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**Issues in the Algerian Language Education Policy:
The Case of Introducing English to Third Graders**

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to:

To my beloved parents, especially to my mother, my pillar of strength.

To my lovely siblings and to my friends Zahira, Saida, Fatima, and Hidayet, for their unwavering aid and support.

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Abstract

One of the crucial concerns involved in language studies is introducing English in the Algerian primary school. In fact, a number of elements influence the implementation of a specific language education policy. The current research work aims at highlighting issues associated with the recent ministerial orientation to introduce English to third graders. To achieve this end, an exploratory case study was conducted. Different research instruments were used as a means of data triangulation to inform the research questions, namely questionnaires, observation and document analysis. Each instrument contributed in gaining a grasp of the topic. The findings revealed that the main hurdles facing the implementation of English in the primary school include psychological challenges associated with learners, large class size, quality of teacher training programmes for newly recruited personnel, inadequate parental support, lack of teaching/learning materials, and a challenge to build on CBA in English classes. Accordingly, the findings revealed that this education reform is over ambitious due to limited instructional resources and expanding school population. Likewise, there is a gap between this education policy requirements and teacher preparation.

Table of Contents

Dedication	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Abstract	iv
List of Tables and Figures	vii
List of Acronyms and Abbreviations	ix
General Introduction	1
CHAPTER ONE: Literature Review	
1.1. Introduction	5
1.2 General Concepts	5
1.2.1. Acquisition Planning	5
1.2.2. The Concept of Bilingualism.....	6
1.2.3 Diglossia.....	7
1.2.4. L1, L2, and L3.....	9
1.2.5. The Concept of Linguistic Interference/ Transfer	10
1.2.6. Defining Teacher Education and Training	11
1.2.7. Defining Instructional Materials.....	12
1.3. Salient Challenges in TEFL.....	12
1.3.1. Age	12
1.3.2. Psychological Challenges	13
1.3.3. Pedagogical Challenges.....	14
1.3.3.1. Teacher Education and Training	14
1.3.3.2. Class Size	15
1.3.4. Social Challenges	16
1.4. Language Contact Repercussions.....	16
1.4.1. Bilingualism	16
1.4.2. Diglossic Impact on Quality Education.....	17
1.4.3. Linguistic Interference/ Transfer	18
1.5. Teachers' Characteristics.....	19
1.5.1. Professional Competence	19
1.4.2. Teachers as Language Policy Planners.....	21
1.6. Teaching/Learning Process	22
1.6.1. Syllabus	22

1.6.2. Instructional Materials.....	23
1.6.2.1. Traditional Resources.....	23
1.6.2.2. Graphic Organizers.....	24
1.6.2.3. Teacher-Made Resources.....	25
1.6.2.4. Audio-visual Materials.....	25
1.6.3. Competency-Based Approach.....	27
1.7. Conclusion.....	28
CHAPTER TWO: Research Methodology and Findings	
2.1. Introduction.....	29
2.2. Part I: Methodological Framework.....	29
2.2.1. Research Design.....	29
2.2.3. Research Instruments.....	30
2.2.3.1. Questionnaires.....	31
2.2.3.2. Observation.....	31
2.2.3.3. Document Analysis.....	32
2.2.2. Sample & Sampling.....	34
2.3 Part Two: Analysis & Discussion.....	36
2.3.1. Data Analysis & Interpretation.....	36
2.3.1.1. Parents' Questionnaire.....	36
2.3.1.2. Teachers' Questionnaire.....	41
2.3.1.3 Observation Analysis.....	49
2.3.1.4 Findings of Document Analysis.....	50
2.3.2. Discussion of Main Findings.....	51
2.4 Conclusion.....	55
General Conclusion.....	56
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	59
APPENDICES.....	74
Appendix A.....	75
Appendix B.....	77
Appendix C.....	80
Appendix D.....	82
Appendix E.....	84

List of Tables and Figures

Table 1.1. The Nine Rubrics of Diglossia (Britto, 1986; as cited in Hamzaoui, 2017)..7	7
Table 1.2. The Relationships between Bilingualism and Diglossia (Fishman, 1967)...8	8
Table 2.1 The Hourly Volume of Pre-service Training.....34	34
Table 2.2 The Hourly Volume of In-service Training.....35	35
Table 2.3. Database for Teachers' age.....35	35
Figure 1.1. Affective Filter Diagram, from Krashen's Article (1982)13	13
Figure 1.2. Compétence Professionnelle (Boudreault, 2002).....20	20
Figure 2.1. Research Plan.....30	30
Figure 2.2 Parents' Language Preferences for their Children.....36	36
Figure 2.3 Reasons behind Parents' language Preferences for their Children.....37	37
figure 2.4 Parents' Perspectives on Introducing English in Primary School.....37	37
Figure 2.5 Academic Results of Respondents' Children.....38	38
Figure 2.6 Participants' Perspective on Their Children's Satisfaction of School.....38	38
Figure2.7 Respondents' Perspectives on Learning English Alongside French.....39	39
Figure 2.8 Participants' Perspectives on the Effect of Introducing Two Foreign Languages Simultaneously.....39	39
Figure 2.9 Participants' Perspectives on the Impact of Introducing Two Foreign Languages Simultaneously to Young Learners Using Standard Arabic.....40	40
Figure 2.10 Participants' Language Preferences for the programmes their Children Watch.....40	40

Figure 2.11 Teachers' Views on the Hourly Volume of (pre- and in-service) Training.....	41
Figure 2.12 Teacher's Degree of Satisfaction with Training Programmes.....	42
Figure 2.13 Teachers' Views on Training Programmes.....	42
Figure 2.14 The Focus of Teachers' Training Programmes.....	43
Figure 2.15 Teachers' Views on the Importance Placed on Teachers' Roles in the Training.....	44
Figure 2.16 Challenges Facing Teachers when Teaching Third Graders.....	44
Figure 2.17 Teachers' Descriptions of Syllabus.....	45
Figure 2.19 The Variety of Arabic Teachers Rely on to Explain.....	46
Figure 2.20 Teachers' Views on the extent to Which Arabic Affects Learners' Academic Achievement.....	47
Figure 2.21 Teachers' Views on how the use of Arabic Impacts learners' academic achievement.....	47
Figure 2.22 Forms of Linguistic Interference among Learners.....	47
Figure 2.23 Teachers' Views on Introducing Third Graders to Two Foreign Languages Simultaneously.....	48

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

AP: acquisition planning

CBA: competency-based approach

CBC: competency-based curriculum

CBLT: competency-based language teaching

CPH: critical period hypothesis

L1; first language

L2: second language

L3: third language

SLA: Second language acquisition

TEFL: teaching English as a foreign language

3PS: third grade primary school

General Introduction

Language planning in Algeria is a polemic matter and a state of affairs which generates hot debates. This is due to the existence of four competing codes, namely Arabic and Berber which are official languages, and French and English which have no constitutional mention but still fulfil important functions. With regard to foreign languages, there has been a harsh competition between French and English in the last three years with an apparent political support to English at the cost of French. Although English has been able to generate positive attitudes, French is still dominant in some prestigious domains. This makes the implementation of English in such domains challenging, especially in education. Because of the current developments in Algeria's language education policy, a few studies have considered the evolving role of English in the education system. The present dissertation is basically concerned with the introduction of English in the primary school, focussing on the main issues facing the different players (teachers, learners and parents).

In the mid-1990s, the Ministry of National Education made a significant step vis-à-vis foreign languages in the primary school when pupils were given the option to choose which foreign language (English or French) to study starting from the fourth grade. The choice of English or French was made on a parental decision. Of course, there were those who opted for French and those who chose English, though the highest percentage was in favour of French. This policy was soon abandoned and French found a free ground from which English was discarded. Such new education orientation was motivated by a variety of reasons, not least political factors. In recent years, calls to promote English in the Algerian education system surfaced, and English could be once more introduced in the third grade.

Therefore, the present research work circles issues of acquisition planning (hereafter, AP) in the Algerian primary school. Focus will be on the dilemma of introducing young learners to three different languages. Standard Arabic, which is actually not the true mother tongue, plays the role of medium of instruction; French and

English are two compulsory subjects of instruction introduced simultaneously in the third grade. This situation will produce, in the normal conditions, simultaneous late bilinguals. Also, a language education policy of such a kind has challenges facing its effective implementation, especially that a high cognitive load will be placed on young pupils. It should be noted that this ministerial measure was taken with no recourse to the attitudes of those who are directly concerned, i.e., pupils, parents and teachers. It goes without saying that policy-formation should take account of social attitudes before any implementation stage.

Thus, this research is driven by the following research questions:

1. What challenges face introducing English to the primary school?
2. Have the newly recruited EFL teachers received an effective teaching pre-service training?
3. Being essential elements in language education policy, are EFL teaching/learning materials suitable to young learners?

The above stated research questions trigger the following hypotheses:

1. The implementation of English in the primary school is challenging vis-à-vis the age of learners who are introduced to three different linguistic systems, namely, Standard Arabic, English and French.
2. The newly recruited EFL teachers did not receive enough pre-service training to teach English for third graders as recruitment did not consider the main standards.
3. The teaching/learning materials are not well designed to accommodate the needs of third graders as they were only elaborated after a hasty unexpected political decision.

As for the general layout, the dissertation is made up of two chapters. The first chapter provides the theoretical background of the study, reviewing the related literature. This includes a consideration of basic concepts, including acquisition planning, simultaneous bilingualism, and instructional materials. The second chapter is divided into two parts. The first part furnishes a summary of the methodology framework guiding this research. This includes a description and justification of the research design, sampling techniques, data collection instruments, and research ethics, limitations and

delimitations. The second part deals with data analysis and discussion. It is a space to confirm or disconfirm the research hypotheses and to answer the early raised questions.

Chapter

1

Literature Review

Chapter One: Literature Review

1.1. Introduction

This chapter is devoted to providing a theoretical foundation for the study. It first scopes general concepts including acquisition planning, instructional materials, and other fundamental terms. Then it proceeds thematically as follows: highlighting challenges in TEFL, as well as, language contact repercussions, it also elaborates on teacher's characteristics and the difficulties encountered in teaching/ learning process. The end is to shed light on language education policy issues.

1.2 General Concepts

As stated above, this section is dedicated to reviewing general concepts in language education policy that are associated with the research purpose.

1.2.1. Acquisition Planning

Acquisition planning (henceforth, AP) is considered as the third dimension of language planning and policy (LPP), introduced by Cooper (1989) alongside Kloss' traditional categories of 'status' and 'corpus' planning (1968). Given that AP is "directed towards increasing the number of users, speakers, listeners, writers, or readers." (Cooper, 1989: p33), it is concerned with language spread (Spolsky & Shohamy, 1999). In the concrete, AP has been proceeding forward as a concept particularly used in language education, thus Kaplan and Bauldauf (1997) coined the term 'language in education policy' (language education policy in Spolsky, 2004). The fundamental tasks are selecting the language of instruction besides the range of second/foreign languages to be offered in the curriculum. AP wherefore, indicates "efforts to influence the allocation of users or the distribution of languages, by means of creating or improving opportunity or incentive to learn them, or both." (Hornberger, 1994: p78). Such efforts are undertaken by governmental bodies (in terms of macro planning), or other stakeholders such as parents (micro planning). The relationship between schools, community, and family is therefore, vital in settling a language policy progress (Tollefson, 2002a).

1.2.2. The Concept of Bilingualism

The identification of bilinguals in the research has typically recognized difficulty in defining bilingualism. The term chiefly, indicates “knowing” two languages (Valdez and Figueora, 1994). However, defining what it means to “know” a language is an extreme challenge. The concept thus, requires consensus and has no clear definition (Harmer and Blanc, 2000).

Weinreich -one of the pioneers of bilingual studies and a bilingual himself- provides one of the succinct definitions: “the practice of alternately using two languages will be called bilingualism, and the person involved, bilingual.” (1968: p1). Mackey (1970: p555) put forward a definition of bilingualism in his paper ‘the description of bilingualism’ that takes Weinreich’s alternate use of two languages:

It seems obvious that if we are to study the phenomenon of bilingualism, we are forced to consider it as something entirely relative. We must moreover include the use not only of two languages, but also any number of languages. We shall therefore, consider bilingualism as the alternate use of two or more languages by the same individual.

Saunders (1982) suggests a more comprehensive definition, stating that “bilingualism implies the ability to use more than one language that are used and the contexts in which they are brought into play.” (p.30). Bilingualism is at the crossroads of multiple fields such as linguistic and educational policy, psycholinguistics, sociology, education and neuroscience (Boetens Beardsmore, 2009; Shin, 2017; Baker, Prys Jones, 1998), experts in each discipline define the term according to their research (Cenoz, 2013). Interdisciplinary collaboration amongst these fields is necessary to establish an all-encompassing definition that is shaped by variables like age, way of acquisition, domains of use, degree of language proficiency (Bialystok, 2015; Grosjean, 2014; Li, 2000). Valdés and Figueroa (1994; as cited in Baker, 2001) divided bilinguals into categories based on:

- 1) Age (simultaneous/ sequential/ late).

- 2) Ability (incipient/ receptive/ productive).
- 3) Balance of two languages.
- 4) Development (ascendant- second language is developing; recessive -one language is decreasing).
- 5) Contexts where each language is acquired and used (e.g., home, school)

1.2.3 Diglossia

The term diglossia was first brought into discussion by William Marçais (1930) in his book “La Diglossie Arabe” (Paulston & Tucker, 2003: p343), then by Charles A. Ferguson (1959). Later on, the concept was extended by Joshua Fishman (1967). Ferguson defines diglossia as the situation in which two varieties of one language coexist in a society with each serving a specific purpose. He lists nine rubrics (criteria) of diglossia:

Table 1.1. The Nine Rubrics of Diglossia (Britto, 1986; as cited in Hamzaoui, 2017)

Rubrics	Characteristics of H:	Characteristics of L:
Function:	Used for formal speeches, writing, and such (H)igh functions	Used for conversations and such (L)ow functions.
Prestige:	More prestigious.	Less prestigious
Acquisition:	Learned formally at school, in addition to L.	Acquired naturally and informally at home or playground.
Standardization:	Highly standardized by descriptive and normative studies.	Poorly standardized, though informal standards may exist.
Literary heritage:	Vast amount. Highly esteemed literature.	Small amount. Less highly esteemed literature.
Stability:	Autonomous and stable, with some interference from L.	Autonomous and stable, with some interference from H.

Lexicon:	The bulk of the vocabulary is shared exclusively or paired with L. But there are also words used	The bulk of the vocabulary is shared with H. But there are also words used exclusively or paired with H.
Phonology:	With L, constitutes a single phonological structure. Features divergent from L are a subsystem or a parasystem.	With H constitutes a single phonology structure. L, however is the basic system.
Grammar:	More complex.	Simpler

Fishman (1967) expanded the definition of the term diglossia to encompass instances in which speakers of two genetically unrelated (or at least historically distant) languages coexist in the same speech community. A society, for him, may have a language that is used in formal settings and another language or languages that are used in informal contexts. Fishman incorporated several combinations of diglossic and bilingual situations (see table 1.2).

Table 1.2. The Relationships between Bilingualism and Diglossia (Fishman, 1967)

	<u>Diglossia</u>	
	+	-
<u>Bilingualism</u>		
+	1. Both diglossia and bilingualism	2. Bilingualism without diglossia
-	3. Diglossia without bilingualism	4. Neither diglossia nor Bilingualism

The first quadrant in table 1.2. ‘both diglossia and bilingualism’ indicates societies where two linguistic varieties are functionally distributed as in diglossia (Fishman, 1987, pp.6-7). ‘Diglossia without bilingualism’ is a situation where one group of speakers controls the H, while another group of speakers controls the L, whereas ‘bilingualism without diglossia’ occurs when bilingual speakers use either language for any purpose, and one variety may dominate and replace the other (Fishman, 2003,

pp.363-364). ‘Neither bilingualism nor diglossia’ refers to a situation in which only one variety is used, resulting in a monolingual speech community. Groups like these “are easier to hypothesise than to find.” (Fishman, 2003: p64).

1.2.4. L1, L2, and L3

Any language acquired during infancy is considered a first language (L1), any language encountered after infancy is a second language (L2). The term L2 is occasionally used to refer to any language other than L1 learned by a learner or a group of learners, regardless of how many other non-native languages the learners possess (Sharowood Smith, 1994) “it is sensible to include ‘foreign’ languages under our more general term of ‘second’ language, because we believe that the underlying learning processes are essentially the same for more local and more remote target languages, despite differing in learning purposes and circumstances.” (Mitchell and Myles, 1998:2).

Conversely, a number of research on the acquisition of third language (L3) have highlighted a qualitative distinction between the learning of chronologically true second language (L2) i.e., the very first language learned after the mother tongue (L1), and the ensuing learning of an L3 (Bardel and Falk, 2012). Leung (2007; p95) states,

third language (L3) acquisition was once subsumed under the field of second language acquisition (SLA) in which a ‘second’ language meant any non-native language acquired beyond the first. In recent years, a number of researchers have started to look seriously at the phenomenon of L3 as a separate domain of inquiry.

Simply put, the initial state of L1 acquisition indicates a natural capacity and desire for language acquisition, however, when considering the ‘initial state’ for L2 learning, the prior knowledge of L1 cannot be neglected (Savill-Troike, 2012). Hammerberg (2001: p22) asserts that “..we will use the term L3 for the language that is currently being acquired, and L2 for any other language the person has acquired after L1.”

1.2.5. The Concept of Linguistic Interference/ Transfer

Communication between two (or more) systems results in interference (James, 1998; Toury, 1978). According to Weinreich, interference refers to “those instances of deviation from norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language i.e., as a result of language contact.” (1968: p1). However, Mackey (1970: p569) mentions no ‘norm’ or ‘deviation’ in his definition: “Interference is the use of features belonging to one language while speaking or writing another.”. Similarly, Grosjean (1982) favours a neutral definition of interference: “The involuntary influence of one language on the other.” (p.299).

This phenomenon is primarily defined as learners’ or speakers’ attempt to transfer knowledge from one language to another (Weinreich, 1953). Language transfer occurs during or after the process of language learning or acquisition. It is also referred to as cross-linguistic influence, or linguistic interference (Amin, 2017). There are two types of transfer: Positive and negative, Richards and Schmidt (2013) asserted that “Positive transfer is learning in one situation which helps or facilitates learning in another later situation. Negative transfer is learning in one situation which interferes with learning another later situation.” (p.607) i.e., negative transfer occurs when speakers or learners transfer elements that are different from those in the target language, demonstrating a lack of linguistic knowledge.

Interference is referred to as an effect of negative transfer (Callis, 2015: 130). Positive transfer is defined as the assistance of first language in the acquisition of second language, whereas negative transfer, also known as interference, results in errors in the learners’ production (Ringborn, 1987: p58). Language interference is the outcome of having two simultaneously active languages by the inhibition of the language that is performed inappropriately or the enhancement of the activation of the language learners/speakers intend to use (Gutierrez et al, 2012). Simply, language transfer is the process by which one language’s understanding affects another language’s understanding (Ellis, 1997: p51).

1.2.6. Defining Teacher Education and Training

At first glance, the etymological distinction between teacher professional education and teacher training appears unimportant, but modern definitions call for a fresh analysis of the two concepts. Rowntree (1981: p313) noted that the term teacher education,

...is wider than teacher-training in that it includes not simply a teacher's vocational training (whether initial, pre-service training, or subsequent in-service training) but also whatever general post-secondary education he has that contributes to his growth as a person regardless of his future profession. Thus, teacher education courses include the study of one or more academic disciplines as well as educational subjects and supervised teaching practice.

Training, on the other hand, is,

The systematic development in a person of the knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary for him to be able to perform adequately in a job or task whose demands can be reasonably well identified in advance and that requires a fairly standardized performance from whoever attempts it. (ibid: p327)

Hills (1982) claims that education is primarily concerned with the acquisition of knowledge, while training is more concerned with the application of knowledge (p.273). Thus, education encompasses an individual's total intellectual, emotional, and social development. It further, incorporates the philosophical, professional, and pedagogical components of teacher preparation programme. In contrast, the term training is more narrowly defined as systematic standardized, job-related, result-oriented practices. As a result, training entails activities related to the mechanical, technical and vocational aspects of teaching process; tasks that are accurately described as rote, ritualistic, or repetitive (Patrick O'Neill, 1986).

1.2.7. Defining Instructional Materials

Faize and Dahan (2011; as cited in Bukoye, 2019) define instructional materials as both print and non-print items that are intended to influence students' learning; some examples include prints, textbooks, slides, and electronic media. According to Onyeachu (2010), instructional materials are tools and means for making the teaching and learning process easy, understandable, and meaningful. Babalola (2004) asserts that instructional resources are designed to facilitate and support effective teaching and learning activities. Instructional materials are hence, essential tools for teachers at all levels of education to use in order to provide effective instruction and promote student academic progress.

Teaching materials are alternative channels of communication that a teacher can employ to condense knowledge and make it more compelling for students (Dike, 1987). These are essential components of learning and curriculum cannot be easily executed without them (Lockhead, 1991). For Kochhar (1991) among the instructional materials required for effective teaching and learning; chalkboard, models, graphs, charts, maps, pictures, diagrams, cartoons, slides, filmstrips, radio and television. The significance of using these materials cannot be overstated.

1.3. Salient Challenges in TEFL

This section discusses the elements that contribute to successful or unsuccessful English language teaching and learning.

1.3.1. Age

Age which is regarded as essential in language acquisition and language learning, triggers a hot debate among researchers. Some findings contend that the possibility of learning a language is limited to years before puberty (critical period hypothesis) (Penfield & Roberts, 1959; Lenneberg, 1969), while short-term studies (e.g., Larsen-Freeman, 1991) favour old learners.

Penfield and Roberts (1959) assume that early childhood is the superior period to language learning. Lenneberg (1967) refined critical period hypothesis (hereafter, CPH),

asserting that children’s brains are more flexible. He conceived the term ‘Lateralization’¹ which declares that puberty is the age when human’s biological change influence language processing in the brain’s left hemisphere. This was rejected in Krashen (1973) as he posits that lateralization of the brain is complete before the age of puberty, and the process develops during first language acquisition, as early as age five. CPH was refuted in several studies and researches (e.g., Birdsong, 1992; Bailey et al, 1974; Snow, 1983), claiming that old learners are superior to the younger.

For Krashen et al (1979), old children and adults are rapider in language acquisition “older-is-better for rate of acquisition” but young learners are superior in optimum attainment “younger-is-better in the long run” (p.574). Marinova-Todd et al (2000) state that besides age; social, psychological, educational, and similar other factors impact language proficiency.

1.3.2. Psychological Challenges

Scholars and researchers concur on affective variables playing conducive but non-causal role in language acquisition, which include stress, anxiety, low self-esteem, and lack of motivation. These variables, for Krashen (1982), form a mental block that obstructs comprehensive input in SLA. He suggested affective filter hypothesis to explain “why it is possible for an acquirer to obtain a great deal of comprehensive input and yet stop short..of the native speaker level.”(p.32). According to Krashen (ibid)when the filter is elevated language acquisition will be impeded, when it is low SLA will be smoother and faster (see figure 1.1).

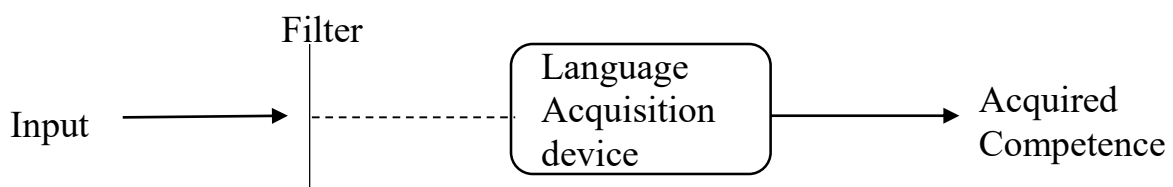


Figure 1.1. Affective Filter Diagram, from Krashen’s Article (1982)².

¹The concept ‘lateralization’ indicates that different brain areas perform different functions. (APA Dictionary of Psychology, n.d.)

²Principles and practice in second language acquisition. Krashen, S. (1982).

Affective filter hypothesis was conversely, criticized for not considering positive emotions, and the filter that carries those variables is not necessarily meant as a blockage device (Imai, 2010). Imai (ibid) argues that "...emotions do not merely facilitate, filter, or hinder an individual's inner cognitive functioning; rather they can in any forms mediate development especially when learning is embedded in interpersonal transaction..." (p. 278).

1.3.3. Pedagogical Challenges

1.3.3.1. Teacher Education and Training

There is a general consensus among researchers that teacher's professional education and trainings impact teachers' beliefs, teaching/ learning process, and pedagogical practices (e.g., Yuan & Lee 2014; Borg, 2006). Teachers can, therefore, peruse their professional education and improve their qualifications through pre-service and in-service trainings (Saban, 2002) "training programs are essential in providing teachers with professional skills, to keep them up-to-date concerning teaching methodology" (Fahd Al-Malihi, 2015: p 88).

The quality of pre-service teacher education programmes influences teachers' practice and effectiveness (Eren & Tezel, 2010; Ebenzer & Yost, 2010). On the other hand, in-service education and training courses are crucial in overcoming the challenges and issues that teachers' professional development faces (Hammadou, 2004; Lee, 2007).

Maraf (2012) conversely, identified teacher training as the 'core dilemma' of the Algerian education, due to the difficulties it faces including "the gap between the knowledge acquired at university and the real world of teaching" (Hadi, 2021: p119). Maley (1990) emphasizes that the main downside of traditional training programmes is that they dictate what teachers need to do regardless of the diverse working environments each teacher faces. In professional development programmes, teachers are passive participants; if they are not actively engaged in the courses, they may not understand the concepts being converted (Klinkerd, 2015: p11).

However reflective practice³ allows teachers to take a leading role in their own professional development, it has thus become a staple of teacher education (Richards, 2008; Johnson, 2009). The necessity of combining content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge is stressed by Schulman's (1986) concept of pedagogical content knowledge. Koehler and Mishra (2008, 2009) expanded on this approach by introducing the dimension of technological pedagogical content knowledge (the use of technology in particular content areas). According to Niemi (2015), teachers' professional development should be viewed as a continuum that begins with pre-service education and continues through the induction phase throughout their career (see also Feiman-Nemser, 2001). This continuum represents a holistic approach to teachers' education, emphasizing the principle of lifelong learning and development (Niemi & Isopahkala-Bouret, 2015).

1.3.3.2. Class Size

Compared to larger class sizes, smaller classes have only a moderately positive effect (Slavin, 1990). Konstantopoulos and Chung (2009) discovered that being in smaller classes (in early grades) benefits all types of learners (low, medium, and high achievers), across all achievement tests, and "low achievers seem to benefit more from being in smaller classes for longer periods." (p.125).

According to Pritchard (1999), the main reason for higher student achievement in smaller classes is that parents and teachers formed stronger bonds, teachers furthermore, have more time to create upgraded lesson plans; because they spend less time grading and more time on lesson plans. In smaller classes, time spent on classroom management is reduced, which leads to improved academic achievement (Englehart, 2007), and students receive more individualized assistance from teachers (Din, 1999). Similarly, Blatchford et al (2011) have found that interactions between students and teachers are diminished in larger classes.

³Reflective practice is typically seen as a type of cyclical and systematic inquiry in which instructors meticulously collect information regarding their teaching practice in order to analyze, interpret, and assess their experiences in order to improve their future teaching. (Farrell, 2016a)

1.3.4. Social Challenges

Researchers concur that parents have a substantial influence on the overall development of their children's attitudes (Philips & Filmer-Sankey, 1993; Barton, 1997; Chambers, 1999) and that they "can influence students' perceptions of foreign languages." (Court, 2001: p36). Attitudes in turn, affects learner's motivation (Todor, 2016; Gardner & Lambert, 1959).

Harmer (2001) noted that elder siblings and parents' attitudes are influential; parents who support their children urge them to attempt new things and perform well, they thereby attain greater success. Harmer (ibid) explained that there are four sources that affect students' motivation in learning English: the society, the influence of people close to them, the attitudes of parents and siblings, and the attitudes of peers. Similarly, in Algeria, parents' positive attitudes towards the target language influence their children's motivation (Iddou-Derraz, 2009).

1.4. Language Contact Repercussions

Contact between two or more languages in formal education has a variety of effects on the language learner's progress, which are addressed in this section.

1.4.1. Bilingualism

Researchers have contradictory perspectives on the impact of bilingualism on children. According to credible evidence (e.g., Pearson et al, 1997; Bialystok, 2010) bilingual children have fewer vocabularies in each of their languages than monolingual children. Other researchers cited adverse effect on children's developing minds: learning two languages would lead to confusion (Hakuta, 1986). Bilingual participants furthermore, performed slower (Bialystok et al, 2008) and less accurately (Gollan et al, 2007) on picture-naming tasks than monolinguals. They had also slower responses for comprehending and producing words, even if they responded in their first dominant language (Ivanova and Costa, 2008).

Appel argues (1987) that the idea that bilingualism had a detrimental effect on linguistic skills was based on the balance hypothesis which holds that human beings have a limited capacity for language learning and that learning one language limits the

opportunities for learning other languages. Despite the contradiction of many studies with each requiring firm methodological foundations, recent studies using advanced research technologies tip the scale in favour of bilingualism (Al-Amri, 2013). Mohanty (1992) conducted a study indicating that bilinguals outperform monolinguals in cognitive, linguistic and academic performance. Several studies of school-age L2 learners have emphasized on various language combinations, and have consistently reported that school-age children can make L2 progress over time (e.g., Hammer et al, 2011; Oller et al, 2007). According to these studies, proficiency in the L2 improves with accumulated experience, or the number of years spent in the school environment. The successful implementation of an L2 in primary school must consider students' cognitive development as well as other factors such as L1 level of proficiency and degree of motivation (Jaekel et al, 2017).

1.4.2. Diglossic Impact on Quality Education

Diglossia problems begin with Arabs at a very young age as Arab children acquire colloquial Arabic before the standard variety which is learned at school, their communication thus becomes warped (Al-Sobh et al, 2015). As long as the vernacular and Fusha (MSA) are so far apart that as Maamouri (1998) puts it “Fusha is nobody’s mother tongue...” (p.33) there will continue to be a dichotomy that separates the written from the spoken word. It is difficult to accept the idea that all foreign language learners are already fluent in Arabic (Khuwaileh and Shoumali, 2000). Arabic as a native language, in whatever form, cannot be disregarded from factors influencing the learning of a foreign language.

Bani-Khaled (2014) stated that diglossia in Arabic is still a significant issue and the division over varieties has hampered the acquisition of general literacy in both Arabic and foreign languages such as English. Learning foreign language therefore, cannot and should not neglect Arabic as a mother tongue. Mahmoud (2000), suggested that when using Arabic to teach English as a foreign language, it is crucial to take into consideration both MSA and non-standard Arabic.

It must be recognized also that there is evidence in literature to support the notion of language skills transfer from Arabic to foreign language. For instance, students

who were proficient in Arabic writing fared well in English (Dweik and Abu Al Hommos, 2007). According to Alshammari (2011), the use of L1 in the EFL classroom by both teachers and students can facilitate the language learning process and may even be necessary to increase learners' comprehension. One study (Trimasse, 2019) indicates that for native Arabic speakers learning a foreign language, dialectal Arabic and standard Arabic compete as sources of lexical transfer from which students obtain the vocabulary required for written production.

1.4.3. Linguistic Interference/ Transfer

Different studies have investigated the role of L1 and L2 in promoting or inhibiting L3 acquisition. Presently, two L3 initial state models assert that features and functional categories can be transferred from both L1 and L2: Cumulative Enhancement Model by Flynn et al (2004), and Typological Primacy Model by Rothman (2010, 2011).

According to Flynn et al (2004), language acquisition is accumulative, i.e., earlier language(s) can be neutral or beneficial for subsequent language acquisition and the L1 does not play a privileged role in the process. They argued that prior language knowledge can only be estimated when it has a positive impact. In the same vein, Ringbom (1986: p150) claimed a facilitative potential of language transfer:

Especially for the beginner, one obvious way of facilitating the foreign language learning process is to rely upon his L1 or other languages he may know. The extent of cross-linguistic influence will naturally vary greatly from one language situation to another.

On the other hand, TPM (Rothman, 2010, 2011) contends that transfer from any previously acquired language can occur in the L3 starting stage. It suggests that either actual typological proximity or perceived typological proximity (psychotypology) between the three systems may confine the process. Rothman hence, advocates typological proximity to be the key determinant of foreign language acquisition process. For Bardel and Falk (2007) typological proximity “seems to favour transfer from L2 to L3, but not from L1 to L3.” (p.480). In their view, L2 has more significant effect on L3 than L1, when both L2 and L3 are acquired after early childhood. Studies such as Bayona (2009), Chin (2009) have also made similar assertions regarding transfer from

L2 to L3 when they are similar to each other but distinct from L1. Ardila and Ramos (2007: p227) accordingly, declare that:

It is well established that one of the most detrimental effects of bilingualism is the potential inter-linguistic interference, resulting in decreased language performance. Interference is clearly inversely related with the similarity existing between both languages.

1.5. Teachers' Characteristics

The qualities that each teacher must possess to provide effective language instruction are covered in this section.

1.5.1. Professional Competence

When teaching or learning a language, there are two complementary categories of competence: *savoir-être* (skills) and *savoir-faire* (know-how) (Shairi and Momtaz, 2010). For Boudreault (2002), the convergence of knowledge (*savoirs*), know-how (*savoir-faire*) and skills (*savoir-être*) defines professional competence. To put it another way, competence is the systematic consideration of interpersonal and behavioural 'savoir-être', practical 'savoir-faire', and theoretical 'savoirs'. If any of the three areas is lacking, then there are no competencies.

In training programmes, the concept of competence is defined as the ability to act, succeed and progress, which enables the effective execution of professional tasks, and is based on an organized set of knowledge (including some theoretical knowledge, expertise in various fields, perception, attitudes, and so on) (MEES, 2016; as cited in Boudreault, 2017). Boudreault (2002) posits that each of the components of competency (*savoirs*, *savoir-être*, and *savoir-faire*) impacts and interacts with the others, in relation to the social context in which education directs them (see figure 4.1).

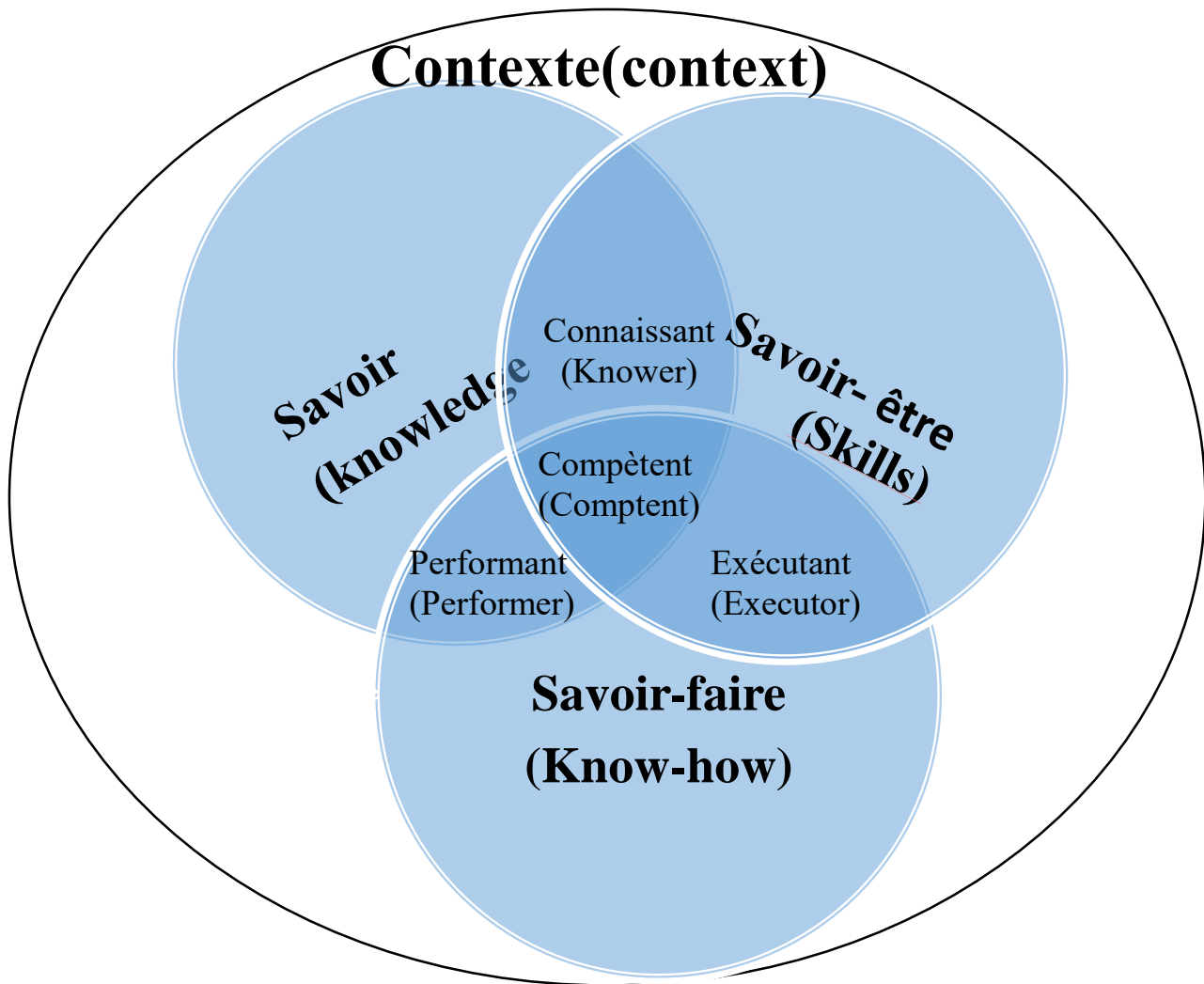


Figure 1.2. Professional competence(Boudreault, 2002)

According to Pastré (2011), competence manifests itself in a localized action, which cannot be the product of only savoirs and savoir-faire; it must also include savoir-être and context. In this sense, Boudreault (2017 : p2) states that skills (savoir- être) is a necessary and inseparable component of professional competence; it is what distinguishes the "performing worker" from the competent worker.

White (1995) makes a distinction between ‘hard-competencies’ that are acquired through experience and ‘soft-competencies’ that are associated with the individual’s personality. In the light of this assertion, ‘soft-competencies’ are linked to savoir-être that an individual must demonstrate, as they allow for foresight which distinguishes between simple execution of prescribed practices and the adaptation of these practices into effective practices specific to the variables of work situation. The term ‘savoir-faire’

on the other side, refers to the process of teaching students how to memorize, compare, summarize, speak, describe, read, and write (Huisman, 1954: p119; as cited in Sheiri & Momtaz, 2010). Here, the goal of teaching is to assist students in developing the cognitive abilities necessary to complete their learning programmes, including how to correctly apply morphological, syntactic, and linguistic rules (Sheiri and Momtaz, 2010).

1.4.2. Teachers as Language Policy Planners

Traditionally, there has been little acknowledgement of teachers' contribution to the (re)creation of language policies in classroom and that they are not passive recipients of language policy. Many academics (e.g., Hornberger and Ricento, 1996; Skilton-Sylvester, 2003) have conversely, drawn attention to this lapse and stressed the role of teachers as active participants in the formation of language planning and policy.

Despite numerous subsequent curriculum revisions and educational reforms, teacher agency continues to be the single most prominent factor in determining classroom instruction (Doyle, 1992). According to Morris and Thompson (1979), teachers are the primary resources for communicating with students; without that communication, there would be no curriculum for pupils. Varghese and Stritikus (2005) therefore, emphasize the language policy reaction and enactment that teachers frequently engage in. They demonstrate how teachers “are never conduits of particular policy.” (p .84) and urge that teacher education and training must explicitly consider the role of teachers as policy makers. Pre-service teachers hence, can have the chance to develop skills necessary to “re-theorize” their classroom environment and enhance students' success (Throop, 2007).

Various studies (e.g., Jennings, 1996; Stritikus, 2003) have identified a wide range of factors impacting how teachers implement policy, including their experiences, conceptions, beliefs, attitudes towards pedagogy. Lortie (1975) convincingly, contends that teachers' instructional practices are influenced not only by professional education but also their experiences as students. Furthermore, common perceptions and presumptions about curriculum have an impact on teacher agency.

Whitehead (1980) estimates that educational transformation must be dependent on what teachers do and think. Curriculum reforms are more likely to fail due to lack of teacher dedication and support (ibid). The way teachers implement the curriculum in class is moreover, affected by their ideas; including their personal values, experiences, educational backgrounds, and career accomplishments (Stritikus, 2003). Teachers thereby, play a crucial role in curricular reforms because they serve as a guide for students' learning journey, as they must define goals, ascertain learners' needs, choose a learning path, and assess whether learning objectives are being achieved (Phyllis and Young, 1977) i.e., teachers must be involved in designing and altering language curriculum (Rausch, 2000).

1.6. Teaching/Learning Process

This section highlights some of the numerous elements that contribute to effective teaching and learning while emphasising the role of language teachers in making the teaching and learning process successful using these components.

1.6.1. Syllabus

Syllabus is “a statement of content which is used as the basis for planning courses of various kinds.” (Nunan et al, 1988: p6). It is a teaching framework designed to aid learning, and provide a structure for activities to be completed. It only poses a threat to pedagogy when it is viewed as an absolute rule for deciding what must be learned rather than merely a point of reference against which outcomes can be measured (Widdowson, 1984: p26). The syllabus is the description of the instructional programme, or pedagogical agenda that establishes a special subject for a given group of learners. It also establishes the pedagogical objectives. It is however, essential to understand that a syllabus is the instrument of an educational policy (Widdowson, 2008: p127). A syllabus is hence, a framework whose principles teachers can use and modify to the specifics of their particular classes. In this regard, the syllabus becomes a crucial component in their continuing education, when they engage with this variable realization during actual teaching (ibid: p154).

Wilkins (1981) views syllabuses as “specifications of the content of language teaching which have been submitted to some degree of structuring of ordering with the

aim of making teaching and learning a more effective process.” (p. 85). The function of syllabus is thus, “to specify what is to be taught and in what order.” (Prabhu, 1984: p274).

Needs analysis is referred to as “techniques and procedures for collecting information to be used in syllabus design.” (Nunan et al, 1988: p13). Even though the learners’ needs can be precisely defined, this leads to certain issues with how these needs are translated into the language with which they are associated, as it is put by Stern (1983):

While these procedures (i.e., Needs Analysis) have stimulated a great deal of interest among practitioners, the gap between the inventories of language items in a ‘syllabus’ and the materials, teaching techniques, and testing procedures which carry these syllabuses into effect has been difficult to bridge. (p. 259-260)

Each language classroom can be viewed as a unique learning environment where the teacher needs to feel free to make essential adjustments and modifications in the designed syllabus and curriculum with regard to objectives, learners’ and teacher’s variables, and the factors in order to lay the groundwork for guiding the students towards meeting their needs (Bartlett & Butler, 1986; as cited in Nunan et al, 1988). The teacher has the authority to make decisions like selecting a whole course or omitting an activity. Teacher’s required adjustments can benefit students (Cummingsworth, 1998).

1.6.2. Instructional Materials

1.6.2.1. Traditional Resources

Traditional materials, such as books and other printed materials, improve teaching and encourage students to apply their knowledge (Elliott and Corrie, 2015). Conversely, it might be challenging for teachers to give instructions without textbooks (Woodward, 1987), it is therefore, risky to use textbooks, since they could induce teachers and students to become attached to them and disregard alternative resources (Harmer, 1998), causing the textbook to determine the learning process.

Teachers who rely heavily on textbooks may lose their skills (Richards, 2001), as they are unable to give instructions on their own. According to Grant (1990), many

language learning textbooks are deficient because they lack authentic communicative activities. He posits that “the traditional textbook tries to get students to learn the language as a system. Once they are equipped to use the language for their own purposes in any way they think.” (p.13).

Flashcards are another traditional resource that can be used to teach and memorize information. According to researchers (Haycraft, 1978; Cross, 1991) flashcards are effective because they can be used for relating lexis, for any level of students, and organized to produce logical groups. They can also provide a link between L1 and the target language. For Osa and Musser (2004) “Posters are also an effective means of illustrating processes.”(p.17).

However, many countries continue to face challenges of insufficient availability, poor quality and insufficient use of teaching and learning materials (Elliot and Corrie, 2015). Mupa and Chinooneka (2019) claim that “Children who lack the provision of reading materials perform poorly in schools.” (p.127).

1.6.2.2. Graphic Organizers

Graphic organizers are visual elements with which readers designate a cluster of ideas or concepts, in the form of words, phrases, or sentences (McKnight, 2010). They enable learners to collect, link or present information visually as they act as presentation or study models (Lupiana, 2015).

Graphic organizers have a number of advantages in guiding students to internalize what they are learning (McKnight, 2010), facilitating comprehension (Slater et al, 1985), elevating students’ reading comprehension (Gil-Garcia and Villegas, 2003). Evmenova et al (2016) investigated the impact of computer-assisted graphic organizers; the findings revealed that all participants improved their writing skills. Nevertheless, graphic organizers can be difficult to use (Nikolai, 2009), as they are time consuming: teachers complain about the time spent creating graphic organizers, which reduces valuable interaction time with learners (Hartman, 2002).

1.6.2.3. Teacher-Made Resources

When teachers cannot find effective resources, they create their own. Teacher-created resources, according to Otaka (2004), are contrived teaching materials; the teacher acts as an improviser by creating instructional materials to facilitate teaching and learning.

Teacher-made resources are designed to enhance classroom teaching and learning (Crowford, 2003). They include worksheets, charts, handouts, teacher made tests, and other materials created by the teacher. Several studies claim that effectively designed worksheets have improved students' learning outcomes (Sasmaz-Oren & Ormanci, 2012). However, researchers noted that many worksheets were improperly created and used, which interfered with learning (Lesley & Labbo, 2003). Multiple factors furthermore, may cause failure in the application of worksheets, such as the repetitive nature of worksheets, the problem of student boredom, and a lack of pedagogical knowledge, and skills (Reid, 1984).

Teacher-created tests compare individuals' performance to that of other pupils (Chakanyuka, 2000). When a teacher completes a course or unit, s/he creates a test to assess how well the expected learning outcomes were met; but teachers may be incapable of evaluating test efficacy (Trice, 2000).

In fact, as Ur (1996) asserts "Good teacher-made materials are arguably the best there are: relevant and personalized, answering the need of the learners in a way no other material can." (p. 192). Similarly, Montijano (2014) proposed that teacher-created materials are more pertinent, customized for students, and responsive to their need than any other type of material. Conversely, "designing teacher-made materials takes time, effort and unquestionably makes tough demands and understanding of manifold interwoven variables affecting teaching theory." (Montijano, 2014: p281).

1.6.2.4. Audio-visual Materials

According to Krčelić and Skledar Matijević (2015) "today's students live in a predominately visual world, exposed to the media, technology, and an overabundance of digital stimuli." (p. 110). Therefore, it stands to reason that teachers use a diverse set

of audio-visual materials in their lessons. Learning is more durable when audio-visual materials are used rather than traditional textbooks (Craig & Amernic, 2006: p152-153).

The use of audio-visual aids is important for both teachers and students (Ardian Doff, 1990: p81-82). Video for instance offers authentic language input (Katchen, 2002), thus both students and teachers value its use as a rich and valuable resources (Hemei, 1997: p 45). Language learners can benefit from a variety of media and many styles of visual presentation (Wright, 1976: p1). To put it another way, all audio-visual materials can benefit language learning as long as they are used appropriately. In the same vein, Ameh (2012) believes that audio-visuals play an enormous role in assisting students to learn at their own pace, which makes the educational experience engaging, stimulating, and stress-free (p.222). The use of multimedia technologies has improved the classroom environment for increasing interest in learning English language (Pun, 2013).

Daniel (2013: 3811) summarized the advantages of audio-visual aids stating that they:

- Help in providing excessive, pointless, and empty verbalization when teaching English.
- Assist students in developing clear and accurate concepts in English.
- Improve the effectiveness of teaching and learning.
- Make teaching more interesting.
- Create curiosity and inspiration.
- Make the topic clearer.
- Save time and effort.

Nevertheless, Salehi & Salehi (2012) discovered three major challenges in ICT integration in EFL classrooms: a lack of technical assistance at school, lack of internet connection, and the shortage class time, whereas teachers' attitudes do not significantly affect how they utilize ICT in the classroom. Other challenges include teachers-workload, their lack of free time, their lack of ICT experience, their age (Roman & Yamat, 2015), and lack of training (Beggs, 2000). Newhouse (2002: p45) claims that

“teachers need to not only be computer literate but they also need to develop skills in integrating computer use into their teaching/ learning programmes.” According to studies, teachers’ lack of technological proficiency in developing countries is a major barrier to their acceptance and implementation of ICT (Pelgum, 2001).

1.6.3. Competency-Based Approach

Competency-based approach (hereafter, CBA) teaches students skills that they can use in a variety of stations of daily life. According to Luisa & Canado (2013), the ultimate goal of the competency-based model is to develop flexible and adaptable professionals who can apply competencies to diverse, unpredictable, and complex situations they will face. In this regard, Monjan & Gassner state that:

The hallmark of competency based education is commitment to the definition of all educational goals in terms of explicit behavioural descriptions of what a person is able to do once an educational activity has been mastered. These behavioural descriptions are called Performance Objectives. (p. 4)

Nkwetisama & Cameron (2013) highlight key features of CBA:

- The competencies are described in behavioural terms that are specific and measurable.
- The contents are based on the objectives, or competencies of learners.
- The students continue to learn until mastery is demonstrated.
- The approach employs an infinite number of instructional techniques and group work.
- It focuses on what the application of fundamental skills in real world language contexts like listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- It extensively uses texts media and real-life materials that are tailored to the target competencies.
- It provides learners with immediate feedback on their assessment of performance.

Competency-based language teaching (hereafter, CBLT) emphasizes outcomes rather than input. It is related to the concept of observable and measurable learning

outcomes, and students must demonstrate their knowledge i.e., the CBLT is centred on output and outcomes rather than the teaching process (Luisa & Canado, 2013). CBLT places a high value on communication, Richards and Rodgers (2001: p143) state,

CBLT is also built around the notion of communicative competence and seeks to develop functional communication skills in learners. These skills are generally described in only the most general terms, however, rather than being linked to the performance of specific real-world tasks. CBLT thus shares some features with Communicative Language Teaching.

The CBA was adopted in the Algerian context, in order to teach students how to communicate, and integrate into a globalized environment. However, Bellour (2017) discovered that the CBA is not used in the English class. Teachers do not follow the principles guiding CBA, and evaluation standards have deteriorated, resulting in students passing without mastering the required competencies or even having the basics of English language.

1.7. Conclusion

It is now clear that language education policy is fraught with issues. Age, psychological, pedagogical, and social challenges are just a few of the difficulties that TEFL faces, with the quality of teacher education and training programmes being the most serious. To address these issues, teachers must be active participants in educational policy rather than passive recipients of policy. They must also possess the three dimensions of competency. Other concerns include syllabus, the inadequacy inconsistency, and poor selection and use of instructional materials, as well as, teachers' struggle to implement the adopted approach (CBA).

Chapter 2

Research Methodology and Findings

Chapter Two: Research Methodology and Findings

2.1. Introduction

The current chapter covers the practical facet of this dissertation; it will provide the methodological approach underpinning this research work in two folds: first it will delineate the research design, data collection instruments, and sample and sampling techniques. It will then set the stage for data analysis and interpretation. The collected data for each instrument will be analyzed independently. Ensuing the research design type, the main results are combined and discussed in relation to the research hypotheses. The key findings are further verified against prior research.

2.2. Part I: Methodological Framework

This part focuses on providing an overview of the methodological framework that supports the current research, including a justification of the research design, a description of the sample, sampling techniques, and the research tools used for data collection.

2.2.1. Research Design

Every research process is dependent on an appropriate research design which is based on a number of criteria; including field of research, the topic of inquiry, and the purpose of the research. The present research employs pragmatic approach by combining quantitative and qualitative research instruments. The primary principle of pragmatism is to improve transferability based on both the strength of the relationship between cause and effect in quantitative data and the trustworthiness and reliability of qualitative data (Morgan, 2007). Its logic alternates between deduction and induction, assisting in creating a more nuanced grasp of the topic, and supports the use of any strategy that is compatible with the research design and may yield data and answers to the research questions.

Fieldwork, more precisely, the case study method is the selected methodology, as the data obtained are realistic and spontaneous. Exploratory case study is used to

investigate the multiple possible outcomes of introducing English in primary school (Yin, 2014).

2.2.3. Research Instruments

To obtain a holistic understanding of the topic under study, and ensure data triangulation, different instruments are meticulously employed to collect data: two questionnaires, an observation, and analysis of two documents. The instruments are determined to inform the research questions, as illustrated below:

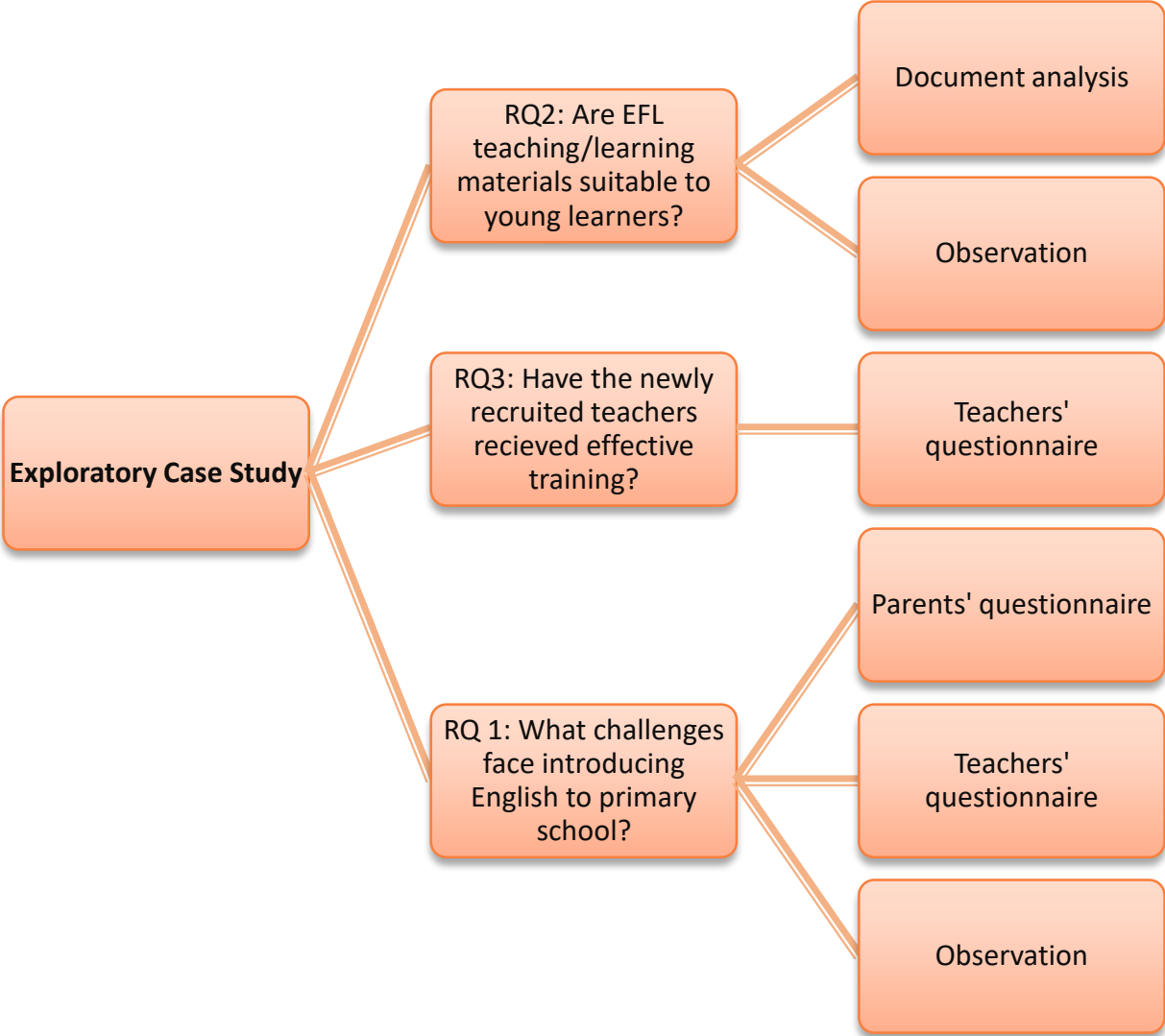


Figure 2.1. Research Plan

2.2.3.1. Questionnaires

In the present research two questionnaires are employed (parents' questionnaire & teachers' questionnaire), to gather insight on the perspectives and experiences of teachers, and collect feedback from parents of third year primary school (hereafter, 3PS) pupils on their children's academic achievement. A questionnaire is a data-gathering tool used to obtain answers and feedback to printed pre-planned questions, presented in a preset order (Adams & Schvaneveldt, 1985). The two questionnaires in this work include a mixture between closed, multiple choice and open-ended questions.

Closed and multiple choice questions are often considered efficient because they have the potential to generate quantitative data that can be easily coded and analyzed statistically (Fink & Kosecoff, 1996), whereas, open-ended questions allow respondents to provide details and express their attitudes. Responses to them can reassure the researcher that all pertinent issues have been addressed (Moser & Kalton, 1971).

Parents' questionnaire (appendix A) was administered online to parents of 3PS pupils, using 'Google Forms' which provides automatic data analysis. This questionnaire includes six close-ended questions, three multiple choice questions, and an open ended question intended to support the other quantitative questions. It is presented in Arabic, in consonance with the target population (parents of 3PS pupils).

Teachers' questionnaire was distributed individually to English teachers in primary schools. It is divided into two sections and delves into the background and professional development of teachers, then their experience to guiding the learning process. Aligned with the subjects (3PS English teachers) this research tool is crafted in English.

2.2.3.2. Observation

Observation is "the systematic description of events, behaviors, and artifacts in the social setting chosen for study." (Marshall & Rossman, 1989: 79). It is often employed to assess nonverbal expression of feelings, identify who interacts with whom, and grasp how participants engage with one another (Schmuck, 1997). When using

observation, the researcher has the opportunity of assigning meanings and interpretations to expressions and nonverbal communications, throughout the data collection process (Moursund, 1973). Intimacy between data gathering and data analysis is, furthermore, ensured (Hyden, 1974) which results in greater fluidity and flexibility.

The present work employs a participant observation entailing researcher's immersion in the classroom environment for 45minutes. An observation grid (appendix C) is designed to provide data about different elements including teacher's practical and interpersonal competencies (*savoir-faire* and *savior-etre*); the impact of class size and psychological factors (learners' anxiety, lack of motivation...etc.) on learners' behaviors and teacher practice; the frequency of linguistic interference among learners; the application of instructional materials, and the scope of CBA implementation in 3PS English classes.

Concerning research ethics, the researcher adheres to the highest ethical standards: participants were aware of the researcher's identity and purpose, research purpose and topic were disclosed and disseminated, permission and informed consent were received from both teachers and school headmasters.

2.2.3.3. Document Analysis

As a way of triangulation, document analysis is used in conjunction with the above data collection instruments. Document analysis is a systematic technique for assessing printed and electronic documents (Fischer, 2006). This research tool necessitates the examination and interpretation of data in order to extract meaning, gain insight, and generate empirical knowledge (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). It entails skimming (superficial examination), reading (thorough examination), and interpretation.

Regarding the choice of documents to be analyzed, the researcher should determine whether the content of the documents matches the conceptual framework of the study (Stake, 1995). It is also crucial to ascertain the authenticity, credibility,

accuracy and representativeness of the selected documents. Thus the current research analyses two essential documents in TEFL: 3PS textbook⁴ and syllabus⁵. For each document, a checklist is designed, adapted from existing studies, including Palmer et al (2014), Wuttisiririporn & Usaha (2019), Ghorbani (2011).

The rationale behind using document analysis stems from its function in methodological and data triangulation, the enormous significance of documents in case study research, and its applicability as a stand-alone method for specialized forms of qualitative research.

2.2.2. Sample & Sampling

The current research takes site in Tlemcen province and involves a variety of samples to gather authentic primary data. The observation (appendix C) is conducted with four English teachers and their 3PS pupils, in different class sizes (34, 33, 24, and 23). The first questionnaire (appendix A) is addressed to 39 parents whose children are enrolled in 3PS. The second questionnaire (appendix B) is distributed to 17 primary school English teachers who have received pre- and in-service training (see table 2.1 and 2.2), table 2.3 reveals their age.

Table 2.1 The Hourly Volume of Pre-service Training

Hourly volume of pre-service training	Total
Less than 60 hours	3
60 hours	9
More than 60 hours	5

⁴ <https://eddirassa.com/wp-content/upload/2022/09/book-English-3ap.pdf>

⁵ <https://studylibfr.com/doc/10132975/برنامج-اللغة-الانجليزية-للسنة-الثالثة-ابتدائي>

Table 2.2 The Hourly Volume of In-service Training

Hourly volume of in-service training	Total
Less than 70 hours	8
70 hours	8
More than 70 hours	2

Table 2.3. Database for Teachers' age

Age	Total
23-35	7
35-50	10
Above 50	0

The subjects are sorted based on data collection instruments; they are selected because they are the most easily recruited for the research. Thus, convenience sampling is used, in which the sample includes people who match certain practical criteria, such as easy accessibility, geographical proximity, availability at specific time, or the willingness to participate (Dornyei, 2007). Although this technique may restrict generalizability, the method and resulting data may still potentially allow for transferability of the research findings.

According to Morse and Niechaus (2009), whether quantitative or qualitative method is used, sampling techniques are designed to maximize efficiency and validity. Flick (2018) stated that for document analysis, the researcher might opt for purposive sampling, as it involves selecting documents based on a set of pre-determined inclusion

criteria. Rather than analyzing all the documents, the researcher decides which documents are most likely to meet the research purpose.

2.3 Part Two: Analysis & Discussion

This section lays the groundwork for data analysis and interpretation. Following the kind of research strategy, the main findings are discussed in connection to the research hypotheses. The important findings are cross-checked against earlier studies.

2.3.1. Data Analysis & Interpretation

In the view of pragmatic research design, questionnaires were mainly quantitatively analyzed, while observation and document analysis assisted in obtaining qualitative data. Overall, data analysis codes, arranges and condenses the gathered data into valid, convenient and accessible information using various measurement tools. Each tool was analyzed separately in the following sections.

2.3.1.1. Parents' Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims at explaining how parents' attitudes towards the languages 3PS pupils study at school affect their academic progress, and whether they effectively encourage them to learn English. Thus, the first item is concerned with parents' attitudes towards English and French. The findings reveal that 92.3% of the respondents prefer their children to learn English, whereas 20.5% prefer their children to learn French (see figure 2.2).

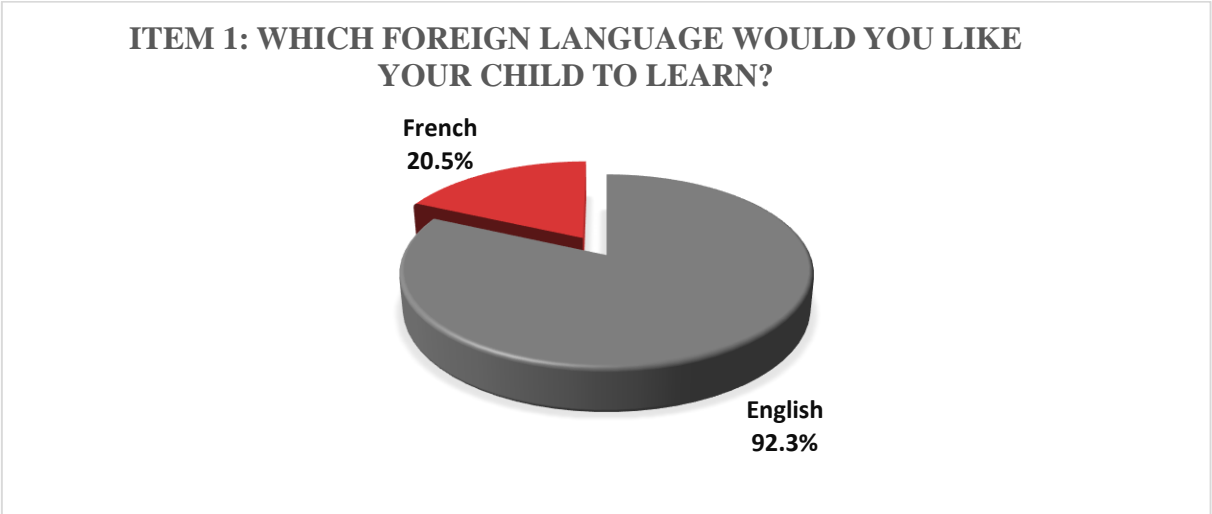


Figure 2.2 Parents' Language Preferences for their Children

Figure 2.3, on the other side, indicates the reasons behind parents' language preferences for their children: those who prefer English support their choice with the fact that it is an international language (92.3%); 5.1% of the respondents consider French a colonial legacy; 23.1% think English is easier than French. For those who chose French believe that French is dominant (15.4%), whereas 2.6% find French easier than English.

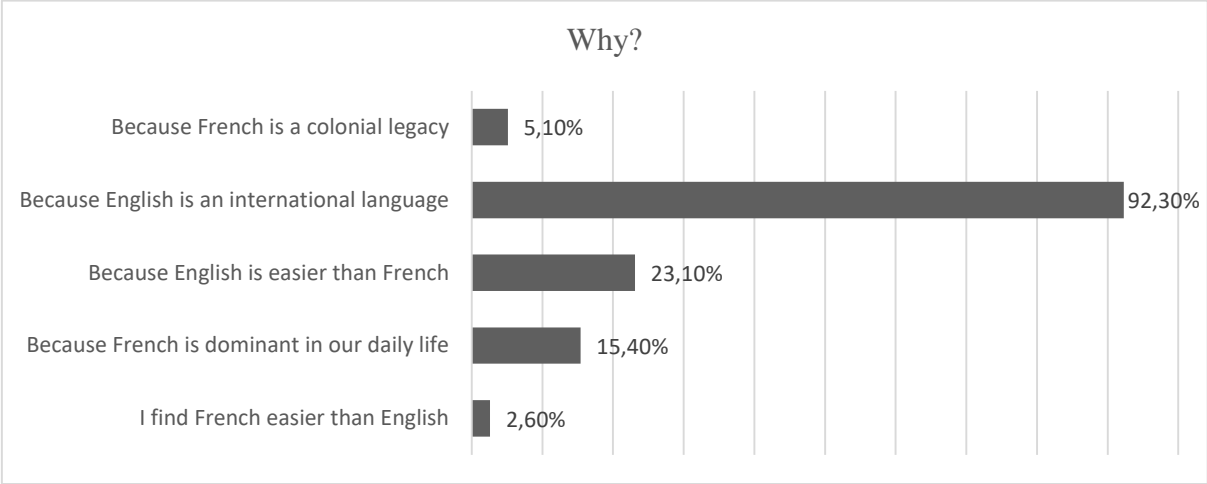


Figure 2.3 Reasons behind Parents' language Preferences for their Children

Figure 2.4 shows parents' perspectives on introducing English in primary school: 79.5% of the informants are in favour of introducing English to primary school, whereas 20.5% are opposed. Similarly; 20.5% of the informants' children have average academic performance, 56% have good results, and 23.1% have excellent results (see figure 2.5).

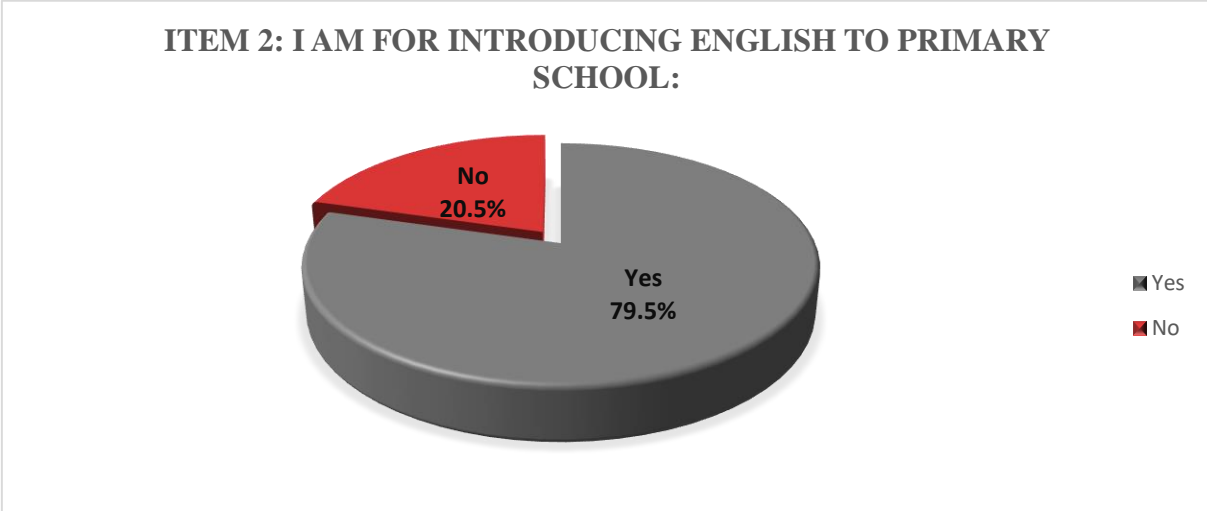


figure 2.4 Parents' Perspectives on Introducing English in Primary School

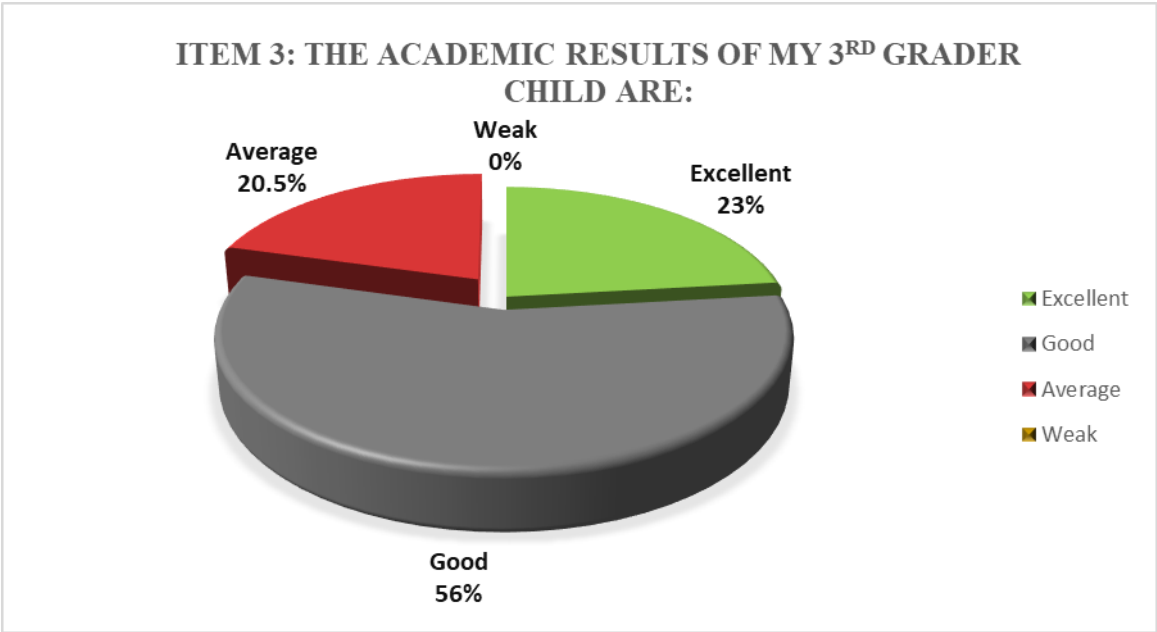


Figure 2.5 Academic Results of Respondents’ Children

43.6% of participants believe that their children are satisfied with learning all school languages, 43.6% somehow agree, and only 12.8% disagree (see figure 2.6). 38.5% of respondents believe that learning English alongside French presents a significant challenge to their children, 46.2% somehow agree on that, and only 15.4% of the participants do not find learning English alongside French a serious hurdle to their children (see figure 2.7).

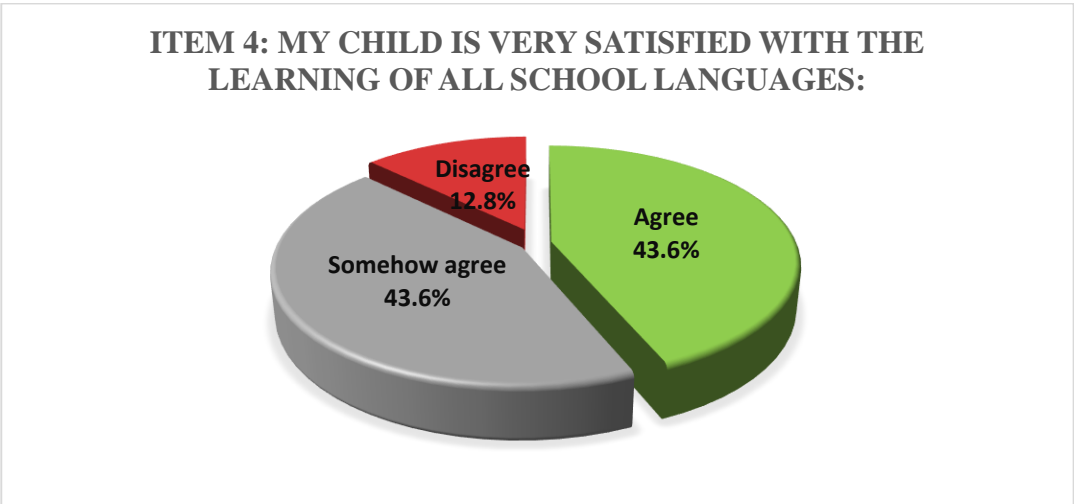


Figure 2.6 Participants’ Perspective on Their Children’s Satisfaction of School Languages

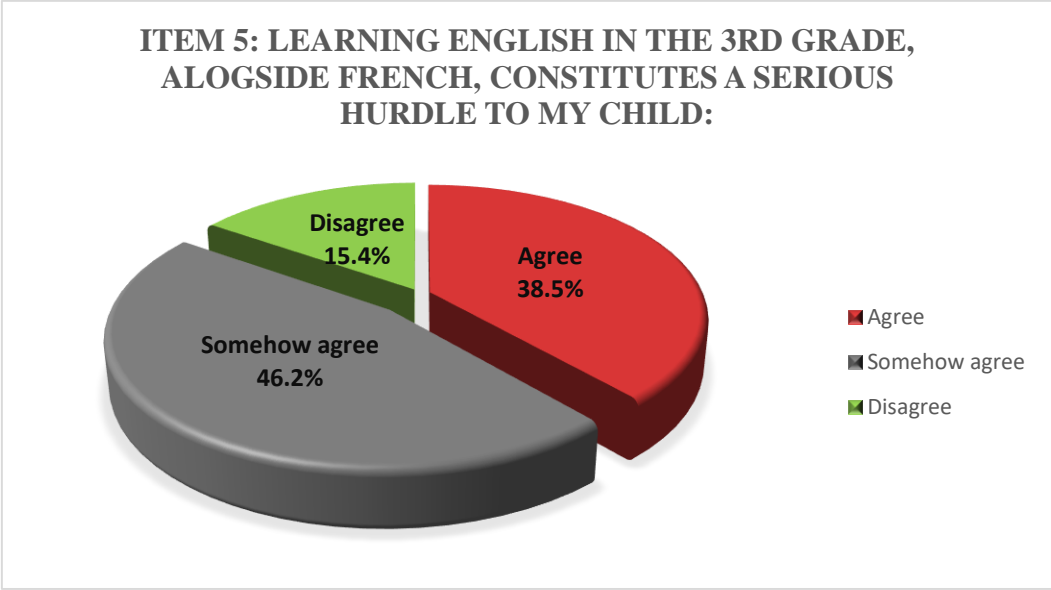


Figure 2.7 Respondents’ Perspectives on Learning English Alongside French at 3 PS

Figure 2.8 reveals that the majority of parents (53.8%) believe that introducing young learners to two foreign languages simultaneously negatively affects their academic performance. A small minority (25.6%) somehow agree on that, whereas the remaining participants (20.5%) believe it has a detrimental impact on young learners.

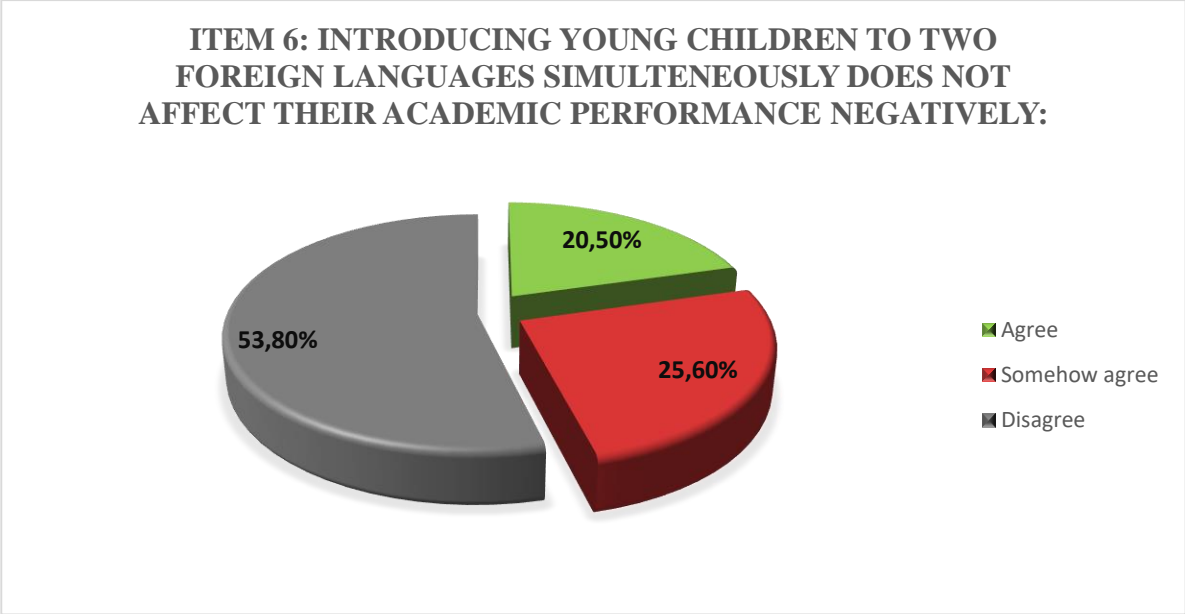


Figure 2.8 Participants’ Perspectives on the Effect of Introducing Two Foreign Languages Simultaneously

Figure 2.9 assesses whether parents perceive that exposing young learners to two foreign languages simultaneously exerts a high cognitive load on them as content subjects are delivered in Standard Arabic: 56.4% of parents agree, 25.6% somehow agree, and 17.9% disagree.

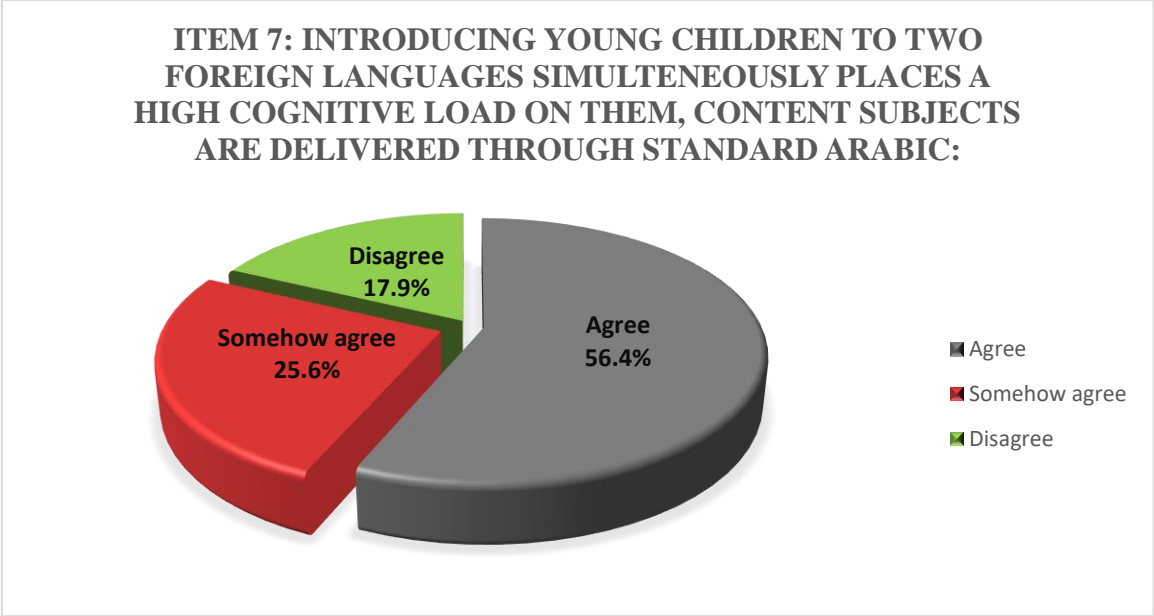


Figure 2.9 Participants’ Perspectives on the Impact of Introducing Two Foreign Languages Simultaneously to Young Learners Using Standard Arabic

When asked in which language they would like the programmes their children watch to be broadcasted, 53.8% answered English, 82.1% of them chose standard Arabic, only 15.4% selected French.

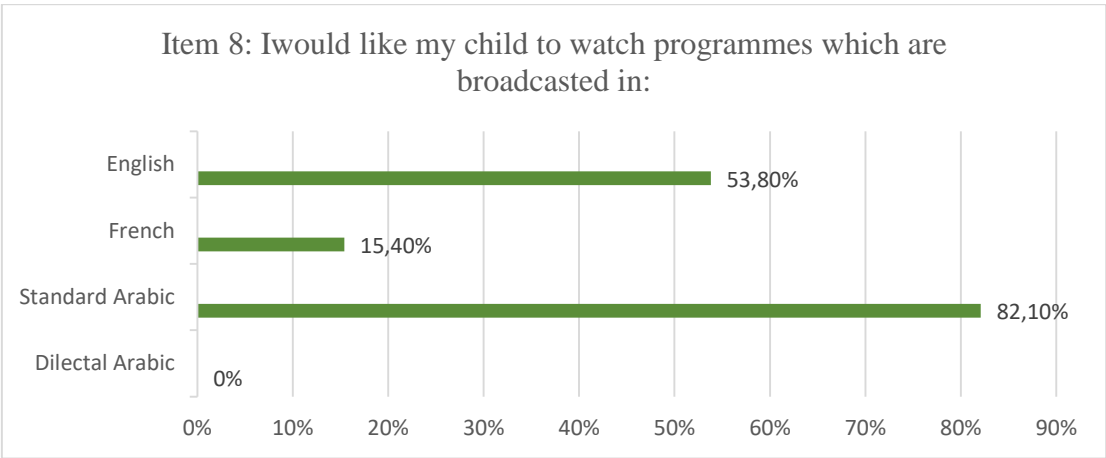


Figure 2.10 Participants’ Language Preferences for the programmes their Children Watch

When parents were asked how they support their children in learning English, answers were varied:

- By attending private courses or a private language school.
- By giving gifts.
- By providing audiovisual programmes, stories, and songs in English.
- By talking to him/her in English.
- S/he learns the language from his/her school teacher.

2.3.1.2. Teachers’ Questionnaire

The first section in this questionnaire is designed to elicit teachers’ views on training programmes they have received. According to figure 2.11, 29.4% of respondents find the hourly volume of (pre- and in-service) training enough, while 58.8% of respondents somehow agree on that, only 11.8% disagree. 5.9% of respondents do not regard the training they received to be at all satisfactory, 29.4% find it to some extent satisfactory, whereas 58.8% are to a great extent satisfied with the training they have received, and 5.9% are totally satisfied (see figure 2.12).

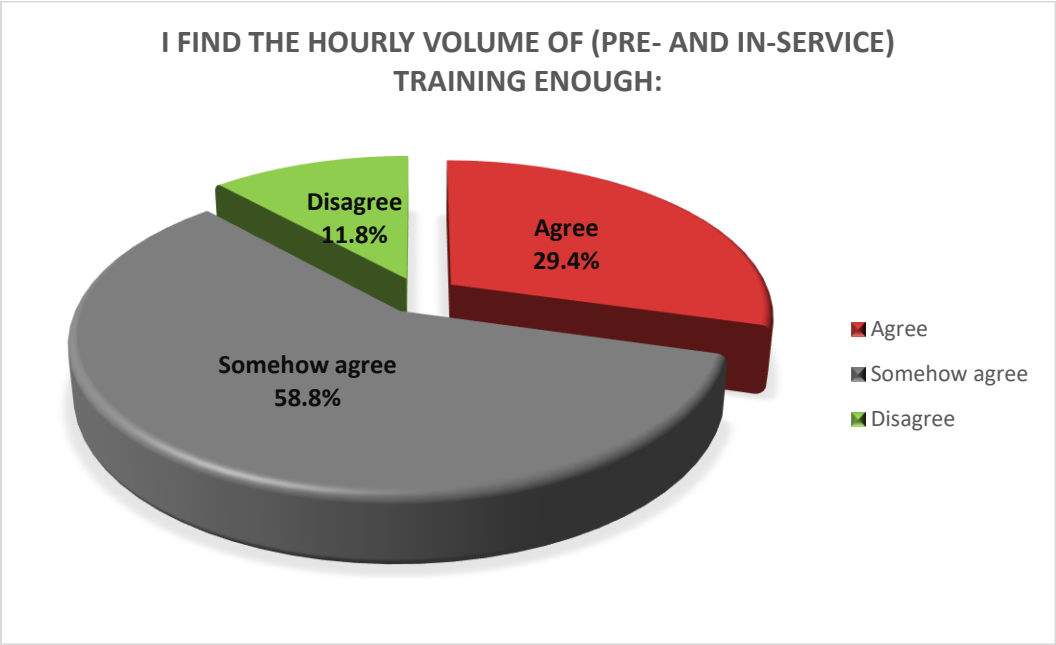


Figure 2.11 Teachers’ Views on the Hourly Volume of (pre- and in-service) Training



Figure 2.12 Teacher’s Degree of Satisfaction with Training Programmes

Figure 2.13 shows that teachers believe that the training affects their practices, beliefs, and effectiveness (47.1%), dictates what teachers must do regardless of the diverse working environments each teacher faces (29.4%), fails to bridge the gap between theoretical knowledge acquired at university and the real world of teaching practice (29.4%). However, 41.2% of teachers consider the training beneficial and covering all the required aspects of teaching/ learning, and helps overcome the challenges that teachers face throughout their professional development (29.4%).



Figure 2.13 Teachers’ Views on Training Programmes

Teachers highlighted a number of drawbacks in their training:

- Educators' absences.
- Lack of pedagogical tools, such as data show.
- Lack of practical experience.
- Irrelevant content.

The focus of training was on psycho-pedagogy for 76.5% of teachers, pedagogic content knowledge for 64.7%, reflective practice 41.2%, only 23.5% received technological pedagogic content knowledge, for 5.9% some trainers delivered irrelevant content (see figure 2.14).

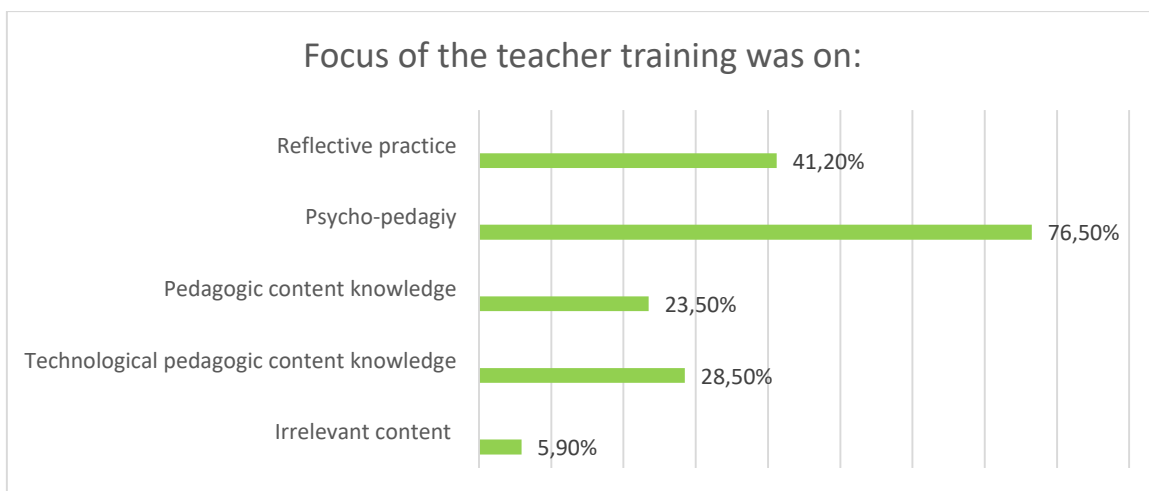


Figure 2.14 The Focus of Teachers' Training Programmes

Teachers claimed that the trainers were:

- Excellent, helpful and provide numerous teaching methods.
- Confident and responsible to achieve great outcomes.
- Average, with some merely speaking about their own lives.
- Often seemed unprepared, the content delivered was often irrelevant.

For 47.1% of respondents, the role of teachers was strongly emphasized in the training they received, 23.5% of them somehow agree, 29.4% disagree (see figure 2.15).

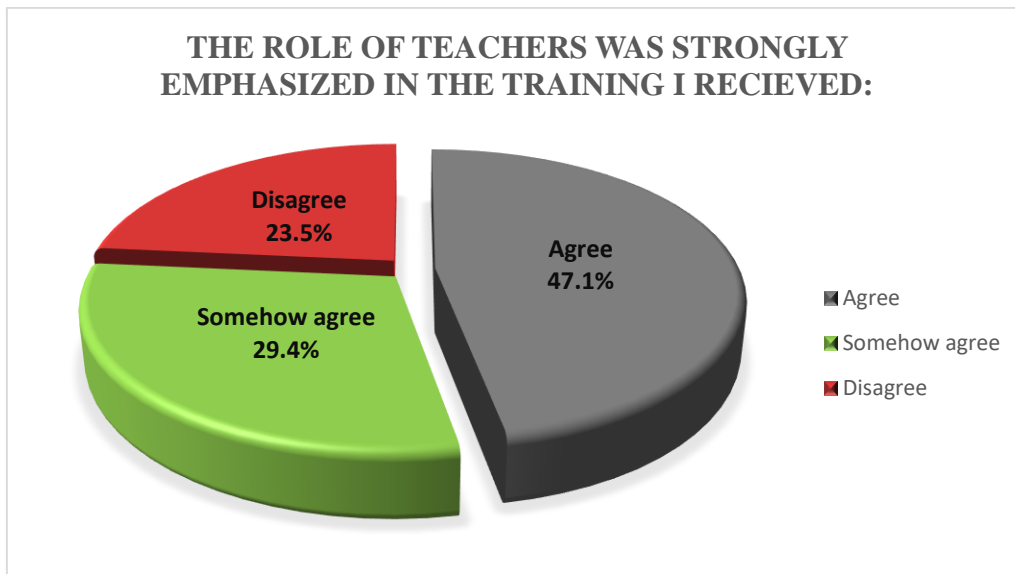


Figure 2.15 Teachers' Views on the Importance Placed on Teachers' Roles in the Training

The second section is concerned with the learning process. According to figure 2.16 the challenges facing teachers when teaching English to third graders include psychological challenges (64.7%), class size (64.7%), quality of training programmes (35.3%), lack of parental support (47.1%), and learners' age (29.4%), for 5.9 % English-French interference is additional challenge.

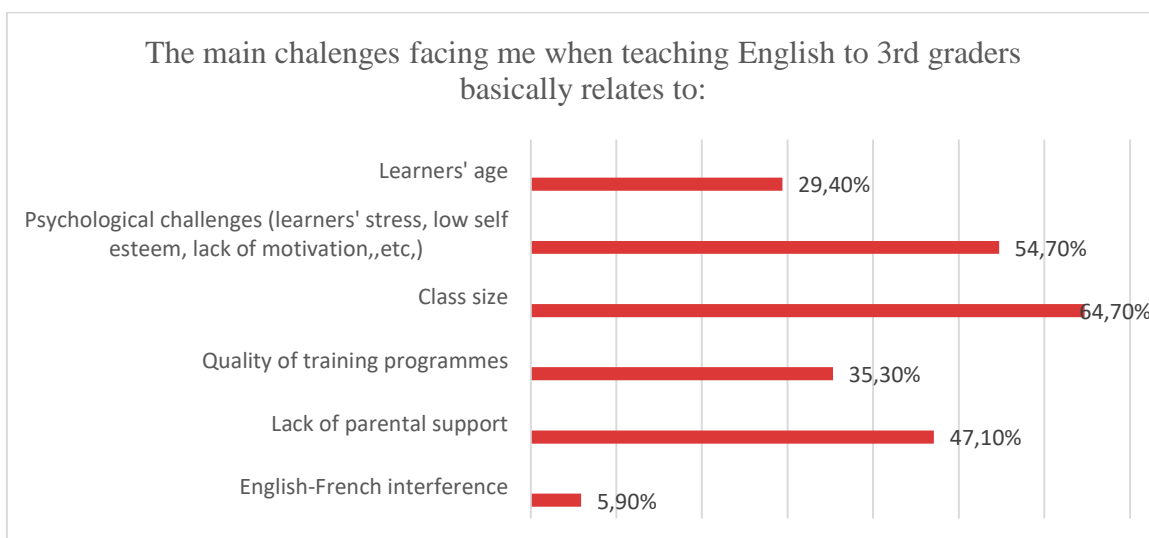


Figure 2.16 Challenges Facing Teachers when Teaching Third Graders

Figure 2.17 reveals that 73.3% of teachers believe that syllabus is mainly pre-defined rules that all teachers must follow, 20% hold that it is a framework and a reference for course design. For 6.66% it is mainly units containing sections to be followed.

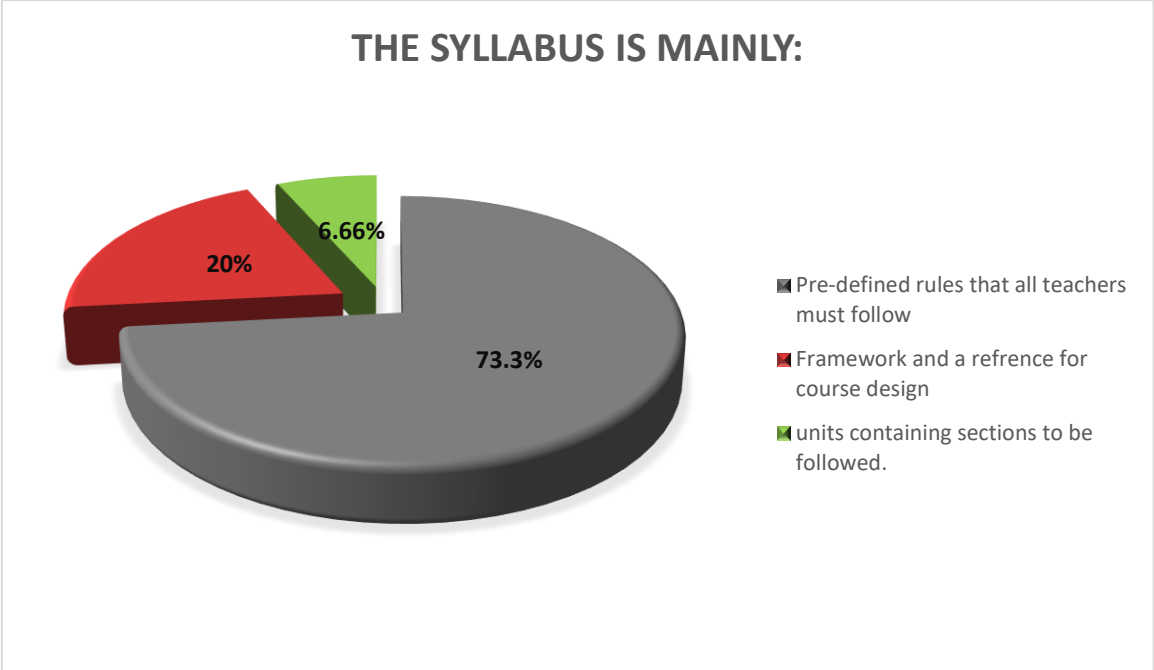


Figure 2.17 Teachers’ Descriptions of Syllabus

Figure 2.18 demonstrates that teachers consider their third-grade learners’ progress in English learning to be medium (52.9%), 29.4% find it significant, 17.6% find it trivial.

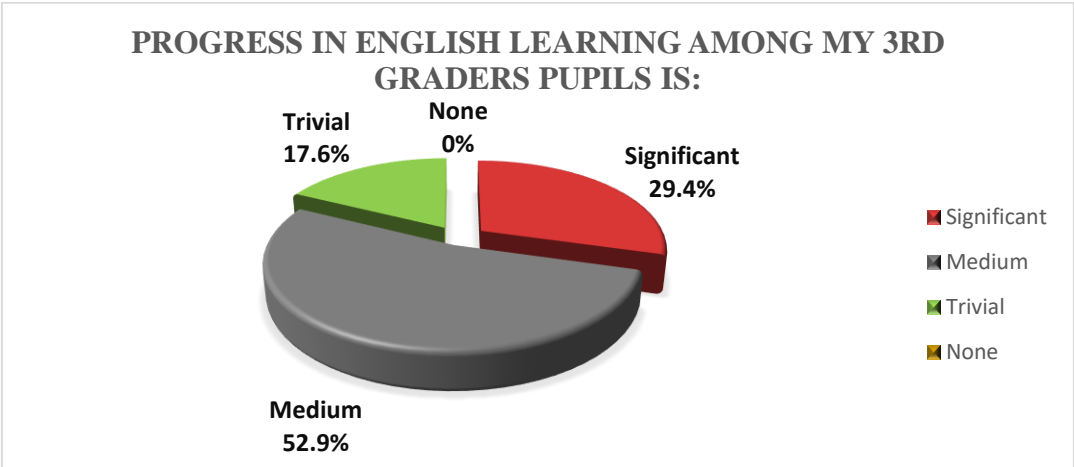


Figure 2.18 English Learning Progress Among Third Graders

According to figure 2.19, 62.5% of teachers rely on standard Arabic, 43.8% rely on dialectal Arabic. For 82.4% the use of Arabic affects learners' academic achievement to some extent, 11.8% hold that it affects to a great extent, 5.9% do not perceive any effect at all (see figure 2.20). Figure 2.21 reveals that 50% of those who believe Arabic has an impact on learners' academic achievement characterize it as negative effect, and 50% define it as positive effect.

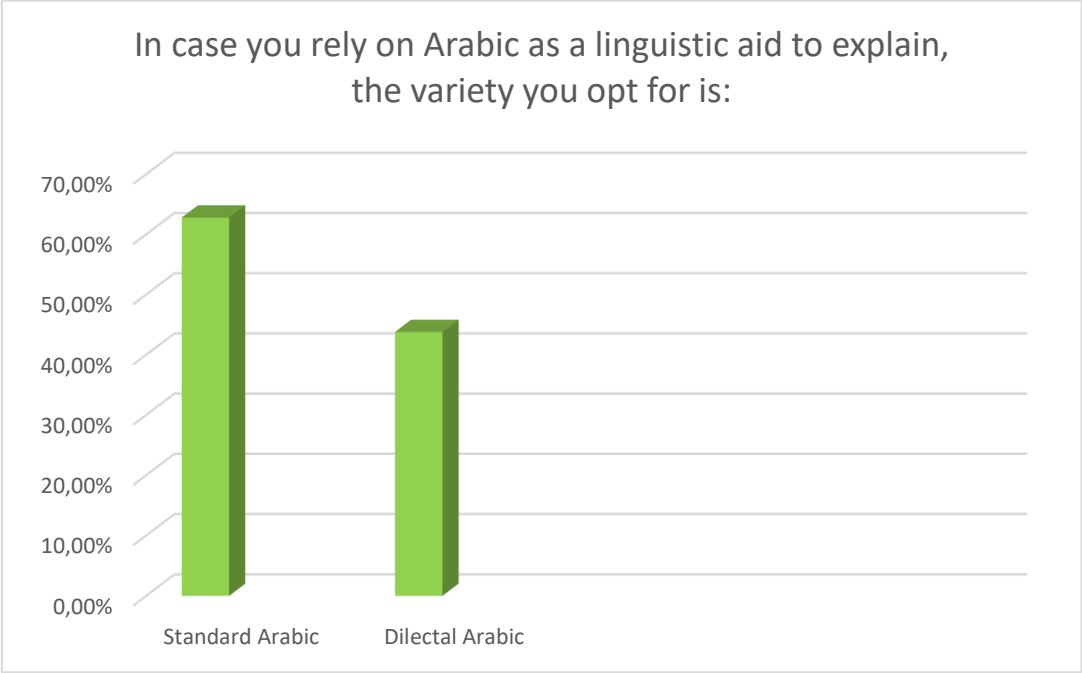


Figure 2.19 The Variety of Arabic Teachers Rely on to Explain

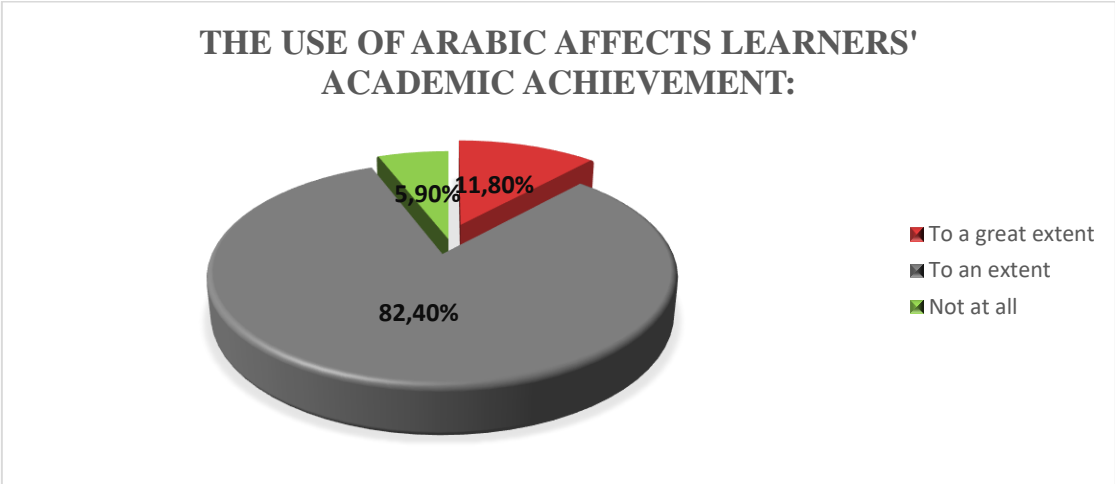


Figure 2.20 Teachers' Views on the extent to Which Arabic Affects Learners' Academic Achievement

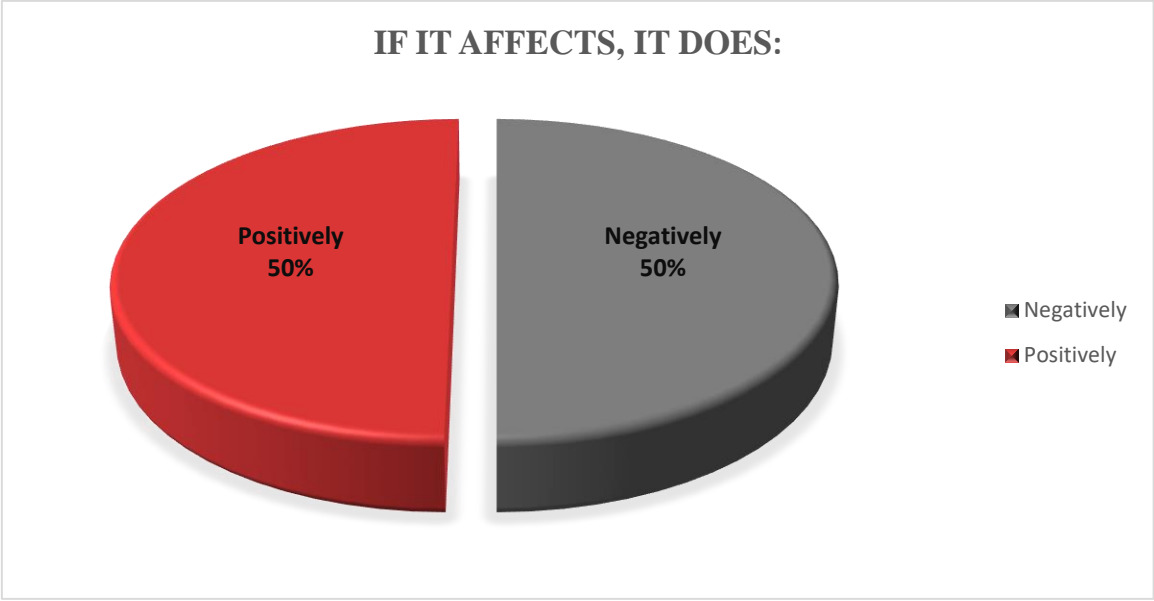


Figure 2.21 Teachers' Views on how the use of Arabic Impacts learners' academic achievement

Figure 2.22 shows that 52.9% of teachers notice linguistics interference between French and English, 35.3% perceive linguistic interference between standard Arabic and English, 11.8% spot interference between dialectal Arabic and English.

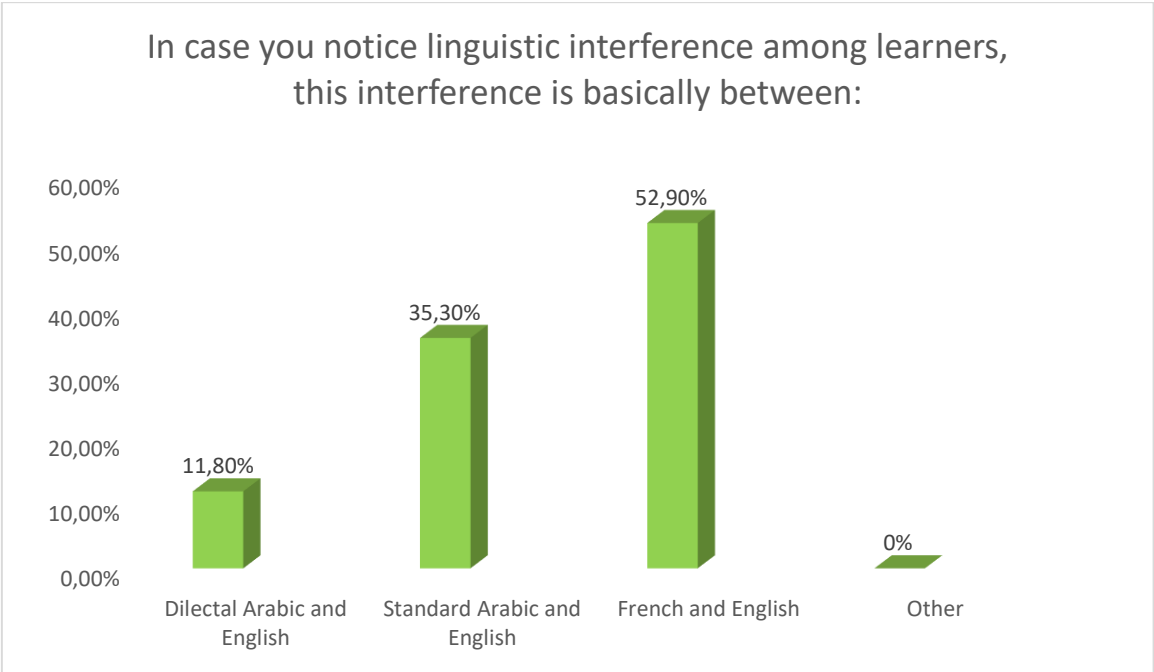


Figure 2.22 Forms of Linguistic Interference among Learners

Figure 2.23 reveals that 23.5% of teachers are somehow for introducing third graders to two foreign languages simultaneously, 29.4% of teachers are in favour of introducing the two foreign languages in primary school simultaneously, and 47.1% are opposed.

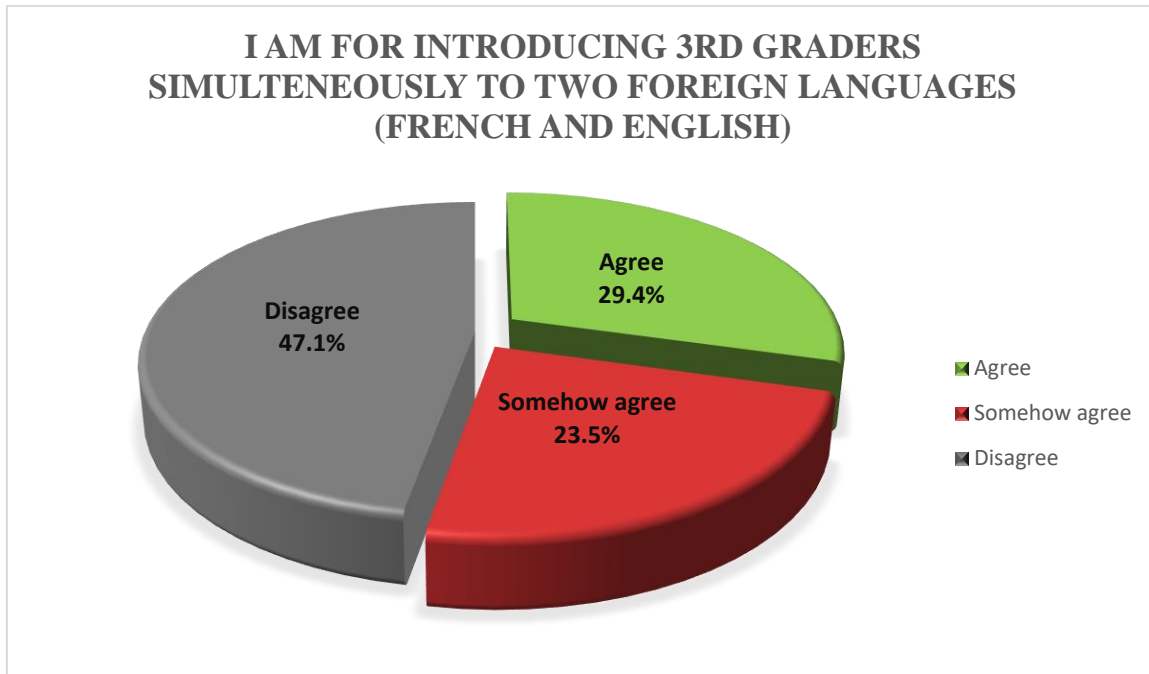


Figure 2.23 Teachers' Views on Introducing Third Graders to Two Foreign Languages Simultaneously

Teachers who are against introducing third graders to two foreign languages simultaneously, support their perspectives with the following reasons.

- Linguistic interference between French and English.
- It is challenging for young learners as it causes confusion.
- It is too hard for them.
- It would be better to introduce the two foreign languages gradually (English in third grade, and French in fourth grade).

Those who agree that they are for introducing third graders to English and French simultaneously, justify their view with the following reasons:

- Learners are young and able to learn different languages simultaneously.

- It can be considered as a great opportunity for children to learn new languages at a young age since it is argued to be more efficient, smooth and potent progress.

2.3.1.3 Observation Analysis

The observation is intended to obtain data regarding the challenges facing teachers and learners in 3PS EFL classes; the effects of employing Arabic varieties in TEFL; learners' progress and comprehension; the frequency and type of language interference among learners; teachers' savoir-faire and savoir-etre; the availability, efficiency and effectiveness of instructional materials; and the extent of CBA implementation.

According to observation findings, class size is one of the challenges both teachers and learners face: in large class sizes (33-34) teachers appear to have difficulty offering individualized assistance, ending up concentrating their efforts on high achievers and disregarding low achievers. Plus, certain psychological variables (learners' stress, low self-esteem, lack of motivation..etc.) hamper learners' engagement in classroom activities, causing the teacher to focus on a select group of pupils.

Language interference is another concern in primary school EFL classrooms, for example, when asked about English vowels, pupils mix them with French vowels, they also interfere between French and English words, such as 'juice' and 'jus'. Additionally, not all learners appear to comprehend the content being converted, in some cases, and in the other cases, learners do not appear to understand the entire content. Several aspects of the delivered content are simplified using Arabic varieties; when teachers do not use any variety of Arabic, learners find it onerous to understand.

As part of savoir-faire, the teacher must be able to readily communicate theoretical knowledge and then put it into practice, which is not always apparent in all teachers: some fail to deliver the entire content, while others do not provide practice of the theoretical content, for instance, teaching lexical words (adjectives, nouns) without assisting pupils in learning how to use them. The teacher, furthermore, must have patience and empathy as a part of savoir-etre; however not all teachers appear to possess this competency; some strike pupils for not concentrating.

Concerning instructional materials, textbook is used as the basis for English teaching, teachers also use flashcards to explain. Audio materials are only employed as part of the warm-up, and they are provided by the teachers. Several parts of the content seem to necessitate data show that is unavailable. The observation also shows that the competency-based classes are not strictly competency-based; the teachers do not adhere to all CBA features, including emphasizing the development of competencies; as they are more concerned with time constraints, additionally, not all teachers support group/ pair work even though the courses call for it.

2.3.1.4 Findings of Document Analysis

The document analysis reveals that the syllabus is organized around the competencies that learners are expected to learn, the target competencies are made explicit. The document appears to direct the teaching of fundamental language skills (vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation). There is, in addition, a connection between the syllabus, teaching methodologies, and the procedures that put it into practice. Conversely, class schedules are not articulated nor logically sequenced. The syllabus is outcome-based but not adjustable; teachers are expected to adhere to it line for line. The suggested activities do not stimulate group-work, but they tacitly encourage pair-work. There are no suggested tests, nor assignments, nor are any contextual themes/ topics mentioned. Lastly, according to the document, teachers are expected to use certain instructional materials and resources (supports) that are unavailable, including videos, and cartoons.

Document analysis also shows that the textbook is complaint with syllabus standards, as it offers exercises for developing communication strategies and communicative engagement, such as acting out scenes. Tasks are also appropriate to learners' abilities and have attainable goals. New structures are methodically introduced in suitable contexts, (like colours, numbers, days of the week..etc.). However, the textbook lacks an appealing layout: printing and illustrations are of poor quality. The document is not really appropriate for the age of learners because its poor quality may weary learners; the majority of content and tasks are relied on listening or speaking, new items do not receive adequate and varied practice, the meaning of vocabulary is not

always presented in context sufficiently. Lastly, certain sound recognition and production are not provided adequate attention.

2.3.2. Discussion of Main Findings

The data collection instruments indicated above were used to test hypotheses. This research work investigates issues in language education policy in primary school, third grade in particular, it explains the challenges facing TEFL in primary school, and explores the effectiveness of instructional materials, and training programmes, besides the extent to which CBA is implemented in primary school English classes.

Parents' questionnaire is meant to explain the impact of parents' attitudes and support on learners' academic progress. The findings demonstrate that parental support influences children's academic achievement, which underpins Harmer's claim (2001) that parents who encourage their children urge them to try new things and perform well, and as a result they achieve greater success. Parents' positive attitudes towards the target language, furthermore, influence children's motivation. Conversely, for 47.1% of teachers lack of parental support is one of the challenges facing TEFL in 3PS. Add to this large class sizes, which according to observation findings constitute a significant barrier to learner-teacher connection and pupils do not receive individualized assistance. Another challenge facing TEFL in primary school is the psychological variables (learners' stress, low self-esteem, lack of motivation..etc) which hamper language acquisition (Krashen, 1982) and learners' engagement in EFL classes. Additional challenges include learners' age, quality of training programmes, and linguistic interference between French and English. 29.4% of teachers see learners' age as an impediment, while others believe that young learners in their age can learn multiple languages at once. The main research supporting these findings is that of Krashen et al (1979), who hold that "older-is-better for rate of acquisition" but "young learners are superior in optimum attainment". However, 47.1% of teachers are opposed to teaching French and English to third graders simultaneously. Some of these respondents cited language confusion as their justification. Other respondents mentioned linguistic interference between French and English as their justification. Likewise, when asked what form of linguistic interference they notice, the majority of teachers (52.9%) stated

between English and French, which is supported by observation findings; pupils blend French and English pronunciation. These results underpin Rothman's (2010, 2011) typological primacy model, which suggests typological proximity as a crucial determinant of the foreign language acquisition process. Statistics also demonstrate that the majority of teachers use standard Arabic as a linguistic aid to explain. In the same vein, observation data revealed that learners benefit from the use of Arabic. These findings are explained by Flynn et al's cumulative enhancement model (2004) and Ringbom's assertion of a facilitative potential of language transfer (1986). Contrariwise, according to 56.4% of parents teaching the two foreign languages (French and English) through standard Arabic places a high cognitive load on learners. The coexistence of two varieties of L1 is also regarded as a hurdle to language.

These interpretations concur to validate the hypothesis 1. The observation results further point to the absence of the professional competence components (*savoir-faire*, and *savoir-etre*), which are presented as essential interdependent components for teaching expertise (Boudreault, 2002). Teachers must, in addition, actively participate in language planning and policy rather than acting as passive recipients (Hornberger & Ricento, 1996; Skilton & Sylvester, 2003). Nevertheless, teachers never act as conduits for any particular policy (Varguese & Stritikus, 2005). As evidence, statistics show that teachers believe the national syllabus is a set of pre-defined rules that all teachers must follow (73.3%). According to Barlett and Butler (1986; as cited in Nunan et al, 1988), the teacher must be able to adjust the syllabus and curriculum to meet learners' needs.

The second research question tackles the effectiveness of teachers training programmes. It was hypothesized that the newly recruited EFL teachers have not received adequate training. The analysis of teachers' questionnaire showed that teachers find the training they received satisfactory. However, they cited a number of drawbacks, including the irrelevance of content, lack of materials and practical experience. In the same vein, the majority of teachers believe that the training dictates what teachers must do regardless of the diverse working environments each teacher faces, this was identified as the main disadvantage of traditional training programmes (Maley, 1990). Klinkerd (2015) asserts that teachers are passive participants in professional development

programmes. In parallel, statistics reveal that 41.2% of teachers have received reflective practice; which is supposed to be essential in teacher education (Richards, 2008; Johnson, 2009), and that only 23.3% received technological pedagogic content knowledge, even though studies indicated that it provides direction for effective technology integration (Mishra & Koehler, 2008; Mishra & Koehler, 2006). In this sense, Maraf (2012) argues that in Algeria “teacher training has often been neglected in education policies. There has been a delay, even a gap between education reforms and appropriate teacher preparation.” (p. 8)

The third hypothesis assumed that the instructional materials used in 3PS EFL classes are ineffective for young learners. According to observation data, teachers rely on flashcards, textbook, and audio materials. Audio materials are only used in the warm-up phase of teaching/ learning process; teachers do not utilize them to explain and deliver content, but to capture learners’ attention and enhance their motivation. However, once the teacher begins to use textbook, pupils lose motivation, as one of the downsides of textbook is that they display monotonous visuals, reading texts, and instructional activities (Basturkmen, 2000; as cited in Kodriyah et al, 2018). Plus, researchers contend that textbooks, are only a framework for instruction, which may be reinforced by additional materials based on the needs and preferences of a particular group of learners (O’Neil, 1982; Prodromou, 1988; Alptekin, 1993; Graves, 2000; Harmer, 2001). Nonetheless, in many parts of the world, the textbook and English classes at school are the only language input learners receive (Ghosn, 2003). The explanation for this reliance on textbooks is that many teachers, particularly novice teachers, regard the textbook as a wholly trustworthy authority (Chien and Young, 2007; Ghosn, 2003), teachers expect that by using the textbook, they will be able to cover all that is necessary in national syllabus and curriculum (Skolverket, 2006). Bell and Gower (1998) emphasize that materials should be designed or chosen for the target learners in order to ensure personal engagement and motivation to delve deeper into the materials. Concerning flashcards, they are claimed to be helpful for relating lexis (Haycraft, 1978; Cross, 1991); the findings of the observation in this research support this claim. Teachers’ questionnaire and observation results revealed that teachers rely on textbook and syllabus, therefore document analysis was used to determine the usefulness of these

teaching resources. The analysis shows the syllabus is organized around the competencies that learners are expected to learn, with a connection between the document, the teaching methodologies and procedures. Class schedules are not articulated nor logically sequenced. The document, in addition, concentrates on listening and speaking skills. It also directs teachers to use some unavailable teaching materials, such as videos; according to observation data, ICT materials are unavailable, and audio materials are provided by the teachers. In this regard, Ghedjghoudj (2002) asserts that educational policies in Algeria are over ambitious, in the light of limited human and material resources and an increasing school population. Document analysis also shows that, while the textbook meets syllabus requirements, includes tasks for improving communicative strategies, which fit learners' aptitudes with reachable goals, the textbook lacks an appealing layout and is not appropriate for the age of learners due to its poor quality, content and activities are only relied on developing listening and speaking skills, new items do not receive adequate and diverse practice, and sounds recognition and production receive inadequate attention. The cover design should be informative, appealing, more durable, prestigious, and simple to recognize in order to draw readers' attention (New Mediatrix, 2008). Equivalently, Harmer (2001) and Nunan (1991) highlighted that language teaching materials should be visually appealing; the density of the page, font size, and layout cohesiveness should all be considered. Furthermore, Waring and Takaki (2003) assert that "[i]f the word was met fewer than 5 times, the chance [that its meaning would be remembered] is next to zero." (p. 150).

English proficiency is based on the ability to speak and write in English, as well as receive and understand spoken and written language. Reading and listening are considered as reception skills, while production skills involve speaking and writing (Skolverkert, 2018). The goal of the English syllabus is that "pupils should be given the opportunity to develop all-round communicative skills." (ibid: p34). The syllabus, however should specify not only the language skills requirements for students, but also the topics they should be able to communicate about (ibid: p36-37).

The observation data also demonstrate that competency-based classes are not fully competency-based; CBA characteristics are not met in teachers' practices because

of time restrictions. In this sense, Bellour (2017), found that English classes are not competency-based, as teachers do not adhere to the governing principles of CBA. Issaou et al (2008) report that several issues have been observed throughout competency-based curriculum implementation. They further demonstrate that “Research confirms that a number of constraints might prevent CBC from developing basic competencies and life skills in school.” (in Sunal & Mutua: 50). Based on their view, countries like Algeria struggle to put CBC into practice because of “lack of teaching and learning resources, difficult and abstract academic concepts, poor subject matter planning and time management, large class sizes, lack of financial resources, teacher attitudes, examination systems, and poorly-developed classroom assessment strategies.” (p. 50-51).

2.4 Conclusion

The focus of this chapter was on methodological rationale and research findings. The triangulation of the gathered data produced intriguing results. Introducing English in primary school is challenging, due to pedagogical, psychological and social factors; including class size, learners’ lack of motivation and low self-esteem, insufficient teaching and learning materials, and inadequate teacher preparation.

General Conclusion

Despite the expanding academic interest on language education policy, implementation of its principles is hampered by ignorance which leads to a number of complications. As language education policy is not self-contained, but formed by the political, social, economic, and ideological conditions in which it is developed, all of which are constantly changing.

In the Algerian context, there is a quandary in introducing young children to three different systems. Standard Arabic which is not their mother tongue, serves as the medium of instruction; French and English are two mandatory subjects introduced simultaneously in the third grade. A language education policy of such complexity has challenges facing, in its proper implementation, teachers and learners. This dissertation investigates outcomes of introducing English in third grade primary school, emphasizing on the major issues confronting teachers and pupils.

The structure of this dissertation was constructed on two chapters, the first provided a theoretical foundation for the research. It addressed salient challenges in TEFL, as well as, language contact repercussions. It also touched on teachers' characteristics and the difficulties experienced in the teaching/learning process. The second chapter, on the other hand, covered the methodology and findings of the research. It was decided to employ an exploratory case study for the pragmatic approach. A combination of research instruments was designed to fulfil the research requirements, in order to confirm or reject the proposed hypotheses. The triangulation of data furnished intriguing results through two questionnaires, an observation, and document analysis.

Subsequent to data collection and analysis, notable conclusions were attained. With regards to the first research question, the findings indicate that the main hurdles encountered in introducing English language to primary school level include inadequate parental support, class size, psychological challenges, teachers training, learners' age. Empirical evidence reveals that parental support has a significant impact on the academic performance of children. The attitudes of parents are seen to exert a substantial

influence on the academic progress of their children. Nonetheless, a significant segment of EFL teachers in primary school observe inadequate support from parents as one of the principal challenges. In addition, large class sizes hinder learner-teacher connection and prevent individualized assistance, while psychological variables including learners' low self-esteem and lack of motivation impede language acquisition and engagement in EFL classes. Add to this, learners' age, the quality of training programmes, and linguistic interference. Besides, some EFL teachers perceive language confusion, and linguistic interference between French and English among learners. Most teachers use standard Arabic to explain. Learners benefit from using Arabic, according to observation data. The findings also indicate a lack of professional competence components (*savoir-faire* and *savoir-être*) that are required for teaching expertise (Boudreault, 2002). Rather than being passive recipients, teachers must actively engage in language planning and policy (Hornberger & Ricento, 1996; Skilton & Sylvester, 2003). Statistics, however, demonstrate that teachers believe the national syllabus is a collection of pre-defined rules that all teachers must follow.

The second research question concerns the efficacy of teacher training. The results show that according to the majority of teachers the training determines what teachers must do, regardless of the different working environments that each teacher faces. The training, furthermore, does not address the key requirements of teachers, which are met through reflective practice and technological pedagogic content knowledge.

The third research question addresses the efficacy of teaching/ learning materials. The findings showed that 3PS EFL teachers base their teaching practices on textbooks and flashcards. The extensive dependence on textbook and syllabus necessitated an analysis of the two documents, which revealed that the textbook is unappealing and may dull young learners, while the syllabus does not cover all of the linguistic skills of learners and is insufficiently informative. Results also prove that EFL classes are not truly competency-based, due to time constraints.

All studies face limitations, and the present research is certainly not an exception. Firstly, the results presented should be treated with caution since they may not be

generalizable due to two key limitations. First, findings applicable to the Algerian context are not appropriate to be extended to other contexts as each has its own unique attributes. Second, the sample size is small, conversely the method and resulting data may still allow for transferability of the findings to domestic research. Another limitation is the scarcity of research in the topic. Domestic research on the domain has been limited in comparison to foreign research.

In terms of future recommendations, they might exploit these limitations to conduct further research on language education planning in Algeria. Exploring the outcomes of educational policies in particular. It is also suggested to investigate primary school learners' progress in English, as the language will be established in the fourth grade next year.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Parents' Questionnaire

استبيان

شكرا على مشاركتكم في تعبئة هذا الاستبيان. الرجاء اختيار الاجابات الملائمة و تقديم التفاصيل اللازمة

1. ما هي اللغة الأجنبية التي تفضل ابنك ان يتعلمها؟ .

لماذا؟

- لأن اللغة الفرنسية ارث الاستعمار
- لأن اللغة الانجليزية لغة عالمية لأن اللغة
- الانجليزية أسهل من الفرنسية
- لأن اللغة الفرنسية مهيمنة في حياتنا اليومية اجد اللغة الفرنسية
- اسهل من اللغة الانجليزية

2. أنا مع ادراج اللغة الانجليزية في الطور الابتدائي :

نعم

لا

3. نتائج طفلي في اللغة الانجليزية :

ممتازة

جيدة

متوسطة

ضعيفة

4. يسعد طفلي تعلم جميع اللغات التي تقدمها المدرسة في الصف الثالث

اوافق

نوعا ما اوافق

5. يجد طفلي صعوبة في تعلم لغتين أجنبيتين معا:

أوافق

نوعا ما اوافق

لا أوافق

6. تعليم الأطفال لغتين أجنبيتين في نفس الوقت لا يؤثر سلباً على ادائهم الدراسي:

أوافق

نوعاً ما أوافق

لا أوافق

7. يمثل تعليم الأطفال لغتين أجنبيتين في نفس الوقت تحدياً لقدراتهم المعرفية إذ يتم تدريس اللغتين من خلال العربية الفصحى

أوافق

نوعاً ما أوافق

لا أوافق

8. تفضل أن تعرض البرامج التي يشاهدها طفلك بـ:

العربية العامية

العربية الفصحى

الفرنسية

الانجليزية

9. كيف تشجع ابنك على تعلم اللغة الانجليزية؟

Appendix B

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

You are kindly invited to complete the following questionnaire. Please tick the appropriate answer and provide necessary details. Your collaboration is greatly appreciated, thank you.

SECTION ONE: Background Information

1. My age is between

23-35

36-50

above 50

2. As a primary school teacher of English, how many hours of pre-service training have you received?

.....

3. How many hours of in-service training have you received?

.....

4. I find the hourly volume of (pre- and in-service) training enough:

agree

somehow agree

disagree

5. The training I received was satisfactory:

totally

to a great extent

to an extent

not really

6. The training I received was:

Beneficial covering all the required aspects of teaching/learning

Fails to bridge the gap between theoretical knowledge acquired at university and the real world of teaching practice.

Dictates what teachers must do regardless of the diverse working environments each teacher faces.

Helps overcome the challenges that teachers face throughout their professional development.

Affects teacher's practices, beliefs and effectiveness.

7. In case there were drawbacks in your training, highlight them:

8. Focus of the teacher training was on:

- Reflective practice (reflecting on your teaching methods)
- Psycho-pedagogy
- Pedagogic content knowledge
- Technological pedagogic content knowledge
- Others (specify):

9. The role of the teacher was strongly emphasized in the training I received:

- agree somehow agree disagree

10. My personal evaluation of the trainers is:

SECTION TWO: Learning Process

1. The main challenges facing me when teaching English to 3rd graders basically relate to (you can tick more than one option):

- Learners' age
- Psychological challenges (learners' anxiety, lack of self-esteem, etc.)
- Class size
- Quality of training programmes and teacher education
- Lack of parental support
- Other (specify):

Appendix C

Observation Grid

Lesson Title:

Date:

Class Size:

Duration:

(1= Totally true, 2= partly true, 3=totally wrong)

Elements Observed	1	2	3	Notes
1. The content can be easily delivered by the teacher				
2. The content is based on objectives/competencies				
3. The use of Standard Arabic/ Dialectal Arabic facilitates the learning process				
4. Perceived comprehension by, and progress of, learners				
5. The variety of instructional materials used to improve students' comprehension and retention				
6. The teacher employs course-appropriate techniques				
7. The teacher encourages classroom group work				

8.The teacher can provide students with individualized assistance		
9. Psychological factors (e.g., learner's stress) has an impact on their behaviors.		
10.language interference is spotted among pupils		
11.The teacher effectively assists learners in developing the ability to put into practice the theoretical content		
12.Teachers' patience and empathy with learners		
13.The teacher focuses on developing competencies regardless of time limits		

Appendix D

Checklist for Syllabus Analysis

(1= totally true; 2= partly true; 3= wrong)

Requirements	1	2	3	Comments
1. Class schedules are fully articulated and logically sequenced				
2. The syllabus is structured around the competencies learners are expected to learn				
3. The target competencies are clearly stated				
4. The syllabus is outcome-based, and is adjustable				
5. The syllabus promotes teaching and learning both receptive and productive skills				
6. It directs the transmission of fundamental language skills (vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation)				
7. The suggested activities encourage group work				
8. Every assignment is tied to a specific course goal/outcome				

9. There is a link between the syllabus and the available materials		
10. There is a bridge between the syllabus, teaching methodologies and the procedures that put the syllabus into action		

Appendix E

Checklist for Textbook Analysis

(1= totally true; 2= partly true; 3= wrong)

Requirements	1	2	3	Comments
1. The textbook has an appealing layout; high quality printing and illustrations.				
2. It is compatible to the syllabus standards.				
3. It is compatible to the age and interests of learners.				
4. It is methodologically consistent with the adopted approach to language teaching and learning (CBA).				
5. The balance between listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills is established throughout the textbook.				
6. There is a mix between individual work, pair work, and group work.				
7. There are activities for developing communication strategies and communicative interaction.				
8. The situations in dialogues seem realistic and authentic.				
9. Tasks are relevant to learners' abilities and have attainable goals.				

10. New structures are systematically provided in relevant context.		
11. The meaning of new vocabulary is provided in context.		
12. The recognition and production of individual sounds have received adequate attention.		
13. New items receive adequate and diverse practice.		

Issues in the Algerian Language Education Policy: The Case of Introducing English to Third Graders

ملخص

تتناول هذه الأطروحة المسائل المتعلقة بالسياسة التعليمية الجزائرية في المرحلة الابتدائية وتركز على تحديات تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس الابتدائية. باستخدام أدوات بحث مختلفة، تحلل هذه الدراسة نتائج التدريس المتزامن للغة الإنجليزية والفرنسية في الصف الثالث، كما تهدف إلى تحديد مدى استعداد وجاهزية معلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية لتدريس طلاب الصف الثالث.

الكلمات المفتاحية: السياسة التعليمية، معلمي الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، طلاب الصف الثالث.

Summary

This dissertation is concerned with issues related to language education policy in the Algerian primary school. It revolves around challenges encountered when teaching/learning English in primary school. Using a variety of research instruments, the present research investigates the outcomes of introducing third graders to English alongside French. It also attempts to determine the extent to which primary school EFL teachers are prepared and equipped to teach third graders.

Keywords: language education policy, EFL teachers, third graders.

Résumé

Cette dissertation porte sur les interrogations liées à la politique linguistique éducative dans l'école primaire en Algérie. Elle s'articule autour des défis rencontrer dans l'enseignement/ l'apprentissage de l'Anglais à l'école primaire. Cette recherche utilise une variété d'outils de recherche pour examiner les conséquences de l'introduction de l'Anglais à côtés du Français en troisième année primaire. Elle vise également à déterminer dans quelle mesure les enseignants d'Anglais comme langue étrangère sont préparés et équipés pour enseigner la 3^{ème} année.

Mots clés : la politique linguistique éducative, les enseignants d'Anglais comme langue étrangère, la 3^{ème} année.