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The Effect of Attitudes towards Language  
Use and Stereotypical Concepts among  
F/EFL Learners in Tlemcen University

Thesis Submitted to the Department of English  
in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctorate in Sociolinguistics

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towards Language Use and  
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F/EFL Learners in Tlemcen  
University

## **Statement of Originality**

This is to certify that the content of this thesis is my own work. This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or other purposes. I certify that the intellectual content of this work is the product of my own work and that all the assistance received in preparing this research and sources have been acknowledged.

Date : November 30<sup>th</sup> 2017

Signed : KHETIR Naima

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Dedication

To my parents and children

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## **Abstract**

This study examines learners' language attitudes through survey data. The attitudes of engineering students of Superior Schools towards French and English for specific purposes are questionable. Their stereotypes related to the dialect, national languages as well as the foreign languages can be associated with the attitudinal data. Language selection in different situations is expected to be influenced, accordingly. Questionnaires and interviews were used to elicit information that revealed an ambivalence of judgments which was confirmed as the mother tongue was stigmatized. Yet, the regional identity and loyalty were asserted by all informants. An important issue about prestige came about when it was related to foreign language instruction, mainly English. Language learning has proved to be influential. Thus, Standard Arabic as well as the foreign languages are judged favourably. The process of language standardization and language planning seem to have influenced the aspects that the informants would like to promote.

In an effort to uncover male/female parameters, it was admitted that the differences were not noticeable. The influence of the purpose in goal, i.e. either sciences and techniques branch or economics and management one, was indeed noticed as it was found out that there were differences between groups. It was discovered that the prominence of a foreign language can have a positive impact as French and English were considered favourably. Moreover, positive stereotypes were associated with foreign language speakers. Traits related to high status, intelligence and likeability were revealed. Hence, the present research has revealed that instrumental motivation is related to foreign language willingness to communicate, mainly in class. The prestige criterion was remarkable among girls as well as boys. Nonetheless, female students of both branches assigned prestigious features to foreign languages, mainly. This is in perfect conformity with patterns of language use in other language communities investigated for gender differentiation.

The case of Tamazight that was recognized by the government as a national and an official language was examined. The external level, that is, the political doctrine influenced to a certain extent the attitudes of the learners of both branches. It was found out that students could be more tolerant to a newly standardized variety.

Language learning fostered positive opinions as the medium of instruction was selected in various activities. Thus, the differences between groups were remarkable. As far as language selection in speech situation was concerned, language shift in accordance with language learning increasingly affected the informants' competence. It was pointed out that the learning of French had its impact on ESP learners of sciences and techniques in different activities. Moreover, Algerian Arabic and Standard Arabic were used by students of economics and management, mainly.

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# List of Acronyms

AA: Algerian Arabic

AD : Algiers Dialect

AAAS : (American Association for the Advancement of Science)

BICS: Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

CA: Classical Arabic

CA : Communication Apprehension

CALP: Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CNT: Conseil National de Transition

CS: Code-Switching

DA: Dialectal Arabic

ESA: Educated Spoken Arabic

FL: Foreign Language

H: High Variety

HCA: Haut Commissariat à l'Amazighité

IRCAM : Institut Royal de la Culture Amazighe

L: Low Variety

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LiEP: Language-in-Education Policy

LP: Language Planning

LPP: Language Planning and Policy

LWC: Language of Wider Communication

MGT: Matched-guise Technique

MI: Medium of Instruction

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

SA: Standard Arabic

SPCC : Self-perceived Communication Competence

UCS : Unwillingness-to-Communication Scale

WTC : Willingness to Communicate

## **General Introduction**

Language attitude study in correlation with language learning in terms of better understanding the impact of language position and language behaviour of learners has long been the main concern of sociolinguistic research. This topic of investigation examines the impact of French/English learning for specific purposes as well as language position on opinions of university students. This dissertation analyses language attitudes related to the language practical applications of university students who are studying in preparatory schools for engineering and technical courses as well as students who are enrolled in economics and management studies in Tlemcen. Language planning in education and decisions taken by the government are closely correlated with language classification that can influence language attitudes of the students. Speakers classify languages according to basic cultural, educational and political foundations. The successful proliferation of a particular language at the formal level or its use for informal reasons largely depends on the sites controlled by these varieties in the community. In fact, these attitudes are tracked by a language policy dictated primarily by political objectives. In the early 1980s, Arabization began to achieve some measurable results. In primary school and in higher grades Arabic education is widespread, while French is taught as a subject and Arabization is gaining more importance in this field. Interestingly enough, despite the demands of the Algerian government to arabize the educational system, the French language continues to be used for the fulfilment of teaching in scientific branches in the Algerian universities.

Certain features of the learner's mother tongue and the learned language can have an effect on the beliefs of speakers. Proficiency is also an essential purpose that can lead to the creation of value judgments. School and university are institutions where learners can be provided with language knowledge, hence, this instruction may orient in a way or another learners' language attitudes. Thus, it is suggested that the differences in attitudes between students from two different branches are questionable because they are not exposed to the same learning. In addition, motivation is something that energises, directs, and sustains the learner whose values or perceptions may be influenced.

Stereotypical representations bear remarkable importance in sociolinguistic research as this aspect has an unavoidable combination of this with language learning. Insight into social patterns and how they tend to interfere in communication between given groups are related to a wide range of shared beliefs. One can assume that stereotypes can be positive or negative, so, facts are less important than beliefs for many social purposes, especially where beliefs can be shown to be maintained systematically and constantly. The learner's choice of a language in a speech situation known as code switching can be influenced by language assessments. Bilinguals who have at least two languages at their disposal have the opportunity to use elements of the two languages, when communicating with another bilingual. Code switching is a grammatically and phonologically appropriate use of several varieties. An important input into social linguistics focuses on the social motivations of change, and a number of studies focusing on both immediate discourse factors such as lexical needs and the topic and the setting. Group identity and the relationship related to solidarity are also parameters indicating the reasons of the use of multiple varieties. Code switching can reflect the frequency with which the individual uses certain phrases from one or another language in daily communication. Language can also be related to group membership in certain types of bilingual language communities. Therefore, it is proposed that the alternative use of two or more varieties within one conversation may be different from another one at a remarkable degree.

One can assume that language learning as well as attitudes correlate with socially-oriented language selection. As an individual faces an important source of conversation he/she is involved in the socio-cognitive parameter; so the speaker starts demonstrating behavioural criteria that are noticeably associated with the linguistic attitudinal evaluation. This stresses the preference or rejection of a given linguistic variety in a given speech situation and given activities, such as TV watching, radio listening and newspaper reading. The favourability of language use among members of the same group of learners contributes in building-up in-group relationship. This investigation asks questions about the degree of attitudinal aspects impact on language selection that speakers of the same group share. Any factor may have a considerable influence in choosing one language over another, but the combination of several

factors such as language proficiency, setting and language attitudes can explain language choice.

This work includes four chapters. The first chapter covers a number of issues. The first deals particularly with the definition of language attitudes and the different theories that discuss this topic. The scope of the investigation is dealt with; it includes the rationale and the suggested hypotheses as well as research questions. This part examines oriented ideological dimensions which are in accordance with language attitudes that are considered to be true by the respondents. It also presents the informants' criteria. One questionable fact here is the relation that exists between these criteria and the informants' value judgments that are can be covert or overt revealing views and postures. The next part sheds light on the importance of shared opinions within members of the same speech group. It is alleged that the usage of given varieties throughout the educational career like subjects learned in French or English, can have an impact on the speakers' evaluation. Here the main point is to make reference to the contribution of the status of foreign languages learned for specific purposes that can influence the learners' attitudes. Throughout its history, ESP practitioners have been preoccupied with learner's needs, with identifying his wants and purposes as integral and obligatory elements in the learning process. Hence, the nature of the learners' assessments can be problematic. The theoretical background of stereotyping and language selection is also tackled. In this context it is assumed that respondents tend to stereotype the personality of the speaker according to prejudices they have internalised. More questions can be asked about the effects that assessments can have on judgments of speakers' honesty, likeability or unlikeability and other characteristics which are found in the questionnaires. Hence, language proficiency as well as language learning motivation can have an impact on language selection for a given situation.

Furthermore, the case of Tamazight -Berber- is taken into account. Tamazight or Berber Social movements emerged and political parties were created to represent and defend the Kabyle demands. The Tamazight variety, that has always been the mother tongue of an ethnic minority, was recognized as a national language in 2002,

and an official one in 2016. Yet, there are five distinct Berber varieties. The assumption that can be expressed here is that, informants can show rejection of a variety with which they are not acquainted.

There is another aspect of social stratification of attitudes related to male and female factors. It can be assumed that patterns of gender differentiation can be manifested and girls may be more sensitive to given language varieties than boys. The questionnaire aims are explained and exemplified, too. Questionnaires can be considered as an effective means to elucidate data. Various questions can trigger informants to accept or reject a variety more practically. This means provides statistical information that can be related to an applied side.

In the second chapter, a brief report is presented about the language situation of Tamazight, Algerian Arabic, Standard Arabic, French, English and other foreign languages in Algeria. The Algerian society uses different dialects in its various regions. Thus, the people of this country speak their various mother tongues, either Arabic or Tamazight. Before independence French was the only official language. In post-colonial period Arabization strategy sought to restore the national dignity. The historical background of media within a community can provide clues which allow the understanding of both the individual and the group's assessments. This raises more questions about the impact of the nature of various language statuses as well as its academic or informal use in different environments such as the social, educational and academic levels. The language situation is largely the outcome of socio-economic development policies such as language planning in education and government decisions. This part gives an overall examination as to what type of participation bilingualism; arabization and multilingualism situations have in the establishment of subjective evaluations.

The third chapter includes an analysis of language attitudes of the questioned informants. It discusses the influence that a speaker's proficiency has on his/her language attitudes. This part explores more deeply the respondents' interpretation of their language attitudes. The key insight is to search underlying beliefs, such as nationalism or high vs. low statuses. Standardisation vs. non-standardisation that give

rise to prestige as well as stigmatisation criteria respectively, are taken into account. In addition, gender variables are dealt with, whereby an analysis is presented about the factual bases that are behind male/female factors. Moreover, the analysis of stereotype data obtained from the investigation is presented. This part discusses the influence that language attitudes have on the participants' stereotypical representations. It is assumed that stereotypical images of speakers of the varieties dealt with in this research can be discovered and gender differences may exist between questioned groups.

The fourth chapter provides an analysis of field work data about the informants' language selection in writing, reading, radio and TV. It is discussed that performing different activities and subjective reactions are closely related. Sociolinguistic criteria can also determine the choice of a particular variety in speech situations. It is assumed that situational factors such as topic setting and participants in relation to language attitudes can influence language choice. Fieldwork data are explored and provide information about the emergence of language use in a given set of speech situations. It is argued that language proficiency as well as attitudinal aspects can affect language selection. Hence, differences and similarities between the questioned groups are stated.

## CHAPTER ONE:

## 1.Theoretical Considerations

### Introduction

The present investigation is conducted in Tlemcen, where the author is a teacher. This work includes a number of issues, the main one deals with a comparative study of language attitudes between students of 'Preparatory School in Sciences and Technology' (EPST) and those registered in 'Preparatory School in Commercial Sciences, Management and Economics' (EPSCGE) towards: Tamazight-Berber-, Algerian Arabic, Standard Arabic, French and English. The next important issue deals with the stereotypical representations that an informant holds such as describing male as well as female speakers of the standard /non-standard varieties as 'educated' 'intelligent', 'conscientious', 'responsible', and 'self-assured', but also as 'unskilled' and 'civilised. Language choice in different situations such as speech situations TV watching, reading and radio listening is dealt with as well.

### 1.1 Language Attitudes

Language attitude research is the main emphasis of a great deal of research throughout the social sciences. Indeed, it has been a central supporting variable in the field of social psychology. Edwards (1999: 101), explains the importance of perception (i.e., attitude) as the most pervasive theme in modern social psychology. In terms of this evaluation, an attitude is '**a hypothetical construct which is not directly observable but can be inferred from observable responses**' (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993 : 2). The central point of language attitude study is associated with the overlap with other concepts in social psychology such as 'belief', 'opinion', 'value', 'habit', 'trait', 'motive' and 'ideology' (Shaw and Wright 1967) . Different definitions of related terminology can help the researcher to avoid ambiguity.

#### 1.1.1 The Notion of Attitude

Language attitudes can be defined as '**the feelings people have about their own language or the languages of others**' (Crystal, 1992:215). The word attitude derives from the Latin root 'aptus', meaning suited or fit. As far as the sociolinguistic



sphere is concerned, Ajzen (2005:3) defines language attitudes as ‘**a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution, or event.** In other words, language attitude study raises questions as to the assessment as well as the evaluation of speakers of given varieties.

A given linguistic behaviour can be expected when language attitudes influence the choice of a particular language in multilingual communities , language loyalty and language prestige. (Obiols2002). This raises an issue of how linguistic varieties are evaluated. Fasold (1984:158) explains the evaluation of a language variety as follows:

**The evaluation of a variety is the fruit of experiences, products of a whole series of historical, social, economic, political and cultural implications that continuously interact with one another, turning the objective into subjective**

Social psychologists stress the importance of observing language study, not only as objective socially neutral instruments for conveying meaning, but as varieties linked up with the identities of social or ethnic groups that have a reflection in the social evaluation of, and the attitudes towards languages.

Subjective reactions can be defined as overt beliefs, whereas attitudes may be latent (i.e., dormant) and transmitted by both verbal and non-verbal processes. Furthermore, attitudes are indicators of affective reactions and opinions (Baker, 1992: 13-14). Values can be seen as more abstract than attitudes since they transcend specific actions and situations (Schwartz, 2007: 170-171). In a language context, a value such as ‘equality’ could be included in a given number of elemental attitudes, such as attitudes to language variation, language preference, minority languages or learning foreign languages. Attitudes and personality traits are considered to be based on covert constructs, attitude responses are thought to be evaluative whereas traits are found to manifest in certain ways and are not the main concern of any particular external purpose.(Ajzen 1988:7). Ideology is determined as ‘**a patterned, naturalised set of assumptions and values associated with a particular social or cultural group**’ (Garrett et al, 2003: 11).

Subjective reactions towards global languages such as English are perhaps powerful featured by well-established association between language and its evaluation that can be automatically activated from memory. (Perloff, 2003: 68). Language attitudes need to be backed up with various empirical studies wherefrom specific attitudes can be elucidated. Baker (1992:29-30) identifies the following major areas:

- Attitude towards language variation, dialect and speech style
- Attitudes towards learning a new language
- Attitude towards a specific minority language
- Attitude towards language groups, communities and minorities
- Attitude towards language lessons
- Attitude of parents towards language lessons
- Attitude towards the uses of a specific language
- Attitude towards language preference

The present study attempts to measure the first and the second areas. So the main focus of this paper is attitudes towards standard/non-standard varieties, mainly the specific use of English and French among university students of sciences and economics.

The intensity of attitudes can be considered as an important criterion in the domain of fieldwork data. The intensity encompasses the quality of having strong emotions or opinions and being very serious in its quality that is held by the individual (Oppenheim, 1992: 176). For example, some individuals may feel that it is important to learn foreign languages and this may implicate them to study these languages as modules for specific purposes. For others, however, they may hold favourable opinions towards foreign language learning, it may be less important to them and they may be less likely to enroll on a foreign language course. One can suggest that there can be a distinction between the intensity with which the two sets of individuals hold the same attitudes towards foreign language learning. Perloff (2003: 56) argues that attitude intensity is particularly important because strong attitudes are more likely to:

- affect judgements
- guide behaviour
- persist
- be resistant to change

A social identity function is implied in language attitudes, where the expression of attitudes confirm the core values of speakers, support the maintenance of social relationships, preserve self-esteem, can reduce internal fear and conflict. For example, putting a teenager into music, technology or lifestyle can help to support his independence from his parents(Erwin,2001 :10).Furthermore, Ferguson gives the following definition of attitudes :

**In many ways the effectiveness of language policies in education is determined more by the attitudes of the people on language use than it is by the simple demographic facts of language distribution and use. (1996 : 274-275)**

In this context language attitudes are presented in terms of effects or consequences i.e, those attitudes which influence language behaviour towards language such as language learning influence on attitudes which is a broad area that one can explore. Learners become more familiar with variations in the language as their exposure increases, especially after a stay in a language learning for a specific purpose environment. A wide range of studies have demonstrated that learners exposed to language proficiency often choose carefully what form of language- oral or written- they need to adopt (Gardner 1985). Multi-faceted factors that attribute to attitudes, motivation and standardization are assumed as important phenomenon, so investigators do not base their work on theoretical assumptions about their learners without trying to find out their genuine motivations and attitudes. Therefore, one can ask the following question: To what extent does motivational learning of a language for a specific purpose influence attitudes to different language varieties?

### 1.1.2 The Evaluation of Language and Speakers

Social information is provided by clues detected in the way a person speaks, and is in itself neutral, neither good nor bad. Language itself can be evaluated and associated with 'toughness' or 'likeability'. For instance, Hudson (1998:209) argues that **if A is some characteristic of speech and B is some characteristic of**

**personality such as education, speech will be used as a clue to personality”**. Traits such as prestige, power or stigmatization are closely linked to language attitudes. Various disciplines such as sociology, psychology and linguistics studies contribute in an essential way to reveal different data. Hence, studies on language attitudes are inherently related to group identity.

Trudgill (1995:91) argues that **“positive attitudes are related to prestige varieties”** because speakers generally prefer such linguistic media even though they may not use them. Speakers of prestige varieties are usually considered more ‘educated’ than speakers of non-standard varieties. Non-prestigious speech, however, may be associated with other human qualities, such as sympathy and affection. Some studies (cited in Giles and Coupland 1991) reveal that people manifest their preference of the prestige varieties in order to increase their likeability. Fasold (1984:148) suggests that **“attitudes toward a language are often the reflection of attitudes towards members of various ethnic groups”**. Subjective reactions to language varieties can give relevant information about the assessment of the speakers of these varieties.

Negative images are assigned to stigmatized varieties by informants who relate underestimated attributes to languages as well as to its speakers. For instance, members of a speech community can create negative stereotypes of another language to reduce the status of its speakers in society (Labov, 1972:133). So one can suggest the following statement:

- The same attitudes are related to a given language and to its speakers.

### 1.1.3 Language Attitude Theories

Social psychology of language has confirmed that various criteria are involved in the speakers' judgements of languages. As pointed out in Fishman and Agheyisi (1976:81-82)<sup>1</sup>, **“Validation of attitude study is problematic because of the very nature of attitudes as properties of the psychological or mental process.”**In fact, one problem in evaluating the role of language attitudes is the difficulty in measuring

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<sup>1</sup>In Dittmar (1976).

<sup>2</sup>These tests were adapted from Labov's studies (1972), Stewart's classification (1968) and Gumperz (1966).

the attitudes themselves. In other words, to what extent does the scale of evaluation reveal useful information for the investigation? The development of a questionnaire on attitudes is not a simple task. Thus, the following question can be asked: Do informants express their honest feelings/opinions or simple attitudes they think are more acceptable when they are asked direct questions in interviews? Labov (1966) found out that people do not always describe precisely the speech heard in their daily life. Hence, one can consider that the study of language attitudes remains probabilistic. Most people are not consciously aware of the combination between linguistic criteria and judgments, so it is preferable to elicit people's responses indirectly, this is why different techniques are used. (cf. section 3.1.).

Language attitude studies are based on both mentalist and behaviourist theories. This raises more issues of how to comprehend underlying process of attitudes in correlation with language learning. So it is necessary to examine the views of social-psychologists and see how their approaches tackle characteristics of attitudes pertaining to social phenomena.

#### 1.1.3.1 The Mentalist Theory

For holders of such a view, attitudes are as Allport (1954:45) describes them “**a mental neural state of readiness organised through experience exerting adirective or dynamic influence upon the individual response to all objects and situations with which it is related**”. Attitudes cannot be observed directly, but must be inferred from the subject's introspection. This position encompasses the issues revealing that attitudinal criteria can be elucidated from given data that are quantifiable in a given way. For instance, many studies have demonstrated that the quality and prestige of language varieties depend on the knowledge of the social connotations which they process. That is, **‘the use of dialects would be expressions of social preference, which reflects an awareness of the status ingrained in the speakers' minds.’** (Fasold,1984).

Language attitudes are socially-based phenomenon which means that the language and the speakers of that language are closely related in people's internalized

views. In the mentalist tradition, attitudes are often represented as forming a three-component model (Ajzen 1988: 4, Baker 1992: 12, Kalaja 1999: 12). A three-component model of attitudes is demonstrated in figure 1.1 (Baker 1992).

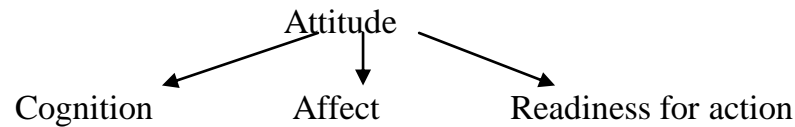


Figure 1.1 Three-component model of attitude (Baker 1992: 13)

According to this view, measurable independent variables such as persons, situations, social issues and other attitude objects act as an impulse and attitudinal evolvment, which consist of three parts : affect (e.g verbal statements about evaluative feelings and preferences), cognition (e.g. verbal statements of opinions, thoughts and beliefs) and behaviour (overt actions and statements of intent, e.g. verbal statements concerning behaviour). One can believe that language attitude study should comprise the three component view of attitudes. Moreover, Edwards (1982:20) explains that many attitude questionnaires are in fact ‘belief’ questionnaires. Therefore, if attitudes are internal units of the mind, a person’s attitudes cannot be directly revealed by other people but can only be examined on the basis of the speaker’s self-oriented comments or by inferring them from the direction and persistence of the person’s external behaviour (Ajzen 1988 : 2-3, Baker 1992 : 11, Fasold 1984 : 147, Gardner 1985 : 132).The presence of the cognitive element of an attitude can lead to the characterisation of the stereotyping of the attitudinal objects. For instance, a speech recording, in the context of a language can show stereotypes<sup>1</sup> of the listener. In other words, a category associated with a given group of people who are identified within a set of features that are determined by this very group. Henceforth, the speaker and his/her perceived membership may not be in a certain way connected to the social realities they are referred to.

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<sup>1</sup> More information is given about stereotypes in section 1.4.2

### 1.1.3.2 The Behaviourist Theory

Holders of such a view see that attitudes are ascertained by observing actual behaviour in social situations. For example, Bain (1928) claims that **"attitudes are regarded as a hypothetical construct that can be revealed by verbal responses to a given set of stimuli."** Research has shown that specific forms of behaviour that are characterised by the preference of a given language in the speaker's daily life are indicated in subjective reactions. For instance, an individual's favourable attitudes can be reflected in some activities or behaviour, such as a selected language in TV watching and radio listening as well as a selected variety in a given speech situation. Similarly, Edwards (1982:191) suggests that attitudes towards a language are often reflected in the ones held towards members of various ethnic groups. He claims that **"people's reactions to language varieties reveal much of their perception of the speakers of these varieties"**. Le Page and Tabouret-Keller (1985) puts an emphasis on the discussion of language attitudes and its implications in the nature of intergroup relations. For instance, language attitudes may occur in accordance with the nature of intergroup relations. In other words, when relations change, status relationships and therefore perceptions, attitudes and uses, change too. It is hypothesized that a person who identifies himself with the mother tongue and the group that speaks it would hold favourable attitudes to this language and to the group accordingly.

In addition, behaviourists believe that when observing attitudes through external behaviour one can detect more than mere conceptual conveniences designed to describe broad stimulus-response correlations (Eagly and Chaiken, 1993:6-9). Thus, like behaviourism, the behaviourist view of attitudes has largely been criticized, while fieldwork data showed that this position is not completely mistaken because behaviour is often found to be directly influenced by attitudes (Perloff, 2003:41).

Suzanne Romaine believes that attitude measurements are based on dimensions that are closely related to the individual's attitudes. Nonetheless, she also stresses

that **‘the translation of attitude from the subjective domain into something objectively measureable is a common problem in any research that involves social categorisation and/or perceptual judgements ‘** (Romaine 1980:213). Many experiments were conducted to investigate the complex relationship between people’s attitudes and their behaviour (Wicker 1969) but the conclusions are far from unanimous. Attitudes can be found to involve public reports about languages and the speakers of those languages (Kalaja 1999: 63). Attitudes are referred to as expressions of favourable or unfavourable opinions on given matters reactions. Attitudes involve a puzzling situation where opponents propel arguments to justify their viewpoints and comments about their contests. (Billig 1987: 177-178 as quoted by Kalaja 1999: 62-63). In this context, one should ask a question as to what extent language learning can influence participants’ views and activities.

#### 1.1.3.3 The Prediction of Attitudes from Beliefs

In theoretical consideration of attitude, beliefs are often stated as the ‘building blocks’ of attitudes (Eagley & Chaiken, 1993: 103). Fishbein’s (1967: 259) description of an attitude as a **‘hypothetical variable’** is based on the idea that attitudes are **‘abstracted from the many statements and actions that an individual makes with respect to a given object’**. Thus, researchers manifest readiness to examine attitudes by taking into consideration people various beliefs of people collectively (Fishbein, 1967: 259). Beliefs can be analysed in a straight forward way as people are aware to believe or disbelieve in the existence of a perceived object and can express what they believe should be done in relation to an object. Thus, people can believe about the conceptions associated with the affective assessment of these organisms. The expected value model is a popular framework for predicting beliefs. The following discussion will shed more light on the benefits of combining cognitive and affective components in research works. (Eagley & Chaiken, 1993: 106). In the expectations model, people hold positive attitudes towards matters / concepts that are connected with positive traits and negative attitudes to matters / concepts that are linked to negative aspects (Eagley, & Chaiken, 1993: 108). This model is based on the idea that **‘one’s attitude (understood in the abstract sense of evaluation) is a**



**function of one's beliefs, when these beliefs are represented as the sum of the expected values of the attributes ascribed to the attitude object'** (Eagley & Chaiken, 1993: 106). These 'expected values' contain 'expectancy' and a 'value' component. The predicted elements represent the probability that the attitude pattern is characterised by the attribute. For instance, a person can maintain a belief that a film has a funny dialogue but simultaneously lacks an attractive story line. 'Funny dialogue' and 'lack of attractive story line' are attributes of the attitude object. The expectancy fundamental unit is referred to the probability that the film (i.e. attitude object) contains a funny dialogue but lacks an attractive story line (i.e. attributes). The element of value of the expectancy-value pattern embraces the evaluation of each item. So a viewer tends to evaluate positively funny dialogues but assess negatively the lack of attractive story line. The expectancy-value model involves both constituents in order to predict an attitude from the evaluative meaning of beliefs. Eagley and Chaiken (1993: 106) conclude that the model **'proposes that evaluation of an attitude object is a summation of the evaluations associated with the particular attributes that are ascribed to the attitude object'**. The expectancy-value model stresses the importance of the combination of people's various beliefs with their evaluations. The relationship or associations which people set up between various objects (i.e. beliefs), such as for instance that a given film (entity A) contains amusing dialogue (entity B), need to be associated with their positive or negative judgement of these entities in order to fully comprehend their attitudes. That is to say, discovering that a person thinks that a particular film contains amusing dialogue cannot provide enough information to the researcher whether this person has a positive or negative attitude towards this film. The researcher must also find out whether this person is interested or not in listening to amusing dialogues. Much attitude theory and research is linked to the assumption that attitudes embody as an impact of cognitive learning. During these cognitive learning processes people configurate conceptions about conceptions they gradually develop (Eagley & Chaiken, 1993: 14). Beliefs can emerge on the basis of both direct and indirect practical involvement with attitude objects. For example, a person can directly acquire the constituents of a new type of food by consuming it. Alternatively, beliefs can be based on indirect encounter with a new kind of food when

it is seen in a television advertisement. As a result, conveniences are considerably essential in the formation as well as in attitude research. This can clearly be seen in the operations which embrace the expectancy-value model of attitudes.

#### 1.1.3.4 Functions of Attitudes

A remarkable complexity is related to the composition of attitudes as it is the case with the functions of attitudes. In the investigation of social psychology, the following four functions of attitudes are different from each other: knowledge, utilitarian, social identity and self-esteem maintenance (Bohner, 2004: 242-243). The knowledge function can be explained as the formation of an attitude towards a pattern which can be elicited every time the pattern in question is experienced. As previously stated (1.1.3.1), attitudes are structured by means of cognitive learning the first time speakers experience a particular attitudinal criterion. Once attitudes are constituted, they are stored so that every time the same attitude pattern is encountered, the attitude can merely be shown without being obliged to manifest how to react towards it (Bohner, 2004: 242). Nonetheless, attitudes can still be referred to diversity despite this knowledge function. Attitudes can also be of a useful function by helping people to accomplish positive goals and avoid negative outcomes. Bohner (2004: 243) states the example of attitudes to given kinds of food and asserts that one's attitude towards pizza should be based on the positive effect (pleasant taste, repletion) and punishments (weight gain, high cholesterol level) linked to pizza'. Therefore, individuals establish form a relation between given attitudes and their positive and negative effects. This example of the favourable attitude towards certain types of food can show attitude diversity that may occur over time. A person may have a negative attitude towards pizza as a final decision; because of the belief that there exist drawbacks: (e.g, weight gain) outweigh and advantages: (e.g., pleasant taste). While in some cases the disadvantages can be beyond the advantages. Consequently, the same person can during a given period of time change his or her attitude towards pizza. The social identity function of attitudes provides individuals with identification with given social groups by means of the manifestation of their attitudes (Bohner, 2004:243). For instance, people may conceptualise themselves as feminists or conservatives by having

or manifesting 'feminist' or 'conservative' attitudes (Bohner, 2004: 243). In the end, self-esteem maintenance function of attitudes enhances individuals to relate positive feeling with elements and negative emotions with others and associate their opinions with positive images and distance themselves from negative objects. For instance, people may have unfavourable opinions towards minority groups, such as speakers of stigmatised languages-non-standard- because of an underlying thought considering that holding distance can help to keep them far from the danger and negative connotations that these groups are linked to (Bohner, 2004: 243). The various functions are characterized with a high degree of complexity and it is often hard to distinguish between categories of attitudes that often accomplish different functions at the same time (Bohner, 2004: 243).

#### 1.1.3.5 Attitudes and Behaviour

As previously outlined (1.1.3.2), investigations of attitudes have led discussions of great importance as to the use of attitudes as predictors of behavioural manifestation since it has been found out that controversies concerning the behavioural constructs of attitudes draw attention to the complexity that exists between attitudes and behaviour. Baker (1992:15) explains that people's responses are often changeable across different situations and that **'as props on the stage change, as different actors and actresses change, different scripts are enacted [...], behaviour may change accordingly, and attitudes may become imperfect explainers and predictors of behaviour.'** Although, this stresses on the situations that projects doubts on a straight forward relation between attitudes and behaviour, attitudes are often analysed because of a belief that they may be the basis of behaviour (Bohner, 2004: 270). Social psychologists concentrate on the priority of maintaining the adherence to the 'correspondence principle' when associating attitudes with behaviour as people's general attitudes (e.g. measurement of attitudes towards religion through a questionnaire) cannot be really related to certain behaviour (e.g. attending a specific religious ceremony on a particular day) (Bohner, 2004: 271). Attitudes can be associated with behaviour if both have been ascertained specific dimensions in relation to the same contextual pattern. For example, this paper attempts to relate a general

measurement of students' attitudes towards French with their specific language choice during classroom interactions. In agreement with the correspondence principle, language choice in the classroom context will be correlated with students' attitudes towards French as a language of instruction. This approach ensures that both attitudes and behaviour have been measured in relation to the educational context. Correlating to the same level of generality during the measurement of attitudes and behaviour can create the expected value of language attitudes during the research of language behaviour (Baker, 1992: 16). However, general attitudes cannot really predict given behavioural forms, they can nevertheless be linked to a connection of various behaviours in accordance with the 'aggregation principle' (Bohner, 2004: 272). The criteria of the 'aggregation principle' are highlighted in Weigel and Newman's (1976) study of attitudes towards the environment. Participants were first given a questionnaire judging their attitudes towards the environment before they were given several opportunities participate in likeable contextual activities such as recycling. The measure of the 'aggregated' or combined behaviours revealed a very high connection with the attitudes manifested in the questionnaire. Specific reasons that are related to given context in which behaviour happens may have a noticeable impact on people's responses and therefore result in a disagreement between their attitudes and their behaviour. Henceforth, attitudes have been explained as better predictors of large behavioural responses than of given behaviours (Baker, 1992: 17). Research on the remarkable complexity of the connection between language attitudes and linguistic behaviour can provide particular and important insights into the sociopsychological significance of language use. The possible absence of accordance between speaker's language attitudes and his/her language behaviour often represents a major point of interest in linguistics (Garrett *et al.* 2003: 9). For example, during a job interview a intelligent speaker may accommodate his/her language use to correspond with a socially prestigious language or towards a language which is normally evaluated favourably. Thus, the specific requirements of the interview have urged the speaker to change his/her usual speech or style because of the consideration that such behaviour can promote his/her chances to obtain the job. This explanation can only be attained by matching attitudinal criteria with language behaviour responses. Therefore, a

noticeable emphasis on language attitudes and language behaviour embodies a better revelation of the interrelationship between language acts and socio-psychological reasons such as language attitudes. According to Hamers and Blanc (2000: 8) socio-psychological processes have often an impact on language production, and individuals make use of language as an instrument to transmit significance and accomplish specific roles. The research of the relationship between language attitudes and language behaviour specifically corresponds to multilingual situations, as code-switching bilinguals, unlike style-shifting monolinguals, are most of the time conscious of the distinctive codes which are found in their speech communities (Milroy & Gordon, 2006: 210). For instance, a speaker's attitudes towards the several codes they use can have an impact on his/her language choice. In this context an assumption can be stated is that speakers are aware that separate codes exist, so an important part of research on code-switching and language choice emphasized on speakers' self-reports (Milroy & Gordon, 2006: 210). However, speakers' self-reports of their linguistic patterns could not be rightly established by social desirability. Speakers can provide inaccurate comments on their use of socially prestigious languages and refute their real use of socially stigmatised varieties (Milroy & Gordon, 2006: 211).

One aspect linked to language attitude behaviour is learning that embraces diversity in behaviour or in the real acting in behaviour. People acquire knowledge when they are able to perform an activity differently. In the same context, it should be noted that learning is based on an indirect process. However, the products or outcomes of learning is not watched clearly. Learning is assumed to be based on what people say, write, and do. It should also be mentioned, that learning embodies a different ability to act in a given way as it is not unusual for people to acquire skills, knowledge, beliefs, or behaviours without manifesting them at the time the systematic study happens. Investigation in the field of motivation in accordance with language learning has been carried out for several decades. The most important analysis is the one exposed by Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, 2001) which proposed meaningful correlations between affective variables (i.e., attitude, desire, and motivation) and second language learning attainment.

### 1.1.3.6 The View of Gardner

Gardner (1985:10) views attitudes as constituents of motivation in language learning. According to him, **‘motivation... refers to the combination of effort as well as the desire to achieve the goal of learning, the language plus favourable attitudes toward learning the language’**. He sees that the motivation to acquire competencies in a foreign language evolved by basic predispositions and personality characteristics such as the learner’s attitudes towards foreign people in general, and the speakers of that target language and language in particular, willingness for learning and general evaluations. He states that the process of L2 acquisition starts from the social environment where students hold basic attitudes towards the culture pertaining to L2. These preset beliefs were obtained from their own cultures. The social environment, however, has an impact on strategies, which learners utilise in attaining the L2. The individual differences in L2 acquisition should be known and it is essential important consider learning situation (i.e. educational or cultural) because they promote the performance of L2 through direct (i.e. explicit instruction) and indirect (i.e. cultural immersion) strategies. When the learners have already attained experience and skills of the L2, they obtain multiple positive result such as fluency and appreciation of the other culture. After considering these criteria, it is hypothesised that the extent of exposure to language learning influences positively the attitudes of the learners.

Two social psychological variables- attitudes and motivation- are of great importance. According to Gardner (1985) the term ‘motivation’ means **‘referring to the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity.’** p. 10. Gardner (1985) explains that language learning is characterised by the valuable role of motivation. Therefore, five language learning features (i.e., job related, travel, friendship, increased knowledge, and school achievement) referred to Clément and Kruidenier’s (1983) study were involved in MacIntyre et al.’s (2001) study. Social milieu was also included as an influential element by the conceptual L2 WTC model of MacIntyre et al. (1998). MacIntyre et al. (2001) suggested that social environment

can arouse from many sources such as parents, teachers, and peers, wherefrom social frame of reference might be particularly helpful to the real performance in the target language of the language learners. Therefore, the correlations among social support and linguistic skills activities were dealt with both inside and outside the classroom in the investigation. The data showed coherent and intense relationship among different language skill areas and different situations, and this proposed that language learning was rather an aspect similar to variable as presented by McCroskey and associates. The language learning orientations in terms of job, travel, friendship, knowledge, and school seemed to have an important link with actual use of language outside than inside the classroom.

#### 1.1.3.7 The Position of Lambert

The Canadian psychologist Wallace Lambert is a pioneer in the exploration of learner attitudes in accordance with language learning. He identified two types of orientation: integrative and instrumental (1964:181):

**An instrumental orientation to learning stresses the utilitarian value of L2 proficiency, of which getting a pay raise or a better job or a good grade in school are examples. In contrast, an orientation is said to be integrative if it reflects an openness toward another culture group, an openness that may include a desire to be accepted as a member of that group.**

The main concern here, is that the aim for which a given language is attained can influence the learner's judgments about languages. Hence, the present research aims at discovering language learning –instrumental orientation- influence on learners' language attitudes whereby the views that the learner hold are taken into account. Besides, another issue can seek not only what people think about languages but what they do as well. This can be sought in activities people perform such as the newspapers they read, the TV programmes they watch as well as the variety they use in speech situations for given topics.

According to Lambert (1964), attitudes have been considered in terms of the following components:

- 1- The *cognitive* component is designated as the internalized beliefs about objects and situations.
- 2- The *affective* component is designated as the sum of positive or negative feeling one has towards such a situation.
- 3- The *conative* component is designated as behavioural patterns, or the actual behaviour towards the object.

The above elements are part and parcel of the person's behaviour, feeling, thought and manner of acting. A person assigns given criteria to a language which can be regarded as an "evaluative scale". The evaluation of languages is internalized in the conscience of individuals, whereby part of their cognitive world is formed and composed of a series of opinions shared by a social group. Thus, they are particularly constructed series of beliefs pertaining to a social significance shared by members of the same group.

Language learning is found to be the only current which was purposefully and significantly associated with the motivation both inside and outside the classroom while promoting various language competence activities. Friendship and knowledge trends were related to the classroom circle, while job, knowledge, and school references were always linked to communication outside the classroom.

#### 1.1.3.8 What is Motivation?

There is an intuitive meaning of motivation. In other words, however, one might comprehend that the conceptualization of motivation is not as clear as probably thought. In daily language, motivation is what urges a person to perform an act. The degree of motivation has an impact on the endeavour an individual traces on his way to carry out an action, the endurance of a certain behaviour, and the degree of pertinacity in a particular process. Furthermore, motivation can hold diversity as it can merely and quickly be changed by the individual himself.

Gardner (2007) states that it not possible to determine the complex phenomenon that is motivation; while, one can state various traits of the motivated individual. As stated by Gardner the motivated individual is oriented by a goal, makes effort, is



perseverant, pays much attention, is willing, manifests positive influence, is dynamic, conceive predictions, shows self-confidence, and has basic thoughts. In the domain of education, he distinguishes language learning motivation from classroom learning motivation. The first is referred to the motivation to attain a second/foreign language “relevant in any second language-learning context”, while the second is linked to the individual’s learning motivation in the classroom. It should be mentioned that, multiple elements such as the material designed for learning, the contextual items, as well as classroom environment can influence the kind of motivation. Therefore, it can be stated that motivation is a complex process which cannot be easily determined since there are many reasons contributing to the influence of motivation. Henceforth, it is not surprising that a great deal of motivation theories has been established in order to explain the nature of motivation.

#### 1.1.3.9 Instrumental Motivation

Instrumental motivation is determined in terms of realistic and efficient purpose in goal. According to McClelland (1961, as quoted by Baker 1992: 31) this type of motivation is mainly self-directed and personal as well as linked to the need for accomplishment of educational tasks. For instance, a person can learn a foreign language in order to obtain social recognition, economic advantages, in order to promote his/her professional career, or to reach the required achievements or self-reliance (Baker 1992: 32, Gardner and Lambert 1972: 14). In other words, one needs to consider at this stage English or French for Specific Purpose area which has been explored and organised on the basis of needs of students pursuing courses in different fields of technology and sciences. If, for example, an engineering student is only taught literature with the aim to talk with native people, he may not show improvement unless he has interest in literature. This purpose is also providing employment and job opportunities to those who are well-versed in English or French. After due consideration, it is hypothesised that instrumental factor can have an influence on learners’ attitudes as motivation may enhance more success at language learning. The French language dominance as well as the need to learn English for different domains such as technology and economic sciences are mainly an indication of experience in communication. Therefore, it is proposed that there is a relationship

between language attitudes and instrumental motivation. This hypothesis is somewhat similar to that in Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (1988) that indicates that attitudes toward a given behaviour have direct influences on intentions.

#### 1.1.3.10 Integrative Motivation

Integrative attitude is mostly social and interpersonal in its main purpose is associated with the need for affiliation (Baker 1992: 32). A student with integrative motivation prefers to study a foreign language because he or she would like to secure and gain friendship, or identify with the speakers of that language and their cultural activities (Baker 1992: 32, Gardner and Lambert 1972:14). Nevertheless, Fasold (1984:148) assumes that we have to consider that while attitudes can have an impact on responses of learning stimuli to a certain degree; they do not ascertain it totally because behaviour is also referred to various determinants. It has been confirmed in several investigations that most of the time people manifest responses that are not described verbally and their attitudes are not really indicated in their self-reports. (Gardner 1985).

The variable, integrativeness, refers to an authentic importance in learning a foreign language so that the learner is involved psychologically in the target language community. This aspect is concerned with the affective identification with another cultural group. The socio-educational model may be based on an essential factor indicating an integrative orientation towards the learning situation and positive attitude towards the language community in addition to openness felt to other groups in general. In other words, the motivational aim of integrativeness is based on such a remarkable complexity of attitudes that includes more than just the other language community.

#### 1.1.3.11 Motivation to communicate

Some people are ambitious to talk effectively in speech situations, whereas others prefer to speak only when they are addressed; individuals consider that they feel better when speaking to some interlocutors while keeping silent with others seem to be the best choice. McCroskey and associates (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; McCroskey

&Richmond, 1987, 1991) asserts that willingness to communicate (WTC) is a constituent based on personal traits that correlate with regular individual's readiness to practice effectively in a speech situation.

Willingness to communicate in a second or foreign language is an area of research specifically included in the field of second language acquisition. The research purpose of the current study was to examine language learners' willingness to communicate in a foreign language learning context. Investigators should emphasize on the first studies dealing with the basic constituent of WTC in foreign language experience and highlighting the development of the structure of WTC patterns and their Beginning with the antecedent studies contributing to the initial construct of WTC in L1 and tracing the evolution of the construction of WTC models and its fundamental elements. The concept of willingness to communicate was widened to include its initial origin from the first language communication field to a complex process including communicative, linguistic, and social psychological prospects after it is led towards foreign language learning and communication scope. Given these considerations, a better examination of the multiple factors which were expected to have an impact on WTC in FL follows. Current investigations carried out on WTC in FL settings are then tackled to provide a better analysis of the development, achievements, and the most modern study in this field, so that give a deeper view of how the cotemporary research participated to the prominence of willingness to communicate.

#### 1.1.3.12 Early Studies of Communication

The genuine source of the concept of willingness to communicate was formulated from investigation in the domain of communication. In-depth research in communication, especially research based on empirical analysis, began around the 1930s (McCroskey, 1997). Investigators' research was nearly a special emphasis of the communication research during that period. There were not enough reports concerning skills that were suggested as the only reason for stage fright (Clevenger, 1959), which later changed into the notion of communication apprehension (McCroskey, 1982a). The publication of Clevenger's (1959) article resumed 25 years of research on stage

fright and was regarded a fundamental unit that enhanced research later in the areas of communication approaching and avoidance. Philips' (1965) first research considered "reticence" as the main factor that creates anxiety and then personality-disorder. Nonetheless, in his later work (1984, 1986, 1997) he refuted this first explanation, proposing that while anxiety might be at the basis of inhibition, insufficient communication competencies should be stated as the main reason. Philips (1984) also puts an emphasis on the idea that people who have a psychological obstacle may or may not really have weak social skills, but they think they do.

#### 1.1.3.13 The Fundamental Units of the Willingness to Communicate

Three major studies referred to a suggested aspect like susceptibility toward communication were determined as the fundamental activity work upon which McCroskey and associates established their initial WTC concept. This main research work was the task of Burgoon (1976) on unwillingness to communicate, Mortensen, Arnston, and Lustig (1977) on propensity towards oral skill, and McCroskey and Richmond (1982) on shyness (McCroskey, 1997; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987). Burgoon's (1976) initial work was on the constituent of unwillingness to communicate, which was considered a general communication element showing a favourable tendency of **"a chronic tendency to avoid and/or devalue oral communication"** (p. 60). The studies of anomie and alienation were considered as a basic research holding various traits such as introversion, self-esteem, and communication apprehension, Burgoon used a personal comment about measuring, the Unwillingness-to-Communication Scale (UCS) to determine the fundamental unit practically. There were two fundamental items in the measure which were referred as "approach-avoidance" and "reward" to refer respectively to **"how likely a person is to approach and participate in communication situations"** (p. 64) and **"whether an individual generally finds communication rewarding—because others listen, understand and are honest—or unrewarding—because they ignore or try to use him/her"** (p. 64). The data found in the result of the analysis did not maintain the suggested natural tendency of unwillingness to communicate. The results were rather simple suggestion holding that people who had communication fright tended to avoid

engaging in communication more than others (McCroskey, 1997). Mortensen et al.'s (1977) research advanced in the analysis of the predisposition criterion of communication experience. The investigators observed that there was a coherent amount of communication for a person while participating in various communication situations and they named this coherence "predisposition toward verbal behaviour". A comment scale titled Predisposition toward Verbal Behaviour (PVB) scale was used to determine the measurements that provided proposed general predisposition characteristic. However, the analysis fundamental item proposed that the sole reason appeared to test a general predisposition in communication engagement. The effectiveness of this scale on its analysis of the tendency of willingness or unwillingness to express one's self was then doubtful. As a result, as proposed by McCroskey (1997), the obtained result of the research did not reveal **"additional indications that some regularity exists in the amount an individual communicates"** (p. 80). The third fundamental task for the conceptualisation how WTC is conceived is McCroskey and Richmond (1982)'s research on psychological inhibition known as shyness. Shyness is determined as **"the tendency to be timid, reserved, and most specifically, talkless"** (p. 460). The McCroskey Shyness Scale (MSS) was designated as a personal comment of the degree of expressiveness in which people are particularly found. The exploration also utilized the behavioural criteria seen in real life report of the speakers in order to test the efficacy of the measurement scale. The data obtained in the result of the investigation proposed that the MSS was an efficient indicator of real life communication experience in terms of the degree of talk. However, the MSS did not show the validity of the tendency of willingness or unwillingness to communicate.

#### 1.1.3.14 Features of Willingness to Communicate

In spite of the fact that the initial examinations did not assert the real significance of the proposed tendency to communicate, it was noted that there was a given type of perseverance in people's verbal pattern in terms of the degree and regularity of talk. Given such consideration, McCroskey and Richmond (1987) put forward the term willingness to communicate and regarded it as a concept that

embraces predisposition. This personality orientation can argue why one individual prefers talking and another does not under similar environmental conditions. Here a question can be asked on why people hold different views in their willingness to talk. McCroskey and Richmond (1987) probe was based on a series of features that they thought would create differences in a person's communication willingness. They labelled these features the "antecedents" of willingness to communicate, even though, also asserted the complicated context revealing that these features may not be the factors of the change in WTC. They proposed that there was the probability that some of these underlying variables developed with the WTC tendency on the same way. Thus, it is suggested that these criteria may be included in reciprocal provenance with each other, and it is more probable that the underlying factors as well as the readiness to talk are caused in common by other generating elements (p. 138). Six features were mentioned by McCroskey and Richmond (1987) as the indicators that may be at the origin of personal difference of willingness to communicate. These six features or variables were 'introversion, anomie and alienation, self-esteem, cultural divergence, communication skill level, and communication apprehension'. All features were thought to have a probable correlation with communication behavioural patterns based on first exploration of each feature in the field of psychology and communication. The determination of these six preliminary constituents urged the emergence of a series of research which emphasized the establishment of the WTC variables by analysing various features and possible correlations. WTC was first formed in L1 communication contexts as a tendency directly related to personal traits. Most of the features tested by investigators during 70s, 80s, and the early 90s were indicators of personality linked to these six fundamental units (Barraclough, Christophel, & McCroskey, 1988; MacIntyre, 1994; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987, 1990a, 1990b; Sallinen-Kuparinen, McCroskey, & Richmond, 1991). One of the studies carried out on the fundamental units in question of WTC in L1, two factors—communication apprehension (CA) and self-perceived communication competence (SPCC)—have been exposed to influential examination from explorers both in the conception and practical works concerning WTC. McCroskey and Richmond (1987) assert that the amount of an individual's communication fright was **"probably the single best predictor of his or her**

**willingness to communicate”** (p. 142) and **“the most potent of the antecedents of willingness to communicate”** (p. 142). When referring to the factors provenance, MacIntyre (1994) discovered that communication fear and personal conceptualisation of communication competence were the only two close features underlying the changeable situation of an individual’s WTC. When current real life investigations were carried out on WTC, McCroskey (1997) asserted that WTC emerged as the best indicator of people’s actual communication acts, whereas **“CA and SPCC appeared to measure the factors that make the major contribution to prediction of a person’s WTC”** (p. 105).

## 1.2 The Scope of the Investigation

### Introduction

The present research paper emphasizes on speakers’ language attitudes in correlation with education, as it is likely one of the most important means by which learners’ evaluations are spread in society. One can consider that schools can be considered to proliferate and promote cultural values about language and there may be more tendency to transmit self-reported attitudes. This research also tackles the relation between language proficiency and positive or negative attitudes towards given languages. Henceforth, this paper purpose is to discover judgments of non-standard varieties known as dialects as well as considering the level and purpose of the impact of language usage on language attitudes. Attitudes may also be shaped by motivation and standards that can be viewed as important reasons that influence attitudes. Therefore, it is essential for language teachers to consider that theoretical assumptions alone are not enough for an adequate learning. So they should try to discover their real motivations, attitudes and valuable learning contents. A unique means to promote student’s motivation does not exist; the way to reach this objective is to raise questions as to what urges each learner to be present in the classroom and increase learning? Hence, what are their assumptions and predispositions to language learning?

Language usage is dealt with in terms of language learning. It is explained as follows:

-University subject: French and English for Specific Purpose. The informants' criteria dealt with are presented in the following sub-sections:

a- Students enrolled in a Scientific branch in the Preparatory School for Sciences and Techniques

The Tlemcen Preparatory School for Sciences and Techniques (EPST-Tlemcen) was created to provide training for two (02) years around four (05) fundamental units:

- Mathematics
- Physics and chemistry
- Languages
- Technological modules
- Modules related to engineering, sociology and economics

These units allow the student to acquire the conceptual, quantitative and methodological tools essential to ensure his success in accessing the 'Grandes Ecoles' in the best conditions.

b- Students enrolled in an Economic branch in the Preparatory School for Commercial Sciences, Management and Economics.

The Tlemcen Preparatory School of Economics, Business and Management Sciences (EPSECG-Tlemcen) was created to provide training for two (02) years around four (04) fundamental units:

- Mathematics
- Economics and management techniques
- Languages
- General culture

These modules enable the students to deal with a range of mathematical as well as economic information that help them to have access to the 'Grandes Ecoles' in the best conditions.

In any of these broad areas more information about the informants' language usage will be given accordingly. Second year students were selected as they were assumed to be more involved in language learning. Forty females and the same number of male informants are questioned from each branch. The students are aged between twenty



and twenty three. The respondents are split into groups and the group comprises ten informants.

The examination of language attitude is dealt with in relation with language proficiency. Language selection in different situations, such as speech situations, radio listening, TV watching is analyzed. Stereotype classification is also tackled. In forming stereotypes, categorizing and assigning symbols, otherwise being necessary, change into exaggerated images of groups rather than considering people as simple groups. Speakers are regarded as members of a group who gather according to nationality they have and the language they speak. Stereotypes investigations in relation to foreign language (FL) learning can be carried out in the context of related concepts studied together with stereotypes, attitudes and motivation. Stangor (2000) puts an emphasis on the idea that stereotypes and prejudice are the result of social categorization. Social categorization takes place when, one believes that another person is a special individual, instead of regarding the person as an individual belonging to a group of people. Stereotypes are associated with an insufficient personal, real familiarity that members have with persons whose racial origin or ethnic group are different (Hurst, 2007). Understanding behavioural patterns according to one's culture has serious effects on the orientation of attitudes towards other people. Hofstede's (2001) pattern of multiple cultures easily reveals that different interpretations of the same concepts may induce prejudging or misjudging groups of persons who have different cultures. The present research aims at presenting some ideas of foreign language learning influence on students' stereotyping classification with an attempt to raise the questioning about their subconscious interpretation of stereotyped concepts.

The research questions are :

- What reasons for learning English do students consider important?
- What kind of attitudes do the participants have towards the use of French in their studies?
- Do economic or technological studies have an impact on stereotypes?
- To what extent does the specific use of English influence their feelings?

- For what uses and contexts do students think English and French are particularly well suited?
- How do students feel about the use of foreign languages, dialect, Tamazight as well as Standard Arabic by males and females?
- To what extent do students' opinions about French differ from those held on English?
- To what extent are students' language attitudes related to the frequency of their English and French usage outside the classroom?
- Which stereotypical representations associated with language attitudes can be revealed?
- Which forms of gender stereotyping occur in particular within each branch?
- Is it possible that learners show stereotypes to themselves?
- Do language attitudes influence a speaker's language selection in speech situations, watching TV programmes, reading magazines and newspapers as well as to radio listening?

### 1.2.1 Standardisation vs Non-Standardisation

#### Introduction

Linguists have pointed out that all languages can support linguistic work for which they are designed. Theoretically, any language can be standardised so it is used in a wider scope with the necessary adjustments to cope with a situation recognised as standard. Languages and dialects are given roles that become part and parcel of our everyday life. This is why an emphasis should be put on the purpose in goal of language status in a given society.

#### 1.2.1.1 Non-Standardisation

Ryan (1979) views that the survival of non-standard and low prestige language varieties depends on the solidarity function of speech as the main causality. Non-standard varieties are often correlated with low social status groups and reach the

evaluation of the status of their speakers. Low status Individuals of low status are really conscious of the social position they are related to. Standard and non-standard individuals are relative to stereotypes as standard speakers are considered superior in traits such as intelligence, ambition, wealth, success, and education (Arthur, Farrar, Bradford (1974); Bourhis and Giles (1976); Brennan.

In the Arabic-speaking countries the mother tongue is considered to be a non-standard variety. In other words, it is acquired in a non-official environment. A child can speak his mother tongue and acquire its social structure, which is meant to be the sub-stratum of his innermost experience. A mother tongue is not only an automatic task but also learned responses which become co-ordinated by social rules. Thus, speech is regarded as the major vehicle used to attain the social structure which is part of individual experience. This linguistic medium is known as a dialect, too. **“The speakers' rating of their mother tongues depends upon sociocultural and political factors”** (Weinreich, 1953:104). For instance, dialects are used for conversing with friends or colleagues and at home.

Ferguson (1959) argues the situation where two varieties of the same language function in a speech community. This situation is known as diglossia. In other words, a context where a non-standard spoken variety known as dialect, considered to be ‘low’ and a standard one regarded as ‘high’ are spoken. Ferguson states that the ‘low variety’ has fewer grammatical, morphological categories and a reduced system of Inflection. Stewarts (1968) views that dialects are vital, that is used in wider communication which means that their speakers use them easily, and they are not considered as autonomous<sup>1</sup> as well as educational.

#### 1.2.1.2 Social identity

Languages and dialects main role is to convey meaning through communication in the daily life of individuals. When dealing with the oral communication system, the terms of dialect and (standard) language are the same and Haugen(1987:15) points out that: **"One man's dialect is another man's language."** The difference between dialect and (standard) language seems to refer mainly to a categorising evaluation.

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<sup>1</sup>This idea is concerned with dependence related to borrowing that can be considered as value-judgments that people associate with linguistic varieties.

The dialect is regarded as subordinate and regionally confined in relation to the (standard) language as a superordinate language (German *Überdichtung*, Goossens 1973, 1985). The difference in ranking based on a variety of features: on difference in functionality, on geographical expansion, on language or structural distance (affinity) and the subjective classification of this difference by the speakers themselves (Kloss 1985; Weinreich 1953:69-70, 104-6) One should consider here is how important 'social identity,' is in an effort to relate meaning to the data we observe when examining dialects and languages. Social identity was first defined by Tajfel as **"the individual's knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership"** (Tajfel, 1972: 292). It is referred to the main constituent of the social identity theory established by Tajfel and Turner (1979) that aimed at explaining group processes, intergroup relationships, and the social self (Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995). The social context is judged to hold a division in classification **"the process of locating oneself, or another person, within a system of social categorizations or, as a noun, to any social categorization used by a person to define him- or herself and others"** or classifications that reflect social categorizations. Social determination refers to (Turner, 1982:17). The total of all social identifications determining an individual forms his or her social identity (Turner, 1982). When analysing attitudes from a social identity prospect, Hogg and Smith (2007) conceived attitudes as **"normative attributes of social groups that define who we are and provide us with an identity in society"** (p. 120). Individual attitudes reveal the prescribed attitudes that reflect intergroup similarities and ingroup – outgroup differences.

Attitudes are linked to group membership, which are embodied in the proceeding of identity structure. When pertaining to several groups, a person attains prescribed attitudes of these various groups and thus constitutes his or her attitudinal individuality. In other words, Sherif (1936) pointed out that **"man's socialization is revealed mainly in his attitudes formed in relation to the values or norms of his reference group or groups** (p. 203). Therefore, people assume the prototypic ingroup attitudes as their own (Wood, 2010: 557). Turner (1982) described attitude diversity as

a series of related operations of referent informational influence, wherefrom attitudes are shaped to function according to the cognitive representation of the prescribed attitudes. Furthermore, attitude diversity is exaggerated when group membership is prominent, as a means of influence is the individual's social identification. One of the remarkable sociological questions that must be asked deals with the corresponding continuation of non-standard speech varieties in front of largely identified standard one.

### 1.2.2 Standardization

Historical and national features have an important role in the attitudes held by individuals in a society towards several language varieties. The status of languages depending on government decisions can be referred to as instances of language planning. For example, a language is identified by a government as a national language constitutionally, whereby language attitudes can be influenced. Linguistically speaking, both standard and non-standard languages can be spoken, rule-governed and utilised according to social rules. In this context, Trudgill (1995:129) states:

**People have attitudes towards languages: In fact these attitudes are held on many bases: cultural, social, political, regional, racial and so on. We all have attitudes towards X or Y language. To criticize the structure "I seen" and "Idone it" as poor structure has no linguistic foundation.**

Members of a society establish a dichotomy between linguistic media on the basis of written or spoken standard status and non-standard spoken one. In other words, language status either standard or non-standard status of a variety can influence individuals' attitudes.

Standard languages are the type of linguistic media considered to be 'proper' languages or 'prestigious', official and correct. A dialect is viewed as a non-standard medium can have a standard status because of a political decision.

For instance, Tamazight<sup>1</sup> in Algeria used to be regarded as a dialect and non-standard variety, since 2001 it has been adopted as a national language; that is a variety of a political, social and cultural entity and it is recognised by 2016 constitution as an official<sup>2</sup> language. Yet, Berber has no standard form. Standard languages pass through the following processes (Haugen 1966, Garvin 1959).

(1) Selection: The standard variety is assigned political and/or educational roles. The importance lies at the social and political levels. It is related to the people the prestige criterion. Nevertheless, most of the time this standard variety is the native language of no-one, a good example is that of Standard Arabic in the Arab states.

(2) Codification: The variety is 'fixed' by written dictionaries and grammar books, so that everyone knows about the correct form and meaning of words. Codification is established in order to provide the learners with the correct forms.

(3) Elaboration of function: The variety in question is utilised in all functions related to government duties and writing, like parliament, law courts, bureaucratic, educational and scientific documents. This might need the addition of new linguistic items such as technical words so that different domains are served like medicine, chemistry, etc.

(4) Acceptance: The selected variety is normally accepted by the relevant population as the variety of the community. In fact, it is usually considered as the national language. The standard language is supposed to be a factor of a strong unifying force for the state. It is also a reflection of its independence from other states and an indicator of being different from others. For instance, Algeria and all other Arab states recognize Standard Arabic as a national language shared with all other Arab states.

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<sup>1</sup>There are many Berber varieties. This is explained in section 2.1.4.3

<sup>2</sup>That is a language given a special legal status in a particular country, state, or other jurisdiction (e.g., courts, parliament, administration)

Moreover, this standard form is the mother tongue of no one. In fact, one language is used at home and another is used when presenting official speech or religious sermon; as it is the case with Arab dialects as opposite to standard Arabic. Stewart (1968) considers standard languages as autonomous but artificial at the level of everyday use. The criteria described above concerning standardization have been largely accepted by sociolinguists (Fasold 1984, Milroy 1985, Haugen 1994).

Ferguson sees that standard languages are associated with high status and have a greater grammatical and morphological complexity. For example, these varieties are utilized for writing formal speech or as a medium of instruction. A national language is considered to be a medium of language loyalty. It is directed according to rules and given a socio-political, national and official importance. Edwards (1982:201) states that **“the use of a standard language would be expression of social preference, which reflect an awareness of the status and prestige”**.

Essentially, the basic difference between prestige, function, and status is the difference between past, present, and future. The record is the main constituent of prestige, or what people think it is so. The role of a language is what people really do with it as Alexander Bergs states it :

**“every language period and every language community must be investigated independently and in its own right. The actual concepts and functions of class, gender, networks, and, most importantly, norms, standards, and prestige, differ radically in different communities.”**

The different functions of a language determine its status and what people can do with it, its potential status, thus, it is the total of what you can do with a language in several domains-legally, culturally, economically, politically and, of course, demographically. In spite of the fact that the two concepts are clearly correlated and interdependent, it is not really the same as what you do with the language. They can also be related with the prestige of a language. Let us exemplify the differences. Classical Latin had a lot of prestige but it had few functions. Swahili has a lot of functions, but little prestige. Irish Gaelic has a given status, official status, but few exclusive functions.

The political authority can impel the favourability of a variety playing a given role in a speech community. This situation can trace the way for a classification of attitudes towards the national language as well as foreign languages. In fact, it is suggested that learners like attaining a foreign language in correlation with the Algerian environment; since it is thought that the linguistic criterion is not sufficient to foster a learner to be a member of the target community. A learner aim is to learn a foreign language and the culture of its speaker, but does not necessarily identify himself/herself with the community in question. For example, an Algerian citizen who is well-versed in the French language is not necessarily regarded as a member of the French community.

Learned foreign languages are varieties recognized as standard. The access to foreign languages opens up a series of experiences that cannot be obtained otherwise. A learner who attains knowledge during two or more years of university studies in English has a better chance of understanding an English newspaper or some criteria of the English culture such as traditions. A learner needs to promote a foreign language; hence, this can create an impact on opinions of the target language as well. One of the most compatible reports of the correlation between language learning and attitude change is that in Morgan (1993). She argues:

**Attitude change does not operate in isolation. In order for change to take place some basic re-structuring on a cognitive level with probable shifts in affectivity must occur.**

In other words, foreign language learning in university alone does not appear to affect attitudes. Others reasons, such as the status that a given foreign language hold in the world, can determine the importance of the influence of language assessments. English, for example, which is a world language, that is a medium used over wide commercial and technological areas in the world, is not really judged in the same way as French, which is not an international language but is used in everyday speech in Algeria.



### 1.2.2.1 Language Planning

Tauli (1968) defines language planning as follows: **”Language planning is the methodical activity of regulating and improving existing languages or creating new common regional, national, or international languages”**. He sees that the theory of language planning is a study based on narration as opposed to a descriptive or factual science as it tackles values and language assessment. Moreover, education is widely affected by language planning fulfillment; wherefrom schools and universities are one of the key agencies of socialization. Learners enrolled in school and university studies are attentive listeners, so one can suggest that their attitudes and behaviour can be shaped accordingly.

Cooper (1989) suggests that ‘acquisition planning’ as an instrument for the attainment of larger position of planning purpose, this determines planning oriented at developing numbers of users/ speakers of given languages. The following issues related to planning are found to be linked to ‘language planning in education’:

- The selection of medium of instruction for different levels of the educational system: primary, middle school, secondary, higher education

- The position of the home languages (national/official languages) in the educational system

- The selection of foreign languages as main subjects of instruction, along with related to decisions on:

- When these languages will be utilized into the educational programme, whether foreign language study will be made necessary, for whom and for how long.

- In the case of ‘foreign language’, what variety of the language will serve as a medium for teaching purpose.

One should point out that the features stated above are regarded as educational; they also have much larger social and political importance. For instance, utilizing a medium- which was regarded as a dialect in the past- in the educational system can have an impact on the opinions of pupils and students. In most cases, the official form of languages designed to accomplish various educational aims are well-suited to be the same as the forms used in more general contexts. For instance, the standard written form of a national language that is taught and examined in schools and universities is

tend be the same as the one used in some official documents and in literary works. The verbal form of the same variety is preferred by members of the society, radio and television announcers.

This could also be completely correlated with the planning of language use, roles, functions, and forms in commerce, the mass media, science and technology, socio economic development programmes, law, internal administration, the courts, the diplomatic and military sectors, as well as in state-supported cultural and religious environments. One can suggest that language status or importance as well as language planning can affect the learners 'attitudes favourably; who would learn a foreign language effectively.

#### 1.2.2.2 Language Policy

'Language planning' and 'language policy' are two different, though, correlated concepts, which have some characteristics. They are both top down, including methodical and well-structured efforts to avoid language problems, which have most of the time a social, political and/or economic direction (cited in Poon, 2004). The main difference between these two features is that language planning is a macro sociological work in a governmental and national spheres only, however language policy can be **"either a macro- or micro sociological activity at a governmental and national level or at an institutional level"** (cited in Poon, 2004). Language planning main concern is based on status planning and corpus planning, however, language policy tackles corpus planning and acquisition planning (cited in Poon, 2004). When there is deficiency of language planning, language policy can function at either the level of the government or the institutional one. Consequently, language policy embodies a larger set of contexts than language planning, which is oriented by the government and tackles status planning and corpus planning only (Poon 2004). Language planning refers to well-organized efforts to affect the behaviour of others in accordance to the acquisition, constructs [corpus], or functional allocation [status] of their language codes (Cooper 1989). It is a sum of assumptions, laws and codes (language policy), change rules, thoughts, and experiences meant to accomplish a designed change in the language use in one or more communities.

Language planning includes methodical change meant for future practice in systems of language code and or verbal experience in a social situations (Kaplan 1997).

### 1.2.2.3 Language Learning

Learning a language is attaining knowledge in an institutionalized context such as school or university. A learner acquires more linguistic skills of a given language. One trait correlated to language attitude behaviour is learning that implies change in behaviour or in the ability for behavioural patterns. People learn when they are able to do something in a different way. Similarly, we must retain that learning is inferential. We do not watch learning directly, instead, its products or outcomes are noticed in real and effective practice. Learning is referred to what people say, write, and do. It should also be mentioned that learning entails a newly developed capacity to behave in a given way as it is not unusual for people to acquire competencies, knowledge, beliefs, or practical experience without manifesting them at the time learning happens. Another feature is that learning takes place thanks to real life encountering (e.g, practice, observation of others). This feature omits behavioural changes that are mainly identified by heredity, such as maturational changes in children (e.g, crawling, standing). However, the difference between maturation and learning is not always clear-cut. Learners may be genetically predisposed to manifest behaviour in given ways, but the actual evolvement of the specific practice depends on contextual situations. Language provides a good example as the human vocal apparatus becomes competent and more ready to make use of language; but the real terms produced are learned from behaving with others. Even though, heredity is a critical issue for children's language acquisition, learning as well as social interactions with parents, teachers, and peers represents a strong impact on children's language accomplishments (Mashburn, Justice, Downer, & Pianta, 2009).

Various varieties of language refer to several settings for language learning and language use. For example, nonstandard dialects are the outcome and not the reason of social environment. In-depth study is required for the favourability for the learning of standard languages, such as foreign languages. The most important goal is to urge students to learn foreign languages. This motivation is based on a number of

presuppositions. The most important may be the convenience that schools can and do enable the learner to have access to the required knowledge. Most, provided that we control such The control of factors such as presentation, repetition, and the impact of the mother tongue or dialect can open up the way of methodology courses that have led us to think that language can be taught appropriately. Adequate language learning is believed to bring about the support of the learner's ambition: school success, job security, financial reward and social mobility, thus, our main duty is to see that the requirements for reaching these goals provide efficient learning of French and English- which is a product of our teaching programmes. This main concern on the importance of standard English or French as a factor in school achievement and social mobility may be an explanation of the impact of language in social milieu. Criteria of this area of concern will be taken into consideration here; the learning of English and French by students meant to be engineers can raise this question. What positions are held for the acquisition of communicative competence in either French or English? Hence, the learning of these languages is not the main concern of these learners.

One can suggest that the time spent and type spent on learning can have an impact on learners' attitudes. When performing activities in a given linguistic medium the individual is supposed to develop various skills like reading, writing, speaking and listening. This language proficiency can entail beliefs and opinions.

Beliefs about the importance of language learning may not, for instance, interpret into real language learning behaviour; however a positive cognitive constituent may underlie a negative emotional feature.

Language learning is dealt with in relation to the following components:

-function: the use of the language in the domains (e.g. use as a university subject, use in the domain of science).

-legal status: closely related to functions but does not coincide with them (e.g. declared status as the national language of a country, as a world language).

An access for language learning may be determined as a way to the performance of activities that can lead to a development in language knowledge or skill. It may also be

a way to argue and discuss meaning from a printed text to explore a context in language usage, or to obtain direct feedback on the learner's utilization of language. Such favourable positions function normally in classrooms in several manners. There can be more opportunities to encounter language use outside the classroom through print, film, satellite television, the internet, and CD-ROMs. Foreign language usage can be easily fostered thanks to successful advancement of foreign language learning through lengthy class work, together with available material like internet surfing. Thus, the professional task of language teachers is to enrich the curriculum and, mainly, to facilitate the access to language by supporting individual and collective learning activities and matching class learning and external language exposure so that the exploration of the opportunity can increase.(Grabbe, 1993).

#### 1.2.2.4 French for Specific Purpose

The teaching of French in Algeria dated back as far as before the independence (1962) (cf. 2.3.1.5). It is the language utilized for communication of the elite who had French as the medium of instruction in scientific branches, such as medicine, engineering, banking, etc.) Considering that French is the mother tongue and official language of highly technologically advanced nations such as France, Canada and Belgium, one cannot deny the importance of this medium as a language of instruction at the university for scientific branches. Students understand clearly the need to be in close contact with technological development expressed in the languages and cultures of developed countries. Various studies reveal in bilingual education and cognitive psychology also assume that foreign language analysis foster the cognitive development of the brain (Peal & Lambert, 1962; Diaz, 1983; Cummins, 1984). French or English for Specific Purpose (FSP or ESP) refers to the study of a foreign language through a field that is already known and relevant to learners who are most of the time adults and have some acquaintance with French and English. The participants in the present research learn technological and technical modules (such as mathematics, physics and chemistry) in the French language. French is taught as a module related to their domain as well as English for Specific Purpose.

Categories of FSP/ESP include various academic forms of language, e.g., French for science and technology, French for graduate teaching assistants, and ‘‘general’’ French for academic purposes, in addition to a number of occupational French, e.g., French for business, and vocational one (also called English /French for the workplace). For example, the categorization of ESP provided by Robinson (1991) is adopted here to serve as a model for the categorization of ESP. Peter Stevens (1988), puts an emphasis between absolute and variable characteristics:

1) Absolute characteristics :

ESP consists of English language learning which is:

- designated to meet the requests of the learner
- related to content (i.e, in its themes and topics) to specific disciplines, occupations and activities
- emphasizes on the appropriateness of the language to those activities related to syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, ect, and analysis of this discourse
- in opposition to ‘‘General English ‘‘

2) Variable characteristics :

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

- reduced to the learned language (e.g., reading only)
- not learnt in accordance to any pre-ordained methodology

Claims: the requirements for ESP are

- emphasis on the learner’s need, wastes no time
- corroborates to the learner’s main studied topics
- is successful in conveying learning
- is more cost-effective than ‘‘General English’’

Designers and teachers continue carry on their endeavour to evolve and extend their collection and analysis techniques. They state that all students who are enrolled in ESP classes have specific reasons and it is the responsibility of teachers to find out what type of factors are at the basis of this work and to deliver courses that are suitable for their students.

The participants in the present research are divided into two groups<sup>1</sup>:

- a- Students enrolled in technological and technical studies, they learn mathematics, physics and chemistry in the French language.
- b- Students enrolled in economic sciences, they learn: economics, technical management and mathematics in the French language. Sociology related to engineering and entrepreneurship in addition to economic geography are taught in Arabic.

French is taught as a module related to their domain as well as English for specific purpose for both branches<sup>1</sup>. Therefore, the curriculum is designed to communicate a set of professional skills and to perform particular job-related functions. It assesses needs and integrates motivation, subject matter and content for the teaching of relevant skills. This means the students' abilities in their subject matter fields improve their ability to acquire French and English which are considered to be related to a prestigious position in many countries. English is assumed to be a world language that has a worldwide usage in science and technology. French also gives access to science and technology but is in competition with English which is gaining more field at the technological and scientific levels. In the ESP class, students are able to apply what they learn in their classes to their main field of study, whether it covers accounting, business management, economics, computer science or tourism. This means that they are able to use what they learn in the classroom right away in their work and studies. The students' interest in this field will motivate them to interact with speakers and texts. FSP/ESP concentrates more on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. FSP programmes, might for example, emphasize the development of reading skills in students who are preparing for graduate work in business administration. It might also promote the development of spoken skills in students who are studying French or English in order to cope with situations where the

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<sup>1</sup>[www.epst-tlemcen.dz](http://www.epst-tlemcen.dz)

[www.epsecg-tlemcen.dz](http://www.epsecg-tlemcen.dz)

oral skill is necessary. Learners of such programmes are always aware of the purposes for which they will need to use.

The more learners pay attention to the meaning of the language they hear or read, the more they are successful ; the more they have to focus on the linguistic input or isolated language structures, the more they are motivated to attend their classes.

The participants dealt with in this research are exposed to one hour and a half per week in both English and French. It is assumed that FSP/ESP learners are motivated to exploit their competencies to become more fluent in English and French and able to deal with this language at writing and reading levels.

#### 1.2.2.5 English for Specific Purpose

Hewings (2002) views ESP as an activity that has grown all over the world and the access to ESP as a recognized academic discipline in applied linguistics and the departments of English. He points out that ESP teaching should design a pedagogical approach because it is meant to serve a new breed of users: students, would-be professionals and translators. Hence, pedagogical specialized dictionaries are also meant to clarify the semantic relationships between concepts so that autonomy and debates in dictionary users are developed.

Globalization has become an up-to-date main concern of practitioners; people are gradually conscious of the need to be in contact with experiences encountered in the languages and cultures of other people in the world. Nowadays, a growing awareness is occurring regarding the global interdependence and multilateral needs.

#### 1.2.2.6 Demands for English in Engineering

Engineering students are supposed to accomplish the needed English abilities oriented for international communication in the relevant profession. This paper explores reports concerning English education for engineering and focuses on demands for oral and written communication, emphasizing oral presentations, professional conversations and report writing. A sociolinguistic picture of communicative events is examined for a general idea of English instruction. The study reveals that incorporation of genuine verbal practice related to contextual events into



English courses that have become an important need to support students with their transition from the classroom to the workplace. Furthermore, the contextual events associated with communication are meant to be adequately specific to the relevant discipline to foster the value of practical work. The main level of understanding oral practice is meant to be close to that of native speakers to succeed in real communication. Further research is required as claims are different from context to another. English has been determined as the international communication instrument in engineering all around the world. In Europe, English is utilized as the default language (Bjorkman, 2008) as countries participate in the Bologna process. This has created a bigger academic mobility and student exchanges. In South Africa, English is extensively needed as the engineering profession normally functions from a general business network (Hill & Zyl, 2000). In Algeria, professional English training programmes are provided every year for engineers and some technical staff . English carries on to climb the ladder as one of the world's most needed languages (Graddol, 1997, 2000). Engineering graduates are assumed to communicate and act effectively both in domestic and international environments (Accreditation Board for Engineering and Technology, 1998-2010; European Accreditation of Engineering Programmes, 2008). In current professional practical work, engineers must achieve technical competencies with discursive skills by means of English use like **“analyze other cultures’ needs, and design products and services to fit those needs.”** Engineers should also be **“aware of customs, laws, and ways of thinking in other countries... understand and accept other cultures’ attitudes, behaviours and beliefs without compromising [their] own”** (Malkinson, 2003). When there is not enough communicative skills, one should behave to review the whole curriculum and the reflected images of the professional engineer (Reimer, 2002, p. 35).

#### 1.2.2.7 Prestige Criterion

Trudgill (1972) came up with a new concept known as covert prestige to support a finding in the sociology of language investigation. Women in many Western countries and from many speech communities manifest willingness to utilize high status speech even when they are members of the same nonstandard speech

community and the same social class (Kramarae 1982; Labov 1966 ; Smith 1979 ; Trudgill 1972, 1974, 1983). High language variety is closely related to covert prestige wherefrom vitality is detected. The fact that the participants are aware of the learning situation that enables them to have access to knowledge using French and English can create a factor regarding in-group attitudes towards both the foreign languages and the nonstandard ones known as dialects. It is assumed that the female informants view the foreign language speakers as more successful, intelligent, ambitious, wealthy, and .civilised.

Standard and prestige varieties in a language do not coincide as can be asserted from studies that imply English. In other words, the clearly revealed data of investigation on language variation and gender, Dittmar (1976: 237) draws the conclusion that the **"results of virtually all investigations show that women adapt to prevailing prestige forms more than men"**. Labov's results have revealed that such forms may convey information from two forces that represent conflicts, that is to say, a start from the norm or the standard, in which situation women prefer to take up and invest into linguistic change, or, in other words, from serious attachment to the standard norm, in which case women can be presented as more conservative than men in language use. Therefore, women's speech can be featured as one bringing more innovations and more conservative linguistic patterns at one and the same time. It is realized, however, that language in general case and specifically women's speech is found to be more conservative and steady than innovative and variable. This is why, more prestige forms are found in women's speech which usually corresponds with features of their speech as more permanent and conservative. Moreover, standard speech usually matches both conservatism and prestige; wherefrom we can speak of, for instance, standard English as the prestige variety.

#### 1.2.2.8 International Scope

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) point out that two main periods in history saw the emergence of ESP; in effect, an expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale occurred the end of the Second World. Furthermore, the emergence of the United States as an economic power in the post-war world in

addition, the oil crisis of the early 1970s gave rise in Western money and knowledge flow into the oil-rich countries. English became the world language of this knowledge as it has become the request of language teachers as well as subject to the wishes, needs and demands of people. Currently, English is required to give access to knowledge and science, this is why students are meant to be conscious of the situation that learning this language is the main reason for the educational and social development of their own country. Moreover, the internationalizing of ESP has brought the explosion of scientific and technical English mainly in university studies. Baldauf and Jernudd (1983) discovered that more than 65% of all international journals are now published in the English language including chemistry, biology, physics, medicine, and math topics. Mackay and Mountford (1978) state ESP for international communication. This language is also used in airways communication. Therefore, ESP courses are designated for pilots and other air personnel who are obliged to communicate without mistake with air traffic personnel (Robertson, 1988). English is also found in the language of the sea; thus maritime workers throughout the world learn SEASPEAK, 'The International Maritime English' (Strevens and Johnson, 1983). There also exist many opportunities in international business in which English is utilized or indispensable in language communication, even among nonnative-speaking interlocutors (Smith, 1987).

David Carter (1983) determines three types of ESP:

- English as a restricted language
- English for Academic and Occupational Purposes
- English with specific topics

Air traffic controllers or waiters make use of a specific language which is a sample of English as a restricted language. Mackay and Mountford (1978:4-5) stress the difference between restricted language and language with this statement:

**...the language of international air traffic control could be regarded as 'special', in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a**

**dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not grammar. Knowing a restricted ‘language’ would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment.**

English for Academic and Occupational Purposes is the second kind of ESP determined by Carter (1983). In the domain of ETL (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987) ESP is split into three branches:

- English for Science and Technology (EST)
- English for Business and Economics (EBE)
- English for Social Studies (ESS)

Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches:

- English for Academic Purposes (EAP)
- English for Occupational Purposes (EOP)

Hutchinson and Waters assert that the language dealt with for immediate purpose in a learning environment will be utilized later when the student occupies, or resume, a job. This provides an explanation about Carter’s rationale for categorizing EAP and EOP under the same type of ESP.

Robinson (1991) brought the categorization of ESP which is also tackled to play the role of a model for the categorization of FSP.

Thus, ESP practitioners should consider the best situation to determine variable learner requirements and make sure that all students are provided with a balanced curriculum of language. Henceforth, one can deal with a group of students from different disciplines, such as electrical engineering and mechanical engineering which need special planning for several aims such as the syllabus, in-class activities and homework assignments. One can suggest the following hypothesis: An FSP/ESP course learner is supposed to deal closely with the departments specialized in these activities, and mainly, with the concerned foreign educational institutions.

## 1.3 Stereotypes

### Introduction

The study on stereotypes and foreign language learning can ask questions about everyday classroom experience that can have an impact on students' stereotyping. Therefore, the question whether stability is associated with stereotypes, thoroughly internalized in students' minds or variable, is possible to be altered in the process of language learning. Not only foreign language learning is stereotyped, but the language that learners speak can also get stereotypical traits.

### 1.3.1 The Notion of Stereotypes

The word stereotype is derived from the conjunction of two Greek words: *stereos*, meaning "solid", and *typos*, meaning "the mark of a blow", or more generally "a model". This concept tends to give rise to at least two connotations: rigidity and duplication or sameness (Miller, 1997). One should mention that the real word was used as early as 1824 (Gordon 1962; Rudmin, 2003) to mean a formalized behaviour. From the 20<sup>th</sup> century on it was usually utilized to mean rigid, repetitive, often rhythmic behavioural manifestation (Schroeder, 1970). However, the most usual use of the term implies the features that rest upon people's national, ethnic or gender groups and are therefore applied on them.

### 1.3.2 Features of Stereotypes

What characteristics determine the essential qualities of stereotypes? The most important explanation can be provided is that '**stereotypes are qualities perceived to be associated with particular groups or categories of people**' (David J. Schneider, 2005). This definition detects at least the main traits that stereotypes must entail, in a way that everyone would really consent to this. It should be noted that the definition does not limit what these features may be; they could be criteria, predicted behaviours, physical characteristics, functions, attitudes, beliefs, or nearly any other attributes. It also is not reduced to the types of classes that may be regarded as the main point for the stereotype domain. In effect, it should be noted that there is no rule-governed difference between categories and features. Even though, it appears normal to

conceive that support is a constituent of the teacher category, we can state merely state that being a teacher (“teacherness,” if you will) is linked to the category of supportive people. The difference between groups and criteria has more to do with cultural basis of what a category is and with what we consider as essential in a given situation than with any special psychological needs. This definition has a “vanilla,” even gutless, type in its denial to occupy some place on many of the traditional concerns that have enriched the stereotype literature. However, it implies one remarkable postulate—that is to say, that stereotypes entail corroboration between categories and qualities—and this emphasises our thinking on the mental reference of stereotypes in terms of memory structures (Stangor & Lange, 1994; Stephan, 1989). One can suggest that feature–category correlation is distinctive in strength and can be measured according to given dimensions. Another positive point is that the strength of correlations is really and rationally easy to conceive and measure, therefore a certain number of analytical strategies can be utilized.

All recent formulations of stereotypes state that constituents are associated with categories in a different way. For example, intelligence is probably more closely linked to the group of teacher than to that of bus driver, and intelligence is more closely associated with the teacher group than is the predisposition to drive an old car. One may conceive several ways to strengthen this context as it might mean that teachers, in general, are ingrained with more traits than it is the case with bus drivers. In other words, we might mean that intelligence more easily comes up to our minds when talking about professors than about bus drivers. Strength could signify that a higher percentage of teachers than bus drivers can be far from intelligence. Therefore, when intelligence is more easily related to teachers than bus drivers, it is assumed that people will assess that teachers are tend to be intelligent than bus drivers. Nevertheless, that is not a rule-governed judgment, but one of convenience. It is often easy to argue intensity in this topic in terms of probabilities, and it is also a suggested statement that holds an important appeal based on intuition.

### 1.3.3 Lippmann's Perspective

The journalist Walter Lippmann was the first to use the term stereotype in his book *Public Opinion* (1922)<sup>1</sup>. He regards stereotypes as global cognitive constructs, and he utilized the word to take into account erroneous statements and unreasonable understanding in our conceptions of the world. Lippmann (1922: 88-89) also states that such knowledge structures are relevant:

**For the attempt to see all things freshly and in detail, rather than as types and generalities, is exhausting, and among busy affairs practically out of the question...But modern life is hurried and multifarious, above all physical distance separates men who are often in vital contact with each other, such as employer and employee, official and voter. There is neither time nor opportunity for intimate acquaintance. Instead we notice a trait which marks a well known type, and fill in the rest of the picture by means of the stereotypes we carry about in our heads.**

Symbols in our minds certainly rest on experiences. In effect, Lippmann considered them to be drawn by personality structures, roles as contexts related to rationalization in order to support social status. Nonetheless, he made asserts that stereotypes are not unavoidable false conceptualizations. The most important criteria of Lippmann's application are the ways in which he predicted much of what we now consider the modern prospect in this domain, not withstanding insufficient experience in social science and psychology. Secord and Backman, 1964, p.66 identify stereotyping as follows, **'stereotyping has three characteristics: the categorization of persons, a consensus on attributed traits, and a discrepancy between attributed traits and actual traits'**. Tajfel (1981: 147-162) argues that stereotypes are useful for a number of worlds related to multiple functions. Firstly, the social world which is based on

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<sup>1</sup>D. J. Schneider (1995)

multiple components is also considered to be more coherent. Stereotypes can be referred to a social-explanatory frame, in that they can form and preserve group ideologies, at an intergroup level. Stereotypes may also have a role as a social-differentiation reference at intergroup level, so that they can foster positive distinctions between the social groups of which an individual is a member. Garrett et al. (2003: 3) testify that stereotypes are associated with a remarkable criterion which is resistance and function as a frame of reference for common sense beliefs and/ or are manifested as scales through which social life is guided and comprehended.

#### 1.3.4 Theoretical Background

Stereotypes can be regarded as a reference of collective structures jointly operated by the members of a group as dealt with by Hofmann (2004) and mainly the subtype of “shared constructs”. Stereotypes are considered to be shared elements gaining validity only when individuals within a group share similar conceptualizations. Being essentially debatable, stereotypes are one of the main concerns among social scientists (Leyens and Bourhis, 1997) as this theme is closely related to the most important research subjects in social psychology (Worchel et al., 1989). Recently, several important criteria of stereotypes have been clarified by researchers, so forming a coherent image of its identification; function and influence stereotypes have on social structure and group behaviour. In general, stereotypes are viewed as :

- A series of convictions /beliefs shared by members of a specific group (Leyens et al. 1994; Smith and Bond, 1994).
- Conceptions of authentic relationship between group membership and given characteristics (Doise et al., 1999).
- Constituents stating both personality criteria and patterns inferred from behaviour (Leyens, 1994 ; Drozda-Senkowks, 1999)
- Standardized, stable and preconceived images (Gavreliuc, 2006)
- A normal role of the human mind in culture (Nachbar and Lause, 1992).

Stereotypes are determined by characteristics entailing social, shared, generalized as well as contextual frame of reference. In other words, stereotypes are shared beliefs between group /category members about the in or out-group members. The theories



tackling this topic can assert how stereotypes emerge and stand in society. The theories are as follows:

- c- **The Social Cognition:** This idea emphasizes on the research of stereotypes at an individual level and utilizes mainly works conducted in laboratories. Stereotypes are referred to as prototypes. A series of operations such as categorization, social perception and comparison are mainly studied.
- d- **The intergroup relations approach:** focuses on the group level, specifically on correlations between group members, and thus it mainly includes fieldwork studies. Stereotypes are regarded in connection to group membership, attitudes, social identity and self-esteem and their link with biased judgments as well as discrimination which has become more important.
- e- **Social Representations:** In this context stereotypes are viewed as indispensable or synthesized expressions/constituents of social reflections (Moliner, 1996; Mannoni, 1998; Chiru, 2000). This last statement is linked to aspects such as the community/societal concern as well as a rather coherent positioning between universal and situational requests.

One should mention that the approach based on social reflections does not coincide or exceed social cognition and inter-group relationship. The three approaches are also regarded as viewpoints related to production based on stereotypes. These approaches assume how stereotypes may be efficient if not inevitable in everyday situations.

The individual's identity is closely related to stereotypes which have an important part in collective relationship such as group membership and also enable us to comprehend and confirm certain attitudes or lead us toward out-group members.

Thomas (2002) classification of sociolinguistic perception analysis is based on five categories:

- 1- Identification of languages and dialects, ethnicities, and socioeconomic levels
- 2- Stereotypes of the listener and their impact on perception
- 3- Perception of vowel mergers and splits

4- How dialect of listener influences the categorization of phones

5- Attitudes, or assessments, towards the speaker's personality criteria and abilities

Therefore, the data are obtained by using the matched guise technique which is designated to eradicate irrelevant features so that the influence of language or dialect differences on social stereotypes can be analyzed directly (More information about this technique is given in section 3.2.1). This technique has been usually utilized to compare personality aspects. It was first used by Lambert et al. (1960) to obtain listener attitudes towards different languages. This method requires a speaker able to produce two languages (or dialects) in a fluent way; therefore, a native informant of either language would judge that the speaker of the target variety heard was also a native one.

#### 1.3.5 Katz and Braly's Studies

In effect, most of Lippmann's debate dealt with included many mistakes of thinking and was not mainly concerned with aspects attributed to groups of people. Nevertheless, most of the first empirical studies tackled such aspects mainly ethnic groups, however, still maintaining Lippmann's notions of error. The studies of Katz and Braly (1933, 1935) are most popular. They asked Princeton University students to verify criteria they thought indicated 10 racial and ethnic groups. Those criteria with a general agreement in opinion were approved for a particular group were found to be stereotypic of that group. Thus, for instance, 78% of participants believed that Germans were scientific-minded, 84% believed that Negroes (in the terminology of that time) were superstitious, and 54% believed that Turks were cruel. In the second investigation (Katz & Braly, 1935), the scale order of preferences for the 10 groups (a rude biased measure) rated was similar to the classifications in terms of the average favourability of the aspects assigned to the groups. This gave rise to a long traditional way of viewing stereotypes and prejudice as closely related to each other.

The 1930s were years of main importance accorded in measuring attitudes as a link between culture and individual behaviour. Katz and Braly considered prejudice or attitudes towards groups as actually attitudes towards markers or names of ethnic groups, and culturally derived stereotypes were reflected in these attitudes which

symbolize images about people designing those groups. Henceforth, stereotypes were regarded as cultural products which helped to interpret the consequences of culture on prejudice and discrimination. For the next 20 years or so, most investigations on stereotypes were carried on the same main emphasis. In spite of the fact that, multiple definitions of stereotypes were provided, the functional definition was in terms of aspects attributed to several racial and ethnic groups. Normally, social scientists made an effort to comprehend discrimination and looked for the negative traits of stereotypes. Thus, stereotypes, which were supposed to be largely representations of the culture rather than of personal experiences with people from these groups, developed a negative judgment (prejudice), which in turn certified discriminating judgments.

#### 1.3.6 Personality and Prejudice

With the publication of *The Authoritarian Personality* (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, & Sanford, 1950), stereotypes started to be seen as attitudes generally based on prejudices. Stereotypes were still believed to expect discrimination which is revealed in behaviour, but their source could be seen as indicated more in personality dynamics instead of larger culture. Stereotypes were considered less as images in people's minds than as criteria related to overly simplified categories, in turn an individual sometimes utilizes such types, and their use was regarded mainly among people with personalities associated with prejudices. This examination had started in the early 1940s as an effort to realize the sources of anti-Semitism in the content of Nazi Germany. The research soon revealed that those participants who were prejudiced against Jews also had deep ingrained prejudices against other groups. Hence, anti-Semitism was only a part of a more global "ethnocentrism"—prejudice against those from other groups. Ethnocentric people manifested a more global series of attitudes that called the "authoritarian personality." Authoritarians became, as expected, to have antidemocratic tendencies and to look a lot like Nazis. They appreciated clear authority constructs, had an almost symbolic devotion to values meant to be conservative ("the good old days"), and were strictly standing against behaviours that disturb their own strong intuition of what was positive and appropriate.

In the determination of such a personality aspect, stereotypes were viewed as representations of deeply ingrained hatred and biased evaluations. The authoritarian personality research team was almost amazed with the extent to which stereotypes were utilized to distinguish self from outgroups by making such groups coherent and negative. Stereotypes were strictly maintained by such people to be protected against having to believe about personal differences among members of hated outgroups. Stereotypes were also believed to use protection against menace from unfavourable sense that the person who is related to prejudice was trying to suppress. In other words, the meaning of stereotypes emerged from a reflection of negative characteristics to others; in turn the content of stereotypes must unavoidably be negative. Stereotypes are inclined to encounter experience, rather than the opposite. Thus, in this research, stereotyping tended to be a general procedure and not reduced to specific groups. A prejudiced person was fighting with any number of complex conflicts and with a responsibility of suppressing but in active way “dirty” tendencies, the choice of a specific target group as reflection was mainly erroneous, although the authors did admit that Western cultural history labelled some groups “better” targets than others.

### 1.3.7 Allport's Contribution

In 1954 Gordon Allport published what is known as the seminal book on prejudice, *The Nature of Prejudice*. Allport's basic thinking urged him to work appropriately on this task. He had a mere intuition of the level to which attitudes and values could support many functions for the individual. He taught at Harvard University where, in the Department of Social Relations, he knew sociologists and anthropologists (so that the idea of observing individual behaviour in a cultural environment emerged naturally to him). In addition, Allport's former student and then colleague, Jerome Bruner, was at that time one of the main energetic member in the “new look” in perception. An approach facilitated examination of the function of values, attitudes, and social features in fundamental perception and cognition. This work would later emerge as an essential stimulus for the cognitive revolution, and thus

it is no coincidence that in 1954 Allport determined the aspects of the cognitive properties of stereotypes.

Allport's book is perhaps most popular for having presented the notion of the "prejudiced personality," a clear version of the authoritarian personality. However, he really dedicated more of his book to debate of various cognitive factors included in prejudice and stereotyping. He pointed out, in particular, that it is a part of our fundamental cognitive definitions to place things and people in classes, which are the cognitive containers which we fill with various features, physical features, expectations, and values; the main concern of stereotypes. Allport admitted both that categorization and the utilization of categories are unavoidable in our daily life with complex worlds, and also that erroneous statements will result. Even though, we all categorize other people and use stereotypes to some extent, people associated with prejudice think about their categories in a different way than do unprejudiced people. Notably, the unprejudiced person tends to use what Allport named "differentiated categories," those that are created for exceptions and individual variation.

### 1.3.8 The Social Cognition Perspective

Decades ago, stereotype research has adopted a new life, and there have been two main changes in the process of the research. First, focus has changed from analysing the content of stereotypes through criterion assignment to investigating the cognitive processes included in stereotyping (Hamilton, Stroessner, & Driscoll, 1994). Stereotyping (process) has come up with stereotypes (content). Second, there have been changes in analysing which groups are in particular aims of stereotyping. The 1970s were years of special involvement in cognitive psychology, and during the 1980s this prospect was practised precisely to the study of how we conceive, remember, and mediate people and social situations. Cognitive psychology, in general, and social cognition more specifically, focused on the role of abstract knowledge constructs (called variously "schemas," "prototypes," "theories," etc.) in operating information about others. Stereotypes appeared mainly correlated to other types of structures (Schneider, Hastorf, & Ellsworth, 1979) and could merely be constituted as general theories or cognitive constituents in their own right. Even though there were early

assumptions (e.g., Allport, 1954; Fishman, 1956; Gordon, 1962; Vinacke, 1957) that stereotypes could clearly be regarded as closely associated with other structures of normal cognitive activity, and a few investigations during the 1960s and 1970s had a mere cognitive emphasis, the first steps of the cognitive approach to stereotyping could be based on the publication of a book edited by David Hamilton (1981) talking about a number of classic papers.

The prospect based on social cognition appeared to be the main concern in social psychology in general, as well as stereotype research (Hamilton & Sherman, 1994; Jones, 1982; Schneider, 1996; Stangor & Lange, 1994; Stephan, 1985, 1989). There are positive points in this approach, in particular, when stereotypes are regarded as a normal element of the cognition category, most of the classic topics such as truthfulness, bias, and rigidity found in more easily detected forms. Within the traditional work of social cognition, stereotypes are merely generalisations, and only two advantages are found to interpret stereotypes this way. At the beginning, we can infer from our analyses on available research from cognitive psychology. Modern cognitive psychology also has given rise to many insights as far as generalisations are concerned to help us carry out a methodical work on information; stereotypes take profit from being found on that way. Second, when we emphasize the continuities between normal processes included in generalisations and those detected in stereotyping. Stereotypes are not likely dismissed as elements of corrupt minds and insane culture. Therefore, the sum of available approaches emerges when analysis is done instead of elimination.

### 1.3.9 Attitudes and Stereotyping

Theoretically, the main point in this study is social identity theory and its correlation to language attitudes. In this context one can assume that subjective processes, in particular, language attitudes, hold a remarkable influential role in the processes of language change and variation. Therefore, if we want to comprehend such processes, we need to emphasize on the subjective procedures underlying them. It is broadly admitted that subjective reactions towards language are valuable, for instance, linguistic change research can usually bring an explanation as to the reasons

underlying dialect changes when and how this happens as Trudgill states it (1995: 10), even stronger: **‘the underlying cause of sociolinguistic differences, largely beneath consciousness, is the human instinct to establish and maintain social identity’** as Chambers points out (1995: 250). Therefore, it is mainly important to analyse the social identities that are correlated to several kinds of language use. That is to say, understanding the categorizations and stereotypes associated to the linguistic variation is needed for the comprehension of the process of language change. In language attitude investigation, researchers usually deal with the stereotypes related to different types of spoken language. The term of stereotypes essentially evolved by Tajfel and is part of the social identity theory (Tajfel 1981, Hogg and Abrams 1988). In other words, of Hogg and Abrams:

**“Stereotypes are generalisations about people based on category membership. They are beliefs that all members of a particular group have the same qualities, which circumscribe the group and differentiate it from other groups. A specific group member is assumed to be, or is treated as, essentially identical to other members of the group, and the group as a whole is thus perceived and treated as being homogenous.”**

(1988: 65)

What happens in the respondent’s evaluation of experiments is stereotyping: on the fundamental principle of language use participant relate specific criteria to the speaker, e.g. ‘developed’, ‘nice’, ‘trustworthy’, etc. It is essential to point out that these criteria are generally speaking not idiosyncratic, they are involved within a shared and homogeneous aspect of a social category, which the individual is thought to belong to. The request is that these beliefs are found among members of a society or a group is upheld empirically by the products from investigations that made use of the speaker evaluation technique (e.g. Garrett et al. 2004; Kristiansen 1991, 1999; Maegaard 2001), and in theory by the social identity theory (e.g. Tajfel and Turner 1986; Hogg

and Abrams 1988). When making use of the speaker evaluation technique (i.e. the matched guise technique and its derivatives) the investigator obtains stereotypical reports of what is conceived to be a different group related to a specific language use.

#### 1.3.10 Overt and Covert Attitudes

The term of covert attitudes is widely discussed. It is often argued that covert norms, covert prestige or covert attitudes take place, but as Labov points out: **“Though investigators speak freely of “covert norms”, the main evidence for their existence is simply the fact that non-standard forms persist”** (2001: 512). However, other investigators perceive these covert norms as clarified in research. On the basis on his popular research from Norwich, Trudgill discovered that “‘covert prestige’ can be related to given linguistic patterns, and this is possible in some cases to bring proof to demonstrate that it is actually the case. Covert prestige seemed to create linguistic changes (1983: 184-5). The debate of overt vs. covert attitudes are correlated to the division of direct vs. indirect methods for gathering data on language attitudes is still dealt with. However, the use of direct measures (e.g. interviews or questionnaires asking participants to classify different dialects) provides overt attitudes. Hence, it is inevitably the case that indirect measures such as oral guise experiments give data on covert attitudes. Nonetheless, in Denmark it has been revealed in many studies that the obtained attitudinal criteria without the respondents knowing what they are working on are far from being the same as the attitudes they show when asked directly. The first indirect approach provides attitudinal data which correlate well with the variations in language use in the Danish speech community. The second, direct, approach conveys messages in attitudes which reflect the commonly set up norms that one discovers in the media, in institutions, in political comments etc. This overt evaluative pattern correlates at a lower degree with the variation in the models of language use (Kristiansen1991, Maegaard 2001). The difference of these two kinds of attitudes provides the reason why it is essential to gather information without the participants knowing about the aim of the research, in particular from a language change perspective.



### 1.3.11 Stereotypes of Language and Dialect

Attitudinal responses to different language varieties and their use cannot be kept away from people experience. Whenever a person uses speech she or he gives information to the listener about her or his group membership. This can put an emphasis on given ideas or stereotypes about the group and the listener (Fraser, 1973, p.28, 35; Preston, 2002, p. 40).

Memory has an important role as learners correlate what they learn about stereotypes to past practical work. Learners can identify and start to maintain information in head about people in response to experiential learning. Their conceptions of dialects and languages may affect the procedure of foreign language learning. If the attitude is favourable, learners are expected to be really urged to learn. However, they probably hesitate to improve due to unfavourable conceptualizations of the language they have to learn. Students have to follow the compulsory foreign language policy of educational authorities of their country or school. One can suggest that languages and dialects get stereotypes the same as the people who speak them. For instance, the following stereotypes about people can be expected:

- They do not know foreign languages
- They are unskilled and uncivilized
- They are aggressive

Learners give importance to phenomena associated to linguistic varieties in a positive or negative ways and in this way stereotypes of languages and dialects emerge. Students perform different activities such as listening, reading and writing which can be stimuli for debates on stereotypes. Internet instrument which is another way for obtaining knowledge can also be correlated to stereotypical perceptions. For example, stereotyped concepts about different languages characteristics can be revealed by expressing adjectives such as rich, musical, precise, pleasing to the ear. Henceforth, the following question can be asked: Which language would you prefer to use to get knowledge on internet?

### 1.3.12 Categorization

Stereotypical categorization provides assistance to determine group boundaries and is correlated to inter-group attitudes. An individual's identity comprises both personal and social identity. Personal identity is referred to self-categories that determine the perceived as a sole individual in opposition to other individuals, however social identity pertains to social categorizations of self and others. Self-categories determine the individual as shared similarities with members of given social categories in opposition to other social categories (Turner, 2000, p. 341). The procedure of categorization embodies a cognitive grouping of constructs, people or events as not absolutely interchangeable and homogeneous within categories. In this context, stereotypes may be referred to as a shared series of beliefs (and disbeliefs) about a cognitive group. This sharedness is basically indicated the self-categorization process related to common category membership instead of procedures linked simply to usual experiences. Stereotypes may in turn be obtained from cognitive processes, but they are determined according to social and contextual criteria as well. Tajfel (1981) realises the fact that stereotyping is definitely correlated to attitudes and thus also socially structured and socially variable. Stereotyping is a significant explanation of intergroup content: Prejudice is associated with people not because of cognitive erroneous evaluation or individual pathology, but because social structures create adaptive prejudice.

All recent notions of stereotypes admit that characteristics are differentially correlated with categories. For example, Professor→intelligence. Therefore, there are several methods we may conceptualize intensity in this content. Stereotypes are determined as thoughts that corroborate with emotional and affective consequences. Participants whose stereotypes were not absolutely positive towards women also had favourable attitudes toward women. Similar measures used by Haddock, Zanna and Esses (1993,1994) have revealed that the affective nature of stereotypes is essential in anticipating prejudice and considering large mood influence on the use of stereotypes. Therefore, one can hypothesize that participants having the same knowledge can share the same availability of societal stereotypes. It is predicted that learners 'language

attitudes have an influence on their stereotypical traits that are considered as valid ways of characterizing others. It is assumed that categorization gives insight into the sense that it comes up with criteria of the other person. Nonetheless, using social categories will only be informative to the degree that conveniences about the category are precise (Stangor, 2000). This happens because things are so multi-faceted that complexity is reduced by categorizing others as classification also corroborates with our request to be a part of a social group. It is hypothesized that our participants' stereotypes involve associations between categories and qualities. This draws attention on the symbolic representations of stereotypes in terms of memory structures (Stangor and Lange, 1994; Stephan, 1993).

### 1.3.13 Students' Conceptions in Foreign Language Classes

The attitudes and convictions of students in a classroom toward the subject being studied can have important impact on their willingness and even their ability to learn. The relation between attitudes/predictions and fulfilments, long intuitively admitted by teachers, has also been seriously set up by research (Bandura, 1989; Stipek, 1984; Dweck & Elliot, 1983). For foreign language teachers, the influence of students' attitudes on their immediate and subsequent performance is magnified by multiple special reasons. Unlike many of recreational and vocational elective varieties, foreign languages are academic. Students are most of the time astonished, for instance, that foreign language classes embody homework and tests. Their expectations for classes are not like the ones found in the reality of the foreign language classroom. Furthermore, students attend foreign language classroom with a clear idea about their wish of learning a foreign language. Their preconceptions are based on a statement claiming they will find a useful or valuable attainment of foreign language that corresponds to the characteristics and status of the speakers of the target language. Some of this may be due to lack of maturity and experience of young learners. If this is really the case, the teacher of a foreign language could expect students to correct their erroneous thoughts at the right time and with appropriate experiences. However, if unreal expectations or false stereotypes create obstacles for a student to learn or reduces his/her willingness to continue, teachers bear responsibility to react and find a

suitable solution for this situation. It is not unexpected for foreign language teachers that some of their students may usually possess unclear notions of how long it will take to fulfil proficiency in the target language, or that they may create an wrong picture of the speakers and cultures of a language into the classroom. Henceforth, one can raise a question about how widespread, actually, are these misconceptions damaging attitudes and beliefs? And how serious are they?

#### 1.3.14 The Importance of Students' Attitudes and Beliefs

The correlation between students' attitudes and cultural beliefs and their subsequent foreign language proficiency has been dealt with now for over 20 years (Gardner, 1985). Later, researchers have discovered that students' attitudes are not only associated with their participation in class (Gardner, Smythe, Clement & Glikman, 1976), yet their desire to attain language skills outside the class (Gardner & Smythe, 1975), and even to their retention of the language (Gardner, Lalonde & MacPherson, 1985). Their attitudes and beliefs also influence the foreign language proficiency level accomplished and students having succeeded in their endeavours hold more positive attitudes are more dynamic in class and, naturally, tend more to continue their study for longer periods of time (Bartley, 1969; Clement, Smythe & Gardner, 1978). Similarly, another important but most of the time neglected relation between students' attitudes and their classroom success is students' willingness, in a narrow but crucial way, to behave like the speakers of the studied language. When one learns another language, one performs certain cultural behaviours of the speakers of the target language (Brown, 1981; Taylor, Meynard, & Rheault, 1977). In a normal foreign language environment in the United States, where students have rarely any contact with a given number of native speakers, most of the time make use of cultural behaviour which could be regarded as imitation of pronunciation patterns. Students try on a usual way, to sound like those who speak the language and research asserts that these target cultural behaviours, students' pronunciation skills, are correlated, among other reasons, to their identification with native speakers of the language (Guioria, Brannon, & Dull, 1972). Therefore, if students do not pay attention to those who speak the language, their tendency of adopting (or even attempting) original pronuncia- tion

remarkably decreases. David Hunt formulated conceptual system theory and his associates (Joyce, Weil, & Showers, 1992), advanced learning opportunities that correspond to the learner's conceptual evolvement while giving opportunities for the learner to improve beyond the current stage.

#### 1.4 Language Selection

This paper also analyses language selection known as code switching among every group included in this research. This domain tackles the choice of a particular linguistic variety according to situational factors. When talking, the individual uses a given variety according to the situations they find themselves in and the people they talk to. Fishman (1972) regards language choice in terms of a well-known question **“who speaks what language to whom and when?”** Hymes (1971:91) views **“language use as the speaker's ability to choose the appropriate variety for any particular purpose as part of his communicative competence”**. A speaker is expected to identify the social and personal criteria of a given speech situation to be able to select a given code (language, dialect) to use. In the present work, a larger idea of language choice is debated in correlation to language attitudes. In most cases, the speaker chooses a language in which he is most proficient, i.e., one which is easier and more comfortable to use to seem ‘appropriate’ and ‘respectful’.

One should emphasize on the components that underly language selection Tymieniecka’s (1983) as shown in table 1:

Core Components		
Properties	Moral Sense	
Language Consciousness		
Defining characteristic	Concern for the good of the other	Sensitivity to one’s own language proficiency
Basic criterion	Language use accords with other’s expectation	Language performance accords with one’s own expectation
Presence of accord	Moral satisfaction	Psychological comfort
Lack of accord	Experience of conflict	Experience of discomfort

Table1.1The Two Core Components of the Language Choice Structure

The speaker makes use of a language that the listeners expect or which he or she finds most suitable. One should point out that a speaker selects the most agreeable language when he attempts to satisfy the listeners as violation of one's moral meaning, a state of conflict emerges. Another constituent influencing language choice is the individual's sensitivity to his or her own language proficiency. Thus, it is assumed that subjects prefer the language which they can use more effectively.

Language learners can conceptualize the classroom as a bilingual space. Bilingualism is a behavioural pattern related to factors that can be modified such as degree, function, alternation, and interference are linguistic practices. It is on the basis of these four inseparable characteristics that bilingualism may be dealt with (Wenger, 1998). The bilingual's competencies, however, may not be the same at all linguistic levels. He may have a vast vocabulary but a poor pronunciation, or a good pronunciation but imperfect grammar, wherefrom code-switching is expected. Code-switching can be determined as the systematic alternating use of two languages or language varieties within a single speech situation or speech act. Martin-Jones (1995-2000) claims that learners constitute groups of people with differing language competencies and communicative repertoires.

#### 1.4.1 Speech Repertoire

An individual tends to have communicative competence in more than one speech variety. Speech varieties do not represent standard linguistic forms only, but they also refer to dialects. A speech variety can be an official language or a regional dialect. The neutral term speech variety is an appropriate one in sociolinguistic studies as it does not have 'connotations' that are correlated with political or social classifications. The term 'repertoire' is regarded in connection to the speech community in question (Fishman, 1972). A speech repertoire has been identified by Platt (1975:35) as follows:

**A speech repertoire is the range of linguistic varieties which the speaker has at his disposal and which he may appropriately use as a member of his speech community.**

Members of a community are able to make use of a more or less coherent speech repertoire and the use of each linguistic variety is associated to social roles such as the 'elite' or 'friendship'. A speaker whose speech varieties are A, B or C will try to use them separately in every way, in order to compartmentalize his role, e.g.: a friend, a learner and the head of the family.

#### 1.4.2 Participants

In most of speech events, functions are assigned by the social status that the participants have in society. Several researchers (Gal, 1979) discovered that language choice can be defined by different criteria. For example, individuals are considered to be an important constituent in a speech situation. A given linguistic variety is used as long as the hearer or addressee can understand it. Formality and informality also have an essential role in deciding upon the choice of a language (Weinreich, 1953). That is to say, formality is referred to as the style used when talking carefully on some occasions. Informality is referred to in terms of the style used in normal conversations determined by spontaneity and casualness. The topic provides valuable information in language choice in a bilingual community. In addition, a speaker's proficiency in a given linguistic variety urges him to make use of it in a situation where the common rule is to use this particular variety and not another.

#### 1.4.3 Setting

When dealing with the term of speech variety, this concept is important as it means the class of situations within which a given speech variety is utilized. The milieu or setting which is the place where speech happens, such as the street or the house, is necessary (Gumperz, 1966). In effect, some settings can be related to in terms of formality and informality. For example, a classroom is a setting where a formal discussion can occur, even though this can show exceptions, such as speech events that cannot be predictable. In other words, a non-standard variety can be used in a formal setting. The participant may or may not consider the formality of the setting (Weinreich, 1953). It is assumed that the speaker's choice of a variety in a speech situation is of great social importance.

This selection is based partially on the speaker's belief or attitudes, and the opinions on his/her own role in society as well as the role of his/her addressee. Thus, the present work purpose is to discover influential value of the informants' language attitudes, as well as language proficiency as far as the preference of such or such language variety in a particular situation is concerned. For example, one may ask this question: Do students of ESP use English when speaking with an English teacher outside the classroom circle? It is suggested that the more a person is proficient in a given language, the more words of this language are used in speech events or situations. Moreover, language attitudes can affect a speaker's activities. Henceforth, one can ask this question:

- Do language attitudes affect an individual's language selection in watching TV programmes, reading magazines and newspapers and to the listening radio?
- What language choices are preferred each questioned group when speaking to an English teacher?
- Do suggested topics-formal or informal- have an influence on language choice?

#### 1.4.4 Diglossia

The selection of one or more variety in a multilingual speech community usually fulfills complementary functions. They are utilized in a different way according to the interlocutor, domain, topic, role and the choice of one instead of another. Diglossia is existing if different varieties or languages co-occur throughout a speech community, each with a different bundle of social functions as it is the case with Spoken Arabic and Standard Arabic in the Arabic-speaking countries. Ferguson first came up with the term diglossia in sociolinguistics in 1959 to signify a relationship between varieties of the same language. One variable is used for informal uses within a speech community; the low variety is correlated with less social prestige. It is the language of informal



interactions such as family life. Gumpers (1971:74) identifies the two varieties as follows:

**The low variety is typically acquired at home as a mother tongue, the high variety, on the other hand, is learned later, normally at school, never at home. It is a language of institutions outside the home.**

Language varieties are related to social constructs and cultural values and systems; so the social environment is an important frame of reference in terms of how a language is considered by individuals in a society. Cultural values, for example, are necessary in the case of a less prestigious language to maintain it. It is regarded to be associated with positive values with which its speakers can identify themselves. It should be noted that Ferguson's original participation was meant to reach beyond the descriptive and classificatory levels of analysis. The abstract concept of diglossia is assigned diachronic, evolutionary study. In Ferguson's (1959:163) own words, **“what I tried to do was to characterize this situation in the hopes that here we would have discovered one possible element in a general typology of socio-linguistic situations”** This typology created a **“set of principles or frame of reference,”** in terms of which characteristics of language use and the development of verbal repertoires might be conceptualized.

Sociolinguistic situations underly considerations that hold some meaningful similarity to those discussed by Ferguson, especially, to the Arabic case, suggest that these situations constitute a balanced sociolinguistic situation, whereby the shared social and linguistic characteristics may be linked to socio-historical circumstances. In terms of their synchronic criteria as well as what may be usual cases in the histories of these situations, diglossic situations may be compared to and opposed to other instances of standard-with-dialect cases or with patterns of societal bilingualism. There are examples of societal bilingualism associated with some similarity to diglossic situations, just as there are instances of diglossia that in given features of their social development, look like societal bilingualism. Diglossia and societal bilingualism are two main kinds of sociolinguistic structure composed of ordered parts often regarded as surface variants of the same embodied phenomenon. However, they are basically distinctive in their social evolutionary origins. Moreover, a classification of these two

phenomena under a sole heading does not provide clarifications to sociolinguistic theory.

#### 1.4.5 Code Switching

Code-switching (CS) is a concept that signifies using more than one language or variety in conversation. Bilinguals, who have at their disposal at least two languages, are competent to use elements of both languages when participating in conversations with another bilingual. Gumpers views that it refers to language alternation (1971:192), he points out that:

**The significance of this phenomenon in illuminating bilingual cognition and behaviour cannot be underestimated, first and foremost because code switching is exclusive to bilinguals.**

Code-switching can happen between sentences (intersentential) or within a single sentence (intrasentential). Intersentential switching needs an advanced level of bilingual proficiency as in most cases embodies the production of full clauses in each language. Nevertheless, the latter, can offer information into the ways in which the two grammars of the bilingual enter into at the sentence level.

Several topics of CS patterns entail structural investigation, analysing in particular syntactic constraints and the link of code-switching to other phenomena, like borrowing; social identity-based analyses, bringing the relationship between language and identity within multilingual societies. Psycholinguistic analyses, emphasizes on questions of language memorisation, processing and conversation examination as well as orientations concentrating on the local constitution of conversation or interactional aims. As Peter Auer states:

**“Code switching is now recognized as a phenomenon' able to shed light on fundamental linguistic issues, from Universal Grammar to the formation of group identities and ethnic boundaries through verbal behavior”**

It is a relevant point in a study for both general theoretical as well as applied linguistic purposes to state that code-switching in conversational situations provides

participations from a large variety of sociolinguistic settings in which the phenomenon is watched. It deals with the structure and the function, as well as the ideological values of bilingual behaviour ; this is why the investigators question many statements of code switching on the empirical basis. Hence, this entails coherent and thorough debate of a conversational analysis to approach code-switching which comes up with primary clarifying power from an explanation of CS as pragmatic in nature. A conversational analysis allows for an insight of CS phenomena from the point of view of the speakers as contrasting that of the analyst per se thanks to an analysis of interlocutor feedback. The theoretical orientation introduced here, moreover, enhances direct criticism at ultimately the most important impact model on social and pragmatic code-switching. That is to say, Myers-Scotton's markedness model (1993), which brings its interpretation from speakers' identity with larger social categories addressed through language selection. CS has, however, only local and pragmatic meaning, in turn, it may have significances related to a wide range of social identities, not reduced to wide sociolinguistic classes and lexicon; and (b) 'code-switched' speech emerge from the predictable contact between lexical items and grammatical structures from these languages. Notwithstanding, some commentators have viewed code-switching as representing insufficient language competence, most contemporary scholars see code-switching to be a ordinary and natural result of interaction between the bilingual (or multilingual) interlocutor's languages. This can be different from other language contact phenomena such as loan translation (calques); for example, a series of words that have not been completely assimilated in the Algerian dialect, such as /tili/ 'TV', /tilifun/ telephone', /kikota/' and borrowing. Thus, an expression from one language may more ultimately be present in mind than the equivalent expression in the other language. One can suggest that learners who are influenced by foreign language learning tend to switch more in different speech situations.

Another prospect tackles mainly syntactic constraints on switching. This is an issue of investigation that has assumed grammatical structures and particular syntactic bounds for where a trigger may take place. However, code-switching had already been analyzed as an issue of peripheral necessity within a more narrow way of investigation on bilingualism. It has now altered into a more general emphasis of sociolinguists,

psycholinguists and general linguists. It could be related to and determine group membership in particular kinds of bilingual speech communities, so that the regularities of the changeable use of two or more languages within the same conversation might vary to a remarkable extent between groups in a given speech community.

#### 1.4.6 The Production of Speech Acts by Learners

One can find some clues concerning the degree to which non-native speakers at different proficiency levels will approach native rules for some of these speech acts. What is not sufficient are detailed comments of the procedures included in the formulation of these speech act utterances by non-native interlocutors. The complexity of speech act series such as those of apologies and complaints need special requests from the speaker and they are of significant concern in language learning. The apology speech act, for instance, is remarkably complex because it can embody a set of speech acts, such as expressing apology (I'm sorry), admitting a mistake (That was dumb of me), offering a favour (Here, let me pick them up), and giving a justification or excuse. Moreover, there are several possible changes for reinforcing the sincerity (I'm really sorry), apology and justification (Yeah, but you were in my way!), and so on. What increases to the complexity of selecting adequate strategies is that such other speech acts and others are dependent on a host of social, cultural, situational, and personal factors. The investigation based experiences of a series of operations included in the creation of expressions by nonnative speaker has emphasized mainly on "compensatory" strategies-that is, techniques utilized to bridge the gap or remediate for a lack in some language topics and widely on lexical strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Kellerman, 1991; Paribakht, 1985; Poullisse, 1989; Tarone, 1983). Based on the work of Faerch and Kasper (1983) and others, Bachman (1990) deepened strategic abilities beyond remedial strategies to involve three constituents: a judgment component whereby the individual establishes communicative goals, a planning view whereby the speaker obtains the relevant products from language competence and intends to use them in addition to execution component whereby the speaker conducts the plan. If this model is executed in the investigation of speech act procedures, it might be expected that learners who only perform a weak assessment of a situation

before starting to talk, can commit mistakes with certain sociocultural conventions. Similarly, there are students who would like to plan their foreign language speech attentively in terms of vocabulary and structures before uttering them. Seliger (1980) set up a classification of nonnative speakers that corresponds to one of two general models: the planners and the correctors; the first plan out their speech before producing them, however, the second starts talking and make midcourse corrections. Crookes( 1989) discovered that when intermediate-and advanced-level ESL students were mainly taught to plan for 10 min before carrying out descriptive tasks, they demonstrated more diversity of lexis (e.g., more explicit adjectives) and more complex language forms (e.g., more subordinate clauses).

#### 1.4.7 Gender

Language is an instrument to describe and represent gender identity (Talbot, 2003). In effect, gender is a social structure instead of a biological construction (Cameron, 2003). Redundant practice and imitation of being a female member in the process of social acquiring urge girls or women to perform acts femininely. Gender behaviour has not been proved to be innate, it is performative in nature. If a woman behaves in a masculine way, she will be stereotyped. In a research investigation conducted by Koch, Schey and Thimm (2003), they discovered that men were considered as more certified, direct, analytical, logical, aggressive and verbose. Nonetheless, women were viewed as being friendlier, more indirectly aggressive more empathic, cooperative, holistic, less assertive and with advanced communicative competence than men.

Trudgill (1972) pointed out that gender differences in how men and women considered their own speech. Women would likely claim higher status speech behaviour than they really showed, however men preferred to state lower status speech acts than they display in actual behaviour. This last data in particular was confusing as it is supposed that males were attracted by the identification with a lower status speech community even if not needed by their real speech behaviour. Some of the investigators proposed that the higher number of social relations among men in a speech community which would raise their accommodation of speech to one another

and continue the nonstandard variety (Giles and Powesland 1975). Cameron and Coates (1985) stated that women have just as many boundaries in the community as men and usual parameters of socioeconomic status with less precision reflect a woman's social status than a man's. Individuals reply spontaneously in the study, therefore it is thought that this can provide data on stereotypical gender symbols. In the present paper, questions can be asked on gender differentiations among questioned participants. For instance, would females regard ESP language learning the same as males?

### 1.5 Conclusion

The study of language attitudes in relation to language learning, for a specific purpose can give some indication of the extent to which linguistic situations are sensitive to or affect opinions of members within the same group. Moreover, shared beliefs known as stereotypes can be linked with attitudes and thus reveal negative or positive views that can be socially determined. It is also important to explore the impact that language attitudes have on language selection in different domains such as writing, reading and TV watching. Some languages are seen as practical, others as scientific but related to a colonial background. Language policy in education can be effective in fostering favourable attitudes towards languages. Thus, it is a matter of the historian to discover how different varieties have functioned through history in a community in order to understand the learners' attitudes.

The next chapter presents an overview of the language situation in Algeria. It considers the continuous linguistic changes that are taking place in education as well as in political fields. Linguistic varieties are allocated different roles and are judged accordingly. So this can reveal clues that orient the informants' language attitudes as well as choices within their community.

## **CHAPTER TWO: The Language Situation in Algeria**

### 2.1 The Language Situation from 1830 to 1962 in Algeria

#### Introduction

It is a widely known that, from the seventh century the Arabs came into the Algerian territory; thus, Islam and Arabic culture as well as the language were implemented. The arrival of Islam and the Arabic language had deep influence on North African Arab countries as the new religion and language had an impact on both social and economic relationships as well as on political discourse and organizations. At that time, governors attempted to create a national or at least a provincial patriotism but they failed, as a consequence, Algeria was isolated and gradually split into colonized regions by the French raids since 1830.

From 1830 to 1962, Algeria started to be regarded as a province rather than a colony by the French colonizers who imposed their language in every domain in Algeria. The French had a control over education, government, business, and most intellectual life. They could have a firm possession of the territory<sup>1</sup> by the year 1870 (Encyclopédie Géographique, 1993). Consequently, the influential criteria of this policy are still observed at the social level today. To use some French expressions in everyday speech events is socially accepted.

A big number of Algerians have acquired Algerian Arabic as a mother tongue; yet, other ethnic minorities have had different forms of Berber as a mother tongue (Galand, 1979). After independence, standard Arabic was chosen as an official and national language (journal officiel, 1963). In other words, a language used in legislative, executive and judicial domains all over the nation.

Many Algerians can be considered as bilinguals, though to a given degree as to the use of French and standard Arabic. Many Tamazight-Berbers- are trilingual, yet the illiterate speak only their mother tongue.

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<sup>1</sup>French colonists did not settle in some areas in the desert, because of the hot weather and the non-fertile sandy lands. They did not also inhabit some mountainous areas such as Djurdjura mountain chain. (M. L. OuelKhelifa, 1991).

### 2.1.1 Bilingualism and Multilingualism

It is common to hear multilingual or bilingual people using two languages or more in their everyday life. The languages they have at their disposal hold different statuses as majority/minority varieties both in their community and internationally and some of the varieties are used mainly in private life while others are utilized in public domains, such as work or school. The use of minority languages and interest in their preservation and revival is also generating situations in which more than two languages exist together and are indispensable in daily communication such as the languages of the community and a language of wider communication (Edwards, 1994). Group bi/multilingualism is also developed by multilingual education. Learning second and additional languages in school has usually been linked to the social elite and the hallmark of a well-educated person's background. The growing assimilation and use of world languages as well as minority languages is providing bi/multilingualism with a favourable educational aim for many people in many communities around the world. Community multilingualism can be the production of historical, political or economic events such as colonialism or immigration. There could be an increasing request for group multilingualism as a consequence of rising communications among different parts of the world and the need to be able to cope with languages of wider communication.

Since independence in 1962 the Algerian educated people were extensively French-speaking. Today it is common to state that the use of French is usually confirmed in the Algerian society. Moreover, many Algerians have relatives (7 million)<sup>1</sup> in France as a result of increasing flows of emigrants; mainly during the 60s and 70s.

Now, Algeria is promoting a language considered to refer to its independence. Standard Arabic was admitted as the national and official language, that is, a medium



functioning as a legally appropriate language for all politically and culturally representative purposes on a nationwide basis. The recognition of Arabic

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<sup>1</sup>Le Figaro newspaper, 10 October 2012.

was an ordinary choice of the government of that time to display the break with France and to determine an identity suitable to the country's status as an Arab state. Since the declaration of independence, more and more decisions have been passed to arabize many domains in Algeria. Education, for instance, is now totally arabized except for some scientific and technical branches in higher education. Legislation reinforcing the use of Arabic has been a continuous procedure throughout Algeria's post-independence history. It is believed that about thirty arabization laws, decrees and injunctions have been admitted since independence in July 1962. During the 1990s two laws were passed: no.91-05, on 27 December 1990, which fostered the arabization of all administrations and offices as well as schools by July 1992, and higher education establishments by 5 July 2000, and another voted on 17 December 1996 by the CNT (Conseil National de Transition), that asked for a national arabization to be applied from 5 July 1998. (Journal officiel, 2001).

Therefore, one can assume that Standard Arabic, as the official language in addition to the prestige it obtains from its status as the language of the Koran, is gaining more positive opinions among learners. Yet, standard Arabic as the only linguistic tool does not provide the country with intense function as a modern nation in the fields of science and technology. This happens, not because this language is not an appropriate instrument in those domains, as this is not admitted scientifically. This occurs as a large number of educated Algerians who were trained in French have not reached a position of real mastery of standard Arabic. Hence, most of the printed materials like books, especially in scientific fields e.g.: medicine and engineering are either in English or French. As a consequence, nowadays, notwithstanding the programmes to arabize school, French is still the language used in business e.g.: banks and some professional circles like the university scientific branches. Our students and pupils acquire the foreign languages in which most of the world's access

to knowledge exists. For example, a language that can provide access adequate information in science and knowledge is, supposedly, regarded as prestigious.

Tamazight-Berber- people view that they have nothing in common with Arabic dialects. A big number of this population whose identities are partly assigned to local Berber varieties feel far from the new project of nation-building. The Kabyle cultural movement was more than a claim against arabization. Mainly, it represents a challenge to the language policy that the national government undertook since 1962. It looked for a wider use for the development of the Tamazight variety free of bureaucratic rules (Galand, 1979). In 2002, Berber was admitted as a national language. This variety is taught in schools in Tizi-Ouzou, Béjaia and it has just been introduced to middle schooling in other wilayas since 2017. The 2016 constitution recognized as an official (Journal officiel 2016, article 3) as well as a national language in 2017. This can have an influence on recognizing the Berbers' social and cultural identity. Therefore, one can ask the following question: Does the recognition of Berber as an official and a national language urge non-Berber speakers to consider this variety favourably? That is to say, do informants wish to associate Tamazight with 'high' status now?

## 2.1.2 The Colonial Period (1830 to 1962)

### Introduction

Colonization and language planning are indicators that can lead to bilingualism; this can ultimately influence the criteria of attitudes towards language varieties. Hence, it is important and useful to state an overview of the language situation in Algeria from 1830. This can clarify the nature of the functions underlying languages in relation in society.

#### 2.1.2.1 Algerian Arabic

Algerian Arabic has been the mother tongue of many Algerians. This medium represents an indispensable tool to follow the social rules which ascertain the spheres of behaviour. In effect, it does not have an academic or official status. In this content, Grandguillaume (1983:13) states: ``**The mother tongue of every Maghreban**

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**is either an Arabic or a Berber dialect. These dialects are essentially spoken<sup>1</sup>.”**

Spoken Arabic is characterized by quite distinguishable vocabulary and syntactic

<sup>1</sup>The translation of the text: La langue maternelle de tout maghrébin est un dialecte arabe ou berbère. Ces dialectes sont essentiellement oraux.

structures from Standard Arabic in several ways. The differences are found at the morphological, lexical and phonological levels.

As far as the lexical level is concerned the following examples can be given<sup>2</sup>:

Lexis	Algerian Arabic	Standard Arabic	Gloss
/ n t a a ʕ /	+	-	Of
/ b a l l a ʕ /	+	-	Shut
/ b a r k a /	+	-	Stop it

As for the morphological level, the following examples can be stated. The dual which refers to verbs describing the action of two persons in standard Arabic, either in the imperative, past or present tenses, is not used in Algerian Arabic. For instance:

Standard Arabic	Algerian Arabic	English	Tenses
/ j a l ʕ a b a a n /	/ j a l ʕ b u /	They play	Present
/ i ʕ a b a a /	/ ʔ a l ʕ b u /	Play	Imperative
/ l a ʕ i b a a /	/ l a ʕ b u /	They played	Past

As for the phonological level, the following examples can be mentioned:

Rural Spoken Arabic	Standard Arabic	Gloss
/ g a a l /	/ q a a l a /	He said

/ t u : m /	/ θ a w m /	Garlic
/ d a w /	/ d a w ? /	Light

<sup>2</sup>The examples stated in the tables were taken from "Cahier de Dialectologie et Linguistique Contrastive", Bouamrane (1989).

In fact, there are different Algerian dialects. Notwithstanding linguistic differences speakers of all the Arabic varieties can communicate with a certain degree of mutual intelligibility. The differences can be found at the lexical and the phonological levels, for instance. At the lexical level:

Bel-Abbes dialect	Tlemcen dialect	Algiers dialect	Classical Arabic	Gloss
/ w a a h /	/ j i h /	/ ? e h /	/ n a ϕ a m /	Yes
/ f u t /	/ f u t <sup>1</sup> /	/ d ʒ u z /	/ m u r /	Go on
/ sabbala /	/ sa??aya /	/ sabbala /	/ hanafija /	tap
/ χ a j /	/ χ a : j /	/ χ u j a /	/ ? a χ i : /	My brother

1- The phonological level: One of the most noticeable features is concerned with the pronunciation of /q /, which can be articulated in four different ways: [ʔ], [q], [g], [k], [ tʃ ].

Bel- Abbas dialect	Tlemcen dialect	Algiersdialect	Djjeldialect	Standard Arabic	Gloss
/ g a a l /	/ ?aa l /	/ qa a l /	/ k aa l /	/ q aa l a /	He said
/ g a : l b /	/ ? a l b /	/ q a l b /	/ k a l b /	/ q a l b /	Heart

Dealing with the Algerian Dialect in a few pages is not satisfactory ; hence, it is not the main concern of the present research paper and the information mentioned above is a very general overview of Algerian dialect organization in Algeria.

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<sup>1</sup> This form is used for both masculine and feminine forms

#### 2.1.2.2 Borrowing

When languages come into contact, borrowing is expected. Haugen (1966:26) defines borrowing as follows:

**The heart of our definition of borrowing is the attempted reproduction in one language of patterns previously found in another.**

This concept entails the most important influential features that a language can exert on another. A term is borrowed from one variety to become part of another one. People can recognize borrowings or loan words, and for which they can sometimes name the source language.

During the French colonization (1830-1962) flows of Spanish people inhabited Algeria before and during the colonial period which gave an emergence to a language contact; therefore, Algerian dialects contain many borrowings from French and Spanish. Even though, fewer Spanish borrowings, in comparison to French, are found in everyday language use mainly in North West Algeria. These borrowings were assimilated to the phonemic system of Algerian Arabic.

A usual causality of borrowing is the demand to find names for new objects, concepts, and places; as this task is easier than inventing new ones. In effect, the utilization of many borrowed words from French as well as Spanish in the Algerian dialects makes a reference the fact that the contact with these languages was found in jobs, institutions and dwellings.

The number of French borrowings into dialects during the colonial era was not associated with any comparable influx of loan words from Arabic into French. The

prestige factor is undoubtedly and remarkably involved since the French people were bound to be an upper class or more accurately, the governing class. The Algerian citizens naturally had to learn French speakers by convenience or necessity in order to reach social advancement. The utilization of French borrowings in the Algerian dialect has been considered as common practice.

As a matter of fact, the number of French loan words in the Algerian Arabic is increasing so quickly. The mass media, particularly, TV watching, as well as technological progress help very much in the extension of this phenomenon. For instance:

/pirimi / → expired

/nformati / → I formate

/nzoomi / → I zoom

Spanish borrowings <sup>1</sup>	Words in English
/ m a r j u / / k u z i n a / / l i χ i j a /	Wardrobe Kitchen Javel

French borrowings	Words in English
/ p l a k a r / / t a b l a / / v i s t a /	Cupboard Table Jacket

Multiple attitudinal criteria are found among members of the society as far as the use of borrowings in dialects is concerned and this depends on the region. That is to say, a given number of loan words, for example, represents a group with which the speaker identifies himself.

### 2.1.2.3 Tamazight

Prior to the Arab settlement in Algeria, Tamazight, also known as Berber had been the main spoken language. It was an indigenous language that is a language of the people considered to be the original inhabitants of the area. Grandguillaume (1983:14) asserts that **“the Berber dialects came from the spoken languages in the Maghreb before the Arab conquest in the 8<sup>th</sup> century.”** When the Arab conquest<sup>2</sup> took place in the 7<sup>th</sup> century, Arab new settlers authorized Arabic which is the language of revelation, as their language and an official one. This means, it was utilized in legislative, executive and judicial domains. As a consequence, Tamazight

has continued to be a vernacular language assigned a function as a mother tongue without having any academic status (L.Galand, 1979).

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<sup>1</sup>These words are presented as they are adapted in the Algerian Arabic phonemic system

<sup>2</sup>The Arab conquest is known as *'futihaāt'*. It is largely recognized by historians as a wave of renaissance.

Some Tamazight alphabetical transcriptions have perpetuated and were found in Touareg (A Tamazight variety of Touareg community in the Sahara). These archaic transcriptions are called "Tifinagh". Nevertheless, some ancient Tamazight poetry and prose were transcribed in Latin and Greek script. Next, the Arab conquest had its influence on that field, as ancient Tamazight texts were also written in Arabic script. (G. Grandguillaume, 1983).

Tamazight, for example, contains Arab loan words, such as /ʒa s s a / 'supervision', / f a j d a / 'interest' or 'profit' and all numbers adapted in the Berber phonemic system. For example:

/ s e v ʒ a /, seven (7)

/ t l a θ a /; three (3)

Similarly, there are French borrowings such as: / ʔ a b i d u n /, 'bucket' and

/ a ʒ e n d a r m / 'policeman' and 'gendarme' in French.

As far as the Tamazight speech community is concerned, the proportion of Berber inhabitants is 30%<sup>1</sup>. This population lives in different parts of Algeria. The greatest number is concentrated in Kabylia situated North East of Algiers. The Chaoui community inhabits the Aurès, a region situated in the East of Algeria and the Mozabites dialect is spoken by the Mzab people located in the North of the Algerian desert (Ghardaïa). The Touareg variety is utilized by the Touaregs in the distant South. Throughout the French ruling, Tamazight was not used for educational instruction. As a consequence, it has been preserved as a local vernacular. Thus, in the present paper the following suggested statement can be given; would Tamazight be stigmatised since it

is unknown by the selected informants? In addition, it is linked to 'low status' and considered as a non-educational linguistic tool (Ferguson, 1959).

#### 2.1.2.4 Standard Arabic

Currently, standard Arabic is also known as modern literary Arabic and formal Arabic utilized for scholastic purposes such as education and literature. It was used as the written medium at the official and intellectual levels before the arrival of the French. After the French had settled, many Algerians were educated in Arabic and learned the Koran in local schools (known as "écolescoraniques", *Medersa*) (Amouchi, 1991).

After years succeeded, the scholar *IbnBadis*, by 1930s, arose an intellectual movement, wherefrom educational reforms emerged such as the teaching of Arabic in schools authorized in the mosque, called "*Medersa*". These schools were founded to use the Arabic language and Islamic principles in teaching. From 1934 to 1935, "*Ach-Chihab*" newspaper informed that 70 schools were established. Very few classes of learners were taught in different regions of the country. Three thousand learners were enrolled in the "*Oulama Association*" (Scholars' Association) which was established in 1931. In 1950, this association published a list of learners taught by one hundred seventy four teachers. In 1954, the same association declared that forty thousand pupils attained this kind of instruction in these type of schools. (Attar El-Islam *IbnBadis*, 1985). However, during the fifties and in the French educational system Arabic was taught as a school subject and a foreign language<sup>1</sup> in schools known as "College" that succeed primary schooling. (Journal Officiel, articles 20 and 22 of the year 1958).

#### 2.1.2.5 French

The French governors placed their language in all instructions and administrations; they aimed at making the ruling secure and develop political solidarity. So, the French language was known through teaching, which could bring French history, for instance, by means of literature. In this prospect A.K Saâd-Llah states that from the start, French was installed as the only official language in the Maghreb. He says:



**From the beginning of colonisation, 1830 for Algeria, 1881 for Tunisia and 1912 for Morocco, French became the only official language in the Maghreb.<sup>2</sup> (1986:3)**

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<sup>1</sup>That is a medium considered not to belong to the learner's own land.

<sup>2</sup>The original text of the translation is: Dès les débuts de la colonisation, soit 1830 pour l'Algérie, 1881 pour la Tunisie et 1912 pour le Maroc, le français est devenu la seule langue officielle au Maghreb.

As Algerian people interacted with French settlers, some French expressions were used among Algerians who used to work on lands or shops owned by the colonists. For instance, these expressions contain greetings such as 'çava', short remarks such as 'c'est beaucoup' and 'c'est bon'. It should be noted that only a small number of Algerians received education. As a result, illiteracy was widespread 98% among women and 94% illiterate men in 1954. (Oueld Khelifa, 1991)

#### 2.1.2.6 Spanish

Flux of Spanish immigrants inhabited in Algeria during the French colonization. The number of Spanish immigrants was greater in Oran. This group of people came in Algeria as land owners and shop keepers. (A.K Saâd-Llah, 1986). As a consequence, some Algerian labourers acquired some Spanish expressions<sup>1</sup>.

#### 2.1.2.7 English

In the fifties and by the declaration of the Algerian revolution (1954), secondary school pupils studied English in the first year of "College" schooling; known as 'sixth'. (Journal Officiel, 1959).

This entails that the educational system started to be equipped with new foreign language ability.

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<sup>1</sup>These Spanish words are considered as loan-words, some of them are mentioned on page 84.

## 2.2 The Language Situation After 1962

### Introduction:

After independence, Algeria witnessed the survival and maintainance of the French language, however the policy of Arabization has been designed to displace it. Researchers in the field of language consider that parameters affecting language maintenance are associated to social factor, economic change, demographic growth, institutional support and language status.

### 2.2.1 Tamazight

Tamazight<sup>1</sup> or Berber people have always lived in different parts of Algeria. However, there are still some areas regarded to be typically Berber ones as Grandguillame (1983:19) states:

**Berber dialects originated from spoken languages in the Maghreb before the Arab conquest in the 7<sup>th</sup> century. The latter brought the arabisation of the main towns to large areas. But important areas have remained Berber up to this day<sup>2</sup>.**

The rural exodus of Berber people towards the towns, during the French era and mainly after independence mainly, had a noticeable influence. Tamazight came up to be utilized in other localities which were not known as Berber one (Grandguillaume,1983).Although Algiers is viewed as an Arab area and not a typical Tamazight one, the verbal use of this variety is commonly heard in this town.

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<sup>1</sup>The label „Tamazight“ prevails in the writings of native (Algerian and Moroccan) researchers. The point is that such label might pose confusion in other contexts, namely in Morocco because the Central Atlas variety is referred to by its users as „Tamazight“. „Tamazight“ and „Berber“ are used interchangeably throughout this thesis; the reason is that the first label appears in official documents, whereas the second label is widely used in western literature.

<sup>2</sup>The original text of the translation is: Les dialectes Berbères sont issus des langues parlées au Maghreb avant la conquête arabe au VII<sup>e</sup>. Celle-ci a entraîné l’arabisation des villes principales. Mais des zones importantes sont demeurées berbérophones jusqu’à ce jour.

The contact of the two ethnic groups affected non-Berber speakers who make use of some expressions to maintain social relationships with individuals from other ethnic group. However, Tamazight is undergoing gradual change in its status, as it has just been recognized as an official language in Algeria. Hence, it has been maintained as a group language, that is to say, a language functioning as the normal medium of communication among the members of a single cultural or ethnic group.

In fact, Tamazight speakers, especially the intellectual group, are demanding for the teaching of this variety all over the country. These demands can be due to in-group solidarity or language loyalty; as young Kabyle students expressed their opposition to arabization. In the early 1980s, their movement and demands constituted the basis of the “Berber movement” or the Kabyle “cultural movement”. Berbers' claims can also be linked to the continuous Arabization reforms that are taking place in education and administration. One can state the following statement announced by FIDH (the International Federation of Human Rights) on Tuesday, November 20<sup>th</sup>, 2001:

**The policy of arabization that was led without nuances and discrimination also raises the problem of the statuses of the other languages used in Algeria. More than spoken Arabic, the demand for the language of the Berber culture raises in its own way and on another level the question of national integration posed by the existence of populations, a language and an ancestral culture<sup>1</sup>.**

Currently, this language is flourishing; for instance, on March 12<sup>th</sup> 2002 president Bouteflika released a declaration in an official speech broadcast on television, that Tamazight was recognized as a national language. Since 1992 the Tamazight varieties have been utilized to present TV news.

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1 The original text of the translation is: La politique d'arabisation menée sans nuance ni discernement soulève aussi le problème du statut des autres langues pratiquées en Algérie. Plus encore que l'arabe parlé, la revendication de la langue et de la culture berbères soulève à sa façon et sur un autre registre la question de l'intégration nationale posée par l'existence de populations, d'une langue et d'une culture ancestrale.

In 1995, President Zeroual, wished to appease the 'Kabyle' political parties so he established a body attached to the presidency that had the task of introducing Berber teaching into schools. From 2017 on middle school pupils attend compulsory Tamazight courses and its teaching is compulsory.

### 2.2.2 Algerian Arabic

After 1962, Algerian Arabic has functioned as a vernacular language. It is used for everyday conversation, in theatre plays, popular poems, songs and newspaper jokes.

When the arabization process was initiated, standard Arabic was utilized in the mass media by the year 1971 (El-Moudjahid, Arabic, n°387 of 1.10.67). It is used in some live conversations with listeners (on radio) or viewers (on television) and in some TV or radio programmes. Algerian Arabic is regarded as a variety functioning as an informal element for maintaining group membership. An interlocutor, who would not use it in some speech situations, where this variety is normally predictable, would seem odd. Therefore, it is hypothesized that Algerian speakers assign 'low status' to this variety.

### 2.2.3 Standard Arabic

The Koran, the holy divine book, was revealed in what is usually known Classical Arabic, thus this language advanced in value and ultimately was related to high prestige. It is clearly expressed in Koran verses that it was sent down:

**In the perspicuous Arabic tongue.<sup>1</sup>**

**(Soura: Achou'araa', verse 195)**

And in another verse God says:

**We have sent it down as an Arabic Koran, in order that ye may learn wisdom.<sup>2</sup>(Soura: Yusuf, verse 2)**

The Koran was the most instrumental factor that led to the conservation of the classical language. This is why it is regarded chiefly as a religious language, and a medium associated with the rituals of Islam.

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The original verses in Arabic are as follows: 1 بلسان عربي مبين

2 انا انزلناه قران عربيا لعلمكم تعقلون

The whole Arab civilization progressed and was transmitted in this language, which is considered as the language of Islam, and the Arab literature. In the field of history, historians regard all states conquered by Arabs and have Arab dialects as a mother tongue as one nation. For instance, G. Grandguillaume(1983 :66) writes:

**The Arabic language is the language of the Islamic community, the identity of the Moslem shines inside it like a mirror. The Arab-Moslem civilisation evolved with this language, too<sup>1</sup>.**

In the pre-Islamic period, one of the traditions was that of the ‘*mu'allaqaāt*’ (literally “the hung”). In the city of Mecca, poets and writers used to hang their writings on a wall in the city so that others would be able to read about the virtues of their respective tribes. Throughout their travels from city to city and tribe to tribe gave opportunity to local inhabitants and travelers to exchange news, legends, and exploits which would become known in the whole area. The tradition was carried on as the Qur'an was first memorized and transmitted by word of mouth and then recorded for the following generations.

Large centres provided religious learning which were also considered as places for acquiring knowledge and scientific information. Such formal centres began during the Abbasid period (750-1258 AD) when thousands of mosque schools were founded. In the tenth century Baghdad had some 300 schools. Alexandria in the fourteenth century had 12,000 students. It was in the tenth century that the formal concept of the ‘*Madrassah*’ (school) was promoted in Baghdad. The ‘*Madrassah*’ had a curriculum

and full-time and part-time teachers. Foreign books were acquired from these ‘*Maktabat*’ (libraries) which were highly developed later.

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1The original text of the translation is : La langue arabe est la langue de la communauté islamique c'est en elle que luit, comme en un miroir cette identité de musulman. C'est aussi, avec cette langue que toute la civilisation Arabo-musulmane a évolué.

The two, most famous ones are ‘*Bait al-Hikmah*’ in Baghdad (820) and ‘*Dar al-Ilm*’ in Cairo (ca. 998). Universities such as ‘*Al-Azhar*’ (969 AD) were also founded long before those in Europe. Islamic history and culture can be traced through the written records: Pre-Islamic, early Islamic, Umayyad, the first and second Abbasid, the Hispano-Arabic, the Persian and the modern periods. Tasks were carried out regularly in order to modernize the Arabic culture by means of the introduction of new social and technical words called “*Mustalahaât*” that is to say ‘terms’.

Nowadays, Modernization constitutes an enrichment of the language, where necessary, with a new terminology in the domains that are most lacking such as chemistry and computing to enable the language to confront the current communication and informational needs. New linguistic items -in different fields, such as linguistics or politics etc. -that went into the dictionary are not directly linked to the Arabic culture. Consequently, a set of loan-words are found, such as, foreign words which have not completely been assimilated into Arabic. For instance, on the one hand, the word democracy in Arabic /d i m u q r a t i j a/ is utilized to embrace the same meaning found in English or French. On the other hand, another term that is used in the Arabo-Islamic culture is closely related to this word, it is / f u r a /. Unlike the English or French words, the Arabic concept entails a religious connotation underlying historical factors. That is to say, the Moslem community makes use of it with reference to social, political and religious facts. Nonetheless, the word /d i m u q r a t i a/ is laic and found at the political level only.

Moreover, another set of vocabulary concepts can be read in the Arabic. For example, the word “villa” which was assimilated and written /f ill a/ in Arabic means a

house with a front or a back garden and built in a particular European architecture. However in Arabic, and prior to the European colonization of the Arab countries, other words were used such as /d a r/ 'house', /χ a j m a/ 'tent', /q a s r/ 'castle' and so forth. Thus, the new words are borrowed from French or English, mainly. For instance, when writing the terms /r u m a n s i j a/ and /k l a s i k i j a/ in Arabic, the French or English words are added to provide more clarification and accuracy. Attempts of this kind mean that the meanings of these terms are well-determined by another language. Therefore, Standard Arabic is confronted with a certain semantic dependence.

#### 2.2.4 New Reforms after 1999

Between 1999 and 2004, President Bouteflika introduced a set of reforms and succeeded in propelling a national discussion over a number of sensitive issues that had previously been regarded as national problems. While none of his predecessors had been courageous enough to deal with such situation; as he was ambitious and dared to break a number of taboos in frequent speeches. He stressed a number of delicate topics as those linked to the Algerian history, religious practices and the real language situation of the country. This new political behaviour on language policies established after 1962. As Soon as he was elected in April 1999, President Bouteflika surprised almost the whole population when he overtly began to deal with the language question in public. In May 1999, he declared: **'It is unthinkable... to spend ten years study in Arabic pure sciences when it would only take one year in English'** ('Le Matin' newspaper, 1999). The president, therefore, gave the appearance to have implicitly recognized the failure of Arabization, at least in science and technology teaching, and to plan a return to bilingualism in these fields. For him **'There has never been a language problem in Algeria, but simply rivalry and fights for French-trained executives' positions'** (El Watan, 1999). Bouteflika such comments were reinforced at the same time by the constant use of French in his public speeches, and he also showed his skill in Modern Arabic. He maintained the use of the bilingual fluency in French and Arabic showing the model for bilingual Algerian citizen. Bouteflika's public use of language was clearly in contrast with to practice of

his predecessors. In fact, he deliberately violated the law known as ‘Act n° 91-05’ established on 5 July 1998) which forbade any and all official public use of any language other than Arabic. Bouteflika revealed that he was infringing the law. In an interview with a French magazine, he said: **‘When I speak French, some people write in the press that I am in breach of the Constitution.’** (Paris Match, 1999:35) Furthermore, Bouteflika acknowledged in public speech that ‘our Algerian’ culture is plural,’ in a clear opposition with his predecessors. The President even reinforced his claims and said that French contributes to Algeria’s cultural heritage. In a press conference that he gave at the Crans Montana Summit in Switzerland in autumn 1999, he said: **‘We attended French school and we are thus heavily influenced by Descartes’** (Benrabah, 2004:9 6). In addition, Bouteflika attended the Francophonie Summit in Beirut in October 2002 even though Algerian authorities had refuted the whole idea of an institutionalized Francophonie, regarding it to be ultimately ‘neocolonialist’. In the summer of 1999, 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.**

**(Cherrad-Benchefra & Derradji, 2004: 168)**

Bouteflika frequent use of French gave rise to uproar among those of the arabized elite who supported the idea of total Arabization and of total elimination of French. In the autumn of 1999, the President of the committee for Foreign Affairs at the People’s National Assembly (the Algerian Parliament) sent a letter privately to Bouteflika, then the newly elected president, expressing their disapproval for his use of French in speeches. The president replied made the criticism public. Bouteflika also received a letter signed by several members of the High Council for the Arabic Language, reproaching him for his public use of French. In a televised speech, Bouteflika emphasized the idea that it was not the mission of the High Council for the Arabic Language to design the president’s milieu for him (El Watan, 2000: 23). Moreover, he claimed : **‘For Algeria I will speak French, Spanish and English, and, if necessary, Hebrew.’** in August, 1999, he said on live television:



**Let it be known that Algeria is part of the world and must adapt to it and that Arabic is the national and official language. This being said, let it be known that an uninhibited opening up to other international languages- at least to those used in the United Nations-does not constitute prejudice. In this domain, we are neither more Arab nor more intelligent than our brothers in Morocco, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, Syria, Lebanon, or Palestine or anywhere else. To move forward, one must break taboos. This is the price we have to pay to modernise our identity. Chauvinism and withdrawal are over. They are sterile. They are destructive.**

**(El Watan, 1999:3).**

Therefore, the language situation in Algeria continues to be ambiguous, even though there appears to be proof of an adequate resolution to the arguments and the arrival of a more rational language and language policy in education. The Algerian situation gives a good instance of individual efforts in language planning, as explained above, demonstrating the influence that an individual can have on language selection.

## 2.3 The Language Organization in Education

### Introduction

From the early sixties to the early eighties, the Algerian educational system constituted of a primary school, a middle school and a secondary school education. It was replaced by a new type of comprehensive school known as “Ecole Fondamentale”.

**This instruction is free, it is compulsory during fundamental education and under the conditions mentioned by the law<sup>1</sup>.**

The latter is mentioned in Article number 66 of the 1976 constitution:

This new schooling enhanced more learning of Arabic remarkably. Nowadays, primary school pupils have only five hours a week of French. Before the establishment of this type of school, primary school pupils had ten hours. So, pupils' proficiency in

French is insufficient concerning some skills such as oral and written abilities. One can suggest that these learners prefer Arabic to French.

In 1980, primary school and middle school began to be fused into 'Ecole Fondamentale'. This schooling covered 9 years: six years in the primary school and

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<sup>1</sup>The original text of the translation is: Cette instruction est gratuite, elle est obligatoire pendant l'éducation fondamentale dans les conditions citées par la loi.

three in the traditional "Collège d'Enseignement Moyen" "C.E.M" and secondary schooling covered 3 years. Since 2003 new educational reforms were implemented consequently "Ecole Fondamentale" was replaced by new primary schooling that comprises five years instead of six and four years in middle school instead of three. However, reforms of 2008<sup>1</sup> concentrate on the fact that the Algerian educational system is assisted by the ministry of the national education and is composed of the following levels:

- The preparatory education, the fundamental instruction including primary: five years- and middle schooling: four years.
- General secondary and technological schooling (three years).

Moreover, this reform led to the inclusion 1995-1996 generations and the pupils who were born in 1995 were the last to attend classes from the system of six years, however, the generation of 1996 is the first to mark the end of the sixth year in primary school.

### 2.3.1 Standard Arabic in Education

#### 2.3.1.1 Primary School

Pupils used to spend six years in primary school. In the sixties, the Algerian pupil learned French from the first year. Later, in the seventies (1971-1972) and up to the present time, the pupil has been taught mainly in Standard Arabic. At present, French is taught in the third year of primary schooling. It is worth mentioning that the French language proficiency of the people who did primary schooling in the sixties and seventies is better than the proficiency of the ones who did it in the eighties till now. This is due to the fact that the previous generation had more linguistic practice in

French at school (more subjects were learned in French). However, the other one could learn French only during fewer lesson hours.

Recently, the Algerian education has gone through different reforms. In fact, primary schooling comprises six years (the first year is a preparatory one), middle school four years and secondary schooling was not submitted to any change. (Journal officiel 2010, article 48, 50).

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<sup>1</sup>Law n° 99-05 of 04 April 1999, modified and completed by the law n° 08-06 of 23 February 2008.

#### 2.3.1.2 Middle School

It consists of four years starting after completion of primary school. Since 1982, Arabic has been used as the medium of education; that is, the arabisation process gained more importance at this level. French and English are taught as subjects named in official documents as first and second foreign languages<sup>1</sup> respectively.

#### 2.3.1.3 Secondary School

The pupils spend the three final years in secondary school. At the end of this training, they sit for the general exam called the “Baccalauréat” which enables them to study in the university.

There are five types of sections in the secondary schools:

- 1- Scientific stream (série scientifique).
- 2- Literary stream (série littéraire).
- 3- Exact sciences stream (série sciences exactes).
- 4- Technical streams (série technique).
- 5- Economics and Management Stream.

The literary section has been completely arabized since 1974. The Algerian government set up a process for the “restoration of the Arabo-Islamic culture of the Algerians”. Since the academic year 1986-1987, mathematics, physics and chemistry are all taught in Standard Arabic to all sections in all grades. Literature, history, geography, theology, philosophy have been taught in Arabic since 1982-1983.

Thus one can propose the following hypothesis: Learners are more involved with SA and consider it easier than foreign languages. Besides, it is suggested that language learning has a certain influence on attitudes towards dialects; whereby they are stigmatized since they have no access to the official status.

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<sup>1</sup>Journal Officiel 2008, Article 2.

#### 2.3.1.4 Higher Education

Despite the strong Arabization policy that has been imposed on Algeria's public sphere, French has remained a prominent language in important fields of higher education (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Medicine). According to Benrabah, **“in universities, 95% of post-graduate courses in sciences and 95% of undergraduate courses in medicine and technical disciplines are taught in French”** (2007, p. 233). This gives an explanation in terms of the students' training which is affected by the Arabization process; therefore, their knowledge in French is insufficient at the college level. It is assumed that the policy of Arabization has not therefore succeeded in gaining a role in higher education. It appears that many of Algeria's elite and some politicians were well conscious of the results that when MSA has completely replaced French in all public institutions; the country could have engaged into collective long-term social, economic and political obstacles.

Considering additional reforms regarding Arabization, a new higher education system favouring multilingualism has been established since the early 2000s. This system is referred to the Europe's Bologna Agreement. This agreement was primarily meant to promote economic and research cooperation between European nations, and a few North African countries by means of programmes such as ERASMUS (European Commission Education and Culture DG 2010). It is clear that Algeria has brought reforms to its higher education thanks to the assistance of the Bologna

Agreement in order to facilitate students' and scholars' exchange so that the Algerian degrees could be acknowledged internationally. English has advanced to be the prevalent medium that facilitates the mission of the Bologna Agreement as this could be possible because of the linguistic and cultural diversity of all of the countries included in the European Union (EU) and North Africa. The reform that took place in the educational system in Algeria has therefore fostered multilingualism, involving English and French.

### 2.3.2 Standard French in Education

The knowledge of Standard French, used for literary or scholarly purpose, gained larger ground among citizens after independence, because of the spread of education. Furthermore, English learning was provided to a large number of Algerian pupils as well (O. Hayane, 1989). One can hypothesize that the need of foreign languages such as French and English in order to have access to knowledge, especially in the university, can foster favourable attitudes towards these languages.

#### 2.3.2.1 Primary School

Just after the independence, French was taught from the 1<sup>st</sup> year and standard Arabic was taught in the 3<sup>rd</sup> year of a pupil's schooling. However, for many years French was replaced by Arabic in educational institutions. This has created discontinuities in language attaining and usage, so, one can expect the emergence of different attitudes towards the languages in use among cohorts acquiring the same learning experience in a community (Morgan, 1993). The changes that happened in Algeria are illustrated below. As early as the academic years: 1966-67 to 1972-73, the teaching of French was carried out as follows:

Arabised Section	Bilingual Section
Standard French: taught as a second language.	Standard French: medium of instruction for arithmetics, natural sciences, geography and history.

As early as the academic year 1973/74, Standard French was taught as follows:

Arabised Section	Bilingual Section
Standard French introduced as a second language or foreign language.	Standard French taught as a second language and as a medium of instruction for arithmetics and natural sciences.

Since 1982 French has been taught as a foreign language in primary school.(Journal officiel 1982)

#### 2.3.2.2 Middle School

In middle school, the same language implementation was established. That is to say, before the fundamental schooling was applied, pupils learned arithmetics and natural sciences in Standard French. As early as the school year: 1982-1983, all scientific subjects in all grades were practised in Standard Arabic. Therefore, French was taught only as a subject.

#### 2.3.2.3 Secondary School

Natural sciences as well as arithmetics were instructed in French for the scientific and mathematical sections. The literary section included the teaching of arithmetics and natural sciences in Arabic by the year 1974. When the fundamental education came into practice, all subjects in all grades were arabized. Thus, French was instructed both as a subject and a foreign language. Literary and foreign language sections have higher number of courses in English and French. So, it is proposed that French is regarded as ‘difficult’ by learners.

#### 2.3.2.4 Higher Education

It is for practical purposes that French is officially maintained at university level. This is due to the fact that all university teachers of scientific branches are

instructed in French during graduate and post graduate studies, such as a 'doctorate'. French represents the medium of modernization and technology for the urban elite. It facilitates the access to knowledge, Western commerce, to economic development as well as culture. Their mastery of the language preserves their continuous social prominence.

### 2.3.3 Standard English in Education

#### 2.3.3.1 Primary School

English was never taught in primary school until 1992. From that year and in a small number of schools, parents had to choose either the teaching of French or English for their children. This was carried out in one class in some Algerian schools. Nevertheless, this reform was not approved as it was not efficient enough so it was eliminated. This happened because pupils' knowledge in French was insufficient; hence proficiency in this language is needed for higher education, mainly. It soon became obvious to students who obtained an education in Arabic that their perspective for adequate employment was not possible without a good command in French, a fact that led to skepticism noticed in general public about the programme.

#### 2.3.3.2 Middle School

English is an international language and its need is found in many domains like having access to technological advance and progress in general. For example, most of 'Magistère' and 'Doctorate' researchers need English documents where required and recent information is provided. Thus, the Algerian government implemented its teaching as a 2<sup>nd</sup> foreign language. Nonetheless, English is never used out of the classroom circle as it is not the language brought by the colonizers. English used to be taught in middle school in the second year (8<sup>th</sup> grade) as a school subject and a foreign language. Since 2003-2004 school year, this language has been taught in the first year.

#### 2.3.3.3 Secondary School

At this level the number of English courses is higher for the literary sections than it is for the scientific ones in the first year. In the second year all sections, have the same number of English classes (3 hours a week) except for the literature and

foreign language sections which provide a higher number of classes in English (5 hours a week).

#### 2.3.3.4 Higher Education

English for specific purpose courses: E.S.P is a specialized programme in English taught to learners in response to specific occupational graduate and post-graduate courses. All university students enrolled in scientific branches have ESP, such as: Economic sciences, Architecture and Biology, ect. Students of some branches of human sciences learn E.S.P, such as: Islamic sciences and Arabic literature. (more information about ESP is given in section 1.3.2.3)

#### 2.3.3.5 Other Foreign Languages

Other foreign languages are taught in schools and universities. Three hours a week of either German or Spanish are taught for foreign languages sections in some secondary schools. As for the university level, German, Spanish and Russian are taught. Italian is taught in Algiers University.

### 2.4 Arabic, English, French and Tamazight in Business

French and to a lower degree Arabic are predominant languages in the business world in Algeria; yet, English has recently gained more ground than before. This is due to the American, British and French companies that have heavily invested in hydrocarbons (Algeria's main source of income). English is the main language used in these countries, hence it has assigned a major role in Algerian business domain. Depending on which the academic institution a student is assigned to (assignments depend on high school grades and geographical location) and from an practical point of view, talking to students who are in the fields of economics, business and management and are taught in either French or MSA, enhances the idea that those who have a good command of French are supposed to have a better chance to get a job. It is a general belief in Algeria that MSA is not the most useful language in order to take profit from opportunities provided by the business employment. The role of Tamazight is almost reduced by small businesses for personal communication with customers in Tamazight-speaking regions.



It should be noted that Algerian businesses have seized the opportunity of the fact that people consider English as a prestigious language, though they do not speak it fluently. For example, one can find on some blankets “honey time.” One wonders how this expression was worded and what its significance is, but it appears to be a clear message to many Algerians that it entails a positive reference. On some pencil cases, one can find “my secret stuff,” which would seem strange if the article was going to be sold in an English speaking country. Yet, Algerian manufacturers are conscious that Algerian consumers think that the product embraces prestige when they read English expressions written on its label, even if they do not understand the meaning of the phrase. This explains how marketing applications could be influenced by the use of English or French in TV satellite in their advertised commercials because of its prestige connotation among some of the French or English audience. Algerian businessmen may have imitated the marketing experience from French TV. The above examples reflect how commercialisation in Algeria is increasing its efforts to take profit from favourable attitudes towards English to promote the selling of products to those who relate this medium to ‘high status’ even if it is not comprehensible.

## 2.5 The Language Situation in the Mass Media

### 2.5.1 Roles of Arabic, English, French and Tamazight in the Media

MSA has traditionally dominated the mass media sector, moreover, the process of Arabization and its broad use in the media has restricted the utilization of French. The Algerian government owns l’Entreprise Nationale de Télévision (ENTV) as well as a few stations that diffuse programmes on satellite. Recently, the Algerian authorities established one Tamazight-speaking and another French-speaking satellite channel. Due to the recent contesting movement known as the Arab Spring pressure from the street on the Algerian government, a law was authorized allowing *private* TV and radio stations to diffuse on satellite. Privately-owned newspapers have been published since the 1990s, yet the majority of newspapers and radio stations still use MSA mixed with Algerian dialect.

English-speaking television programmes such as *Follow Me* and *On We Go* have not appeared on national television for decades as a consequence of Algeria’s

language policy (Bouhadiba, 2006, p. 7). Actually, English is not a prevalent language in the Algerian television. Even though, a few years ago, a programme entitled '*Arabic Roots of English Words*' was diffused on national television. This programme sounded to help improve English (in a way that advances Arabization) as a manner to gain more ground than it is for French. In fact, the pro-Arabization organization as claimed in the past that English is supposed replace French as the latter has a colonial connotation due to the long past colonial period.

BRTV is a private Berber station installed in France. It diffuses its programmes on satellite and targets mostly the Tamazight-speaking audience in Algeria. Currently, there are many foreign channels that can be watched in Algeria via satellite and on which are appreciated by most Algerians for entertainment mainly and local news. Satellite provides different prospects from the ones offered by national TV, and people watch them to know about the rest of the world as well

There are many newspapers published in MSA (e.g. *El Khabar and El Chorouk*) and French (e.g. *Liberté and El Watan*), some of which are owned by the government and some others are owned privately. *La Dépêche de Kabylie*, published in French, tackles points associated to the Kabyle (Berber) region. The use of English in the Algerian newspapers and online media is limited. Yet, some newspapers such as *Ennahar* publish articles in English online. There are also a few magazines in English, such as *Inelectronics' Magazine* and *50/Fifty Magazine*, which are sponsored by Schlumberger and Hopeland Institute respectively.

### 2.5.2 Cinema

Most foreign films, except Arab films, are dubbed in French. Dubbing is done in French because the foreign films, mostly American, are purchased from France. Other foreign films, mostly Brazilian and Mexican or Turkish, are purchased from Egypt, Syria or Lebanon, which take in charge the dubbing in Arabic. Recently, Turkish serial start to be dubbed in Algiers dialect.

### 2.5.3 Theatre

All the plays that are performed in Algerian theatres are presented either in Algerian Arabic or Standard Arabic.

#### 2.5.4 Radio and Television Channels

Currently, more and more radio and TV channels are broadcast in Algerian dialect, MSA, Tamazight and French. The most important are as follows:

The National Algerian TV Channel: This channel broadcasts programmes in Standard Arabic such as daily news, documentaries, children's programmes (cartoons), official speeches, as well as other programmes in Algerian Arabic.

1- The programmes broadcast in Algerian Arabic are:

Algerian plays and films, Algerian songs, live interviews. The programmes broadcast in mixed Algerian Arabic and Standard Arabic are:

Advertisements and some debates.

The programmes broadcast in French are:

French films, dubbed foreign films and news once a day in some channels.

2- The third channel: It uses the same media as the first one.

3- The international channel broadcast by satellite presents programmes and news in French as well as some programmes in Arabic.

There are three national radio channels and other regional ones, such as /l b a h j a/ in Oran and /l b a h 3 a/ in Algiers.

a) The National Algerian Radio: Standard Arabic is the medium of broadcasting. In songs, plays and live conversations the vernacular language is used.

b) The Second Channel: It presents all programmes in Berber.

c) The Third Channel: Alger "chaîne trois": In this channel all programmes

are presented in French. Hence, Algerian Arabic is introduced in non-official speech. Spanish and English news as well as some programmes in each language are broadcast in the evening.

d) The Regional Radio Channels: Standard Arabic is used to present speeches and news. Algerian Arabic is commonly used by journalists.

#### 2.5.5 Newspapers and Magazines

Newspapers are edited in both Standard Arabic and Standard French. More and more newspapers edited in Arabic appeared in the nineties. French magazines include mainly fashion and scientific topics as well as politics. Magazines published in Standard Arabic include articles about politics and social matters. It should be noted that magazines written in English are rarely found in bookshops. Some newspapers are printed in Tamazight in Kabylia.

#### 2.6 Conclusion

Unlike Algerian Arabic and Tamazight which are used at home, for everyday informal purposes and reinforces social relations; Standard Arabic is considered to have an intellectual and political frame of reference. It is commonly used as an educational medium. Indeed, Standard Arabic is a medium used to edit books, to do studies and research. It is the language of the 'élite'. On the one hand, Arabic dialect speakers feel that their varieties belong to the source which is Arabic dialect. On the other hand, Berber dialect speakers consider that Berber is stigmatised and ignored. Algeria gives attention to learning foreign languages, since the educational level of its students and the strength of the nation depend on such skill. Arabisation was proceeding on a grade-by-grade basis. The Ministry of Justice came closest to the goal by arabising internal functions and all court proceedings during the 1970s. Other ministries, however, were slower to follow the same policy and French remained in general use. The recognition of French as an important medium and an open window to technology is regarded as a reality. French is widely used amongst the educated people in Algeria and speech acts and even speech events in French are often heard in non-official discussions. Furthermore, that linguistic value goes in parallel with

another important world language which is English. This language is devoid of the colonial and historical background that French has. It is assumed that language attitudes as well as language selection are not arbitrary, but oriented by a number of factors such as the status and spread of given languages. That is, the use of a given linguistic medium in given domains can be associated with social criteria or scientific values.

Algeria's recent reforms of its educational system reinforces recent progressive activities such as introducing free-market policies and welcoming cultural diversity.. These reforms are meant to assist building Algeria's intellectual basis, develop social and political steadiness, socio-economic circumstances, and enhances competition at the international level. The reforms are also oriented to bridge the economic gap between Europe and North Africa and, thus, among other aims, reduce African illegal emigration to Europe.

The next chapter presents field-work data; it considers the attitudinal aspects of students towards the different languages functioning in relation to language learning. Language varieties are allocated different roles and are judged accordingly. Stereotypical criteria are dealt with; wherefrom evaluative judgments are analyzed. This part reveals clues that orient the informants' language preferences or stigmatization within their community.

## **CHAPTER THREE: Language Attitude Investigation and Stereotype Study: Analysis and Discussion**

### 3.1 Language Attitude Study : Analysis and Discussion of the Results

#### Introduction

##### 3.1.1 Use of Questionnaires

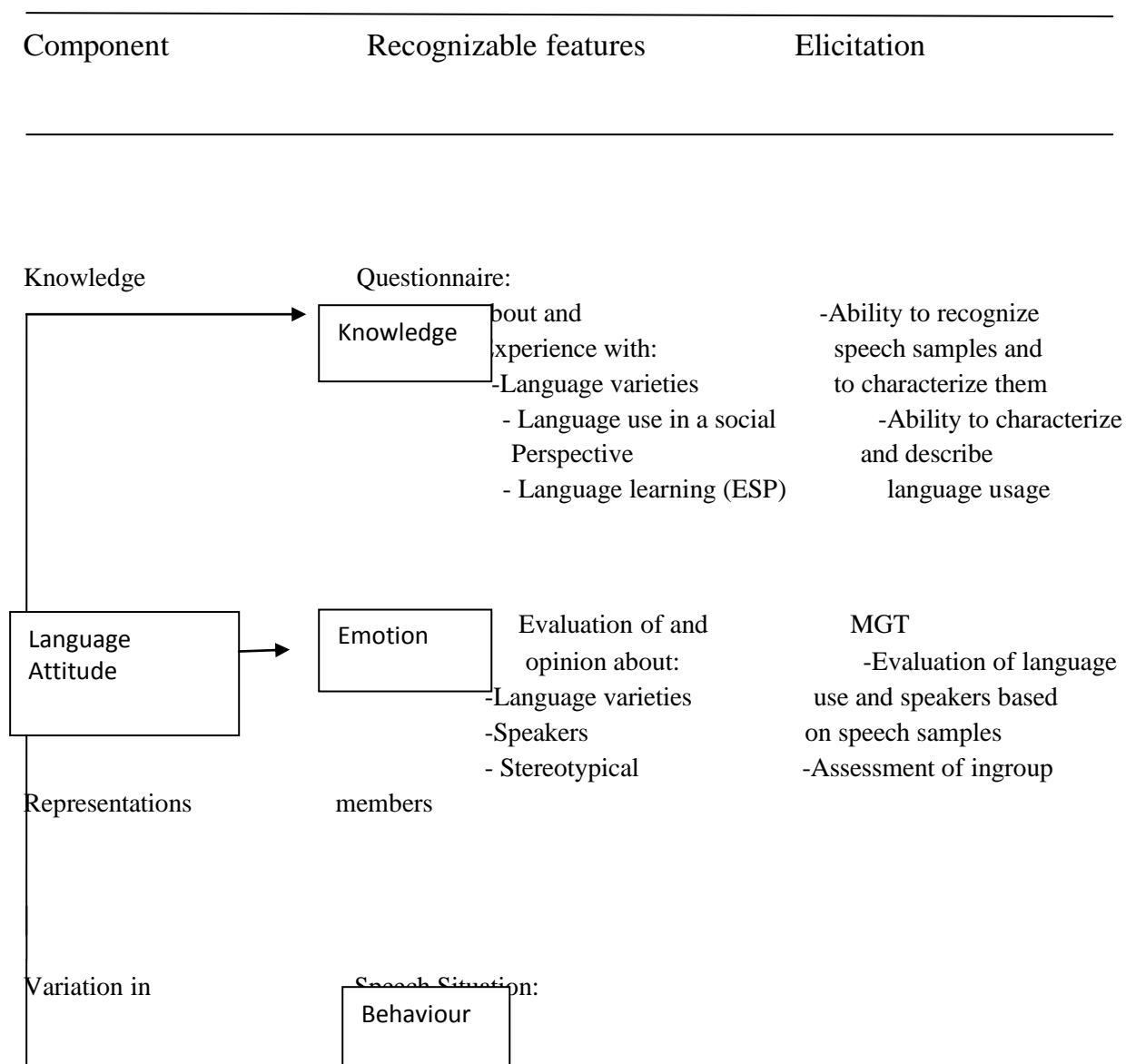
. The questionnaires are the main basis of the field work as far as language attitudes are concerned (Gardner and Lambert 1972). They are important tools the investigator has at his disposal, as they enable him to gather the maximum of information in a short time. This way of collecting data is also uniform for all informants. The first part includes personal information (age, sex, department). It is worth mentioning that each questionnaire is written in Standard Arabic as it used to be the medium of instruction. English and French are not used in order not to affect the respondents' attitudes.

##### 3.1.2 Participants

Clearly we need to have speakers representing all criteria related to the hypotheses described above. The investigation includes 180 respondents ;forty (40) male and the same number of female informants are selected from each group. It is important that all data should be collected under the same circumstances, so far as this

is possible. Second year students are interviewed as they are considered to be more involved with the foreign language teaching. One can assume that the influence of language learning on attitudes is important for everyone concerned with schools and classrooms. It is also essential for educationalists to understand the relationship between the characteristics of language and the power of students' stereotyped attitudes to language.

The data concerned with language attitudes study, stereotypical assessments as well as speech situation were elicited from the informants by means of written anonymous questionnaires, matched guise technique and speech situations respectively. The present survey consists of analysing attitude-behaviour as well as attitude-affective evaluation. The figure below illustrates the theoretical framework:



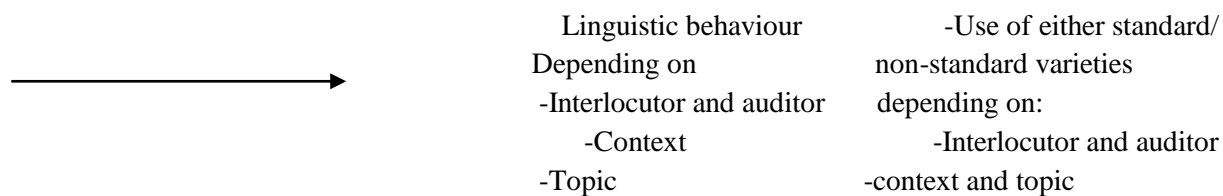


Figure 3.1 The Three Components of Attitudes (derived and adapted from Kristiansen 1991:46)

The present figure presents the recognizable features for each component and how data are obtained by means of different techniques. Every feature entails underlying criteria designed to reveal subjective reactions that give clues of perceptive view about what language attitudes can do and not only the value judgments they embrace.

### 3.1.3 Language Attitudes Test

Different approaches have been developed to tackle the complex psychological study of attitudes that has given rise to the promotion of the investigation of attitudes. One of commonplace methods for the study of attitudes aims at asking directly the informants to reveal their attitudes towards the variety in question. This ‘direct approach’ is meant to analyze attitudes; it is considered ‘protruding’ in nature because of its direct way to elicit data from informants (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 16). Recorded interviews and completed written questionnaires represent typical examples of the ‘direct approach’ (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 25). Many research works are featured by the utilization of either questionnaires or recorded interviews. Several advantages and disadvantages are referred to both data collection tools. The circumstances under which the data are gathered define most of the time which instrument can be used (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 31). If, for instance, the questioned group of an investigation is composed of young children or speakers of a language with no written form the researcher is obliged to use recorded interviews (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 31). In such pressurized conditions, interviews are often chosen as a data elicitation technique as various favourable conditions are linked to them. Recorded interviews mainly provide detailed reports from informants and the fieldworker can take profit from the intercommunication-based nature of the interview to improve their



comprehension of the informants' replies. The differences in the explanation of questions can be illuminated and the form of the recorded interview would give an opportunity to respondents to speak about any interesting points which could not have been predicted by the investigator (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 35). Yet, interviews are ultimately time-consuming and large amount of money can be spent to administer them (Bryman, 2004: 133).

Written questionnaires that are completed by the informants themselves consists an alternative instrument which is efficient for gathering quantifiable data on language attitude study, language competencies and personal accounts of language behaviour (Codó, 2008: 158). Providing written questionnaires could be quick and normally does not result in spending much time and easily conducted (Bryman, 2004: 34). One fieldworker only is required to gather a big quality of data from many informants, who complete the questionnaires at the same time (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 34). Yet, if the interviewer is not present, informants cannot be urged to establish their answers and the investigator has not enough control over expected misunderstanding of questions (Bryman, 2004: 134). Hopefully, interviews and questionnaires do not represent ultimately specific data collection instruments. Investigators can make use of these two types of direct approaches during many phases during the execution of the study so that a better interpretation of the target group's attitudes is obtained. For instance, interviews recorded during a pilot study could provide the investigator of relevant points and issues which can be involved in a written questionnaire while being completed by informants (Codó, 2008: 173). The investigation of attitudes based on quantitative data included in this project is featured by means of a self-completion written questionnaire. Most of fieldwork data can be conducted in schools during working school hours, written questionnaires were utilized to enable the researcher to gather large quantities of data during a short period of time. Self-completion questionnaires appear in particular efficient instrument for research on attitudes in educational environment as fewer disturbances are created by the administration in daily school activity. The questionnaires utilized in this study were given to groups of respondents composed of forty students at the same time. The investigator was present at the time of the execution of the research so questionnaires were completed in order

to enable the respondents to answer all questions clearly. Most of informants filled in the questionnaire while the fieldworker was present; since attitude questions are meant to collect mainly overt data about learner's attitudes, i.e. attitudes revealed while the participant experienced comfort about expressing them directly. This is essential due to the fact that administering direct and indirect statements about assigning favourable or unfavourable of given varieties in given social conditions, participants transmit data that the investigator could examine more easily. As a result, a main interest of the fieldwork concerns the creation of fewer disturbances in the daily school activity. Henceforth, actual research was debated with different classes in the two schools where the number of the group varied between 10 and 15 and every gender was dealt with separately.

The questionnaire used in this research (cf. Appendix A) is six pages long and contains three sections. The completion of the questionnaire took thirty minutes on average. First of all, informants are required to provide details regarding their gender and personal language use with their parents and friends. The second section focuses on closed-ended statements. The third part of the questionnaire contains the adjective test. A major part of the questionnaire consists of a collection of attitude statements. Informants are required to show their level of agreement with various statements concerning the use of AA, SA, French and English at the university as well as beyond the educational sphere.

#### 3.1.3.1 Direct Approach

The direct approach to language attitude research is "characterized by a high degree of obtrusiveness, and by the fact that it is the informants themselves who are asked to report their attitudes" (Garrett, Coupland, and Williams 2003:24). Respondents are asked directly, either through interviews or some form of questionnaire, what they think about varieties of language. One early example of this methodology is Labov's (1966) study in New York City in which he asked respondents not only to report whether they would or would not pronounce the /r/ in certain words but also to comment on which pronunciation they believed they should use. Many direct language attitude studies have been conducted in Great Britain

focusing on Welsh, Received Pronunciation, and other languages and varieties (see Ryan and Giles 1982 and Garrett, Coupland, and Williams 2003). The direct approach to language attitude studies carries with it a number of research concerns. First, the very nature of the approach in asking respondents to self-report attitudes is problematic, for respondents may not be the best at judging, synthesizing, and expressing what their attitudes actually are. Further, respondents may not be fully aware of the more subtle, complex, and subconscious attitudes that they actually hold toward speakers of a particular variety. Further, since respondents are asked directly to reveal their attitudes towards language forms, usually highly stigmatized varieties, the social desirability bias may provide considerable interference (see Oppenheim 1992 and Gass and Seiter 1999), for as Garrett, Coupland, and Williams note, **“respondents harbouring negative views towards a particular group may not wish to admit to the researcher, or even to themselves, that they hold such feelings”** (2003:28). Another major concern with the direct approach, which sets it apart from the indirect approach, is that the respondents are asked to give their reactions to and opinions of language Hasty varieties without hearing actual verbal examples of these varieties. The unavailability of a speech sample could cause respondents to call up extreme characterizations and/or inaccurate representations of a particular variety. Self-reporting and the lack of speech samples, reactions toward different shades of dialect and actual phonological, lexical, and grammatical variation may go untapped by this methodological approach.

### 3.1.3.2 Indirect Approach

The other essential type of language attitude research is the indirect approach. Theoretically, direct approaches are not often considered to be adequate reports for all attitude studies; the indirect approach makes use of discreet techniques to examine participants' evaluations of language varieties and to reach indirectly at language attitudinal criteria on the basis of relevant observations. The indirect method is distinctive from the direct method in terms of the number of separate levels. Speech samples are utilized to obtain judgments, and it is the responsibility of the observer who analyses respondents' attitudes based on those value judgments rather than the

participant self-account. This approach is often thought to give a illuminating picture of internalised attitudes that an informant cannot be directly aware of or may be inhibited to convey overtly. The most important investigating instrument of the indirect approach to language attitude analysis is the matched guise technique (MGT), which has widely been discussed in the literature. The MGT is employed as an equivalent for the indirect approach. This technique was developed by Wallace Lambert and his colleagues at McGill University in the early 1960s, it is said **“to expose the listeners’ more private feelings and stereotyped attitudes toward a contrasting group or groups whose language, accent, or dialect is distinctive”** (Tucker and Lambert 1969:463). The MGT entails recording bilingual (or bidialect) interlocutors who read a passage in each of the two varieties. These two “guises” are then listened to by a group of participants and they are introduced by the researcher as if they are two different speakers. The participants are required to classify speakers they listen to on a semantic differential scale for a number of adjectives or phrases (i.e., good -- - - bad, can deal with technology) written on anonymous papers. Judgments of the two guises are then analysed and compared to obtain the relevant interpretation of the informants’ attitudes. This technique aims at keeping indicators of speech rate, voice intonation, and pitch steady and thus leaving the speech as the only reason for the participants to express their reactions. Lambert claims that the MGT **“appears to reveal judges’ more private reactions to the contrasting group than direct attitude questionnaires do”** (Lambert 1967:94). This tool seems to respond to what Lambert claims, for Edwards’ statements it was Lambert’s (1967) investigation of bilingualism using the MGT that provided interpretation of participants’ language attitudes which cannot be separated from sociolinguistic measurements. In fact, they are characterized with varied aspects within some attitudes entailing “a speaker’s ability”(e.g., intelligence and technological advance), some personal integrity(e.g., solidarity and reliability), and some social attractiveness(e.g., friendliness and likeability)” (Edwards 1982:23). Changes happened with the MGT since the 1960s as several speakers are used to produce different dialects rather than using bilingual or bi-dialect speakers; therefore, a speaker represents only one dialect in order to avoid the obstacle of artificiality that has sometimes been revealed to the MGT test (Garrett,

Coupland, and Williams 2003:54). More alternations occurred with the MGT by using technological techniques to acoustically handle a single individual's speech by changing certain segments (e.g., vowels indicative of the rural Shift or the Northern Cities Shift) in one recording and letting the speech without changes in the other (c.f. Fridland, Bartlett, and Kreuz 2004 and 2005).

Attitude measurements are imperfect representations of individuals as speakers may consciously or unconsciously give socially desirable answers or, for instance, the purpose of the research may affect them. To eliminate this, adjective and indirect questionnaires were used. They consist of two parts<sup>2</sup> and are as follows:

-Indirect questionnaires:

- a- Closed-ended questions.
- b- The adjective test.

#### a- Closed-Ended Questions

In this kind of questions the informant is provided with a multiple choice of answers for particular statements. The answers consist of three degrees from agree, undecided and disagree.

Statements are sentences given to the informants. The answers are based on the following aims based on Buschenhofen (1998):

Aims	The given statements
Higher Educational status of the English /French language.	1-University books should be written in English /French language. 2- English language should be a medium of instruction in the Algerian University.
-Social and instrumental value of the French/English language	1-The French language is the mark of an educated person.

<sup>2</sup>These tests were adapted from Labov's studies (1972), Stewart's classification (1968) and Gumperz (1966).

	<p>2- If I use English, I will be praised by people.</p> <p>4- The spread of the use of English language in Algeria is necessary.</p>
-Desire to learn English/French	<p>-When I have assignments to do in English/French, I try to do them immediately.</p> <p>- I would read English/French Newspapers or magazines outside my English/French course work.</p> <p>- I would like the number of English/French classes at school.</p> <p>- I find studying English/French more interesting than other subjects.</p> <p>-I volunteer to answer or ask questions in class.</p>
-Frequency and Amount of Communication in English/French	<p>-I participate in classroom activities.</p> <p>-I ask teachers questions or talk to them outside the class period.</p> <p>-I talk with friends or acquaintances outside school in English/French.</p>
Attitudes towards the national	- Standard Arabic should be the only

language or loyalty towards it.	national language.
Attitudes towards the official status of Tamazight.	- Tamazight should be used in administrations.
The use of a foreign language would detract from cultural identity.	1- Students are able to speak French /English if it is taught in relation to the Algerian environment i.e. Algerian way of life.  2- When using English/French, I do not feel that I am Algerian anymore.  3-If I use French/English, it means that I am not patriotic.
Motivational Intensity:  Orientation towards foreign languages.  Willingness to communicate in French and English.	1-I am forced to learn French/English.  2-I like reading English/French books.  3-I love talking in English/French.
Integrative Orientation :  Acceptance of being a member of other communities or communicate with other communities.	1-Studying English enables me to think like the English people.  2-Studying French enables me to think like the French people.  3- Standard Arabic allows me to meet and communicate with more people from the Arab world.

The standard status of the Algerian dialect.	- The Algerian dialect should be taught.
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Indirect statements

b- The Adjective Test

This test consists of a list of adjectives (adapted from Stewart's sources 1968). The adjectives were chosen according to some important value judgements that people have on foreign languages. Throughout history, linguistic media are described according to the roles they were famous for (More information is given about this point in section 2.1). The informants select one opinion : strongly agree, agree or disagree. The test consists of a list of five adjectives and four sentences.

The test was based on the following criteria:

Item aims	The items
Linguistic criteria	1- The English / French language is easy  2- The English/French language is difficult
Hostility trait	1- The English/French language is harsh
Religiousness	1- Religious



Patriotism	1- Patriotic
Likeable Status	1- friendly
Easiness in use	1- Practical
High Standard	1- The English/French language is the language of civilisation.
Ability to deal with science and technology.	1- Scientific

### The Adjective Test

#### 3.1.4 Analysis and Discussion

##### 3.1.4.1 Students of Technology and Sciences

##### 3.1.4.1.1 Beliefs about French and English Learning

The results reveal that our male and female respondents are in favour of learning their modules in French and English and are conscious that attaining a foreign language gives access to world scientific knowledge as hypothesized. However, the recorded scores as far as the use of books written in English is concerned show an ambivalent attitude as half of girls and boys ticked the ‘agree’ box. Our students seem to be motivated to deal with the English language at the scientific level and at the same time they are in favour of reading the relevant literature in French. Furthermore, they appear faithful to their identity as most of males and females see that learning a foreign language according to the Algerian environment would be better. This may indicate that learners tend to maintain their original culture even if they are involved with learning practice. Based on the point of motivational intensity, both genders expressed clearly their positive attitude towards communicating in French as well as in English. Nonetheless, girls’ rating was higher than that of boys for both languages. Indeed, both groups have higher rates showing that patriotism does not contradict

willingness to communicate in foreign languages. Another positive response was registered indicating instrumental value of foreign languages, when respondents were asked about the necessity of learning French and English. However, gender difference appeared as nearly half of girls agreed on the fact that English learning is compulsory and more of them ticked the ‘agree’ box for the preference of speaking this medium. This may be due to the fact that girls found that learning English is more prestigious which confirms the suggested statement stated by Trudgill (1995). Gender difference as far as integrative orientation is concerned appears clearly since means of the statement within this factor largely reveals that more females view negatively the assimilation in the French and English communities. On the one hand, this result reveals that girls believe that it is helpful for students for both their future studies and their career development to speak a foreign language; on the other hand it showed that they were more conservative to their cultural identity. (cf. tables 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4).

<b>Traits</b>	<b>Females</b>	<b>Males</b>
<b>Necessity to learn French</b>	40	36
<b>The status of the language in the world</b>	34	20
<b>The necessity of French on internet</b>	34	20
<b>The necessity of the language to obtain a good job</b>	38	32
<b>The importance of learning the module</b>	8	2

Table 3.1 The importance of French by Gender

<b>Traits</b>	<b>Females</b>	<b>Males</b>
<b>Necessity to learn English</b>	40	40

<b>The High status of the language in the world</b>	40	40
<b>The necessity of English on internet</b>	30	40
<b>The necessity of the language to obtain a good job</b>	36	34
<b>The importance of learning the module</b>	6	10

Table 3.2 The Importance of English by Gender

<b>Traits</b>	<b>Females</b>	<b>Males</b>
<b>Higher Educational status of the French language.</b>	34	28
<b>Social and instrumental value of the French language</b>	33	27
<b>Integrative Orientation</b>	6	16
<b>Motivational Intensity</b>	33	27
<b>The high status of the learner of French</b>	22	21

Table 3.3 Beliefs about the Learning of French by Gender

<b>Traits</b>	<b>Females</b>	<b>Males</b>

<b>Necessity to learn English</b>	33	33
<b>Social and instrumental value of the English language</b>	29	30
<b>Integrative Orientation</b>	5	16
<b>Motivational Intensity</b>	35	31
<b>The high status of the learner of English</b>	29	24

Table 3.4 Beliefs about the Learning of English by Gender

#### 3.1.4.12 Language Attitude Adjective Test

The degree of attitudes of French and English is mildly positive. Both groups find them easy, even though, French was better rated at this level. The point here is clearly related to the degree of language exposure. Both media are considered scientific but English ratings were higher as this confirms the suggested hypothesis which states that the English language is a real competitor of French and gives better access to modernity and technological development. 'religious' and 'patriotic' traits were related to French rather than English. This could be due to the fact that students believe that language familiarity can give access to several topics. Even though, both media were assessed as friendly and civilised, the latter was assigned higher ratings by girls for French which indicates the female prestigious consideration for this medium as suggested in the hypothesis. Both languages were related to easiness in use 'practical', mainly English as this may be associated with the students' access to the grammar of the given language. (cf. tables 3.5 and 3.6)

<b>Statements</b>	<b>French</b>
-------------------	---------------

	Gender	
	Females	Males
<b>Easy</b>	28	22
<b>Likeable status 'friendly'</b>	40	40
<b>Religiousness 'religious'</b>	22	26
<b>Patriotism</b>	20	34
<b>Easiness in use 'practical'</b>	28	26
<b>High standard 'language of civilisation'</b>	40	28
<b>Ability to deal with science and technology</b>	40	30

Table 3.5 The Adjective Test of French by Gender

Statements	English	
	Gender	
	Females	Males
<b>Easy</b>	40	40
<b>Likeable status 'friendly'</b>	38	38
<b>Religiousness 'religious'</b>	6	5
<b>Patriotism</b>	26	18
<b>Easiness in use 'practical'</b>	38	40
<b>High standard 'language of civilisation'</b>	36	36
<b>Ability to deal with science and technology</b>	39	40

Table 3.6 The Adjective Test of English by Gender

#### 3.1.4.1.3 Willingness to Communicate in French and English

Interestingly enough, when dealing with willingness to communicate in French our male learners show more interest than girls to communicate in English. More girls than boys seem to like using French in their everyday speech. It is

remarkable that some male respondents are not eager to hear their classmates talking to their teachers in French or in English outside the classroom; they rather prefer to use French with their friends. There should be noted that students seem to have ambivalence in attitudes as they would like to use the languages in questions with their teachers only in class. This may be due to the fact that our informants believe that foreign languages are good for getting knowledge not communicating outside the classroom circle. Nevertheless, girls mainly are ambitious to use French with classmates outside the class. This assessment proves the suggested hypothesis stating that female respondents are attracted by the ‘prestigious’ trait related to the use of foreign languages outside the class. It is worth noting that students see that participating in a foreign language class helps learners to improve in these languages. Answers of the students concerning the statement ‘performing assignments in English/French’ revealed that different assessments are assigned to this activity. In fact, half of them are motivated to perform this activity; others see that it is not necessary. (cf tables 3.7 and 3.8)

<b>Statements</b>	<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>
<b>Class Participation</b>	35	27
<b>The use of the language outside the class with teachers</b>	14	28
<b>The use of the language with friends outside the class</b>	18	22

Table3.7 Willingness to use French by Gender

<b>Statements</b>	<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>
<b>Class Participation</b>	24	27

<b>The use of the language outside the class with teachers</b>	18	22
<b>The use of the language with friends outside the class</b>	15	11

Table3.8 Willingness to use English by Gender

#### 3.1.4.1.4 Attitudes towards the National Languages and Algerian Dialect

Students seem to be undecided as to the judgment of the standard status of Tamazight as half of both genders ticked the ‘agree’ box. Nonetheless, gender difference was remarkable since most of the girls found that Standard Arabic should not be the only national language. One notices that attitudes tend to change because of political as well as social consciousness, i.e seeing the spread of the use of Tamazight, such as in schools and mass media, as one of the most crucial factor in Algeria’s social change. Such values are used as important indicators of the respondents’ attitudinal inclinations, thus, unanimous opinions are not expected among individuals exposed to a social development. This attitude confirms the suggested statement about considering a dialect as a standard medium that was recognised as such by the constitution (cf. tables 3.9). Noticeably enough, students did not agree on the high status of the Algerian dialect as most of them did not accept to learn it at schools. Once more this judgment agrees with parallel with Ferguson classification of dialects as media associated to low status. Moreover, both genders view standard Arabic as a means that can give access to assimilation in the Arab world. Our respondents confirm

the suggested hypothesis stating that a language that used to be the medium of instruction can emerge as a language of identity and integration. (cf. tables 3.10)

Statement	Tamazight		AA	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
The official status	22	21	7	7

Table 3.9 Attitudes towards Tamazight, AA by Gender

Statements	SA	
	Females	Males
Attitudes towards the national language or loyalty towards it.	8	24
Acceptance of being a member of other communities or communicate with other communities.	39	38

Table 3.10 Attitudes towards SA by Gender

### 3.1.4.2 Students of Economics and Management

#### 3.1.4.2.1 Beliefs about French and English Learning



The students' responses to the various attitude statements included in the questionnaire draws attention to the complex and highly varied language attitudes prevalent in this group. The informants attributed greater importance to learning foreign languages in an educational context as most of girls and boys believed that English should be used at the university. Gender difference emerges when most of girls expressed a more positive attitude towards the spread of English. Both genders expressed their willingness to communicate in both languages ; as expected females preferred English to French. Remarkably, this opinion affirms the suggested statement related to the prestige criterion associated with foreign language use, mainly by girls. Nonetheless, less than half of the informants preferred using documents in French rather than in English. Moreover, nearly half of both groups did not see that speaking French or English is a marker of high status of learners. Our students found that they would be more comfortable with foreign language learning if it is related to the Algerian context. One can notice that informants maintain their identity and social frame of reference. Furthermore, less girls expressed this opinion as far as French is concerned. This may be due to the fact that females prefer dealing with this medium in its original milieu rather than associating it with a different one.( cf. tables 3.11, 3.12 and 3.13).

<b>Traits</b>	<b>Females</b>	<b>Males</b>
<b>Higher Educational status of the French language.</b>	25	20
<b>Social and instrumental value of the French language</b>	23	29
<b>Integrative Orientation</b>	6	12
<b>Motivational Intensity</b>	32	27
<b>The high status of the learner of French</b>	25	20

Table 3.11 Beliefs about the Learning of French by Gender

<b>Traits</b>	<b>Females</b>	<b>Males</b>
<b>Necessity to learn French</b>	22	18
<b>The status of the language in the world</b>	38	34
<b>The necessity of French on internet</b>	35	37
<b>The necessity of the language to obtain a good job</b>	18	22
<b>The importance of learning the module</b>	17	15

Table 3.12 The importance of French by Gender

<b>Traits</b>	<b>Females</b>	<b>Males</b>
<b>Necessity to learn English</b>	22	18
<b>The status of the language in the world</b>	40	39
<b>The necessity of English on internet</b>	40	36
<b>The necessity of the language to obtain a good job</b>	28	26
<b>The importance of learning the module</b>	17	15

Table 3.13 The importance of French by Gender

#### 3.1.4.2.2 Language Attitude Adjective Test

The students' average ratings of the importance of each linguistic behaviour reflect the relationship between personal goals and the promotion of knowledge. Indeed, gender difference underlying prestige criterion emerges since more girls found that French was easy, however, English was judged easy by both groups. On the one hand, both groups view that English and French are scientific, practical as well as friendly. On the other hand, more girls preferred to relate high status 'civilised' to English rather than French. Patriotism as well as religiousness traits were associated with French rather than English. Noticeably, more girls selected 'religious' criterion for the French language. The relatively positive attitudes of the speakers' judgements may indicate that informants, mainly males, may feel that French can be more expressive than English with given topics and at the same time they could assert that the medium of instruction at the university can give access to various domains. The informants' opinion confirms the suggested idea stating that learners are more involved with the medium of instruction. (cf tables 3.14 and 3.15).

<b>Statements</b>	<b>French</b>	
	<b>Gender</b>	
	<b>Females</b>	<b>Males</b>
<b>Easy</b>	28	20
<b>Likeable status 'friendly'</b>	40	40
<b>Religiousness 'religious'</b>	30	14
<b>Patriotism</b>	24	34
<b>Easiness in use 'practical'</b>	26	26
<b>High standard 'language of civilisation'</b>	20	28
<b>Ability to deal with science and technology</b>	28	28

Table 3.14 The Adjective Test of French by Gender

Statements	English	
	Gender	
	Females	Males
<b>Easy</b>	34	38
<b>Likeable status 'friendly'</b>	39	32
<b>Religiousness 'religious'</b>	4	7
<b>Patriotism</b>	12	15
<b>Easiness in use 'practical'</b>	33	36
<b>High standard 'language of civilisation'</b>	38	30
<b>Ability to deal with science and technology</b>	32	33

Table 3.15 The Adjective Test of English by Gender

### 3.1.4.2.3 Willingness to Communicate in French and English

Similarly, the results of this group revealed that our students of both genders were ambitious to communicate more in French rather than English. Moreover, more girls than boys seem to like using French in their everyday speech. It is remarkable that some male respondents are not eager to hear their classmates talking to their teachers in French outside the classroom; they rather prefer to use French in the scientific field or for sending messages on social webs on internet connection. Our learners expressed the same opinions as the first group; indeed, they seem to have ambivalence in attitudes as they would like to use the languages in questions with their teachers only in class. This assessment can be based on an underlying evaluation related to utility of these media in the domain of science and knowledge. Nevertheless, some female informants are ambitious to use French with classmates outside the class. This assessment proves the suggested hypothesis stating that female respondents are attracted by the 'prestigious' trait related to the use of foreign languages outside the

class. It is worth noting that students see that participating in a foreign language class helps learners to improve in these languages. (cf. table 3.16 and 3.17).

<b>Statements</b>	<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>
<b>Class Participation</b>	20	26
<b>The use of the language outside the class with teachers</b>	7	13
<b>The use of the language with friends outside the class</b>	14	17

Table3.15 Willingness to use French by Gender

<b>Statements</b>	<b>Males</b>	<b>Females</b>
<b>Class Participation</b>	15	22
<b>The use of the language outside the class with teachers</b>	10	9
<b>The use of the language with friends outside the class</b>	11	12

Table3.16 Willingness to use English by Gender

#### 3.1.4.2.4 Attitudes towards the National Languages and Algerian Dialect

The present data show the students attitudinal criteria to be multi-valued. In fact, males and females do not seem to agree on the following idea: 'Standard Arabic should be the only national language' as most of girls oppose the situation of seeing

SA alone at the official status. In spite of the fact that these informants seem to be more sympathetic and tolerant to Tamazight, they still do not seem to agree on the actual use of this medium in administrations. The result show a clear ambivalence in attitudes as half of girls and most of boys express their negative attitude towards this statement. Thus, one may think that our students are still undecided as to the classification of this newly recognised official and national status of Tamazight. Furthermore, the Algerian dialect was still found at the low status as stated by Ferguson (1959). Remarkably, one can see that power of political decisions can influence individuals 'opinions, who agree on the social status of a variety but do not support it as a language of instruction in schools. Even though, dialects are one of the main constituent of social identity, political decisions on the status of language, if it is in fact to be implemented, usually leads to attitudes. Furthermore, both genders held a positive attitude towards the utility of SA to have access to the communication with the Arab world. This result suggests that SA is perceived as an independent variety and our students seem to provide a clear measure of overt language attitudes. One should say that SA and Tamazight were seen as roughly equal in importance for the promotion of social life and that one tended to be seen as more important than the other one for given communicative goals. Hence, these students valued varieties according to their status in the world as well as to their political classification.(3.17 and 3.18).

Statement	Tamazight		AA	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
The official status	22	16	14	13

Table 3.17 Attitudes towards Tamazight, AA by Gender

Statements	SA	
	Females	Males
<b>Attitudes towards the national language or loyalty towards it.</b>	9	25
<b>Acceptance of being a member of other communities or communicate with other communities.</b>	40	35

Table 3.18 Attitudes towards SA by Gender

### 3.1.5 Conclusion

The various analyses presented in this part draw attention to the complex nature of language attitudes prevalent among informants. Students of Sciences and Techniques largely express positive affective and instrumental attitudes towards the foreign languages, they establish English as the most useful language. These data reveal to a given degree that this group is aware of the utility of both languages in the domain of science and technology. In spite of the fact that students of Economics and Management expressed positive attitudes related to motivational intensity towards the importance of French and English, their ratings regarding the use of the foreign languages at the educational level remained low in comparison with the other group. The difference is most noticeable in responses to attitude statements drawing attention to the fact that students from the technical school expressed a stronger desire to deal with the foreign languages.

Even though, there exist some slight differences between the two genders, boys display less interest for both languages in the educational context. Remarkably, the interpretation of the data does not solely rest on students' language evaluations but also on the basis of their proficiency as well as the purpose in goal of foreign languages. Prestige criterion was noticeable among girls of both branches as far as English is concerned as claimed by Trudgill (1995). As stated in Stewart' classification AA was stigmatised, while, Tamazight seem to gain more favourability among our students, mainly girls. Indeed, positive attitudes seem to emerge due to political decisions. SA is associated to wider communication, even though nearly half of the informants mainly females saw that this medium should not be the only official language. This data give interpretation of the attitudinal criteria that may reveal a link between language attitudes and language policy. Thus, the present result suggests that current educational as well as political policies influence students' language attitudes.

## 3.2 Stereotype Investigation

### Introduction

#### 3.2.1 Use of Matched-guise Technique

In Montreal in the 1950s , Lambert and his colleagues were doubtful about the local people's direct answers as a real reference of their private attitudes, so they promoted an indirect method known as the 'matched-guise' technique which signifies giving judgments. The listeners are required to evaluate the speakers-one man and one woman- whose voices are recorded on a tape. The same speaker utilizes several linguistic varieties, however this is unknown to the listeners.

The most relevant segments of the 'matched guise' technique are the following, taken from Obiols (2002) :



- 1- The variables of ‘gender’, and ‘age’ of the listeners are taken into consideration.
- 2- The variables of ‘gender’, ‘age’ and linguistic variety of the individuals recorded are considered.
- 3- The interviewees are not informed about the voices.
- 4- There is total control over the variable ‘voice’, keeping it far from all features of volume, timbre, tone, ect.
- 5- The length of the oral passage recorded is between 2 and 3 minutes.
- 6- The participants are asked to judge the personal qualities of the recorded speakers in reference to their voices, as if they were assessing the voice of someone on the radio.
- 7- A questionnaire provides the personality traits of the voices judge to be related to the voices (intelligence, leadership, physical attractiveness, politeness, ect.)

The results obtained using this technique assert intuitions about stereotyped conceptualisations of a given variety and the social group that utilizes that variety (Obiols, 2002). The results obtained using this technique confirm stereotyped value judgments towards a given variety and towards the social group that uses this variety.

The traits dealt with are arranged under eleven criteria:

- a- Intelligence : intelligent
- b- Occupation : skilled worker / unskilled worker
- c- Ambitiousness : ambitious/ not ambitious
- d- Orderliness : orderly / not orderly
- e- Leadership : a leader/ not a leader
- f- Reliability : self-reliable / not self-reliable
- g- Extroversion : extrovert/non-extrovert
- h- Dominance : dominant/ non-dominant
- i- Self-confidence : self-confident/ non-self-confident
- j- Development : developed /underdeveloped

One male and one female speakers are played once speaking five varieties one after another. The varieties are : Tamazight, Algerian Arabic, Standard Arabic, French and English. Listeners tick yes or no while it is playing. The passage could be played

twice or three times and was neutral and familiar to the listener, it did not reveal anything about the speaker's background. The text was an up-to-date one talking about the economic crisis. The text in the five varieties is included in Appendix D.

### 3.2.2 Perceptions of Students of Sciences and Techniques

#### 3.2.2.1 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers using Tamazight

Tamazight female and male speakers were evaluated as self-confident by the majority of both groups, while less girls judged female guise as such. Moreover, nearly half of both genders saw that both speakers were self-reliable, even though the number of girls judging male speaker was higher. Boys and girls opinions seemed to collaborate with the suggested statement. Apparently, our students tended to associate this variety to Tamazight people claims for a high status for their variety, while it was not related to the other positive traits. (cf. figure 3.2 and 3.3)

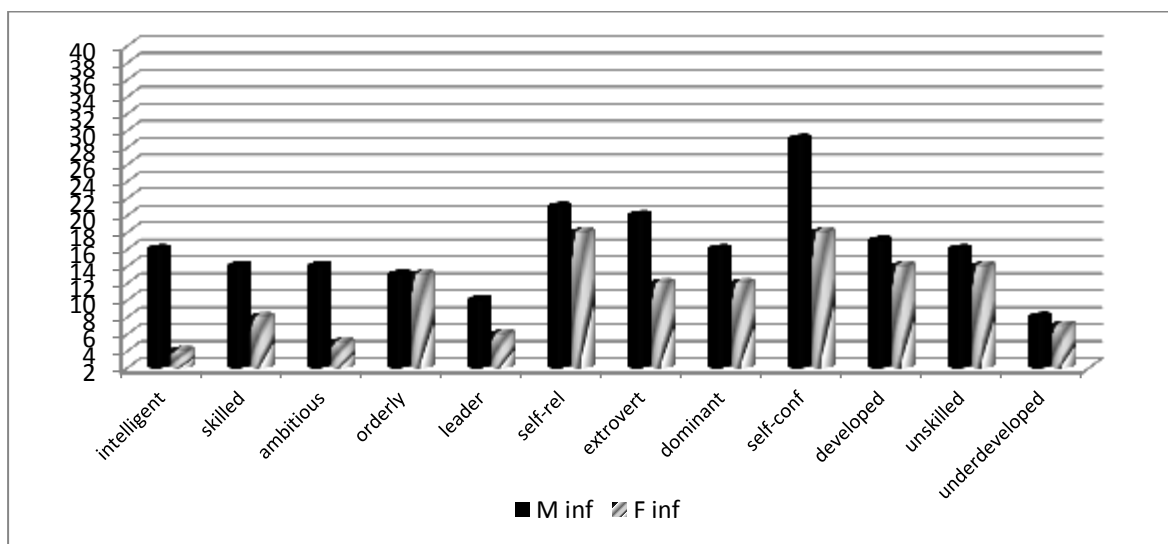


Figure 3.2 Informants' Perception of Tamazight Female Guise by Gender

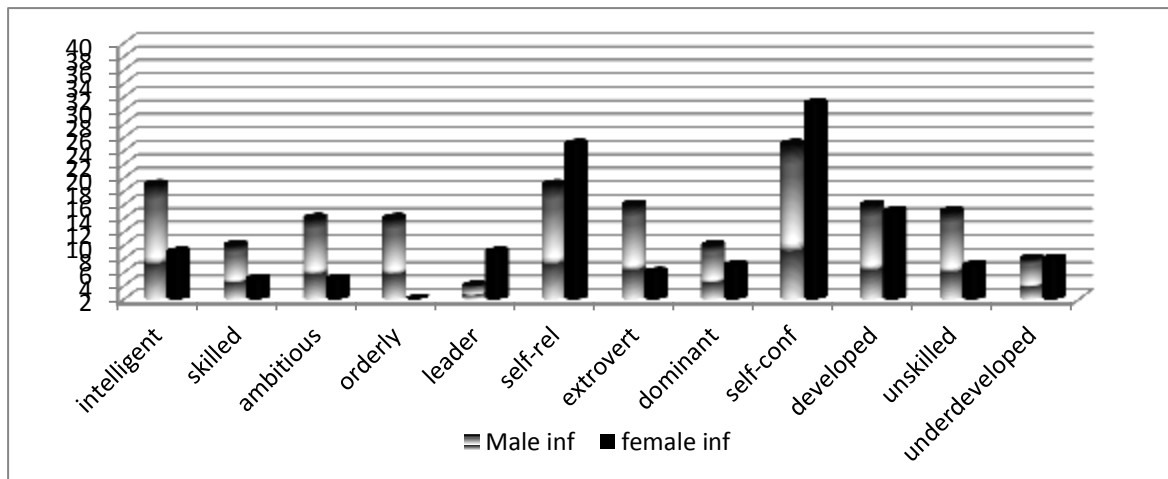


Figure 3.3 Informants' Perception of Tamazight Male Guise by Gender

### 3.2.2.2 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers Using Algiers Dialect

As far as A D was concerned no high significant ratings were shown. Indeed, the female speaker was associated with self-confidence and half of both genders related 'unskilled worker' and extrovert traits to this speaker. Remarkably, gender difference emerges when most of girls selected self-reliability to the present speaker. When considering the different evaluations, one notices that the AD female speaker was related to social attractiveness rather high status. The present result confirm the hypothesis claiming that the dialect as well as its speaker are found in a favourable social frame of reference wherefrom social identification as well as psychological determinant are reinforced. One should notice that gender differences are remarkable with male speaker' result as only self-confidence was selected by girls and boys, while reliability and intelligence traits were chosen by half of the boys. Most of girls preferred to associate 'unskilled worker' trait with male speaker. Male informants tended to judge this speaker more positively than girls did as this may indicate that boys could be more sensitive to the selected variables when listening to the same gender.(cf. 3.4 and 3.5)

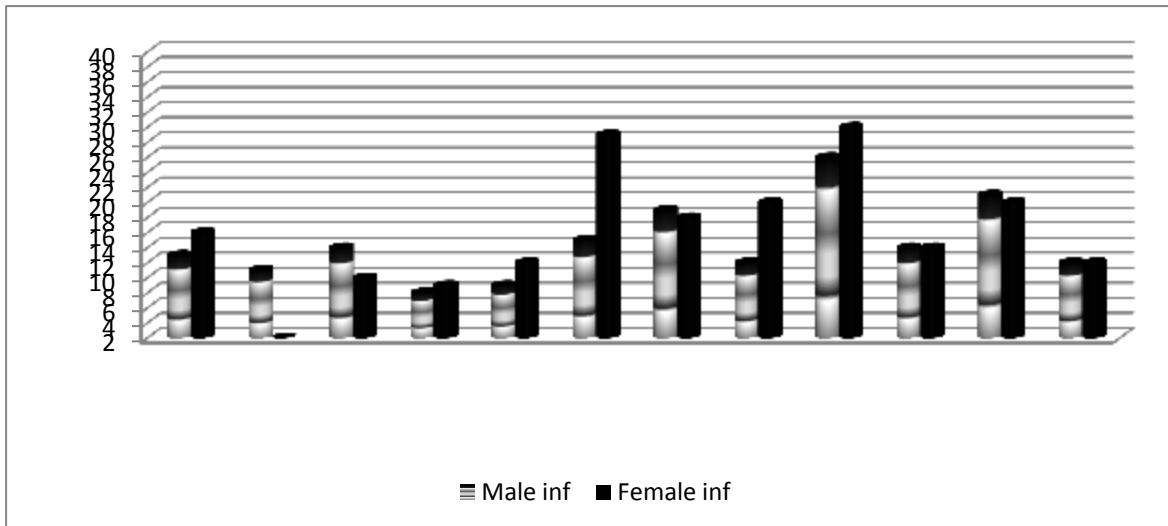


Figure 3.4 Informants' Perception of Algiers Dialect Female Guise by Gender

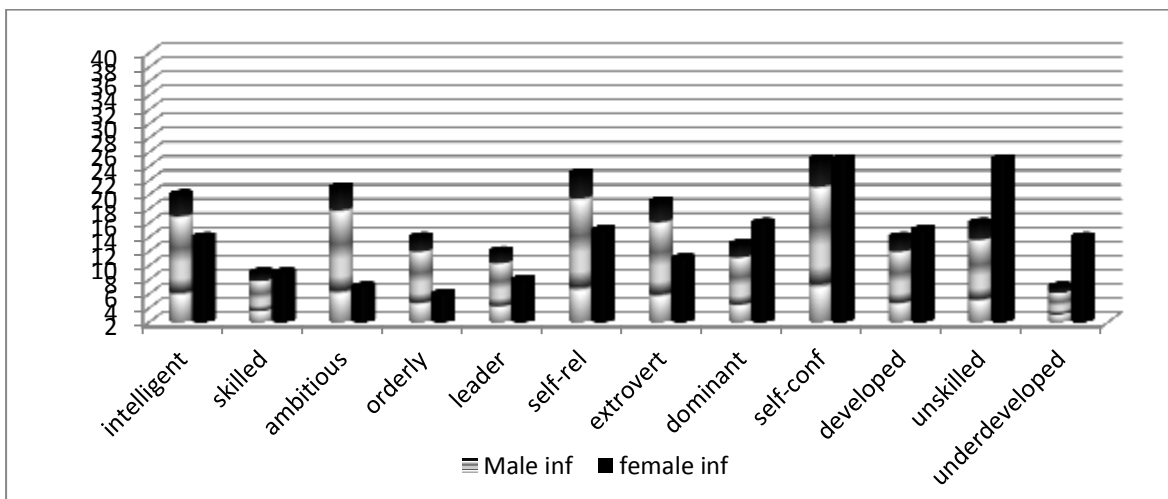


Figure 3.5 Informants' Perception of Algiers Dialect Male Guise by Gender

### 3.2.2.3 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers Using Standard Arabic

Gender differences emerge when SA female speaker is listened to, as most of boys saw that SA female as well as male speakers were 'intelligent', 'ambitious', 'orderly', 'self-reliable', 'self-confident' and 'developed'. Half of this group associated 'skilled worker' as well as 'leader' traits to the present guises. Moreover, they viewed that the male speaker was 'extrovert', while girls' ratings were

low as half of them chose ‘orderly’ as well as ‘unskilled worker’ criteria and nearly half of them selected ‘developed’ trait. It should be noted here that our male and female students’ perception of this guise may indicate that boys display more affective and integrative attitudes towards SA and its speaker. (cf. 3.6 and 3.7)

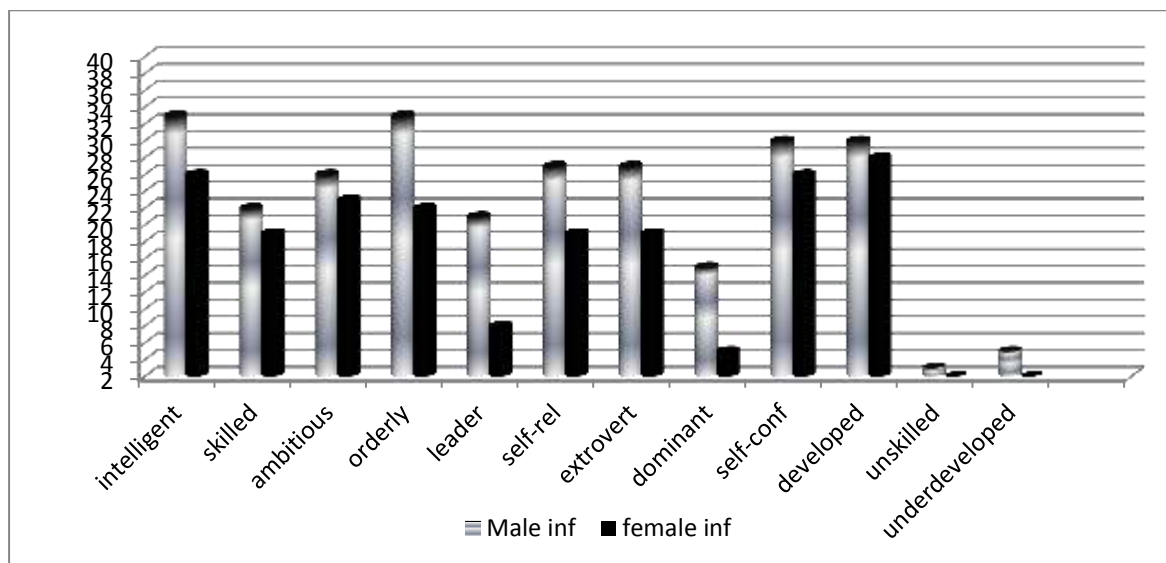


Figure 3.6 Informants' Perception of Standard Arabic Male Guise by Gender

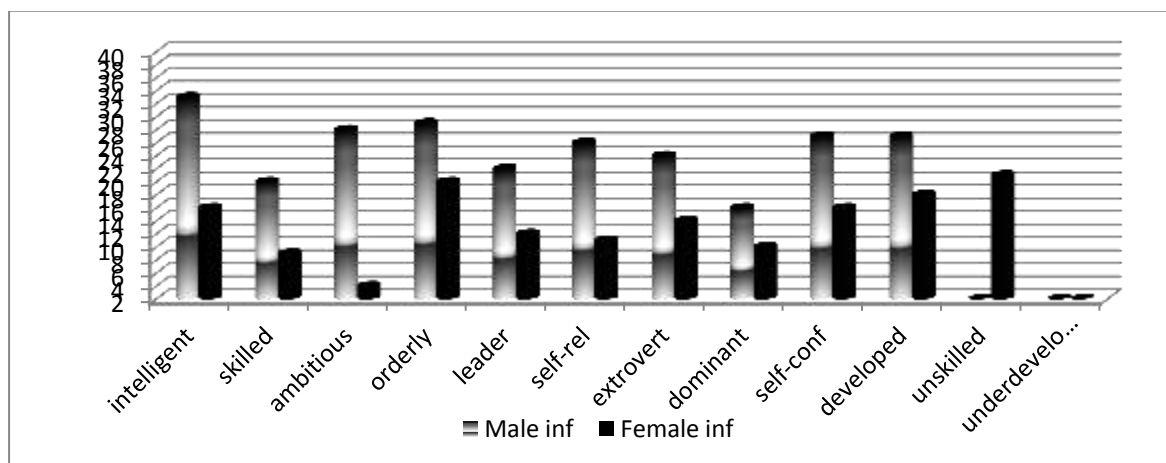


Figure 3.7 Informants' Perception of SA Female Guise by Gender

### 3.2.2.4 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers Using French

Being learners of ESP can lead students to a variety in rating scores as the results revealed that girls and boys agreed on the selection of intelligence, self-confidence and ‘developed’ traits for the French male and female guises. However, extroversion, orderliness and ‘skilled’ as well as ‘ambitious’ criteria were related to

the female speaker. Reliability was associated with both guises by boys mainly. The key to the interpretation of the results lies in two areas of evaluation : perceived identity of the speakers and the role assigned to the language. In fact, one can deduce that our students believe that the French language is necessary for the educational purpose and assigned a prestigious frame of reference as hypothesised, while it is far from being judged as a factor of integrativeness. These evaluations appeared to be based on language exposure and personal culture. Henceforth, our students' selected traits seemed to be dependent on their attitudes towards French.(cf. figures 3.8and3.9)

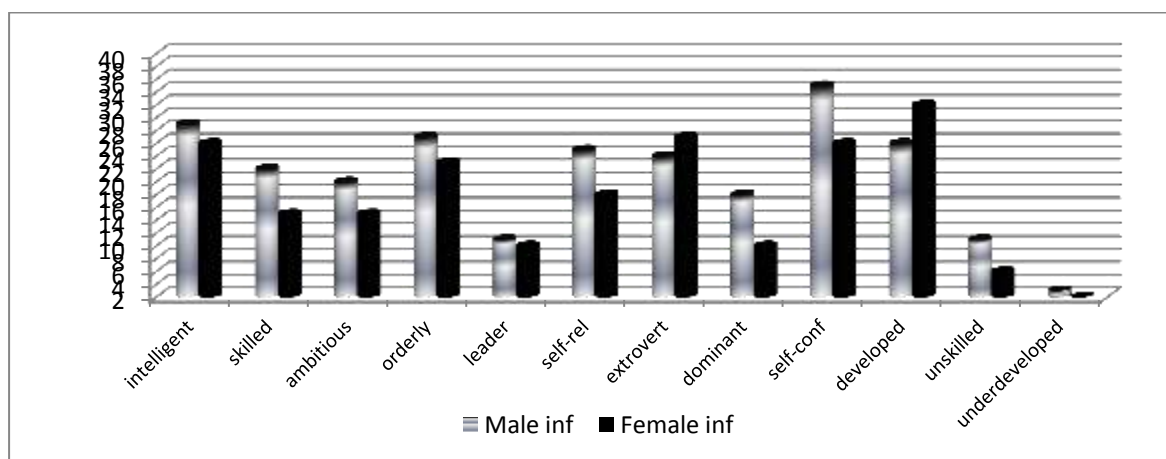


Figure 3.8 Informants' Perception of French Female Guise by Gender

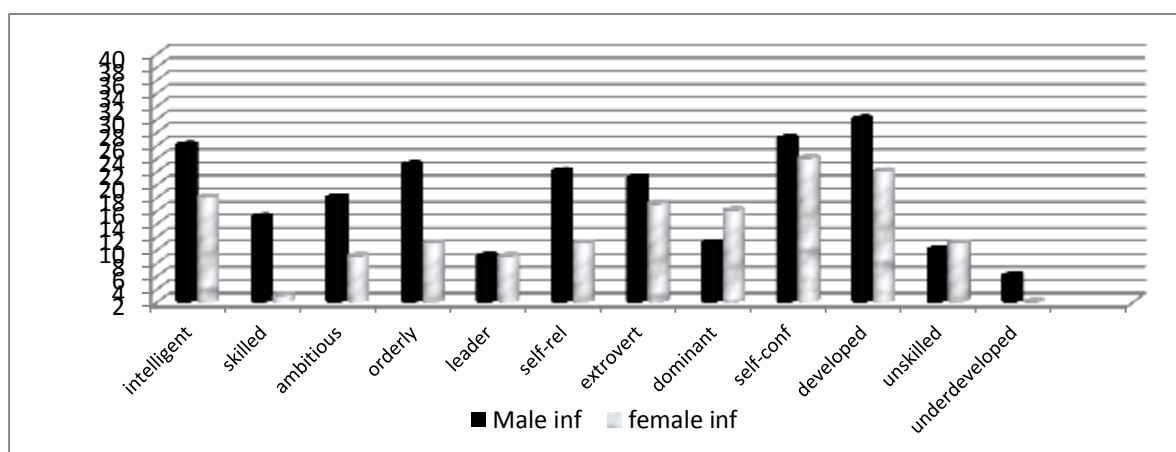


Figure 3.9 Informants' Perception of French Male Guise by Gender

### 3.2.2.5 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers using English

The statistical analysis of the students' responses to both speakers of English draws attention to the complex and highly varied ratings prevalent in this group. In fact, male and female speakers were perceived differently as both groups associated the following traits with the female speaker: 'intelligence', 'skilled worker',

ambitiousness, orderliness, extroversion, self-confidence and ‘developed’. On the one hand, the male guise was seen as ‘self-confident’ and ‘developed’ by both groups, on the other hand only boys regarded the male speaker as ‘intelligent’, ‘orderly’, ‘self-reliable’ and ‘extrovert’. Nearly, half of the girls saw that this speaker was a skilled worker, ambitious and extrovert. The hypothesis that a speaker of English would be judged more positively on all dimensions is borne out. Apparently, favourable reactions to the English guise approves the suggested hypothesis stating that there is a direct correlation between this medium and modernity. Moreover, male informants showed that they were more involved with the actual use of the English language. This assessment opposes the hypothesis claiming that mainly girls believe that speaking this language is a factor of social prestige. Hence, this guise was viewed on the basis of the English culture and environment wherefrom the evaluational reactions of girls and boys had different ratings. (cf. 3.10 and 3.11)

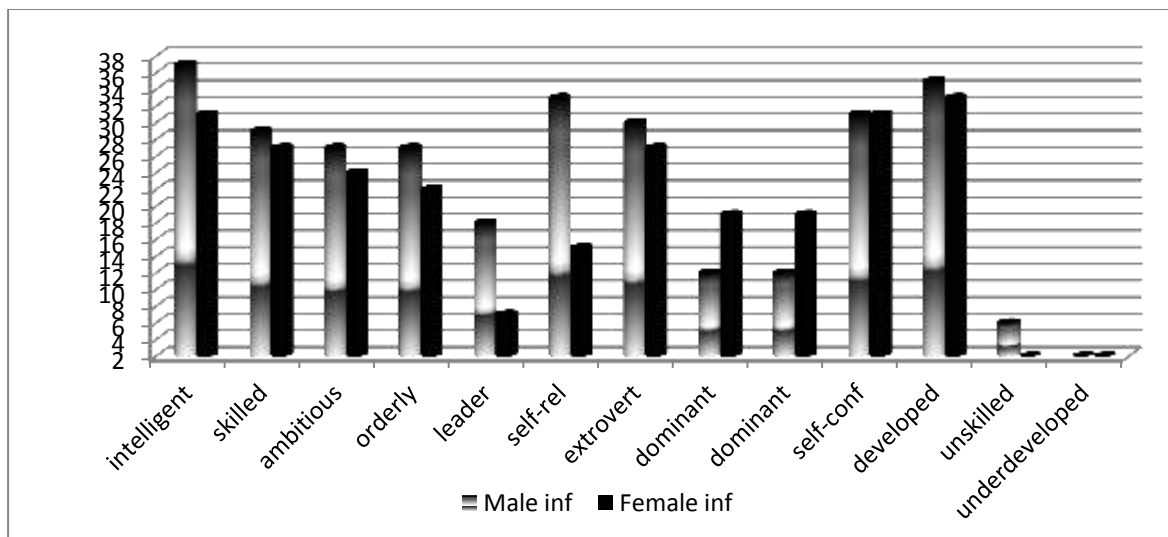


Figure 3.10 Informants' Perception of English Female Guise by Gender

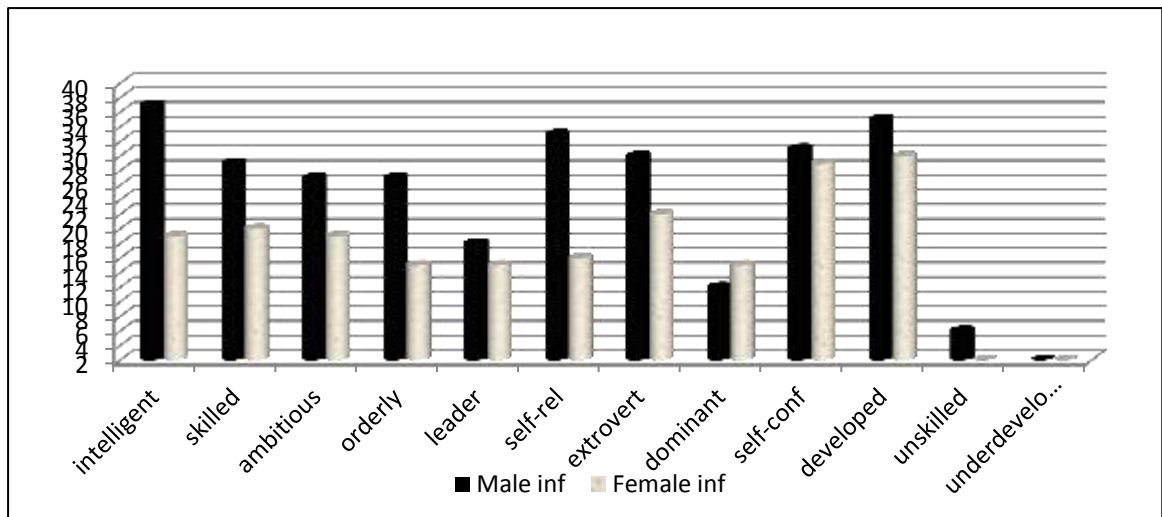


Figure 3.11 Informants' Perception of English Male Guise by Gender

### 3.2.3 Perceptions of Students of Economics and Management

#### 3.2.3.1 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers using Tamazight

In spite of some gender differences, students of economics and management seemed to show favourableness towards Tamazight female and male speakers. In fact, most of boys and girls viewed the male guise intelligent, ambitious and self-confident. Remarkably, boys' results revealed ambivalence in viewpoint as 'unskilled worker' trait was assigned to both male and female speakers by half of them, while the majority judged the male speaker as orderly and extrovert. Moreover, the female speaker was associated to extroversion by both groups. The present results seemed to show that girls and boys shift from negative to positive stereotypical representations of both guises, whereas they agreed on others. This may indicate that our students felt that Tamazight is a constituent of the Algerian cultural identity and their claims can more or less be legal, nevertheless, it is still found within social attractiveness rather than high standard. (cf. figure 3.12 and 3.13).



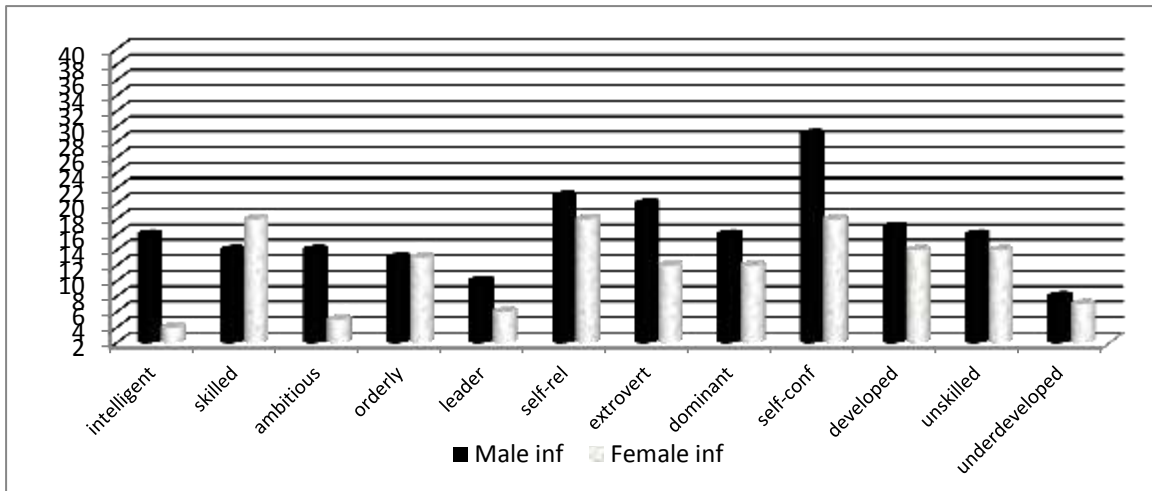


Figure 3.12 Informants' Perception of Tamazight Female Guise by Gender

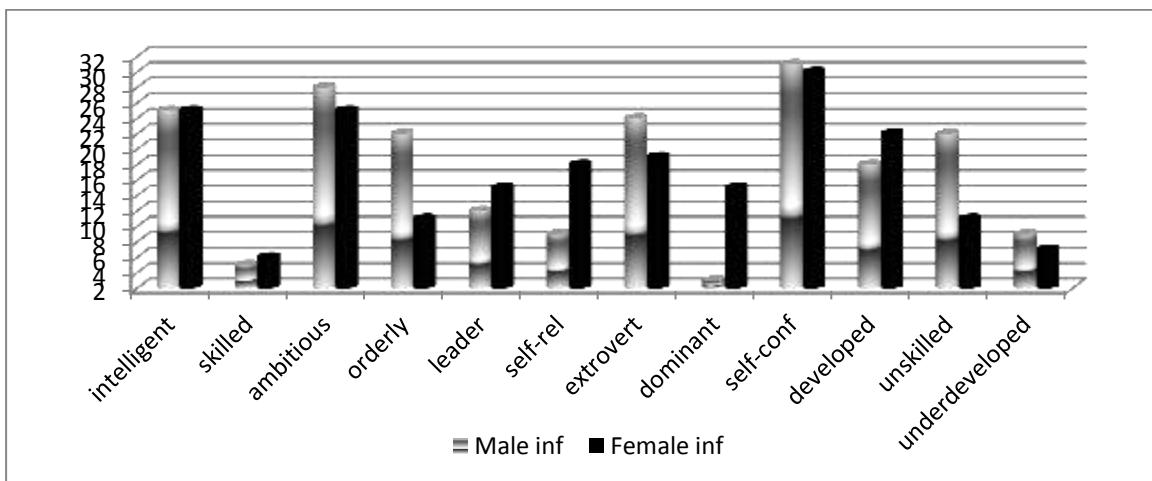


Figure 3.13 Informants' Perception of Tamazight Male Guise by Gender

### 3.2.3.2 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers using Algiers Dialect

The results regarding AD revealed that both genders agreed on the selection of self-confidence for this guise. However, more than half of girls found that the male and female AD speakers were : intelligent, ambitious, self-reliable. Furthermore, the female speaker was associated with extroversion trait by girls and with unskilled worker criterion by boys. The variety of data mentioned at this level may show that our students confirm that self-confidence is the main construct of cultural identity. Moreover, the choice of favourable traits asserts the hypothesised statement claiming that the dialect is the main medium of social communication and group identification, whereas it is stigmatised. (cf. 3.14 and 3.15)

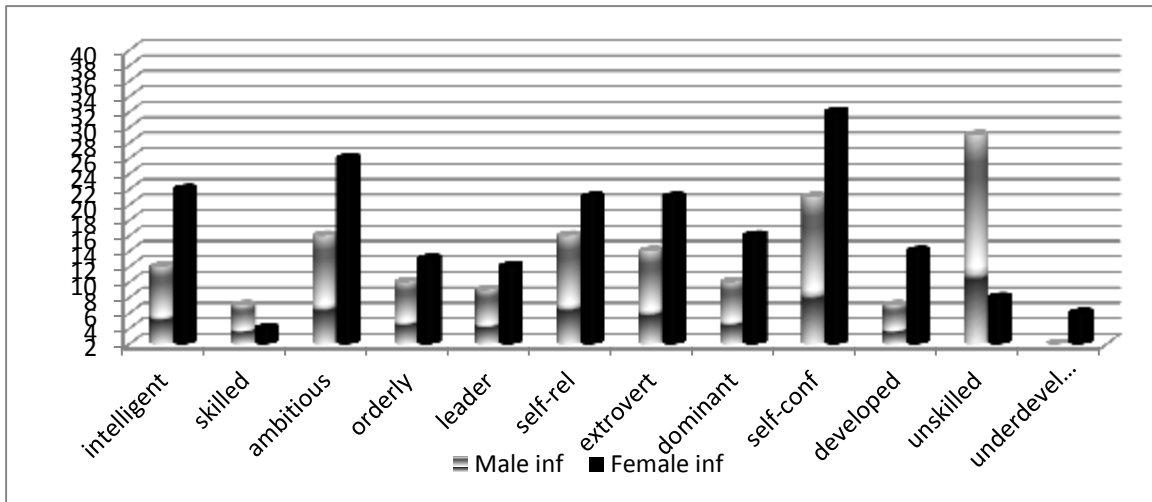


Figure 3.14 Informants' Perception of A D Female Guise by Gender

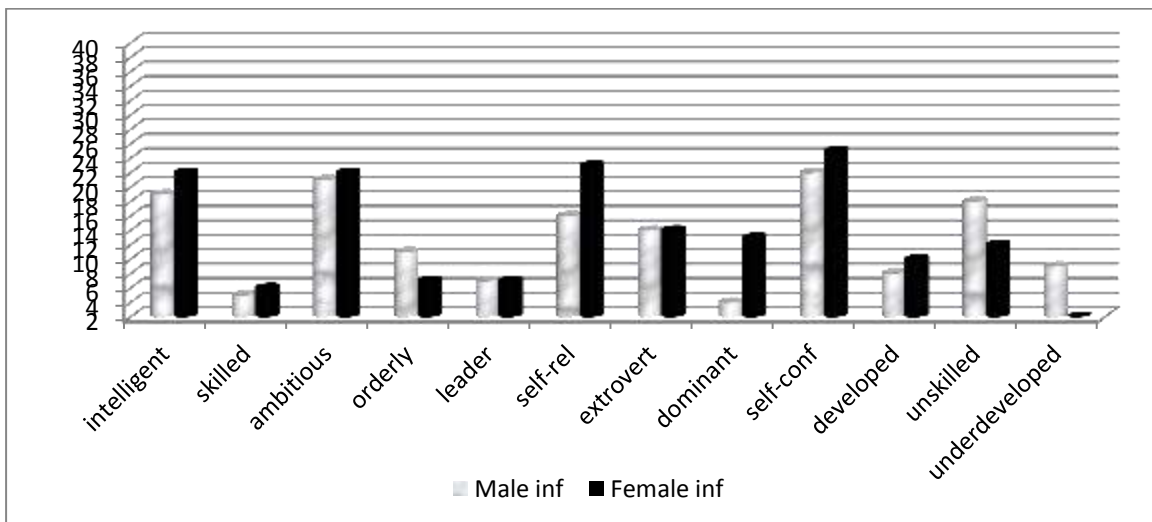


Figure 3.15 Informants' Perception of A D Male Guise by Gender

### 3.2.3.3 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers using Standard Arabic

Apparently, our male and female students agreed on given judgements related to the male and female informants. In fact, intelligence, ambitiousness, orderliness, extroversion, self-confidence and development were selected. Hence, only boys chose 'skilled worker' trait for both speakers. As it was hypothesised, high standard classification seemed to be reflected in the present evaluations where learners reveal that this medium is closely related to knowledge and intellectual activity. One can notice that boys were more involved with the practical side of this language which

may mean that the usefulness of a medium may extend to life experience.(cf figures 3.16 and 3.17).

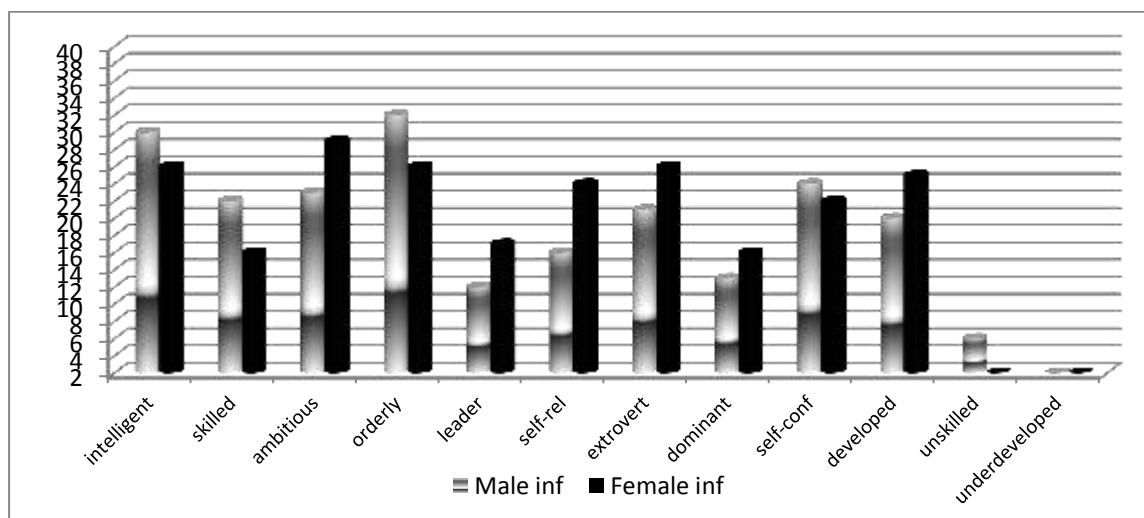


Figure 3.16 Informants' Perception of S A Female Guise by Gender

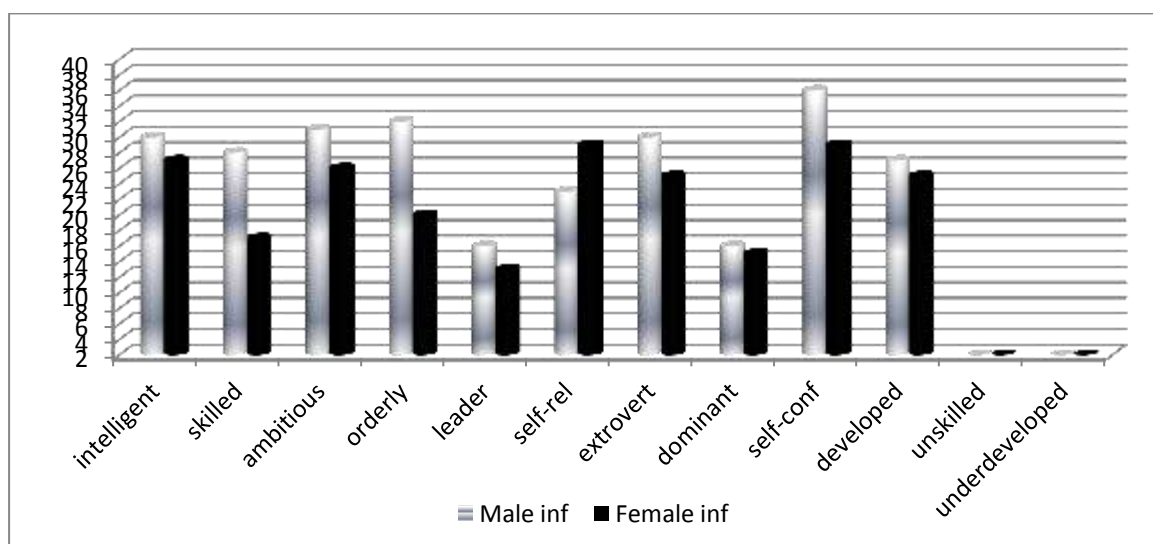


Figure 3.17 Informants' Perception of S A Male Guise by Gender

### 3.2.3.4 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers using French

As the hypothesis states both groups assigned the two guises speaking French different traits which are : intelligence, ambitious, extroversion, self-confidence and development. On the one hand, only girls evaluated the female speaker as 'self-reliable', on the other hand, boys chose orderliness for the male speaker. Even though the two speakers were associated to favourability, one can notice that gender differences are related to psychological factor as well as life experience. It should be

noted that boys and girls do not share the same perceptions at all dimensions. This may probably due to social roles that the gender is assigned. (cf. figures 3.18 and 3.19)

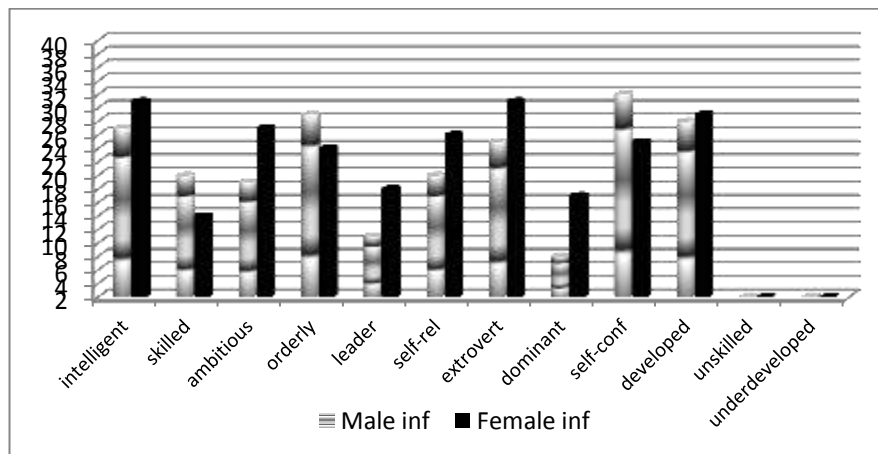


Figure 3.18 Informants' Perception of French Female Guise by Gender

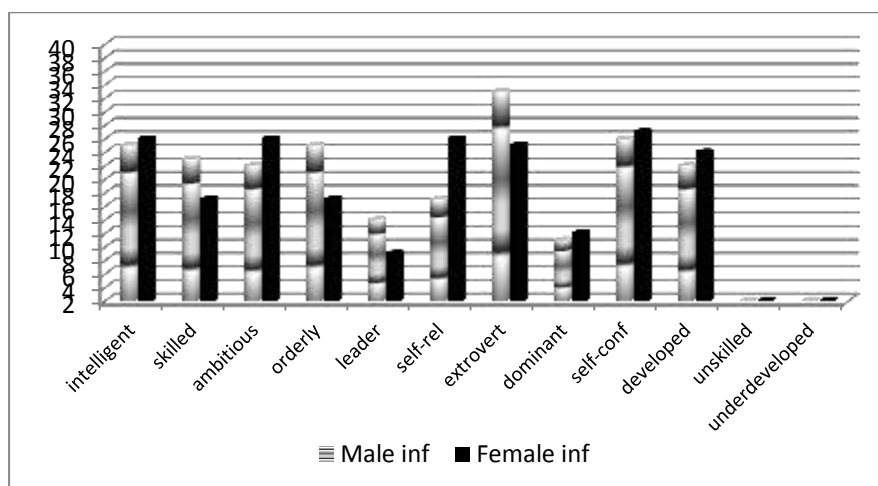


Figure 3.19 Informants' Perception of French Male Guise by Gender

### 3.2.3.5 Stereotypes of Female and Male Speakers using English

Guises speaking English were judged favourably as intelligence, ambitiousness, orderliness, self-reliability, extroversion, self-confidence and development were selected. This evaluation confirms the suggested hypothesis saying that our learners internalise positive representations of foreign language speakers. While girls assigned 'skilled worker' to the male speaker, this trait was related to the female guise by boys. Noticeably, the present result might show that every gender

viewed the opposite one having better life experience which may reveal prestigious interpretation of this situation. (cf. figures 3.20 and 3.21).

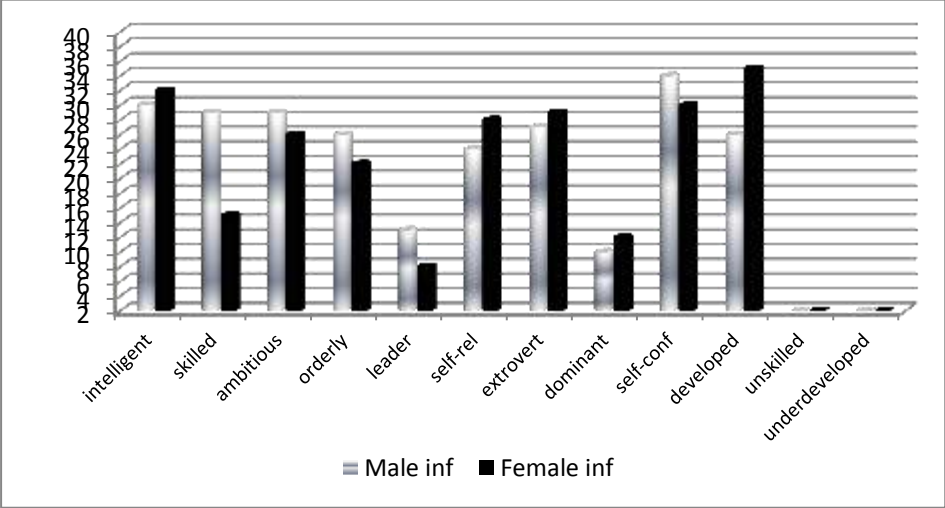


Figure 3.20 Informants’ Perception of English Male Guise by Gender

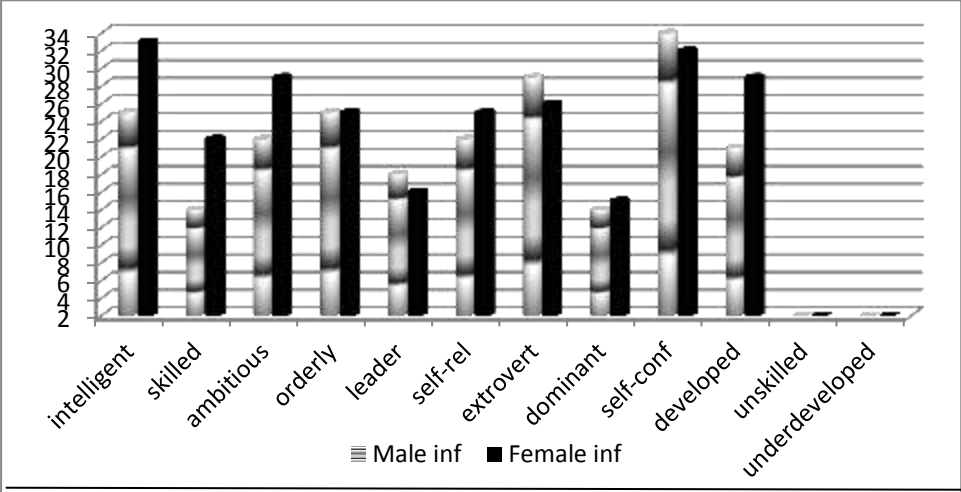


Figure 3.21 Informants’ Perception of English Male Guise by Gender

### 3.2.4 Conclusion

On the basis of the above data, it is clear that stereotypes prevail among students of both branches even if differences were noticed. ESP learners seem to be the right place to question stereotypes which are not harmful as long as students realise that they are just stereotypes. Noticeably, male and female speakers were judged differently from one variety to another regarding the choice of traits, either by boys or girls. This highlights the importance of gender roles as stated in the literature. Being

university learners seem to lead to a given openness towards another culture as well as nationalistic view as attitudes seem to be reflected in the revealed stereotypical images. Students of both branches appeared to agree on the social attractiveness of Tamazight and A D. Moreover, socio-political movements tend to urge the learners to select more positive stereotypical representations, mainly among students of economics and management. This can be due to the fact that their studies are closer to the social vacuum in comparison with the technical courses of the sciences and techniques students.

Even though, S A gained favourable traits by both groups, one should notice here that boys and girls did not share the same opinion as one gender group preferred some traits instead of others. Thus, language experience as well as the kind of studies alone are not enough to shape the internalised stereotypes of the students, gender criterion should be taken into consideration as well. Foreign languages scores showed reflected symbols that the students of both branches revealed. In fact, favourability of English and French were noticed in the result. Hence, the variety in rating scores as far as the gender of the speaker is concerned can reveal that our students establish a link between what they expect from a male or female and the roles of a language as a world language or a medium of instruction.

In this paper, language attitude results seem to be closely related to those of stereotypes; wherefrom sociolinguistic variables gained social meaning from the patterns in which they were used. The ‘subjective reaction test’ was one technique for gathering such data. For example, both groups -students of sciences and techniques as well as those of economics and management, associated clear high-ranking with learned foreign languages either in language attitude responses or stereotype results. Here, prestige has been an enduring part of informants’ answers. Thus, social psychology is very important for understanding social behaviour and thought, in sociolinguistic phenomena that has a remarkable relation with stereotypes in accordance with language attitudes that emerge in response to environmental as well as educational factors. Thus, when it comes to the question of “why,” we think the answer can most often be found in the notion of context-dependent functionality. One

should say that language attitudes can at a given extent orient stereotyping that emerge in various contexts to serve particular functions necessitated by those contexts.

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## 4. Language Selection: Analysis and Discussion of the Results

### Introduction

#### 4.1 Language Selection Tests

The subjects are asked to give information about language preference in the media, reading books and newspapers as well as writing. The aim is to investigate the influence that language proficiency has on language preference.

a) Language preference in the media such as:

- TV watching.
- Listening to radio programmes.

b) Reading books, magazines and newspapers.

c) Language preference in writing:

- 1- Writing personal diaries.
- 2- Writing family letter.
- 3- Writing shopping list.
- 4- Writing official letters.

d) Language selection in speech situations:

Here the researcher is a participant in the speech situation. There are specific topics (these are mentioned below) discussed with one informant at a time within the group of the same gender in order to urge the speaker to express himself/herself freely. The discussions took place in a classroom and were recorded with the agreement of all informants.

The choice of topics was based on the following criteria:

- Formality and unfamiliarity.



- Familiarity and informality.

As far as language use is concerned Fishman (1975:15) claims that:

**Proper usage indicates that only of the theoretically co-available languages or varieties will be chosen by particular kinds of interlocutors on particular kinds of occasions to discuss particular kinds of topics.**

Therefore, given languages can coincide with given topics, this is known as language selection. Furthermore, one can assume the following points:

- Unfamiliarity and formality can refer to: Themes usually tackled in standard languages. (In schools or universities).
- Familiarity and informality can refer to: Themes dealt with in either learned or non-standard vernacular languages acquired in non-institutionalised environments<sup>1</sup>.

The proposed topics are as follows:

- 1- Economics/Technology ——— refers to an institutionalised formal frame and it is learned in French in the Preparatory Schools that became Superior Ones. Each topic was discussed with the relevant group.
- 2- Medicine ——— refers to a formal institutionalised topic.
- 3- Traditional feasts —( ‘Nayer’: 11<sup>th</sup> of January which refers to The Amazigh new year, the prophet’s anniversary’ Mawlid Nabawi Echarif’) Can be discussed in the mother tongue or other Standard variety.
- 4- Social relations (with relatives) it is not a learned theme and can be discussed in any variety.

The aim of these discussions is to find out the impact of topics in the choice of a linguistic variety in speech situations as well as whether language selection is

influenced by a formal setting of the classroom. Informal discussions took place about learned and non-learned subjects within a friendly atmosphere that has been created by getting familiar with the informants from the beginning. For example, Algerian Arabic<sup>3</sup> was used right from the beginning.

The results based on the above criteria are probabilistic to a given extent, as other circumstances such as the mood, the unfamiliarity with the author and the place where the research takes place can interfere.

### Examples:

- Questions n°1 and 2 are asked in Algerian Arabic in order not to influence the informants' speech, as the topics (medicine, learned modules) are studied in standard languages.
- 1- Are you interested in getting information in medicine?
  - 2- Do you find any relations between what you learn and the technological /economic phenomena you face in your daily life ?
- Questions n°3 and 4 are asked in French in order not to orient the informant language selection as traditional festivals and social relations can be dealt with in dialect since they are not learned topics.
- 3- What do you think of social relations nowadays ?
  - 4- Do you still celebrate the traditional feasts ?

## 4.2 Students of Technology and Sciences

### Introduction

The data on language selection are examined in relation to language proficiency. Learners can be characterized by how their language practices function. In fact, learners perform activities in given languages and not others. Language

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<sup>1</sup>Standard Arabic was used to write questionnaires, however Algerian Arabic was used to ask questions in speech situations.

proficiency as well as preference for such or such linguistic code could sometimes play an important role in the choice of a given linguistic variety. The data were collected through the use of parents and language selection in TV watching<sup>1</sup>radio listening, reading and writing. The data on language selection in speech situations were recorded and carried out in the form of dialogues dealt with in a familiar way and in groups. The author intervened through the use of feedback from time to time to encourage the informants to express themselves as much as possible. Male/female data are included in every heading and it should be noted that personality criteria play a role in speech. In fact, the informants who have an outgoing personality are more

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<sup>1</sup>Since the early nineties the aerial dish offers more opportunities to see foreign TV channels talkative than those who are shy. In addition, AA programmes were not proposed as this dialect is used in films and songs mainly; and the informants mentioned these kinds of programmes under the heading of Arabic.

#### 4.2.1 Language Use with Parents

French is never used in everyday communication by some informants and rarely spoken in speech situations by others. Noticeably, this language is frequently used by some students whose one of their parents uses it in daily life. Obviously, in some cases when parents are French-educated, this variety is more used with one parent than another.

#### 4.2.2 Language Selection in TV Watching

##### 1) Programmes in Arabic

The informants claim that they always prefer watching programmes broadcast in Arabic which include news, cultural, religious, political, scientific programmes as well as games, films, song-clips and sports. One notices that both genders of this group students are interested in these products.

##### 2) Programmes in French

The informants sometimes watch French productions and the following items are chosen: news, cultural (serials, films, song-clips), political and scientific programmes. As it was expected, all students are interested in these productions.

### 3) Programmes in English

Half of the male and female informants are familiar with the programmes broadcast in English. In fact, they watch song-clips, shows as well as scientific documentaries broadcast in this language. Moreover, they are interested by American films with Arabic subtitles.

## 4.2.3 Language Selection in Radio Listening

### A) Standard Arabic

The informants selected news, cultural scientific as well as religious programmes. The average number of learners who are interested in this activity was twenty one.

### B) French

Noticeably, the minority listens to French programmes. Students of foreign languages however seem to be more interested in this activity as the majority sometimes perform it. The programmes are: news, cultural, political, scientific ones.

### C) English

The minority of informants recognises that they listen to songs in English.

## 4.2.5 Language Selection in Reading

### A) Standard Arabic

As it was expected, a small number of university students read works in standard Arabic, such as books about religion and cultural topics as well as newspapers.

#### B) French

Apart from the literature and exercises related to the courses, half of the students sometimes read novels, magazines, newspapers articles as well as facebook twitter messages written in French.

#### C) English

Some students of both genders read works written in English, particularly those related to their modules.

### 4.2.5 Language Selection in Writing

#### A) Standard Arabic

A few of the informants write messages on facebook or twitter in SA.

#### B) French and English

French is sometimes used among those students. It is mainly utilized in facebook and twitter writings. English is rarely used for this purpose.

### 4.2.6 Language Selection in Speech Situation

#### a) Use of Algerian Arabic vs. Mixture of AA/SA

The male are eager to express themselves, even though the minority is shy and some speak less than others; but when they are involved in the topics they talk more freely. Male informants do not use the same codes as girls. The results are as follows:

Topics	Male informants			
	Language Varieties			
	AA	AA mixed with SA	AA mixed with French	French
Technology	11	6	15	8
Medicine	13	9	11	7
Traditional festivals	20	6	2	2
Social Relations	18	11	9	2

Table 4.1 The Language Selection of Students of Sciences and Technology

Topics	Female informants			
	Language Varieties			
	AA	AA mixed with SA	AA mixed with French	French
Technology	0	0	22	18
Medicine	9	5	11	15
Traditional	20	2	8	10

festivals				
Social Relations	18	14	2	6

Table 4.2 The Language Selection of Students of Sciences and Technology

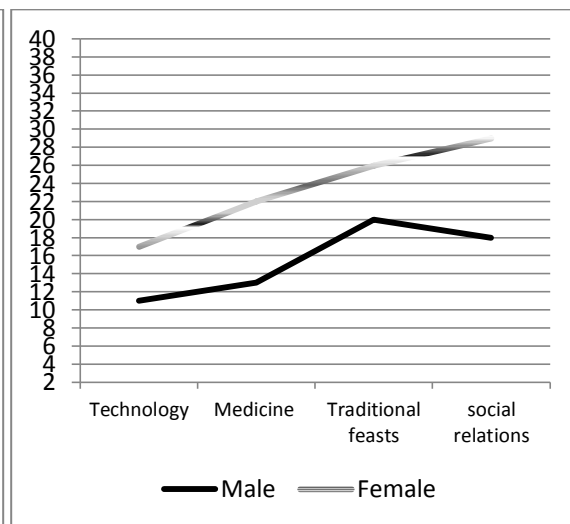
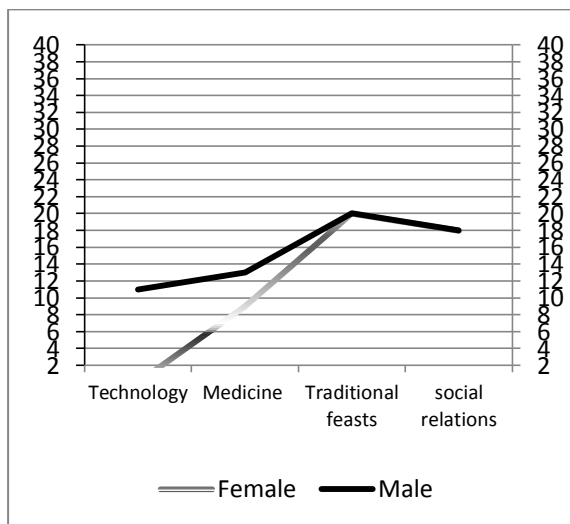


Figure 4.1.a Use of AA in Situations by Gender

Figure 4.1. b. Use of SA/AA in Situations by Gender

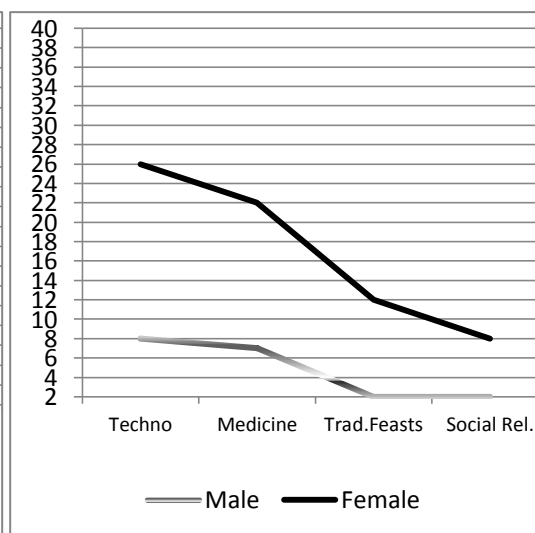
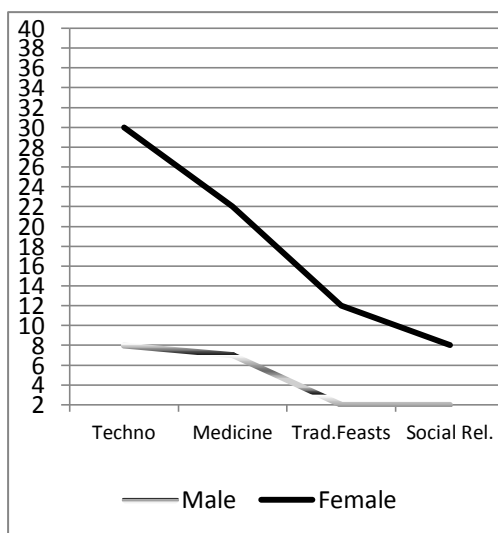


Figure 4.2.a Use of AA/Fr Situations  
by Gender

Figure 4.2. b. Use of French in  
Situations by Gender

There is a shift between the use of AA vs. AA/SA in relation to informality and formality respectively, which confirms the hypothesis based on the idea that our informants are influenced by AA when tackling non-learned topics. Remarkably, fewer girls expressed themselves in AA in comparison with boys. The non-learned topic (traditional feasts) was dealt with in AA by half of both genders, probably because they are more involved in this topic and related familiarity to this subject (cf. figure3.28.a).

It should be noted that the author is introduced as a ‘doctorate’ student and the setting is the classroom, so this could influence the informants to a given extent, thus SA is used for instance. Noticeably, the topics that are learned in institutions (medicine and technology) are dealt with in SA mixed with AA but not in AA only. Girls, mainly, seemed to prefer the performance of diglossic speech situations for topics connected with formality. As they, unconsciously, shift to more ‘serious’ topics their speech vary accordingly and the ratings are higher.

#### b) Use of French mixed with AA vs. French

Language proficiency appeared to have an impact on language selection among girls as nearly half of them preferred to express themselves in French when dealing with ‘technology’ which is referred as a formal topic. Unlike boys, AA mixed with French was selected by more than half of the girls for the same topic wherefrom these informants confirmed their prestigious consideration for French as stated in the hypothesis. (cf. figure 3.28.b). The ratings of the boys were lower as just the minority chose to talk about technology in French, furthermore, SA mixed with AA was selected for this topic by more males. These learners seem to be conscious about the seriousness of the subject and associate it with formality and they show less familiarity when talking about ‘traditional feasts’ as well as ‘social relations’ topics. On the other hand, girls speak about these two topics in AA mainly, so they relate them to social



data. One questionable statement can be asked here: Why is French used by more girls than boys even though the latter are proficient to a certain extent in this language? Moreover, most of male respondents do not use French at all when dealing with formal topics except for few words, frequently used in everyday speech. For instance, 'malgré' (even though), 'déjà' (already), 'les cours' (courses), 'normal' (normal), 'sujet' (subject), 'les examens' (exams). The /ʁ/ is realised /r/ by some boys, probably because they would like to show more familiarity and feel at ease, accordingly. The use of these items does not mean that they have not their equivalents in Arabic, but because the informants would prefer to use these terms in the foreign language to distinguish their in-group register.

### 4.3 Students of Economics and Management

#### 4.3.1 Language Use with Parents and friends

French is never used in everyday communication by most of the informants of this group and rarely spoken in speech situations by others. However, some expressions are used by the informants if one of the parents uses it.

#### 4.3.2 Language Selection in TV Watching

##### 4) Programmes in Arabic

The informants claim that they always prefer watching programmes broadcast in Arabic which include news, cultural, religious, political, scientific programmes as well as games, films, song-clips and sports. Both genders of this group of students are interested in these products.

##### 5) Programmes in French

Half of both genders sometimes watch French productions and the following items are chosen: news, cultural (serials, films, song-clips), political and scientific programmes.

#### 6) Programmes in English

Only some informants like programmes in English. In fact, they watch song-clips, shows as well as scientific documentaries broadcast in this language. Moreover, they are interested by American films with Arabic subtitles.

#### 4.3.3 Language Selection in Radio Listening

##### D) Standard Arabic

Some informants selected news, cultural scientific as well as religious programmes. The average number of learners who are interested in this activity was twenty one.

##### E) French

Noticeably, the minority listens to French programmes. The programmes are: news, cultural, political, scientific ones.

##### F) English

Very few informants recognise that they listen to songs in English.

#### 4.3.4 Language Selection in Reading

##### D) Standard Arabic

As it was expected, a small number of university students read works in standard Arabic, such as books about religion and cultural topics as well as newspapers.

##### E) French

Few students sometimes read novels, magazines, newspapers articles as well as facebook twitter messages written in French.

#### F) English

Some students of both genders read works written in English, particularly those related to their modules.

#### 4.3.5 Language Selection in Writing

##### C) Standard Arabic

Most of the informants write messages on facebook or twitter in SA or in AA

##### D) French and English

French is sometimes used among those students. It is mainly utilized in facebook and twitter writings. English is rarely used for this purpose.

#### 4.3.6 Language Selection in Speech Situation

##### a) Use of French mixed with AA vs. SA mixed with AA

All speakers selectively draw on the language varieties in their linguistic repertoire, as dictated by their intentions and by the needs of the speech participants and the conversational setting. Unlike girls, most of the boys are shy and speak in low voices during about the first ten minutes. Then, as they become more talkative their voices get higher. Unlike the former group, this group does not French is not used alone but with AA to discuss learned topics. It should be noted that both female and male groups use French adapted verbs in the four topics, which are not commonly used e.g.: /t ? a s y m i/ 'assumes', /j a t r i t u/ 'they tackle'; noticeably, the vowel onset [ʔ] is kept in these verbs that start with a vowel, as if the respondents preferred showing some phonetic criteria of the leaned language even if borrowing occurs. In fact, these findings reveal the relation between language proficiency and code selection, whereby intersentential code switching is noticed. Here, the combination does not violate the grammar of either language and these new unassimilated loan words occur spontaneously because of these learners' proficiency. Both genders use [r] like in 'en général' instead of [ʁ], so

it is pronounced: /ʒeneral/ ;they probably prefer this utterance to get closer to the Arab phonemic system.. Convincingly enough, more girls are talkative in French mixed with Algerian Arabic for the learned topics. This may reflect the fact that this code mixing is connected with upward mobility and prestige consciousness. Noticeably, more boys are talkative when using AA/SA and show more familiarity ; moreover, both genders prefer dealing with the formal topics- Economics and Medicine- in diglossic situations (cf. figure 3.30.b.). Even though, the ratings are near the average, some boys seemed to maintain their cultural identity but others are still attracted by switching to the use of SA words and expressions. Their diglossic behaviour seems to be associated with social consciousness and sensitivity. The selected varieties of the as follows:

Topics	Language Varieties					
	Male Students			Female Students		
	AA	SA mixed with AA	French mixed with AA	AA	SA mixed with AA	French mixed with AA
Economics	0	23	17	0	15	25
Medicine	7	13	20	9	19	12
Traditional Feasts	12	28	0	25	15	0
Social Relations	24	16	0	18	22	0

Table 4.3 The Language Selection of Students

b) Use of AA vs. AA mixed SA

Social relations are dealt with in AA by both genders (cf.figure3.30.a). Remarkably, both genders preferred speaking about the informal topics in AA, as they are more involved they speak more naturally and reflect emotional expressivity.

cf. figure 3.29.a). However, more boys are less familiar as their voices are low, so the majority uses SA/AA when talking about the first informal topic-traditional feast- and preferred to relate their speech to more correctedness and conversational control. (cf.

figure 3.29.b). Let us examine some SA markers like 'يتخلى' (to quit or give up) 'احتفال' 'التزام' (celebrate or keep up), 'دائما' 'always'. Furthermore, some expressions like 'فما بالك' (what about), 'مناسبات سعيدة' (happy occasions), 'أحسن من' (better than), 'مكسرات' 'dried fruits'. Certainly, many more examples can easily be listed here like the use of AA verbs e.g.: /kajan/ in SA sentences, we can consider 'كايين امور تثير' 'الانتباه' (there are matters that attract attention). On the one hand, it can be safe to say that all Arabic dialects have informal equivalents of SA vocabulary in addition to informal pronunciations of words that correspond to SA vocabulary. On the other hand, there are lexemes and expressions related to formal topics and precision that do not have their equivalents in AA. Examples of this are: 'بدعة' (denied innovation), 'مفصلة' (detailed) 'العلاقات الاسرية' (family relations) 'صلة الرحم' (family relations). There are also some structural features separating SA from various AA forms such as the –uu- nominative plural marker that is noticed among these students mainly. For instance, 'شديدي الحرص على' /fadi:duu lhirs ʕala/. Nevertheless, the use of the analytic genitive particle 'of' /ntaaʕ / as well as conjunctions /baa ʃ / (in order to) immediately informs the listener that the speaker is on the low level.

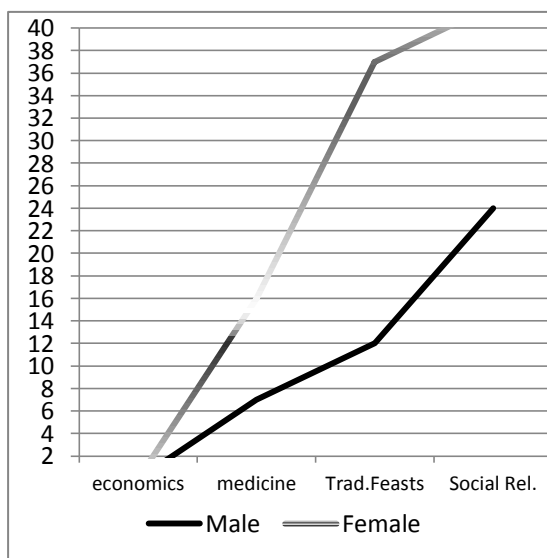


Fig. 4.3.a. Use AA among Students of by Gender

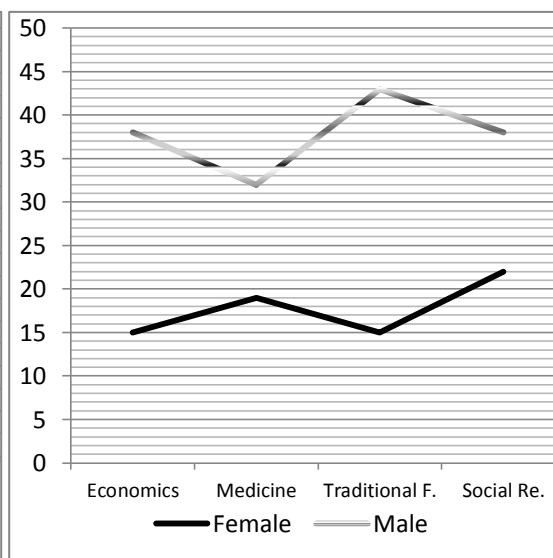


Fig. 4.3.b. Use SA/AA among Students by Gender

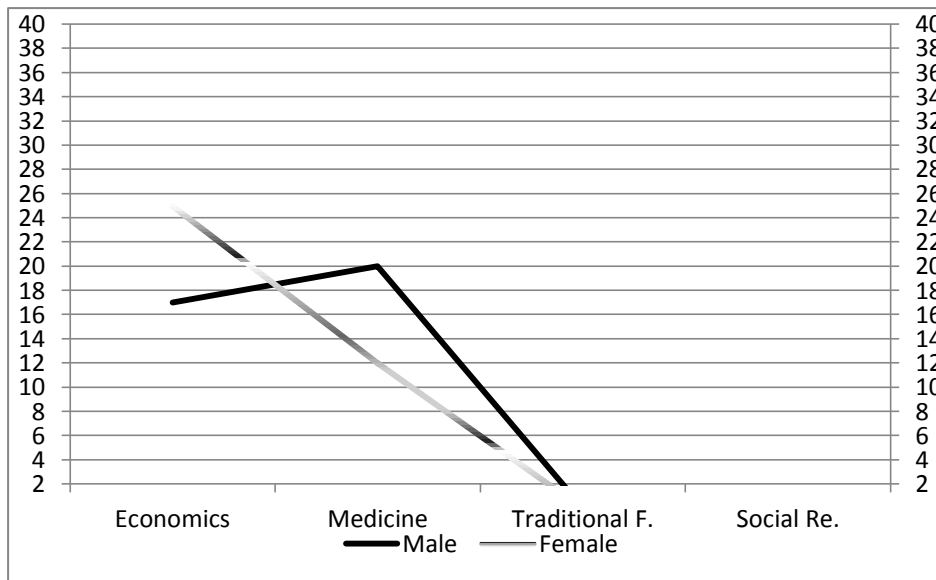


Fig. 4.4.b. Use SA/AA among Students  
of by Gender

#### 4.4 Conclusion

It is clear that language learning had the same impact on males and females' language selection. Indeed, students of Sciences and techniques seem to be interested in French and AA for TV watching, reading, listening and writing. French is used in some activities related to mass media and letter writing. Foreign languages are, noticeably, used more frequently. This language is present in their everyday speech even if the ratings are not high. Notwithstanding the use of SA in various tasks, learners of economics and management also show preference for French in several activities. The results revealed that either religious programmes or written works are regularly dealt with in SA. As it was expected, students of sciences and techniques perform more activities in the English language. Nevertheless, this linguistic tool is far from being the dominant language in reading, TV watching as well as radio listening. Male/female differences, however, are not noticeable, except in a few cases, as it was hypothesized.

Language selection is not arbitrary in speech situations, as language learning influences every group that uses given linguistic varieties according to given

situational factors. More students of sciences and techniques expressed themselves in French showing proficiency and interest in this medium in comparison with the students of economics and management. The latter did not use this language alone, this could be due to language anxiety caused by lack of proficiency or preference for SA that used to be the medium of instruction in school. Moreover, these data may provide some clues about the importance of French to have access to the scientific and technical knowledge. The shift from French to AA is remarkable in both groups when informality and familiarity are dealt with. Thus, code switching (AA/ French) is noticeable and AA alone as well as diglossic practice are reserved for informal and social topics by most of the informants.

## General Conclusion

This work has attempted to shed some light on language attitudes and language selection as well as stereotypical representations in relation to language learning. The main concern was that one can provide relative results only, because not all informants have the same opinions. The results show that in spite of some differences, the medium of instruction -French- as well as the purpose in goal influence informants' opinions on languages and language performances. In effect, conformity or the same learning experience in addition to language proficiency oriented the members' opinions within the same group to a given extent. It is discovered that most of the time, when informants are not well-acquainted with a given language, they relate negative linguistic aspects or inability to express ideas about this language. The knowledge of languages functioning in the same society not only allows communication across national borders but also contributes and especially to mutual understanding and an attitude of tolerance towards other cultures. In fact, ESP learning appeared to have an impact on the students' opinions. French and English are perceived as languages of modernity and technological advancement. The English language, mainly, is recognised as a medium of technology, which means that members of a society judge a linguistic tool according to given events or tasks they are confronted with. In other words, the widespread use of English in different fields, such as the internet, and its function as a world language influences learners' evaluations. Henceforth, learners of sciences and techniques showed more favourability towards French and English in comparison with those of economics and management. It was also found out that informants' attitudes correlate with language selection activities in both branches. The great majority of both branches views that using a language is not the only criterion that enables a speaker to belong to a foreign community. Our informants' willingness to communicate in foreign languages or perform activities related to these languages varies between low and mid percentages. Foreign language use outside the class is not associated to negative attitudinal criteria. It would be interesting to investigate these same students over a period of time to discover whether their opinions and motivations change



In fact, it was discovered that informants take into consideration the status or roles such as standard vs. non-standard or language vs. dialect notions that have been assigned to the languages during past times. Indeed, AA was stigmatised and associated with informal and familiar settings. Tamazight movements and its new official status seemed to influence the informants in a way or another as it was associated to favourable attitudes, even though the scores reached the half. SA is related to religion, literature as well as richness and group solidarity as all learners have already been acquainted with Arabic literature.

Male vs. female indices are noticeable in a few cases only, as this could be due to the fact that both groups are exposed to the same language learning process. In many cases girls shared the same opinions as those of boys ; furthermore, the prestige criterion was selected by both male and female groups. These facts could lead us to more discussion about the evaluation of these language varieties by Tamazight speakers, for instance.

Nonstandard language speakers were associated with low social status groups, however, they were assigned friendship and social security. Although perhaps less prone to stereotyping members of their own group, low status individuals are fully aware of their relative social position. Speakers of foreign languages as well as the standard one -SA- alike stereotype standard speakers as superior in qualities such as intelligence, ambition, high status, success, and education. Language is far more than just a means of communication, it symbolises our social experience in an intimate way and locates us within significant in-group language experience from which we draw our identity.

When dealing with language preferences, it is noticed that language proficiency as well as the purpose in goal of the branch influence to a certain extent the students' choice. In fact, the activities performed in French seem to be favoured by foreign language students of science and techniques, mainly. The data obtained concerning male and female preferences for such or such language suggest that differences between them are related to the frequency of language use which could be judged as differences. One could claim that language attitudes as well as language proficiency go

in parallel with language selection, to a certain extent in writing, reading, TV watching and radio listening. This is due to the fact that boys and girls of the both groups select the same linguistic media for the same activities, most of the time. AA is dealt with in entertainment, such as TV comedy and facebook messages, while SA was dealt with in activities related to religion and reading newspaper articles mainly.

In speech situations mixed informal and formal topics had a clear classification by students of both groups. Remarkably, some students of sciences and techniques maintained the use of French in all topics, even though their ratings were low. French and SA were selected for learned topics by the majority; and non-learned ones are mainly discussed in the mother tongue. Foreign language instruction at the university can be expected to be effective. In particular, regular exposition to an oral foreign language teaching provides more opportunities to develop proficiency through practical application. Moreover, ESP students internalise and use new loan words from the French language in speech situations that reveal, more or less, their immediate need for an advanced learning that can give access to a wider knowledge. Besides, it is noticed that the formal classroom setting influences the minority as standard varieties were utilised. One questionable issue could be raised here is: What attitudinal criteria do students show if their language attitudes as well as stereotypical assessments are investigated throughout the whole engineering training period ? In addition, one could ask a question about whether an informal setting such as the home would stimulate the informants to select the learned language varieties or AA only.

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## Appendix A

### Language Attitude Questionnaires :

#### a) Indirect Statements

1-University books should be written in English /French language.

Strongly agree                       agree                       disagree

2- English language should be a medium of instruction in the Algerian University.

Strongly agree                       agree                       disagree

3-The French language is the mark of an educated person.

Strongly agree                       agree                       disagree

4- If I use English, I will be praised by people.

Strongly agree                       agree                       disagree

5-The spread of the use of English language in Algeria is necessary.

Strongly agree                       agree                       disagree

6-When I have assignments to do in English/French, I try to do them immediately.

Strongly agree                       agree                       disagree

7- I would read English/French Newspapers or magazines outside my English/French course work.

Strongly agree                       agree                       disagree

8-I would like the number of English/French classes at school.

Strongly agree                       agree                       disagree

9-I find studying English/French more interesting than other subjects.

Strongly agree                       agree                       disagree

10-I volunteer to answer or ask questions in class.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

11-I participate in classroom activities.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

12-I ask teachers questions or talked to them outside the class period.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

13-I talk with friends or acquaintances outside school in English/French.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

14-Standard Arabic should be the only national language.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

15-Tamazight should be used in administrations.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

16- Students are able to speak French /English if it is taught in relation to the Algerian environment i.e. Algerian way of life.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

9- When using English/French, I do not feel that I am Algerian anymore.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

10-If I use French/English, it means that I am not patriotic.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

11-I am forced to learn French/English.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

12-I like reading English/French books.

Strongly agree  agree  disagree

13-I love talking in English/French.

Strongly agree           agree           disagree

15-Studying English enables me to think like the English people.

Strongly agree           agree           disagree

16-Studying French enables me to think like the French people.

Strongly agree           agree           disagree

17- Standard Arabic allows me to meet and communicate with more people from the Arab world.

Strongly agree           agree           disagree

18- The Algerian dialect should be taught.

Strongly agree           agree           disagree

b) The Adjective Test :

- |   |     |    |
|---|-----|----|
| 1-The English / French language is easy.                        | Yes | no |
| 2-The English/French language is difficult.                     | Yes | no |
| 3-The English/French language is harsh.                         | Yes | no |
| 4-French /English religious.                                    | Yes | no |
| 5- French/ English patriotic.                                   | Yes | no |
| 6- French/English practical.                                    | Yes | no |
| 7- The English/French language is the language of civilisation. | Yes | no |
| 8- French/English Scientific.                                   | Yes | no |

## Appendix B

### 2)Language Selection Questionnaire :

Language Selection Test:

a) Language Preference in Media:

(For more information see pages 68 to72)

Television Programmes		
Arabic	French	English
Often <input type="checkbox"/>	Often <input type="checkbox"/>	Often <input type="checkbox"/>
Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>	Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>	Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>
Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>	Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>	Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>
Never <input type="checkbox"/>	Never <input type="checkbox"/>	Never <input type="checkbox"/>
What? .....	What? .....	What? .....
News <input type="checkbox"/>	News <input type="checkbox"/>	News <input type="checkbox"/>
Cultural <input type="checkbox"/>	Cultural <input type="checkbox"/>	Cultural <input type="checkbox"/>
Religious <input type="checkbox"/>	Religious <input type="checkbox"/>	Religious <input type="checkbox"/>
Political <input type="checkbox"/>	Political <input type="checkbox"/>	Political <input type="checkbox"/>
Scientific <input type="checkbox"/>	Scientific <input type="checkbox"/>	Scientific <input type="checkbox"/>
Other:.....	Other:.....	Other:.....

Table n<sup>0</sup>1

Radio Programmes		
Arabic	French	English
Often <input type="checkbox"/>	Often <input type="checkbox"/>	Often <input type="checkbox"/>
Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>	Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>	Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>
Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>	Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>	Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>
Never <input type="checkbox"/>	Never <input type="checkbox"/>	Never <input type="checkbox"/>
What? .....	What? .....	What? .....
News <input type="checkbox"/>	News <input type="checkbox"/>	News <input type="checkbox"/>
Cultural <input type="checkbox"/>	Cultural <input type="checkbox"/>	Cultural <input type="checkbox"/>
Religious <input type="checkbox"/>	Religious <input type="checkbox"/>	Religious <input type="checkbox"/>
Political <input type="checkbox"/>	Political <input type="checkbox"/>	Political <input type="checkbox"/>
Scientific <input type="checkbox"/>	Scientific <input type="checkbox"/>	Scientific <input type="checkbox"/>
Other:	Other:	Other:
.....	.....	.....

Table n°2

b) Language Preference for Reading:  
(For more information see pages 149,150,151)

Reading		
Do you read in English?	Do you read in French?	Do you read in Standard Arabic?
Often <input type="checkbox"/>	Often <input type="checkbox"/>	Often <input type="checkbox"/>
Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>	Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>	Sometimes <input type="checkbox"/>
Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>	Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>	Rarely <input type="checkbox"/>
Never <input type="checkbox"/>	Never <input type="checkbox"/>	Never <input type="checkbox"/>
What? .....	What? .....	What? .....
Magazines <input type="checkbox"/> What kind? .....	Magazines <input type="checkbox"/> What kind? .....	Magazines <input type="checkbox"/> What kind? .....
Books <input type="checkbox"/> What kind.....	Books <input type="checkbox"/> What kind? .....	Books <input type="checkbox"/> What kind? .....
Other, what? .....	Other, what? .....	Other, what? .....
.....	.....	.....

Table n°3



c) Language Selection for Writing:  
 (For more information see pages 149,150,151)

Writing		
Do you write in English?	Do you write in French?	Do you write in Standard Arabic?
Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>	Yes <input type="checkbox"/>
No <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>	No <input type="checkbox"/>
What?	What?	What?
- Personal diaries <input type="checkbox"/>	- Personal diaries <input type="checkbox"/>	- Personal diaries <input type="checkbox"/>
- Shopping list <input type="checkbox"/>	- Shopping list <input type="checkbox"/>	- Shopping list <input type="checkbox"/>
- Family letters <input type="checkbox"/>	- Family letters <input type="checkbox"/>	- Family letters <input type="checkbox"/>
- Friend letters <input type="checkbox"/>	- Friend letter <input type="checkbox"/>	- Friend letters <input type="checkbox"/>
- Official letters <input type="checkbox"/>	- Official letters <input type="checkbox"/>	- Official letters <input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/> Other? .....	<input type="checkbox"/> Other? .....	<input type="checkbox"/> Other? .....

Table n°4



## Appendix D

### The listening passage in a) Standard Arabic :

عجز كبير في الميرانية ' الناتج المحلي الاجمالي في انخفاض و توقعات مطمئنة الى حد ما تظهر مؤشرات الاقتصاد الكلي في الجزائر ان البلاد لن تخرج من النفق المظلم للازمة حتى عام 2018 على الاقل. هذا ما يظهر من التقرير على توقعات النمو في منطقة الشرق الاوسط و شمال افريقيا من قبل صندوق النقد الدولي. فان الناتج المحلي الاجمالي في الجزائر سقط ب 166 مليون دولار في 2016.

#### c) Algiers Arabic

الازمة الاقتصادية و التشفير رايجين يزيدو في 2017... رايجين يزيدو في l'essence و تريسيتي و بلاك يزيدو في الحليب و الخبز و حاجات واحد خرين...قالو ثاني لازم نزيرو ... كيفاش نزيرو و الشعب مازال خاصو دراهم... قالو les taxes ثاني رايجين يزيدو...واش وين رانا رايجين... مازال الشعب خاصو الخدمة و اسكنة و هما يقولونا نزيرو.

#### d) French

Important déficit budgétaire, PIB en baisse et perspective peu rassurantes. Les indicateurs macroéconomiques de l'Algérie démontrent que le pays ne sortira pas du sombre tunnel de la crise avant 2018 au moins. C'est ce qui ressort du rapport sur les perspectives de croissance dans la région Moyen-Orient et L'Afrique, établi par le Fond monétaire international (FMI). Selon ce document, le produit intérieur brute de l'Algérie devra baisser pour s'établir à 166 milliards de dollars 2016.

#### e) English

The oil shock hard will be felt in 2017 with the possibility of a second shock provided by a group of Algerian professor and economists, tax revenues from oil production will be reduced in 2016 or in 2017. As for general tax revenues, excluding hydrocarbons, the impact of the crisis is often felt with one or two years later. Indeed, the consequences involved when income taxes including corporations are reduced. Businesses pay their taxes the year following the event.

Tiggit tameqqant m tyussar yestar, yarna  
 timuxliwin ur sseparant ara. Imseggaren m  
 tdamsa imeqqanen m Lezzayer seknen. d d  
 abben tamurt ur d tetteffey ara si tlam m  
 uzjan azi uqbel 2018. Dayen id-yeffyen seq  
 wallas yef timuxliwin m unemi di temnadet n  
 usammay abennas abbed tefigt n uqafu. id-  
 yetwaxcedmen. syur asenduz m tedrimt aqraylan  
 Tef wakken id yenna warrat-azi, afaris n  
 dazel afuzzay m Lezzayer ad d-isub alamm  
 yewwed 166 n imeqqaren iddaren di 2016.

## Abstract

This study examines the learners' language attitudes through survey data. An ambivalence of judgments was confirmed as the mother tongue was stigmatized. Yet, the regional identity and loyalty were asserted by all informants. Language learning has proved to be influential as an important issue about prestige came about when it was related to foreign language instruction, mainly English. Hence, Standard Arabic is judged favourably in certain contexts. The process of language standardization and language planning seem to have influenced the aspects that the informants would like to promote. Language use in different situations tends to be related to the purpose in goal associated to formality and informality.

Key words: language attitudes, language stereotypes, language selection, code switching, language learning, ESP, willingness to communicate in foreign languages.

## Résumé

Cette étude examine les attitudes linguistiques des apprenants à l'aide de données d'enquête. Une ambivalence des jugements a été confirmée car la langue maternelle était stigmatisée. Pourtant, l'identité et la loyauté régionales ont été affirmées par tous les informateurs. L'apprentissage des langues s'est avéré influent car une question importante de prestige est survenue quand elle était liée à l'enseignement des langues étrangères, principalement l'anglais. Par conséquent, l'arabe standard est jugé favorablement dans certains contextes. Le processus de normalisation linguistique et de planification linguistique semble avoir influencé les aspects que les informateurs aimeraient promouvoir. L'utilisation de la langue dans différentes situations a tendance à être liée à l'objectif associé à la formalité et à l'informalité.

Mots clés: attitudes linguistiques, stéréotypes linguistiques, sélection de la langue, changement de code, apprentissage des langues, ESP, volonté de communiquer en langues étrangères.

## الملخص

تبحث هذه الدراسة المواقف اللغوية للمتعلمين باستخدام بيانات المسح. تم تأكيد تناقض الأحكام لأن اللغة الأم كانت موصومة. ومع ذلك، فقد أكد جميع المخبرين الهويات والولاءات الإقليمية. لقد كان تعلم اللغة مؤثراً حيث أن قضية مهمة من هبة جاءت عندما كانت مرتبطة بتدريس اللغات الأجنبية، وخاصة اللغة الإنجليزية. ونتيجة لذلك، ينظر إلى اللغة العربية القياسية بشكل إيجابي في بعض السياقات. يبدو أن عملية توحيد اللغة وتخطيط اللغة قد أثرت على الجوانب التي يرغب المخبرون في الترويج لها. يميل استخدام اللغة في المواقف المختلفة إلى الارتباط بالغرض المرتبط بالشكل الرسمي وغير الرسمي.

الكلمات المفتاحية: مواقف اللغة، الصور النمطية اللغوية، اختيار اللغة، تغيير الكود، تعلم اللغة، تعلم اللغة الانجليزية و الفرنسية لاهداف علمية، الرغبة في التواصل باللغات الأجنبية.

## Résumé

# The Effect of Attitudes towards Language Use and Stereotypical Concepts among F/EFL Learners in Tlemcen University

Language attitude study in correlation with language learning in terms of better understanding the impact of language position and language behaviour of learners has long been the main concern of sociolinguistic research. This topic of investigation examines the impact of French/English learning for specific purposes as well as language position on opinions of university students. This dissertation analyses language attitudes related to the language practical applications of university students who are studying in preparatory schools for engineering and technical courses as well as students who are enrolled in economics and management studies in Tlemcen. Language planning in education and decisions taken by the government are closely correlated with language classification that can influence language attitudes of the students. Speakers classify languages according to basic cultural, educational and political foundations. The successful proliferation of a particular language at the formal level or its use for informal reasons largely depends on the sites controlled by these varieties in the community. In fact, these attitudes are tracked by a language policy dictated primarily by political objectives. In the early 1980s, Arabization began to achieve some measurable results. In primary school and in higher grades Arabic education is widespread, while French is taught as a subject and Arabization is gaining more importance in this field. Interestingly enough, despite the demands of the Algerian government to arabize the educational system, the French language continues to be used for the fulfilment of teaching in scientific branches in the Algerian universities.

Certain features of the learner's mother tongue and the learned language can have an effect on the beliefs of speakers. Proficiency is also an essential purpose that can lead to the creation of value judgments. School and university are institutions where learners can be provided with language knowledge, hence, this instruction may orient in a way or another learners' language attitudes. Thus, it is suggested that the differences in attitudes between students from two different branches are questionable because they are not exposed to the same learning. In addition, motivation is something that energises, directs, and sustains the learner whose values or perceptions may be influenced.

Stereotypical representations bear remarkable importance in sociolinguistic research as this aspect has an unavoidable combination of this with language learning. Insight into social patterns and how they tend to interfere in communication between given groups are related to a wide range of shared beliefs. One can assume that stereotypes can be positive or negative, so, facts are less important than beliefs for many social purposes, especially where beliefs can be shown to be maintained systematically and constantly. The learner's choice of a language in a speech situation known as code switching can be influenced by language assessments. Bilinguals who have at least two languages at their disposal have the opportunity to use elements of the two languages, when communicating with another bilingual. Code switching is a grammatically and phonologically appropriate use of several varieties. An important input into social linguistics focuses on the social motivations of change, and a number of studies focusing on both immediate discourse factors such as lexical needs and the topic and the setting. Group identity and the relationship related to solidarity are also parameters indicating the reasons of the use of multiple varieties. Code switching can reflect the frequency with which the individual uses certain phrases from one or another language in daily communication. Language can also be related to group membership in certain types of bilingual language communities. Therefore, it is proposed that the alternative use of two or more varieties within one conversation may be different from another one at a remarkable degree.

One can assume that language learning as well as attitudes correlate with socially-oriented language selection. As an individual faces an important source of

conversation he/she is involved in the socio-cognitive parameter; so the speaker starts demonstrating behavioural criteria that are noticeably associated with the linguistic attitudinal evaluation. This stresses the preference or rejection of a given linguistic variety in a given speech situation and given activities, such as TV watching, radio listening and newspaper reading. The favourability of language use among members of the same group of learners contributes in building-up in-group relationship. This investigation asks questions about the degree of attitudinal aspects impact on language selection that speakers of the same group share. Any factor may have a considerable influence in choosing one language over another, but the combination of several factors such as language proficiency, setting and language attitudes can explain language choice.

The scope of the investigation includes the rationale and the suggested hypotheses as well as research questions. This part examines oriented ideological dimensions which are in accordance with language attitudes that are considered to be true by the respondents. It also presents the informants' criteria. One questionable fact here is the relation that exists between these criteria and the informants' value judgments that are can be covert or overt revealing views and postures. The next part sheds light on the importance of shared opinions within members of the same speech group. It is alleged that the usage of given varieties throughout the educational career like subjects learned in French or English, can have an impact on the speakers' evaluation. Here the main point is to make reference to the contribution of the status of foreign languages learned for specific purposes that can influence the learners' attitudes. Throughout its history, ESP practitioners have been preoccupied with learner's needs, with identifying his wants and purposes as integral and obligatory elements in the learning process. Hence, the nature of the learners' assessments can be problematic. The theoretical background of stereotyping and language selection is also tackled. In this context it is assumed that respondents tend to stereotype the personality of the speaker according to prejudices they have internalised. More questions can be asked about the effects that assessments can have on judgments of speakers' honesty, likeability or unlikeability and other characteristics which are found in the



questionnaires. Hence, language proficiency as well as language learning motivation can have an impact on language selection for a given situation.

Furthermore, the case of Tamazight -Berber- is taken into account. Tamazight or Berber Social movements emerged and political parties were created to represent and defend the Kabyle demands. The Tamazight variety, that has always been the mother tongue of an ethnic minority, was recognized as a national language in 2002, and an official one in 2016. Yet, there are five distinct Berber varieties. The assumption that can be expressed here is that, informants can show rejection of a variety with which they are not acquainted.

There is another aspect of social stratification of attitudes related to male and female factors. It can be assumed that patterns of gender differentiation can be manifested and girls may be more sensitive to given language varieties than boys. The questionnaire aims are explained and exemplified, too. Questionnaires can be considered as an effective means to elucidate data. Various questions can trigger informants to accept or reject a variety more practically. This means provides statistical information that can be related to an applied side.

A brief report is presented about the language situation of Tamazight, Algerian Arabic, Standard Arabic, French, English and other foreign languages in Algeria. The Algerian society uses different dialects in its various regions. Thus, the people of this country speak their various mother tongues, either Arabic or Tamazight. Before independence French was the only official language. In post-colonial period Arabization strategy sought to restore the national dignity. The historical background of media within a community can provide clues which allow the understanding of both the individual and the group's assessments. This raises more questions about the impact of the nature of various language statuses as well as its academic or informal use in different environments such as the social, educational and academic levels. The language situation is largely the outcome of socio-economic development policies such as language planning in education and government decisions. This part gives an overall examination as to what type of participation bilingualism; arabization and multilingualism situations have in the establishment of subjective evaluations.

A remarkable complexity is related to the composition of attitudes as it is the case with the functions of attitudes. In the investigation of social psychology, the following four functions of attitudes are different from each other: knowledge, utilitarian, social identity and self-esteem maintenance (Bohner, 2004: 242-243). The knowledge function can be explained as the formation of an attitude towards a pattern which can be elicited every time the pattern in question is experienced. As previously stated (1.1.3.1), attitudes are structured by means of cognitive learning the first time speakers experience a particular attitudinal criterion. Once attitudes are constituted, they are stored so that every time the same attitude pattern is encountered, the attitude can merely be shown without being obliged to manifest how to react towards it (Bohner, 2004: 242). Nonetheless, attitudes can still be referred to diversity despite this knowledge function. Attitudes can also be of a useful function by helping people to accomplish positive goals and avoid negative outcomes. Bohner (2004: 243) states the example of attitudes to given kinds of food and asserts that one's attitude towards pizza should be based on the positive effect (pleasant taste, repletion) and punishments (weight gain, high cholesterol level) linked to pizza'. Therefore, individuals establish a relation between given attitudes and their positive and negative effects. This example of the favourable attitude towards certain types of food can show attitude diversity that may occur over time. A person may have a negative attitude towards pizza as a final decision; because of the belief that there exist drawbacks: (e.g, weight gain) outweigh and advantages: (e.g., pleasant taste). While in some cases the disadvantages can be beyond the advantages. Consequently, the same person can during a given period of time change his or her attitude towards pizza. The social identity function of attitudes provides individuals with identification with given social groups by means of the manifestation of their attitudes (Bohner, 2004:243). For instance, people may conceptualise themselves as feminists or conservatives by having or manifesting 'feminist' or 'conservative' attitudes (Bohner, 2004: 243). In the end, self-esteem maintenance function of attitudes enhances individuals to relate positive feeling with elements and negative emotions with others and associate their opinions with positive images and distance themselves from negative objects. For instance, people may have unfavourable opinions towards minority groups, such as speakers of

stigmatised languages-non-standard- because of an underlying thought considering that holding distance can help to keep them far from the danger and negative connotations that these groups are linked to (Bohner, 2004: 243). The various functions are characterized with a high degree of complexity and it is often hard to distinguish between categories of attitudes that often accomplish different functions at the same time (Bohner, 2004: 243).

Investigators of attitudes have led discussions of great importance as to the use of attitudes as predictors of behavioural manifestation since it has been found out that controversies concerning the behavioural constructs of attitudes draw attention to the complexity that exists between attitudes and behaviour.

Baker (1992:15) explains that people's responses are often changeable across different situations and that **'as props on the stage change, as different actors and actresses change, different scripts are enacted [...], behaviour may change accordingly, and attitudes may become imperfect explainers and predictors of behaviour.'**

Although, this stresses on the situations that projects doubts on a straight forward relation between attitudes and behaviour, attitudes are often analysed because of a belief that they may be the basis of behaviour (Bohner, 2004: 270). Social psychologists concentrate on the priority of maintaining the adherence to the 'correspondence principle' when associating attitudes with behaviour as people's general attitudes (e.g. measurement of attitudes towards religion through a questionnaire) cannot be really related to certain behaviour (e.g. attending a specific religious ceremony on a particular day) (Bohner, 2004: 271). Attitudes can be associated with behaviour if both have been ascertained specific dimensions in relation to the same contextual pattern. For example, this paper attempts to relate a general measurement of students' attitudes towards French with their specific language choice during classroom interactions. In agreement with the correspondence principle, language choice in the classroom context will be correlated with students' attitudes towards French as a language of instruction. This approach ensures that both attitudes and behaviour have been measured in relation to the educational context. Correlating to the same level of generality during the measurement of attitudes and behaviour can create the expected value of language attitudes during the research of language

behaviour (Baker, 1992: 16). However, general attitudes cannot really predict given behavioural forms, they can nevertheless be linked to a connection of various behaviours in accordance with the 'aggregation principle' (Bohner, 2004: 272). The criteria of the 'aggregation principle' are highlighted in Weigel and Newman's (1976) study of attitudes towards the environment. Participants were first given a questionnaire judging their attitudes towards the environment before they were given several opportunities participate in likeable contextual activities such as recycling. The measure of the 'aggregated' or combined behaviours revealed a very high connection with the attitudes manifested in the questionnaire. Specific reasons that are related to given context in which behaviour happens may have a noticeable impact on people's responses and therefore result in a disagreement between their attitudes and their behaviour. Henceforth, attitudes have been explained as better predictors of large behavioural responses than of given behaviours (Baker, 1992: 17). Research on the remarkable complexity of the connection between language attitudes and linguistic behaviour can provide particular and important insights into the sociopsychological significance of language use. The possible absence of accordance between speaker's language attitudes and his/her language behaviour often represents a major point of interest in linguistics (Garrett *et al.* 2003: 9). For example, during a job interview a intelligent speaker may accommodate his/her language use to correspond with a socially prestigious language or towards a language which is normally evaluated favourably. Thus, the specific requirements of the interview have urged the speaker to change his/her usual speech or style because of the consideration that such behaviour can promote his/her chances to obtain the job. This explanation can only be attained by matching attitudinal criteria with language behaviour responses. Therefore, a noticeable emphasis on language attitudes and language behaviour embodies a better revelation of the interrelationship between language acts and socio-psychological reasons such as language attitudes. According to Hamers and Blanc (2000: 8) socio-psychological processes have often an impact on language production, and individuals make use of language as an instrument to transmit significance and accomplish specific roles. The research of the relationship between language attitudes and language behaviour specifically corresponds to multilingual situations, as code-

switching bilinguals, unlike style-shifting monolinguals, are most of the time conscious of the distinctive codes which are found in their speech communities (Milroy & Gordon, 2006: 210). For instance, a speaker's attitudes towards the several codes they use can have an impact on his/her language choice. In this context an assumption can be stated is that speakers are aware that separate codes exist, so an important part of research on code-switching and language choice emphasized on speakers' self-reports (Milroy & Gordon, 2006: 210). However, speakers' self-reports of their linguistic patterns could not be rightly established by social desirability. Speakers can provide inaccurate comments on their use of socially prestigious languages and refute their real use of socially stigmatised varieties (Milroy & Gordon, 2006: 211).

One aspect linked to language attitude behaviour is learning that embraces diversity in behaviour or in the real acting in behaviour. People acquire knowledge when they are able to perform an activity differently. In the same context, it should be noted that learning is based on an indirect process. However, the products or outcomes of learning is not watched clearly. Learning is assumed to be based on what people say, write, and do. It should also be mentioned, that learning embodies a different ability to act in a given way as it is not unusual for people to acquire skills, knowledge, beliefs, or behaviours without manifesting them at the time the systematic study happens. Investigation in the field of motivation in accordance with language learning has been carried out for several decades. The most important analysis is the one exposed by Gardner's Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 1985; Gardner, 2001) which proposed meaningful correlations between affective variables (i.e., attitude, desire, and motivation) and second language learning attainment.

Different approaches have been developed to tackle the complex psychological study of attitudes that has given rise to the promotion of the investigation of attitudes. One of commonplace methods for the study of attitudes aims at asking directly the informants to reveal their attitudes towards the variety in question. This 'direct approach' is meant to the analyze attitudes; it is considered 'protruding' in nature because of its direct way to elicit data from informants (Garrett

*et al.*, 2003: 16). Recorded interviews and completed written questionnaires represent typical examples of the 'direct approach' (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 25). Many research works are featured by the utilization of either questionnaires or recorded interviews. Several advantages and disadvantages are referred to both data collection tools. The circumstances under which the data are gathered define most of the time which instrument can be used (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 31). If, for instance, the questioned group of an investigation is composed of young children or speakers of a language with no written form the researcher is obliged to use recorded interviews (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 31). In such pressurized conditions, interviews are often chosen as a data elicitation technique as various favourable conditions are linked to them. Recorded interviews mainly provide detailed reports from informants and the fieldworker can take profit from the intercommunication-based nature of the interview to improve their comprehension of the informants' replies. The differences in the explanation of questions can be illuminated and the form of the recorded interview would give an opportunity to respondents to speak about any interesting points which could not have been predicted by the investigator (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 35). Yet, interviews are ultimately time-consuming and large amount of money can be spent to administer them (Bryman, 2004: 133).

Written questionnaires that are completed by the informants themselves consists an alternative instrument which is efficient for gathering quantifiable data on language attitude study, language competencies and personal accounts of language behaviour (Codó, 2008: 158). Providing written questionnaires could be quick and normally does not result in spending much time and easily conducted (Bryman, 2004: 34). One fieldworker only is required to gather a big quality of data from many informants, who complete the questionnaires at the same time (Garrett *et al.*, 2003: 34). Yet, if the interviewer is not present, informants cannot be urged to establish their answers and the investigator has not enough control over expected misunderstanding of questions (Bryman, 2004: 134). Hopefully, interviews and questionnaires do not represent ultimately specific data collection instruments. Investigators can make use of these two types of direct approaches during many phases during the execution of the study so that a better interpretation of the target group's attitudes is obtained. For

instance, interviews recorded during a pilot study could provide the investigator of relevant points and issues which can be involved in a written questionnaire while being completed by informants (Codó, 2008: 173). The investigation of attitudes based on quantitative data included in this project is featured by means of a self-completion written questionnaire. Most of fieldwork data can be conducted in schools during working school hours, written questionnaires were utilized to enable the researcher to gather large quantities of data during a short period of time. Self-completion questionnaires appear in particular efficient instrument for research on attitudes in educational environment as fewer disturbances are created by the administration in daily school activity. The questionnaires utilized in this study were given to groups of respondents composed of forty students at the same time. The investigator was present at the time of the execution of the research so questionnaires were completed in order to enable the respondents to answer all questions clearly. Most of informants filled in the questionnaire while the fieldworker was present; since attitude questions are meant to collect mainly overt data about learner's attitudes, i.e. attitudes revealed while the participant experienced comfort about expressing them directly. This is essential due to the fact that administering direct and indirect statements about assigning favourable or unfavourable of given varieties in given social conditions, participants transmit data that the investigator could examine more easily. As a result, a main interest of the fieldwork concerns the creation of fewer disturbances in the daily school activity. Henceforth, actual research was debated with different classes in the two schools where the number of the group varied between 10 and 15 and every gender was dealt with separately.

The questionnaire used in this research (cf. Appendix A) is six pages long and contains three sections. The completion of the questionnaire took thirty minutes on average. First of all, informants are required to provide details regarding their gender and personal language use with their parents and friends. The second section focuses on closed-ended statements. The third part of the questionnaire contains the adjective test. A major part of the questionnaire consists of a collection of attitude statements. Informants are required to show their level of agreement with various statements

concerning the use of AA, SA, French and English at the university as well as beyond the educational sphere.

The direct approach to language attitude research is “characterized by a high degree of obtrusiveness, and by the fact that it is the informants themselves who are asked to report their attitudes” (Garrett, Coupland, and Williams 2003:24). Respondents are asked directly, either through interviews or some form of questionnaire, what they think about varieties of language. One early example of this methodology is Labov’s (1966) study in New York City in which he asked respondents not only to report whether they would or would not pronounce the /r/ in certain words but also to comment on which pronunciation they believed they should use. Many direct language attitude studies have been conducted in Great Britain focusing on Welsh, Received Pronunciation, and other languages and varieties (see Ryan and Giles 1982 and Garrett, Coupland, and Williams 2003). The direct approach to language attitude studies carries with it a number of research concerns. First, the very nature of the approach in asking respondents to self-report attitudes is problematic, for respondents may not be the best at judging, synthesizing, and expressing what their attitudes actually are. Further, respondents may not be fully aware of the more subtle, complex, and subconscious attitudes that they actually hold toward speakers of a particular variety. Further, since respondents are asked directly to reveal their attitudes towards language forms, usually highly stigmatized varieties, the social desirability bias may provide considerable interference (see Oppenheim 1992 and Gass and Seiter 1999), for as Garrett, Coupland, and Williams note, **“respondents harbouring negative views towards a particular group may not wish to admit to the researcher, or even to themselves, that they hold such feelings”** (2003:28). Another major concern with the direct approach, which sets it apart from the indirect approach, is that the respondents are asked to give their reactions to and opinions of language Hasty varieties without hearing actual verbal examples of these varieties. The unavailability of a speech sample could cause respondents to call up extreme characterizations and/or inaccurate representations of a particular variety. Self-reporting and the lack of speech samples, reactions toward different shades of dialect



and actual phonological, lexical, and grammatical variation may go untapped by this methodological approach.

The other essential type of language attitude research is the indirect approach. Theoretically, direct approaches are not often considered to be adequate reports for all attitude studies; the indirect approach makes use of discreet techniques to examine participants' evaluations of language varieties and to reach indirectly at language attitudinal criteria on the basis of relevant observations. The indirect method is distinctive from the direct method in terms of the number of separate levels. Speech samples are utilized to obtain judgments, and it is the responsibility of the observer who analyses respondents' attitudes based on those value judgments rather than the participant self-account. This approach is often thought to give a illuminating picture of internalised attitudes that an informant cannot be directly aware of or may be inhibited to convey overtly. The most important investigating instrument of the indirect approach to language attitude analysis is the matched guise technique (MGT), which has widely been discussed in the literature. The MGT is employed as an equivalent for the indirect approach. This technique was developed by Wallace Lambert and his colleagues at McGill University in the early 1960s, it is said **“to expose the listeners' more private feelings and stereotyped attitudes toward a contrasting group or groups whose language, accent, or dialect is distinctive”** (Tucker and Lambert 1969:463). The MGT entails recording bilingual (or bidialect) interlocutors who read a passage in each of the two varieties. These two “guises” are then listened to by a group of participants and they are introduced by the researcher as if they are two different speakers. The participants are required to classify speakers they listen to on a semantic differential scale for a number of adjectives or phrases (i.e., good -- - - bad, can deal with technology) written on anonymous papers. Judgments of the two guises are then analysed and compared to obtain the relevant interpretation of the informants' attitudes. This technique aims at keeping indicators of speech rate, voice intonation, and pitch steady and thus leaving the speech as the only reason for the participants to express their reactions. Lambert claims that the MGT **“appears to reveal judges' more private reactions to the contrasting group than direct attitude questionnaires do”** (Lambert 1967:94). This tool seems to respond to

what Lambert claims, for Edwards' statements it was Lambert's (1967) investigation of bilingualism using the MGT that provided interpretation of participants' language attitudes which cannot be separated from sociolinguistic measurements. In fact, they are characterized with varied aspects within some attitudes entailing "a speaker's ability"(e.g., intelligence and technological advance), some personal integrity(e.g., solidarity and reliability), and some social attractiveness(e.g., friendliness and likeability)" (Edwards 1982:23). Changes happened with the MGT since the 1960s as several speakers are used to produce different dialects rather than using bilingual or bi-dialect speakers; therefore, a speaker represents only one dialect in order to avoid the obstacle of artificiality that has sometimes been revealed to the MGT test (Garrett, Coupland, and Williams 2003:54). More alternations occurred with the MGT by using technological techniques to acoustically handle a single individual's speech by changing certain segments (e.g., vowels indicative of the rural Shift or the Northern Cities Shift) in one recording and letting the speech without changes in the other (c.f. Fridland, Bartlett, and Kreuz 2004 and 2005).

This work discusses the influence that a speaker's proficiency has on his/her language attitudes. This part explores more deeply the respondents' interpretation of their language attitudes. The key insight is to search underlying beliefs, such as nationalism or high vs. low statuses. Standardisation vs.non-standardisation that give rise to prestige as well as stigmatisation criteria respectively, are taken into account. In addition, gender variables are dealt with, whereby an analysis is presented about the factual bases that are behind male/female factors. Moreover, the analysis of stereotype data obtained from the investigation is presented. This part discusses the influence that language attitudes have on the participants' stereotypical representations. It is assumed that stereotypical images of speakers of the varieties dealt with in this research can be discovered and gender differences may exist between questioned groups.

An analysis of field work data about the informants' language selection in writing, reading, radio and TV is provided. It is discussed that performing different activities and subjective reactions are closely related. Sociolinguistic criteria can also determine the choice of a particular variety in speech situations. It is assumed that situational factors such as topic setting and participants in relation to language

attitudes can influence language choice. Fieldwork data are explored and provide information about the emergence of language use in a given set of speech situations. It is argued that language proficiency as well as attitudinal aspects can affect language selection. Hence, differences and similarities between the questioned groups are stated.

This work has attempted to shed some light on language attitudes and language selection as well as stereotypical representations in relation to language learning. The main concern was that one can provide relative results only, because not all informants have the same opinions. The results show that in spite of some differences, the medium of instruction -French- as well as the purpose in goal influence informants' opinions on languages and language performances. In effect, conformity or the same learning experience in addition to language proficiency oriented the members' opinions within the same group to a given extent. It is discovered that most of the time, when informants are not well-acquainted with a given language, they relate negative linguistic aspects or inability to express ideas about this language. The knowledge of languages functioning in the same society not only allows communication across national borders but also contributes and especially to mutual understanding and an attitude of tolerance towards other cultures. In fact, ESP learning appeared to have an impact on the students' opinions. French and English are perceived as languages of modernity and technological advancement. The English language, mainly, is recognised as a medium of technology, which means that members of a society judge a linguistic tool according to given events or tasks they are confronted with. In other words, the widespread use of English in different fields, such as the internet, and its function as a world language influences learners' evaluations. Henceforth, learners of sciences and techniques showed more favourability towards French and English in comparison with those of economics and management. It was also found out that informants' attitudes correlate with language selection activities in both branches. The great majority of both branches views that using a language is not the only criterion that enables a speaker to belong to a foreign community. Our informants' willingness to communicate in foreign languages or perform activities related to these languages varies between low and mid percentages. Foreign language use outside the class is not associated to negative attitudinal criteria. It would be interesting to investigate these

same students over a period of time to discover whether their opinions and motivations change

In fact, it was discovered that informants take into consideration the status or roles such as standard vs. non-standard or language vs. dialect notions that have been assigned to the languages during past times. Indeed, AA was stigmatised and associated with informal and familiar settings. Tamazight movements and its new official status seemed to influence the informants in a way or another as it was associated to favourable attitudes, even though the scores reached the half. SA is related to religion, literature as well as richness and group solidarity as all learners have already been acquainted with Arabic literature.

Male vs. female indices are noticeable in a few cases only, as this could be due to the fact that both groups are exposed to the same language learning process. In many cases girls shared the same opinions as those of boys ; furthermore, the prestige criterion was selected by both male and female groups. These facts could lead us to more discussion about the evaluation of these language varieties by Tamazight speakers, for instance.

Nonstandard language speakers were associated with low social status groups, however, they were assigned friendship and social security. Although perhaps less prone to stereotyping members of their own group, low status individuals are fully aware of their relative social position. Speakers of foreign languages as well as the standard one -SA- alike stereotype standard speakers as superior in qualities such as intelligence, ambition, high status, success, and education. Language is far more than just a means of communication, it symbolises our social experience in an intimate way and locates us within significant in-group language experience from which we draw our identity.

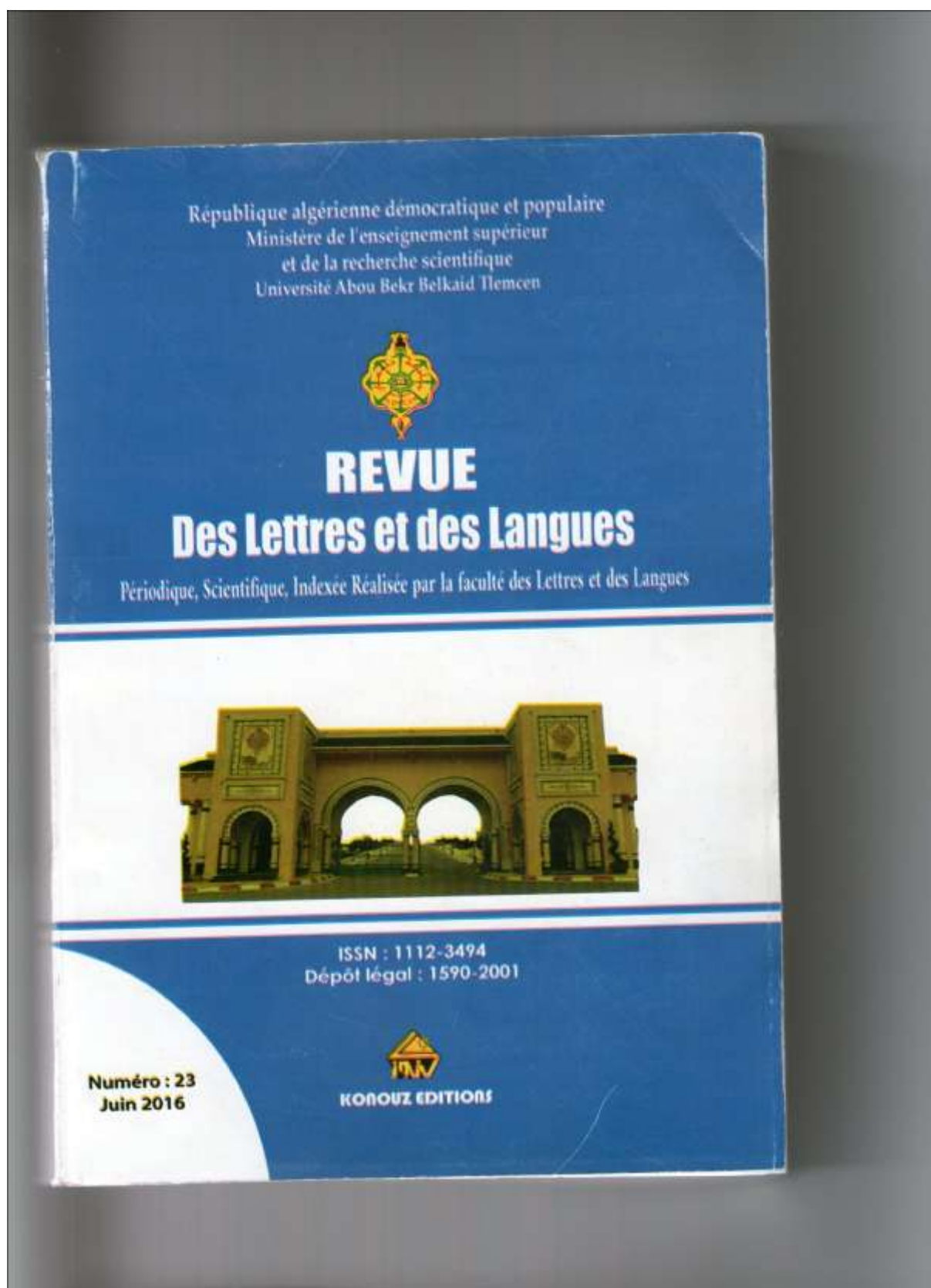
When dealing with language preferences, it is noticed that language proficiency as well as the purpose in goal of the branch influence to a certain extent the students' choice. In fact, the activities performed in French seem to be favoured by foreign language students of science and techniques, mainly. The data obtained concerning

male and female preferences for such or such language suggest that differences between them are related to the frequency of language use which could be judged as differences. One could claim that language attitudes as well as language proficiency go in parallel with language selection, to a certain extent in writing, reading, TV watching and radio listening. This is due to the fact that boys and girls of the both groups select the same linguistic media for the same activities, most of the time. AA is dealt with in entertainment, such as TV comedy and facebook messages, while SA was dealt with in activities related to religion and reading newspaper articles mainly.

In speech situations mixed informal and formal topics had a clear classification by students of both groups. Remarkably, some students of sciences and techniques maintained the use of French in all topics, even though their ratings were low. French and SA were selected for learned topics by the majority; and non-learned ones are mainly discussed in the mother tongue. Foreign language instruction at the university can be expected to be effective. In particular, regular exposition to an oral foreign language teaching provides more opportunities to develop proficiency through practical application. Moreover, ESP students internalise and use new loan words from the French language in speech situations that reveal, more or less, their immediate need for an advanced learning that can give access to a wider knowledge. Besides, it is noticed that the formal classroom setting influences the minority as standard varieties were utilised. One questionable issue could be raised here is: What attitudinal criteria do students show if their language attitudes as well as stereotypical assessments are investigated throughout the whole engineering training period? In addition, one could ask a question about whether an informal setting such as the home would stimulate the informants to select the learned language varieties or AA only.

Language use outside the class is not associated to negative attitudinal criteria. Remarkably, French use in everyday speech is associated to 'prestige' among girls mainly. Differences between attitudes towards French and English were registered in this investigation. English seems to be favoured and preferred to give access to science and technology in comparison to French. The latter, however, is better selected for communicating with friends and using on internet. Our informants' willingness to

communicate in foreign languages or perform activities related to these languages varies between low and mid percentages. It would be interesting to investigate these same students over a period of time to discover whether their opinions and motivations change.



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## ESP Students' Attitudes towards French and English and their Willingness to Communicate in these Languages

مواقف الطلاب نحو الفرنسية والإنجليزية ورغبتهم في التواصل في هذه اللغات

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المخلص

تبحث هذه الدراسة عن مواقف نحو اللغات من طرف المتعلمين ورغبتهم في التواصل باللغة الفرنسية والإنجليزية من خلال بيانات المسح. بروز اللغات الأجنبية لها تأثير إيجابي على الطلاب. وعلاوة على ذلك، تم اكتشاف ازدواجية الأحكام كما عقد المتعلمين اتجاهات إيجابية نحو اللغات الأجنبية؛ ومع ذلك، فإننا نرى أن تعلم اللغات ليست ضرورية. وتبلغ قيمة الإنجليزية أفضل حينما يتعلق الأمر بالوصول للعلم والتكنولوجيا. يتم تعيين الاتصالات الفرنسية والإنجليزية آراء إيجابية، ولكن عدد قليل جدا من المتعلمين يفضلون استخدامها مع المعلمين داخل قاعة الدرس. في محاولة ل كشف علامات الإناث من الذكور، فإن « هبة » المعيار يرتبط بالفرنسية من قبل الفتيات. وتجدر الإشارة إلى أن طلابنا يرغبون في استخدام اللغة الأجنبية في الحصول على المعرفة بدلا من القيام بأنشطة أخرى مثل مشاهدة الأخبار.

الكلمات المفتاحية: اللغات الأجنبية، النحو، التعلم، التواصل، قاعة الدرس.

### Abstract

This study examines the learners language attitudes and their willingness to communicate in French and English through a survey data. The prominence of foreign languages has a positive impact on students. Moreover, an ambivalence of judgments is discovered as learners hold positive attitudes towards the foreign languages; however, they see that the learning of the languages is not necessary. English is better valued as far as science and technology access is concerned. French and English communication is assigned favourable opinions, yet very few learners prefer to use them with teachers. In an effort to uncover male female parameters, it is admitted that 'prestige' criterion is associated to French by girls. It should be pointed out that our students like to use a foreign language to have access to knowledge rather than perform other activities such as watching news.

## Introduction

This article investigates results of University students' attitudes towards French and English and their willingness to communicate in both languages. This work is conducted in the Preparatory School in Sciences and Techniques in Tlemcen. The students have French as the medium of instruction; they learn scientific modules such as: maths, physics and chemistry. They also learn English and French an hour and a half a week. These languages are related to science and technology. Our respondents learn English in first and second year. French is studied in first year only.

It involves 20 (twenty) female and 20 (twenty) males students. It should be noted that they come from different regions in Algeria, that is, the investigated cohorts are heterogeneous. The proficiency of these languages is not regarded as the goal of learning per se but is seen as a means to achieve personal and cultural goals. It is suggested that motivation, attitudes as well as instrumental purposes affect the learner's willingness to use either French or English. On the one hand, English and French for specific purposes are important as school modules, particularly as it is a subject that gives access to world science, documentation and higher education. On the other hand, the learners need to improve their communicative skills to learn the other modules and succeed in attaining the needed knowledge. It is hypothesized that the more positive learners' attitudes are the better willingness to communicate is.

### 1.1 Language Attitudes Theoretically

Language attitudes field has been researched for the last four decades and better understanding of this concept has been provided. Social psychology of language has shown criteria involved in the speakers' judgments of languages. As pointed out in Fishman and Aghvayisi (1976), "validation of attitude study is problematic because the very nature of attitudes as properties of the psychological or mental process." In fact, one problem in evaluating the role of language attitudes is the difficulty in measuring the attitudes themselves. In other words, to what extent does the scale of evaluation reveal useful information for the investigation?

The development of a questionnaire on attitudes is not a simple task. Labov (1966) discovered that people do not necessarily speak the way they say they do. Hence, one can

consider that the study of language attitudes remains probabilistic. Most people are not consciously aware of the combination between linguistic criteria and judgments, so it is preferable to elicit people's responses indirectly. This is why closed-ended questions as well as multiple choice questions were used.

Language attitudes studies are based on different approaches, the "mentalistic", the "behaviourist" and the "affective" positions (Peter Garrett, 2005). The mentalist view defines

attitudes "as an internal state aroused by stimulation of some type and which may mediate the organism's subsequent response" (Williams). The behaviourists see attitudes as simple responses found in people's social situations which imply overt behaviour. This kind of behaviour is much easier to observe and analyse, but it cannot be used to predict other kinds of behaviour (Vaasold, 1984). For social psychologists Eagly and Chaiken (2005), attitude is "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor". This viewpoint includes the question that attitudes can be derived from given data that are quantifiable in a given way. Many studies have demonstrated that the quality and prestige of language varieties depend on the knowledge of the social connotations which they possess. For instance, foreign languages open up a set of experiences that cannot be attained otherwise, thus, prestige and social preference are related to them (Edwards, 1982).

### 1.2 Language and Motivation

Language learning is affected by the attitude and motivation. Students can have different perceptions of their class, teacher and curriculum. Their perception of the class and syllabus and their awareness for future needs affect their attitudes that are related to language learning. According to Gardner (1985), motivation means referring to the extent to which the individual works



trives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity'. Beliefs about the importance of language learning may translate into actual language learning behaviour where a positive

cognitive component may be expected. Motivation urges learners to engage in the learning activity for its own and for a successful acquisition of languages. The concept of language learning motivation is usually distinguished into two criteria:

-Instrumental motivation: to fulfill immediate goals; getting a job or passing an examination.

-Integrative motivation: to communicate and integrate with people from another culture.

Gardner and Lambert conducted a study in the Philippines which demonstrated that an instrumental orientation was very effective for a successful acquisition of English. They related this effectiveness of the instrumental value is placed on English, which is the language of economic life and the major medium of instruction. For instance, students will acquire English they work with materials which they find interesting and relevant and which they can use in their professional work or further studies. This kind of English is known as (ESP) English for specific purpose.

### 1.3 Gender Criterion

Male and female indices are included in most sociolinguistic studies since gender variable is an important social interaction. This may be due to the fact that men and women are biologically different and are therefore attributed different social roles. Hence, one can suggest that gender roles affect speakers' attitudes towards languages. This pattern is explained by Hudson (1998: 193) as follows:

**The sex prestige pattern:** In any society where males and females have equal access to the standard forms, females use standard variants of any stable variable which is socially stratified for both sexes more often than males do.

Females are attracted by sophisticated speech. Generally speaking, sociological studies have demonstrated that women are more status-conscious than men. For this reason, they

are, presumably, more sensitive to the social significance of linguistic media (Trudgill, 1974). Gender and prestige can be related in studies of the speech patterns. In British English Peter Trudgill observed that more working class women adopted the standard dialect than men. Therefore, one can suggest that females relate more positive attitudes to foreign languages.

### 1.4 Language Planning

Languages are assigned valuable roles by the government because of their linguistic value in technology and world communication. Hence, one should attach importance to the link between sociocultural backgrounds and educational issues that fits well with this investigation, which explores the influence of language learning on attitudes. Hence, Sadler (1985) emphasized the factors underlying the functioning of languages in a speech community:

**In studying foreign systems of education we should not forget that the things**

**outside the school matter even more than the things inside the schools, and**

**govern and interpret the things inside.**

That is, foreign language learning in university alone does not seem to affect attitudes. Other factors, such as the positions that a given foreign language has in the world can play an important role in the influence of language evaluation. English, for instance, which is a world language, that is a medium used over wide commercial and technological areas in the world, is not necessarily judged in the same way as French, which is not an international language but is used as the medium of instruction in technological branches and spoken in everyday speech in Algeria, especially among educated people.

In fact, needs determine the language status that can enhance more or less

favourable positions towards learned languages. Languages are assigned valuable roles by the government because of their linguistic value in technology and world communication. In this context Calvet (2006) argues:

**And this selection is relatively limited: human beings are not always able to choose their languages, their choice is determined first and foremost by the milieu in which they find themselves by the languages that coexist in this niche and then by their needs, and very little by the typological situation of the coexisting languages.**

The political dominance can determine the favourability of a variety functioning in a speech community. This fact can open the way for a classification of attitudes towards the foreign languages and its culture.

### 1.5 Foreign Languages for Specific Purpose

Learners of English and French for Specific Purpose (ESP) and (FSP) tackle the study of these languages through a field that is already known and relevant to them. It concentrates on language in context and gives less importance to grammar and language structures. It covers subjects varying from accounting or computer science to tourism and business management. For instance, the ESP focal point is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the students' real world; it is rather integrated into a subject matter area important to the learners. An ESP programme might, for example, emphasize the development of reading skills with students who are preparing for graduate work in business administration. Learning environment enhances skills for communication. Students acquire language when they have opportunities to use the language in interaction with other speakers. Thus the teacher can structure effective communication skills in the classroom. ESP and FSP learners study languages when they have opportunities to understand and work with language in a context that they comprehend and find interesting. The aim of the teacher, then, is selecting, designing and organizing course materials, supporting the students in their efforts and providing them with feedback on their

progress. It is suggested that the more students pay attention to the meaning of the language they hear or read, the more they are successful, the more they are motivated to speak the target language. Since language learning continues naturally throughout our lives, ESP and FSP learners are constantly expanding vocabulary, becoming more fluent in their fields, and adjusting their linguistic behaviour to new

situations or new roles. So they can exploit these innate competencies in learning English and French. Furthermore, students' potential is central in designing a syllabus with realistic goals that takes into account the student's potential is central in designing a syllabus with realistic goals that takes into account the students' concern in the learning situation.

Foreign language learning can be considered to be in some ways fundamentally different from other types of academic learning, as language is not just a communication coding system but also an integral part of the individual's identity. Learning a language not only involves cognitive factors, but also, and may be more importantly affective factors. Motivation research is conducted within the social psychological framework and is associated with affective factors (Gardner, 1985). The present study is conducted with 20 male/female students in the Preparatory School in Sciences and Techniques in Tlemcen. Those students are meant to study technical and scientific modules during two years. At the end of their course study they sit an exam that enables them to carry on higher studies in schools known as "Grandes Ecoles". They finish their studies as engineers in several fields such as urbanism, hydraulics, architecture, metallurgy ([www.epst-tlemcen.dz](http://www.epst-tlemcen.dz)).

### 1.6 Research Objectives

The present investigation was conducted on the basis of the following objectives:

1. To examine the variables that orient their language attitudes. In doing so, language attitude influence on their willingness to use the languages in question is investigated.
2. To examine whether Preparatory School students of ESP are motivated to



use either French or English inside and outside the classroom

For more clarification of these research questions, the following figure is provided:

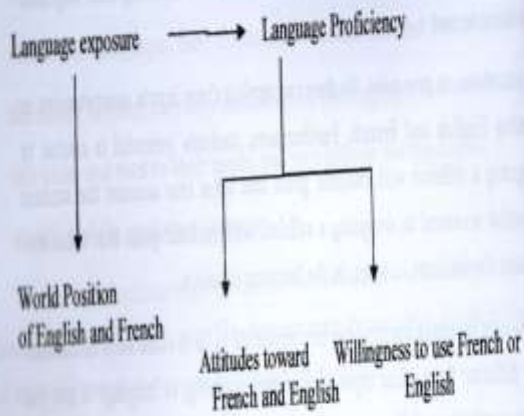


Figure 1.1 Attitudes and Willingness to be tested

The need of foreign language learning indicates that many students are supposed to acquire competency in English as well as in French as a means of international communication capacity. Hence, respondents' attitudes are expected to be influenced. World communication and technology are believed to affect willingness and motivation to learn and communicate in either French or English.

1.7 Methodology

It is important that all data should be collected under the same circumstances. The data were elicited by means of written anonymous questionnaires which are the main basis of the field work (Gardner and Lambert 1972). They consist of three parts and are as follows:

- 1- Direct questionnaires: Multiple-choice questions
- 2- Indirect questionnaires : a- Closed-ended questions

b- The adjective test

1-Language Attitudes Tests: (Adapted from Labov's studies (1972), Stewart's classification (1968) and Gumpers (1966)

a- Multiple-choice questions:

Aims of the statements:

- 1- To discover people's opinions on the perception of the linguistic side of the language

Statements:

- French is easy
- English is easy
- French is difficult
- English is difficult

- 2- Necessity of the learning of English at the university

French/

- French/English is necessary for scientific branches
- French/English is necessary for literary branches

b- Adjective Test:

- 1- To discover what favourable or unfavourable criteria are related to both languages

- scientificity
- religiousness
- patriotism
- likeable status
- unlikeable status
- literary status
- presence of high status
- easiness in use

- scientific
- religious
- patriotic
- friendly
- harsh
- literary
- civilised
- practical

Table 1.1 Multiple Choice Questions and Adjective Test

2- Willingness to communicate in French or English tests:

<p>a- Closed-ended questions</p>	
<p>Aims of the statements:</p>	<p>-When I have assignments to do in English/French, I try to do them immediately.</p>
<p>-Desire to learn English/French</p>	
	<p>- I would read English/French Newspapers or magazines outside my English/French course work.</p>
	<p>- I would like the number of English/French classes at school increased.</p>
	<p>- I find studying English/French more interesting than other subjects.</p>
	<p>-I volunteer to answer or ask questions in class.</p>
	<p>-I participate in classroom activities.</p>
	<p>-I ask teachers questions or talked to them outside the class period.</p>
	<p>-I talk with friends or acquaintances outside school in English/French.</p>
<p>-Frequency and Amount of Communication in English/French</p>	

Table 1.2 Closed-ended Questions

Language learning and communication are assigned various criteria. The adjectives tests and multiple choice questions as well as direct statements are administered in order to discover in a better way the value judgments that students associate with languages. The first part includes personal information. It is worth mentioning that each questionnaire is written in Standard Arabic as the informants are familiar with this medium.

1.8 Discussion and Analysis

a) Beliefs about French and English Learning

The results reveal that our respondents are in favour of learning French and English. The recorded scores as far as learning both languages to communicate with foreigners is concerned are satisfactory. The result reveals that our students are not only motivated to learn French and English to use them in their studies but they are also conscious that attaining a language gives access to world communication. However, gender differences arise here as ten (10) boys do not believe that French is one of the most important languages. This does not confirm the suggested hypothesis stating that learners are expected to hold more favourable attitudes towards the medium of instruction. Remarkably enough, no one ticked the 'disagree' box for using English on internet and sixteen girls strongly agreed that French is very helpful when surfing on internet. It seems that females are more eager than boys to deal with computer in French rather than in English. This choice is confirmed when female respondents ticked the disagree box that indicates the need of English on internet. In addition, nearly half of male learners do not seem to believe that using foreign languages gives the impression of well-educated students as seven for French and ten for English do not agree on this statement. (Tables 1.1 and 1.2)

Boys and girls do not believe that English and French are the most important modules. This can be due to the fact that our learners seem to see French and English are useful tools to have access to the scientific knowledge but they judge that the learning of the language structures is not really purpose in goal. Theoretically, this idea is incorrect as one cannot attain scientific knowledge if he does not master the semantic rules and syntactic structures.

b) Language Attitudes Adjective test

As far as the adjective test is concerned, remarkable gender criteria are registered. In fact, male informants appear to face obstacles with the language as thirteen learners find it difficult. In spite of the fact that girls seem to hold a different point of view and say that French is easy



of them hold the opposite judgment. English, however, is considered easy by both groups. Furthermore, 'practical' trait was not related to French by seven boys and seven girls. This assessment disproves the suggested hypothesis and confirms the fact that our respondents need to study the French language structures. Both languages are judged as scientific, nonetheless, six boys do not share this opinion as far as French is concerned. This may be due to the fact that these students prefer English which is a world language to have access to science and technology. (cf tables 1.3 and 1.4)

Female students showed a favourable attitude towards French when 'religious' trait is selected but boys do not share the same opinion. English, however, was not associated to this trait by both genders. Males and females seem to be split in two groups as far as 'patriotism' trait is concerned as half of the group associated this criterion to both languages. French and English were judged as 'friendly' by both genders. French is seen as a 'civilised' language by only eleven boys; however, girls related it to the French language mainly. Again, being a world language, English is assessed as 'civilised' by both groups.

#### c) Willingness to Communicate in French and English

Interestingly enough, when dealing with willingness to communicate in French our male learners show more interest than girls to communicate in English. More girls than boys seem to like using French in their everyday speech. Even though, six boys only ticked the disagree box. It is remarkable that some male respondents are not eager to hear their classmates talking to their teachers in French outside the classroom; they rather prefer to use French with their friends. There should be noted that students seem to have ambivalence in attitudes as they would like to use the languages in questions with their teachers only in class. This may be due to the fact that our informants believe that foreign languages are good for getting knowledge not communicating. Nevertheless, girls mainly (17) are ambitious to use French with classmates outside the class. This assessment proves the suggested hypothesis stating that female respondents are attracted by the 'prestigious' trait related to the use of foreign languages outside the class. It is worth noting that students see that

participating in a foreign language class helps learners to improve in these languages. Answers of the students concerning the statement 'watching the news in English/French' reveal that different assessments are assigned to this activity. In fact, half of them are motivated to perform this activity; others see that it is not necessary. (cf tables 1.5 and 1.6)

Traits	Females	Males
Necessity to learn French	20	18
The status of the language in the world	17	10
The necessity of French on internet	17	10
The status of French as a language of communication with foreigners	16	17
The high status of the learner of French	17	10

Table 1.1 Beliefs about the Learning of French by Gender

Traits	Females	Males
Necessity to learn English	20	20
The status of the language in the world	20	20
The necessity of English on internet	15	20
The status of English as a language of communication with foreigners	18	13
The high status of the learner of English	20	17

Table 1.2 Beliefs about the Learning of English by Gender

Statements	French	English
The importance of the language in science	20	16
The necessity of the language to obtain a good job	19	16

importance of learning the mod-	4	3
---------------------------------	---	---

Table 1.3 Female Attitudes towards Learning French and English for a Specific Purpose

Elements	French	English
importance of the language in science	18	19
necessity of the language to obtain a good job	16	17
importance of learning the mod-	1	5

Table 1.4 Male Attitudes towards Learning French and English for a Specific Purpose

Elements	Males	Females
Participation	14	18
use of the language outside the class with teachers	7	13
use of the language with friends outside the class	14	17

Table 1.5 Willingness to use French by Gender

Elements	Males	Females
importance of the language in science	18	17
necessity of the language to obtain a good job	10	8
importance of learning the mod-	12	10

Table 1.6 Willingness to use English by gender

**Conclusion**

Students learning FSP and ESP seem to be motivated to deal with the foreign languages at the instructional and educational levels. Even though, gender differences are registered, some positive attitudinal criteria reveal that our re-

spondents need and are eager to tackle science and technology in both French and English. Foreign language use outside the class is not associated to negative attitudinal criteria. Remarkably, French use in everyday speech is associated to 'prestige' among girls mainly. Differences between attitudes towards French and English were registered in this investigation. English seems to be favoured and preferred to give access to science and technology in comparison to French. The latter, however, is better selected for communicating with friends and using the internet. Our informants' willingness to communicate in foreign languages or perform activities related to these languages varies between low and mid percentages. It would be interesting to investigate these same students over a period of time to discover whether their opinions and motivations change.

**Questionnaires**

**Language Attitudes:**

**Beliefs about English and learning aims:**

- 1- In Algeria everyone must learn English.
- 2- English is one of the most important languages in today's world.
- 3- It is very helpful in my studies and work that I can find anything on the internet in English.
- 4- I would like to know English well enough to be able to give the impression of a well-educated student with good English skills.
- 5- My aim with English is to make myself understood by foreigners coming from any part of the world.
- 6- My aim with English is to make myself understood by foreigners coming from any part of the world.

**English for Specific Purposes:**

- 1- In my studies English is important for me to be able to read the international scientific books.
- 2- In my studies English is necessary for one to get a good job.
- 3- In my studies the books published in English are the most important.
- 4- In my studies English is the most important module.

**Adjective Test:**

- 1- English is easy.



- 2- English is difficult.
- 3- English is scientific.
- 4- English is religious.
- 5- English is patriotic.
- 6- English is friendly.
- 7- English is harsh.
- 8- English is literary.
- 9- English is civilised.
- 10- English is practical.

#### Willingness to communicate in Foreign Languages:

- 1- Students in this school should learn many English phrases and idioms in order to have more Englishness in their speech.
- 2- I would like to reach a level that allows me to fully understand the lyrics of successful British song writers and singers.
- 3- I volunteer to answer or ask questions in class.
- 4- I participate in classroom activities.
- 5- I ask teachers questions or talk to them outside the class period.
- 6- I sometimes talk with friends or acquaintances outside school in English.

#### Multiple Choice Questions :

- 1- It is easy to speak English with friends.  
-In school -at home -outside the school  
- Others
- 2- Students who speak English outside the classroom are :  
-Arrogant -not nationalistic  
-good learners -harsh  
- Others
- 3- Students who participate in classes are :  
-Motivated to learn the language - want to improve in English  
-want to show off - Others
- 4- Watching news in English is  
- Interesting - necessary -not necessary  
- Obligation -Autres

## Igniting a Passion for Reading Literature in an EFL Learning Environment

إثارة الشغف لدراسة الأدب في إطار تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية

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Supervised by: Dr. Belabes Neddar and Dr. Yasmina Djafri

University of Mostaganem

#### Abstract

The study of the English literature is increasingly spreading around the globe in non-native English countries. The canonicity of English literature is looked upon with high regards for the exalted position it possesses universally. The varieties of its subjects, styles, reflections on life, magnitude, aesthetic beauty and the utility of language proficiencies made it gain a worldwide reputation. With all such reasons, the English literature is an integral part of the curriculum when teaching and studying English as a foreign language in non-native contexts. Despite its effectiveness, a loathing of literature seems to permeate the learning atmosphere.

**Key words:** difficulties in studying literature- strategies of reading-emotional intelligence- critical thinking.

أضحى الأدب الإنجليزي جزءاً لا يتجزأ ما في السيرة الذاتية عند تدريس اللغة وعلى الرغم من فعاليته، إلا أن الهروب من الأدب والعزوف عن قراءته أدى إلى الإخلال والإضرار بالتعليمي. و يكمن السبب من وراء نفور الطلبة من دراسة الأدب في جملة الصعوبات التي يواجهونها. انطلاقاً من الاستبيان الذي أجري مع طلبة السنة أولى ماستر على مستوى قسم اللغة والأدب الإنجليزي بجامعة معسكر.

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** صعوبات دراسة الأدب، استراتيجيات القراءة، الذكاء العاطفي، التفدي

#### Introduction

Research shows that there are more readers who can read and do not than do readers who can not at all. The motivation to read seems to drop drastically within the midst of university students as they are exposed to so many

الجمهورية الجزائرية الديمقراطية الشعبية  
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EL ISHĀS

## The Influence of Foreign Language Anxiety on Language Attitudes among ESP Students

Khetir Naïma, école Préparatoire en Sciences et Techniques de Tlemcen

### Abstract

This paper is a practical undertaking dealing with a sociolinguistic study of language attitudes based on research data obtained from first year students of Tlemcen Preparatory School in Technology and Techniques (EPST). Learners' evaluations are discussed to investigate their attitudes towards the learned foreign languages in accordance with their language anxiety. The findings indicate that first year students experienced fear and lack of confidence when performing foreign language class work. They also showed a negative evaluation, even though, the respondents expressed the idea that foreign languages, particularly English are necessary to have access to science and technology. It was widely recognized that the ability to communicate in French and English as English was a desirable skill, whether to further a career or for personal use. Gender difference appeared clearly when English was evaluated by girls, mainly at the level of actual performance. Foreign language anxiety, however, may hinder the learner's progress and proficiency in the target language.

### ملخص

هذه الورقة عملاً ميدانياً يتناول الجانب الاجتماعي اللغوي لمواقف اللغة استناداً إلى نتائج البحث التي تم الحصول عليها من طلاب السنة الأولى في مدرسة تضمنا التفضيرية في تلمسان (EPST). وتناقش تقييمات التدرسين للتخفيف في آرائهم بشأن اللغات الأجنبية. النتائج تشير إلى أن طلاب السنة الأولى شعروا بالخوف وعدم الثقة عند العمل بلغة أجنبية. وقد شعروا أيضاً بتقييم سلبي، على الرغم من أن اللغة الأجنبية وخاصة الإنجليزية ضرورية للوصول إلى العلم والمعرفة. وقد تم الاعتراف على نطاق واسع أن القدرة على التواصل باللغتين الفرنسية والإنجليزية هي مهارة مرغوبة، سواء لتتقدم في العمل أو للاستخدام الشخصي. وتظهر الفروق بين الجنسين بوضوح عند تقييم اللغة الإنجليزية، خاصة في مستوى الأداء. وقد لوحظ أن قلق اللغة الأجنبية قد يعيق تقدم المتعلم ومستوى إتقان اللغة المستهدفة.

### Introduction:

This article investigates the results of first year Preparatory School students' language learning anxiety and its influence on their language attitudes. The study is conducted in the Preparatory School in Sciences and Techniques (EPST). The students have French as the medium of instruction; they study modules such as: mathematics, physics and chemistry. They learn English and French an hour and a half a week in first and second years. The language teaching is related to science and technology.

The study involves 20 (twenty) female and 20 (twenty) males students. It should be noted that they come from different regions in Algeria, that is, the investigated students are heterogeneous. The proficiency of these languages is not the goal of learning per se but is seen as a means to achieve personal and social goals. It is suggested that language learning anxiety can have a negative impact on language attitudes as far as French and English learning are concerned. Learning English and French for specific purposes are important as school subjects, particularly as it is a subject that gives access to world science, technology and higher education. Moreover, the learners need to improve their language skills to learn the other modules and succeed in attaining their educational knowledge. It is hypothesized that the more positive learners' attitudes towards foreign language learning anxiety is expressed. Further, the study examines whether gender factors is effective on foreign language attitudes of students.

### Language Attitudes Theoretically:

One of the main points of interest of social psychology of language is to investigate what people believe about the distribution of language within their speech community, what attitudes they have towards the language and how they have arrived at and implement those beliefs.

Language learning as well as attitudes are related to the process of language selection. An individual is confronted to a source of information which is considered as the socio-cognitive parameter. Thus, the speaker chooses a behaviour that is closely related to the linguistic attitudes. This characterises the preference or rejection of a given



linguistic variety in a given learning situation.

### 1.1 Language Attitudes:

Language attitude analysis is dealt with in terms of value judgements and people's reactions towards mother tongues and educational media and institutions (schools and university). In other words, favourable and unfavourable opinions on languages are analysed.

#### 1.1.1 The Notion of Attitude:

According to Oxford English dictionary, attitude is defined as "a state of mind or thinking or behaving" (1993:65).

The word attitude derives from the Latin root 'aptus', meaning 'to be ready or fit'. As far as the sociolinguistic sphere is concerned, N. Dittmaier (1984) defines language attitudes as follows: "Language attitudes ask for the assessment and evaluation of speakers of linguistic varieties".

Language attitudes can be considered as long term phenomena that pertain to social psychology. This raises an issue of how linguistic varieties are evaluated. Fasold (1984:158) explains the evaluation of a linguistic variety as follows:

The evaluation of a variety is the fruit of experiences and judgments of a whole series of historical, social, economic, political and cultural implications that continuously interact with each other, turning the objective into subjective.

Social psychologists are interested in observing language varieties not only as objective socially neutral instruments for conveying messages but also as varieties linked up with the identities of social or ethnic groups and the consequences for the social evaluation of, and the attitudes towards, these groups.

#### 1.1.2 Language Attitude Theories:

Social psychology of language has shown criteria involved in speakers' judgements of languages. As pointed out in Fishman and Baker (1976:81-82)<sup>(1)</sup>, "Validation of attitude study is problematic because of the very nature of attitudes as properties of the psychological state of the individual".

One problem in evaluating the role of language attitudes is the difficulty in measuring the attitudes themselves. In other words, to what extent do the methods of evaluation reveal useful information for the investigation? The use of a questionnaire on attitudes is not a simple task. Thus, the following question can be asked: Do informants express their honest feelings in simple attitudes they think are more acceptable when they are asked about them in interviews? Labov (1966) discovered that people do not necessarily speak the way they say they do. Hence, one can consider the study of language attitudes remains probabilistic. Most people are not aware of the combination between linguistic criteria and judgement. It is preferable to elicit people's responses indirectly.

Language attitudes studies are based on both mentalist and behaviourist theories. This raises more issues of how to understand the relation of attitudes and language learning. So it is necessary to examine the views of social-psychologists and see how their approaches tackle characteristics of attitudes and social phenomena.

#### The Mentalist Theory (Allport, 1954):

In line with such a view, attitudes are as Allport<sup>(2)</sup> (1954:45) describes "a mental state of readiness organised through experience exerting a selective or dynamic influence upon the individual response to all objects with which it is related". Attitudes cannot be observed directly but can be inferred from the subject's introspection. This viewpoint raises questions that attitudes can be derived from given data that are not in a given way. For instance, many studies have demonstrated that the status and prestige of language varieties depend on the knowledge of the social contexts which they process. That is, "the use of dialects would reflect a sense of social preference, which reflects an awareness of the status of the speakers' minds." (Fasold, 1984).

#### The Behaviourist Theory (Bain, 1928):

According to the behaviourist theory, attitudes are determined by observable responses in social situations. For instance, Bain<sup>(2)</sup> (1928) asserts that attitudes are not regarded as a hypothetical construct that can be revealed

by verbal responses to a given set of stimuli". Attitudes, then, can be used to indicate other forms of behaviour that have a relation with preferences for a given language in everyday activities. For instance, an individual's language attitudes can be reflected in some activities or behaviour, such as a preference for a language in TV watching and radio listening as well as a selected variety in a given speech situation. Similarly, Edwards (1982:191) suggests that attitudes towards a language are often the reflection of attitudes towards people of various ethnic groups. He claims that "people's reactions to languages of various ethnic groups. He claims that "people's reactions to languages of various ethnic groups. He claims that "people's reactions to languages of various ethnic groups reveal much of their perception of the speakers of these various languages."

Le Page and Tabouret-Keller (1985) stress the importance of attitudes in the discussion of intergroup relations in the discussion of language attitudes and language use. For instance, language attitudes vary as the nature of intergroup relations. When relations change, status relationships and therefore perceptions of language attitudes and uses, change too. It is hypothesized that a person who identifies himself with the target language and the group that speaks it will have favourable attitudes to this language and to the group.

### 1.2 Educational Implication:

Many factors contribute to attitudes, motivation and learning. It is important that teachers do not base their work on theoretical assumptions but rather try to discover their learners' genuine motivations and environments in a relation to language learning. To learn a language is not to acquire knowledge of the use of this language only, but to share one's thoughts, motivation and beliefs with this medium.

#### 1.2.1 Lambert's Position:

A pioneer in the exploration of learner attitudes in relation to language learning, the Canadian psychologist Wallace Lambert (1964) proposed two types of orientation: integrative and instrumental.

An instrumental orientation to learning stresses the attainment of L2 proficiency, of which getting a pay raise or a better job or a promotion in school are examples. In contrast, an orientation is said to be integrative if it reflects an openness toward another culture group, an openness

and a desire to be accepted as a member of that group.

The point is that the purpose for which a given language is learned can have an impact on the learner's judgements about languages. Hence, the present research aims at discovering language learning –instrumental orientation's influence on learners' language attitudes whereby the individual's opinions are taken into account. Besides, another issue can seek not only what people think about languages but what they do as well. This can be sought in terms of what people perform such as the newspapers they read, the TV programs they watch as well as the variety they use in speech situations for various purposes.

According to Lambert (1964), attitudes have been considered in terms of following components:

The cognitive component refers to one's beliefs about objects and situations.

The affective component refers to the amount of positive or negative feelings towards such a situation.

The conative component refers to one's behavioural intentions, or to one's intention towards the object.

The first criteria are concerned with the individual's behaviour, feelings and manner of acting. A person classifies a language on the basis of these criteria which can be considered as an "evaluative scale". The evaluation of languages lies in the conscience of individuals, forming part of the social world. They are made up of a series of opinions shared by a community. It can be suggested that the greater degree of student unfamiliarity with the evaluation of foreign languages is, the more unfavourable their attitude will be.

Sex role indices are included in most sociolinguistic studies.

Sex role is an important social attribute in social interaction.

It is based on the fact that men and women are biologically different and play different social roles. Hence, one can suggest that sex



roles affect speakers' attitudes towards languages. For instance, a recent pattern has emerged in languages that have a distinction between non-standard and standard forms (Labov, 1966). In fact, females use high and standard forms more often than males do. Thus, 'the sex prestige pattern' has been found in many studies such as that of Labov (1990) which gives examples from English, Canadian, French, Spanish and other studies. This pattern is explained by Hudson (1998:193) as follows:

The sex prestige pattern: In any society where males and females have equal access to the standard forms, females use standard variants of a language variable which is socially stratified for both sexes more often than males do.

Females are attracted by 'sophisticated' speech. Generally speaking, sociological studies have demonstrated that women are more status conscious than men. For this reason, they are, presumably, more sensitive to the social significance of linguistic media (Trudgill, 1974). Gender and prestige have been related in studies of the speech patterns. In British English Penelope Brown observed that more working class women adopted the standard dialect than men. Other areas in which this has been observed include New Zealand and Guangdong in China. Trudgill suggests that for men, there is a strong association with speaking the working class dialect. In fact, he observed that men speak a 'less' prestigious dialect than that which they actually use. According to this interpretation then, Trudgill (1978:122) noted that 'women's use of prestige features simply conforms to the ordinary social order, while men deviate from what is expected.' Whatever the case, across cultures seem more likely than men to modify their speech to use a prestige dialect. Though women use prestige dialects more frequently than men, the same gender preference for prestige languages does not always exist. Henceforth, it can be hypothesised that males may show more language learning anxiety than females do.

**1.4 Foreign Language Anxiety:**

Foreign language anxiety has been a topic of interest in the recent years (Ellis, 2008) mainly the 1980s witnessed the best of the studies on foreign language learning anxiety (Wang, 2014). It is

an important factor that can influence language attitudes. According to Horwitz and Gardner (1994), foreign language anxiety "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, such as speaking, listening and learning" is different from a general feeling of anxiety. Therefore, it keeps learners from reaching their goals (Horwitz, 1986). This can suggest that learners with high anxiety often show unfavourable attitudes towards the foreign languages.

**Definition:**

Horwitz et al. (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as "a distinct form of self-perceptions, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process. In communication apprehension, foreign language learners have difficulty in speaking but also comprehending messages from others (Horwitz et al., 1986). In other words, learners have difficulty in understanding others or in being understood.

**Foreign Language Anxiety Theoretically:**

Foreign language anxiety is closely related to communication apprehension. Horwitz et al. (1986) classifies foreign language anxiety into three categories: communication apprehension, which arises from learners' inability to adequately express thoughts and ideas. negative social evaluation, which arises from a learner's need to create a positive social impression on others. and communication apprehension about academic evaluation. In communication apprehension, foreign language learners have difficulty in speaking but also comprehending messages from others. In negative social evaluation, learners have difficulty in understanding others or in being understood. Foreign language anxiety is closely related to communication apprehension (Horwitz and Gardner, 1991).

Horwitz and Gardner (1991) found that communication apprehension and negative social evaluation were the main factors in foreign language an-

xiety, while test anxiety was just a general problem, and it was not related to the foreign language anxiety.

The main cause of anxiety stems from "learners' unrealistic and erroneous beliefs about language learning" (Zhang and Zheong, 2011). Some learners think they lack the aptitude or gift to learn a new language (Price, 1991), some believe that two years or less is sufficient to become proficient in another language (Horwitz, 1988) without considering the difficulty of the language learning task, and therefore, they could experience conflict resulted in anxiety.

Learners are required to communicate and speak high expectations in public that cause anxiety. The fear of falling short of these expectations hinder the learning process (Rajanthran, 2013). Anxious learners' language skills, especially speaking skills, are weaker than their peers (Young, 1991) because of perceiving speaking ability as the most difficult skill. Classroom-related anxiety is associated with instructors, peers and practises. Instructors who believe their role is to correct students who feel that they cannot have students working in pairs because they may get out of control and may be contributing to learner language anxiety (Young).

The evaluation or criticisms from peers is also a major cause of anxiety (Cornway, 2007). Young (1991) found that anxious learners' language skills were weaker than their peers' and they were often looked down at them. In addition, anxious learners are scared because they are appearing awkward, foolish and incompetent in the eyes of their peers (Koch and Terrell, 1991), which makes the classroom environment formal and stressful for the learners. However, Hashemi and Hashemi (2010) reported language learners to be less anxious and stressful in classrooms which emphasize collaborative activities among the teachers and students. Students with high levels of foreign language anxiety exhibit maladaptive behaviour (Gregersen and Horwitz, 2002), it is essential to find out the causes of foreign language anxiety and reduce the undesired effects in foreign language learning.

to create a low anxiety classroom for the learners (Young, 1991).

#### Preparatory Schools

The students are enrolled in Preparatory School in Technology and Engineering (Yousef). Students must study two preparatory years, at the end of the second year, if they pass they are oriented to different technological fields such as electronics, public works, hydraulics...ect. They have to study two years in one of these branches to finish as engineers. These students study English and French for Specific Purpose (ESP) and (FSP) one hour and a half a week during the two first years, they tackle the study of language through a field that is already known and relevant to them. ESP focuses on language in context and gives less importance to grammar and linguistic structures. It covers subjects varying from science or computer technology and some grammatical structures. For instance, the ESP programme in English is not taught as a subject separated from the student's field of study, it is rather integrated into a subject matter area important to the student. An ESP programme might, for example, emphasize the development of reading skills with students who are preparing for graduate work in computer technology.

The learning environment enhances skills for communication. Students acquire language when they have opportunities to use the language in interaction with their peers. Thus the teacher can structure effective communication in the classroom. ESP and FSP learners study languages when they have to use it to understand and work with language in a context that they find interesting. The aim of the teacher, then, is selecting and organizing course materials, supporting the students in their learning and providing them with feedback on their progress. It is suggested that students pay attention to the meaning of the language they hear and use. When they are successful, the more they are motivated to speak the language. Since language learning continues naturally throughout the life span, ESP and FSP learners are constantly expanding vocabulary, becoming more confident in their fields, and adjusting their linguistic behaviour to the requirements of new roles. So they can exploit these innate competencies



in learning English and French. Furthermore, students' potential is not fully utilized when designing a syllabus with realistic goals that takes into account the students' 'concern' in the learning situation. Henceforth, one can suggest that the students are not well-acquainted with the ESP domain, therefore they are more sensitive to foreign language anxiety.

**1.5 Research Objectives:**

To fulfill the purpose of the study, the following research questions were asked:

1. What is the student anxiety level to each foreign language respectively among students who are in first year preparatory school as beginners?
2. On what underlying criteria do these students base their anxiety?
3. What language attitudes can be revealed?
4. To what degree does foreign language anxiety of students influence their language attitudes?
5. Do gender aspects vary among students?

**1.6 Methodology:**

Twenty male and twenty female informants are selected among first year students. A survey model is used for the present study and data is collected using a questionnaire. The adjectives tests and multiple choice questions as well as direct statements are administered in order to discover the way the value judgments that students associate with languages. The questionnaire includes personal information. It is worth mentioning that each question is written in Standard Arabic as the informants are familiar with it.

The questionnaire consists of three parts and is as follow:

- 1- Indirect questionnaires: a- Closed-ended question  
b- The adjective test

1-Language Attitudes Tests : (Adapted from Labov's studies (1972) and his classification(1968) and Gumpers (1966).

Indirect questions:	Statements:
1- French is easy	-French is easy
2- English is easy	-English is easy
3- French is difficult	-French is difficult
4- English is difficult	-English is difficult
5- French/English is necessary for scientific branches	- French/English is necessary for scientific branches
6- In Algeria everyone must learn English	- In Algeria everyone must learn English
7- English is one of the most important languages in today's world.	- English is one of the most important languages in today's world.
8- It is very helpful in my studies and work that I can find anything on the internet in English.	- It is very helpful in my studies and work that I can find anything on the internet in English.
9- I would like to know English well enough to be able to give the impression of a well-educated student with good English skills.	- I would like to know English well enough to be able to give the impression of a well-educated student with good English skills.
10- My aim with English is to make myself understood by foreigners coming from any part of the world.	- My aim with English is to make myself understood by foreigners coming from any part of the world.
11- scientific	-scientific
12- religious	-religious
13- patriotic	-patriotic
14- friendly	-friendly
15- harsh	-harsh
16- literary	-literary
17- civilised	-civilised
18- practical	-practical

19- Multiple Choice Questions and Adjective Test

**2- Foreign Language Anxiety Test:**

The test is a closed-ended question one. The test uses three degrees ranging from agree, no opinion and disagree. It was adapted from Horwitz (1986). This test aims at measuring learner's feelings of anxiety and reaction to foreign language learning in the classroom.

a- Closed-ended questions:	-I never feel sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class
Aims of the statements: -Communication apprehension	-I don't worry about making mistakes in language class -It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language -I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class -I would not be nervous when I speak in the foreign language with native speakers
-Fear of negative evaluation	-During language class I feel nervous about thinking about things that I have to do with the foreign language -I keep thinking that my classmates are better at learning the foreign language than I am -I am usually at ease when I speak in my language class -I feel confident in a foreign language class

Table 1.2 Closed-ended Questions

**Discussion and Analysis:**

**Method:**  
Data was collected using questionnaires without letting the subjects know the purpose of the investigation. They were administered in Arabic and used to be the learners' medium of instruction. The fieldwork data was collected among young first year students aged between 19 and 22 years, 20 respondents, 20 girls and 20 boys. One reason for focusing on first year students is that new learners in this kind of institution react more strongly to the process of language categorisation in relation to their self-esteem and confidence.

**Attitude about French and English Learning:**

The results reveal that our male and female respondents seem to agree with the superiority of both French and English as well as their superiority in terms of scientific and knowledge. Unlike girls, half of male students express their willingness to use French in their daily life to give the impression of being a sophisticated person, which was not the case with English. Remarkably, the results show their willingness to communicate with foreigners in both languages. Higher rates were recorded for English as far as this evaluation is concerned (Tables 1 and 1.2)

**Attitude Adjective test:**

When the adjective test is concerned, the majority of both groups considered French as easy. Both media were recognised as scientific, even though a small number of respondents did not tick this criterion for French. This judgement was probably held to show more prominence for the English language. French was not evaluated as religious. Gender difference appeared when it comes to the evaluation of French as such the majority of respondents agreed with it, as English was recognised as such the majority of respondents did not agree on this. Surprisingly enough, the same number of girls saw that French was 'patriotic'. This is probably because of the frequent use of French in communication in Arabic. Both languages were associated with likeable status. However, the results show that the use of 'practical' rather than the unlikeable one was not very low ratings.



Female respondents seem to prefer to relate English rather than to high status 'civilised'; as only half of them selected this trait for Prestige feature as described by Trudgill (1995) appeared to be selected by males when standard status is tackled for a world language which is (cf tables 1.1 and 1.2).

**c) Foreign Language Anxiety Test:**

As far as communication apprehension is concerned students do not agree on the familiar symptoms in language anxiety which are: a lack of confidence, a reluctance to speak. Actually, the majority of both groups selected 'yes' box for four statements describing fear and hesitation in either French or English in classroom courses (Elaine Horwitz, 1986) (cf tables 1.3 and 1.4). Nonetheless, students appear to be split too and established a correlation between lack of anxiety and achievement in language as half of girls and nearly the same number of boys do not speak when they do not understand the teacher in class and speak without hesitation in a foreign language course.

Unlike girls more boys prefer to communicate using French than English. Lower ratings were shown with English. This, probably, happened because females feel more prestige with English as found in language anxiety and language anxiety that was expressed above did not seem to be related to communicating with foreigners is dealt with; as both genders expressed a wish to communicate in English. Here, positive language attitudes do not corroborate with language performance.

Moreover, gender feature appears in foreign class participation as more girls than boys would show willingness to take part in classroom activities. This happened, probably, because girls are more involved to an actual use of the foreign language to develop oral skills.

As far as negative evaluation of the learner's self-confidence is concerned, more boys than girls do not feel self-confident in a foreign language. Particularly, when dealing with tests girls are more self-reliant than boys. This was not necessarily manifested with students who were good in English. It could simply happen with girls who were making more than boys.

Thus more females express more confidence and better easiness with foreign language use than males do.

**CONCLUSION:**

Students learning FSP and ESP seem to be motivated to deal with the foreign languages at the instructional and educational levels. Even though, when responses are registered, some positive attitudinal criteria reveal that students need and are eager to tackle science and technology in English and mainly in English. Getting over the self-esteem issues implied that students requires more practice and participation, but that is what language anxiety blocks students from doing. What it affects is students' willingness to participate in class, which may ultimately affect their learning. Even though, both girls and boys expressed their fear and anxiety about foreign language experience in the most general terms, they are still sensitive to foreign language use and its 'prestigious' status in relation to English.

El Ishaaf (1976).

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كلية الآداب والعلوم والفنون

جامعة مصر



# كوكب الإشعاع

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