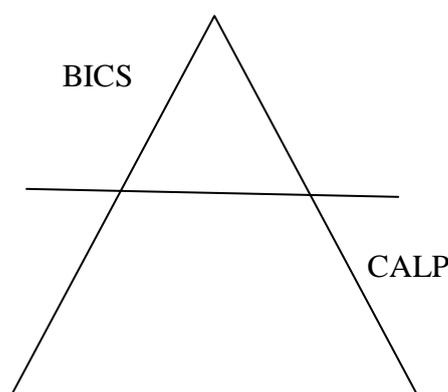


Figure 2.1: Cummins Iceberg (ibid, p. 37).

Cummins iceberg model explains that L2 grows from the foundation of the L1 and the stronger L1 is, especially CALP, the stronger L2 will be.

2.3.4 World cases of mother tongue-based education

There are many endeavors around the world of implementing mother tongue (L1) as a medium of instruction in primary school education we tried to mention some of them as examples.

2.3.4.1 Cambodian endeavor

According to Kosonen and Young (2009), Twenty-two languages are spoken within the Cambodian community where a number of ethnolinguistic minorities coexist such as Chinese, Cham, and Vietnamese. The medium of instruction at all levels of education was in Khumar, which is considered as the official language of the country. Khumar as a medium of instruction has generated serious problems in primary schools, to solve such problems L1-based bilingual education programs were implemented in formal and nonformal education by provincial education authorities in collaboration with the local ethnic minority communities.

The program has so far implemented five non-dominant languages as a medium of instruction in bilingual education these languages are Brao, Bunong, Kavet, Krung, and Tamuan. The experience of using the mother tongue as a medium of instruction has until

today been successful. Students in this program learn with their first language; then they switch gradually to Khumar, which is the country official language.

2.3.4.2 Papua New Guinea endeavor

According to Azzoug (2014), Papua New Guinea had made a total reform to its primary school education system. They added three years of elementary school to the six years of primary school. The language used as a medium of instruction in those three years was chosen by the community. English is implemented in the second or third year of elementary school and becomes the medium of instruction when learners reach a good level of proficiency in it.

2.3.4.3 Norwegian endeavor

Azzoug (2014) states that in Norway, most of the students have been educated to read and write in their mother tongue (D1) during the first years of primary school education. Once the students are ready, teachers gradually start using the standard variety of Norwegian. Teachers did not correct the students' writings. Instead, they encouraged the students to analyze and correct their own writings.

2.3.4.4 Malaysian endeavor

Kosonen and Young (2009) claim that there are about 140 languages spoken in Malaysia, but Malay is the official and the national language of the country. The constitution supports everybody to use, learn, and teach any language they choose. Formal education has two types of schools in Malaysia: the national primary school and national-type primary school. The first type uses standard Malay as a medium of instruction except science and mathematics are taught in English. The second type uses the student mother tongue as a medium of instruction, such as Tamil, Mandarin Chinese, and others. Science and mathematics are taught in both English and L1.

2.3 Conclusion

The present sociolinguistic situation of Algeria is characterized by its complexity where three languages coexist side by side within the community these languages are Arabic (AA/MSA), Berber, and French. The diversity of languages and varieties are spoken in the society caused different sociolinguistic phenomena like diglossia, bilingualism, borrowing, and code-switching.

This chapter tackled the history and the geographical setting of Algeria along with the different invasions. It also contains a brief description of today's linguistic situation of the country in addition to primary school education policies, its issues, and potential solution which is implementing mother tongue as a medium of instruction.

In the coming chapter, we are aiming to observe primary school educational classroom closely where our main focus will be on the medium of instruction used. We will also try to answer some questions concerning the same point.

Chapter Three

Data collection and Analysis

3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the overall methodology that we followed in conducting our study. It highlights the research approach and design we opted for. It therefore portrays an explicit and systematic account of the approach followed in data preparation and analysis, the type of data required (qualitative and quantitative), the target population and sample from which data was obtained, the research tools that were used, and also how the data is analyzed. Of course, the motivation beyond each choice is clarified. At the end of this chapter we tried to interpret the data we gathered.

3.2 Research methodology

Research methodology discusses the methodological consideration followed in this study namely: research approach, research design, data collection tools, and data collection procedures.

3.2.1 Research approach

The present study is conducted on the basis of a mixed methods design which is an approach to inquiry that matches both quantitative and qualitative data within the same research as Tashakkori & Teddlie (1998) stated that “mixed method studies are those that combine the qualitative and quantitative approaches into the research methodology of a single study or multi-phased study” (as cited in Kumar, 2014, p.20). The reason we opted for this approach is that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provides a complete understanding of our research topic than either approach alone. It measures and explores the behavior and attitudes of both teachers and students. It also tries to interpret the impact involved in using AA as a medium of instruction and the status of MSA in a specific institutional setting, which is, in this case, primary school classrooms.

It is believed that using various types of procedures for collecting data augments the validity and reliability of the data and their interpretations. Therefore, the various ways of boosting the validity and reliability of the data and instruments are used. These different instruments will be mentioned in details in the next parts.

3.2.2 Research design

According to Burns & Grove (2003) a research design is “a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings” (as cited in Rezaul, 2018, p. 4), and Paraho (19978) described it as “a plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analysed” (ibid). To explain more, research design is considered as a roadmap or a blueprint for researchers to conduct and address their research problem logically and as explicitly as possible. Setting a plan for the collection, measurement, and the analysis of data is very important to incorporate the different elements of the work in a coherent and logical order.

Our research is based on the case study method. Unlike the experimental and quasi-experimental methods, in the case study method researchers only observe the features of a case in its natural context, and they do not manipulate the variables. Yin (1984) discussed the case study as “unique one that examines a number of small samples in detail with its real life context.” (ibid, p. 150) We chose the case study method because it works the best for our work where we observe a real life problem that is concerned with the use and the status of AA/ MSA in the classroom, specifically, the case study of first year from the Algerian primary school education.

3.2.3 Population and sample

Selecting a population is an important step and one of the main concerns in conducting the fieldwork. The researchers have to define the target population relevant to their research study, but the population is still very large, which is somehow challenging to study all of it.

Subsequently, researchers have to select a sample that reflects the characteristics of the chosen population to facilitate the process. Houser (2016, p. 159) stated that “Sample, if selected carefully, can effectively represent the broader population. Because samples are more efficient and economical to study, their use enables researchers to study phenomena when reaching the entire population would be impossible.” Therefore, a sample is a small division of the population.

The target population in the current study relates to teachers and students of the Algerian primary school education. Since studying the whole population is impossible. We focused on a small sample, which is a limited number of teachers and students from El Oued. The sampling technique in our study is a probability sample where both samples were simple and random.

3.2.3.1 Classroom observation sampling

Since we opted for two classroom observations in two different classes at the same school named *Mihi Mohamed Belhadj* located in El-Oued, the sample contained two teachers and nearly seventy students. Both teachers were females; the first teacher was in her late 40s with almost eleven years of experience, and the second teacher was 31 years old with six years of experience in the educational sector. Students were almost 35 in each class and their age was between six and seven years in first year primary school class, and between seven and eight years in second year primary school class.

3.2.3.2 Questionnaire sampling

The questionnaire was handed to thirty teachers was chosen randomly from a population of nearly 120 teachers from three different primary schools in El-Oued namely: *Mihi Mohamed Belhadj*, *Naghmoush Salah Tahar*, and *Nssira El Mouldi primary school*. Among the respondents' were 13 females and 17 males as the pie shows below:

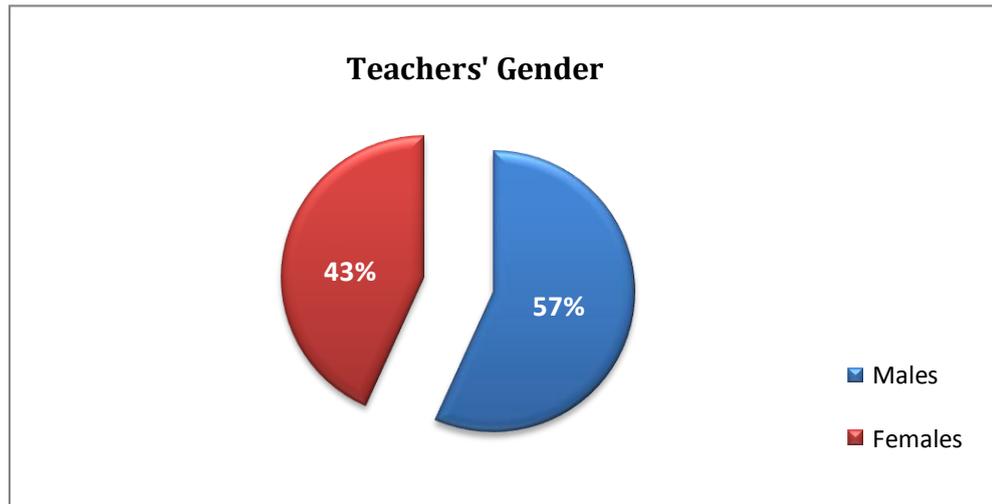


Figure 3.2: Teachers' gender.

3.2.4 Data Gathering Tools

The base of any good research is a successful data collection process. The success or the failure of research is strongly related to the accuracy of the data. Therefore, wrong choices in collecting data, including the selection of the wrong tools, will influence the findings and questions the validity of the research.

Mills (2003) stated that “researchers should not rely on any single source of data, interview, observation, or instrument” (as cited in Unsworth et al, 2005, p. 123). In other words, it is very important to rely on more than one research tool, which makes the researcher more confident about their results and to ensure the validity and reliability of the results.

In the present study, two research tools were exploited: classroom observation and questionnaires. The selection of the instrument is in a way or another related to the research questions. Explanation of each data collection tool is provided in details with the rationale behind each choice is also provided.

3.2.4.1 Classroom observation

Classroom observation is considered as a preplanned research tool where its main objective is collecting data through observing classroom interactions and events as they occur. Generally, observation can take place through two methods: participant and nonparticipant. The observer is allowed to integrate with the students and to participate in some activities in participant observation as Burns (1999, p. 82), stated that “the researcher becomes a member of the context and participates in its culture and activities.” Nevertheless, in nonparticipant observation, the observer only watches and records the events without any participation or involvement. Fraenkel and Wallen (2013, p. 436) confirm that “researchers do not participate in the activity being observed but rather sit on the sidelines and watch.” in other words, in the nonparticipant method, the researcher notices what happens and takes notes.

In the current study, and in order to gain insights towards the way in which MSA and AA coexist in the class we opted for nonparticipant observation as the participants' behavior would not be influenced by the researcher's presence which will ensure that their behaviors remain natural, thereby giving the results high validity. Therefore, the classroom observation took place in *Mihi Mouhamed Belhadj* primary school, which is located in El Oued with only two observation sessions being conducted in two different classes for more reliable results. The observation was only used to provide a general description of the learning atmosphere with a specific focus on the medium of instruction used by the teacher.

3.2.4.2 Questionnaire

Questionnaires are basically data collection tool that refers to a string of questions addressed to a defined sample population with the objective of bringing out respondents opinions, behaviors, perceptions, attitudes and so forth about a specific subject. On the whole, questionnaires can appear in three main types: Closed-ended, Open-ended, and a mixture of

closed-ended and open-ended questionnaires. As a matter of fact, the closed-ended or structured questionnaire provides the researcher with quantitative or numerical data. Whereas open-ended or unstructured questionnaire provides qualitative data, and finally semi-structured questionnaire combines the two forms. In this regard, Blaxter (2010, p. 201) divide questionnaires into “seven basic question types: quantity or information, category, list or multiple choice, scale, ranking, complex grid or table, and open-ended. These types may be combined in various ways to give questions of increasing complexity.” Generally, a questionnaire might contain one or several types of these question forms.

In addition to classroom observation, we opted for the semi-structured questionnaire as a second tool in our disposal to gain a deeper insight into the topic, as it enables us to gather the maximum information in a short time about primary school teachers’ attitudes towards the current primary school education policy, the medium of instruction used, and the status of both AA and MSA. The questionnaire was submitted in its Arabic version after it was corrected and approved by the supervisor. The Arabic and the English version are both available in the appendices (1 & 2)

To facilitate the answering procedure of the questionnaire and to make it clear we divided it into two sections. The first section includes four structured questions about the respondents’ personal information such as gender, degree, years of experience...etc. Such questions will provide us with a general background of the respondent. The second section contains fifteen main questions and nearly eight sub-questions. These questions seek to investigate teachers’ opinions and attitudes towards using mother tongue as a medium of instruction and their suggestions concerning the steps should be taken in order to implement it.

Unlike the first section, the second one includes the two types of questions structured and unstructured. In the structured questions, informants are provided with a kind of guidance where questions are made up of a preselected set of responses, where the informants are asked

to choose what best reflects their opinions. Responses can also be scaled questions, generally rated from not helpful to extremely helpful...etc. Unstructured questions are also conducted in our questionnaire with enough space left for respondents to justify their answers, to explain, and give suggestions. This type allows teachers to express their minds freely as the answer format is made with no pre-determined answers.

3.2.4.2.1 Piloting teachers' questionnaire

Piloting the questionnaire was of great significance; the questionnaire was handed to two of primary school male teachers in its Arabic version. After they answered it they provided as with some comments. Their advice was to reduce the number of questions and correct some writing mistakes. After the correction we send it back to them for confirmation. When they are done and satisfied, we were ready to hand it to the chosen sample.

3.2.5 Data collection procedure

The procedure of collecting data started with taking permission for the classroom observation from our faculty administration of *Mohamed Kheider University* of Biskra. The primary school we chose named *Mihi Mohamed Belhadj primary school* located in El-Oued. We approached the primary school administration to take the approval, where we were welcomed to attend two sessions. The first classroom observation was held on Tuesday the 7th of May 2019, and the second session was held on the next day. By the end of the classroom observation, we had a clearer insight on our topic, which helped in constructing the questionnaire. The questionnaire was conducted in English at first and then translated into Arabic, after it had been corrected by our supervisor. The piloting process of the Arabic version was an important stage we followed before the submission of the questionnaire as we mentioned previously, the questionnaire was handed to nearly thirty primary school teachers from three different schools in El-Oued.

3.3 Data analysis

After we had gathered the needed data through two different tools as we mentioned previously, where we started first with the classroom observation and then based on it we constructed the questionnaire and hand it to the teachers. In this step we will analyze the data in hand chronologically starting by classroom observations then the teachers' questionnaire.

3.3.1 Non-participatory classroom observation

The classroom observation took place over the last month, May 2019, its main objectives were to discover the language used as a medium of instruction in primary school education, and to observe the interaction between the teachers and their students. This state of affairs will also enable us to disclose, afterwards, the teachers and the students' attitudes towards using the students' L1 (mother tongue) in the classroom. To meet this end, two classroom observations were conducted within one primary school named *Mihi Mohamed Belhadj*. Both observations took place in the morning from 8 to 9 AM. This timing was very important because studying early is likely to avoid issues such as tiredness and boredom issues for both teachers and students. This step helps in gathering more reliable and valid results.

3.3.1.1 First Year Classroom Observation

After taking permission from the primary school administration on the 6th of May 2019, we attended the first session (from 8 to 9 AM) with first-year students on the same day without arrangement. The school principal introduced us to the teacher, who was a female teacher in her late forties. The teacher was well dressed and smiling.

The teacher welcomed us and asked some questions like "who are you?" And the reason behind our visit, in fact, we did not reveal the real objectives of the observation for both teachers, because if we did the teachers would pay more attention not to speak the AA. For such a reason, we chose not to tell them about our main concern. But we replied on their

question that the reason is to observe the interaction between the teacher and students and how pupils acquire the Arabic language in this early age?

After the short discussion we had, we went into the classroom to start the lesson. The class was clean and organized. Colorful pictures of numbers and Arabic alphabets were hanged on the walls. We asked the teacher about this. She replied that it is a sort of motivation for pupils, and it also helps them to remember easily what they have learned. The session we attended was an Arabic language class. We sat at the end of the class without any participation or interventions, and the questions were asked at the end of the session. Concerning the data recording, we relied exclusively on note taking in the class. Neither tape-recording nor video recording was used, for the purpose of not distracting pupils and the teacher.

The teacher started the session with reading verses from *Surat al-Rahman (Quran)*, where the language was CA. the justification of this was that she is trying to keep pupils close to their religion. After reading the verses the teacher asked the students to read the Arabic alphabets from the board read one after the other and correcting their mistakes when necessary with AA, and then she explained the day lesson also with AA. Teacher only used MSA when reading a text from the book or when writing on the board and sometimes in explaining but she explained it again with AA.

Students, on the other hand, were trying hard to read and interact in MSA with their teacher. But they were switching to AA when they struggle in expressing themselves in MSA. Even when they were answering with writing on the board, their writings were clearly affected by their mother tongue.

No sooner had the session finished, I went to the teacher, as curious as I was and I asked her why she used AA instead of MSA which is supposed to be the language of instruction in

the class. She answered, in an apparently angry tone, that no one would understand. She also said that most of the teachers explain in AA.

3.3.1.2 Second year classroom observation

The second classroom observation took place on the 7th of May 2019 at the same primary school, but this time in a different classroom. We attended the math session with second year primary school students from 8 to 9 AM. Like the previous observation, we did not reveal the real reason for the observation. Once again, we applied the non-participatory method where we sat at the end of the class without interventions, and we wrote down the notes carefully.

The teacher started her session by asking the pupils to hand their homework to be corrected later on, and then she asked them to give a summary of the last lesson. At the beginning all the instructions were in MSA and the pupils did their best to reply with MSA. After they revised together the previous lesson, the teacher started the explanation of the new one using MSA. When the pupils were asking for more explanation with the use of their L1, the teacher was switching automatically to AA.

After explaining the lesson, the teacher wrote the exercise on the board using MSA. She read the exercise, but the students asked the teacher to repeat and to explain more. The teacher tried to simplify it through explaining and giving examples from real life using AA. Generally, we noticed that only the rules were reported in MSA but explanation, and questions were performed in the AA. When the session came to its end, I went to the teacher and gave her the same question I had given to the first one. She said that students feel at ease and understand better when they are taught in their mother tongue. I simultaneously asked the pupils about their opinions with being taught in AA. Not surprisingly, most of their answers went hand in hand with their teacher's answer. Most of them stated that they avoid using MSA because they are afraid to make mistakes in front of their classmates.

3.3.2 Questionnaire

In this section the data provided by the questionnaire will be presented. Since we used both open-ended and closed questions, consequently, two types of data will be provided: Qualitative and quantitative data. To analyze the quantitative data we used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS, version 17.0). And we also translated the qualitative data from Arabic to English.

Section One: Background Information

The first section involves the informants' background information such as gender, teacher's degree, and years of experience...etc.

•Q 1: Gender

Table 3.7: Teachers' Gender.

	Number	Percentage
Female	13	43.3%
Male	17	56.7%
Total	30	100%

From the above table, 30 teachers have participated in our questionnaire. We can clearly notice that the male and the female participants are nearly equal, with a slight difference that males are larger in number than females. Female participants represent 43.3% with a total number of 13 females, and males represent 56.7% with a total number of 17 males.

•Q 2: Degree

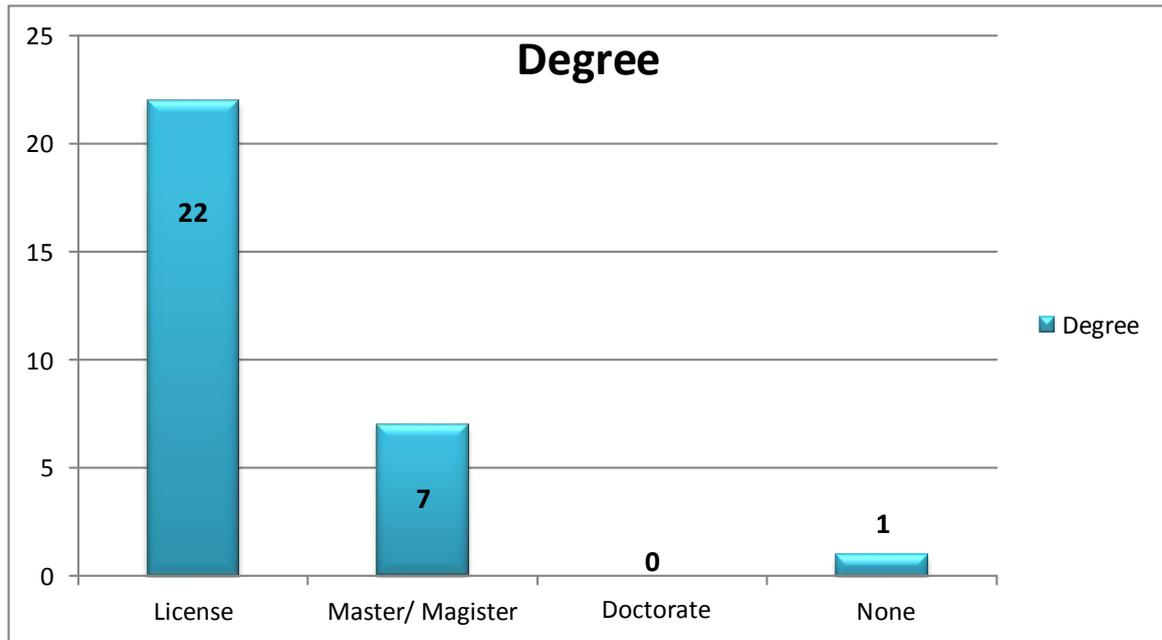


Figure 3.3: Teachers' Degree.

Teachers revealed their degrees where most of them (22 teachers) have license degree, 7 teachers have master/ magister degree, and one teacher answered with none.

•**Q 3:** How many years have you been teaching at primary school?

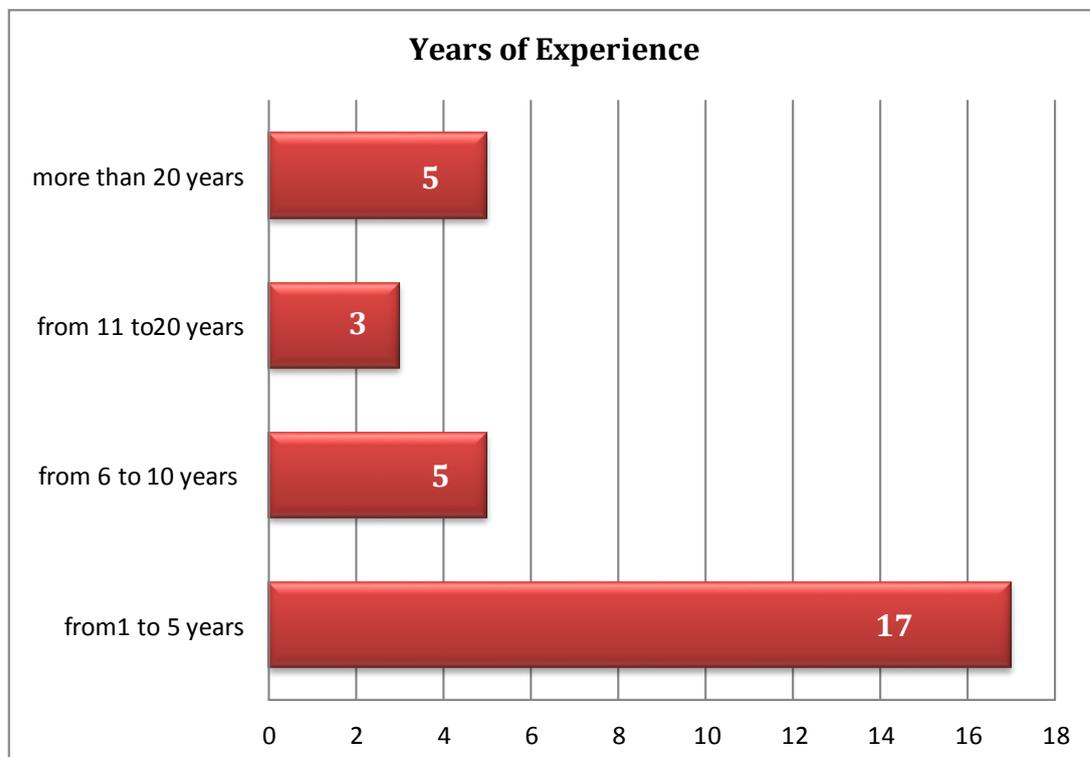


Figure 3.4: Years of Experience.

The length of primary school teaching experience for the teachers was divided into four categories. First category was the largest with 17 teachers who was teaching from 1 to 5 years. The 5 teachers in the second category had an experience of 6 to 10 years. The third category contains 3 teachers who had taught from 11 to 20 years. And finally the last category included 5 teachers who had experience of more than 20 years.

Section Two: Teachers' Attitudes Towards Using Algerian Arabic (Mother Tongue) as a Medium of Instruction

•Q 4: Are you satisfied with Modern Standard Arabic (*fussha*) as a medium of instruction?

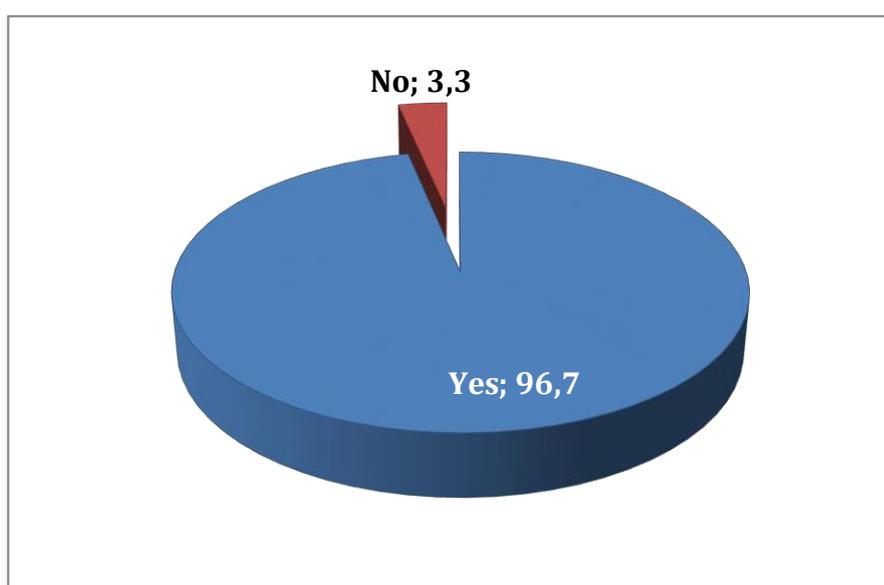


Figure 3.5: The opinions of teachers about using MSA as a medium of instruction.

The above chart indicates that mostly all teachers (97%) are satisfied with using MSA as a medium of instruction whereas 3% are not satisfied. The respondent who answered with 'No' justified his answer saying: "Not in primary school, students find difficulty in understanding."

- **Q 5:** Does the use of Modern Standard Arabic only suggest problems in the classroom?

Table 3.8: whether the use of MSA suggest problems in the classroom or not.

	Number	Percentage
Yes	6	20%
NO	24	80%
Total	30	100%

Only six teachers (20%) agree that MSA suggest problems in their classrooms, while the other 24 teachers (80%) disagree that MSA suggest any kind of problems in their classes.

Those who answered with 'Yes' justified their answers (translated) as follows:

Respondent 1: I look funny in the eye of my students.

Respondent 2: Because the Arabic language is difficult to be learned, especially for first and second-year students.

Respondent 3: Yes, in the past I taught in a Berber region and I found a difficulty in using MSA.

- **Q 6:** Do you use Algerian Arabic in the classroom?

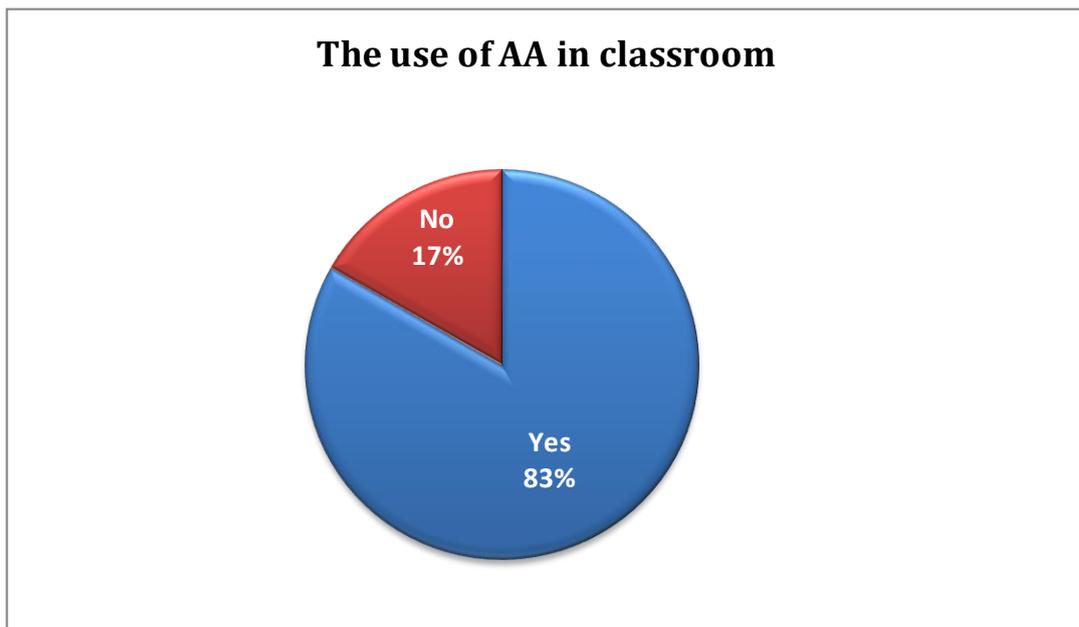


Figure 3.6: The use of Algerian Arabic in the Classroom.

Generally, most of teachers use AA in their classes where 83% of teachers answered with yes while the other 17% they do not use it in their classes. Teachers who use AA (25 teachers) chose the reason of it from the list they were given which is mentioned below:

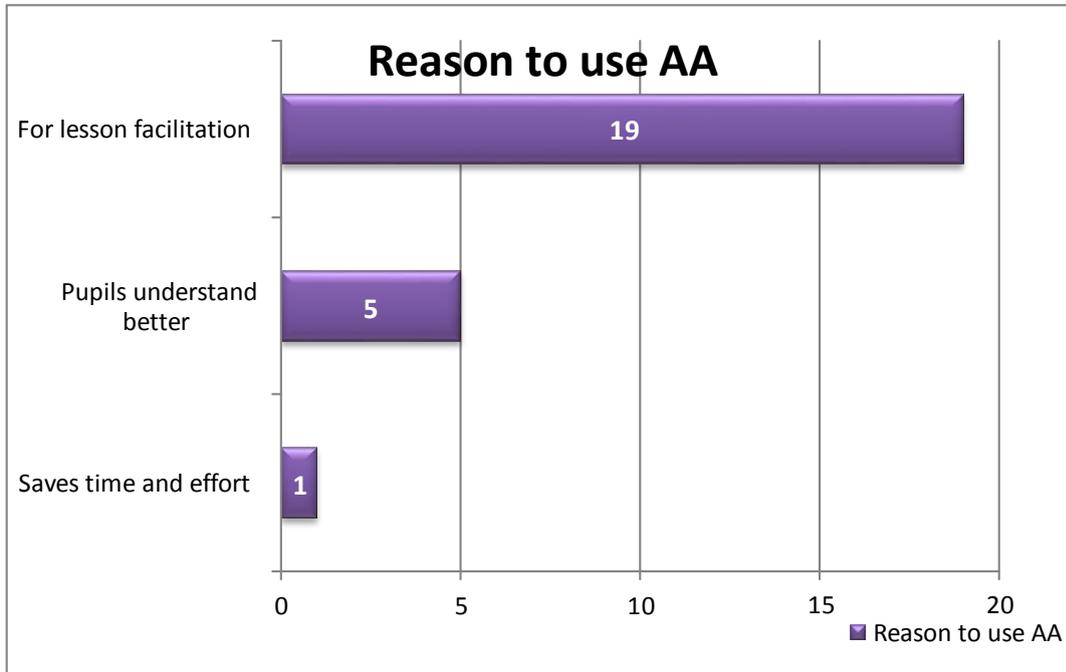


Figure 3.7: Reasons to use AA in the Classroom.

Most of teachers justified the use of AA in their classes for the sake of facilitating the lesson. Others (5 teachers) see that AA helps students to understand better, and only one teacher stated that he use it to save time and efforts.

- **Q 7:** To what extent Algerian Arabic is helpful in the classroom?

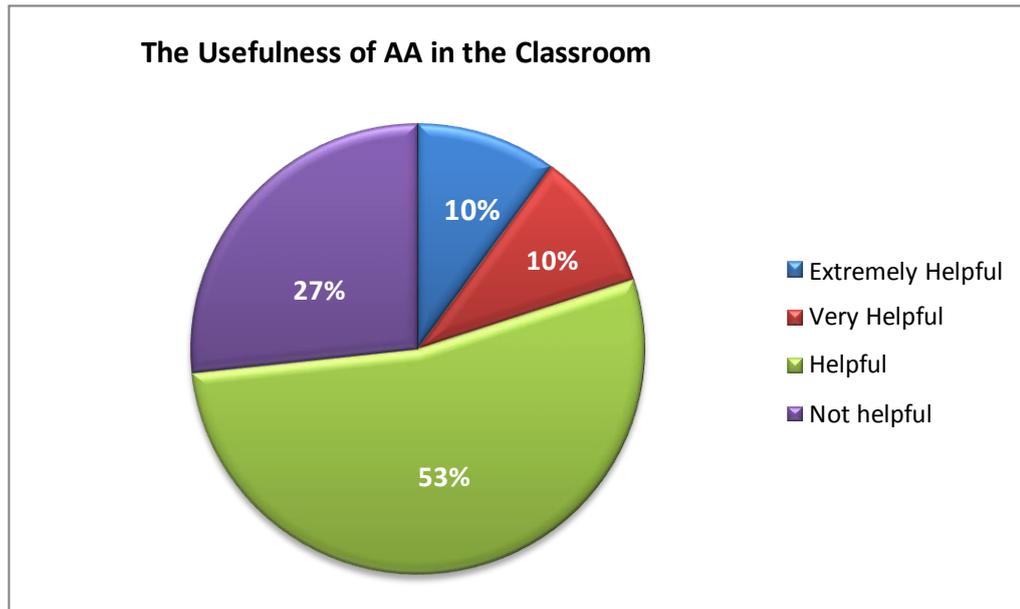


Figure 3.8: The Usefulness of AA in the Classroom.

More than the half of the teachers (53%) find AA helpful in the classroom, 10 % find it very helpful, and other 10 % see it as extremely helpful. The rest of the teachers (27%) find AA not helpful in their classes.

•**Q 8:** When do you think it is necessary to use Algerian Arabic in the classroom?

Table 3.9: Necessities for using AA in the Classroom

Options	Number	Percentage
To explain new vocabulary	15	50 %
To give instructions	3	10%
To deal with behavior problems	5	16.7 %
All the mentioned above	7	23.3 %
Total	30	100 %

The previous table shows that half of the teachers (50 %) think that the use of AA (mother tongue) is necessary in explaining new vocabulary, 3 teachers (10%) declared that they use it to give instructions, where five other teachers use AA in dealing with the

behavioral problems. And finally, 7 teachers (23.3%) chose the fourth options which is all the mention above options.

We let the space for the teachers to add other options, and two of them added:

Respondent 1: I switch to AA when I am angry.

Respondent 2: I also use it to dictate homework for first year students, especially, math homework.

•**Q 9:** Should students be allowed to use their Mother Tongue in the class?

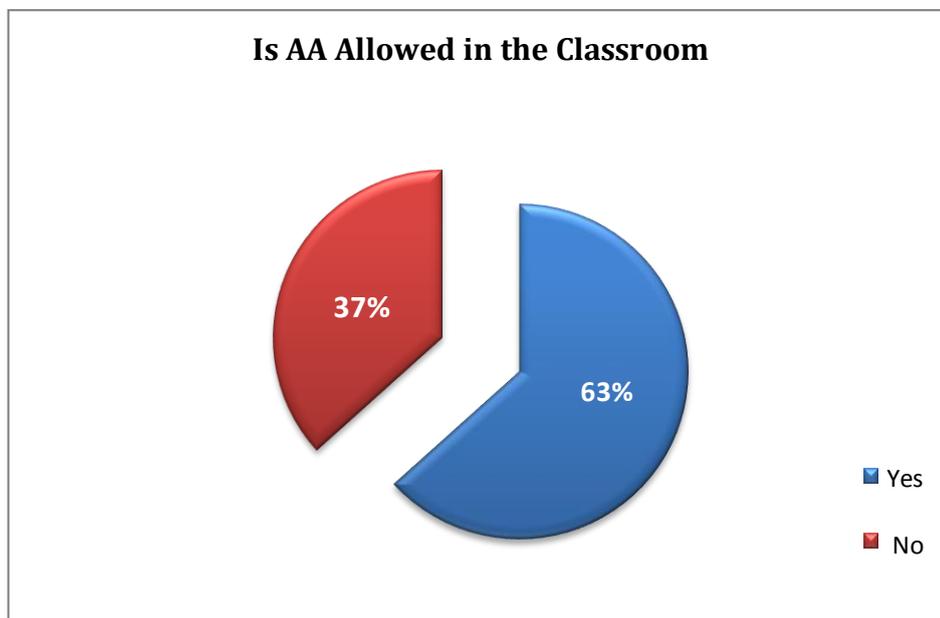


Figure 3.9: Is the AA Allowed in the Classroom.

A total of 19 teachers (63%) confirmed that AA is allowed to be used in the classroom, whereas a considerable number of 11 teachers (37%) claimed that AA is not allowed in the class. We provided those who answered with yes with a list and asked them to select the purpose of allowing students to use AA, and the answers were as follow:

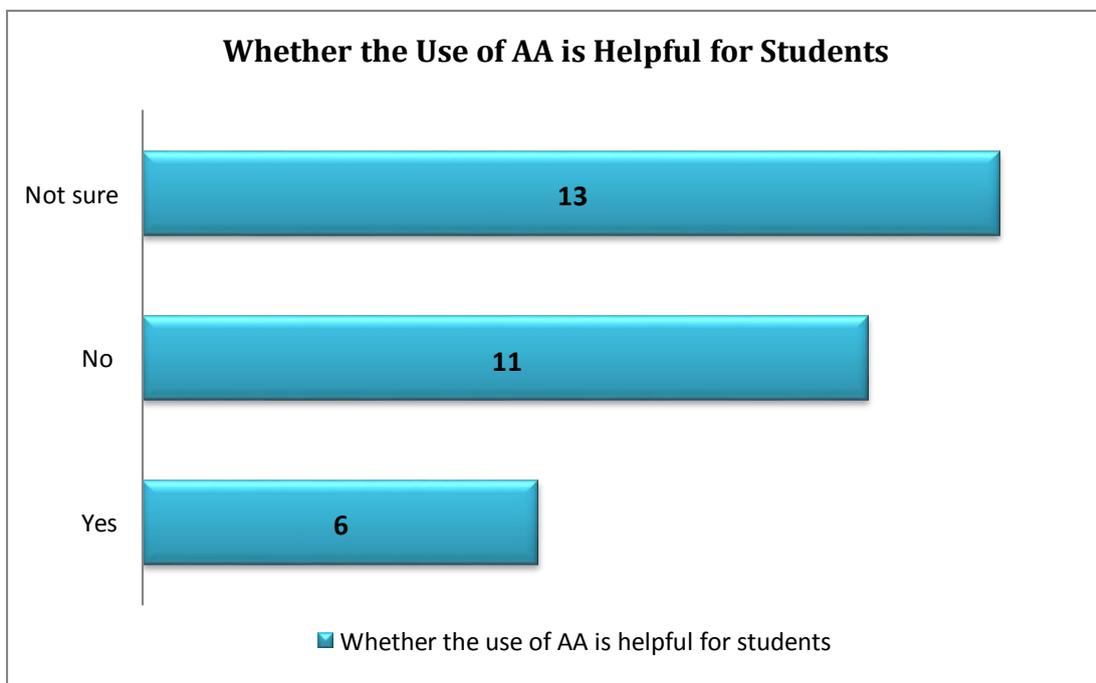
If yes, is it for the purpose of allowing students to:

Table 3.10: The purpose behind using AA by students.

Options	Number	Percentage
Ask for more explanation	10	50%
Ask for permission	5	25%
Answer the questions	3	15%
Others	2	10%
Total	20	100%

From the above table, we can draw that according to the Respondents, students are allowed to use AA when they ask for more explanation as 10 of the teachers stated, and 5 other teachers claimed that AA is allowed to ask for permission. Three teachers allow their students to ask questions in AA, and the last 2 teachers chose the left option 'Others'.

•**Q 10:** Does the use of Mother Tongue in the classroom help students to perform better?

**Figure 3.10:** Whether the Use of AA (Mother Tongue) is Helpful for Students

The bar chart shows that most of the participants, who replied positively (83%) on the 6th question of using the AA in the classroom, have chosen different arguments. 11 out of 30 teachers claimed that AA (Mother tongue) is not helpful for students, only 6 teachers answered with 'yes' where the rest have chosen to answer with 'Not sure'. Correspondents who answered positively justified their answer as follows:

Respondent 1: It helps in boosting students' trust; consequently, they express their ideas in a better way.

Respondent 2: It Helps students to communicate easily with their teachers and encourage them to participate without being afraid of judgments.

Respondent 3: It helps in explaining the complex new expression where it closes the meaning to the students. And it also makes the guidance of the pupils easier.

•**Q 11:** Does the use of Algerian Arabic helps to develop a good teacher/student interaction?

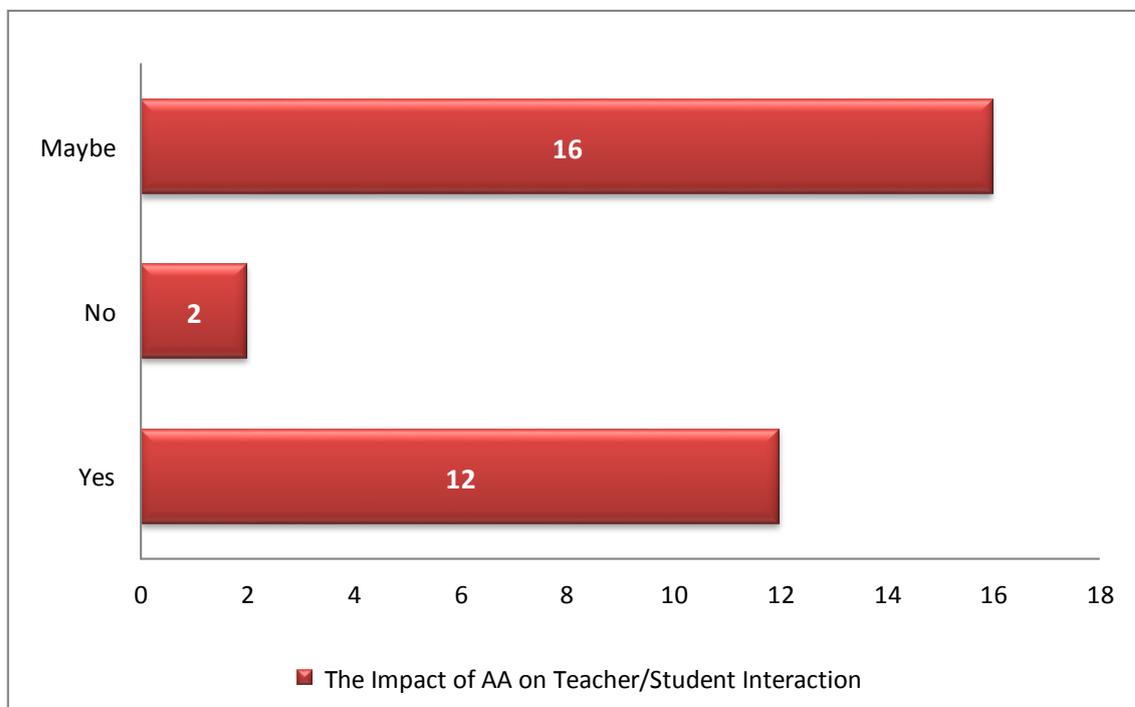


Figure 3.11: The impact of AA on Teacher/Student Interaction.

Twelve participants agree that AA helps in developing a good teacher/student interaction, only two participants disagree. Whereas more than the half (16) responded with 'Maybe'. We asked them to explain more how AA could help or not help in developing teacher/student interaction. (14) Responses are found, so we had to choose some and avoid the repeated ones.

- **Positive responses:**

Respondent 1: *Darjaa* (mother tongue) is understood by excellent, medium, and weak students. Therefore most of teachers use it to simplify and facilitate some vocabulary.

Respondent 2: The students understand the teacher in a better way, which make the communication easy. In addition, the use of AA makes the atmosphere more familiar to students and as a result to that they act naturally.

- **Negative responses:**

Respondent 1: It is better to develop the use of MSA and give it a high status, which is our mother tongue, instead of the AA the language of street and composed of many foreign languages.

Respondent 2: The relationship between the student and his teacher is an educational and pedagogical relationship. The use of *Darjaa* in the classroom makes the relationship between them less formal which will encourage the student to disrespect his teacher.

•**Q 12:** Do you think that the use of Mother Tongue can have more negative than positive effects on primary school students?

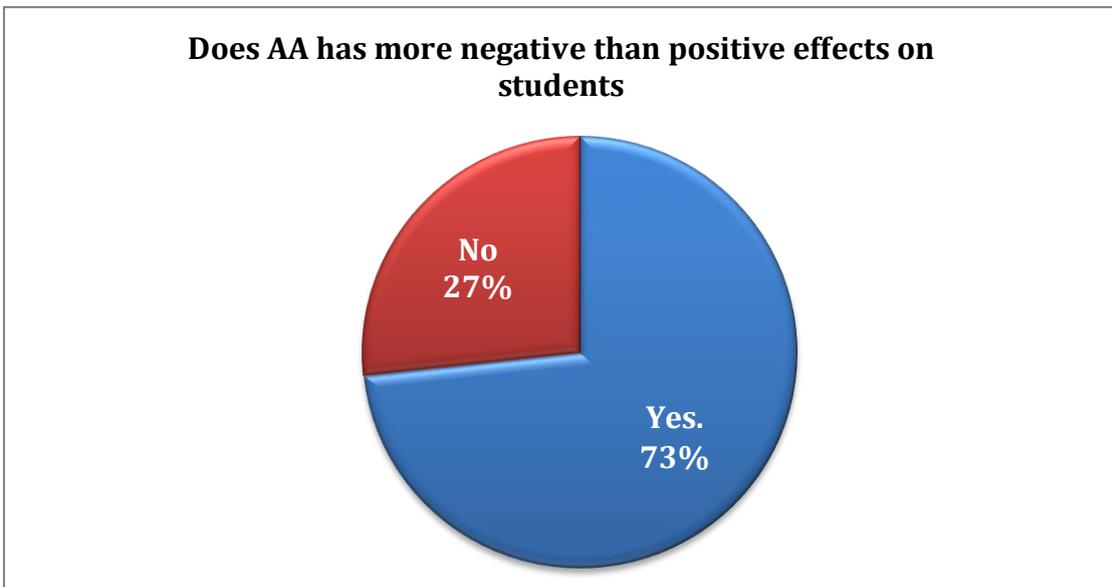


Figure3. 12: Does Mother Tongue have more negative than positive effects on students?

According to the majority of teachers (73%), AA has more negative than positive effects on primary school students. However, 27% of teachers think the opposite.

•**Q 13:** What do you think about the Arabization policy?

Table 3.11: Teachers' opinion about The Policy of Arabization.

Options	Number	Percentage
Desirable	21	70%
Imposed	9	30%
Total	30	100%

Nearly most of the teachers (70%) confirmed that the Arabization policy is desirable in primary school education. Nevertheless, 30 % disagree and think that the Arabization policy is imposed.

•**Q 14:** Do you think that Algeria needs a new bilingual linguistic reform?

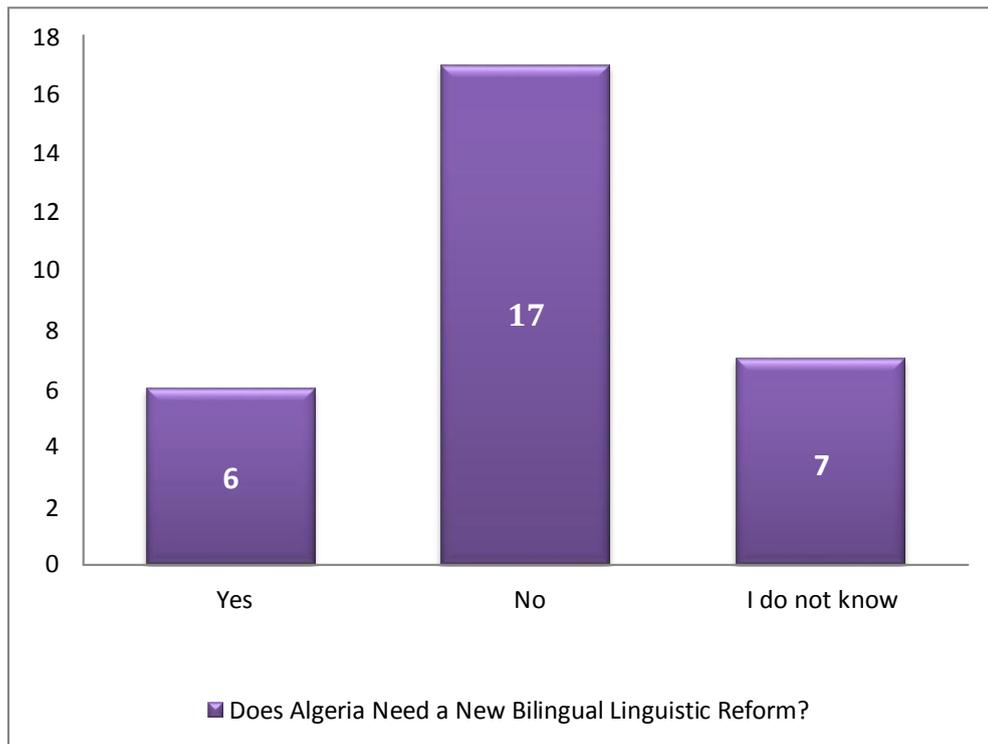


Figure3. 13: Does Algeria Need a New Bilingual Linguistic Reform?

It is clearly shown that the majority of teachers (17) answered with 'No' which means that they refuse any bilingual linguistic reform. On the other hand, six teachers support the bilingual reform the other 7 teachers answered 'with I do not know.'

•**Q 15:** How do you feel about implementing Algerian Arabic (Mother tongue) in primary schools as a medium of instruction?

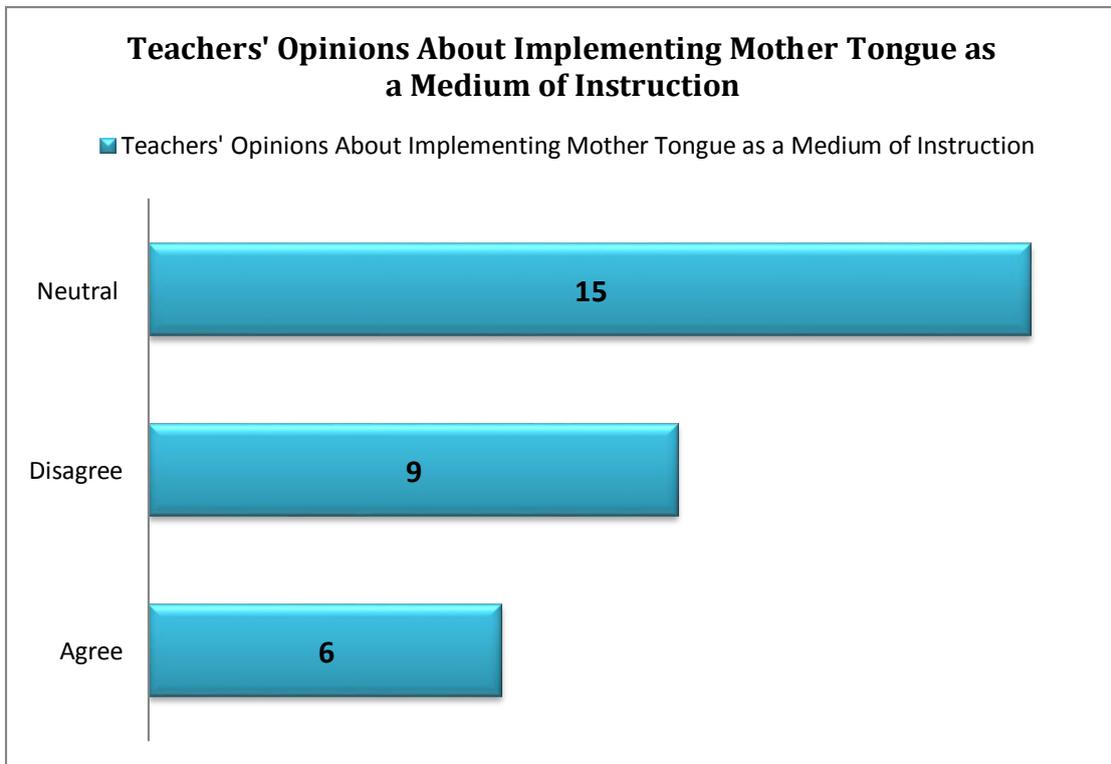


Figure 3.14: Teachers' opinion about implementing Mother Tongue as a Medium of Instruction.

According to the bar chart above, the numbers of teachers who agree and disagree are nearly same. 6 teachers support the implementation of Mother Tongue as a medium of instruction, whereas 9 teachers refuse the implementation. The rest half of the sample (15 teachers) preferred to stay neutral.

•**Q 16:** In your opinion, what is the expected outcome of teaching Mother Tongue in Algerian schools?

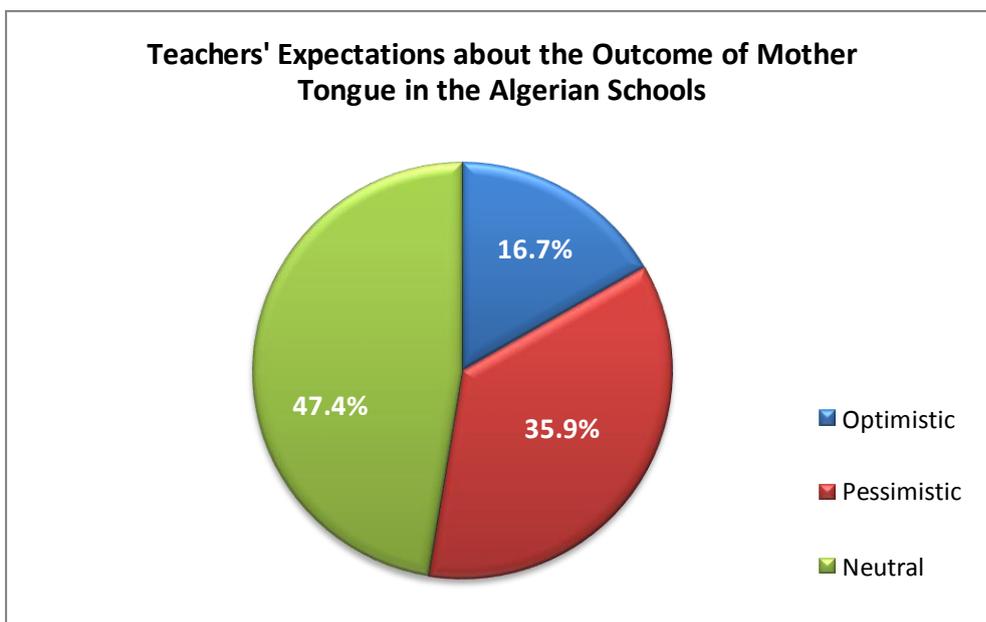


Figure 3.15: Teachers' expectation about the outcome Mother Tongue in the Algerian school.

Nearly the half of teachers (47.4%) chose to be neutral, but 35.9% of the teachers are pessimistic about using AA in the Algerian schools. However, almost 16.7% of them are optimistic about bringing students' mother tongue to the classroom.

•**Q 17:** What can be done to implement Mother Tongue in primary school education?

Twenty teachers out of thirty answered this question, where some of them provided us with suggestions concerning implementing mother tongue in primary schools. And others gave different opinions; we have selected some answers and tried to avoid repetitions.

Respondent 1: Mother tongue could be implemented partly as a medium of communication, and in explaining when it is necessary. But it could not be completely implemented maybe it should be implemented at first then gradually decreases.

Respondent 2: It could be implemented by teaching primary school students about the Algerian legacy, such as traditions, food, and folklore...etc. Such implementation should be through texts written in AA, plays, songs, and other tools.

Respondent 3: It is better to be implemented in the first stages of primary school, where the students most need it. Another point is that this is the decision of authorities who should study this point carefully with the help of specialists and linguists.

Respondent 4: It will be much better if we give more attention to MSA and expand its use in our society instead of wasting our time with the AA. The use of MSA will have a better influence on the students than the AA, which could lead to the lost of MSA.

Respondent 5: I do not support the implementation of *Darjaa* in primary schools. We glorify our mother tongue *al fusshaa* without forgetting that *Darjaa* is a mixture of different dialects and other languages which is not related to our culture.

Respondent 6: We can implement *Darjaa* in our schools only in one case if we want to destroy what has been left from the previous ministries of education.

•**Q18:** What do you think of a bilingual education in Algeria: MSA/AA and MSA/Tamazight?

Respondent 1: I support the use of *fussha* only. Students should be taught with *fushaa* starting from primary school because it is the base for students.

Respondent 2: In this miserable country, which is always depending on other countries, it is impossible to use street language in education. AA is a useless language. While other countries like Turkey, Malaysia, and South Korea are teaching MSA; we are here in Algeria looking for different ways to destroy our language.

Respondent 3: Implementing MSA/AA bilingual education will be beneficial for students. AA is the Algerians' mother tongue they use it in their everyday life, I have never seen an Algerian who used MSA in administrations or other official places

Respondent 4: It is better to teach only with MSA, so the students do not find Quran difficult to be understood.

3.3.3 Discussion of the Results

After analyzing the findings, we constructed many results from both tools. These results will be discussed in this section.

3.3.3.1 Classroom Observation Findings

The experience of classroom observation revealed on many contradictions within teachers about their use of AA in the classrooms. Both teachers used AA in many occasions: when guiding their students, in explaining the new vocabulary, when they ask questions, and even when they gave instructions. Students, on the other hand, responded mostly with AA. And this is totally normal because it is considered to be their mother tongue, which they acquire and use in the best way. We also noticed that some pupils were hesitating to participate because they were afraid to be judged or to make mistakes in front of their colleagues. When teachers are distracted; pupils rush to chat with each other, and it is not surprising that they use AA, which they also use in their daily life conversations.

As a conclusion we noticed that AA is widely used by both teachers and students for different purposes in the classroom. But when we revealed our real topic title to the teachers at the end of the classroom observations, their attitudes were negative. From the teachers' reactions, they seemed like criminals trying to justify their crime. To understand more the

attitudes of teacher towards the use of AA in the classroom we aimed for the above analyzed questionnaire.

3.3.3.2 The questionnaire Findings

The present study investigates the possibility of proposing an educational transitional program where AA (mother tongue) is used as a medium of instruction in the Algerian primary school, and its role to enhance pupils' educational level at primary school; that is teachers' willingness to use it, their attitudes toward the current policy and the new suggested one. The analysis of the teachers' questionnaire revealed the following notes:

Most of the teachers believe that the current Arabization policy, where MSA is used as a medium of instruction, is successful and they are totally satisfied with using it in their classrooms. This attitude, I suppose, is characterized by some degree of ambivalence, in the sense that some of the respondents conceive MSA as their official language within which they identify themselves. Therefore, it should be protected and used as the language of education. For them, mother tongues (AA) is the language of street which should be used only in everyday communication with the impression that this language, if they thought of it as language, is fruitless if it is used in formal spheres, especially in education.

Regardless of the negative attitudes toward the AA, the majority of teachers admitted the use of mother tongue in their classes for different reasons such as: explaining new vocabulary, dealing with behavior problems, and give instructions. Teachers agree that the use of AA is very helpful and allowed in classes. However, a big part of them preferred to stay neutral or refused any kind of reforms where mother tongue is implemented officially in the primary school education. In their point of view, the implementation of AA could be a serious menace

to the status of MSA in the Algerian society. MSA or the language of *Quran* is clearly glorified in our community and seen as a high and prestigious variety.

To summarize the results found in our study, we can say that the present work reveals that Algerians' attitudes toward their mother tongues (AA) are not that positive, if not negative. Most of respondents appear to disfavor the idea of introducing mother tongues in education on the grounds that this language might devalue the status of MSA. According to them, MSA is the language which represents them and their identity in the world. This being the case, however, the reality shows the opposite. As the classroom observation indicated, AA is overwhelmingly used as the language of instruction, both in the first year of primary school and in the second year.

Teachers, in this respect, believe that students feel at ease and have the access to the information being delivered. The nature of this negative attitude is motivated by the fact that *Darja* or *al-amiya*, in this case AA, is neither officially recognized by the state nor the language commits any economic returns. This truth made AA and Berber languages low varieties in their home where they suppose to be major icons of our identity representing Algeria to the world.

A scanty number of those who firmly believe that introducing mother tongue will have positive outcomes on students' academic performance, and also will help in developing teacher/student interaction. They tried to answer the last two questions (17& 18) by providing us a number of suggestions that suppose to be helpful in implementing Mother tongue as a medium of instruction at primary school education. Respondents suggest that AA/ BR should be standardized first. Yet, others believe that Algerians' attitudes towards their mother tongues should, of necessity, change. Others stated that the implementation should be at the first stages of primary school then decrease gradually until is replaced by MSA.

These suggestions were extremely helpful for our research, which its main aim was suggesting a pilot program for planning and implementing an educational transitional program in the Algerian primary school where Algerian Arabic is used as a medium of instruction. The principle objectives of such a program is boosting the status of Algerians' mother tongue in one hand, and facilitating the process of learning the MSA on the other hand. We will provide you with more details about this suggested program in the recommendation section.

3.4 Conclusion

In this final chapter, we introduced our methodological procedure through which we carried out the research study, where we have chosen the most suitable research method that fits our topic and goes along with the nature of the chosen population and sample of our research. In this chapter, we also dealt with the analysis of the collected data and the procedure we followed in this. And finally we moved to the discussion of our results where we highlighted the findings and discussed it.

General Conclusion

As stated at the beginning of this research, the overall aim of the study is to suggest a proposal for a transitional program. The program is based on using mother tongue as a medium of instruction at the early stages of the Algerian primary school education. Its main objective is to facilitate the learning process for primary school students. Mainly, the proposal is based on the linguistic reality of Algeria. Such a task was not as easy as it may appear. We had to go through many steps to achieve our goal. First, we gave an overview of language planning, language policy, and language contact phenomena. This step was very important to understand the sociolinguistic situation of Algeria, which was the next to discuss.

Before limiting our work to the Algerian situation, we thought first to explore the field of language planning/policy then examine the nature of the relationship between it and the different phenomena of language contact.

In short, language policy is concerned with deciding which language to be used in government, at school, for communication, and economics. Whereas language planning is described as a set of strategies to solve the different problems that occur in multilingual situations such as the Algerian situation, LP is mainly concerned with setting grammar, orthography, and dictionary to guide writers and speakers in non-homogeneous speech communities. There are many language planning activities namely: Status planning, which involves the functional development of a language in a society and it is mostly done by people with formal power who make decisions to change the functions of languages within a particular community. It includes four goals: status standardization, officialization, nationalization, and proscription.

Once the decision makers have decided which language to be used, the following step is corpus planning, which is usually done by language experts. Their job is to expand the use of the chosen language by making changes in the form and the structure of the language. There

are three traditionally recognized types of corpus planning: graphization, standardization, and modernization.

The third activity is acquisition planning that organizes efforts to promote the learning of a language, and finally, prestige planning that pays attention to an important hidden fundamental side, which is the side of human behavior and psychological aspects in receiving the planned language.

Language policy/planning could be a key solution for the different problems generated because of the complex sociolinguistic situation of Algeria where a number of languages and varieties coexist side by side in the society. These languages are Arabic (AA/MSA), different varieties of Berber, French, and English. The diversity of languages and varieties spoken in Algeria led to the appearance of different language contact phenomena such as diglossia, bilingualism, borrowing, and code-switching.

The history and the geographical setting of Algeria also had a great influence on today's linguistic situation of the country; such a complicated situation had a noticeable impact on the Algerian primary school education, where Arabization policy was imposed. This policy refers to the linguistic process that has been applied after the independence of Algeria where policymakers decided to set MSA as the national and official language of the state. As we take it for granted that education has also been Arabized as a step towards the recovery of the Algerian identity as they claim.

The Algerian primary school curriculum is based on teaching MSA (grammar, reading, writing, and speaking). Although MSA is taught in Algeria which is supposed to be an Arabic country, but it is still treated as a foreign language whose grammar rules are taught in schools without practicing the language in real life situations. MSA is not only taught in classrooms as a foreign language but it is also enforced as a medium of instruction to pupils whose mother tongue is AA. These pupils are not usually in contact with MSA since it is not their native

language, however, they may have generated some knowledge of MSA from preschool education (learning the alphabets) and they also may gain some oral comprehension abilities from kids' television programs.

In this research, we limited the scope of our study to a process by which Algerian authorities reinforced MSA as a medium of instruction in primary school education. The introduction of MSA led to the widespread use of bad learning. Obviously, these laws do not take into account the sociolinguistic reality of the country. MSA has become the official language despite the fact that no one actually grows up speaking it. We do not claim the replacement of MSA; however, the linguistic reality indicates the gradual loss of MSA features inside and outside the school walls. Our intention is to raise the awareness of Algerian authorities about language problems and to propose a solution to promote MSA status.

In this respect, we had suggested mother-tongue based education or the dual/bilingual education as a potential solution where we presented other successful experiences from the world (Malaysian, Papua New Guinea, Cambodian, and Norwegian Endeavors). These kinds of policies usually start with piloting programs called transitional programs where mother tongue is used as a medium of instruction at first then gradually it switches to the official language.

In order to investigate such a solution on the field work, we opted for the mixed method approach where we used non-participatory classroom observation for first and second year pupils with their teachers; and a questionnaire handed to nearly thirty primary school teachers. To reach our purpose, we decided to explore both the reality of primary school classrooms and teachers' opinions and attitudes about the possibility of introducing mother tongue (AA) to their classrooms. Research studies that conduct the effects of language prestige (attitudes)

on language planning and education are very limited in the Algerian context. Nevertheless, teachers and specialists are aware of the linguistic clash in the classroom.

What has emerged from the above mentioned research procedure shows that teachers are aware of the numerous beneficial outcomes that the use of the mother tongue in the classroom would bring about; but at the same time, they reject its implementation in the educational system. They may prefer the introduction of dual language education in schools as a policy to remedy the situation, which support our suggested transitional program. But still there is a negative attitude towards AA where most of them see it as the language of street (L variety) and the better to stay there, the same whom ensure how beneficial it is in facilitating the learning process. As a result teachers need to take into consideration the practical role that AA may play in teaching as well as learning MSA.

The negative attitude towards AA is ascertained by nearly all the teachers. It is rather believed that AA hinders MSA learning process. This view could be possibly related to the Arabization policy impact, or simply because MSA is the language of the prestige or of the *Quran*. It is unavoidable for us to remark that Algerian teachers have received the instructions with one idea in their mind, which is Algerian classrooms are far away from being diglossic settings. With such a policy, pupils are encouraged to speak only MSA in the classroom and discouraged from using their mother tongue. But still in the reality as we had witnessed in the classroom observations, teachers are strongly using AA for different reasons.

Through this humble study, we tried our best to reach the different aims we set at the beginning of this research. We described the complexity of Arabic language situation in Algeria and its impact on the educational system by identifying pupils' weaknesses and inabilities to control MSA at the early stages of their primary school education. We also investigated the effectiveness of using AA (mother tongue) as a medium of instruction in the classroom compared with MSA (students L2). Another aim we reached is setting acceptable

steps that can be taken to implement the suggested program in one hand and in the other hand we tried to explore teachers' attitude towards this new implementation. And finally we explained the transitional aspect of the program.

During this journey, we also answered the research questions and confirmed the research hypotheses we claimed where we pointed out the main difficulties encountered by first and second year Algerian primary school students. Unfortunately, the problems still persist and no actions are taken place in order to improve the learning process where there are no reforms established. In order to answer the second question we highlighted the possible steps should be taken to implement the new transitional program with the help of the data collected through the questionnaire (Q17 & Q18), and we also recommend the need of an experimental phase as a pilot study. The answer of the last third question was very interesting where we underlined the reasons why such solution still not implemented. In fact, neither this solution nor any others related to replacing MSA will see the light any sooner. The attitudes of Algerians (teachers) toward their mother tongue in one hand and glorifying MSA in the other hand make the education in Algeria go back to the drawing board.

After taking a look on bilingual/dual educational programs and mother tongue-based education, and how successful they are as we have seen other countries' experiences (the second chapter), this encouraged us to confirm our hypotheses that if the Algerian pupils are taught in their home language their educational level may develop and the school results may be improved, especially, if the new implemented curriculum considers their needs and sociolinguistic background. We are looking forward for such reforms in the Algerian educational system.

Recommendations

Finally, our research was conducted to investigate the possibility of suggesting a pilot program for implementing an Educational Transitional Program in the Algerian primary school where AA is used as a medium of instruction. To validate such a program we want to suggest our humble recommendations:

- We should investigate the reasons behind this self-hater. Why Algerians see their mother tongue as a downgraded variety? (The language of streets only) and for what reason it should not be taught?

- Raise teachers and parents awareness about how important and beneficial the use of mother tongue in classrooms could be. We highly recommend training programs for teachers for such challenging context mainly through in-service training and seminars that handle the issues related to the language used in the classroom.

- We recommend the implementation of bilingual program where AA and MSA coexist in the class. This program should be transitional as we mentioned before where students typically begin their learning in their L1 and after few years they gradually transit into the use of the L2 as a medium of instruction. The main objective of this transitional program is to promote MSA status, facilitate the learning process in general, and re-define the position of mother tongues at schools. (Appendix 3)

- Educational authorities should decide when to make the switch from AA to MSA with the help of linguists and the educational family (teacher...etc). Schools on the other hand are asked to develop skills in L1 and provide time to prepare students' second language different abilities. And as we have discussed before (BICS & CALP) language skills in L1 should be developed well, so they can easily transfer to L2.

- We think that one of the biggest ramifications is providing the suitable materials for such a program. In the period where mother tongue (AA) is used as medium of instruction the

instructional materials should be pedagogically sound and with a good quality. Concerning the L2 resources also should be available, but in most cases L2 (MSA) materials are already available.

- The program has to go through a piloting stage first, where it should be implemented in a small number of primary school under the eye of specialists.

At the end, we want to add that the main lesson that we have learnt is the importance of the researcher's role in conducting and investigating such problems and therefore suggesting solutions that may help.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: The English version of the questionnaire

Dear teacher,

This questionnaire is a part of research work that is designed to investigate your attitudes and beliefs towards using students' Mother Tongue (Algerian Arabic) as a medium of instruction at primary school. We would be so grateful if you could respond to the following questions honestly. Please, tick () the appropriate box and provide full statements whenever necessary.

Thank you in advance for your collaboration.

Section One: Background Information:

1- Gender:

A- Male

B- Female

2- Your Degree:

A- License

B- Master/ Magister

C- Doctorate

D- None

3- How many years have you been teaching at primary school?

A- 1-5 years

B- 6-10 years

C- 11-20 years

D- More

Section Two: Teachers' Attitudes Towards Using Algerian Arabic (Mother Tongue) as a Medium of Instruction:

4- Are you satisfied with Modern Standard Arabic (*fushaa*) as a medium of instruction?

A- Yes

B- No

If no, please say why.....
.....

5- Does the use of Modern Standard Arabic only suggest problems in the classroom?

A- Yes

B- No

If yes please explain.....
.....

6- Do you use Algerian Arabic in the classroom?

A- Yes

B- No

If yes, the reason is:

A- Saves time and effort

B- Pupils understand better

C- For lesson facilitation

- If there are other reasons please specify.....
.....

.....

7- To what extent Algerian Arabic is helpful in the classroom?

A- Extremely Helpful

B- Very Helpful

C- Helpful

D- Not helpful

8- When do you think it is necessary to use Algerian Arabic in the classroom?

A- To explain new vocabulary

B- To give instructions

C- To deal with behavior problems

D- All the mentioned above

Others.....

.....

9- Should students be allowed to use their Mother Tongue in the class?

A- Yes

B- No

If yes, is it for the purpose of allowing students to:

A- Ask for more explanation

B- Ask for permission

C- Answer the questions

D- Others

10- Does the use of Mother Tongue in the classroom help students to perform better?

A- Yes

B- No

C- Not sure

If yes, please explain how?

.....

.....

11- Does the use of Algerian Arabic helps to develop a good teacher/student interaction?

A- Yes

B- No

C- Maybe

Justify your choice.....

.....

.....

12- Do you think that the use of Mother Tongue can have more negative than positive effects on primary school students?

A- Yes

B- No

13- Do you think that Arabization policy is:

A- Desirable

B- Imposed

14- Do you think that Algeria needs a new bilingual linguistic reform?

A- Yes

B- No

C- I do not know

15- How do you feel about implementing Algerian Arabic (Mother tongue) in primary schools as a medium of instruction?

A- Agree

B- Disagree

C- Neutral

16- In your opinion, what is the expected outcome of teaching Mother Tongue in Algerian schools?

A- Optimistic

B- Pessimistic

C- Neutral

17- What can be done to implement Mother Tongue in primary school education?

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18- What do you think of a bilingual education in Algeria: MSA/AA and MSA/Tamazight?

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.....

Appendix 2: The Arabic version of the questionnaire

عزيزي الأستاذ، نرجو منك المشاركة في هذا الاستبيان الذي يعد أحد الجوانب الأساسية في بحثنا العلمي الهادف لدراسة موقفك من استعمال الدارجة (لغة التلميذ الأم) كوسيلة للتدريس في الأطوار الأولى للمدارس الابتدائية الجزائرية. نرجو منكم التكرم بالإجابة على الأسئلة المطروحة أدناه وتزويدنا بأرائكم القيمة من خلال اختيار الإجابة التي ترونها ملائمة يرجى العلم أن جميع الأسئلة المطروحة ضمن هذا الاستبيان هي لأغراض علمية بحتة كما أن إجاباتكم ستكون محاطة بالسرية الكاملة والعناية العلمية الفائقة. ولكم كل الشكر لتعاونكم وحسن استجابتك.

الجزء الأول: معلومات شخصية

1-الجنس

ا- ذكر

ب- أنثى

2- المستوى الدراسي

ا- ليسانس

ب- ماستر

ت- ماجيستير

ث- غير مذكور

3- سنوات الخبرة كأستاذ

ا- من 1 إلى 5 سنوات

ب- من 6 إلى 10 سنوات

ت- من 11 إلى 20 سنة

ث- أكثر من ذلك

الجزء الثاني: سلوكيات ومعتقدات الأستاذ حول التدريس باستعمال الدارجة الجزائرية (اللغة الأم)

4- هل أنت راض عن استعمال اللغة العربية الفصحى كوسيلة للتدريس؟

ا- نعم

ب- لا

إذا أجبت بلا، اذكر لماذا.....

.....

5- هل تجد صعوبة في استعمال اللغة العربية الفصحى في القسم؟

ا-نعم

ب-لا

إذا أجبت بنعم اشرح ذلك.....

.....

6- هل تستعمل الدارجة الجزائرية في القسم؟

ا-نعم

ب-لا

- إذا أجبت بنعم، هل السبب في ذلك هو

ا-توفير الجهد والوقت

ب-سهولة فهمها لدى التلاميذ

ت-لتبسيط الدرس

إذا وجدت هناك أسباب أخرى، من فضلك اذكرها مع الشرح.....

.....

7- إلى أي مدى ترى استعمال الدارجة أو اللهجة الجزائرية مفيد في القسم؟

ا- مفيد بشكل ممتاز

ب- مفيد جدا

ت- مفيد

ث- ليس مفيدا

8 - ما هو الوضع الذي ترى فيه استعمال الدارجة ضروري في القسم؟

ا- لشرح بعض المصطلحات الجديدة

ب- لتقديم الإرشاد للتلاميذ

ت- للتعامل مع المشاكل السلوكية

ث- كل المذكور أعلاه

يمكنك ذكر أسباب أخرى.....

9- هل من المسموح للتلاميذ استعمال الدارجة الجزائرية (لغتهم الأم) في القسم؟

ا-نعم

ب-لا

- إذا أجبت بنعم فالغرض من هذا الأمر هو

ا-عند طلبهم لمزيد من الشرح منك

ب-لطلب الإذن

ت-للاجابة عن الأسئلة

ث-لأغراض أخرى

10 - هل استعمال الداريجة يساعد التلميذ على الأداء بشكل أفضل في القسم؟

ا-نعم

ب-لا

ت-لست واثقا

- إذا أجبت بنعم، فضلا اشرح لماذا؟.....

.....

11 - هل ترى أن استعمال الداريجة يساعد على تحسين التواصل بين الأستاذ والتلميذ؟

ا- نعم

ب- لا

ت- ربما

برر إجابتك.....

12 - هل تعتقد أن استعمال الداريجة له تأثير سلبي أكثر منه إيجابي على تلميذ الطور الابتدائي؟

ا- نعم

ب- لا

13- هل ترى أن سياسة التعريب المطبقة حاليا، فرض الفصحى ومنع الداريجة

ا-مرغوب فيه

ب-مفروض

14 - هل تعتقد أن الجزائر بحاجة لتعديل جديد بإدراج سياسة التعليم ثنائي اللغة فصحى/داريجة؟

ا-نعم

ب-لا

ت-لا أعلم

15 - ما هو موقفك من إدراج اللغة الأم (الداريجة) كوسيلة للتدريس في الطور الابتدائي؟

ا-اتفق

ب-لا أتفق

ت-حيادي

16 - في رأيك، ما النتيجة المتوقعة من استعمال الداريجة في المدرسة الابتدائية الجزائرية؟

ا-متفائل

ب-متشائم

ت-حيادي

17-في نظرك ما الذي يمكن فعله لإدراج الداريجة في التعليم الابتدائي؟.....

.....

.....

.....

18 - ما رأيك في إدراج التعليم ثنائي اللغة (فصحى/دارجة أو فصحى/امازيغية) في التعليم الابتدائي مع ذكر
الاسباب؟.....

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Appendix 3

A Proposal of an Educational Transitional Program where Algerian Arabic is Used as a Medium of Instruction in First and Second Year of the Algerian Primary Schools

Type of the program	Typical Type of The Child	Language of the Classroom
Transitional Program	Language of the majority	Moves from majority language 'AA' (not high status outside the speakers) to a high status language 'MSA'.

Grade	AA (L1/ Mother Tongue)	MSA (L2)
First year	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language of instruction 70 % 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studied in Arabic and religion subjects • Introduction to oral MSA Songs and stories...etc
Second year	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Language of instruction 50 % • Consolidation of reading and writing. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Studied and used as a medium of instruction in Arabic and religion subjects. (writing and reading)

ملخص

تسلط هذه الأطروحة الضوء على الوضع الاجتماعي اللغوي المعقد للجزائر وتأثيره على النظام التعليمي حيث تتميز الجزائر بالثنائية اللغوية التي تعتمد على اللغة العربية الفصحى الحديثة كوسيلة للتعليم للتلاميذ تعتبر الدارجة لغتهم الأم هناك ازدواجية تجعل من التعلم عملية شاقة للتلميذ. يهدف في هذه الأطروحة إلى دراسة إمكانية تخطيط وإخراج برنامج تجريبي انتقالي تستخدم فيه الدارجة كوسيلة للتعليم في الأطوار الأولى للتعليم الابتدائي وذلك بغرض تسهيل عملية التعلم و التعلم، وتطوير المستوى التعليمي ومنه تحسين المردود الدراسي للتلاميذ. لتحقيق الأهداف المرجوة من هذه الدراسة، اتبعنا منهج الطريقة المختلطة، حيث اخترنا اثنتين بحثيتين مختلفتين لجمع البيانات اللازمة وتلبية احتياجاتنا البحثية. أدوات البحث المستخدمة هي الملاحظة الفعلية والسريان. العينة المختارة لهذه الدراسة هم تلاميذ السنة الأولى والثانية ابتدائي في "مبهي محمد بالحاج" ، بالوادي ، حيث تم اختيار عينة من تسعين (70 طالباً) ومعلمين أما بالنسبة للاستبيان فقد تم تسليمه إلى ثلاثين معلماً تم اختيارهم بشكل عشوائي من حوالي 120 مدرساً من ثلاث مدارس ابتدائية مختلفة في الوادي وهي: مبهي محمد بالحاج ، لغموش صالح الطاهر ، ونصورة لمولدي. تشير نتائج هذه الدراسة لقلة الوعي بين معلمي الابتدائي حول هذه المشكلة اللغوية التي تطغى على فصولهم الدراسية حيث يعتقد أغلبهم أن قلة التعرض للغة العربية الفصحى الحديثة هو السبب الرئيسي لمشاكل اللغة وأن اللغة العربية الجزائرية أو الدارجة هي لهجة لا تحتاج للترقية و إنزاجها في المدارس مع أنهم يستخدمونها على نطاق واسع في فصولهم الدراسية.