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**SOCIOLINGUISTIC AND PEDAGOGICAL DIMENSIONS
OF DIALECT USE IN PRE-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION: THE
CASE OF PRIMARY SCHOOL IN ALGERIAN
EDUCATION**

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ABSTRACT

The existence of MSA as a means of instruction on the one hand and AA, the mother tongue of the Algerian learner, on the other, makes the process of learning an arduous one. This thesis examines the classroom discourse in primary school. Describing first, how primary school teachers and learners have co constructed the classroom talk. It then considers lesson description by exploring teachers' knowledge, understanding of, and attitudes towards, languages and diglossia. The study scrutinizes primary teachers' attitudes vis-à-vis the introduction of dual variety education in Algerian classroom. The data are discussed in terms of education and second language acquisition theory and Algerian education and language policies. The results indicate that the teachers lack awareness about this linguistic issue which overwhelm the Algerian classroom. They all recognize that a lack of exposure to MSA is the primary cause of language problems for learners and that AA, the mother tongue is a downgraded variety and does not need to be maintained or promoted in the school. However, they do accept the introduction of dual language education as strategy to help learners learning MSA in an early age. The thesis concludes that shortcomings in training and information encourage these two assumptions to take root and that the implementation of three-year kindergarten institution in which the instruction will be in both AA and MSA is necessary.

Key words: Algerian Arabic, dual variety education, transitional period, educative Algerian system

تتميز الجزائر بالثنائية اللغوية التي تعتمد على اللغة العربية الفصحى الحديثة (MSA) كوسيلة للتعليم العامية الجزائرية (AA) اللغة الأم للمتعلم الجزائري. هذه الازدواجية اللغوية تجعل من التعلم عملية شاقة. تدرس هذه الأطروحة البيئة الصفية في المدارس . حيث تصف أولاً، في شكل دراسة حالة، كيف يقوم معلمي المدارس الابتدائية في بيئة الفصول الدراسية المرحلة تأسيس المعارف ثم تعتمد لمعرفة الاسباب الي جعلت المعلمين الي اللجوء الي مثل هذه الطرق من خلال استكشاف معرفتهم وفهمه ، والمواقف تجاه ،اللغة الاولى والثانية. هذه الدراسة تحقق أيضا في اتجاهات كل من معلمي المدارس الابتدائية وطلاب الجامعات نحو إدخال تعليمية اللغة الام في الفصول الدراسية الجزائرية. وتناقش البيانات من حيث التعليم نظرية اكتساب اللغة الثانية والتعليم الجزائرية و السياسات اللغوية. نتائج هذه الدراسة تشير إلى أن المعلمين لديهم اثنين من الافتراضات الأساسية التي تركز عليها اعمالهم، وكذا بناء الفصول الدراسية. الفرضية الأولى تبين أن نقص التعرض للغة الفصحى هو السبب الرئيسي لمشاكل للمتعلمين اللغوية، والثانية تستدل على أن اللغة لحفاظ عليها أو الترويج لها في البيئة المدرسية لأن المتعلمين قد تعرضوا لها بما فيه كفاية في المنزل. وفي الاخير تخلص الاطروحة أن أوجه القصور في التدريب والمعلومات تشجع هذه الافتراضات و أن إنشاء برنامج روضة من ثلاث سنوات للأطفال في التعليمات ستكون

MSA AA

,المرحلة الانتقالية,

,الكلمات المفتاحية:العربية الجزائرية ,

Résumé

L'Algérie est une communauté bidialectale caractérisée par la coexistence de l'Arabe Moderne Standard (MSA) en tant que moyen d'instruction et l'Arabe algérien (AA) en tant que la langue maternelle de l'apprenant algérien. Cette dualité linguistique rend le processus d'apprentissage ardu. A cet effet, cette thèse examine l'effet de cette situation sur la classe à l'école primaire. D'abord, elle décrit, sous la forme d'une étude de cas, comment les enseignants de l'école primaire ont construit l'environnement de la phase de fondation de leurs classes. Or, elle considère pourquoi les enseignants ont réuni leurs classes dans ces moyens en explorant leurs connaissances et leur compréhension du monolinguisme, bidialectalisme, de la langue seconde ainsi que les attitudes à leur égard. Cette étude a également étudié les attitudes des enseignants à l'école primaire et des étudiants universitaires vis-à-vis de l'introduction d'une instruction bidialectale en classe algérienne. Les résultats de cette étude ont indiqué que les enseignants ont deux hypothèses fondamentales qui sous-tendent leur action et leur construction de leur classe. La première hypothèse postule que le manque d'exposition à MSA est la principale cause des problèmes langagiers des apprenants et la seconde atteste que la langue maternelle n'est plus nécessaire en classe du moment que les apprenants ont été suffisamment et naturellement exposés à leur L1 dans leur environnement immédiat. La thèse parvient à la conclusion révélant que des lacunes dans la formation et l'information en classes de primaire encouragent ces deux assomptions enracinées et que la mise en place d'un programme de trois années au maternelle par lequel l'enseignement de AA et MSA est exigé.

Mots clés : Arabe Algérien, diglossie, la période de transition, le système éducatif Algérien.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

- AA: Algerian Arabic
AAE: African American English
AAVE: African American Vernacular English
CA: Classical Arabic
CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning
Col. Ar: Colloquial Arabic
CRDP: Centre Régional de Documentation Pédagogique
(*trans*/Regional Educational Documentation Centres)
GCD: Greek Cypriot dialect
D1: Dialect 1 or Mother Tongue
D2: Dialect 2
DA: Dialectal Arabic
(i): Interview
ICT: Information and Communication Technology
IL: Interlanguage
L1: First Language
L2: Second Language
LA: Literary Arabic
LCRG: Language Curriculum Research Group
LP: Language Policy
MA: Maghreban Arabic
MSA: Modern Standard Arabic
Obs: Observation
SA: Standard Arabic
SAE: Standard American English
SDA: Second Dialect Acquisition
SESD: Standard English as a Second Dialect
SLA: Second language Acquisition
SMG: Standard Modern Greek
T1: Teacher 1
T2: Teacher 2
TESOL: Teaching English to speakers of other languages

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THE SYSTEM OF PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

Phonetic transcription	Arabic letters	Examples	Gloss
[ʔ]		[ʔalb]	heart
[b]		[ba:b]	Door
[t]		[tu:t]	Blueberry
[θ]		[θaʔr]	Revenge
[dʒ]		[dʒbel]	Mountain
[ʒ]	---	[ʒi:b]	Pocket
[f]		[fu:t]	Fish
[x]		[χubz]	Bread
[d]		[da:r]	House
[ð]		[ðajl]	Tail
[r]		[ri:f]	Wind
[r]	---	[ramla]	Sand
[z]		[zu:ʒ]	Two
[s]		[si:f]	Sword
[ʃ]		[ʃazra]	Tree
[ʂ]		[ʂabu:n]	Soap
[d]		[dʌw]	Light
[t]		[tɑ:bla]	Table
[ʔ]		[ʔajn]	Eye
[ɣ]		[ɣa:ba]	Forest
[f]		[fa:r]	Mouse
[q]		-	-
[g]	---	-	-
[k]		[kəmel]	all
[l]		[li:m]	Lemon
[m]		[mu:t]	Death
[n]		[nafla]	Bee
[h]		[hijja]	She
[w]		[warda]	Rose
[j]		[jedd]	Hand

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

General Introduction

This research work is an in-depth investigation that basically addresses the nature of interaction in Algerian classrooms where pupils learn through Modern Standard Arabic (henceforth MSA) the “newly-introduced language”. MSA/AA-medium teaching and learning is explored as well as on the ways in which such interaction can bear and support both the curriculum learning and language development of pupils that, in turn, constitutes the backbone of the study at stake.

Next, we try to illustrate how this teacher-pupil co-constructed talk reflects together the everyday language of the pupil learning through MSA, the school language which they must learn to control. At the same time, we describe how teacher-pupil interaction can enhance learner’s language and curriculum content assimilation.

In particular, we focus on those features of this interaction which empower MSA development and of pupil’s participation in the classroom’s activities. Each of these aforementioned themes emerges at different points throughout the dissertation, and will be briefly discussed in due course.

In Algeria, it is common that pupils learn MSA and learning through it as well; this pedagogical approach is referred to as Content and Language Integrated Learning, or CLIL for short.

In an attempt to make explicit the core of the issue of this dissertation, a five minutes researcher-pupil conversation about her learning reveals that while this pupil is fluent in most everyday contexts, she recognizes her weaknesses and inability to control the school language. It is exactly where

the researcher locates his issue; it was argued that even after five years the Algerian learner is still struggling with his language school learning.

In Algeria, virtually all school-aged pupils come from a language background that is different from MSA, the school language. This difference is referred to as distant gap which exists between AA and MSA. Without explicit support, however, these learners may encounter linguistic insecurity and language disorder that lead to drop out from school in an early period.

This alarming reality motivates the researcher to examine how MSA development can be better integrated in the content of the curriculum. Thus, the overall aim of the present work is to identify strategic items in oral language facilitating children language development, but which at the same time support the learning curriculum.

More particularly, this study focuses on the learning of MSA at school by children who are already familiar with a dialect in this case Algerian Arabic (henceforth, AA). It seeks to address some questions relevant to the research development:

- ✓ How complex is the situation of the Arabic language and how does that complexity relate to education
- ✓ What urgent measures are needed to reform the education system
- ✓ Can an ambitious Arabic language planning policy be in use to introduce the desirable and urgently needed reforms?
- ✓ What acceptable steps can be taken to implement a concrete education programme which will make Arabic easy to learn

One pedagogical response to the situation above is for a teacher to simplify or modify the language of the classroom, by, for example: attempting to avoid a complex vocabulary or arduous grammatical structures. While this strategy may help, in our view, to make language comprehensible to learners in the short term, it does not take into account how the learner grasps new and necessary linguistic knowledge. Moreover, as it was affirmed by many experts in the field, linguistically simplified curriculum is also likely to create lower academic expectations for both teachers and learners.

To further deepen the researcher's insight and get some sound and efficient strategies, the following predicted answers that form the hypotheses of this research work try to make clear the researcher's objectives:

- ✓ There is an obvious connection between repetition in the first grades of primary education and the learning of reading and writing in MSA;
- ✓ There is a need for greater awareness of the impact of linguistic factors and school performance;
- ✓ Both Algerian learners and teachers used AA in different contexts and have a positive attitudes towards this use
- ✓ The implementation of three-years kindergarten instruction is of urgent necessity

To argue that, we need to consider how the ongoing of the classroom programmes is done in the day-to-day interactions.

For all Algerian pupils who are unfamiliar with MSA which constructs the school curriculum, this teaching-and-learning medium of instruction must facilitate and not inhibit the transition from the learners' acquired language and the newly introduced code.

There is a parallel here with Bernstein's notions of vertical and horizontal discourses, explained so far by differences between home and school environment or between different subject areas.

The challenge for teachers is how to bridge the gap between horizontal and vertical discourse. In the mentioned situation the researcher deliberately join his point of view to Le Page (1971) who claimed that the best learning tools of instruction are those which show continuity between the home and the school language, realized through horizontal discourse, and the unfamiliar and abstract, realized through vertical discourse.

The description of classroom practices throughout the study combines the psycholinguistic processes of learning in a diglossic setting. Given the complexities of teaching and learning in the classroom, this multidisciplinary perspective is especially relevant to a study which attempts to demonstrate how theory and practice in dual, or what might be called bidialectal education, can inform each other.

What is required for the purpose of such an investigation is exploring the language within the curriculum content and ongoing classroom processes in which it occurs. At the same time its significance for learners' language development needs to be considered. To this end we draw on

insights from linguistics, sociolinguistic approaches to learning and teaching, and pedagogical approaches to dual variety education, and language acquisition studies.

It is important to keep in mind, especially in the context of education, that dialects do not represent language deficiency. Speaking a dialect is not the result of poor or incomplete language learning and its use does not impede cognitive development.

Several countries in Europe have successfully dealt with the use of dialects in education in the last thirty years or so. On the contrary, in some other countries, including Algeria, such matters have yet to be adequately addressed and effectively resolved. (For more details chapters 4 and 5)

There are strong voices advocating against the use of dialects in education. The recent action from the part of the Ministry of Education attempts the introduction of AA as an aid for learners, however, this initiative faces the nasty reaction from approximately the whole Algerian population.

The aforementioned situation may be the source of problems for both teachers and learners which have not been sufficiently and adequately addressed by the authorities for many years. Recently, however, the role of dialect in education has been the focus of many scholars from different nations (Griffou: 1980, Maamouri: 2006, Papapavlou: 2007, Ramdani: 2005, Yiakoumetti: 2013) as well as a great number of academics and researchers from Norway, Greece, the UK, Spain, and Switzerland.

The theoretical, descriptive and experimental studies that are presented in this dissertation deal mainly with the status of the dialect in the Algerian different settings, its relation and coexistence with MSA and its use or non-use in education. In terms of the general layout, the present dissertation consists of five chapters.

The first chapter provides a detailed account of the language practiced in Algerian schools and analyses the way teachers deal with the dialect in relation to education throughout the years. We have attempted to demonstrate that in the domains of language and education a contact between these two codes may occur.

Next we have made an attempt to describe the role and the use of the Algerian dialect in the classroom. Also, we have stated that the teachers' attitudes are expected to support the aforementioned idea when they do not characterize it as mistake the use of learner's home language.

We carry on stating that both teachers and learners are generally expected to use MSA in the classroom. The use of AA is also legitimate, accordingly when learners face difficulties in oral discussion, especially in first grade levels of primary school. Finally, we tried to provide the reader with a description of the basic differences between the dialect and the standard varieties through this chapter.

The second chapter proposes several solutions that can be offer in relation to dialectal education focusing mainly on the Arabic language or through analogy with other languages (French and especially English as a

second language). We have thought out necessary aspects of sociolinguistic research that are relevant to the question of dialectal education.

Exploration carried out in classrooms is discussed in terms of initiatives in dual language education, the use of dialect in classroom, research on children's spoken language at school. Previous studies in the field suggested that there is much evidence to show that children reach higher levels of educational attainment when their mother tongue has a recognized and explicitly valued place within the educational system.

On the other hand, we have explored issues relating educational materials that have traditionally been based on the standard language and stressed the need for coming up with alternative approaches to language duality related to dialects. We have concluded that if diglossia of everyday life is consciously reflected in the classroom, then positive messages will be sent out.

The third chapter presents the methodological considerations of data collection. It focuses on the different ways and tools for getting reliable data. Moreover, it attempts to ascertain the way by which the data obtained will be fairly analysed. It describes the research design and methodology used in this study. Multiple methods of data collection are discussed.

The data collection was undertaken over a period of three years, during which we observed many full school days in EL Arbi Tebessi primary school located in Tlemcen, the researchers' county. During these observation periods we made field notes relating to teacher's behaviour

and we described the classrooms in detail. Further to reach our aim, we also administered a questionnaire to primary teachers and conducted four in- depth interviews.

The fourth chapter is about data Analysis and data interpretation. It discusses the issue of language -in- education policy in diglossic settings. Through classroom observation and a questionnaire; we investigated primary teachers' views and attitudes on their mother tongue and the possibility of its introduction in the curriculum. As a final research step, we have explored teachers' position on language policy matters which for the researcher represent the crux of the study.

To clarify more, we have not only investigated teachers' attitudes towards the use of AA but also presented specific examples where it is used in different subjects of the curriculum. The target is to show teachers' different views on the use of the dialect in the classroom and to look at what actually goes on in the classroom with regard to the use of AA.

For that purpose, in the fifth chapter, a three- year-dual variety-language model is designed to be used as a programme in kindergartens. The model is elaborated using a Canadian curriculum in order to encourage learners' reflection on language differences and similarities between MSA and AA.

After an exploration of the status of the existing public and private kindergartens, we noticed the lack of teaching materials for dual variety education. Thus, we suggest involving multimedia stories and multivariate resources that can be used to highlight the implications for curriculum and pedagogy. By this, a marked improvement in learners' MSA production, in

a sense that MSA/AA co-occurrences will be reduced and fluency in MSA will be attained.

The study clearly points out that the systematic use of children's mother tongue in education has positive effects on their linguistic performance. Several investigations in this dissertation appropriately refer to issues of language-in-education policy and planning in reference to Algeria, it is imperative for the language policy in education to be reviewed

Chapter One

Glimpses on MSA and Current Issues in Language in Education

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1. Glimpses on MSA and Current Issues in Language in Education

1.1 Introduction

The coexistence of dialect and standard varieties in school may have direct and indirect relevance to education issues. To explore this relationship, this chapter provides an overview the status of both MSA and AA in learning context draws on some recent research projects, and then considers some sociopragmatic aspects of dialect use.

These elements of reflection are discussed in terms of initiatives in dual variety education, the use of the dialect in the classroom, and the children's spoken and writing codes in class.

We will review two aspects that have mainly been directed towards the question of the place of AA in education. Then, an explanation is carried out of the classroom, describing how AA is used and evaluating the educational consequences of integrating it into the school curriculum.

A thorough emphasis has been put to the planning of education system in Algeria. As in other countries, curricula and teaching materials are directed and prescribed by government. An alternative approach and other materials will be explored at this level to highlight their implications for curricula and pedagogy to better serve the Algerian context.

1.2 The Classroom: The Milieu of Contact

The classroom provides a very special type of contact situation between the two varieties of Arabic. MSA is, in practice, learned mainly in the formal context of the classroom. This sheds light on the fact that Algerian teachers are asked to teach a language with which they are not familiar with. Furthermore, they are encouraged to exclusively use it when they move into the classroom; it is the language of instruction and also the object of learning.

The context of the classroom incites both teachers and learners to make their own educational and social backgrounds in use. Following this reasoning, this context would rather be defined as “not natural given, but as a social construct, the product of linguistic choices made by two or more individuals interacting through language” (Kramsh, 1993:46). It implies that in classroom each participant is expected to contribute in determining the direction and effects of the interaction process (Tsui, 1995:6).

However, it is noticed that the teachers dominates the classroom, they not only do most of the talking, but also determine and regulate the topics of talk. As a result, only their own meanings are developed and introduced in the conversations. This indicates that negotiation of meanings is often absent in the Algerian classroom.

This frightening unilateral interactions make the actual status of education in Algeria at risk and not safe. The classroom often makes the behaviour of teachers imperceptible and unpredictable.

1.3 Teachers' Talk

In the Algerian classroom, we can assert that the teacher talk is a register. Teachers adjust their language in order to account for the learners' communicative needs, the only thing that seems to be practiced by all teachers in the same situation. The same reasoning is shared by Allwright and Bailey (1991) who consider that the nature of instruction makes talk in the classroom structurally different from other kinds of talks.

For this, an appropriate account of the way Algerian teachers manage their language in the classroom needs to be seen not only in formal, structural terms, but also in more elaborated functional interactional terms.

Teachers' talk within the classroom can be described in terms of the view of Willis (2011) who accounts for the classroom language as divided into two main categories:

- 1- Language for social, personal, and organizational uses.
- 2- Language for instructional uses.

This view implies considering classroom interaction as intentional and planned. Through this study, we shall try to consider the extent to which this applies to Algerian teachers' talk. Language use for teachers is guided and restricted by both formal and interactional constraints which will be considered in chapter two, it is to point out that the way talk is shaped and structured will probably differ in accordance with the functions it is produced to fulfill.

1.4 Language Choice within the Classroom

1.4.1 Problem of Labels

One of the main issues that should be determined when Arabic and its varieties form the ground of the study is the problem of labels. The formal and informal forms of Arabic have been defined by many scholars in terms of the functions assigned to each variety.

Several cover terms have been proposed to determine the language of school, namely Classical Arabic (CA), Literary Arabic (LA), and Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). All these layers of Arabic have in common a sole feature which indicates that they refer to the variety of Arabic which is not mastered by Algerian pupils and teachers nor used in their daily-life interactions.

The choice of CA as the appropriate label to denote the language of school is disregarded in this research for we truly believe that it is largely associated to the language of the Koran and henceforth hardly applied to an educational domain like the classroom.

Therefore, we prefer to use MSA as a term in order to include LA, SA and particularly to refer to the form of Arabic which is in Meiseles' (1980:3) terms "an independent code which grew out of the changes that have taken place in Classical Arabic".

This variety has undergone significant changes yet remains the core base which is derived from CA with less complex features. The choice of such a variety as the most appropriate form of Arabic may be justified by the fact that it fulfills the learners' and teachers need in classroom situations.

As far as the variety spoken and used by most Algerians in their everyday communication, many forms are found to be prevalent, namely Maghrebian Arabic (MA), Dialectal Arabic (DA), Colloquial Arabic (Col. Ar), or vernacular Arabic. All these labels refer to a spoken variety of Arabic which is totally non-codified.

We rather opt for Algerian Arabic (AA) to refer to the form of Arabic shared by the whole Algerian linguistic community. This variety is also practiced by both teachers and pupils as the first linguistic vehicle by which spoken interactions are realized.

We have so far considered some label problems relevant to Arabic and its varieties to handle the language of school for we believe that their identification is necessary before launching a study that treats the relationship between MSA and AA. We have also tried to draw the structural lines of demarcation between the two systems in order to objectively arrive at some reliable and undenied findings.

1.4.2 MSA/AA in Contact within a Classroom Setting

We need now to move on to the classroom in which AA/MSA relationship is to take a totally distinct aspect from the one it may have outside this situation. In order to grasp the reality of such a relationship, we should provide some basic criteria that make AA's (L1) presence in MSA (L2) classrooms an undeniable fact. To achieve this, we will see in what ways AA is relevant to Algerian learners.

From a sociolinguistic perspective, the choice of a given language to carry out classroom interaction results from and through the many uses and choices among potential varieties that comes into contact within classroom context. For Algerian teachers, MSA and AA are seen as potential varieties they can use, the former being the language of instruction, the latter representing their mother tongue

Kramsh (1993) advocates that language choice depends principally on one's assessment of the situation of communication as well as the expectations raised in the participants by the situation. Thus, it is a matter of decision making on the part of the teacher in accordance with his/her perceptions of the learners which can represent a given set of beliefs and attitudes

Accordingly, we try to understand the nature of these manipulations and choices in the light of the different codes used by teachers. Then, we question whether teachers tend towards the choice of MSA as the only code in the classroom or allow a certain variation by making into practice code switching to AA.

In the case of Algeria, AA is the primary code for both teachers and pupils and hence the choice of another code as a medium of interaction on the part of teachers implies a clear divergence from the pupils' code.

Consequently, when teachers use AA, they attempt to converge with the pupils' code. When they use MSA, teachers try to establish a formal type of relationship with the pupils. Put otherwise, teachers attempt to teach MSA which, by definition, acquires the status of the classroom language.

1.4.3 AA/MSA Code Switching as a Device of Speech Accommodation

When Algerian teachers address their pupils in AA instead of MSA on a given occasion, they fulfill with these pupils' linguistic needs, in particular in their early schooling years. This compliance basically corresponds to what Giles and Powesland (1997) refer to as "speech accommodation".

Speech accommodation, in this respect, can be regarded as a device that teachers use to make themselves better understood and well perceived. Furthermore, this may be interpreted as a scheme used in an attempt to reduce the distance between them and the pupils in order to make themselves accepted by the pupils not merely as authoritative figures.

In accordance with the formality of the classroom context, it follows that if teachers' code switch from MSA to AA, such a switch is communicatively and individually motivated and hence it is of a conversational nature.

When code switching occurs in the other direction (from AA to MSA), the teacher's move is rather oriented towards re-establishing of classroom rules. It means, MSA and AA are attributed the status of only two styles of speaking, with MSA standing as the formal style and AA as the informal style.

Admittedly, the two views need to be taken into account. We shall attempt to give a functional interpretation to the instances of codeswitching brought in light. We follow these steps in order to look for the different and

specific patterns that may characterize the teachers' use of AA in the classroom.

1.5 Teachers' Attitudes

Kramarae (1982:44) defines attitudes as “an organization of motivational, emotional and judgmental processes with respect to [some aspect of language], an organization which has directive impact on what the individual sees and hears, thinks and does.” In the same manner, perceptions and judgments of teachers are decisive in defining their general expectations in relation to the role that each variety fulfills in the classroom.

In attempting to discover the teachers' general as well as specific attitudes towards AA and MSA, we can step forward, for the following chapter, in proposing some criteria upon which to judge and explain their language behaviour.

The coexistence of AA and MSA inside the classroom gives rise to a varied set of teachers' attitudes towards the involvement of both varieties in the teaching-learning process. In contrast, other teachers tend to hold positive perceptions of code switching between MSA and AA.

The flexibility of teachers in their attitudes towards code switching is measured by the extent to which they adhere or not to a violation of the main institutional norm imposed on their language use within the classroom situation. This norm concerns the exclusive use of MSA dictated and imposed on them by the government.

We can bring this in analogy with the act of codeswitching. The way teachers use exclusively MSA or AA and MSA side by side appears to be the outcome of the distinct patterns of coexistence of these two varieties within the Algerian speech community. MSA is learned at school whereas AA is acquired as an L1 (acquisition vs. learning).

1.6 AA/MSA Codeswitching as an Interlanguage

Caccamo (1998: 67) states that: “the maintenance or disappearance of code is a function of the society’s need to maintain roles apart or to collapse them”. The notion of codes implies here a clear cut distinction between the language varieties at use. In view of that, there is a one-to-one correspondence between a particular code and a specific role in a particular speech community.

Following this line of thought, the use of MSA accomplishes certain specific roles, whereas the use of AA implies a thoroughly need. Code switching is likely to be the result of the collapse of the codes involved within talk and hence determines the degree of interference between MSA and AA, and the speakers’ perceptions of them.

The codeswitching patterns prevalent in the Algerian teachers’ speech represent one single code which they perceive as an interlanguage to the point that those teachers consider these two codes as permeable.

In fact, the idea of boundaries and interference between MSA and AA in the classroom situation is a very important issue that deserves more attention. It is directly related to the features attributed to each variety by the whole speech community mainly in terms of status.

All in all teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards the two language varieties may determine the frequency of codeswitching in their talk in the classroom. MSA/ AA code switching paved the ground for the researcher to explain in detail learners' use of their interlanguage that seems to create an inadequacy for the term and inequality between MSA and AA.

1.7 Algerian Arabic as a downgraded Variety

We consider it more appropriate to shed light on one of the most widely spread views held about AA as being the non-standard variety in Algeria and therefore inferior to the standard variety MSA. This perception of AA derives primarily from assumptions which give the primacy to ideology over reason.

Considerations of these assumptions implying that AA is a 'degenerate' deviation from MSA need to be avoided for they are not only misleading but also erroneous and unscientific. Rather, we postulate that AA should be regarded as a system on its own which is different, not inferior to MSA.

Diggory (1972: 401) puts this point as: "We must never lose sight of the fact that non-standard language functions are not haphazard botches of standard forms. They are distinct -evolving systems of their own that have come into existence through natural inductive processes, just as standard forms have". Non-standard varieties like AA in Wardhaugh's (1969:122) words are "neither primitive nor debased variations of educated standard language". The author (*ibid.*) further adds that they are "fully functional varieties".

What is stated above would seem to be only idealized and beautiful assumptions that cannot be associated to Algerian Arabic or any other Non-Standard variety. A claim that Algerian Arabic is as grammatical as Standard Arabic would be immediately rejected, therefore no consideration of AA.

1.8 Standard Arabic vs. Algerian Arabic

Any study or description that attempts to treat the relationship between MSA and AA as based on some assumed views of AA as a variety of the Arabic language always bound to MSA would be lacking in scientific rigour in our view. For this we claim for a separation between the two varieties relying on some criteria through which the reality of the dichotomy AA/MSA can be reflected.

The most tangible and acknowledged difference between MSA and AA lies on the structural level. To consider AA and MSA in terms of their structures seems to follow a certain contrastive attitude. We choose to do it this way because what is at stake is to see to what extent AA is different from MSA.

Some scholars have stated that the structure of AA reflects its analytic aspect and that the structure of Standard Arabic reflects its synthetic aspect. In this respect, it is important to notice that this hypothesised structural divergence is not random but is the outcome of a complex linguistic evolution through which the Arabic language has made its way inside the Algerian society.

As a main cause to the development of MSA, Kouloughli (1977: 90-91) states that:

Once a language [Arabic] goes down to the street it will not degenerate but rather it will undergo the necessary linguistic evolution from synthetic to analytic", it is to infer that the Arabic language is by definition a synthetic language, i.e. syntactic functions and changes in meaning are marked by the addition of affixes or prefixes, i.e. the morphological modification of the same root word.

The Arabic language has undergone major changes at the structural level when it was introduced in Algeria. This change has mainly affected its classical internal structure which evolved to become a less elaborated distinct variety. The gradual development of the Arabic language towards analytisation is according to Kouloughli (1977) due to its "descent" into the street.

The most important outcome of the process of analytisation is due to the disappearance of final short vowels which necessarily led to the abandoning of case inflections or /ʔiʔraab/ markers, according to Kouloughli (1977:19). Indeed, /ʔiʔraab/ is a fundamental feature by which the synthetic aspect of the "original" form of Arabic (CA) is reflected.

Therefore, the final product of this analytisation is a new form of Arabic. It emerged not from a vacuum but in fact as an extension of the form of Arabic that already existed, namely CA. it is stated in Kouloughli

(ibid.) that the Arabic language in Algeria experienced a sharp split out of which two distant states emerged, each realizes structures which developed to the extent of becoming more or less different (synthetic/analytic) and henceforth should be considered as distinct languages.

We claim that the existence of a certain structural divergences between MSA and AA reveals that the differences which outnumber the similarities will play a major role in specifying the nature of their relationship when encountered in a classroom situation.

MSA and AA are, in very simple terms, two varieties genetically related but different to the extent that the latter is to have a certain influence on teaching and learning while the former is a second language.

1.9 Educational Implications of Dialect Integration

Dialect-speaking children acquire the standard variety better and more quickly when they are taught using contrastive analysis strategy. Indeed, Ebonics in the USA are taught systematic differences between African American Vernacular English and Standard English at schools. Those schools produce better educational results than schools that allow only Standard English in the classroom.

It is not always clear, however, to determine the efficient information needed to respond to pupils needs.

This point was made by Ammon (1989) with reference to Germany. The researcher is more interested to Ammon's proposed work, he suggested

methods for teaching the standard to dialect speakers, and included material thought to be useful for the acquisition of standard German.

A similar comment can be made with reference to the UK volume 'Real English' (Milroy and Milroy, 1989). The volume was organized in a similar way to the German booklets, with general research findings presented in a first section, followed by a semi-contrastive analysis, and lists of dialect materials that could be used as a teaching resource.

In case of MSA/AA contrastive analysis, it is recommended from the researcher that the contrastive analysis would be linked to more general issues of pragmatic variation that could help to reinforce an understanding of the differences between AA and MSA. Furthermore, teachers should focus more on the development of oral skills.

1.10 The Relevance of Algerian Arabic to Learning Standard Arabic

One of the main functions of the Algerian classroom as set by the Algerian educational authorities is to make the learners forget most of their native language to acquire new ones based on MSA, which is considered as the L2 for the Algerian learner in our view, according to Kouloughli (1977: 72-73).

This attempt to eradicate the Algerian learners' linguistic resources is the toughest task in the Algerian curricula. The causes of the difficulty to be experienced are several. The most obvious one is that AA has become necessarily such a deep-rooted linguistic repertoire whose function as the primary linguistic means used largely in the learners' daily interactions

outside as inside the classroom, has reinforced its position in these learners' most natural linguistic behaviour.

One way of facilitating such suppression is the requirement put on the Algerian teachers as well as the Algerian pupils to neglect their L1 and to use only MSA instead of AA.

In this sense, however, Gee (1996: 141) advocates that: “a person’s [learner] primary discourse [or mother tongue] serves as a framework or “base” for their later learning acquisition and learning of other discourses later in life”. This claims true the Algerian learner has at his disposal his mother tongue so; with such linguistic background he would not be able to construct the L2 pattern that may allow them to translate their experiences into spoken words that would ultimately represent their thinking.

We agree with Bernstein who considers that: “[...] the attempt to change the system of spoken language of children (school-aged children) [...] is an attempt to change a pattern of learning, a system of orientation.”

In fact, we may say, AA represents the unique language that allows children to express their emotions and thoughts. MSA, on the other hand, does not share this role. This confirms the diglossic situation characterizing Algerian classroom.

It is important to account for the fact that when the child moves inside the classroom, he permits a contact between the two languages to take place. We may, as a result, consider that the predominance of AA, as a distinctive feature of the Algerian child linguistic behaviour outside

the classroom, will necessarily be felt in this contact that occurs under a situation where the child's exclusive use of MSA.

To refuse to consider AA for what it really is, is to neglect the most significant linguistic and communicative competence that the Algerian teacher and the Algerian pupil alike need and will certainly bring with them to the classroom situation in order to avoid making it a conflicting situation.

1.11 Dialect as a Means of Instruction

In Norway, dialect is used in education and it is illegal not to use the child's dialect in school. Siegel (1999) discusses educational programmes, used in twelve countries, where Creoles have been used both as a medium of education. Research shows that these programmes help much learning not only language but also of other school subjects.

For example, Siegel (1997) observed the ongoing of two-year preschool programme in Papua Guinea where children were taught in Tok-Pisin, the native language. He ascertains that at the end of the first grade, children who attended such classes scored better in their school tests than children who had not attended the pre-school.

Arguably, attending a preschool programme may better prepare Algerian children for school, which in turn may have a positive effect on their performance, especially to their dual language education (AA/MSA).

Siegel points out that by teaching Tok-Pisin in the preschool and the Standard English children were better able to separate the two varieties. In relation to our study, the two varieties are genetically related but too distant in terms of structure to each other that make language transfer common between MSA and AA in the classroom.

Malcolm (1992, 1995) similarly found that children educated in a bidialectal programme, where English and mother tongue were taught side by side, these children had greater proficiency in English than children taught in monolingual programme using only English.

Similarly, the work of Rickford and Rickford (1995) in California is also relevant to our study. They work on the effect of using texts designed to give learners a language practice in reading. They find that this reading strategy in both varieties made a clear difference and children did better when they used dialect.

As experienced, for children, it is acceptable to read out in dialect what they see in their reading books, even if it the books are written in the standard variety, better still, children could retell in their own dialect what they have read in the standard. In chapter 2, more examples will be discussed and some initiatives that aimed to bring dialect into classroom in ways that are relevant to the acquisition of the standard variety will be explained

1.11.1 The Classroom as a Language Contact Situation

In a classroom situation, learners just like teachers find themselves under specific conditions. In general, when a child speaking a certain language as his mother tongue comes to classroom, his first major task is to adapt to this new situation linguistically, i.e. to try to learn how to function according to the patterns of the language encountered.

The L1 that the child brings with him to the classroom will certainly contribute to making it a linguistically rich environment, since in addition to the L2 another language will necessarily be present. Transposed to the Arabic set-up this implies the occurrence of a contact between MSA; the L2 and AA the L1. For this, it is more appropriate to avoid seeing L2 classrooms as monolingual environments characterized by the exclusive presence of L2; rather, second language classroom is a bilingual environment that includes both L1 and L2. With reference to has been said, MSA/AA classroom is bidialectal.

This seems to obey certain logic, since the pupil who, upon listening to some of the target language items taught to him will try to process them internally in order to produce some verbal instances in this target language.

One of the reasons to consider the language contact situation from such a psycholinguistic perspective is that we want to deal with one of its implications. It is to some extent obvious that if there is a contact between MSA and AA, which happens in the pupils' and teachers' minds, it will certainly result a certain effect which we will attempt to identify below.

1.11.2 The Conflict between First and Second Language

The conflict between MSA and AA can be felt in the pupils' and teachers' attempts to use one of the varieties inside the classroom, and as such Gee (1996) states that it can deter the acquisition of one or the other or both conflicting varieties. This upheaval will in its least effects impede the smooth transition of AA and MSA.

Such a tension seems to be inevitable since each variety is characterized by a specific set of patterns that translates a particular and different mode of thinking. In this sense, Gee says that, "what is at issue in the use of language is different ways of knowing, different ways of making sense of the world of human experience that is different social epistemologies." (1996:59).

A close consideration of such a conflict should reveal its primary source which is undoubtedly, the learners' and teachers' first language (AA), and further, the factor that reinforces this conflict: the difference that exists between AA and MSA. Through this characterization, it can be inferred that an objective account of this conflict is to consider it as a direct outcome of AA involvement in learning/teaching MSA.

We have attempted to set the ground to our study in order to grasp the fact that the existence of AA as L1 cannot be easily denied. It will necessarily have a certain role to play, at least as an important ingredient in a linguistic environment where another new and different language is involved as L2.

We have also tried to approach the significance that AA has for the Algerian children and, as a result, we highlighted some of the reasons for considering AA as a rich linguistic background that represents more than what it seems to represent for the Algerian learner as opposed to MSA. For this, we believe taking it into account to be a prerequisite if a consideration of MSA learning process is attempted.

In more specific terms, we will try to display the nature of the influence or the involvement of AA in learning and teaching MSA. We also wanted to see how it is possible to bring AA and MSA to a logical parity if we base our proposed strategy on the complementary function of the two varieties.

Following Cowan (1977), this strategy will contain some native language instances which can be either L1 elements directly transposed in the L2 or some forms that lie between the two languages that will result in the phenomenon of interference. To further clarify this, we need to start by considering the initiatives already in use that have brought the dialect into classroom; some of these are most conducive to making AA interference as a L1 an observable fact.

1.11.3 Some Initiatives to bring Dialect into Classroom

Special programmes for primary school pupils in the United States performed by (wolfram 1998, wolfram 2004) were designed to dialect awareness. They based their programmes of awareness on two crucial points the former is based on social myths about language variation and

prejudices about language. The latter is scientific i.e. describing sets of dialect data by forming hypotheses about language structures and checking them out against usage patterns.

Clearly, when children do exercises of this kind they learn about nouns, verbs as well as about systematic structure of their own dialect. Nevertheless, an implementation of this kind of programmes in the Algerian schools may well position learners to acquire MSA more effectively.

Cheshire (1982) analyzed the use of dialect features by children talking to their friends in playgrounds in the town of Reading, and then at school talking to the teacher. The results demonstrate that children may spontaneously shift to a higher frequency of standard forms. This linguistic behaviour among those English learners may be true for the Algerian child when he shifts to MSA out of school walls.

The study carried out by Adger and Wolfram (2000) fits well within the Algerian teachers/pupils situation where teachers mainly use MSA but they occasionally shift to AA forms to achieve a specific interactional purposes. Pupils, on the other hand, use AA forms in class when addressing teachers as well as their peers. However, when classroom tasks were related to curriculum the teacher insisted on the pupils using MSA and the pupils were careful to do so.

The present research shows the importance of motivation and attitude in the use of standard variety at school.

So it is of imperative recommendations to Algeria to adopt policies which assume that acquiring MSA is merely a matter of substituting one variant for another, to review their policies and make a change for the benefit of their pupils. As for the Algerian classroom, we try, then, to explore the teacher/learner interaction.

1.12 What should be explored in Classroom?

Three perspectives take on the interaction of the classrooms: (1) how teacher and learners construct meanings. (2) How teacher based his teaching method on experience and social environment to enhance learners' language and curriculum learning. The third perspective concerns learner's contributions that help in language development.

The three perspectives address the key issues for the dissertation:

- The nature of the talk that occurred in the two classrooms.
- The role of the teacher in this talk.
- The kinds of contexts and opportunities for dialect/language development constructed as a result.

Edwards and Westgate (1994: 59) comment that:

Research which reflects a single perspective is more likely to gain from its consistency the appearance of rigour; a more eclectic approach may be more realistic where the phenomena being studied are highly complex and many-faceted.

This idea supports the notion that language development interacts dynamically with the social and cultural contexts in which it occurs and

cannot be analyzed or understood outside its real contexts. In the light of these three perspectives, we will then explore the pupils' different interactions in the Algerian classroom.

1.12.1 Sources of AA Interference

AA interference in learning MSA occurs inside the classroom setting. We want to suggest that the causes of interference considered below, though inspired from studies related to other L1 and L2s, seem to directly relate to the reasons lying behind the occurrence of AA interference in learning MSA.

Among the many hypothesised causes of L1 interference we can state the one given by Newmark and Reibel (1968), who maintain that an inadequate knowledge of the target language may lead the learner to make use of his mother tongue knowledge; they note that:

When the learner is 'induced to perform' in the L2 there are many things he has not yet learned to do... What can he do other than to use what he already knows to make up for what he does not know? (Quoted in James 1971: 98)

In fact, what this implies is a certain relationship, may be one of cause and effect, between the fact of the Algerian learner's ignorance of MSA and his tendency to fall back on his L1 resources to compensate for the lack of knowledge in MSA.

We do argue for the inevitability of AA interference in contexts where learning MSA takes place for it appears that the notion of conflict between the two varieties that we have considered above relates more or

less to the occurrence of AA interference in the sense that the real conflict occurs at the level of the knowledge the Algerian learner has of his native language in comparison with what he knows of the target language.

We may evidently assume that the Algerian learner, in this case a beginner, possesses a very small and reduced knowledge of MSA compared to his certainly knowledge of his AA.

As previously stated, a consideration of the influence of AA on learning MSA would be insignificant if we do not consider how it is not a haphazard one, i.e. to provide some reliable evidence that will lead to a better and more objective understanding of the role of AA in this process. We should set ourselves in the identification of some criteria that would permit us to postulate the systematicity of AA interference in this process.

We should start by considering AA interference in learning MSA in a thorough manner, in order to see some of the implications lying behind such a phenomenon.

1.12.2 AA Interference in MSA Learning Process

The process of L2 learning is a very complex one. Therefore, it is important to identify precisely in advance the manner in which to approach L1 interference in this process.

1.12.2.1 The Algerian Learners' Speech

As evidence AA interference in learning MSA, we are faced with the Algerian pupils' utterances. We need to reflect upon some defining criteria of this speech being, in general, the totality of the utterances that the learner produces in his attempts to use MSA inside the classroom.

Moreover, it is important to understand the type of utterances and under which circumstance they develop, and most importantly, their degree of correctness. An identification of these is very important for the demonstration of AA interference.

1.12.2.2 The Classroom as a Trilingual Setting

We have already argued that the classroom linguistic environment encapsulates two varieties AA and MSA. In other words, the learners are not supposed to produce accurate and fluent MSA utterances from the start but rather they will reflect in their speech a gradual transition from AA towards MSA.

Hence, the development of an interlanguage takes place: the development of the learners' L1, the L2 model, and the transitional model between their L1 and L2.

The process of MSA learning should take account of all the three linguistic models, MSA and AA as fundamental constituents of the classroom linguistic environment and the transitional form as indispensable for a smooth transition towards a development of MSA learning to be.

1.13 The Creative Construction Model

Dulay and Burt (1974) propose the 'Creative Construction Model', a model involved in L2 learning process. This latter is made of two sub-processes: a) 'Hypothesis Formation Process' in which the learner gradually develops 'hypothetical rules' about the L2 system. b) 'Hypothesis Testing Process' in which these hypothetical rules are tested out through their application in L2 performance.

The importance of this model to our view is in the fact that it may reflect the creative aspect of MSA learning process. In terms of the former process, hypothesis formation, the Algerian learner will attempt to formulate hypotheses that he considers more or less corresponding to the rules of MSA. This implies that the Algerian pupil as an active learner follows this model due to the number of utterances he produces.

This linguistic system used by Algerian learners, is the result of their attempts to perform in MSA after they have been exposed to it. This exposure may be regarded as the primary tool to come to MSA performance

1.13.1 The Development of an Interlanguage

Many approaches in the field of L2 production have been stated. In this respect the Algerian learner's acquisition of MSA seems to proceed along a continuum between his L1 and the L2. Algerian learner departs from his vast knowledge of his mother tongue towards the gradual mastery of the target language. This implies the learner's development of an intermediate linguistic form between his L1 and the L2.

Nemser (1971: 55) refers to it as an 'Approximative System' to imply that the learner's speech develops systems to ensure L2 production. Another label is 'Transitional Model' which reflects the systems towards L2 learners production but it is continuously modified as the L2 learning proceeds.

The last and most frequent label is 'Interlanguage' (Selinker, 1972) which the learners' production being the result of the interaction between L1 and L2. Henceforth this term will be used throughout this dissertation.

1.13.2 Autonomy and Systematicity of the Interlanguage

The state of interlanguage as an autonomous system has been considered by Richard and Sampson (1974) as 'Creative Construction Hypothesis', they give as evidence the emergence of new data which have no source in either native or target language. Thus, it is likely a distinct system.

However, Littlewood, (1989) states: "The learner's language system is neither that of the mother tongue, nor that of the second language, but contains elements from both". This pertinent definition of the interlanguage stated by Littlewood describes the type of language inside the Algerian classroom. It is neither MSA nor AA.

In fact, it will be noticed that just as the Algerian learners' L1 is a fundamental component of the classroom linguistic environment, it will also constitute a significant source language that they depart from in their gradual construction of an interlanguage.

This would mean that AA as L1 is to play an important role in the pupils' development of their interlanguage while they learn MSA. It has been seen in what ways the pupils' knowledge of AA predominates in the process of learning MSA.

In this sense, AA will certainly constitute a rich linguistic background that the Algerian learner can rely on in order to deal with the communicative demands imposed by the classroom learning.

1.13.3 The Importance of Interlanguage

The Algerian learner's speech may be regarded as the unique tool by means of which we can approach the matter of AA interference in MSA learning more or less in a more or less objective way. Such speech should reveal AA interference as a feature indispensable in MSA learning.

It is considered so far that strategies used by Algerian learner in his/her interaction have been argued to be the learners' interlanguage. It should, in no manner, be disregarded as being just a developmental linguistic form characteristic of a certain learning stage and that passes

unnoticed between other learning stages. To think as such does nothing but deter a well-conceived approach to MSA learning process.

Learners' interlanguage provides just another criterion to reinforce the relevance of AA in learning MSA. Consequently, it helps to clear the ground about the ways in which AA presence in a classroom is significant. Particularly, for the Algerian learner, for whom it will constitute a solid linguistic background or reference upon which he will proceed in his linguistic development of a competence in MSA, as an L2.

For the researcher, once again, the learners' interlanguage will be regarded as the corpus to be described and explained to help identify those strategies that lead the learner of MSA to exhibit a certain linguistic behaviour that will in its turn reflect the share that AA, as the learners' L1, should take in their learning MSA.

Implicit in what we have said above, the Algerian learner's speech may be highlighted by some systematic processing or that will result in a strategy devised for filling some gap when he attempts to communicate using MSA inside the classroom.

1.14 Strategies in MSA Learning

Now we shift to a consideration of this other hypothesised aspect of MSA learning process, namely, the application of some strategies in the production of MSA utterances. The aim behind such a task is to cover the other section in the investigation of the systematicity of AA interference in MSA learning.

1.14.1 The Classroom as a Problematic Environment

The classroom situation will be identified as a situation where the Algerian learner in his learning will certainly face some difficulties. More precisely, learners encounter critical situations when attempting to speak using the school language. These are the kind of problems that make the learner look for other strategies to rescue the situation. In this sense, it is needed to emphasize that the learner's attempt to overcome any problem encountered in the classroom will in no way be an easy task.

This problematic aspect results from the several restrictions that L2 classroom puts on the learners. We can state the formality imposed by this situation as a significant cause to the difficulties that the learner may come along.

Another important cause lies in the different requirements of a classroom, the major one being, the learning of a target language which must be the language of interaction inside the classroom to the exclusion of the learners' L1 as is the case of Algerian classrooms.

In the case of young learners (beginners) who attend their second year of primary school, it is very apparent that to ask them to interact or communicate by means of the classroom language or the L2, is to ask them to function in a language with which they are still unfamiliar and to a large extent a language still unknown to them. This implies that the

problematicity of the classroom situation will necessarily lead to making MSA learning process a problematic one.

In other words, the degree of the classroom problematicity is to a large extent bound to the difficulty that both the Algerian learner and teacher experience in fulfilling each function respectively.

1.14.2 MSA Learning vs. MSA Communication

The first function of the Algerian classroom is to make children learn MSA. This way, communication in MSA and its learning process appear to correlate with one another; the latter would be regarded as the necessary outcome of the former.

Faerch and Kasper (1980: 2) state : "the distinction becomes highly problematic when applied to communicative events like classroom discourse in which "communication" does not serve the primary function of exchanging ideas and of acting in various ways of language, but rather has the function of making the students learn".

We should hold, at least at this stage, to the fact that MSA learning in an Algerian classroom is fundamentally important to MSA communication. More precisely, viewing MSA communication and MSA learning processes as two distinct processes, the former related simply to the learner's use of L2 in his interaction and the latter related to the learner's discovering of the L2 rules. Then, the learner gradually uses his learning strategies which in their turn become communication strategies.

Consequently, the classroom context with all its variables are actually of paramount importance criteria in the identification of MSA learning or MSA communication process as the predominant one over the other.

It seems that the classroom setting, i.e. the Algerian classroom situation, would better favour the Algerian learner's needs to communicate in MSA over learning it.

The reason to postulate this is that the utterances or the interlanguage put under analysis are/is produced by learners in the second year of primary education. In effect, this phase may be viewed as just an initial one in which concern should be more with the communicative use of MSA, in an attempt to familiarize the learner with L2 through its use in interaction, than its intensive and accurate learning, i.e. the explicit acquisition of MSA rules and patterns which need to be delayed to later year.

1.14.3 Communicative strategies

A pertinent definition that is worth considering is the one proposed by Faerch and Kasper (1980: 36): "Communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal"

This definition, simple and concise as it seems, implies several points that need to be located and understood if we want to grasp the real significance of a communication strategy to the learning of MSA as L2.

Three important keywords that we should treat, in relation to communicative strategy: plans, problem, and communicative goal.

1.14.4 Communication Strategies as a Plan

The planning phase and execution phase, the two phases are related to lead to a verbal behaviour to fulfill the goal set by the speaker. Accordingly, the plan is "what controls the execution phase"(Faerch& Kasper, 1980: 24).

As a basis to this characterization of speech production process, they considered Leontev's (1975) point that the plan is a "programme which results from a process of programming" (Faerch& Kasper, 1980: 23). Such a programme is set by the individual in generating his speech, it is "nothing given, readymade" (Leontev, 1975, quoted in Faerch& Kasper, 1980: 24).

In this framework, we can best consider communication strategies as programmes elaborated by the Algerian learner in his speech production and underlying the interlanguage utterances he would manifest in accordance with an MSA communication situation. It can be regarded as the basis for a consideration of the strategies developed by the learners.

We may attempt to apply what is suggested above to the Algerian learners. We need to strongly argue that the Algerian learners are no exception to other L2 learners. The relevance of this internal processing is of interest to the researcher, namely, AA interference.

The problems that the Algerian learners would come across in their learning MSA are often due to the lack of interest in their individual needs as learners. We can state the problem of the 'silent period' which they need in order to better prepare themselves both linguistically and communicatively satisfying performance in MSA. Most of the time, they are asked to produce MSA utterances very early. MSA, as we have seen, is still an uncontrolled means of communication.

Following Krashen (1987), this kind of problems is likely to push them to fall back on their first language in order to account for their deficiencies in the second language due largely to the rules they have not acquired yet.

1.14.5 The Communicative Goal

The communicative goal is basically related to the activity of engaging in communication naturally to interact and transmit messages.

As there is a communicative goal, there is a learning goal which relates to immersing the learner in activities such as dialogue memorization, or imitation drills, the primary function of which is to ensure the learning of the L2 not the communication in it.

What is suggested above does not impede the fact that the Algerian learner will tend to use different strategies in accordance with the goals he wants to achieve, the most predominant one being his need to break his silence and be able to express himself in MSA.

However, it should be noted that that rich linguistic background in AA always present need not be disregarded. The linguistic resources available to the learner are decisive of the kind of communication strategy that he will generate under the pressures and restrictions imposed on him by the classroom situation.

We have considered the ways in which the concept of communication strategies can be applied to the Algerian learners' linguistic behaviour. The definition treated above is only one of other significant definitions of such a concept; nevertheless, it permits us to better locate the Algerian learners' speech inside the classroom as being not a random production but rather a logically planned and underlined by internal mechanisms which make it a very special type of speech.

As we are concerned with the matter of AA interference in the Algerian learners' speech, we need to specify those communication strategies which are developed by these particular learners, and mostly generated after their taking account of the usefulness of their L1 to facilitate the process of MSA communication when some problems arise. When this is done, it is for the sake of success in the communication process.

1.14.6 Communication Strategies developed by the Algerian learner

At this stage, it is necessary to specify the type of communication strategies that characterize the Algerian learners' linguistic development in MSA. Additionally, the purpose behind this study is to identify AA

interference in the learners' utterances.

We will concentrate on strategies that we consider as fundamentally based on the learners' consideration of AA as an available linguistic resource to which they are free to resort if they come across some difficulty in their linguistic experience in MSA.

The Algerian learner can be best characterized as living a state of linguistic insecurity between the requirement of using MSA as an exclusive means of expression inside the classroom and the necessity of his L1 as a predominant and useful linguistic means in his possession. One of the outcomes of such insecurity is the apparent difficulties he may experience when he is asked to express himself exclusively in MSA.

We have already argued for insufficient knowledge of MSA, and the requirement of performance in MSA before the learner is ready to do so, as two relevant problems which may hinder his communication in this language. In his attempts to 'get the message across', the Algerian learner will seek to reach his communicative intentions by all the alternate means available to him.

When the Algerian learner tends to use linguistic resources other than the target language; it is clear that in no way can he be subjected to using only MSA. As a result, he does not need and certainly will not content himself with it as long as there is a parallel linguistic system, his AA.

Consequently, strategies generated by the Algerian learner are not "avoidance strategies" but rather "achievement strategies" and which are referred to as "L1-based strategies".

This speech, again, will include instances of AA interference that we broadly characterize as direct importations transposed to MSA utterances, or some linguistic forms that lie between AA and MSA. Such details will be treated later on when we set out to analyze this interlanguage through which a classification of the different "AA-based communication strategies" generated by this learner will be attempted in the next chapters.

1.15 Conclusion

We believe that this insight into the aforementioned matters will make the reader grasp the significance of the dialect relevance in MSA learning and communication strategies to an understanding of the process of AA interference in MSA learning or communication.

Therefore, it seems that when we try to confirm or reinforce these learners' interlanguage systematicity, we do necessarily reinforce the hypothesis that the influence of AA on the learners' attempts to perform in MSA is a systematic influence. It will be seen further that, the Algerian learners by their application of AA-based communication strategy tend to regulate their use of AA rules and patterns in order to produce utterances that do correspond, to a large extent, to a new emerging set of regulatory rules. These new rules belong to the interlanguage system.

To sum up, the significance of communication strategies as revealed through the linguistic analysis of the learners' interlanguage can be further reinforced by the fact that they will, accordingly, permit to reveal:

- The impact that L1 can have on the learners' utterances in the target

language.

- The alternate ways of using what the learner does know in order to express what he does not know.
- The extent to which the learner is willing to simplify MSA lexicon,

These and other related factors; in particular, the Algerian learner's use of communication strategies will be considered when we embark upon the analysis of the learner's interlanguage utterances.

Chapter Two

Diachronic Issues in Dialects in Education

2. Diachronic Issues in Dialects in

2.1 Introduction

The second chapter takes the view that teachers should be seen as essential for the development and application of pedagogical dimensions of any issue. We have considered two main views of the research at stake that are relevant to the question of child language education: Piaget and Vygotsky' views of child learning.

Researches carried out in classrooms have been discussed in terms of initiatives in dual variety education, the use of dialect in classroom, research on children's spoken language at school, and research on children's school writing.

We conclude the chapter with the remark that both pure and applied research on dialect is essential to educational attainment of children when their mother tongue has a recognized and explicitly valued place within the educational system.

we have explored issues relating to educational materials that have been used and developed and we stress the need for coming up with alternative approaches to language duality that relate with dialects.

2.2. Piaget's View of Child Learning

Piaget (1971) claims that learning is much dependent on what the learner already knows; by making changes to their existing understandings

in the light of their growing up and maturity. It is thus seen to develop naturally and spontaneously. Therefore, Piaget sees language as an outcome rather than a cause of development

He further says “may be utilized and accelerated by education at home or in the school, they are not derived from that education and, on the contrary, constitute the preliminary necessary condition of efficiency in any form of instruction” (Piaget 1971: 36). Following this, the teacher role has been interpreted as one to foster a will of enquiry and to provide materials to create an environment which stimulates the learner's own curiosity and interest.

These approaches imply that the learner is thought to be responsible for his own learning if provided with a supportive learning environment. Feez (1995: 78) states that:

Progressive approaches have reinforced the inequalities of access which are characteristic of older, traditional pedagogies. It is simply that in progressive pedagogies, the way these inequalities are perpetuated becomes invisible. Learners' individuality and freedom may be more highly valued in progressive classrooms, but during and at the end of their courses of study learners are still assessed against the standards of the dominant culture [...] although classrooms are more pleasant, what is actually expected of learners in order for them to be successful is not made explicit [...] progressive classrooms tend to reinforce existing social inequalities of opportunity because it seems that it is the learner

rather than the educational institution, who is to be blamed for failure in such benevolent and rich learning environments.

Similarly, the actual Algerian classroom operates with an ineffective curriculum and teachers maintaining the job of an evaluator rather than that of facilitator.

Tough (1979: 54) advocates that: “Language provides us with a system for representing our inner meanings, our thinking, and for interpreting the meanings others express through the use of language”. The importance of language in education is significant to language as object, as medium and as a subject that can interfere in all areas of the curriculum. However, Algerian teaching is still seen as a vehicle for representing meanings; rather than a means to constructing meaning.

Yet, what is generally not part of this approach in the Algerian context is a language as a model (e.g. Academic registers) used in the teaching-learning process.

2.2.2 Vygotsky’s Social View of Learning

For Lave and Wenger (1991) learning occurs in the context of actual social practices. Vygotsky's asserts that mental functioning has its origins in social processes and remains social in nature i.e. interactions that children engage in with others later become internalized. As Vygotsky (1981: 163) puts it in this context:

Any function in the child's cultural development appears twice, on two planes: First it appears on the social plane, and then on the psychological plane. First it appears between people as an interpsychological category, and then within the child as an intrapsychological category [...] Social relations or relations among people genetically underlie all higher relations and their relationships.

Only recall our claim that Algerian learner is responsible for his/her own learning. While Piaget argues that this speech disappears as the child matures and as they develop social speech. Vygotsky (1978) argues that the child internalizes the mental processes made evident in social activities and moves from the social to the mental level, so that their mental processes mirror the social environment from which they are derived.

Vygotsky's view of language as the root of learning, rather than as a by-product of intellectual development, suggests to the researcher that any examination of teaching and learning in the Algerian classroom will treat interactions between teacher and learner as crucial, since these same interactions will not simply shape Algerian learners' talk, but help to construct the mental processes by which their ability to acquire MSA progress continuously.

As for the Algerian school, children's learning is explicitly based on a hard working knowledge of MSA, behaviour, attitudes and thought. As confirmed by many scholars listed below education involves the process of initiation of learners by their teachers into the knowledge at hand which

may make up the curriculum (Mercer: 1995, Stierer and Maybin: 1994, Webster *et al*: 1996).

We need, then, to discover the ways in which the Algerian teacher's regulation of a classroom can be more than a means of control to become what Mercer (2002) refers to as an apprenticeship in thinking.

2.2.3 Teachers as Mediators

Wells (1996) suggests that through social interaction with others who are more skilled, children learn to use the language in order to achieve specific social purposes. In this context, Wells posits (1996: 45) that:

Spoken discourse has an essential role to play in mediating the pupil's apprenticeship into a discipline, both as a medium in which to respond to and prepare for work on written texts, and . . . as an opportunity for 'talking their way in' to ways of making sense of new information . . . in forms that, with the assistance provided by the teacher, gradually incorporate the essential features of the discourse of the particular discipline.

Subsequent chapters in this research work will illustrate some of the ways in which Algerian teachers begin to introduce learners to some of the technicality and abstractions, developed by (Martin 1990,1993), of the science and mathematics curriculum and, more specifically, how they link this with learners' existing knowledge and MSA use.

Drawing on the example of a practical apprenticeship as well the cognitive gap, Vygotsky argues that successful coordination with the teacher and an arrange environment (in this case the classroom) leads to the learners to participate more, to learn new skills. In the chapters that follow, a critical factor which emerges from the analysis is the significance of this shared understanding built up by Algerian teachers and learners in the context of cooperative activity.

2.2.4 Psychological View of Classroom Language

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It has been argued that grammar not only links the curriculum content which learners must learn to control with the linguistic reality of the learner, but also, shows the grammatical relationships between learners' every day and familiar ways of meaning and the academic language.

In addition, Chomsky's innate theory states that children are born with some grammar enabling them understanding the language they hear around them. From this perspective, many of the basic items of language, above all spoken language have already been acquired by the age of schooling. Algerian child at this age is equipped by items of AA.

In contrast to this, Halliday and other linguists present the view that children have to learn to use language purposefully with specific cultural and situational contexts. Indeed, language development is a lifelong process rather than as a finite set of rules which must be acquired. At this point Algerian linguistic gap should be fulfilled through the learning of MSA.

2.3 Relevance of Systemic Functional Linguistics to Learning

Consideration of context and continuity two characteristics of the classroom discourse, in the terms of Mercer (1990), is viewed as a long conversation between teachers and learners.

It is noteworthy possible to observe and examine the progress in learners' discourse by noticing differences between the structures of teaching and learning activities at the beginning and end of topics. It is evident that mostly a transition occurs to this evolution. In case at stake, the teacher's task is to observe and control the learner's products at the beginning and the end of each unit, and measure the AA utterances.

According to Halliday the child learns:

To construct the system of meanings that represents his own model of social reality. This process takes place inside his own head; it is a cognitive process. But it takes place in contexts of social interaction, and there is no way it can take place except in these contexts. As well as being a cognitive process, the learning of the mother tongue is also an interactive process. It takes the form of the continued exchange of meanings between self and others. The act of meaning is a social act. (Halliday 1975: 139)

We reflect on the fact by saying that the systemic and functional linguistic situation of Algeria has the greatest impact on the thinking of Algerian teachers and learners that social interactions of Algerian children in their homes play a fundamental role in the learning process of MSA.

2.4 Learning a Second Code

The majority of the works in the field of Second Language Acquisition have focused on examining the process of second language development as it occurs in the classroom i.e. the ongoing moment-by-moment interactions (Swain and Lapkin, 1995, Engestrom and Middleton, 1996).

In relation to MSA learning in schools, this means learners should focus their learning to control MSA and to learn through it as well. Yet an exploration of learning in school requires us to ask: what are the processes that allow children to live in the school environment, and what opportunities are there for engagement in language practices?

The remainder of this chapter summarizes a range of early and later studies in bidialectal and bilingual learning literature to respond to the questions above, and to suggest the kinds of pedagogic practices, and in particular linguistic practices, that might be found in a classroom.

2.4.1 Children's Input

Krashen's view of speaking as simply an outcome has been tested. He further stated that input needs to contain structures that are simple and far from complexity of the learner's current level of competence. Learners need to be in environments where they have many opportunities to practice language in special situations.

Teachers should request learners to focus on how they have said something, since any control from the teacher tends to solve the commun-

ication problem for the learner. Later studies (Pica: 1994, Pica *et al*: 1996) suggest that when learners have opportunities to negotiate meaning, opportunities for language learning appear to be increased.

This may benefit our case of study in two ways: by providing evidences to learners to assist them. And interfere when necessary and modifying incorrect or inappropriate language, and thus reviewing their input about new language; and by inviting learners rather than teacher-generated repair.

2.4.2 Learner Output

Swain suggests that what is missing in SLL classrooms is sufficient learner output, that is, the language that learners produce which, in contrast, requires linguistic accuracy, that is, at this is stage of learning far from the capacity of the young learner.

The author (*ibid.*) has posited three functions of output in second language acquisition: First learner's awareness of a gap and misuse in their linguistic system i.e. a gap between what they wish to say and what they are able to say. Second, learner relies on his schemata to test and modify or reformulate their output. Third, learner's ability to reflect on their language use and this may help them to memorize linguistic knowledge.

Using Swain's suggestions with Algerian learners in language teaching activity mainly to reconstruct a text that they have heard read aloud. The procedure led those learners to talk about language in the

context of using it, and intuitively they notice the gap between their language knowledge and what they needed to know.

Many of the solutions worked out by the learners through this reflective process were remembered a week or two later. These reflections appear to be supportive for MSA learning.

Similarly, MSA learning includes the contextual demands and constraints of the curriculum and the spoken and written contexts of learning. Taking this into account requires consideration not only of the sentence level, but of the discourse level of language as well.

2.5 Discourses in Child Learning Process

Interactions determine the development of language forms and functions. “One learns how to do conversation, one learns how to interact verbally, and out of this interaction syntactic structures are developed” (Hatch 1978: 404). A claim similar to that made by Bruner who notes that the structure of language is a by-product of learning to use language in conversation (Bruner1978: 69).

It is through this learner-learner conversation become what Wells refers to as apprentices in conversation i.e. the learner learns both the language and the cultural ways of making sense of experience (Wells 1992).

In the Algerian classroom teachers should maintain and support children correctly. They at least negotiate and discuss

misunderstandings; children should feel comfortable to contribute to the conversation.

There are interesting parallels between mother tongue and SLA research on the types of interactional modifications. Ellis (1994) studied in what ways interactions with the teacher contributed to the children's acquisition of English as a second language. Significantly, Ellis concludes that comprehensible input is not simply the result of adjustments made by teachers, but is the result of the interactions ongoing.

However, Lyster and Ranta (1997) suggest that in classrooms where the teacher is focusing on both content and language, mainly, elicitation (how do we say that in MSA?); metalinguistic indications (we don't say it that way); clarification requests (I don't understand); and repetition of learners error as a question (**هدها:dabintun?***). Such strategies, involving focus on the negotiation of form as well as meaning and content, were used many times and in several manners by the teachers during the study.

It can be questioned how far Algerian learners (particularly, beginner learners) are then able to distinguish one context from the other, and thus recognize when their utterances need repair.

2.6 Classroom-Based Issues

2.6.1 Participant and organizational structures

Wong-Fillmore (1985) examined possible reasons why some learners fail in their language acquisition. He concludes that the learners that fail

in their learning who take part in classrooms which do use of teacher-directed activities.

Some characteristics of lessons are important for language learning: the first concerns teacher's authority, the second deals with the consistency of the lesson layouts. A smooth authority is recommended when used in a diglossic setting. What is more important is that teachers should locate knowledge in learners' home experiences.

As Algerian children had only been learning MSA for two years or less, it is difficult for teachers to teach units that could not be easily demonstrated. Since MSA is the medium of education, ideas and concepts are often quite complex, and yet in the successful classes the lesson is at an appropriate conceptual level for the grade 1.

Often the teachers struggle to demonstration math and scientific concepts. Teachers must comment in classroom language while relating the words to known math concepts. It is crucial, for the teacher, to rely on learners' prior knowledge and experience for making sense of new material and unknown language.

It is noteworthy to mention that the Algerian teacher makes great effort, their techniques to solve such situation, is shown in their talk which was not only grammatical but linguistically appropriate, more precise and included the repeated use of patterns. The teacher's use of repetition gives learners several opportunities to distinguish both language and meanings, and in this way, they can work out some of the substitution rules of language.

In the light of the aforementioned points, in the next chapters, we examine if the Algerian classroom meets the characteristics of successful classroom that should serve and eventually help the young Algerian learners.

2.6.2 Content-based Language Teaching

Algerian learners are faced with the need to learn curriculum content through the medium of MSA, the 'new' language, and teachers with the job of providing language teaching which cannot handle or support the teaching curriculum. This section examines factors relating specifically to content-based language teaching in a school setting.

In this context, Gibbons (2002) suggests five reasons for the integration of English Second Language learners into regular subject-based classrooms. First, a regular curriculum is needed. Second, because it may take five years or more for ESL learners to control the RP English. Third, good programme supports both content and language learning. Fourth, the use of learners' first language enables them to effectively participate and learn. An integrated programme can provide a more systematic relationship between new language and subject content.

However, Cummins insists on the fact that these programmes need to be cognitively appropriate for the age and developmental level of the learners (Cummins 1996, Met 1994).

Swain (1996) suggests that the integration of language and content needs more attention and it is not always efficient. Strategies as to how

this might be achieved include: the curriculum should be designed on the basis of that language is unknown for the learner so more attention is on the lexis which, in turn, take the curriculum content as a resource.(Gibbons: 1991, 2002); through the use of demonstrated structures and visual aids such as diagrams, graphs and timelines in making new information comprehensible (Mohan: 1986, Early: 1990); and more vocabulary development (Zimmerman, 1997).

Looking more broadly beyond the level of individual classroom strategies, a number of researchers argue for the significance of the social context and interaction for students' learning of both content and language (Edelsky et al: 1991, Faltis and Hudelson: 1994)

A discussion of what may hinder Algerian children classroom interaction and how opportunities for MSA learning can be constructed in the classroom take into account the content as well as any utterance and sentence formulated in classroom. Any set of interactions needs to be examined from at least two perspectives: the efficiency of the instruction in fostering MSA learning, and the impact of instruction learners' classroom behaviour.

2.6.3 Redefining Algerian Learner

For the Algerian child MSA is at once a means of learning and the target language that must be learned. Obviously, how knowledge is selected and how it is acquired, is reflected in the content and teaching processes of the curriculum.

Eckerman (1994) said: “The individual learner, usually 'measured' in some way against factors considered important in the child, is thus found to be disadvantaged or deprived in terms of socialization practices and home environment” (Eckerman 1994:123). Accordingly, we assume that the causes behind the school failure of Algerian pupils are situated at the level of the learner himself. Commonly, pupils come to school in a discourse deficit linguistically, cognitively and socially.

The idea of deficit is understood when teachers speak of their pupils as having no experiences. The researcher reports in this context among some teachers' comments, for example, were the following:

The Algerian children are not getting a lot of input from home; socially some of the children are not very well adjusted ... Some of the children are not exposed to language in their families; the values of the school do not seem to be held by the parents. Algerian children suffer from a deficit in skills which they bring to school, and that the causes for this deficit lay in a lack of appropriate training by parents, and in the cultural experiences of the home.

We may add to this criticism that not only do difficulties that Algerian children experience result of deficit but are in part the result of social and linguistic differences between the school-aged children and the language of the classroom. We would suggest that it is because learners are still struggling with the development of their school language that the teachers must make every effort to support their pupils' learning.

The challenge for Algerian teachers is to know these unfair actions that include both the way children are spoken to, and the way they are spoken about. Arguably, this includes, because in the case of schools where Algerian children enter school without control of the language of instruction, a more reflective and critical approach by teachers as to how language is used in their classroom should be applied. Some examples are to be illustrated along this dissertation.

2.7 Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Dimensions of Bidialectalism

Education in Algeria is conducted in MSA and not in AA to come to a clear idea of our research; we judge it necessary to investigate the role language attitudes can play in accepting or rejecting future changes in Algerian language policy.

In the debate, led by many scholars throughout the world, on what language should be used in early education, on one hand, there are those who claim that all children must be taught in their mother tongue. On the other hand, there are those who are not in favour of mother tongue education. For Algerians, what is claimed above is still debated at the level of political sphere.

2.7.1 Mother Tongue Education

Far from the Algerian case, there are scholars in different fields who promote mother tongue in early education and they would even go further and argue that in addition to giving children the right to use and practice their language. James (1996) reviews a number of studies (Kharma and

Hajjaj, 1989; Swain, 1996) that clearly show evidence in favour of mother tongue education.

James (1996), from the above mentioned studies, presents five arguments supporting the use of the mother tongue in schools.

- It ensures the ongoing of classroom discourse in different areas of the curriculum. This supports le page (1971) who claims that the best way to teach beginner learners is through their mother tongue.
- It ensures language development based on cognitive continuity.
- It makes route to motivation and gives positive attitudes that help in school different tasks achievements
- It facilitates the learning of a second code.
- The use of the mother tongue minimizes linguistic insecurity.

Thus, language and cognitive development of the learner are of paramount necessity for James (1996).

2.7.2 Arguments Questioning Mother Tongue Education

Researchers in the field of language and language acquisition among them (Di Pitero: 1973, Skutnab-Kangas 1984, Gupta 1994, 1997) claim against early education in the mother tongue.

Guptas raises awareness in such situations where learners after completing their schooling in their mother tongue convert to using a language that is not academic and don't help learner in his/her future studies.

Ironically, Algerian learners after completing their schooling in MSA, they shift to using French when they access university, particularly, in scientific stream where technological and technical modules are taught in French.

2.7.3 Algerian sociolinguistic and Educational Setting

Issues of mother tongue education are related to the Algerian context. Primary education is conducted in MSA and not in AA. The standard is however a code that is not used before entering school and it is not felt to be the learners own spontaneous way of communicating, either with each other or with their parents.

As far as the linguistic situation of the setting in concerned, Diglossia, as phenomenon, overwhelms the current Algerian sociolinguistic setting. We can say that the situation is rather bidialectal since Algerians use their AA throughout their daily activities but switch to MSA in certain formal situation.

The language-in-education policy in Algeria has been clearly articulated, and there has been an official declaration put out by the Ministry of Education that spells that Classical Arabic is the only language of instruction.

Government finds the use of AA inappropriate in classroom, but implicitly recognizes that the knowledge of AA can enrich learners' linguistic awareness. However, government has never thought to re-examine its language policy, consider how other dialect-using nations such

as Holland, Norway, Luxembourg and Switzerland deal with relevant matters.

Now, back to the present study, as far as it can be ascertained, very few studies if any, have examined the Algerians' perception of MSA and AA. By this, I will pave the ground before any attempt to introduce changes to language policies. Later, in the next chapter, we specifically try to examine responses expressed by Algerian university students in regard to the possibility of introducing AA side by side with MSA as a medium of instruction in primary schools.

2.7.2.1 Description of Diglossia and Education

Diglossia exists in Algeria. In relation to this phenomenon Maamouri (1998: 41) states "Pupils entering school have to suppress most of their linguistic habits while they try to acquire a new set of rules. The burden of internalizing these new habits is not helped or reinforced by classroom practices focused on the exclusive use of the "official" language of instruction." Similarly, the researcher has already describes the situation in Algerian classroom from different angles as a result, he assumes that Algerian classroom represent a milieu where two conflictual practices take place.

He further said "The situation leads to serious pedagogical problems and even to feelings of linguistic insecurity in formal school communication among high numbers of young Arab learners" (ibid: 41). Jordan is amongst the best Arab countries that have the highest levels of literacy, however, when assessed, by official academic institution 'UNESCO', the results were not as satisfactory. Maamouri's

recommendation was simply children should be taught in their mother tongue.(ibid:62)

Moreover, the gap between MSA and any colloquial variety of Arabic is so distant. Ibrahim (1983) and Alrabaa (1986) also pointed to the same problems and attributed this to the great linguistic distance between the standard and the colloquial varieties.

In the same vein of thought, Saiegh-Haddad (2003) carried out a study with Palestinian children she concluded that the linguistic distance between colloquial and Classical Arabic disturbs the acquisition of basic reading processes in what she called Classical Arabic.

Diglossia also exists in Cyprus. the Greek Cypriot dialect standard Modern Greek, these two varieties co-exist in the same area, thus, a clash emerges once in education sphere. (Pavlou and Papapavlou 2004; Papapavlou and Pavlou 2007) scrutinizes the situation and acknowledged that students experience difficulties expressing themselves in the school language.

In another survey Papapavlou (2007) as an answer to a question on the positive effects of bidialectal education, the respondents agreed that it would have the following benefits: first, children would feel more comfortable by being able to express themselves orally; second, they would be less confused in choosing appropriate vocabulary; and third, they would feel less embarrassed about their own linguistic abilities. The researcher at this level feels comfortable as the situation above parallels the issue at stake.

Another context of diglossia, in Brunei, the situation is too similar to that in Algeria in that while both teachers and students are supposed to use the standard in school, they often have to alternate to the colloquial in order to communicate.

We join our point of view to James (1996) when he suggested a model in which children are free to express themselves in their home language i.e. the colloquial variety should be taken into consideration rather than being belittled.

2.7.2.2 Obstacles Faced by Second Dialect Learners

The sudden transition from AA to MSA makes the early education arduous. The fundamental skills, writing and reading, are dispensed in a language that they do not know. Any special instruction to help Algerian learner is provided to help them acquiring the standard (here I locate my inquiry). There are other obstacles that children must overcome if they are to acquire the standard variety of the education system. These are described here.

2.7.2.2.1 Lack of Awareness of Differences

As we have seen in the first part of this dissertation, the acquisition of the standard requires a contrastive analysis of the H variety that differ the L variety. Seemingly it is advised for such learners, i.e. Second dialect learners, to learn the features of the standard dialect without any special instruction.

Craig (1988) pointed out that in second language learning situations the standard does not form part of learners' native language repertoires and therefore remains separate and distinct. But in classroom situations in Algerian settings (and in other settings as well), there is an "area of interaction" between the learner's familiar speech and MSA, the two varieties constitute often a problem.

However, learners ignore and most of the time are not aware of these differences, for example, in mentioning English varieties, Cheshire (1982:45) pointed out: "Children may not even be aware of the existence of the variety of English that linguists' label "standard English".

They may simply recognize that school teachers, for example, do not speak the same way as their family and friends.

2.7.2.2.2 Negative Attitudes of Teachers

Negative attitudes and evaluations lead to lower expectations about learner performance. Such actions lead teachers to form bad opinions about learner's competence on the basis of their talk. Furthermore, teachers judge learners as being unintelligent on the basis of their use of AA, and then treat them accordingly.

We have already seen that constant correction makes the learner embarrassed. Accordingly, children develop a negative self-image and their reaction will be expressed by a complete rejection of the formal education system that may lead to a total drop out from school. Thus, teachers' negative attitudes have a great impact on learner's performance in classroom settings.

Learners, who perform according to the teachers' expectations may be effected than and put forward in a disadvantage situation. In addition to teachers' negative attitudes about learners' language achievements, learners may also prefer a drop out from school.

2.8 Classroom Programmes: Historical Background

2.8.1 Teaching Standard a Second Dialect: Case of English

Sociolinguistic studies demonstrated that dialects are rule-governed varieties of language; this gives birth to special teaching programmes for speakers of these varieties. Stewart (1964: 20) gives much attention to learning of Standard English by, for example, speakers of AAE.

This idea was soon embraced by the growing field of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) and came to be known as Standard English as a Second Dialect (SESD) (Alatis 1973). For at least a decade, these L2 teaching methods were advocated for teaching SESD to speakers of AAE in the USA. Later, however, these aforementioned rules and strategies for SLA do not provide authentic aid to learner of second dialect.

First was the problem of the ineffectiveness of the teaching methods themselves. The SESD approaches were implicitly based on the assertion that SDA and SLA are similar processes. In SLA, two different autonomous linguistic systems are easily recognised. The learners' L1 often has its own dictionaries and grammars, just like the L2. Yet, in SDA, because the learners' Dialect is non-standardized; and because of its similarities to the standard; it is not recognised as a separate variety of language.

This leads to both teachers and learners thinking that there is only one language involved, and that the learners' dialect is just "poor speech" (Johnson 1974: 154). There were some strong reactions to the notions of teaching SESD and bidialectalism (e.g. Sledd 1969, 1972), portraying them as yet another attempt to institutionalize inequities, as reported by Di Pietro (1973: 38).

2.8.2 Dialect Readers

In an early study, Leaverton (1973) found that the reading performance of African American students improved when they used texts in AAE as well as SAE.

Two years later, the programme was tested. The experimental group, who used the dialect readers, showed significantly higher progress in reading comprehension in SAE. In addition, Results from a questionnaire established by teachers indicated that learners found this programme to be very enjoyable and easy to work through.

Two further studies had also demonstrated increased motivation and enjoyment of reading among students using reading materials in AAE (Simpkins 2002). Although there were positive results, parents and teachers showed a strong objections of publishing this kind of readers.

Nevertheless, the benefits of dialect readers continued to be discussed (Labov 1995; Rickford and Rickford 1995). Similarly, the objection will be firm from the behalf of the Algerian society against such materials. Here we come to limit our endeavor to using AA in oral and speaking activities.

2.8.3 The Language Curriculum Research

Many courses have been developed in SEDS for speakers of AAE in a similar action these courses were revisited by Wible in 2012. The courses examine differences between AAE and SAE, but also study AAE as an area of inquiry in the classroom, in addition to the linguistic study of AAE (its origins and development). As a final step learners were asked to write essays about their own experiences using AAE.

Learners were given the freedom to write and speak using their own dialect, and taught the necessary skills to change their drafts into SAE. Statistics showed that literacy levels were declining, and use of AAE in the classroom was overwhelming i.e. the programme failed.

Nevertheless, various aspects of the course have been incorporated into the modern approaches described below, and have inspired some of the further steps in the present study.

2.9 Instrumental Approach

To more recent classroom approaches, uses the learners' dialect as a medium of instruction and become a school language. SDA programs are similar to bilingual programmes in that the children's home language is initially used while they are learning the language of the educational system. Such an approach suits well the Algerian case where the D1 is clearly distinguished from the D2 and where all children in the classroom are speakers of D1.

2.9.1 Dual Education Programmes

Dual education programmes have been implemented in Haiti, Australia, Papua New Guinea and Guinea-Bissau. They use French dialect in schools along with French. As a resulted action, in 1982, that Creole became the medium of instruction in primary school.

Later, Haitian Creole was made an official language along with French in the 1987 constitution, and it is now used in primary education throughout the country.

2.9.1.1 Haitian and Australian Endeavour

In Australia, in 1977, Kriol (bilingual programme) was used for teaching reading and writing from grade 1 until English was introduced in grade 4 or 5. Subsequently, Kriol was restricted to subjects about cultural heritage. (Siegel 1993)

Also in Australia, another programme (HLP) began in 1995 at primary school in north Queensland. In this project, preschool and grade 1, children have been taught to read and write in their home language.

Murtagh (1982:97) examined the efficiency of this programme aiming to see whether or not Creole and English as languages of instruction facilitate the learning of both Standard English and Creole. He compared several measures of oral language proficiency in Kriol and English of learners in the first three grades at two different schools. The overall results showed that learners at the bilingual school scored significantly better than those at the monolingual school, especially in grade 3.

2.9.1.2 Papua New Guinea Endeavour

In Papua New Guinea, a total reform of the education system took place. They changed the six years of primary schooling in the medium of English, to three years of elementary school followed by six years of primary school.

The language of instruction in elementary school is chosen by the community; English is introduced in the second or third year of elementary school and later, becomes the medium of instruction till learners reach a certain proficiency in English.

The assessment and evaluation of the programme led by Siegel (1992), mainly, to investigate the questionable claims of the use of dialect in the classroom. The evaluation (Siegel 1992, 1997) involved interviews with primary school teachers and parents about the programme and many comparative studies as well as an examination of learner's progress.

The statistical analysis of the data on academic achievement showed that children who had been involved in the preschool programme scored significantly higher than those who missed the programme. Furthermore, the preschool children showed significantly higher academic achievement in English across time (i.e. in upper grades as well).

2.9.1.3 Guinea-Bissau Endeavour

In Guinea-Bissau, Children come to school without knowledge of the language of instruction, and most teachers also have difficulty with this language. In 1986, the Ministry of Education started an experimental

programme which included using Crioulo to teach literacy and content subjects in the first two years of primary education, followed by a transition to standard Portuguese.

On the basis of sociolinguistic surveys, interviews (with parents, teachers and education officials), classroom observations and assessments of student performance, Benson (1994, 2004) conducted a detailed evaluation of the programme during the 1992/1993 school year.

The evaluation demonstrated various advantages of the programme: First, Crioulo and its use facilitates teaching and enables the learners to understand their lessons. Second, more learners spoke in class and become active learners. It was clear that education in dialect did not hurt the learners, as they performed as well if not better than those in other programmes.

2.9.1.4 Swedish Endeavour

In Sternberg's (1961) study, 350 Swedish learners were involved. The study was summed up in three steps: In the first year of the research, methods and texts for teaching in the D1 (the Pitea dialect) were developed and teachers were trained to use them. In the second year, the experimental group was taught for ten weeks to read in the D1. This was followed by twenty-five weeks of reading instruction in the D2 (standard Swedish), which included an initial four weeks of transition from the D1 to the D2.

The researcher did not find comment better than those of Sternberg himself, he reported that "the dialect method showed itself superior both when it was a question of reading quickly and of rapidly assimilating

matter” and that the same was true for “reading and reading-comprehension”.

2.9.1.5 Norwegian Endeavour

In Norway, More than 200 students were taught to read and write in their D1 during most of their first year in school. By the end of the school year, teachers gradually started to use one of the two standard varieties of Norwegian.

They were very explicit in their teaching, explaining why they used a particular variety, and they did not correct the students’ writing. Rather, they encouraged the students to pay attention to and analyze their own writing.

2.10 The Accommodation Approach

In the accommodation approach (Wiley, 1996: 127), the dialect is not a medium of instruction or subject of study, but it is accepted in the classroom.

2.10.1 The Accommodation Approach in the Netherlands

Van den Hoogen and Kuijper (1989) evaluated aspects of the research project carried out in Kerkrade in the Netherlands. In this project, the researchers encouraged the use of the local dialect of Dutch in the classroom by both teachers and learners (who were from 5 to 12 years old and in grades 1 to 4). Analysis showed that the use of the dialect in the classroom increased the rate of participation of dialect-speaking children as well as the length of their utterances.

Another study was carried out by Cullinan, Jagger and Strickland (1974), in which, they evaluated oral language programme that accept explicit use of the dialect in the classroom. The levels of the learners ranged from kindergarten to grade 3. The results showed a remarkable progress in all activities in learners' classroom performance with a noticeable increase in use of the standard.

2.10.2 Materials of Accommodation Approach

From its denoting name, the style and content of the materials used in the accommodation approach are adapted to the interests and concerns of children in schools. According to specialist in the field, the programme with such approach has been used successfully with African American, Latino and children in the 2nd to 5th grade who were one to two years behind in reading grade level.

Accommodation is also one possible component of the awareness approach, described in the following section.

2.11 The Awareness approach

Teaching programmes using the awareness approach are based on the following three components: the accommodation component, sociolinguistic component and the contrastive component.

The first step concerns the teachers themselves. They have to be taught all the linguistic differences (semantic, phonological and grammatical) between the two codes. It goes on to illustrate the potential for miscommunication when these differences are not understood. Teachers

come up to understand that each of these varieties can be used appropriately in different contexts, and that children need to be able to switch between them if they want to participate in both standard and non-standard interaction.

2.12 Current Teaching Methods of MSA

To question the validity of current teaching methods, it is necessary to understand the advantages of teaching MSA over spoken varieties.

The position of MSA in Arabic language teaching is strong and it is difficult for any vernacular to replace it. Versteegh (as cited in Palmer, 2007) contended that classroom conversation in dialect will not converge in the direction of a dialectal variety but towards an increasing use of MSA features.

In the light of my knowledge, there is no empirical research examining the impact of spoken varieties of Arabic in classroom context. Maamouri (1998: 33) writes, “[MSA] is nobody’s mother tongue and is rarely or almost never used at home in the Arab world”.

It is vital to research alternative methods to provide learners with the necessary tools to communicate in classroom settings. In the same context Gass (2006:32) wrote, “Many would point out that SLA research is quite skewed in the direction of a few languages, but not Arabic. Arabic is not one of them, but the acquisition of Arabic is a field awaiting exploration”. There have been some calls in favor of teaching spoken Arabic.

For example, Wahba (2006:139) wrote, “In light of current theories of foreign language acquisition, selecting only one variety of Arabic for instruction such as classical or colloquial, will seriously prejudice the ability of the non-native learner to communicate effectively in an Arabic-speaking community”. He continued, “Both varieties of the language should be taught together, as occurs in natural speech context” (ibid: 139).

For him both varieties are necessary for MSA operative functioning in situations where an educated native speaker is expected to interfere.

Despite these infrequent studies in the field, there are some alternatives being proposed. For example, Al-Batal (1992), proposed an alternative approach to teaching Arabic. Al-Batal’s approach calls for learners with lower levels of proficiency to be exposed to colloquial constituent with higher levels focusing more on MSA until reaching educated native speakers level.

In similar model, Wahba (2006: 151) proposed the teaching of Arabic in light of its diglossic nature. His model proposed presenting MSA and a spoken variety of Arabic as separate entities at the early stages of learning, followed by mixed text at the intermediate levels and integration at advanced levels.

2.13 Conclusion

In this chapter, a glance has been shed on Piaget and Vygotsky’s views in relation to child education. Then we have tried to deal with the nature of the linguistic situation in Algeria with a particular focus on the status of AA and its inclusion in the language classroom and the effect

these interferences have had on language education.

The second part reflects on the impact of different attitudes has on education, and specific reference to diglossia in Algeria and its impact on education and language acquisition was made.

Subsequently, bidialectalism and second dialect acquisition were described, and some of their advantages were noted and various aspects of this process were described and discussed by critically considering types of dual language education and reflecting on what effective models may fit the Algerian situation. The next chapter outlines the methodological approaches and techniques used to collect the data for this research.

Chapter Three
Algeria

Research Methodology and Linguistic Issues in

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3. Research Methodology and Linguistic Issues in Algeria

3.1 Introduction

This study follows a qualitative and quantitative mode of enquiry as it measures and explores the behaviour and attitudes of both teachers and students. It tries to mention and interpret the practices and experiences involved in the acquisition process of MSA in a specific institutional setting (in this instance, the classroom).

Besides research tools (questionnaires, interviews, observation) used in the study a case study design was considered most appropriate to support the research tools. It focused on the atmosphere and environment of the classroom; nevertheless, it is a case study which involves two teachers in one school in the first part of this research.

The researcher's attention was directed towards certain aspects of situations and certain kinds of research questions. Also, each situation and action done during the research work must be understood from the perspective of the participants in that situation.

Our analysis is based on both frameworks in that we make use of our own interpretations and impressions of the classrooms under study but at the same time we do bring forth and take into consideration the participants' comments and interpretations of their classroom events and attempt as objectively as possible to present these points.

3.2 Sociolinguistic Issues and Language Policy

Sociolinguistic orientation may guide the researcher to put a set of inquiries about the public opinion. To reach our purpose, we decided to explore both primary school teachers and university students' opinions and attitudes about possibilities to introduce AA in classroom.

Research on the effects of language attitudes on language planning and education are very limited in the context of Algeria. However, teachers and specialists in the matter are aware of the language clash in the classroom.

They acknowledge the numerous beneficial effects that the use of the dialect in the classroom would bring about; but, at the same time, they reject its introduction in the education system. They rather prefer the introduction of dual language education in school as a strategy or a system to remedy the situation.

Back to the current study in which an attempt is made to investigate primary school teachers' opinion on the learners' use of AA in class side by side with MSA. Moreover, we try to examine teachers and university students' views on the adequacy of AA as a linguistic system of communication as well as we explore the role that teachers may play in language policy matters.

3.3 Language Policy and Language Planning in Algeria

In Algeria, Arabic is the national and official language. Recently Tamazight gained the status of second official language of the state.

Language planning is solely concerned with the adaptation, manipulation, and implementation of MSA. There are close to thirty laws regulating the official use of language in Algeria today.

The 1976 school charter implemented demanded an intense Arabisation of the schools. They pursued the generalization and use of a school Arabic. Obviously, these laws do not take into account the sociolinguistic reality of the country. MSA has become the official language despite the fact that no one actually grows up speaking it.

We do not claim the substitution of Arabic; on the contrary the linguistic reality denotes the gradual loss of MSA features in and outside the school walls. Our intention is to raise awareness of Algerian intellectuals about language issues and to propose a solution to elevate MSA status.

One amongst these bitter realities of language use in the Algerian society is the occurrence of French in media and business whilst the mother tongues (the vernaculars) Algerian Arabic and Tamazight are ignored.

3.3.1 Arabization Policy

As we take it for granted that education has been Arabized. In this research we limit the scope of the study to the Linguistic Arabization to a process by which Algerian government reinforces MSA learning through language planning policy.

The introduction of Arabic led to the widespread use of bad learning. In this respect, Benramdane (2007:63) notes that: “The worst thing of all is the way in which policy makers and developers have actually designed the

education system. It is based on memorization/reciting the facts learned. Algerian pupils spend their time rote learning. This is the basic skill of the traditional method, and well suited to maintaining the established order at the expense of rational thinking.” (Author’s translation)

This is the view of people such as Djebbar (1999), an academic and Arabic science expert, who was Minister of Education in Algiers from 8 July (1992) to 11 April (1994) under several governments.

We have singled out three of the numerous reasons for this qualitative failure of education, which are directly linked with the cultural problems of interest to us here and which, in themselves, are merely consequences of political decisions taken in the 1970s. The first of these reasons is the content and method of Arabic language teaching. It is a utilitarian, highly impoverished type of language, similar to that taught to tourists. It is also a soulless language, since it has virtually no cultural references [...]. The second reason is the marginalization of foreign languages. One of these, French, continues to hold a dominant position in quantitative terms (compared with English). However, qualitatively speaking, French teaching, which was hard hit by strongly-encouraged retraining for the best teachers and poor training for new recruits, has steadily been stripped of all that makes a language rich, which is to say, its cultural dimension, especially its universality [...]. The third reason is the slow disappearance or fossilization of the human sciences, which are the subjects that most embody culture and critical thinking,

namely philosophy, history and literature (Arabic and non-Arabic).(author translation)

(Education et société/ Revue internationale
D'éducation de Sèvres,
24 | 1999, 45-54)

3.4 Language Planning Defined

The study of language planning focuses on the decision-making that leads to establishing appropriate language use in particular linguistic communities. Cooper (1989) adds acquisition planning, which involves ensuring that there are sufficient means, education in particular, for people to acquire whatever language or languages the planners want them to acquire.

According to Ridge (2004), in order for language planning to be successful it needs to consider a number of issues. With this theory in mind, we will now consider Algeria's attempts at language planning by discussing various policy documents in order to establish how the policy intends to maintain the Arabic language and the replacement to some extent of the dialect with MSA.

3.5 Arabic instruction in Basic Education

For Algerian policy makers, it is the school task to make a change in child's language. Furthermore, the teacher's handbook dictates that:

Our job will be two-fold. We must use the child to correct the language of its family [...]. This will be possible only when we have closed the gap between the written grammatical language

and the anarchic spoken language [...]. We shall express ourselves in writing as we speak orally, and we shall speak orally as we write.

(Teachers' handbook for the first stage of basic education, 1980/1981)

A number of Algerian intellectuals have analyzed and denounced this teaching approach. Khoulatalebi-Ibrahimi (quoted in Guillaume 1983:10) has made the following criticisms:

The clearest manifestation of this sociolinguistic schism is the stubborn and obstinate negation of a child's language experiences and achievements during its pre-school years, a negation very much apparent in the Algerian education system's stated goals with regard to language, the dangers of which Mr. Boudalia-Greffou revealed. The most astounding and worrying impact is to impoverish the linguistic skills of pupils not only as learners, during the course of their school career, but also as social speakers/actors. She describes the result of this as "bilingual illiteracy".

Ghettas (1995:38) has shown that children have no poor language, as claimed by the method's designers, but claimed that: "On the contrary, syndrome of fluctuation, regression and fossilization in older children are more the result of poor language input from schools".

Instead of helping children to develop their language, the method hinders their expression. The position of mother tongues at school needs to be re-defined. Benrabah strongly defends the cause of Algerian Arabic.

According to him, both of these languages need to be recognized thus introduced in education system.

3.6 The Actual Status of MSA

The curriculum in the primary cycle includes teaching MSA (reading, writing, oral expression, and grammar) to children whose native language is AA and most of whom would have developed some knowledge of MSA (the alphabet from preschool as well as some oral comprehension ability from children's TV programmes).

Proficiency in MSA among these children varies depending on the child's family situation (as determined by the parents' level of education, in particular), but it is presumed to develop quickly so that the child can study the other school subjects that are taught in MSA.

In the middle and secondary cycles, learners' competence in MSA is reinforced through direct language instruction and reading/writing skills development as well as the teaching of other subjects.

At university level it is, however, difficult to predict what is happening and what will happen. Two observations are worth making at this point. Firstly, it concerns the language varieties that are actually spoken by students and teachers in the classroom. Secondly, it concerns the switch from Arabic to French realized by the students in order to study mathematics, sciences, technology, economics and management subjects.

The country faced and is still facing a dilemma related to whether to continue the process of Arabisation, and if so, how far to go to higher education or to stop at a certain level and leave students face the switching to French in scientific disciplines.

In an attempt to prepare the students for the language switch, the textbooks present the equations from left to right, following French writing, while the rest of the sentence is written from right to left (following Arabic writing). It is very difficult to understand how such a scheme would prepare the students to switch to French at university level.

Several other problems remain unsolved at the level of planning and implementation. There is no systematic development and assessment of the policy, its implementation and impact. Even textbooks which not only cause problems in communication, but results in contradiction among classes and eventually inadequate competencies which are carried over to higher levels.

3.7 Ferguson's Theory: Diglossia

The traditional explanation of the concept of diglossia has shifted to the metaphor of the continuum, (Harry, 1996, Holes, 2004, Bergman, 2010). According to these aforementioned scholars, Arabic language is hypothesized as an entity that begins from vernacular to the standard i.e. back to the continuum conceptualization "It also makes it clear that, to function effectively in Arabic-speaking societies, one must know both MSA and an Arabic dialect" (Bergman, 2010:85).

Harry's (1996) analysis of Arabic gives way to the emergence of metaphor continuum as a response to Ferguson's categorization of Arabic as diglossia. Rather than two distinct and separate language varieties, he views Arabic as a continuum with Classical Arabic at one end and vernacular Arabic at the other.

Holes (2004:49) expands on the metaphor: "The behavior of most Arabic speakers, educated or not, is rather one constant style shifting along a cline at opposite ends of which are "pure" MSA and the "pure" regional dialect, more accurately conceived of as idealized constructs than real entities".

What has been specified by Holes is that diglossia do not represent a barrier, it is however, considered as way of speaking i.e. a continuity in the same code but using different words and even structures.

3.8 Communicative Competence Theory vs. Arabic Diglossia

The approach pioneered by Hymes is now known as the ethnography of communication (Leung, 2005:122). Communicative competence is a term in linguistics referring to a language user's linguistic knowledge and about how and when to use the utterances appropriately. It has become widely accepted that communicative competence should be central of foreign language education, (Savignon, 1997).

This theory relates to the study in that it measures to what extent our institutions, five-year primary schools, or language institutes are preparing our learners to be communicatively efficient in MSA.

3.9 Arabic Diglossia

The excerpt below offers a coherent explanation for how diglossia works in Arabic.

“The written language was first systematically codified in the eighth century CE. The Qur’an and pre-Islamic poetry were the primary sources of the standard for the written language, which has since that time been held in the highest regard by the entire Muslim community as the language of the Qur’an and the language of angels in heaven. It is now referred to as MSA. There is evidence that diglossia existed in the eighth century since the codification of the language was motivated by a desire to have recent converts to Islam learn the correct language rather than the ‘corrupted’ urban varieties of Baghdad and Damascus. MSA has not changed in terms of syntax and morphology since then” (Palmer, 2008: 83)

Although MSA is taught in Arab schools, it is treated as a foreign language whose grammar rules are taught in schools without the practicing of the language in real social situations (Fellman, 1973).

Learners are expected to read literary and religious texts in MSA and to memorize these texts and their grammatical rules without necessarily understanding them (Fellman as cited in Mellor, 2005).

This method although criticized by many western scholars, earlier, it was the cradle which preserved the classical Arabic and gave it its real status. Our claim at this point government should think to create Koranic Academic for children specialized in Quran memorization and reading.

3.10 The Impact of Diglossia on the Quality of Education

It has been argued throughout this dissertation that reading in Arabic is an arduous process due the existence of diglossia. Thus, negative impact on educational in general and reading in particular leads to learners' feeling of linguistic insecurity.

If Arabic speaking countries want to face the challenges of the 21st century, there needs to be a concerted effort to bring about higher levels of linguistic self-confidence and a desirable social change. (Maamouri, 1988)

The Arabic language, according to Maamouri and Mohammad (1988), needs urgent language planning strategies to standardize it and make it more accessible to its speakers.

To reach this perspective, we have tried to re-examine MSA status, in Algeria as it is an Arabic-speaking country and the researcher' location. Our investigation adopted a qualitative and quantitative mode of inquiry. Thus, we have used a questionnaire administered to primary teachers, interviews and classroom observation. To well scrutinize the issue, in a form of a case study of two primary school teachers for the purpose to describe the daily ongoing of lessons in classrooms where MSA is supposed to be the only medium of instruction.

3.11 The Case Study Design

We collected copies of various activities done in the learners' work books and copies of their assignment. We attempted to collect samples of the work we observed them using. In case studies, physical objects are

useful because they help the researcher develop a broader perspective of the context under study beyond that which could be directly observed in a period space of time (Yin, 1994),

Actually, this case study is almost descriptive and explanatory; it aims at describing the classroom environment and then answering the questions relating to the way both teachers and learners construct their classroom environments and why they do it in such ways.

In general in case studies, the researcher relies on interviews, observations and physical objects. All these sources are available in the school environment and indeed help to construct the classroom environment.

3.11.1 The participants

The first part of the research focuses on two primary school teachers and their respective classrooms in a primary school named “El Arbi-Etbessi” situated in Tlemcen. The school’s policy clearly states that the institution’s aim is to develop the child’s abilities through MSA as a medium of instruction.

In Algerian schools, no other language besides MSA is used except French in French classes, and learners are discouraged from speaking any other language other than MSA in the classroom. The two teachers are simply referred to as T1 and T2, for the sake of anonymity.

The total number of learners is 70 learners in two classes respectively. The learners come from nearly the same linguistic backgrounds. As explained above, our primary reason for focusing on teachers is that in our view the teacher's role in education is seen crucial.

Primary schools register children from pre-schooling to year 5. All children entered kindergarten with little or no knowledge of MSA. As pointed out in Chapter One, Algerian children are fluent only in their AA. Most children at school seem had any exposure to MSA.

At the time of the study, all teachers based their instructional teaching on a common curriculum in terms of content which was taught through the medium of MSA. The school also had a special kindergarten teacher for preschool-aged children.

Few teachers have received training in primary school education. When the researcher exposed the issue to the teachers and explained in details his objectives, Algerian teachers showed real interest and held high expectations about what children could achieve if they were given the appropriate teaching/learning support according to researcher' aims.

3.11.2 The Teachers

T1 (classroom 1) has been a teacher of Arabic for many years; she has experience in teaching MSA. T2 (classroom 2) has been teaching in the school for twenty years. After being informed by the researcher, both teachers are aware of the linguistic issue and recognize the misuse and the malfunctioning of language matters in Algerian schools

T1 has a two-year secondary studies level, which he received in 1980. He then completed a diploma in education (ITE) in 1983. He first was a teacher in middle school but he sooner shifted to the primary level. He has also been on a number of recent short training courses that covered various topics such as computerising.

All teachers were aware about the fact that we seek to investigate the role of the classroom discourse in MSA development, with a particular emphasis on the role of the spoken language in the development of language school.

3.11.3 The Children

The school children, aged between 9 and 10 years, in their fifth year of schooling. In T1's class there were 40 children. Most children's MSA background knowledge was good in formal setting, with more linguistically demanding-tasks when it comes to classroom activities.

On the other hand, the 39 children in T2's classroom were described by their teacher as typically second language learners. Put otherwise, those pupils clearly expressed full competence in their mother tongue (AA) but were much less able to communicate in MSA in the classroom's context. A.

A remainder of the researcher aim is to find out what really can help these learners to become competent and effective users of MSA.

All teaching programmes at school are extremely detailed. As it was dictated by the Ministry of education, in general, programmes include a general overview under the four heading topics, concepts and understandings, skills as defined in functional terms (generalizing, classifying, predicting) as well as values and attitudes. We tried to define the programme adeptness in terms of these three objectives: Knowledge presentation, brainstorm their acquired knowledge then to predict the results.

During our data-collection phase, teachers followed the usual course of their programmes. The teaching programme is composed of a series of learning activities directed by teachers.

The ongoing of the teaching unit usually incorporates a number of actions, first the learners are gathered and put in groups, then teachers guide them by in most of the time explaining and directing when necessary. Then, learners reported on what they had learned, and finally they normally completed some written work based on these discussions. This sequence meant that learners were required to use overly the classroom language whatever the subject is.

The sequence comprises mainly four phases: orientation, elicitation, restructuring, application, and review. As Driver (1994) points out

“Understandings and explanations do not necessarily spring clearly from children’s data alone”. The author states that “ teacher’s guidance is needed to help children assimilate what is new for them”.

3.12 The Classroom: the Milieu of the Study

As stated above, we observed the classroom in order to apprehend the ongoing and roles played by teachers and learners as well as to understand the co constructed interactions teachers and learners together undertook.

Classroom observations took place over along and continuous period of time in which the researcher acted as a free auditor who attended lessons. In sum, the observation of an entire unit of work from the opening to closure, has allowed specific items of data to be recorded and interpreted. Christie (1995:19) arguably advocates this point as in what follows:

In order to demonstrate how a pedagogic discourse works, it is necessary to study quite long sequences of lessons. This is because the various practices involved in the very complex process by which learners enter into shared knowledge and understandings, as well as demonstrate capacity to manipulate these things in reasonably independent ways, involve considerable time.

3.13 The Data

The data was collected in the two classrooms over the course of the unit of work at random. They were not collected simultaneously, which would have been logistically difficult in each of the parallel classes. In fact, the two sets of data were collected a year apart, in each case in the final term of the year, first in T1's class and then in T2's.

In both classrooms, data was collected during one complete unit of work, numbering between seven and eleven lessons of approximately 45 to 50 minutes each. Some techniques were used to gain a picture of the classrooms as complete as possible. The table below summarizes the sources of data.

	Classroom 1	Classroom 2
Number of visits Audio-tapes of oral Interactions (transcribed)	9-10 year-olds Seven visits 300 minutes	9-10 –year-olds Eleven visits 500 minutes
Language on and print around the classroom	Some record in field notes	Detailed record in notes
Field notes student writing	Observer’s comments 29 pieces (one piece from each student)	Observer’s 40 pieces (taken from the course of unit, focus children)

Table 3.1. Sources of data-collection in the study

Both teachers and children interactions were recorded. During the observation periods, we have taken extensive notes relating to the teachers’ behaviour in their classrooms and attempted to describe the classroom environment in a clear and precise way, including books and other materials.

Both teachers had the same programme and textbooks (appendix 12) and used them mainly in their teaching procedures, but they used their own methods tried and tested them and found suitable over the years.

We have also informally conversed with the principal with regard to school policy and his understanding of education (knowing before that he was a teacher as well).

In addition, we conducted four interviews, two with each teacher. The first focuses predominantly on their background and considers their experiences of teaching and some of the difficulties they face. The second interview raises questions based on our

Observations and obtained other important information related to their training, attitudes towards the learners and understanding and knowledge of various language acquisition concepts.

The technique of observation used when discussed with my co supervisor in France, her first remark was that I cannot validate my hypotheses. This technique was not enough. For this reason, we ventured in exploring teachers' attitudes in addition to some students (would be teachers) from the Arabic studies department as they are aware of the problem whom the researcher considered them as teachers.

3.14 The Description of the Questionnaire

Thirty five primary school teachers and students randomly selected from 10 schools in Tlemcen took part in our investigation by completing a questionnaire prepared for the purposes of this study. The participants were asked whether they agree or disagree with a series of questions and sometimes in a form of a statement.

The questionnaire constitutes a pertinent inquiry to explore teachers' different attitudes about the use of the dialect in Algerian education system.

The questionnaire focuses on teachers' attitudes towards the use of AA by learners in the classroom.

The second category of the questions investigates the opinions and attitudes held towards AA as language of instruction inside classroom.

Primary education in Algeria is conducted in MSA. To go further in our study, we judge it necessary to investigate the role language attitudes can play in accepting or rejecting future changes in language policy.

Yet, the researcher seeks more support from the public opinion, and henceforth we have decided to investigate more by widening the questionnaire to different areas.

For example participants were asked to respond to designed statements regarding the introduction of the dialect as a medium of instruction in primary schools. Then they were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement concerning the negative/positive effects that might arise from the implementation of such a change in policy.

Furthermore, they were asked to assess the differential effects that a change in policy may have if a dual MSA/AA education is to be introduced in Algerian system of education.

Responses of the completed questionnaire were tabulated and analyzed statistically and the findings are discussed in what follows.

3.15 Research Techniques and Different Actions Description

To obtain a rich description of the situation we will discuss the primary data collection techniques mainly, observations of the classrooms, physical objects (learners' work books and cards). Gilham (2000: 45) posits that observations involve "watching what people do; listening to what they say; and sometimes asking them clarifying questions".

In our case, we have observed the ways in which the teachers developed the language in their classrooms through their interaction with learners, the available textbooks and their choice of additional stories and texts. The teachers and learners were aware of and tolerated our presence in the classroom, but we did not participate in the lessons or in any other activities.

It is thus, observing the classroom activities allowed certain patterns to emerge and these patterns actually helped us to understand what was going on in the classrooms. Our observations were by and large more open and less formal and involved a general description of each classroom environment in that we focused on describing the teachers and their activities and the various events that took place. We then steadily focus on particular elements, activities, interactions and behaviours.

The observed data in this research were for the most of the time recorded through note-taking as it was judged the most suitable and practical method because it allows the researcher to watch the various interactions and activities.

3.16 Conclusions

This chapter is divided into two main parts: the first one describes the classroom of Grades (1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) classrooms at the primary school. The study considers teachers/learners and their interactions. Then, it describes the research design and methodology adopted. The research is qualitative and quantitative. Multiple methods of data collection are utilized, namely observations, interviews as well as the analysis of physical objects.

Having outlined the methodological design, we now turn to the actual data that are produced through these methods.

The next chapter tackles the findings which are a combination of interviews, observations, analysis of teaching material and questionnaire. The aim is to draw a detailed picture of the classroom interaction and primary teachers' attitudes which will be commented and discussed in the light of the theoretical approaches framing this study.

Chapter four
Interpretation and Findings

4. Interpretations and Findings**4.1 Introduction**

By and large, this chapter comprises a discussion of the classroom interactions with descriptions of each classroom and the physical objects collected from both, many of which are attached as appendices. It attempts to draw conclusions regarding the teachers' understanding and attitudes towards teaching in MSA and dual language teaching within school and different primary schools as evidenced by the data collected.

More detailed results of the study will be summarized in relation to the literature review and with specific reference to the original research goal that motivated the research. To propose some solutions that may improve the situation, especially with regard to the available material, training and staff in schools.

4.2. Description of Teaching Activities

Below is a description of the various teaching activities that were observed during our intercepted sessions. The intention is to show how the three learning areas that are covered in grade 1, namely, reading , writing and numeracy skills are approached and taught on a daily basis in these classrooms with specific reference to the various language activities we observed.

Date of obs	Teacher 1	Date of obs	Teacher 2	Remark
30/3/10	revision of the previous day's work	12/4/11	revision of the previous day's work	Teachers' domination using MSA
1/4/10	Introduction to the sound ' /	18/4/11	revised the sound ' /	Focus on sounds and teachers try to well articulate the new sound
2/4/10	Letter 'Fa' and the sound /f/	19/4/11	the letter 'ka'	explaining all the different sounds (vowels) using MSA and AA
3/4/10	the difference between the ' and ' ,	20/4/11	the difference between the ' and ' ,	teaching the plural form using MSA explaining in AA
4/4/10	write out in their phonics books and then they learn the phonic sounds by heart	22/4/11	Mathematics games and flashcards that focus on developing mental	Teachers and learners use their interlanguage

			arithmetic.	
5/4/10	a spelling test consisting predominantly of the words taught.	25/4/11	teaching a phonic sound through words construction	Two different strategies used to teach word recognition and memorization
11/4/10	Teaching a phonic sound is through words like those provided, which the learners first write out in their phonics books and then they learn the phonic sounds by heart.	1/5/11	Spelling test consisting of an excerpt already taught.	Teaching writing through words and letters already seen
12/4/10	give the learners a spelling test consisting predominantly of the words taught.	3/5/11	maths cards or writing practice	Teaching mathematics everyday as it is the basis of literacy learning
1/5/10	religious instruction lessons, language performance and	5/5/11	religious instruction lessons, language	kind of play performed by children in which they

	speaking skills.		performance and speaking skills	learn how they should deal with pets mainly dogs because of the 'k' sound they were learning at the time.
3/5/10	take learners individually for reading at this point			Both teachers develop reading skills
5/5/10	Flash cards that focus on developing mental arithmetic.		Flash cards that focus on developing mental arithmetic.	Teach learners different skills commas, raised their intonation at exclamations varying tone and generally read with

Table 4.1 day's work in classroom

The table displays the different classroom activities. The two teachers use different techniques, strategies and method. It seems they tend to follow instructions dictated by the Ministry of education.

The fact that they are experienced teachers, they do well with beginner learners. As far as we are concerned with classroom interaction, we try to describe mainly teacher-learner dialogues intercepted by some remarks on learners' use of the language. Classroom techniques were mainly based on sound repetition, word construction, learning by heart, spelling activities, reading aloud and writing practices.

What is noteworthy to mention in this case is what kind of language used by the teachers to explain and further transmit knowledge to those learners who totally ignore this language. Then, each learner has to perform different activity, at the end he tries to narrate his/her experience using of course MSA. At this stage, the learners may use his interlanguage as well the many strategies such as reduction, overgeneralisation, and simplification (see chapter 4)

It is not scheduled, but From time to time, the teachers select groups to do different maths and reading activities and he guided them separately. Teaching reading generally involves letting each learner read aloud a section from a selected text and then using word flashcards, to develop word recognition skills. Sometimes, both teachers take learners individually for reading and speaking skills.

4.2.1 Phonics

In Appendix 9, a sample of some stories used by the teachers in the session of phonic learning is shown. As teachers adopt a phonic approach that teaches learners how to break and build up words using the already studied sounds. In addition, it gives the learners some practice of punctuation rules.

As we are concerned with the exploration of the classroom language; mainly, we try to analyse the stories vocabulary used in learners' textbooks. It is clear that words show a high level of complexity and strange for the learner. For example, the 'The conquest of space' story has an arduous style with 'shuttle', 'space pirates' and 'computer' 'كمبيوتر'; 'galaxy' is very particular, something most children would be unfamiliar with; ' ' is a kind of short for kids no longer worn or very common and also have a strange feel; 'playground' 'وصيدة', 'insect' ' ', ' ' 'capsule' (Appendix 8) are also all words that are not commonly used in the Algerian linguistic repertoire. It is evident that these kinds of words do not represent in any way the learner experience.

We may seize this opportunity to suggest that these stories present an ideal opportunity for dual language method to come through in the lesson content. They can still be written in MSA but involve more Algerian ideas and concepts, and should be discussed in AA which may make them easier to understand and learn at this fundamental stage in the learners' cognitive and language development.

4.2.2 Vocabulary skills

As mentioned in table 1 in this chapter, vocabulary is taught through spelling and introduction of new stories with simple meaning. According to some specialist in education that three learning activities are needed in teaching vocabulary to beginners. Listed as follows: personal Dictionary, Dictionary Skills activity and spelling activity

In Appendix 10, for example, The book consists of sections related to the alphabet, putting words in their functional order, finding words in the dictionary and the definitions of words and each section is made up of appropriate activities often relates to a particular theme such as transport and the learners have to think of words related to transport that begin with various letters of the alphabet, for example, *سيارة*, and so forth (train, car, plane, respectively)

4.2.3 Grammar worksheets

Appendix 11 gives a typical example of the language cards (verbs, nouns, adjectives and letters) that the learners complete. For example, a story entitled “*طريق السلامة*”, ‘safe road’ which was about riding a bicycle safely. The teacher read the story aloud without any adjectives, and then it is to learners, who had to fill in suitable adjectives for the nouns and the missing letters.

During my fifth observation session in classroom, the teacher used a story entitled ‘Eid’s morning’ “*صباح العيد*”. He read the story aloud and then is to the learners, who had to add “- & ” and sometimes only “’” to the words in the story, a morpheme that expresses duality in MSA as in *سيارتين*

4.2.4 Writing

Writing consists of the learners' practice of different shapes that make up Arabic words such as cursive and dashes in the print style. So, for example, they would do a cursive shape and then write " "and occasionally a sentence like " " across the line or 'Leila is at home' " ليلي في " " as practice.

As can be seen, there are numerous language activities that the learners participate in with the opportunity to develop his language and still the opportunity for teachers to make use of AA dialect to portray these concepts even though they need to concentrate on MSA.

4.2.5 Reading

Teaching reading is done through reading practice. However, our critics focus on the book designers who failed in the choice of texts that fit the Algerian context. Most of the existing text books seem to be a replica of French books. On the whole, all of the books are clearly non-Algerian and this is felt in the concepts and ideas in the stories and some of the vocabulary. All the books have vocabulary and concepts that the majority of Algerian young learners might struggle to understand.

With regard to "space invasion" " " and "astronaut uniform" " " , (Appendix 7&8). The first thing that caught our attention is the fact that it is very complex, as it is beyond the scope of knowledge of the Algerian child.

The text consists of information, mostly about the man who first walks on the moon, reinforced with a picture and names of things overtly strange and seem bizarre to the young Algerian child. This may further slowdown learners' reading and lead learners to read without understanding and not acquire the reading skills.

The second text "portrait" the non-evident thing is that both the word "portrait" and the letter "p" exist, neither in MSA nor in AA. On the other hand, we notice that the majority of the stories like 'في المتجر الكبير' and ' ' are translated from French school books. However, one can ask where is this rich literature that reflects Arabic language and culture?

The most interesting thing about these texts is that the vocabulary and stories are very clearly non Algerian and contain many concepts and ideas that most Algerian learners have never experienced. Furthermore, the pictures that illustrate this book, such as the pictures of the tram and the satellite are not known by most of the Algerians, so what is about the young Algerian learner? This way does not lead learners to understand concepts.

Even animals that are described in texts: black bears, lions, pack rats, owls, eagles, foxes, bobcats, snakes, birds, coyotes and sea otters.

والطيور والذئاب وتشارلوت، والتعابين

A number of these animals are not found in Algeria and most learners would not have any knowledge or experience of these animals, making the text difficult to relate to and to understand.

There are a number of factors that contribute to the current situation. For example, there is a lack of suitable Algerian texts for grade 1, 2 learners to actually use. These factors must be taken into consideration and it is important to realize that these teachers are doing a hard job under what must be difficult and challenging circumstances.

Back to the learners, in the next section, it is noteworthy to analyse pupils' speech in relation to reading skill showing the most important strategies used by Algerian learners.

4.2.6 Numeracy

Both teachers commented on the difficulties they experienced on a day to day basis in these environments. They acknowledge that teaching in diglossic classrooms required a high use of oral language and an ability to continually adapt and ease the way to the learner's access to mathematical concepts.

The data reported in this study is one excerpt from the first grade classroom and one short excerpt (Appendix 15 & 16) chosen from the second grade classroom.

We are concerned with the conversation that lacks of on-going dialogue about the mathematical problem. We noticed a lack of spontaneity in using MSA; children do not have the necessary vocabulary.

Most of this lesson was explained through MSA and AA with the addition of diagrams to represent the problem at hand. This is considered to be an easier process. This strategy is cognitively easier, using different

codes (MSA then AA) gives insight into how to work effectively within each and the role of gestures in creating meaning.

This short extract illustrates (appendix 16) a typical conversation that occurred in the classroom. As the learners worked and conversed with each other they use AA, but when it came to discussing mathematical concepts they expressed their ideas using their interlanguage.

It is obvious that a possible reason for this is that their own language lacks the specific vocabulary needed to describe these mathematical situations.

4.3 Analysis of Learners' Interlanguage

Some of the Algerian pupils' interlanguage utterances will be put under analysis in order to infer some of the achievement or "communication" strategies as used by these pupils in their attempts to learn to communicate by means of MSA.

We are likely to concentrate on a specific type of such strategies, namely, AA based strategies, in that their inference will enable us to see the extent to which AA is to influence the Algerian pupils performance in MSA.

What the utterances selected for analyses have in common is that they reflect the Algerian learners' attempts to use MSA being at the same time under the influence of their mother tongue AA.

These utterances are two types, some are exclusively AA utterances, and others relate to the learner's interlanguage in that they reflect the interaction of AA and MSA structures in their production. These utterances were obtained through direct observation.

The utterances considered may be whole sentences or just single linguistic elements. They were produced either as answers to some questions asked by the teacher, or included in a free interaction between the pupils themselves or the pupils and their teacher, always under the classroom situation.

In an attempt to deduce the acuteness of AA interference, and for an accurate description of the utterance we will give the interlanguage utterance (IL) as it is originally produced by the learner, its corresponding hypothesized linguistic form in MSA and when needed, we will also give its equivalent in AA in order to consider the extent of the divergence between the three forms.

4.3.1 Interlanguage Transfer

The term is generally applied to the tendency of the learner to use a rule of his mother tongue in the production of second language speech, or as Littlewood resumes it as: "The learner's use of his previous mother tongue experience as a means of organizing the second language data"(Littlewood. W. 1984: 25)

The Algerian pupil is noticed to use this strategy when he attempts to use MSA.

(1) /ʔabi madʒa: ʃ/ (my father did not come)

In this example, the pupil is expressing negation according to AA patterns, i.e. the application of the two particles used to express negation in AA {ma... ʃ} to an MSA verb /dʒ: ʔa/ (come).

(2) /rəfdetli bunija / (she took my brown pencil)

In this example, another pupil adds the suffix /ja/ used to express possession in AA to the MSA item /bunni j/. It is to notice that the original MSA item functions as an adjective, and when the pupil adds the AA suffix, he will change its function into a direct object.

As a first cause to the pupil's resort to an AA rule in (2), we may notice his tendency to make less effort and simplification for, under MSA norm, he has to specify both the noun (object), and its complement (adjective), i.e. he would have said instead of (2) the following /qalami lbunni j/ (my brown pencil).

Utterances (1) and (2) though deviant reveal that the transformations effected by the two pupils can be attributed to neither MSA nor AA. This implies the pupils' generation of a new set of rules which reflect the interaction between MSA lexical items (verb and adjective) and AA rules for the expression of negation and possession, respectively.

This interaction seems to be characteristic of their interlanguage as an independent system which contains elements from both AA and MSA, and accordingly implies the impact that AA may have on the pupils'

speech production in MSA.

4.3.2 Overgeneralization (regularization)

According to Richards (1971), a L2 learner is overgeneralizing when he creates deviant structures under the influence of other structures that he had experienced in the L2.

Consequently, following other scholars, we will apply another term which is used in analogy with "overgeneralization", but still different from it. The strategy would become named "regularization", which broadly implies the learner's tendency to add: "a marker that is typically added to a linguistic item [...] to exceptional items of a given class [...] that do not take such a marker" (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982: 157), or more precisely, the application of rules used to produce regular forms to those that are seen irregular.

Transposed to the Algerian learning context, we will notice that MSA rules and structures under the classroom situation are agreed on to reflect a total "regularity", i.e. represent the "norm", whereas AA structures are seen to have some "irregularity" in them. Such a subjective view seems to be deeply enrooted in the pupil, due largely to the un-objective language practice imposed on him/her.

As a result, he applies MSA rules or markers to AA elements which do not take such markers in an attempt to make these correct and therefore acceptable to the teacher. In such an attempt, he may be said to be regularizing these AA items in accordance with MSA norms.

(3) /mudajjaqun/ IL /di jjaq/ AA (tight: a pair of trousers)
/dajjiqun / MSA

This I.L. utterance reflects a morphological modification effected on the AA item rather than on the MSA item (for the initial consonant /m/ i.e. the insertion of a vowel /u/and the addition of a case inflection /un/ which are characteristic of MSA use, not AA. (the analytic aspect of AA in the first chapter).

(4) /zaʔfa:nun/ IL
/zaʔfa:n/ AA (angry)
/ʁa:dibun / MSA

This example reflects the same pattern.as.in (3), the addition of a case inflection may be in an attempt to make this adjective sound correct, but this example makes it clear that it is to the AA item that the MSA rule is applied (the noticeable divergence between the AA item and MSA item translates this).

Therefore, the pupils in (3) and (4) inflect AA items in order to make the teacher accepts them as correct. This shows that the Algerian pupil knows how to demarcate between MSA regularity and AA irregularity to the extent of fusing the regular into the irregular in order to achieve his communicative intentions.

4.3.3 Syntactic Reduction (simplification)

This strategy is generally understood to mean the "non-application of rules that are assumed by the learner to be "optional"(Faerch &

Kasper, 1980: 42), that is L2 rules that will not affect the learner's transmission of a specific meaning.

The Algerian learner's performance is reflected such a reduction or omission at the level of grammatical morphemes (case endings and inflections). These rules may be assumed by the Algerian pupil to be optional rules due largely to their infrequency and non-application in AA, and as a result, he will not tend to apply them in his speech in MSA.

(5)/nsitha/ IL

(6)/nsitha/ AA (I forgot it)

/nasajtuhū/ MSA

This pupil does not show the least interest in producing the highly inflected MSA item and use instead the uninflected simple form as used in AA.

(7)/jgulli/ I.L.

/jgulli/AA. (He tells me)

/jaqqu:luli:/ MSA.

In this example, the pupil reduces the MSA personal pronoun /li:/ under the effect of a gemination of this with the final consonant of the MSA verb. This gemination may be due to the effect of AA linguistic habits where the personal pronoun needs not to be specified as in MSA. (cf. Appendix for other examples).

4.3.4 Code Switching

The Algerian pupil has been noticed to use code switching as an

alternative strategy to solve problems he encounters in finding the correct and appropriate MSA item.

pupil: معلمة علبة اسم هي

/mʊʔallima ʒʊlba ʔa:səmhijsa/ I.L.

(Teacher, a box, what is it?)

معلمة ماهي العلبة

/mʊʔllima ma:hijsa allʔʊlba/ MSA.

The pupil uses a Wh-word in AA [ʔa:səm] (what) after a noun in MSA /ʔʊlba/, and before a disjunctive pronoun in MSA /hijsa/ (she), this may be due to a difficulty he has encountered in finding the equivalent MSA Wh-word /ma/.

(8)pupil:

/ma:dʒba:ətʃkurra:ʒnta:ʔʊ/ IL. (He did not take out his copybook)

/lamjuχridʒkurra:satahu / MSA

In (9), another pupil makes a double Codeswitching, from AA to MSA, and then to AA. He uses an AA verb/dʒbəd/ (took) between the two particles used to express negation in AA /ma...ʃ/ before a noun (direct object) in MSA /kurra:sa/ (copy book), then he switches again to AA in order to express possession by means of the AA possessive article /nta:ʔ/ (his).

We may notice that the reason for this code switching can barely be

related to limited or insufficient knowledge of MSA equivalent forms.

It appears that the high frequency of AA as the primary linguistic means of expression inside the classroom is playing an important role in the specification of the nature of this Codeswitching. (see appendix 11)

4.3.5 Synonymy (The use of AA as a first linguistic means in Semantic Interpretation)

Shoshana and Levenston (1978) assume that: "All second language learners probably begin by assuming that for every word in their mother tongue, there is a single translation equivalent in the second language" (quoted in Faerch and Kasper, 1983: 132).

The reverse of this assumption seems to apply to the Algerian pupils who can be said to begin learning MSA assuming that for every word in MSA, there is a single translation equivalent in AA.

They reflect this when they are asked to give the meaning of a word in MSA.

Teacher:

/ma:maʕna la:taltafiti:/MSA (What does "don't look back" mean?)

Pupil:

/matʃufʃmurra:k / AA (Don't look back) to refer to girl.

Teacher:/ma:maʕnaʔiʕtalat/ MSA (What does "she overlooked".

Pupil:

/zæfmarəggbət/ AA (that is, she overlooked)

In these two examples, the pupils know the meaning of the MSA word, however; they resort directly to AA in order to give a semantic interpretation of these MSA words.

4.3.6 Word for word translation

When word for word translation is done by the Algerian pupils, the result is likely to be a mismatch between the meaning the pupil wants to transmit (according to AA), and a form in which this meaning is expressed (according to MSA).

(9) Teacher: لمادا يخا
/lima:da jaχa:fu rida mina lfalla:q/ MSA
(Why does Reda fear the hair-dresser?)

Pupil: لأنه يحرقه في رقبتة
/lʔannahujafriquhufiraqabatih/ MSA
(Because he (the hair-dresser) burns him in his neck)* -the meaning according to MSA
– (Because he (the hair-dresser) injures him in his neck) -the meaning according to AA.

We can illustrate this and say that verb (1) (which would become /jafraq/ in AA.) is used in this context to mean (to injure), however, the MSA word translates just another meaning exactly (to burn).

This would mean that the pupil will fail in transmitting what he really intends to transmit. For a sentence both syntactically and semantically correct, the pupil should have used the right MSA verb /jadʒrafɪhɯ/ (to injure).

We will be objective to say that the reason for this word for word translation may be the high similarity existing between /jaɸrag/ AA and /jaɸriqɯ/ MSA, since the main difference is only at the level of the velar /g/, nevertheless, this does not preclude the divergence existing between these two forms at the semantic level. To sum up: to injure (in the pupil's mind).

/jaɸrag/ AA “to burn”

/jaɸrriqɯ/ IL “to burn” (in the pupil’s words)

MSA/jaɸrriqɯ/

/jadʒrafɪhɯ / MSA “to injure”

This would imply that there can be no one-to-one relationship between thinking in AA and speaking in MSA, which, as we have seen in (11), would prevent the pupil from transmitting the real meaning of his sentence (of course, this would not occur as long as the Algerian teacher shares the same L1 with his pupils).

The Algerian pupil is taking some risk in producing such a sentence. Though he cannot find the MSA equivalent verb, by means of

which, he would convey his message in acceptable terms, he directly translates the verb used in AA (by pronouncing it and changing the /ʔ/ or /g/ into /q/). Thinking in terms of the mother tongue seems to be the beginning to learning or communicating in MSA.

The identification of these strategies permits us to better conceive the complexity of MSA learning process. These strategies reflect the Algerian learners' active involvement in this process and by this their L1 will be certainly involved.

The inference of such strategies allows discovering some of the highly unpredictable rules and patterns that constitute an evidence of the Algerian learners' development of an interlanguage, whose basis is AA.

The different strategies cited above reveal the learners' tendency to make use of what they know in order to achieve the expression of what they do not know. The difficulty of eradicating these learners' mother tongue habits is reflected in the learners' application of such strategies.

Since AA rules and patterns are fused in a planned and systematic way. This makes us to affirm that AA will not hinder the process of MSA learning, but rather it will constitute a useful linguistic means that enables the learners to succeed in these processes.

4.4. Teachers' Questionnaire Analysis

The data and different reflections discussed above give insight into classroom. With the same token we were able to describe the classroom

language used by both teachers and learners particularly when linguistic phenomena occur in their discourse.

Having describe the linguistic and pedagogical inquiries of this research, we display below the most important findings that result from the investigation handled primary school teachers to examine their opinions on the learners' use of AA in the classroom, and its adequacy as a linguistic system of communication as it represent the crux of this study.

4.4.1 Teachers' Evaluation of Learners' Use of AA in Class

. Graph 1 shows the teachers' opinions on issues, defined by the researcher, related to the effects of AA usage on the mastery and use of MSA,

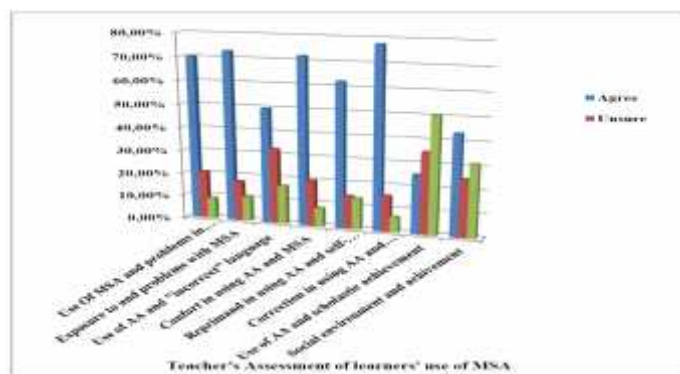


Figure 4.1. Teachers' Assessment of learners' use of MSA

As can be seen from graph 1, the majority of teachers 75,8% agree that the learners feel discouraged when corrected for using AA in class and 73,7% agree that learners who do not attend the pre schooling year encounter more serious problems when expressing themselves.

Furthermore, 71, 7 % acknowledge that learners feel much more comfortable when using AA and 69,9% agree that these learners encounter problems when speaking in MSA.

49, 2 % disagree that when learners express themselves in AA, they are considered to be using downgraded language. Furthermore, 39, 4 % of the teachers disagree that the encouragement of AA usage in class and another 30, 8% in the family environment leads to lower levels of school achievement.

4.4.2 Teachers' Evaluation of and Attitudes towards AA

The second part of the questionnaire investigates the teachers' opinions and attitudes towards AA.

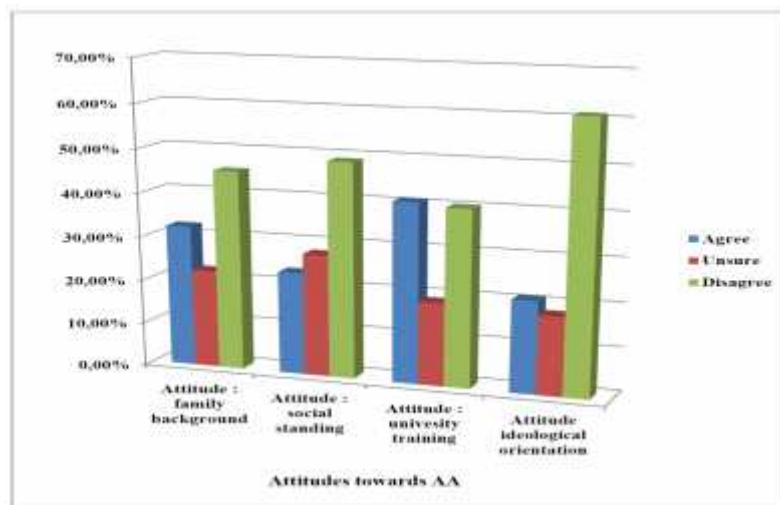


Figure 4. 2. Attitudes towards AA

As can be seen in figure (4.2), 60, 9% do not agree that their attitudes towards the use of AA in class are directly related to their ideological orientation. 48, 9 % reject the suggestion that it is related to their social behaviour and 45,4 % that their knowledge of AA have formed their attitudes towards its use in class. 40, 9% of teachers agree and 40,2%

disagree that their attitudes towards the use of AA in class are directly related to the training they received as university students.

4.4.3 Language Policy Matters

The third part of the questionnaire focuses on teachers' understanding of the relationship between MSA or AA views on language policy matters.

Figure (4.4) shows that 73,5 % agree that the use of dialect contributes in culture conservation. 55,4 % believe that the encouragement of AA in class leads to the reinforcement of MSA, and a considerable number 72,5% reject the idea that promoting the Algerian culture through dialect use may distance Algerians from his Arabism and religion.

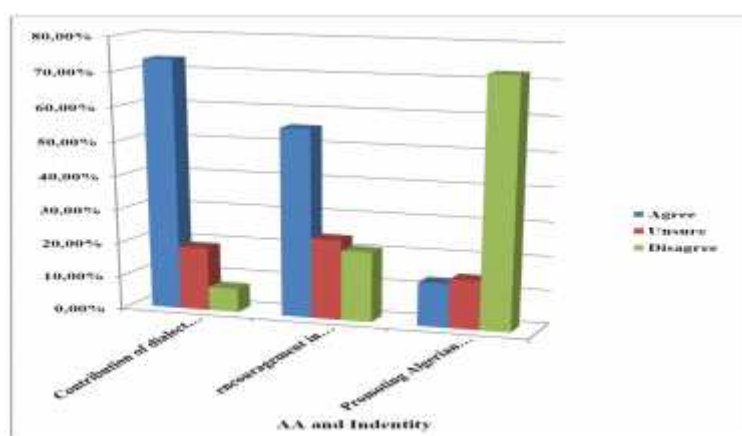


Figure 4.4. AA and cultural issues

Figure (4.5) shows that 74,7 % declare that a language policy should be based on linguistic criteria rather than on ideological considerations.

63, 6% believe that AA to be used for instruction should be explicitly stated in future language policies. 37, 7% of the teachers agree that the language of instruction should be the learners' mother tongue; that is, the

Algerian dialect, while 40 % of the teachers are unsure about the issue, and 22, 3% disagree.

Finally, only 39, 8% believe that teachers should be consulted in choosing the language variety to be used for classroom instruction, whereas 31, 3% are unsure about this issue, and 19,1 % disagree.

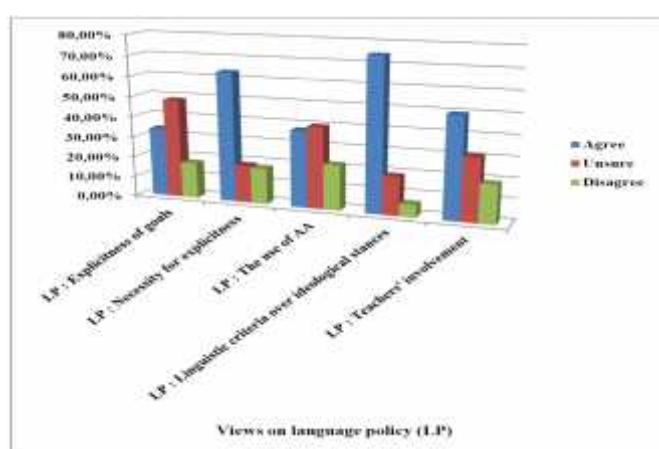


Figure 4.5. Views on language policy

4.5. General interpretation of the questionnaires

Accordingly, the teachers' attitudes towards MSA or AA may be interpreted based on implicit and explicit considerations. Teachers firmly view AA as linguistically deficient and should be used outside the classroom.

In relation to AA adequacy in classroom, we notice some teachers' persistence in the use of AA outside the school as well as inside the school walls. Thus, AA represents child's first language that he masters inside and

outside the classroom. However, for most of the teachers it is believed to represent the inappropriate language.

According to teachers' language behaviour in the school, another interpretation may be intended in terms of AA or MSA values. In this respect, the teachers' responses may well reflect the exclusive and continuous use of MSA in the classroom.

Teachers recognize that an interlanguage is emerging the teachers appear to be aware of the influence of AA on their language behaviour. It is important to notice that even if the teachers refuse to consider the relevance of AA to MSA teaching, they continuously involve this variety through their switching to it. The fact that codeswitching to AA is generally recognized and accepted.

It seems that even if the value of AA is recognized as the variety switched to most of the time (observation....) and its influence apparent, the teachers are reserved as to attributing it an official status in MSA teaching and learning processes.

We may suggest that the pupil's mother tongue use inside the classroom has considerable results. It makes the learner to feel comfortable in his learning far from being frustrated by the feeling of linguistic insecurity. Teachers' resort to AA will contribute in the achievement of learners' success

If the pupils use AA, it will facilitate the process. As a result teachers need to take into account the practical role that AA may play in teaching as

well as learning MSA. The teachers' use of AA represents a strategy that contributes to establish the new vocabulary of MSA.

4.6 Attitudes towards MSA/AA

Teachers affirm that their intention is to help learners acquire MSA as quickly as possible to facilitate comprehension of the other subjects. They acknowledge the burden and arduous task put on the Algerian young learner.

The negative attitude towards AA is ascertained by the majority of the teachers it is rather believed to hinder MSA learning. This view could possibly be due to the effect of Arabization policy, or simply because MSA is the language of the Koran.

It compulsory for us to mention that Algerian teachers have received their training with one idea in mind that Algerian classroom is far from being diglossic. All the learners are strongly encouraged to speak only MSA in the classroom and discouraged from using their dialect.

Both teachers do, however, show awareness of the necessity of AA. They do suggest that learners should attend a nursery where they are instructed initially in AA.

4.7 Diglossic Contexts

The results make it known that diglossic setting causes educational problems, such as learners not only do they have to learn reading and writing skills, they also have to learn MSA. It is mainly because the gap

between MSA and AA is so distant that make it impossible for beginner learners to grasp or even guess the meaning. Beyond learners, the government runs into language planning issues that come from this inadequacy of language of instruction.

As a result, the elimination of AA is, in our view, a negative approach psychologically, socially and practically. This may lead to linguistic insecurity, language conflicts and loss of communicative skills.

In such a diglossic situation where speakers are able to use code switching, it is easy to establish programme that can support the two varieties. What has to be done is to help the Algerian child so that they will be able to not only read MSA but to use it as well. The best solution to the problem at stake is to teach MSA in schools by means of dual variety education method. This would probably be simpler than changing the linguistic habits of the learner.

4.8 Source of Innovation

The Algerian classroom necessitates the development of teaching material that supports the co-existence of MSA and AA in the classroom. An alternative approaches such as dual language education especially in kindergartens is required in these new pedagogies.

Algerian teachers may perceive dual language as an alternative approach that may be brought to the attention of learners, to explore ways of using these materials, involving parents and even members of the community in the process of their learning.

4.9 Exposure to MSA

This belief that exposure is the key in our opinion needs to be reviewed. In fact, it is argued that at most of the time the MSA learnt at home environment do not coincide with the one taught and scheduled in the school. The transition from the language of home to school different activities may be more difficult for some learners than for others who have not being exposed to MSA.

As observed, lessons were expensed in AA. This does indeed happen as a result learners show excitement and participate during this kind of lessons. But, because the learners hardly meet this kind of lessons, they are characterized as being weaker and unable to continuously cope with the classroom requirements.

Heugh (2002) demonstrates that second language learners who are exposed to English earlier and who are not taught through their first language may drop out from school in an early period. In Algerian school learners appear to struggle, especially if they did not run into kindergarten. Consequently, teachers acknowledge that these learners are at a serious disadvantage and they drop out from school in an early age.

Unfortunately, Algerian teachers do not really value the impact the school has on the learners and whether they are in fact able to carry on their studies. Thus, the teachers make themselves unaware of the problems faced by the learners and they reject any sort of aid.

4.10 Dual Variety Education in the Classroom

Teachers' intention to make a change towards dual variety education in their classroom is not really clear or even discussed in the school wall. They ignore the important role in maintaining learner's first language, knowledge and experience.

For a classroom to be truly diglossic, teachers need to be trained in such context where the means of instruction poses problem. Moreover, it will be of great benefit if teachers experience bidialectal and bilingual education to understand the nature of bilingualism and bidialectalism in society.

Unfortunately, the textbooks used by the learners are generally not Algerian in content and seems to be western fairy stories and so forth. The stories are difficult to understand and difficult to learn by heart because they portray concepts that the Algerian learner might not experience in his daily life.

Unfortunately these practices do not help the Algerian children in any way and do not lead to any rational solutions to the problem. This situation is understandable as this is the culture the decision- makers and educationists are most familiar with.

4.11 The Classroom and the Algerian Language Policy

From a sociolinguistic point of view when a language loses its value in society, the status of this language diminishes and the language begins to weaken and no more maintained.

In order to prevent the death of MSA, the Algerian policy would advocate dual variety education, whereby AA is maintained to make the transition from child home language to the school language certain and successful. Furthermore, the teachers should be trained specifically in diglossic contexts which reflect the real linguistic situation of the Algerian society.

Algerian society within schools lack knowledge and understanding regarding the linguistic issues in education Added to this are the current pressures of the job that weigh down on the teachers. Those teachers are unsure of, have no knowledge about, and are not convinced is important or necessary to implement this kind of policy.

Part of the solution awareness rising to educate parents about the value of the mother tongue in early education as well as governmental encouragement for schools to sustain and develop the language policy.

4.12 Interview Discussion

The many reflections at the end of the lessons between the teachers and the researcher try to clarify particular issues that need to be taken into consideration. What is needed for such work is to explicitly link home environment to school environment with the help parents, administration staff and even members of society. After all, we as Algerians aim to well prepare our pupils to write and to speak using MSA as mean of interaction.

Teachers interviewed were asked to comment on the importance of promoting dialect use in pre-school instruction as claimed by the researcher. After this stage, the majority of them considered it to be

important for a number of reasons both at a personal and a professional level.

The most important variable that may lead to an adequate and rapid intervention is the recognition that Algerian children classrooms are diglossic and this hinders the acquisition of MSA.

The study seeks to bridge the gap between home and school and assist pupils to enhance MSA acquisition. By this we try to map the ground to MSA cultivation and prosperity and provide indicators for future changes in education. As such, the researcher recognises with great esteem the considerable capabilities of Algerian pupils as they commence school. We aim to assist them to feel comfortable and achieve their schooling successfully in order to meet the challenge of improving long-term educational outcomes.

4.13 Wrong Assumptions about Language

Teachers strongly encourage learners' parents to read MSA stories to their children and to correct their child's Arabic

Appendix 16 linked to teachers' different comments is a good illustration of teachers' assumptions first they state that it is not necessary to maintain AA in the school environment, since they are unaware of the advantages that the learners' home and environment may provide to help learners. Second, they assume that a lack of exposure to MSA is the primary cause of language problems in learners.

With these assumptions in mind, in school learners are discouraged from speaking their home language besides MSA in the classroom and the parents of learners are also encouraged to expose their child to MSA. As a reflection, they describe the current situation in schools that its failure has been shown through the current study.

4.14 Change and Innovation

In this study an effort was made to explore primary classroom and obtain the necessary information about lessons ongoing and different issues which hinders MSA acquisition as well teachers' attitudes and how they handle their teaching in such context.

The results obtained through classroom observation do not allow us to validate the fourth hypothesis. However, the results from questionnaire shed some light on the point. More than half of the teachers who took part in the study do not find AA inadequate, nor do they accept its occurrence in class.

In addition, more than half of the teachers do not appear to hold negative attitudes towards AA. This is quite evident from the fact that teacher accept AA as a means of communication and consider it to be a complete variety that can be used for initial education.

Concerning future change, teachers express their rejection of any ideological thought which may deviate planning for innovations in language policy but because of their limited knowledge of the situation they do not take a clear position on the use or non-use of the dialect as a medium of instruction in primary school and even in pre-school institutions. At the

macro level, sensitive and political issue can be expected as confirmed by one of my informants.

Mentioned before in chapter 2 Romain (2012:22) points out that several studies have shown that the use of home language in early literacy is effective. She namely mentioned Norway and Sweden where the studies revealed “the advantage of teaching children to read first in their own variety before switching to the standard”. (ibid: 24)

Language planning is structurally decided and affirmed by the contribution of public attitudes then opinion. Thus, a change in education policy according to this study is sustained by the positive teachers’ attitudes. This would perhaps facilitate the chances of the successful implementation dialect based syllabuses.

If changes in language-in-education were ever made, participants would prefer the introduction of dual variety education. From the results, one could make the claim that this education approach is seen by participants, as a way of elevating the performance of MSA.

Participants’ preference for dual variety education receives further support from my own revelation of my doctoral study goals (performance and establishment of dual variety teaching programme) in which I include an explicit and conscious comparison of MSA and AA in class increased language awareness and led noticeable improvement in learners’ linguistic performance in MSA.

4.15 Conclusion

This chapter has painted a picture of the classrooms under study. The first section looked at the classroom in detail with a specific linguistic focus. The structure of teaching activities and the various books in the classrooms were then mentioned.

Various language activities were considered such as, phonics, vocabulary, numeracy, writing and reading. The texts in particular were discussed in detail, because language skills are very easily transmitted through stories.

Various language problems within the classrooms, Arabization policy that influence the role of the teachers in the classrooms, other factors that the teachers felt contributed to learners, the treatment of the children in the school,

The picture has now been painted and the next chapter briefly discusses the data within the frame of the original research questions, which form the core of this research. This discussion is also based on the theoretical framework that was described in the first and second chapters.

Chapter 5

Prospects for a kindergarten programme

5. Prospects for a Kindergarten Programme**5.1 Introduction**

The present chapter is devoted to: first, an evaluation of a specific major reform in Algeria, the already stated claim which concerns the implementation of three year public kindergarten. Second, we judge this implementation, based on a Canadian sample, is for the sake of providing an empirical example of evaluating the educational reform.

Exploration of others' endeavour and evaluation of Canadian kindergartens are of great benefit to the current work, and on the basis of data obtained the policy makers will be able to make informed decisions; on the other hand children will also benefit from a goal-determined and well-structured early education programme

5.2 The Importance of Early Childhood Education

It is agreed that early education helps children psychologically through: focusing attention and behaving independently; socially through: accepting adult direction, and playing with other children; and cognitively through: understanding and using the language.

Pianta and Hamre suggest: "effective early childhood classrooms can be characterized by several key features. For example, effective classrooms are places where children feel well cared for and safe, are valued as

individuals, and where their needs for attention, approval, and affection are supported” (2005, 107),

This way, early education helps in learners’ school success. Moreover, it has further influence which includes long-lasting academic benefits (Barnett: 1995, Farran: 2000).

Children’s experience in the classroom is based on different interactions including the teacher, the classmate and such interactions are used for evaluating the classroom quality. This point will be raised in relation to the Algerian context in the following section.

5.3 Education Reform and the Context of Kindergartens in Algeria

Algeria is a fertile context to examine the quality of early education. As a matter of fact, the first grade in Algeria is compulsory while kindergarten is not. Until recently, only few children were able to enter kindergarten, moreover kindergarten education was given in private rather than public institutions.

However, from 2003 onwards, Algeria witnessed educational reform where the Ministry of education has established kindergarten education in schools. The statistics showed that more than 90% of Algerian families send their children to private kindergartens because the public ones are not available to them.

The present project is going to be the first of its kind in Algeria. This reform will be based on four main areas: (1) a reorientation of education policy goals and administrative systems; (2) a transformation of educational programmes and practices to enhance learning; (3) support of dual language education use in early years of learning; and (4) a promotion of learning readiness through expanded childhood education.

The last component is based on providing a holistic approach to develop early childhood services. Its aim is to raise institutional capacity, improving the capacity of kindergarten teachers and administrators, increasing kindergartens all over Algeria, and encouraging social participation.

A critical question that is raised in our work is whether the quality of public kindergartens that can be established during a relatively rapid reform period is enough to expand public kindergartens for more children. Therefore, we ask the following question: what is the quality of public and private kindergarten environments in Algeria? Does the quality of the environment differ between public and private kindergartens?

5.4 Glimpses on actual kindergarten in Algeria

Different kindergarten environment were observed directly for one day, including teacher-children interactions, in order to assess them. The observation includes different aspects including physical aspect (space, furnishing, room arrangement...etc) and other equipment (e.g. meals, rest...etc).

Moreover, we observed language reasoning (all the points related to language such as its use, communication and thinking) as well as other artifacts that need exploration and in relation to the issue at stake. Different kinds of interactions including staff-child interactions and interactions among children were also discussed. As a last step, programme structure and we searched other areas including parents and staff (staff cooperation, supervision, and opportunities to enhance learning).

Different questions were put forward in relation to Kindergarten quality in the Algerian context, mainly the implementation of public kindergartens. We assessed, particularly, the quality of the new public kindergartens in relation to already existing private kindergartens in different areas. Through raising such questions, we offer a grid (see table 5.1) which gives an idea about the incorporation of evaluation in educational reform.

Criteria of selection and evaluation							
		space	furnishing	Play& relaxation	Health practices	Language reasoning	Use of computer & videos
Private Kindergartens	Oudjlida	---	---	X	---	X	---
	Hsaine	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Bab ouahran	---	X	---	X	---	---
	Chetouane1	---	---	---	---	---	---
	Chetouane2	---	---	---	---	X	---
	Hennaya	---	---	---	---	X	---
	Kiffane 1	X	---	X	---	X	---
	Kiffane 2	X	X	X	---	---	---
	Imama	---	---	---	---	X	---
	Bab eljiad	X	X	---	---	---	---
	El hartoon	X	X	X	---	X	---
	Rbat	---	---	---	X	X	---
	Birouana	---	X	X	X	X	---
	Sidi chaker	---	---	X	---	X	---
Public Kindergartens	Yahmoracen	X	X	X	---	---	---
	Birouna sud	---	X	X	---	---	---
	El hartoon	---	---	X	X	X	---
	Sidi chaker	---	---	---	X	X	---
	Elarbi thesi	---	---	X	---	X	---
	Tenessi	X	X	X	---	X	---
	Darel hadith	X	X	X	---	X	X
	Imama1	---	---	X	X	X	---
	Imama 2	---	---	X	X	X	---
	Oudjlida 1	X	X	---	---	X	---
	Oudjlida 2	---	---	X	X	---	---
	Kifane 1	---	---	---	*	X	---
	Kifane 2	X	X	---	---	X	---
	Hennaya	--	---	X	---	---	---
	Remchi 1	X	---	---	---	X	---
	Remchi 2	X	X	---	---	--	---
	Terni	X	---	---	---	---	---
	Ouzidane	X	---	---	---	X	---
	Breah	---	---	X	---	X	---
	Maghnia1	---	---	---	X	---	---
	Maghnia 2	---	---	---	X	---	---
	Sidi abdli	---	---	---	---	---	---
	Bensekran	---	---	---	---	X	---
	Chleida	---	---	---	---	---	---
	Ouled mimoun	---	---	---	---	X	---
	Ain talout	---	---	---	---	---	---

Table 5. 1. A Grid Representing the Criteria of Selection and Evaluation

The observation of 13 private kindergartens and 26 public kindergartens generally found within primary school during the year 2010 makes us conclude that the majority of public kindergartens were less-operating in relation to their private counterparts.

The results reveal that: 13% of public kindergartens were inadequate, 43% were of minimal quality, 43% were good, while none were excellent; as for private kindergartens 22% were inadequate, 61% were of minimal quality, 17% were good and 1% was excellent.

Therefore, these findings reveal that the kindergarten quality in Algeria should be improved because of the high percentage of inadequate and minimal quality. However, the results also show that in a short time the newly implemented public kindergartens could exceed the quality of private kindergartens and this in turn reveal that the in-going implementation of public kindergartens will help Algerian children more than private ones.

In early chapters, we have dealt with the importance of early childhood education in children's educational achievement and personality; and hence students who do not benefit from such education will be lagging behind their peers. Therefore, the improvement of kindergarten quality education is a must.

The public kindergarten environments were bad in terms of interaction, programme structure and language-reasoning. They need improvement at the level of language and numeracy related activities, parents and staff, and space and furnishing.

This call for an improvement of kindergarten classrooms through a number of activities including: language skills, art, music, science, numbers and the use of computers. Moreover, they need improvement of physical aspect (furnishings and room arrangements).

A number of differences exist between public and private kindergartens. More 'good' and 'excellent' kindergartens were private. All public kindergartens need improvement. The environments of public kindergartens also reveal that the teachers are neither trained, nor qualified with a degree.

5.5 The Importance of Kindergarten in Algeria

Algerian children enter school with a different language background and different developmental stages. Positive learning experience is crucial to children. They should be provided with a secure and nurturing classroom that encourages them to achieve well.

In 2003, the Algerian government established, in a random way, a one-year of pre schooling for 'all' children. However, this step was not enough. On the basis of our findings, we attempt to give strategies to

improve achievement in numeracy in general and MSA in particular in Algerian kindergartens.

Reading in early stages is beneficial to children as mentioned in chapter two. Besides, we showed in our discussion that early development of mathematics has a great effect on achievement in the following years. Therefore, we try to offer a number of suggestions and guidance to prepare a sound three-year kindergarten programme.

Rich oral language environment which contains good resources helps in effective programming. Kindergarten programmes should give several learning opportunities to children on the basis of their needs and interests. Staff and parents should cooperate in order to improve learning experiences that develop children's confidence and provide them with a good basis for their metacognitive, social and physical growth

5.5.1 The Algerian Child as a Kindergartener

Kindergarten programmes should advocate each child's needs by providing learning, self-expression, and self-discovery opportunities in different ways such as language activities, games and collaborative works.

The linguistic aspects of the Algerian children have a significant role in developing their learning. Children generally lack awareness about the school language. They are not prepared to the structure of this language gradually (Chapter 1&2), thus they cannot grasp the new input.

The sample below, for instance, reveals the sophistication of the language structure in a fourth year writing activity for the Algerian child's mind. In answering the question commenting the accident,

Mohammed Amine expresses his ideas through various vocabulary items related to AA and MSA respectively, he sometimes write /ʃa:fi:na/ in other instances he uses /kamju:na / to mean a “lorry”. He uses also the word /ʃjɑ:t / to denote “smoke”. He uses the preposition /ta:ʔ/ for the possessive construction /ta:ʔlfima:ja/ instead of the construct state /ʃa:fi:nata:ʔlfima:ja/ (see appendix 13for further examples). Therefore, Algerian children should be given appropriate learning opportunities in terms of time and manner for better achievement, and also enough learning experiences to develop their autonomy.

عَادَ صُصُطُقِي إِلَى الدَّارِ وَحَدَّثَ أُمَّةً مِنَ الخَرِيقِ،
 تَصَوَّرُوا وَكَمَلُوا كِتَابَةَ مَا قَالَتْ لَهَا.
 رَأَيْتُ رَيْتُ الخَرِيقِ فِي العِمَارَةِ وَرَأَيْتُ رِجَالَ
 العِمَارَةِ المَنْطِقِيَّةِ بِالكَامِيُونِ وَرَأَيْتُ الرِّجَالَ
 يَطْفِرُونَ بِالنَّبِيِّ وَكَانَ أَيْضًا المُنَادِلُ يُسَامِدُونَهُمْ
 رَأَيْتُ إِصْرَةً كَبِيرَةً مَخْرُوقَةً كَانَ مَشِيئًا كَبِيرَةً
 مِنْ مَلَائِكَةٍ وَرَأَيْتُ النِّاسَ كَثِيرُونَ
 وَالْأَطْفَالَ كَثِيرُونَ يَجْرُونَ وَرَاءَ المَشَاجِئِ
 نَاعَ العِمَارَةِ المَنْطِقِيَّةِ الَّتِي لَوْنُهَا خَضْرَاءُ وَالأَلْوَانُ.

Figure 5.2: Algerian Learner Grade 4 Writing Performance

5.5.2 The Role of Teachers

Kindergarten teachers are supposed to provide well-planned programmes, in addition to linguistic appropriateness as regards to the Algerian linguistic systems and Algerian child's needs.

Teacher's work should be based on reflection, observation, and assessment to see the individual child's strengths and needs as an initiative step to appropriate instruction.

Teachers should use society as a basis to give meaningful and relevant learning experiences. The cultural aspect is also of paramount importance including stories, culture and customs that are enjoyable to teachers and children alike (Appendix 10).

However, as far as the cultural context is concerned the Tlemcenian accent is characterized with some characteristics that may be an obstacle for acquiring MSA, mainly the phonetically /ʔ/ pronounced words such as /ʔa:dʒi/ and /ʂɑʔʂi/ that their equivalents respectively in MSA /taʒala/ and /istaqsa/. These examples reveal the difference existing between AA and MSA in the studies community.

Teachers may work with parents to help children to overcome the difficulty of transition from their home to the school environment. Regular communication with parents is a key factor in bridging this gap and build up learners' self-confidence. They may also provide appropriate materials (presented below) and resources and plan



Figure 5.3: Selected Materials and Resources (Wonderful Stories)

5.5.3 The Role of Parents

For the Algerian context, this relationship may serve also in raising child’s awareness about the differences between AA and MSA.

This in turn will support teachers-parents cooperation through giving information about the child’s linguistic behaviour at home and the ways in which progress can be achieved. Parents may also help their children through talking about learning experiences at school, and this promote teamwork which in turn has major beneficial results in children education.

Parents and family members form together Open Doors to kindergartens; they should be fully-involved in the learning experiences. Open doors help children to be themselves. They also act as a listening ear

to children interests; hence they help in learning experience and enhance their oral language through conversation and interaction.

5.6 The Kindergarten Programme

The existing Algerian programmes (appendix 13) based on the traditional view that the teacher is the knowledge knower should be reviewed to enhance children learning.

Different parameters should be taken in designing the programme including: the Algerian linguistic situation (diglossia, codeswitching, bilingualism,..). These linguistic features reflect different thinking among children, they; for instance, reveal how children tell their thoughts, how they observe things, and how they tell stories.

As a matter of fact, stories have major effects on children because of their colorful nature, for that reason they are recommended to children (from 3-5 years their parents read for them, and 6 year-old and above read by themselves).

These examples illustrate how much important that children should talk about their experiences, they also guide teachers to include appropriate models for children's thinking. Young children show their understanding through doing, showing and telling. Teachers should observe, listen and ask questions to assess children's achievement.

Assessment: is the gathering of information through observable evidence of what a child can do, say, and apply.

ASSESSMENT GRID						
Learner _____		Level _____				
ACTIVITIES		1	2	3	4	5
RECEPTION	LISTENING					
	READING					
INTERACTION	SPOKEN INTERACTION					
	WRITTEN INTERACTION					
PRODUCTION	SPOKEN PRODUCTION					
	WRITTEN PRODUCTION					
COMMENTARY						

Figure 5.4. Assessment Grid of Children’s Abilities

Evaluation: involves judging and interpreting assessment data to view the child's progress in relation to the determined goals.

Teachers should fill-in the assessment grid at each level and write some remarks, for example, in reception skill, the level 2 child can understand long and unstructured speech. He can understand television programmes easily. In the same vein, at level 3 written productions, the teacher observed that the learner can write well and coherently, and write complex letters.

Teachers should assess children regularly and see their achievement in relation to the learning objectives. Children came to kindergarten with a set of social experiences and they encounter different set of experiences in the kindergarten. Thus, it is the teacher's role to bridge the gap between social realities and kindergarten realities through assessing their needs.

5.7 Methods of Assessment and Evaluation

In the first years of kindergarten, for instance, as a pre-step to patterning activities, the teacher observes children working with pattern, asks general question to identify interests, vocabulary and knowledge.



Figure 5.5: Kind of Selected Books for Kindergarteners

The above mentioned stories are different collection of books with small meanings help children to know different learning concepts in an enjoyable way. They develop children's critical thinking and help them learn the Arabic alphabet and read simple texts.

The teacher introduces some activities such as naming the numbered different items as shown in the following picture by using AA and MSA, and observes children's work to check their understanding and to see what subsequent activities will deal with. .

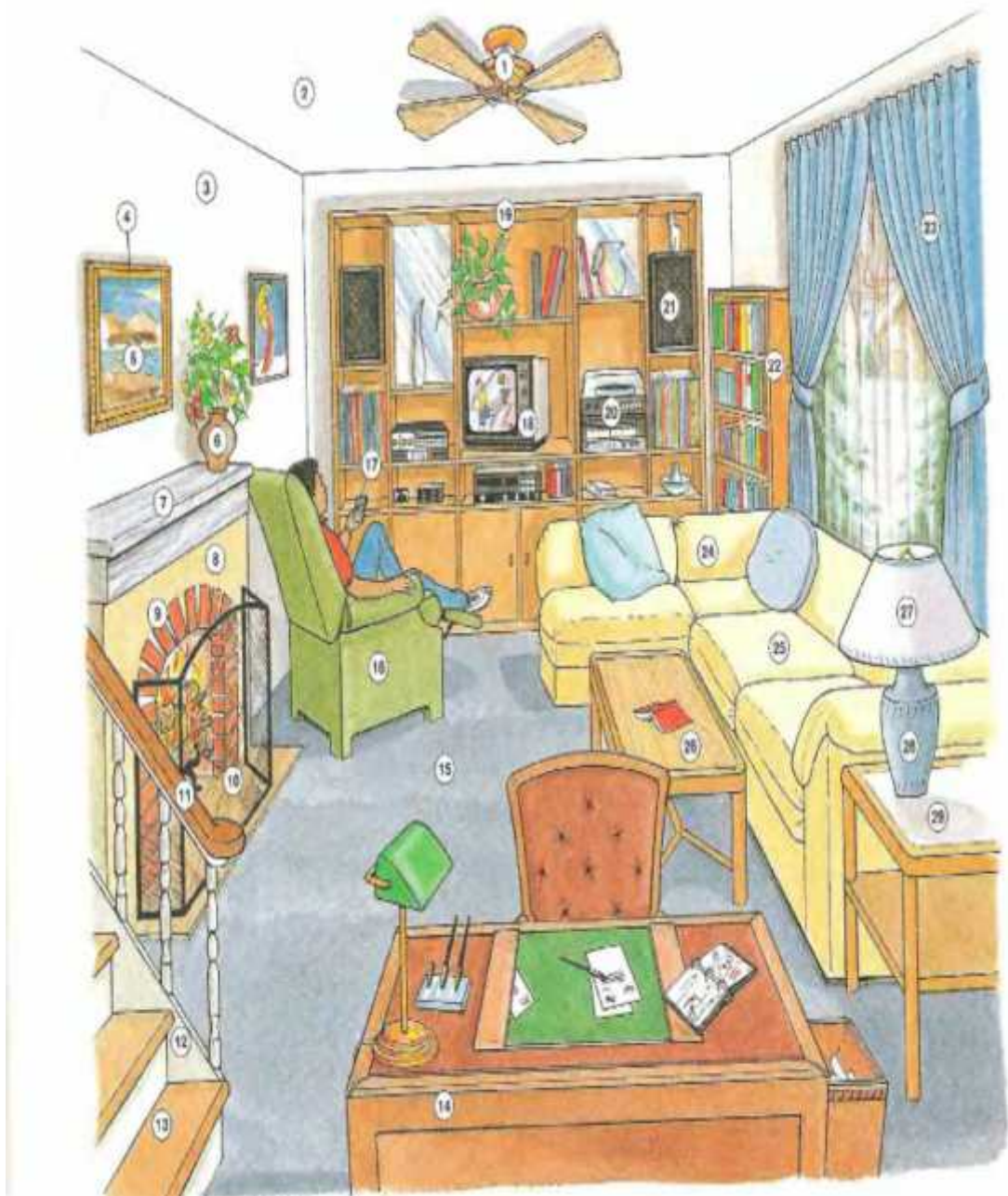


Figure 5.6. Naming Things Activity Sample

5.8 Programme Planning

Kindergarten programmes should be based on a guided and explicit instructions. Children should be provided with enough exploration and investigation opportunities. Such opportunities assist them in constructing knowledge and clarify their understandings, and help them in problem-solving situations.

These opportunities encourage children's autonomy as well and in this way teachers will be facilitators who listen, observe and provide support to build a strong basis. Guided instruction makes learning more organized and well-planned by the teacher.

For example, in our experience in performing a series of letters and numbers we incorporated the following. We prefer to show it in MSA script to demonstrate its originality.

المستوى الأول:

1. **الحروف:** يعتمد المستوى الأول على مهارتي التركيب والتحليل من البداية بعد تعليم حروف العلة (ا، و، ي) في أول الكتاب، كما اهتم في تعرف الطفل على صوت الحرف وتمييزه عن غيره من الحروف. تم عرض كل حرف عن طريق لوحة متكاملة ذات موضوع واحد تضم عدداً من الكلمات التي تحوي الحرف بأشكاله المختلفة، سلسلة تعتمد وكما يدل اسمها تعليم الحروف عن طريق الألعاب والأنشطة. وقدمت تكامل الخبرات بأسلوب مبسط ينمي التفكير من خلال التركيز على مهارات المحادثة والقراءة والكتابة، وتعلم الحروف والمقاطع والحركات بتدرج هرمي يربط الخبرات السابقة باللاحقة.
2. **الأعداد:** يهدف إلى تعليم الأطفال الرياضيات من خلال الألعاب التعليمية والأنشطة التي تنمي دقة الملاحظة وتعمق ما تعلمه الطفل من معارف ومهارات لغوية وعلمية واجتماعية. يتعلم الطفل بالإضافة إلى الأعداد وكتابتها عمليتي الجمع والطرح والألوان ومفاهيم الأشكال والعلاقات. يهدف إلى تعليم الأطفال الرياضيات من خلال الألعاب التعليمية والأنشطة التي تنمي دقة الملاحظة وتعمق ما تعلمه الطفل من معارف ومهارات لغوية وعلمية واجتماعية. تعرض السلسلة الأعداد من واحد إلى عشرين وكتابتها وعمليتي الجمع والطرح بالإضافة إلى الألوان و المفاهيم المتعلقة بالأشكال والعلاقات. عبر تدريبات مختلفة تعتمد الأنماط وربط ما تعلمه الطفل.

المستوى الثاني:

1. **الحروف:** يعرض المستوى الثاني مزيداً من الكلمات في تقديم كل حرف ويعتمد كما في المستوى الأول مهارتي التركيب والتحليل بعد تعليم حروف العلة (ا، و، ي). تم عرض كل حرف عن طريق لوحة متكاملة ذات موضوع واحد تضم عدداً من الكلمات التي تحوي الحرف بأشكاله المختلفة. كما تطرق المستوى الثاني إلى الحركات (الفتحة، الضمة، الكسرة، السكون) وربطها بالحروف والمقاطع قراءة وكتابة. سلسلة لعب وتعلم مع الحروف تعتمد وكما يدل اسمها تعليم الحروف عن طريق الألعاب والأنشطة. وقدمت تكامل الخبرات بأسلوب مبسط ينمي التفكير من خلال التركيز على مهارات المحادثة والقراءة والكتابة، وتعلم الحروف والمقاطع والحركات بتدرج هرمي يربط الخبرات السابقة باللاحقة. اعتمدت السلسلة مهارتي التركيب والتحليل من بداية المستوى الأول بعد تعليم حروف العلة (ا، و، ي) في أول الكتاب، كما اهتمت السلسلة في تعرف الطفل على صوت الحرف وتمييزه عن غيره من الحروف.

Through explicit instruction, the teacher clarifies the steps, expand a given idea further, or demonstrate a given skill. Assessment is a crucial part in teaching and instruction in the kindergarten programme.

In what follows, different kinds of learning experiences are exhibited and the teaching-learning approaches that should be included in kindergarten programmes are identified.

5.9 Teaching/Learning Approaches in kindergarten

Skills can be categorized into two types: skills which need explicit teaching (posing questions, analyzing data...) and skills that need reinforcement and practice through a set of activities (taxonomy and categorizing).

- Noticing, wondering, and playing:
- Exploring, observing, and questioning:
- Planning, using observations, and reflecting.
- Sharing findings, and discussing ideas:

After identifying children's needs and interests, the teacher asks questions to support children's learning; the teacher may ask the following questions:

" سيحدث ... "

" كيف يمكننا "

" ماهي حيث الديدان؟ "

" ماهي يمكنك استخدامها حاوية "

" المقياس يختلف مقياس هالة. "

Children ask questions of exploration in whatever language, with the help of the teacher he may be able to switch to the school language for example, they ask the following:

" كيف يمكن لهذه السيارة ان سريعة لهذا الحد؟ "

" أين البحيرات؟ "

" "

" يحدث "

- Children start question things
- experimenting the used materials,
- Talk about the problems that they encounter,
- Offer suggestions to their friends.
- They learn to make conclusions and predictions such as the following:

هاته الدهانات تغير وتجعله اخضر".
 انه سيأخذ لكنه .

5.10 Learning in Real-Life Contexts

Kindergarten programmes should be based on authentic learning that links between real-life and classroom activities. For example, a trip to the grocery store can enhance literacy (reading signs), numeracy (different ways of using numbers), and social skills (listening to others).

Mathematics may be difficult for children, and using real life contexts for its learning may make it easier, for example, the teacher may use sweets to teach children counting. Teachers may also use pictures to help children learn. For example, for teaching addition, the teacher may use this kind of pictures:

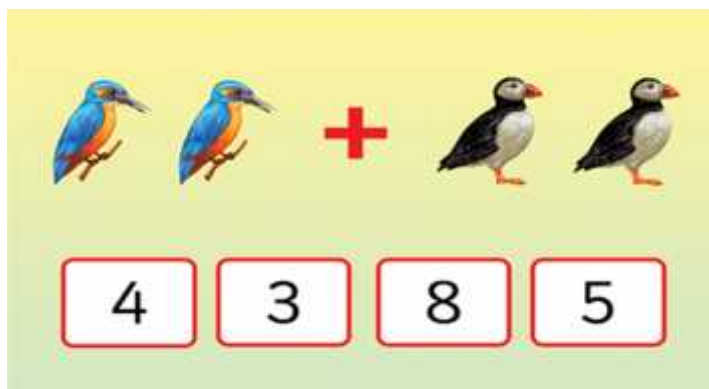


Figure 5.7: Maths Activity Sample

A matching activity using the numbers 1-10, the he simply deleted the target number and replaced it with pictures of animals for children to add together. This was an effective activity for both interactive whiteboard and classroom computer.

At kindergarten level 3, the teacher can explain mathematic division in a simple manner that children enjoy, he may use AA shifted to MSA by illustrating and explaining the necessary techniques for learners to grasp the mathematic issues using of course an adequate language, (Appendix 19)

5.11 Integrated Learning

Meaningful integration helps in developing children understanding. Besides, it encourages them to generate their understanding. It also encourages children to make connections between one area and another in terms of understanding and skills' application.

5.11.1 Integration of the Arts across the Programme

Integration of arts (paintings, and constructing) in children's learning helps them in expressing themselves. Participation in arts experiences develops children's reflection on a given experience 'it is actually practiced in some kindergartens).

The environment gives also enough materials to improve arts integration in learning. Children can talk about different shapes that they have seen before; they also listen to several sounds in the environment, watch animals, and then try to imitate these sounds in a given activity.

5.11.2 Learning through Exploration

Evidence shows that play is an important key in learning and mainly in kindergarten learning; it helps in problem-solving situations and language acquisition. Learning-based play helps children to understand better and apply new learned things. It helps, as well in understanding new words through making them in a meaningful context.

Through observation, teachers help children to create, solve problems and think critically, teachers can do the following:

- (ماذا يجعلك هذا تظن؟)
- (أتساءل ماذا سيحدث اذا.....)
- (كيف يمكنك معرفة هذا؟)

The planned activities should cope with children's expectations, and should be flexible according to their needs and interests. Teachers can help their children through different ways in play: Role-play, for example asking for a bill in a restaurant to help children develop literacy and numeracy in a meaningful situation

5.12 Language Development

5.12.1 Oral Language Development

Oral language is fundamental area in children's understanding, cognition and socialization. They need enough learning experiences to enhance their oral language. Since birth, children are exposed to different learning sources through interaction and communication with adults.

Kindergarten programmes should develop activities in relation to the Algerian linguistic and social context, in order to develop children's thinking based on these language differences.

Listening to children and reading to them meaningful stories represent an important factor in literacy program. Listening to someone reading stories will help children learn new vocabulary and become familiar with the different language structures.

As for the Algerian child, his mother tongue is different from the school language; therefore the teacher should encourage parents to use the school language at home to help the child through telling stories for example and explain these in the child's mother tongue. In the same vein,

the teacher can bring child's mother tongue to the classroom through relevant materials (dual language books, and social resources).

5.12.2 Reading and Writing Development

The current study focuses on some important aspects of MSA that may hinder children understanding for example similar letters such as (). According to many studies, Algerian children low achievement is related to reading and writing deficiencies, and this has serious bad effect on their learning. In fact, lack of reading comprehension was present in all Arabic-speaking countries (Pirl 2001).

As a remedial solution to this situation, kindergarten programmes should raise children's awareness about the differences and the nuances existing between AA and MSA in terms of pronunciation i.e. developing phonological, writing and spelling awareness as well.

5.13 Strategies for Developing an Effective Learning

If children are given enough support they start to develop different language skills (repeating words, naming characters, identifying names and

letters). A quick look to the available material reveals the following



**Figure 5.8: Al Manhadj Fi Al Lougha Al Arabia Series” (سلسلة منهاج
(اللغة العربية)**

“Al Manhadj fi Al Lougha Al Arabia Series” (سلسلة منهاج
العربية) is based on modern educational methodologies; it helps children in
comprehending MSA through a number of interesting activities such as
games, stories and songs. It focuses on developing listening and speaking
through reinforcing each letter with a song and a story. The series is
organized in terms of letters articulation rather than alphabetical order.

5.14 Considerations for Kindergarten Children

In what follows, we offer some points and observations that teachers
should take into account:

- Providing enough space for children to relax, and watch them in every step they do.
- Helping learners to distinguish between acceptable and unacceptable behaviors and praising them for doing well. Moreover, helping children to interact and discuss ideas with others i.e. to be socially competent.
- The teacher should value children's emotions, needs and interests. Develop their autonomy.
- Planning activities that are based on real-life situations can develop children's thinking. In addition, they have to link previous experiences to new learning experiences.
- Teachers help children to express themselves through oral language (either through the mother tongue, MSA or their interlanguage).

5.15 The Learning Atmosphere inside the Classroom

Teachers have to provide children with a safe, comfortable atmosphere to help them learn better.

5.15.1 MSA/AA: The Key Tools for the Algerian Learner Literacy:

As stated earlier Algerian children come to the school with a linguistic background that differs from that of the school, in addition to various individual experiences. Algerian children mastery over their mother tongue AA, and teachers should keep using AA in the classroom in addition to MSA because this helps children to develop their social and learning skills. Teachers should work in collaboration with parents regarding this point.

Still with the Algerian children linguistic reality, teachers have to orient children in the new situation. Children may be at first be silent and observe the new environment, or they may use body language or their mother tongue to express themselves until they gain enough knowledge about this newly introduced language (MSA). Children need an encouraging environment to grow as successful learners; they develop their oral fluency quickly through making connections between the two linguistic environments (AA and MSA).

Accordingly, teachers play a major role in children's acquisition of MSA through modeling correct use of language; they may use also visual aids to help children practice words and phrases and engage in meaningful discussions.

5.15.2 Using Children's Experience

In the period of preschool, Algerian children develop some linguistic, social and cultural experiences. Teachers can use these competences and experiences to provide learning experiences that are relevant to children, in addition to supporting them to use both languages (AA and MSA).

Teachers need also to raise children awareness about the importance of language in their society and culture through some activities (appendix 9). Teachers should also use materials that are relevant to the learning expectations and based on their observations of children's needs. They need to support the development of different skills (talking, reading, discussion...etc).

5.15.3 Oral Language a Necessity for Algerian Children

Through oral language, children develop phonemic awareness, semantic knowledge and syntactic knowledge; therefore they develop basic language skills including reading and writing. In what follows, there are a number of activities that tackle the diglossic situation in the Algerian classroom; these activities are based on three aspects: letter naming, alphabetic awareness and phonological awareness.

These three activities are shown in Appendix 4, 5, 6 respectively, while chapter 4 deals with consonantal features in MSA. Each activity is supported with a picture of familiar objects. A brief description of the three activities is presented in what follows.

5.15.3.1 Activity 1: Letter naming

In the activity of letter naming, the teacher provides only the three first letters of the alphabet, and if the child does not answer or provide a wrong answer such as the AA equivalent he is provided by the MSA name i.e. the standard name. However, no feedback was given to children on subsequent letters.

5.15.3.2 Activity 2: Alphabetic Awareness

In this activity, the teacher asks children to provide the first letters of uttered words. To do this, two types of words are used: words starting with a CVC sequence or a CV, and words matched with the first type on the initial letter but which starts with the phoneme that the letter represented, rather than its name. Familiar words should be given. (see appendix 15).

5.15.3.3 Activity 3: Phonological Awareness

In this activity, children are asked to isolate the initial CV unit of spoken words. These words provided three types of relations between the target CV unit and the syllabic structure of the word.

The isolation of syllabic CV units is expected to be easier than the sub-syllabic CV units, and monosyllabic words are easier than bisyllabic. The number of responses to words with initial CV sounds is the answer.

5.16 The Role of Information Technology

Dual language books represent many challenges, one of which is related to the status of AA. Moreover, the introduction of two languages in one page is difficult for children to read. Digital books, however, do not have such problem, and they enrich children's learning through audio and other interactive elements.

For example, children can read dual language (AA/ MSA) story in a computer, and then they retell the story in their own style (including the characters, the problem, and the resolution). Then the best story will be chosen and children work all together on it. Finally, the story is converted to MSA through teacher's orientation and encouragement.

This process helps children not only in developing language skills but also skills related to technology through interesting activities. A good example on the effectiveness of TIC in learning and teaching is the smart

board. This software saves different things put on it and helps children in discovering graphics and manipulating them. The diagram below shows the usefulness of using computers, smart boards, and information technology in the classroom (example of a smart board).

Algerian young learners need to be aware about the importance of information and communication technology (ICT) and provided with opportunities to learn about its usefulness. ICT is an effective learning tool that helps children to interact with visual materials and sounds through the language skills' activities and poses questions.

In reading for example, a story with two language varieties (AA and MSA) from computer where words are highlighted. ICT can be used also in mathematics.

5.17 Learning expectations by year 3

Kindergarten learning represents the basis upon which different areas are developed for the subsequent school years. These areas include: personal and social development, language (oral and spoken and reading), mathematics (numbers, geometric and measurement relationships), science and technology (observation and exploration skills), health and physical activities and arts. Throughout the kindergarten learning the child will develop different skills, and will be able to construct meaningful utterances such as:

" " العربية "يمكننا العد" "أستطيع أغنية "أستطيع
الموسيقى"

" جيد " يمكنني " " ساعدت والدي في ترتيب المائدة".

"I can sing a song in Arabic" "I can count" "I can write my name." "I can reach the lights now." "I take music lessons." "I'm a good runner." "I can draw pictures." "I helped my dad set the table."

They can talk about their own interests:

" الرياضة متعة!" "

Moreover, they develop a sense of feeling others and respond to others' feelings, respect them. They also will be able to reflect upon their own culture (traditions, birthdays, holidays... etc) and they develop their social awareness.

5.18 Kindergarten Curriculum

The curriculum expectations have to cope with young children's needs and prior knowledge. This develops children's critical and creative thinking (to think if an existing idea in a different way or to explore a new idea). By the end of kindergarten, children will be able to:

1. Communicate with others in different situations and discuss different points.
2. Demonstrate understanding and awareness of written materials read by the teacher.
3. Make use of different reading strategies to respond to written materials.
4. Communicate by using writing strategies for beginners.
5. Explore phonemic and syntactic aspects of language.
6. Listen and respond to others in different situations and for different purposes.
7. Make connections between prior and new experiences.
8. Use language to reveal their feelings, thoughts and problems.

9. Ask questions for different purposes (direction, help, clarification...etc) and in different contexts.
10. Use new vocabulary to describe a personal experience.
11. Talk orally about simple events and familiar stories using the standard language (MSA).

5.19 A Day in the Kindergarten

Children start their day with fun learning social skills, sharing and imagination. Then they sing the calendar song, the flag song and explore the weather. Next, they learn the alphabet through songs and learn phonics. Then they learn how to behave in tables, how to be a “big” helper, and nutrition. Then it is time for math, the teacher teaches all mathematical concepts from shapes to numbers, colors and more.

They move on to science where they learn different things related to science and world in general. In this section, children are invited to create as they paint, cut and color objects. Then, children have to choose one of the stories available and read it.

5.20 The Kindergarten Administrative Staff

Kindergarten is crucial part in learning; it develops children skills in different language areas. Thus, the success of first year school experience is the main goal of kindergarten. The kindergarten is driven by special administrative and teaching board which includes:

1. The Council of Controllers

Its role is to meet the directors and teachers of the school; the meeting occurs once in three months.

2. The Board of Teachers

It evaluates the progress of learners and develops the educational project of the three cycles (initial learning, basic learning cycle, and consolidation cycle) of primary education.

3. The School Council:

It is the meeting of different parties including: director, teachers, representatives of parents, and the inspector. It meets once per quarter at least and gives suggestions for school issues.

4. Learners' Parents

Parents also play major role in children's education, and teachers should work in cooperation with them about the status of the child. Parents are requested to enroll their children in Koran-learning institutions where acquisition is mainly based on learning by heart. This method is tested to meet child cognition development as well his/her language performance.

5.21 Conclusion

The findings and suggestions provided in this section make us assert some conclusions and recommendations to the Algerian Ministry of Education for improving the quality of education.

First, the researcher observes the inadequacy of different aspects of kindergarten including physical space and personal activities; hence it is important to develop materials and equipment that raise children creativity and sense of learning in public and kindergartens alike.

Second, any educational reform should be based first on evaluation, because without evaluation we cannot know whether the reform has been fruitful or not.

Moreover, the study reveals that private kindergartens were better than public ones in terms of programme structure, interactions, activities and different language areas. Private kindergartens enroll almost 70% of the total kindergarten children. Therefore, it is suggested that the Ministry of education should expand access to public kindergartens and implement policies that develop the quality of education in both sectors.

General Conclusion

As stated at the beginning of this study, the overall aim of the research is to design a specific curriculum for Algerian children mainly based on linguistic realities of Algeria. This task was not as easy as it may appear. We thought first to explore the lesson ongoing then scrutinize the nature of the relationship between diglossia and the pedagogical practices inside the school settings by using different research tools.

What has emerged from the above mentioned action is the fact that both teachers and children have no clear idea about their language use and usage; which makes their conception of the actual issue at stake difficult to be understood then managed.

In terms of pedagogical theory and practice, meta-cognitive and metalinguistic abilities are of paramount importance in language acquisition. They not only foster and enhance learning process but they raise awareness among learners and teachers about their linguistic problems.

When the researcher's aim is to be summed into a question how might these aims translate into pedagogical practices? In order to cultivate this set of skills, actions and attitudes, a multi-dimensional study which takes not only pedagogy and linguistic contributions into consideration as well as the systematic nature of the learner's linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse/communicative competence was seriously done.

An effective curriculum would be performed on which learners shape their classroom discourse. This later ranges from macro-level structures

(broadly, the social milieu influencing language) to micro-level structures (the linguistic constituents of language functions, speech events, speech acts, discourse modes, etc.) which I may call language items that construct the classroom language. In Riegenbach's (2012) words, linguistic and metalinguistic skills alike are best developed if the learner is allowed and guided by well prepared and trained teacher who assumes the role of mediator and facilitator.

Through this humble study, it was given arguments that bidialectal speakers appear to have a highly developed metalinguistic awareness (chapter 1), the absence of dialect in formal education should be reconsidered by decision makers and language planners. Although the introduction of bidialectal education in Algeria is not easily accepted, it has been considered as a worthwhile option.

We claim that formally instructing kindergarten children in AA raises linguistic awareness and in turn, enhances the acquisition of MSA. Admittedly, introducing innovative ideas in formal education is an arduous task. The introduction of dual language education entails even more sensitive issues, such as ideological and sociopolitical circumstances and religious background.

Along this dissertation, we have shown that Algerian participant (teachers and learners alike) do not appear to question the efficiency of the dialect and admit that the use of AA poses certain problems for children. As a result, a quasi-rejection of the introduction of the dialect as a medium of instruction was shown. On the contrary, if changes in language-in-education were never to be made, participants would prefer the introduction of dual language education.

As can be seen, an effort was made to examine teachers' perceptions about possible changes in current language policy in Algeria and whether such changes would find way to application in the Algerian classroom.

The present study described in details the way MSA and AA are used in the classroom by teachers and more importantly by learners. The study asserted that the function of the two varieties in Algerian classroom is most of the time mutual. The interaction is carried out through MSA and AA at variable degrees of contribution. MSA is strongly associated with lesson explanation and is widely used by teachers; however, the data suggests that AA was the predominant variety in all classroom interactions for learners although some learners alternated MSA and AA.

Algerian policy makers promote MSA as a means of instruction due to too many reasons. At the same time, they ignore AA and do not provide specific policies on how to tackle the issue of dual variety teaching. We have shown that despite the stated policy, the use of AA is a reality in the classroom. The richer and more complex talk that took place in the classroom was predominantly in AA. A reality that no one can deny or ignore, on the contrary we should profit from the situation and use it in the favour of the young learners.

This reality still present in the Algerian classroom, we noticed that learner's oral answers in MSA were mostly characterized with a strong AA interference. Children include the two varieties in their interactions using code switching. This was also confirmed in interviews with learners of grade 5; the majority of them found it hard and difficult to use MSA.

Hymes' notion of 'repression', learners experienced linguistic insecurity, feelings of discomfort, unhappiness and lack of confidence with the imposed variety of school. If this is the case, and it is, in the Algerian schools then policy makers need to reconsider the issue of education. In a very simple manner any future change in the policy should help learners to express themselves openly, and authentically.

The arduous point in our study was the lack of these interlanguage norms which helps in the analysis of classroom talk both as process and product. This represents one of the weaknesses of the research. It was only by focusing on unit of work, was it possible to show how the changes in teachers' language impacted on learners' language and curriculum learning.

Central to this is an understanding of the relationship between MSA and AA in the classroom. Contribution of teachers is essential to the design of such complex programmes because the teachers are aware of their own language use and they, themselves, who plan the skeleton of the teaching curriculum.

We focused on how language is used and how learning is to be enacted in the Algerian classroom. As many examples have suggested, a well-designed curriculum based on learner' home language and experiences as well as on the classroom activities is of great significance for dual language learning in a more dynamic sense.

Our aim was to promote dual language education by focusing on MSA development and drawing attention to different linguistic form (by comparing the dialect and the standard). The goal was progression from awareness to production. Drawing attention to linguistic form enabled

learner to correct himself whenever felt mistaken. At this stage, we may estimate to gain much not only in the MSA acquisition but also the whole learning process i.e. Learners undertake several strategies to their own learning of both form and content.

Understanding the answers of the research questions is essential to check and validate the veracity of the hypotheses that forms the study. The two first goals made in question the teachers' competence in the diglossic context, where MSA and AA co-exist. On the whole, teachers are in fact not aware about the linguistic situation that characterizes their classroom. Neither issue was recognized as problematic, nor was there a desire on teachers' part to introduce dual language education.

We believe that the third and the fourth goals affirm that teachers' practices reflect the Algerian society in their classrooms. They are competent coping well in this complex and challenging situation. Algerian teachers are unaware of the role they play in the changing of the policy by which their young learners will succeed.

We, particularly, highlighted through teachers' attitudes and different opinions that teachers need to be trained in such challenging context mainly through in-service training and perhaps the various seminars that handle those issues related to language classroom.

From the part of the government it is of their duty, in enacting the policy, to ensure the availability of appropriate learning materials and by encouraging learners to communicate more freely and openly about their particular experiences, and finally increasing parental awareness of the importance of L1 maintenance.

It was particularly interesting to witness and scrutinize classroom environment to affirm that it is not enough for the Algerian to be exposed accordingly his mother tongue needs to be maintained to facilitate the transition from the home tongue to the school language.

In summary, the results suggested that there is indeed a distant gap between MSA and AA. The correct education and training that take diglossia and other linguistic phenomenon of the Algerian children is of urgent need to learning process. The evidence, throughout this study, indicates that usage of both varieties in the kindergarten during three years can be beneficial to the language needs of Algerian learners.

However, we think the main lesson that we have learnt is just how very important the researcher's role actually is. We have enormous respect and admiration for teachers who rise to the challenges they face and hope to have gone some way to assist them by critically revealing some of the difficult issues in their classrooms and by proposing possible areas where more intervention was beneficial

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Interview 1 & 2 questions.

Appendix 2: Posters around T1's classroom.

Appendix 3: Posters around T2's classroom .

Appendix 4: Sample of Writing Activity.

Appendix 5: Sample of Writing Creativity.

Appendix 6: Sample of Adjective Filing

Appendix 7: Ghazou El-Fad ? Text

Appendix 8: "Badlet rajoul el fada ?"- text content page

Appendix 9: Portray Text

Appendix 10 : Sample from "Dictionary Skills" workbook

Appendix 11: Word Construction

Appendix 12: Example of mathematics cards

Appendix 13: Teacher's syllabus

Appendix 2

استبيان لاختبار الأساتذة و السلوكيات تجاه اللهجة الجزائرية

الحالية تسود مجال سياسة اللغة و برمجتها و هدفها وضع الضوء في نظرتكم و آرائكم فيما يخص دور و مستوى استعمال اللهجة (أي اللهجة الجزائرية) و كذا اللغة الرسمية (اللغة العربية الحديثة) في أقسام التعليم الابتدائي. اشترككم في هذا البحث بالغ الأهمية، و لهذا نرجو منكم الاستبيان.

(1) التلاميذ يواجهون مشاكل جدية عند تكلمهم باللغة العربية الحديثة

(2) التلاميذ ينتهكون من التصحيحات المتكررة للأساتذة بالنسبة لاستعمال اللهجة الجزائرية

(3) التلاميذ من المناطق الريفية يعانون مشاكل أكبر أهمية في استعمالهم اللغة العربية الحديثة مقارنة بالتلاميذ من المدن

(4) التلاميذ منظورون على أنهم يتكلمون لغة رديئة و غير لائقة عند استعمالهم للهجة الجزائرية

(5) يشعر التلاميذ براحة أكثر عند استعمالهم اللهجة الجزائرية مقارنة باللغة العربية الحديثة

(6) تأثر نفسية التلاميذ سلبا عندما يوبخون من أجل استعمال اللهجة الجزائرية

(7) تشجيع استعمال اللهجة الجزائرية في القسم يؤدي إلى تخفيض المستوى الأكاديمي المحقق

8) استعمال اللهجة الجزائرية في المحيط العائلي يؤثر سلبا على التفوقات الدراسية

9) وكات المتعلقة باللهجة الجزائرية

10) اللهجة الجزائرية هي نظام اتصال ذاتي و متكامل

11) اللهجة الجزائرية لها نفس الجدية باللغة العربية الحديثة

12) مفردات اللهجة الجزائرية محدودة و غير كافية لاتصال دقيق، جيد و شامل

13) اللهجة الجزائرية، كباقي اللهجات، هي أقل تعبيرية من اللغة العربية الحديث

14) موافقي من استعمال اللهجة الجزائرية في القسم هي متعلقة مباشرة بخلفياتي العائلية

15) موافقي من استعمال اللهجة الجزائرية في القسم متعلقة مباشرة بمكانتي الاجتماعية

16) موافقي من استعمال اللهجة الجزائرية في القسم متعلقة مباشرة بتوجهي الإيديولوجي

الأيدولوجية

17) ينبغي سياسة

معايير لغوية

18) أي استعمال للغة في التعليم يذ أن يقرر بالتشاور مع الأساتذة

19) إذا قامت وزارة التربية و التعليم بإدخال اللهجة المحلية كلغة وحيدة في المدارس الابتدائية هل سوف توافق مع هذا التغيير؟

20) إذا قامت وزارة التربية و التعليم بإدخال نظام مزدوج لتعليم اللغة (أي التعليم بصفة مطابقة باللهجة الجزائرية و اللغة العربية الحديثة) في المدارس الابتدائية، هل سوف توافق مثل هذا التغيير؟

21) إذا أدخلت اللهجة الجزائرية كلغة دراسة في المدارس، هل يكون ذلك ذو منفعة على التلاميذ؟

22) اللهجة الجزائرية للتعليم . هل سيكون هذا التغيير بأية نسبة من الضرر للمتعلمين؟

23) هل للهجة الجزائرية، كما هي مستخدمة بين

24) هل تعليم اللغة العربية الحديثة يطرح الذين على اللهجة المحلية؟

25) المدرسية الجديدة باللهجة الجزائرية لجميع المدرسية المناهج

26) اللهجة

27) (السياسيين) اللهجة

28) لأمهات اللهجة

29) الذين هم اللهجة

30) التربية والتعليم ثنائية اللهجات

31) العربية الحديثة وباللهجة الجزائرية تعليم

(32) الابتدائية، أيمدى السلبية تنفيذ
هذه السياسة؟

(33) تغيير السياسة مثال اللهجة الجزائرية استخدمت للتعليم

(34) الإيجابية تنفيذ هذا التغيير. يرجى
تالية مقياس التقييم

(35) يكون قادرين التعبير أفكارهم ومشاعرهم بسهولة بكثير

(36) لن يعود من الممكن للأطفال اختيار " (بين اللهجتين)

(37) سيكونون تقاريرهم والشفوية

(38) التعبير أنفسهم

(39) لهم وسيتم ثقتهم بأنفسهم

(40) يشاركون أكثر

(41) يكونون قادرين اللغة العربية الحديثة سهولة

(42) التربية والتعليم لثنائية اللهجات (وهذا يعني التعليم بين اللغة

العربية الحديثة واللهجة الجزائرية)

(43) الابتدائية، الإيجابية

تنفيذ هذه السياسة

Appendix 3: Posters around T1's Classroom

Print-Capital letters

Arabic Alphabet (Each letter with a picture)

“Jism el insan”- Scientific pictures of the ear and eye

“Sports” – Various types of sports with some pictures

“El oum” – Adjectives describing mothers- photos

“3a?ilati” - Different family terms e.g. aunt, uncle, cousin etc.

Numbers 1-100 (as in 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10-100)

Numbers in multiples of 10 (as in 10, 20, 30 – 90).

Some pictures of transport e.g. hot air balloon, car, ship etc

Numbers and written definitions of division, subtraction, multiplication and addition.

More pictures of transport.

picture of children making things for a party and a picture of children playing musical instruments.and related vocabulary stuck near pictures.

Pictures of ducks, goats, sheep, geese,... and related vocabulary.

Cursive writing – small letters.

Months of the year.

Days of the week.

Some of the learners' art.

Appendix 4: Posters around T2's Classroom

Multiples of 5 up to 100 on flowers (as in 5, 10, 15, 20-100)
Letters of the alphabet: how they are written:
First, Second, Third up to Tenth on Fish
Days of the week on Suns
Multiples of 10 on Crabs (as in 10, 20, 30, 40-90)
Numbers 1-18 on Frogs
“Sports” – 4 photos with various labels naming different sports
The learners’ art – pictures of their pets.
“Shapes”- a poster depicting all the different shapes
“Opposites” – as in tall / short, fat / thin (pictures of animals).
“Human skeleton”
“Alphabet” – Letter land series
A picture of the map of the world
“Numbers 1-100” (as in 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 –100)
Months of the year

Appendix 5

Excerpts from the 1st Year Classroom (teacher T1's Classroom)

T1: طول وليد هو 120

tu:lwali:dhuwwa 120 cm.

T1: هذا وليد الان سمير صغير شوية على وليد ادن وليد هو اقصر

طول وليد هو 100

ha:dawali:dʔalʔa:nsami:rsami:rʂvi:rʃwijjaʔalawali:

dʔidanwali:dhuwwaʔaqsar tu:lwali:dhuwwa 100 cm

كم هو اطول اسمعوا جيدا الى السؤال كم وليد هو اطول من سمير

ادن كم يطول وليد على سمير

فكروا جيدا كم يطول

وليد 120

سمير 100

120

100

120

100

kamhuwwaʔatwalʔismaʔudzajjidandʔilassuʔa:lkamwali:d

huwwaʔatwalminsami:rʔidankamjatu:lwali:dʔalasalami:r

fakkiru:dzajjidankamjatu:l

120 cm Walid

100 cm Samir

120 cm

100 cm

120

100

T1: مرات نقول ما هو الفرق بينهما

mara:tnaqu:lma:lʔarqba:jnahuma

C1: 220cm.

T: هادي ادا كان هدا فوق هادا

hæ:dʔida:ka:nhæ:dafu:qhæ:da

T1: هادا ادا جمعنا طوليهما كم يطوله

hæ:daʔida:dʒamaʔnaʔulajhimakamjaʔu:luh

T1: هاده 100 هنا سم

hæ:dihi100 cmminhuna:

T1: وليد الطول نتاعومن هنا

120 سم ادن كم يطوله

wali:dʔʔu:lnta:ʔumənhna120cmʔidankamjaʔu:luh

T1: ما الفرق بين

100

120

C2: 100 وشوية

100wʃwijja

T: لا جيد بصح زيدوا شوية ما الفرق بين

100 120 ما هو الفرق ادن

كم هل تعلم ريباد

la:dʒajjidbeʃʃafzidu:ʃwijamalʔarqbajna100wa120

malʔarqʔidankamhaltafɫamrija:d

T: هنا طويلة وهناك 100 بطريقة اخرى عندنا 120

قصيرة أي ما ه الفرق ما الفرق هنا وهنا

biʔari:qaʔuxraʔandna 120hnaʔwi:lawnna:k 100

qʃi:raʔajma:huwwalʔarqma:lʔarqhnawnna

T: كم درجة عندنا هنا

kamdardzaʔændnahna

C3: 50

T1: 50 لا ليس

lalajsa50

No it's not 50.

C4: 100

T1:100

فكرو جيدا كم من نقطة لدينا هنا واعرة

lama:ʃi

100

fakkiru:dʒajjidankamminnuqtʔʔandnahnawa:ʔra

C4: 10

C5: 8

T1: بطريقة اخرى ادا كان عندنا 100 دينار كم بقي

biʔari:qaʔuxraʔida:ka:naʔindna 100 dina:rkambaqi ja

تَعْبِيرُ كِتَابِي

مَوْضُوعٌ

نَادَ مَعْظَمِي إِلَى الدَّارِ وَمَدَدَتْ أُمَّتُهُ عَنِ القَرِيبِ
تَصَوَّرُوا وَأَكْمَلُوا كِتَابَهُ تَنَاوَلَ لَهَا

الأَهْوِيَّ:

بَدَأَ مَعْظَمِي يَحْيَى لِأُمَّتِهِ قَالَ جَاءَتْ
سَيَّارَةٌ إِلَى طَهْرٍ فَبَدَأَتْ تُطْفِئُ القَرِيبَ
عَنِ الطَّفَائِفِ وَنَسَّأَتْهُمْ النَّاسُ فِي
تَغْلِي النَّاسِ إِلَى المَسْتَشْفَى

الموضوع:

عَادَ مُصْطَفَى إِلَى الدَّارِ، وَحَدَّثَ أُمَّهُ
عَنِ الحَرِيقِ، ثُمَّ وَرَدُوا وَأَكْمَلُوا
كِتَابَةَ مَاقِلَ لَهَا، الجواب:

كَانَتْ الإِمْرَأَةُ تَقْرَأُ البَطَايَا وَاشْتَعَلَتْ
أَفْرُونُ وَاشْتَعَلَتْ النَّارُ وَجَاءُوا النَّاسَ
تَحْرُونَ وَالإِمْرَأَةُ بِالإِمْلَةِ بِالرِّجَالِ الإِنْفَاءُ
وَإِنْفَاءُ النَّارِ أَخْرَجَ بِالمَصْدَرِ وَفَعَلَ
بِهِ إِلَى المُسْتَشْفَى

فَأَذَى صُطْفَى إِلَى الدَّارِ وَحَدَّثَتْ أُمَّةً مَحْمَدَ الحَرِيقِ،
تَصَوَّرُوا وَوَكَمَلُوا كِتَابَةَ مَاقَالَ لَهَا.
رَأَى ^{الحواب} رَأَيْتُ الحَرِيقَ فِي العِمَارَةِ وَرَأَيْتُ رِجَالَ
العِمَارَةِ المُنْعِيَّةِ بِالكَامِيُونَةِ وَرَأَيْتُ الرِّجَالَ
يُظهِرُونَ بِالنَّبِيِّ وَكَانَ أَيْضًا النَّاسُ يُسَاعِدُونَهُمْ
رَأَيْتُ امْرَأَةً كَبِيرَةً مَخْرُوقَةً ^{كانت} كَانَتْ مُشْتَاكِةً بِطَلْعِ
مِنْ مَلَا يَسْتَعِينُهَا وَرَأَيْتُ النَّاسَ كَثِيرُونَ
وَالْأَطْفَالَ كَثِيرُونَ يَجْرُونَ وَرَاءَ الشَّاحِنَةِ
تَأَعَّ العِمَارَةَ المُنْعِيَّةِ الَّتِي لَوْنُهَا خَضْرَاءُ اللَّوْنِ.

الموضوع:

علاء مصطفى إلى كتابي،

وَحَلَلْتُ نَأْمَهُ عَنِّي

الْحَرِيْقِ، تَصَوَّرُوا وَأَنَا أَتَمُّوا

(مَا) كِتَابَةٌ مَقَالٍ - لَمَّا،

الْجَوَابُ:

لَا مَقْدَمَ شَمِيهِ
قَالَ مُصْطَفَى رَأَيْتَهُ حَرِيْقِي لَيْسَ الْحَرِيْقِ الَّذِي

أَسْمُهُ فَرَأَيْتَهُ وَأَخْبَرْتَنِي عَنِّي نَالِيكَ فَرَأَيْتَهُ

وَجَاءُوا بِجَالِ الْمَطَافِي وَأَفَاطَفُوا وَهَمَّ

الموضوع:

عَادَ امْتِطَعِي وَجَدَّتْ أُمَّهُ عَنِ التَّحْرِيفِ ذُخْرًا وَكَأَنَّ
كُنَّا بِنَاظِلِ لِقَاءِ

لَمْ عَادَ امْتِطَعِي أَحْبَبْتُ أُمَّكَ بِدَعْوَتِكَ مَا دَعَيْتُكَ

فَالِهَا خَالُوكَ وَجِبَالِ الْعَمَائِيَّةِ الْمَدَائِيَّةِ وَأَنْطَلَقَ

الْمَسَائِلِ وَالْمُتَبَرِّقِينَ نَمَّ أَظْفَعِي النَّارَ كُلَّهَا

تعبير كتابي

الموضوع

عَادَ صُطْفَى إِلَى الدَّارِ وَنَدَتْ أُمَّهُ عَنِ
القَرِيْبِ تَمَوَّرَ وَكَمَلُو كِتَابَتَهُ صَاقَلَهَا
الْحَبْرُ بَ

كُنْتُ مَعَ خَالِي إِعْمَرٍ أَتَقَدَّشْتُمْ
رَأَيْتُ النَّاسَ يَجْرُونَ مِنْ كُلِّ مِهْوَةٍ
فَسَأَلْتُهُمْ فَقَالَ لِي يَا مَهْمُ فَرِيْقُ
هِيَ لِي نَدَّصِبُ وَتَرَى رَجُلًا الْإِطْفَاءُ
كَيْفَ يُطْفِئُونَ النَّارَ نَمَّ (مَهْمُ) إِلَى اللَّيْلِ
جَلَدْنَا

تعبير كتابي

الموضوع:

مات مصطفى إلى النار، وقد ثأمة من القرية
فقوار واقوا حملوا كتابة ما قال لها.

الاجواب:

كان القرية وقبلة العمالية المدنية

فقط النار وجمعت بسيارة الإسعاف

لا موصو الاج وراحة الرجال الشركة

والإسعاف والعمالية المدنية.

تعبير كتابي

الموضوع

عَمَّا مَضَى إِلَى الدَّارِ، وَحَدَّثَتْ أُمَّهُ
عَنِ الخَرِيقِ، تَصَوَّرُوا وَأَكْمَلُوا كِتَابَةَ
مَا قَالَهُمَا.

الجواب:

عَمَّا مَضَى إِلَى الدَّارِ، وَحَدَّثَتْ أُمَّهُ عَنِ
الخَرِيقِ فَقَالَ لَقَدْ رَأَيْتُ النَّارَ تَشْتَعِلُ
فِي أَهْلِ العِمْلَرَاتِ فَجَاؤُوا بِرِجَالِ الإِطْفَاءِ
فَبَدَأُوا يُطْفِئُونَ وَأَنَّ النَّارَ بِالمَاءِ وَيَخْرُجُونَ

تعبير كتابي

الموضوع: عَادَ مُصْطَفَى إِلَى الدَّارِ، وَتَدَّتْ أُمَّتُهَا
عَنِ الحَرِيفِ، تَصَوَّرُوا وَأَكْمَلُوا كِتَابَ مَا قَال
لَهَا. الأوهية

عَادَ مُصْطَفَى إِلَى الدَّارِ وَتَدَّتْ أُمَّتُهَا عَنِ الحَرِيفِ
فَقَالَ لِأُمَّةٍ لَقَدْ رَأَيْتُ الحَرِيفَ أَنَا وَمُصْطَفَى
وَجَاءَتْ سَيَّارَةُ الحِقَابِ القَدَيْبِ لِنَهْلِ
النَّارِ وَجَاءَتْ نَاسٌ كَثِيرَةٌ لِتُسَاعِدَ
الحِقَابِ القَدَيْبِ وَأَبْعَدَتْهَا الشَّرْطَةُ لِي
لَا تَحْتَرِفُوا وَأَخْرَجَتْ الحِقَابِ القَدَيْبِ النَّاسَ
الْبَيْتَ حَتَّى أَظْفَأَهَا هَوَّاءُ مَبْنِ الشَّرْطِيِّ وَهِيَ العِدَّةُ
القَدَيْبِ ذَاهِبَةٌ

الموضوع

عَادَةُ مُصَافِي إِلَى الدَّارِ وَحَدَّثَتْ أُمَّهُ عَنِ الحَرِيفِ
نَهْوَرُ وَاوَأَحْمَلُوا كِتَابَهُ مَا قَالَ لَهَا

الجواب:

قَالَ مُصَافِي لَأُمَّهُ إِحْتَرَقَ بَيْتَانِي العِمَارَ فَفَاطِمَةُ
سَيَّارَةٌ حِقَابِيَّةٌ مَدِينِيَّةٌ وَجَاءَتْ إِسْعَافُ لِسُنُوقِهَا
الحَرِيفِينَ فَقَالَ لَنَا الشَّرْطِيَّةُ إِنِّي قَدْ عَرَفْتُ حَقِيقَةَ
حَتَّى أَطْفَاعَتِ وَقَارَأَ لِلسُّودِ وَبَيَّنَّتْ أَنَّهُ فَارِخٌ
وَحَتَّى فِرَاسٌ إِحْتَرَقَ وَحَتَّى إِحْتَرَقَ التِّلْفَازُ
إِنَّهُ التَّبِينُ فَارِخٌ وَحِقَابِيَّةٌ مَدِينِيَّةٌ جَمْعُهُ نَوَاقِصُ
ادْوَانِمْ

تعدد كتابي

الدرسي

عَادَ مِصْطَفَى إِلَى الدَّارِ، وَتَدَبَّرَتْ أُمُّهُ عَلَى الصَّرِيحِ
تَقَوَّرَ وَأَمَّا كَيْدُهَا فَكُنَّا نَمَاقِلُ لَهَا

الأحرف

قَالَ مِصْطَفَى لِحَبْرَةِ أُمِّهِ فَقَالَتْ لَهَا الصَّرِيحُ صَوْفُ
الْحِمَايَةِ الْمَدَائِدِ وَصَوْفُ بَطْنِ النَّارِ بِالنَّارِ
الْمَصْدَرِ لَا يَبْقَى إِلَّا لَا يَبْقَى إِلَّا صَوْفُ تَجِيهِ
الِاسْتِعَاذِ لِتُنْقِذَ الصَّرِيحِ

تعبير كتابي

الموضوع:

عَادَ مُنْطَفِئِينَ إِلَى الدَّارِ، وَحَدَّثَتْ أُمَّهُ عَنِ الحَرِيقِ، تَهَرَّدُوا
وَأَكْمَلُوا كِتَابَةَ مَقَالِ لَهَا.

الجواب: عَادَ مُنْطَفِئِينَ إِلَى الدَّارِ، وَحَدَّثَتْ أُمَّهُ عَنِ الحَرِيقِ
قَالَ لَهَا: لَمَّا كُنْتُ فِي الشَّارِعِ مَعَ عُمَرَ مَرَّتْ سَيَّارَةٌ
الِإِسْحَافِ وَكَانَتْ تُظهِرُ النَّارَ مِنْهَا فَأُخْرِجُوا
السُّكَّانَ مِنْ حُرُوقِهِ الَّتِي كَانَتْ فِيهَا النَّارُ.

تعبير كتابي

الموضوع:

تماد مضطفي إلى واحد ثلاثيه عن الشريف،
فقروا واكملوا الكتابة ما قال لها.

الجواب:

لتماد مضطفي إلى الدار وحدث ليئه من العريف
فقال لها: كتابا وأنا ومضن نمشي وعجاة نرو ونحان
والصمائية القدينية قايمة والإسحاق قد صبتنا
ورأينا رجال القدينية يجربون الناس من
التواغذ والناس يسامدناهم في حيلهم.

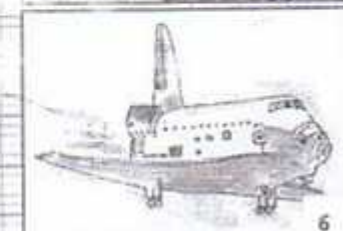
3 - أتأملُ المشهَدَ وأكتبُ نصًا.



حسبني عيد الطفول فراتتلاميذ بأن يقيم حفلًا وفي اليوم التالي ذهبوا والوالدان
 الأباء في المسح ثم بدأ العفل وكانت لم تفتني والأطفال المسقية تومر في صورا
 جميلًا وفرحوا بالأباد والمعلمة والمعلمين وقدموا لهم جوائز وألعاب ويصنعون وفرحوا
 جيداً ومعلمته فرحتهم بالمشهد وكان العفل رائعاً كما كان الأولياء فرحوا بكما انص
 ويحلمون كثيرا ويصنعون كثيرا حتى بدأ المدير يصغر ويذكر والابنته على
 شعنتيه يوم انتم ذهبوا التلاميذ إلى بيوتهم وذهبوا فرحون

قصير كثيرا في الخطاء
 حسن

3 - أتاَمَلُ المَشَاهِدَ وَأَكْتُبُ نَصًّا أَصِفُ فِيهِ رِحْلَةَ رَائِدِ القَضَاءِ.



Appendix 5: Sample of Writing Creativity.

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3- زار التلاميذ حوض الأسماك، أصف ما شاهدوه.



الأخ علي الصويدي ولدينا
مع أبيهم زاهبين إلى حوض الأسماك



الأخ لقينا واقفاً.



اتناهد لسماك والطفل مع ابوم



الأخ حط سمك القرش.



اتناهد الأخطبوط



1 - أستعين بالصُّورِ لأضع (فوق)، (في)، (على) في الفراغ المناسب.



تقفُ المعلِّمةُ محلي المصطبة.



يرفرفُ العلمُ فوق السارية.



القلمُ في المِقلمة.



المزهريَّةُ فوق الطاولة.

2 - أعودُ إلى النصِّ وأبحثُ عن كلماتٍ بها [ث] أو [ظ] وأكتبها في المكان المناسب.

[ظ]

مبتاطر
بنجفة

[ث]

تلاي
تمثل
تريتان
تلاي
تري

3 - أسمعُ وأكتب.

Blank handwriting practice lines for the third exercise.

غَزْوُ الْقَضَاءِ

أَقْرَأْ



- 1 جَلَسَ عِصَامٌ مَعَ أُسْرَتِهِ فِي حَدِيقَةِ الْمَنْزِلِ. نَظَرَ إِلَى الْقَمَرِ فَرَأَاهُ يَسْبُحُ بَيْنَ
- 2 النُّجُومِ اللَّامِعَةِ.
- 3 سَأَلَ عِصَامٌ أَبَاهُ : الْقَمَرُ بَعِيدٌ يَا أَبِي ، فَكَيْفَ اسْتَطَاعَ الْإِنْسَانُ الْوُضُوءَ إِلَيْهِ؟
- 4 قَالَ الْأَبُ : كَانَ الْإِنْسَانُ يَحْلُمُ مُنْذُ الْقَدِيمِ بِاِكْتِشَافِ الْعَالَمِ الَّذِي يُحِيطُ بِهِ ،
- 5 فَكَرَبَتِ السُّفُنُ ، وَطَارَ فِي الْجَوِّ ، ثُمَّ اتَّجَهَ إِلَى الْقَضَاءِ.
- 6 إِخْتَرَعَ الْإِنْسَانُ صَوَارِيحَ صَعَدَتْ إِلَى الْقَضَاءِ وَحَمَلَتْ سُفُنًا فَضَائِيَّةً كَثِيرَةً ،
- 7 أَخَذَتْ تَدْوِيرًا حَوْلَ الْقَمَرِ ، وَبَدَأَتْ تُنْقَلُ رُؤَادَ الْقَضَاءِ.
- 8 اسْتَطَاعَ الْعُلَمَاءُ أَنْ يَصْنَعُوا مَرْكَبَةً فَضَائِيَّةً هَبَطَتْ عَلَى سَطْحِ الْقَمَرِ ، وَعَلَى
- 9 شَاشَةِ التِّلْفَازِ شَاهَدَ النَّاسُ رُؤَادَ الْقَضَاءِ ، وَهُمْ يَمْشُونَ عَلَى سَطْحِ الْقَمَرِ ،
- 10 وَيَجْمَعُونَ مِنْ تَرَابِهِ وَحِجَارَتِهِ.

بِدَلَّةُ رَجُلِ الْفَضَاءِ

أَقْرَأْ



- 1 يَحْتَاجُ رَجُلُ الْفَضَاءِ وَهُوَ عَلَى سَطْحِ الْقَمَرِ
- 2 لِبِدَلَةٍ خَاصَّةٍ، لِأَنَّ الْجَوَّ عَلَى سَطْحِ
- 3 الْقَمَرِ يَخْتَلِفُ عَنِ الْجَوِّ الْمَوْجُودِ عَلَى
- 4 سَطْحِ الْأَرْضِ. تَحْتَوِي هَذِهِ الْبِدَلَةُ
- 5 عَلَى أَجْزَاءٍ مُخْتَلِفَةٍ لِكُلِّ وَاحِدٍ مِنْهَا
- 6 وَظِيفَتُهُ.
- 7 - جِهَازُ الْإِتِّصَالِ : وَهُوَ الَّذِي يُمَكِّنُ
- 8 رَجُلَ الْفَضَاءِ مِنَ الْإِتِّصَالِ بِرُفَلَائِهِ .
- 9 - خَزَانٌ يَحْتَوِي عَلَى مَا
- 10 يَلْزَمُ رَجُلَ الْفَضَاءِ مِنَ
- 11 الْأُوكْسِجِينِ، فَرُبَّمَا بَقِيَ هُنَاكَ مُدَّةٌ
- 12 طَوِيلَةً. كَمَا يَحْتَوِي الْخَزَانُ عَلَى أَجْهَزَةٍ
- 13 تُنظِّمُ التَّدْفِئَةَ وَالتَّبْرِيدَ دَاخِلَ الْبِدَلَةِ.
- 14 - خُوذَةٌ مِنَ الْبِلَاسْتِيكِ تُحْفَظُ الرَّأْسَ،
- 15 وَتُوفِّرُ لَهُ جَوًّا نَقِيًّا.
- 16 - حَامِلٌ لِآلَةِ التَّصْوِيرِ
- 17 التِّلِفِرُيُونِيَّةِ.
- 18 - قَفَّازَانِ لِحِمَايَةِ الْيَدَيْنِ مِنَ الْحُرُوقِ
- 19 وَ الْحُدُوشِ الَّتِي قَدْ تُصِيبُهُمَا عِنْدَمَا تَلْفَسَانِ السُّحُورَ
- 20 الْقَمَرِيَّةَ.



أَكْتُبُ بُورْتَرِيَه

أُنْجِزُ مَشْرُوعِي

1 أَتَعَرَّفُ عَلَى الْبُورْتَرِيَه

الْوَسَائِل

-  قَلَمُ رِضَاصٍ
-  مِمْخَاةٌ
-  وِزْقٌ مَقْوًى
-  مِسْطَرَةٌ
-  أَقْلَامُ التَّلْوِينِ



مَضْمُونُ الْبُورْتَرِيَه

الْبُورْتَرِيَه هُوَ وَصْفٌ لِشَخْصٍ نَتَعَرَّفُ مِنْ خِلَالِهِ عَلَى :
إِسْمِهِ، بِنْتِهِ، شَكْلِهِ، لِبَاسِهِ، مَكَانِ
سُكْنَاهُ، عَمَلِهِ، هَوَايَتِهِ، أَخْلَاقِهِ...

إِذَا أَرَدْتَ أَنْ أَكْتُبُ بُورْتَرِيَه لِشَخْصٍ،
أَصِفْهُ فِي نَصِّ يَحْتَوِي عَلَى الْمَعْلُومَاتِ
الْمَذْكُورَةِ.

الْكَابِتُنْ مَاجِدٌ بَطَلُ كُرَةِ الْقَدَمِ، يَلْعَبُ
مَعَ فَرِيقِ الْيَاسَمِينِ. عُمُرُهُ عَشْرُ سَنَوَاتٍ.
هُوَ مُتَوَسِّطُ الْقَامَةِ، قَوِيُّ الْجِسْمِ،
لَهُ عَيْنَانِ وَاسْعَتَانِ وَشَعْرٌ أَسْوَدٌ.
يَرْتَدِي الْكَابِتُنْ مَاجِدٌ ثِيَابًا وَقَمِيصًا
أَبْيَضَ وَأَزْرَقَ، يَحْمِلُ الرُّقْمَ (10).
هُوَ مُهَاجِمٌ قَوِيٌّ يَفُوزُ نَوْمًا عَلَى خَصْمِهِ.
الْكَابِتُنْ مَاجِدٌ طَيِّبٌ وَمُهَذَّبٌ لَا يَرُدُّ عَلَى
خَصْمِهِ، "بِنَامٍ" مَهْمَا حَاوَلَ أَنْ يَسْتَفِزَّهُ.

2 أُنْجِزُ بُورْتَرِيَه لِرَّيْمِيلِ

– أَرَسُمُ الرَّيْمِيلِ –
– أَكْتُبُ الْبُورْتَرِيَه –

أَثْرِي رَصِيدِي اللُّغَوِي



جَرَادَة



دُعْسُوْقَة



لُقْلَاق



بَبَّعَاء



سِنَجَاب



حَلَزُون



سُلْحَفَاء



عَنْكَبُوت



سَرْدِين



شِبَل



لَبْيُوَة



أَسَد



قَفْص



وَصِيْدَة



مَسْك



إِزْبِيَان

أَثْرِي رَصِيدِي اللُّغَوِيَّ



أَثْرِي رَصِيدِي اللُّغَوِيَّ



الْعَبُّ وَأَقْرَأُ

• اسْحَبْ كُلَّ بِلَاقَتَيْنِ وَ ارْكُبْ مِنْهُمَا كَلِمَةً، لِاتَّحَصَّلَ عَلَى بِلَاقَةِ
الاسْتِحْسَانِ.

صو دة مند ه شب

جريد فلة رة حا به

• اصْنَفْ الْحَيَوَانَاتِ مَعَ الشَّمْسِ وَ النَّوَاكِبِ مَعَ الْقَمَرِ ثُمَّ أَقْرَأْ وَ أَلْحِظْ.

النَّاقَةُ الشَّوْرُ البَرْتُقَالَةُ

الدَّجَاغَةُ العِنْبُ الخَشُوخَةُ

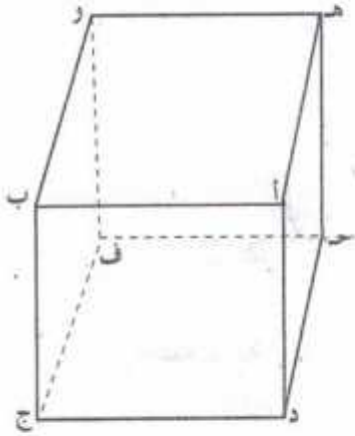
127 التضامنُ و المُواطَنَةُ

المجسمات (2)

55

يوم الثلاثاء 29 أبريل 2008

أَبْحَثْ وَاکْتَشِفْ



أ ب ج د وَجْهٌ لِلْمُكْعَبِ.

أجِدْ عَدَدَ أَوْجِهٍ الْمُكْعَبِ 6

- أ ب : حَدٌّ لِلْمُكْعَبِ.

- أجِدْ عَدَدَ حُدُودِ الْمُكْعَبِ 12

الْحُدُودُ : أ هـ ، أ ب ، أ د تَشْتَرِكُ فِي النُّقْطَةِ "أ".

النُّقْطَةُ "أ" رَأْسٌ لِلْمُكْعَبِ.

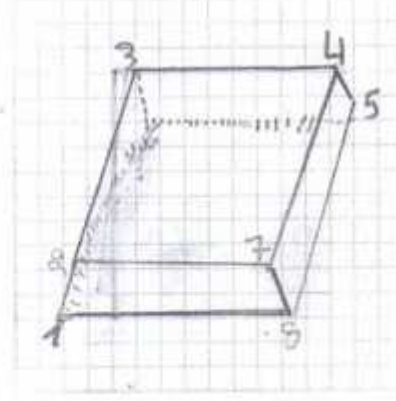
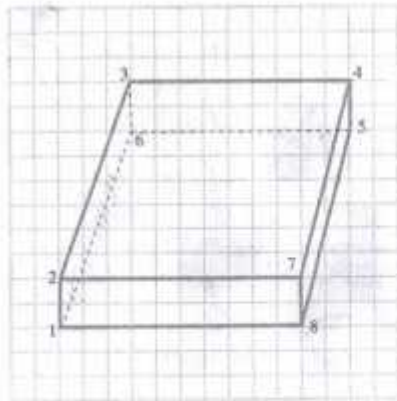
- أجِدْ عَدَدَ رُؤُوسِ الْمُكْعَبِ 8

تَمَثِيلٌ مُجَسِّمٌ أَنْقُلْ هَذِهِ الْبِلَامَةَ عَلَى الشَّبَكَةِ.

- أَعْيِنِ الرُّؤُوسَ (النُّقْطَ) وَأَنْقُلْهَا.

- أَمْتَلْ بِخَطٍّ مُتَّصِلٍ الْحُدُودَ الظَّاهِرَةَ.

- أَمْتَلْ بِخَطٍّ مُتَقَطِّعٍ الْحُدُودَ الْمَخْفِيَةَ.



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مائة وأربعة وعشرون



Creating Cultural Synergies

*Multidisciplinary
Perspectives
on Interculturality
and Interreligiosity*

Edited by

Birgit Breninger

and

Thomas Kaltenbacher

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Multidisciplinary Perspectives
on Interculturality and Interreligiosity

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**CAMBRIDGE
SCHOLARS**

P U B L I S H I N G

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Multidisciplinary Perspectives on Interculturality and Intelligibility,
Edited by Birgit Breninger and Thomas Kahenbacher

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CHAPTER FOUR

DISCOURSE THEORIES AND CROSS-CULTURAL PRAGMATICS AWARENESS RISING THROUGH AUTHENTIC MATERIALS

AZZOUG OMAR

Introduction

Why couldn't I speak English correctly and appropriately? Why couldn't I understand and be understood by the natives? I know that the problem had nothing to do with any knowledge, be it structural or lexical. Our teachers used to tell us that we had to think in English, but no one could tell us how. To think in English is a cognitive process that has to be triggered by an already-existent schematic knowledge related to the target language and its sociocultural aspects and to be used accordingly when negotiating meaning. How are we to be competent users in a language that was taught to us as a model meant to refer to the reality and not resemble it? How would it be possible to reach proficiency in a field to which we were introduced only in its travesty version? All we could do is to ape the natives' linguistic behaviour.

New approaches to foreign language teaching have emerged during the last three decades and new syllabi have been applied, all highlighting the importance of dealing with language as discourse and not as a set of rules that, once mastered, learners would be able to use for communicative purposes. However, identifying the internal properties of language is not the same as using them to negotiate meaning.

The shift in status from text to discourse has given rise to several models of communicative competence bearing in mind the necessary competencies that learners must possess to achieve proficiency in language use. New disciplines such as Pragmatics, which covers much of the same ground as discourse analysis, have been introduced - making the shift possible. Researchers working on discourse focused on the necessity

to take into consideration not only the cognitive and structural dimensions of language but also its socio-cultural components. The appropriateness of use is, one would argue, crucial in the actual processes of communication. It has to be taught and its awareness be raised. For this reason, in this paper, we insist on authentic materials as a sample of naturally occurring contexts. They mainly provide learners with a richer source of L2 input to work with, which has two advantages: one, it is more likely to meet the varying interlanguage needs of individual students within the class; two, it is more likely to develop a range of communicative competencies in learners, particularly the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistics ones.

Several issues have to be dealt with when raising learners' pragmatic awareness: can pragmatics be taught? And if so, which system do we teach? What effects, if any, does instruction have on the development of interlanguage pragmatics? Finally, do Algerian-designed EFL textbooks take into consideration the findings of the interlanguage pragmatics field of inquiry and thus contribute in raising learners' cross-cultural pragmatic awareness?

Intercultural Competence

To keep the lines open to wider conceptions of language in relation to culture in a world characterized by an ongoing process of global integration at various levels, the time has come for language teachers not only to focus on the conceptual schemes, but also to investigate the different ways in which intercultural competence can be achieved. It is interesting, in this respect, to recall that communicative and cultural competence can be too general terms. Today they are being strongly called into question in the pedagogical debate, mainly because they rest upon a concept of society and culture that does not include the context of other cultures. In this very specific context (Damen, 1987, p. 15) argues that: "The current dedication to the development of communicative competence of language learners mandates the development of intercultural skills and an understanding of the processes of culture learning on the part of the teachers and students alike." On the other hand, (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999) propose the extension of Canale and Swain's (1980) list of competencies by adding intercultural competence.

In a rather practical way, the two main facets of intercultural competence are: (1) to gain insights into one's own culture and (2) to find reasons for similarities and differences from within the target cultures. Therefore, in-depth understanding of otherness implies trying to understand from within, thereby, Risager (1998) says, "inviting learners to

develop a reflective attitude to the culture and civilization of their own country". This reflective impact of (Bryam & Fleming, 1998) refers to the process which turns learners' attention back onto themselves and their way of life. In this regard, the reflective impact operates through a four-fold process:

- 1- Contact with otherness
- 2- Comparison of similarities and differences
- 3- Interpretation of similarities and differences
- 4- Understanding of the taken-for-granted nature of the target culture.

Also, what is interesting in this approach is the use of findings in educational psychology to investigate the nature of the learning process. It starts from the fact that foreign language learning usually takes place just half-way between the primary and secondary process of socialization, and the discovery of new sets of practices, beliefs and values. Otherness leads to reflection on and questioning of the learners' native way of life. Consequently, the contact-comparison process with otherness provides answers and explanations to many aspects of the mainstream culture, and the interplay between the different processes contributes to the development of intercultural competence.

It is not surprising that the notion of reflective impact turns to the application of ethnographic investigative methods and practices for developing cultural awareness and intercultural understanding in foreign language learners. This new educational perspective serves a three-fold purpose: it aims, for one thing, at modifying negative perceptions and stereotyping, for another at facilitating positive impressions and attitudes, and, thirdly, it aims at establishing a sphere of inter-culturality which helps learners perceive the similarities and cope with the differences.

As regards the Algerian context, there is a need for a radical change; language mastery is still the overwhelming issue (Benmoussat, 2003, p. 53). In the same vein of thought Neddar (2008) said that "culture is often never dealt with, and worse still, culture is naively indexed in the Official Ministry Guidelines, and finally, the establishment of cultural references and landmarks, which help learners to build up vivid pictures and valid perceptions of the target culture, are seen as a potential threat to national culture and identity".

This is another way of saying that the teaching of culture often represents an aspect of language teaching that is unfamiliar to most Algerian English language teachers whose professional training largely focuses on linguistic aspects. We reach the conclusion that given the

extraordinary transformations which have taken place in the world, we confront a design change.

In what follows, we propose a model for curriculum development projects through which we attempt to focus on the different ways to accommodate the cultural dimension in ELT settings for developing cross-cultural competence on a principled teaching-language-learning-culture methodology. We suggest taking as a point of departure the teaching materials because they capture much of the paradox of teaching English in Algeria. Secondly, we take a new look at the language teaching profession and finally, we propose a set of techniques which have been advocated with respect to the intercultural approach.

Textbooks Analysis

Textbooks are thought to be the most valuable tool used in the language classroom. What follows is a qualitative and quantitative study of eight EFL textbooks to determine the amount and quality of pragmatic information, and by the same token the amount of realistic language included in English language textbooks in Algeria, and in particular those designed for the middle class learners *Spotlight* series designed for Algerian EFL learners in 2004. Yet, what does pragmatic information mean? In very sociolinguistic terms, it refers to:

- 1- Politeness, appropriateness of use, register and cultural information.
- 2- Metalinguage
- 3- Speech act information

This research was done by comparing the Algerian textbooks to other EFL textbooks of the same levels and conceived for the global, international market *Headway Oxford* series first published in 1995 and reprinted in 1997. What can be said so far as this selection is concerned, one can claim that in both series there is a focus on general communication in English.

Methodology

Two different textbooks were identified, the *Spotlight* series: *Spotlight 1*, *Spotlight 2*, *Spotlight 3* and *On the Move*; and also the *Headway Oxford* series: *Headstart* (Beginner), *Headway* (Elementary), *Headway* (Pre-intermediate) and *Headway* (Intermediate). The quality of information in each was noted to see whether any textbook was markedly longer than the others. The next step was a page-by-page analysis of the textbooks to

investigate the amount and quality of pragmatic information included. In both groups of texts, pragmatic information accounts for merely a small portion of text. It is important to note that for the majority of cases the pragmatic information consists of only one or two phrases on a page. After having complete information within each series and how the books vary, we should be able to answer the following questions about the behaviour of these two series as far as the load of pragmatic information is concerned:

- 1- Which series is better?
- 2- Which series is the most homogeneous?

In the light of the information obtained we could see that the number of pages changes from one textbook to another with *Spotlight 3* having the largest number. We also noticed that there is variability so far as the length of the books was concerned. A corpus analysis of words counts may show that the variability is not related to print style or font or size, but is rather related to the actual amount of texts and pictures included in each textbook. We can step further in our analysis to suggest that there is an inconsistency in terms of number files. We move in fact from seven files in *Spotlight 1* to four in *Spotlight 3*. The general impression that a reader would have is that there was neither feedback nor coordination between the different teams working on that project. This, it seems to us, is reflected in different issues related to the textbooks: the changes in the titles of the sections, the use of more "authentic" texts in one textbook than in another, the inclusion of more pragmatic information and so on.

Findings and Discussion

After determining the general amount of the pragmatic information provided for *Spotlight* and *Headway* textbooks specific areas of interest were selected for analysis: metalanguage and speech acts.

a- Metalanguage in textbooks

Metalanguage in textbooks can be another important source of linguistic input for learners. Functions of metalanguage were coded according to four types: description, instruction, introduction and task related. Description included any element of explicit metalanguage about a particular form, and in particular how to construct it.

b- Speech act treatment

The distribution of speech acts across spotlight and headway did not appear to be patterned, nor based on frequency of speech act occurrence in natural language, and often seems counter-intuitive. For instance, the

speech act of describing people was mentioned twice in *Spotlight*, though the importance of teaching learners how to describe has no pragmatic utility outside the classroom walls, and thus is irrelevant to their daily needs. The case of the speech act of apologizing did not occur in any of the eight textbooks. However, the apology is a speech act quite frequently realized in naturally-occurring language and data collection, and analyses of apologies have been performed in the fields of interlanguage and cross-cultural pragmatics (Dlum-Kulka *et al.*, 1989). Other speech acts, such as accepting requests, making and answering phone calls, and thanking were not mentioned in *Spotlight*. What can be said, therefore, is that there was a discrepancy between the speech acts that are taught in the eight textbooks and the ones that are mostly used in NSs' daily speech. That proves that the choice of speech acts taught was not subject to any study that took into consideration their occurrence frequently in natural language. We can go further in our criticism to mention, for instance, the absence of some appropriate physical behaviour such as shaking hands, kissing on the cheek, and so on, which are very culture specific and which our learners take for granted and may consequently cause a lot of pragmatic misunderstanding and embarrassment when encountering NSs of the target language. The point that we are trying to make in this discussion is that although the *Spotlight* series devotes a larger percentage of text space to pragmatic information, metapragmatic information is less rich, particularly when it comes to providing learners with more variety of forms to accomplish a particular speech act function, and more explicit metapragmatic discussion.

At the cross-cultural level, considerable effort had been made by the *Spotlight* series designers. But all the activities proposed under the cross-cultural section were mere lists of cultural facts where learners were told about the target culture without linking it to the Algerian one to make readers aware how the Anglo-Saxon culture is different from ours, and how this difference may affect and influence our learners' performance in the target language.

Teaching Materials

The vastness of the concept of culture would lead us to adopt a selective-focusing approach, differentiating the areas of culture teaching on the basis of humanistic and anthropological orientations. The scholarly literature on culture teaching has strongly focused on the combination of the anthropological and humanistic approach, i.e. the Olympian culture to use Brooks' term. In this respect, three broad topic areas will be dealt with.

It is important to note that the proposed topics are by no means exhaustive and can be extended to cover other related aspects: People and places, history and institutions, and arts and other major achievements.

Selection Criteria

Moving away from theoretical considerations to practical applications, the following checklist is proposed; it consists of ten criteria to help teachers decide on the adequacy of the teaching materials for developing intercultural competence. The checklist is inspired from (Sercu, 1998, p. 271) who discusses the criteria from a philosophical point of view.

- 1- What image is presented in the teaching material: realistic and representative? Or a distorted picture based on stereotypes, simplistic and biased and prejudiced information?
- 2- Is the content outdated and therefore fails to present a coherent picture of the target culture?
- 3- Does the content present generalizing statements about the target culture?
- 4- Are negative and problematic aspects of the target culture touched upon?
- 5- Does the teaching material offer an authentic reflection of the multicultural character of the target culture?
- 6- Is a historical perspective presented and used to explain certain present-day features of mentality and national character?
- 7- Are the cultural elements presented in the teaching material used to develop specific language skills?
- 8- Do photographs provide realistic and representative pictures of the target culture?
- 9- Do learners get the chance to reflect on their own culture and lead to draw comparisons between their own and target culture?
- 10- Are insights that have been gained previously re-used in the teaching material?

It should be noted that these criteria, based mostly on representativeness and realism, aim at examining the acceptability of teaching materials with respect to the teaching-language-learning-culture methodology in a broader context. Yet, the checklist can be extended by adding a criterion which is rather specific to our context: does the teaching material deal with unfamiliar or taboo topics that make both teacher and learners feel uncomfortable, and are therefore inappropriate for use in the classroom? To give illustrative examples of the practical applications of our checklist,

we found it useful to take a look at some examples and consider the potential for language teaching and culture learning.

Example:

Gunmen have opened fire on a busload of women and children in Ulster, wounding two people. The bus was ambushed near Market Hill in County Armagh. David Stroke reported the following:

"The minibus was taking mothers and their children on a prison visit to Belfast when it was wrecked by gunfire. Two women are among those hurt. They're suffering wounds in their legs and body. It's believed the gunmen's target may have been the bus driver, normally top Sinn Féin man Tommy Carroll from Armagh, but he apparently had taken the day off. David Stroke, IRN, Belfast." (Swan & Walter, 1993, p. 22)

The example reflects a number of criteria outlined in the checklist. The first example mirrors the problematic issue in Northern Ireland, and demands a measure of awareness from the teacher; in linguistic terms, it can be used to focus on the active/passive form. The second example represents a synthesis of the British and American government systems on a comparative/contrastive basis; the column about Algeria can be assigned as homework as pupils have already dealt with this civies in the ninth year of their general education. Notwithstanding the culture specific-criterion, the materials can serve as springboards to more in-depth discussions and engage into intercultural language teaching. Hence, to link the teaching of language to that of culture; on the other hand, textbook designers would find the materials insightful and thoughtful to exploring informative and thought-provoking topics.

Techniques of Intercultural Language Teaching

The acquisition of intercultural competence requires contact with members of the target language in an as active and direct a way as possible. In this section, therefore, a rather selective broad brush approach will be adopted, which will attempt to highlight techniques which might be most helpful to teachers involved with intercultural language teaching. In ordinary classroom teaching, attempts can be made with the traditional techniques such as cultural asides, culture capsules, culture assimilators, role playing, and classroom decoration. The following techniques have been put forward to address cultural behaviour while teaching language skills, that is, according to (Kramsch, 1991, p. 236) to link the teaching of language to that of culture:

The proposed techniques contain practical ideas for developing cultural awareness and cross-cultural understanding. They also provide guidance

for teachers on adopting traditional techniques to create activities suitable for intercultural learning. The activities can be done with the minimal of resources, and do not need special artistic expertise on the part of the teacher. The examples offer insights and practical guidance on designing cross-cultural activities.

Cultural Asides

By definition, cultural asides are "items of cultural information offered by the teacher as they present themselves in the course of language work" (Stern, 1992, p. 224). Most writers on culture teaching recommend the use of cultural asides. Rivers (1981) talks about them as "experiencing the culture through language use". Likewise, (Allen & Valette, 1977) make suggestions for incorporating culture in language learning activities stating that "in presenting new vocabulary and new structures, the teacher can often incorporate aspects of the target culture". What is more, it is highly recommended to use the same cultural material several times throughout the course. In this way, the learners increase their familiarity with items associated with the target culture. Of the various cultural asides, the following will be dealt with:

Magazine Pictures

The use of magazine pictures increases the effectiveness of learning by helping the learner to assimilate in a more meaningful and interesting way. To teach about food in Britain, for example, the teacher cuts and mounts pictures from magazines. These may be contrasted with pictures representing Algerian cuisine. An instance of this, could be the English breakfast of orange juice, fried eggs, bacon, toast, corn-flakes and coffee visually contrasted with the Algerian breakfast of café au lait, jam, butter, and bread. At the same time, these visuals can be used to introduce the learners to the new vocabulary items.

Maps

The teacher can use geographical maps to practise specific linguistic items, for example, the four cardinal points as nouns: north, south, east and west, adjectives/nouns: northern(er), southern(er), eastern(or), and western(er) and adverbs: northward, southward, eastward, and westward, or northerly southerly, easterly, westerly and up north/down south. The use of maps also allows learners to engage in meaningful language practice while developing a greater familiarity with the geography of the target country. In our context, emphasis is to be put on the regional divisions of the United Kingdom.

Brochures

An instance of the use of brochure would be to divide the classroom in groups, so that each group writes a letter to the British Embassy asking for travel/holiday brochures of England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. Later in the year, when learners begin getting responses, the material received may be used to show differences in forms (for example, lay-outs between the English way and the Arabic/French way) or for other language activities (for example, in formal/informal letter-writing).

Culture Capsule

The culture capsule is regarded as one of the most influential devices for developing cultural awareness and cross-cultural understanding. This technique was elaborated by (Taylor & Sorenson, 1961). It is a short verbal presentation that discusses characteristic differences between the target culture and native culture. The culture capsule may be accompanied with photographs or magazine pictures, and other aids. The presentation is generally followed by discussion. The culture capsule technique suits better intermediate-level students. The following topics are culture capsules par excellence: Christmas in Britain, Wedding Ceremonies in Britain, and Superstitious Beliefs in Britain.

These three culture capsules reflect the characteristic differences between the British culture and Algerian culture at various levels: social, psychological, religious etc. In practice, following the presentation, the teacher leads to a discussion on differences and similarities between a typical wedding ceremony in Britain and in Algeria, the superstitious beliefs in the British and Algeria societies, and the way Christmas as a religious festival is celebrated in Britain and El Mawlid Ennabaoui (the birth of the Prophet Mohammed) in Algeria. This activity incites students to investigate not only some aspects of the target culture, but also aspects of their own culture. As part of their written assignment, the students will be asked to write a description of a wedding festivity in their region, an account of the differences and similarities between the British and Algerian superstitious beliefs, and a portrait of the celebration of the El Mawlid Ennabaoui in Algeria. It is particularly noteworthy that one of the fundamental objectives of the technique of culture capsules is to increase cross-cultural awareness, and ultimately to develop tolerance for cultural differences.

Culture Cluster

The technique of culture clusters has been proposed by (Meade & Morain, 1973). The culture cluster is a short unit which consists of three or four conceptually related culture capsules. According to the originators, the cluster should be concluded by some sort of activity, for example, questions for discussion and role playing. During the dramatization the teacher acts as narrator and guides the students through the simulation.

Example

Explain that Fatma (Faty) is an Algerian student on a study tour in England. She is living with an English family. It is the first time she has been served an English breakfast.

First scene

Landlady: What's the matter Faty? You aren't ill, I suppose.

Faty: No, it's all right.

Landlady: But why aren't eating your breakfast. It's been a quarter an hour and you've eaten nothing.

Mid-discussion

The students try to identify the source of the clash and develop explanatory hypotheses out of the following questions:

- What's wrong with Faty?
- Why did she refuse to have breakfast?

Second scene

Faty: Well, actually I'm not used to having a big breakfast in the morning.

Landlady: But, Faty, breakfast is a very important meal of the day. You must eat, and then go to school.

Faty: Yes, but why do we have to eat so much in the morning.

Mid-discussion

- Is she accustomed to eating so much in the morning?
- What is the difference between an English and Algerian breakfast?

Last scene

Landlady: Well, because at midday, you'll have only a sandwich.

Faty: Yes, now I understand better.

Culture Assimilator

The technique has been elaborated by (Fielder *et al.*, 1971). In this cultural problem-solving activity, the learner is confronted with a culturally significant situation that contrasts with his own culture. For example, a

situation in which one of our students interacts with an Englishman. During the course of this interaction, we notice a misunderstanding. What is, then, the source of this misunderstanding? The teacher reads/writes four plausible explanations and asks the students to select the one they think is the correct answer.

Example

All, an Algerian student reading for a D.Sc. in mathematics in England, is invited by his English classmates to a party. He is very happy as it is the first time he has been invited to a party. He puts on his jeans, and goes to the party. He arrives on time but as he enters the house, he has the feeling of being coldly welcomed. He wonders why his hosts seem less friendly than usual.

- A. He was dressed inappropriately for a party.
- B. He didn't bring flowers or a small gift.
- C. He didn't bring food and drinks.
- D. He came too early.

Explanations

A. (Wrong) English people, especially students, do not pay attention to the way people are dressed.

B. (Wrong) You are not expected to bring flowers or a gift to a party. In Britain, it is customary to offer flowers when you are invited to a house for tea or meal. Gifts, however, are offered on the occasion of a birthday party or wedding ceremony.

C. (Correct) You are expected to bring some food and drinks to a party organized by students. It is impolite or even rude to come to a party empty-handed. It is customary in Britain to bring cakes, biscuits, and drinks when you are invited to a student party.

D. (Wrong) Obviously, British people are very punctual and observe time limit very carefully. Our guest, as it is said in the text, was neither early nor late, he was on time.

This type of activity, in which the student is provided with a set of alternative situations illustrating only one appropriate target culture behaviour, reflects some misunderstanding between the language learner and the native speaker. The source of misunderstanding is traced back to the fact that the student has struck the false note. The explanation of the correct solution as well as the reason why the other distracters are wrong, supply additional useful cultural or cross-cultural information. Consequently, through such cultural problem-solving activities or cross-cultural encounters, students progressively build up an understanding of behaviour within a cultural framework. This understanding is carried out through cultural adjustment.

It is noteworthy that the in-class techniques we have exposed in this paper converge on one point: the creation of an authentic classroom environment. They include probing questions which raise issues, develop ideas and ultimately extend the intellectual boundaries of the discourse. In the present context, this is particularly important as the reality of life and language use in the target speech community is both physically and psychologically far removed from the classroom. These hands-on-techniques have been implemented with the intention of informing the language learners of cultural facts and patterns, and ultimately drawing their attention to cross-cultural differences in order to tackle stereotypes and cultural barriers through reflection, critical thinking, and a questioning attitude. In sum, their implementation is geared towards a double-fold aim: to increase their cultural awareness and to develop inter-cultural competence.

From the pedagogical standpoint, the techniques are devised to ease the burden of large-sized classroom management and overcome the problem of mixed-ability classes and reluctant learners. In this sense, they bring pupils closer together, improve confidence and motivation, encourage cooperation and remove fear and inhibition. Novice teachers can make use of these techniques for practical, step-by-step guidance. Experienced teachers, however, may find new teaching applications of the many principles they already value to stimulate further explorations and introduce new ideas.

Writers on the methodology of intercultural teaching have drawn our attention on some factors having a bearing on the content of culture teaching. These include the learners' age, their level of maturity, and their previous language learning experience. In this very specific context, the teacher, as a practitioner and researcher, should know what his pupils need, what their interests are, and what should be done to adjust his teaching to the requirement of the situation. In sum then, the soundness of a technique is highly dependent on skilful teaching.

Conclusion

We have seen that the intercultural approach to foreign language teaching is, largely explicitly, based on not only the target cultures, but also the mainstream culture. Here, the process of contact/comparison with otherness is at the very core of this approach, and it is this process which helps learners to establish a relationship between their own and other cultures, and ultimately cope with the differences. This approach has been interested in attitudinal issues relating to learner's development of

tolerance and understanding of other cultures as well as in the degree to which the study of other cultures enhances cultural self-awareness. In this regard, curriculum planners and policy makers will find it a necessary aid to exploring the pedagogical alternatives, hence, a compromise solution.

On the other hand, one might argue that teaching material and in-class techniques can widen the bond of communication beyond the mainstream culture. From a pedagogical standpoint, they give teachers, teacher trainers and trainee-teachers guidance in key aspects of intercultural language learning. This is why the teacher and ELT textbook may be a powerful force in representing a frame of reference for developing sensitivity to cultural differences and inciting learners to acquire the needed skills to discover and interpret other cultures. Hence, language learners are called upon to be amateur ethnographers. From this wealth of methodology it is clear that cross-cultural contact can be constructed. What makes intercultural language learning especially valuable is that from the potentially unwanted side effects of language learning several benefits may accrue, not least the mechanisms underlying many aspects of the native culture. Evaluation of intercultural differences will allow the learner to develop his own identity in the light of cross-cultural understanding.

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The past several decades have seen the re-Invigoration of the concept of "intercultural competence" as one of the fundamental and most promising approaches towards studying culture in a respectfully complex way. The introduction of this concept, which has been defined and adapted in manifold ways in various disciplines, offers new ways of exploring the inherent multiplicity and versatility of cultural encounters and mutual understanding. This book brings together a stellar group of international researchers working in such diverse fields as business studies, religious studies, educational studies and communication studies. In critical pursuit of how to set intercultural competence to work in today's society, the contributors to this indispensable volume elucidate with passion and astuteness the challenges and potentials of interculturality and interreligiosity.

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Resume

This research work is an in-depth investigation that basically addresses the nature of interaction in Algerian classrooms where pupils learn through Modern Standard Arabic (henceforth MSA) the “newly-introduced language”. MSA/AA-medium teaching and learning is explored as well as on the ways in which such interaction can bear and support both the curriculum learning and language development of pupils that, in turn, constitutes the backbone of the study at stake.

Next, we try to illustrate how this teacher-pupil co-constructed talk reflects together the everyday language of the pupil learning through MSA, the school language which they must learn to control. At the same time, we describe how teacher-pupil interaction can enhance learner’s language and curriculum content assimilation.

In particular, we focus on those features of this interaction which empower MSA development and of pupil’s participation in the classroom’s activities. Each of these aforementioned themes emerges at different points throughout the dissertation, and will be briefly discussed in due course.

In Algeria, it is common that pupils learn MSA and learning through it as well; this pedagogical approach is referred to as Content and Language Integrated Learning, or CLIL for short.

In an attempt to make explicit the core of the issue of this dissertation, a five minutes researcher-pupil conversation about her learning reveals that while this pupil is fluent in most everyday contexts, she recognizes her

weaknesses and inability to control the school language. It is exactly where the researcher locates his issue; it was argued that even after five years the Algerian learner is still struggling with his language school learning.

In Algeria, virtually all school-aged pupils come from a language background that is different from MSA, the school language. This difference is referred to as distant gap which exists between AA and MSA. Without explicit support, however, these learners may encounter linguistic insecurity and language disorder that lead to drop out from school in an early period.

This alarming reality motivates the researcher to examine how MSA development can be better integrated in the content of the curriculum. Thus, the overall aim of the present work is to identify strategic items in oral language facilitating children language development, but which at the same time support the learning curriculum.

More particularly, this study focuses on the learning of MSA at school by children who are already familiar with a dialect in this case Algerian Arabic (henceforth, AA). It seeks to address some questions relevant to the research development:

- ✓ How complex is the situation of the Arabic language and how does that complexity relate to education
- ✓ What urgent measures are needed to reform the education system
- ✓ Can an ambitious Arabic language planning policy be in use to introduce the desirable and urgently needed reforms?
- ✓ What acceptable steps can be taken to implement a concrete education programme which will make Arabic easy to learn

One pedagogical response to the situation above is for a teacher to simplify or modify the language of the classroom, by, for example: attempting to avoid a complex vocabulary or arduous grammatical structures. While this strategy may help, in our view, to make language comprehensible to learners in the short term, it does not take into account how the learner grasps new and necessary linguistic knowledge. Moreover, as it was affirmed by many experts in the field, linguistically simplified curriculum is also likely to create lower academic expectations for both teachers and learners.

To further deepen the researcher's insight and get some sound and efficient strategies, the following predicted answers that form the hypotheses of this research work try to make clear the researcher's objectives:

- ✓ There is an obvious connection between repetition in the first grades of primary education and the learning of reading and writing in MSA;
- ✓ There is a need for greater awareness of the impact of linguistic factors and school performance;
- ✓ Both Algerian learners and teachers used AA in different contexts and have a positive attitudes towards this use
- ✓ The implementation of three-years kindergarten instruction is of urgent necessity

To argue that, we need to consider how the ongoing of the classroom programmes is done in the day-to-day interactions.

For all Algerian pupils who are unfamiliar with MSA which constructs the school curriculum, this teaching-and-learning medium of instruction must facilitate and not inhibit the transition from the learners' acquired language and the newly introduced code.

There is a parallel here with Bernstein's notions of vertical and horizontal discourses, explained so far by differences between home and school environment or between different subject areas.

The challenge for teachers is how to bridge the gap between horizontal and vertical discourse. In the mentioned situation the researcher deliberately join his point of view to Le Page (1971) who claimed that the best learning tools of instruction are those which show continuity between the home and the school language, realized through horizontal discourse, and the unfamiliar and abstract, realized through vertical discourse.

The description of classroom practices throughout the study combines the psycholinguistic processes of learning in a diglossic setting. Given the complexities of teaching and learning in the classroom, this multidisciplinary perspective is especially relevant to a study which attempts to demonstrate how theory and practice in dual, or what might be called bidialectal education, can inform each other.

What is required for the purpose of such an investigation is exploring the language within the curriculum content and ongoing classroom

processes in which it occurs. At the same time its significance for learners' language development needs to be considered. To this end we draw on insights from linguistics, sociolinguistic approaches to learning and teaching, and pedagogical approaches to dual variety education, and language acquisition studies.

It is important to keep in mind, especially in the context of education, that dialects do not represent language deficiency. Speaking a dialect is not the result of poor or incomplete language learning and its use does not impede cognitive development.

Several countries in Europe have successfully dealt with the use of dialects in education in the last thirty years or so. On the contrary, in some other countries, including Algeria, such matters have yet to be adequately addressed and effectively resolved. (For more details chapters 4 and 5)

There are strong voices advocating against the use of dialects in education. The recent action from the part of the Ministry of Education attempts the introduction of AA as an aid for learners, however, this initiative faces the nasty reaction from approximately the whole Algerian population.

The aforementioned situation may be the source of problems for both teachers and learners which have not been sufficiently and adequately addressed by the authorities for many years. Recently, however, the role of dialect in education has been the focus of many scholars from different nations (Griffou: 1980, Maamouri: 2006, Papapavlou: 2007, Ramdani:

2005, Yiakoumetti: 2013) as well as a great number of academics and researchers from Norway, Greece, the UK, Spain, and Switzerland.

The theoretical, descriptive and experimental studies that are presented in this dissertation deal mainly with the status of the dialect in the Algerian different settings, its relation and coexistence with MSA and its use or non-use in education. In terms of the general layout, the present dissertation consists of five chapters.

The first chapter provides a detailed account of the language practiced in Algerian schools and analyses the way teachers deal with the dialect in relation to education throughout the years. We have attempted to demonstrate that in the domains of language and education a contact between these two codes may occur.

Next we have made an attempt to describe the role and the use of the Algerian dialect in the classroom. Also, we have stated that the teachers' attitudes are expected to support the aforementioned idea when they do not characterize it as mistake the use of learner's home language.

We carry on stating that both teachers and learners are generally expected to use MSA in the classroom. The use of AA is also legitimate, accordingly when learners face difficulties in oral discussion, especially in first grade levels of primary school. Finally, we tried to provide the reader with a description of the basic differences between the dialect and the standard varieties through this chapter.

The second chapter proposes several solutions that can be offer in relation to dialectal education focusing mainly on the Arabic language or

through analogy with other languages (French and especially English as a second language). We have thought out necessary aspects of sociolinguistic research that are relevant to the question of dialectal education.

Exploration carried out in classrooms is discussed in terms of initiatives in dual language education, the use of dialect in classroom, research on children's spoken language at school. Previous studies in the field suggested that there is much evidence to show that children reach higher levels of educational attainment when their mother tongue has a recognized and explicitly valued place within the educational system.

On the other hand, we have explored issues relating educational materials that have traditionally been based on the standard language and stressed the need for coming up with alternative approaches to language duality related to dialects. We have concluded that if diglossia of everyday life is consciously reflected in the classroom, then positive messages will be sent out.

The third chapter presents the methodological considerations of data collection. It focuses on the different ways and tools for getting reliable data. Moreover, it attempts to ascertain the way by which the data obtained will be fairly analysed. It describes the research design and methodology used in this study. Multiple methods of data collection are discussed.

The data collection was undertaken over a period of three years, during which we observed many full school days in EL Arbi Tebessi primary school located in Tlemcen, the researchers' county. During these

observation periods we made field notes relating to teacher's behaviour and we described the classrooms in detail. Further to reach our aim, we also administered a questionnaire to primary teachers and conducted four in- depth interviews.

The fourth chapter is about data Analysis and data interpretation. It discusses the issue of language -in- education policy in diglossic settings. Through classroom observation and a questionnaire; we investigated primary teachers' views and attitudes on their mother tongue and the possibility of its introduction in the curriculum. As a final research step, we have explored teachers' position on language policy matters which for the researcher represent the crux of the study.

To clarify more, we have not only investigated teachers' attitudes towards the use of AA but also presented specific examples where it is used in different subjects of the curriculum. The target is to show teachers' different views on the use of the dialect in the classroom and to look at what actually goes on in the classroom with regard to the use of AA.

For that purpose, in the fifth chapter, a three- year-dual variety-language model is designed to be used as a programme in kindergartens. The model is elaborated using a Canadian curriculum in order to encourage learners' reflection on language differences and similarities between MSA and AA.

After an exploration of the status of the existing public and private kindergartens, we noticed the lack of teaching materials for dual variety education. Thus, we suggest involving multimedia stories and multivariate resources that can be used to highlight the implications for curriculum and

pedagogy. By this, a marked improvement in learners' MSA production, in a sense that MSA/AA co-occurrences will be reduced and fluency in MSA will be attained.

The study clearly points out that the systematic use of children's mother tongue in education has positive effects on their linguistic performance. Several investigations in this dissertation appropriately refer to issues of language-in-education policy and planning in reference to Algeria, it is imperative for the language policy in education to be reviewed

As stated at the beginning of this study, the overall aim of the research is to design a specific curriculum for Algerian children mainly based on linguistic realities of Algeria. This task was not as easy as it may appear. We thought first to explore the lesson ongoing then scrutinize the nature of the relationship between diglossia and the pedagogical practices inside the school settings by using different research tools.

What has emerged from the above mentioned action is the fact that both teachers and children have no clear idea about their language use and usage; which makes their conception of the actual issue at stake difficult to be understood then managed.

In terms of pedagogical theory and practice, meta-cognitive and metalinguistic abilities are of paramount importance in language acquisition. They not only foster and enhance learning process but they raise awareness among learners and teachers about their linguistic problems.

When the researcher's aim is to be summed into a question how might these aims translate into pedagogical practices? In order to cultivate this set of skills, actions and attitudes, a multi-dimensional study which takes not only pedagogy and linguistic contributions into consideration as well as the systematic nature of the learner's linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse/communicative competence was seriously done.

An effective curriculum would be performed on which learners shape their classroom discourse. This later ranges from macro-level structures (broadly, the social milieu influencing language) to micro-level structures (the linguistic constituents of language functions, speech events, speech acts, discourse modes, etc.) which I may call language items that construct the classroom language. In Riggensbach's (2012) words, linguistic and metalinguistic skills alike are best developed if the learner is allowed and guided by well prepared and trained teacher who assumes the role of mediator and facilitator.

Through this humble study, it was given arguments that bidialectal speakers appear to have a highly developed metalinguistic awareness (chapter 1), the absence of dialect in formal education should be reconsidered by decision makers and language planners. Although the introduction of bidialectal education in Algeria is not easily accepted, it has been considered as a worthwhile option.

We claim that formally instructing kindergarten children in AA raises linguistic awareness and in turn, enhances the acquisition of MSA. Admittedly, introducing innovative ideas in formal education is an arduous task. The introduction of dual language education entails even more

sensitive issues, such as ideological and sociopolitical circumstances and religious background.

Along this dissertation, we have shown that Algerian participant (teachers and learners alike) do not appear to question the efficiency of the dialect and admit that the use of AA poses certain problems for children. As a result, a quasi-rejection of the introduction of the dialect as a medium of instruction was shown. On the contrary, if changes in language-in-education were never to be made, participants would prefer the introduction of dual language education.

As can be seen, an effort was made to examine teachers' perceptions about possible changes in current language policy in Algeria and whether such changes would find way to application in the Algerian classroom.

The present study described in details the way MSA and AA are used in the classroom by teachers and more importantly by learners. The study asserted that the function of the two varieties in Algerian classroom is most of the time mutual. The interaction is carried out through MSA and AA at variable degrees of contribution. MSA is strongly associated with lesson explanation and is widely used by teachers; however, the data suggests that AA was the predominant variety in all classroom interactions for learners although some learners alternated MSA and AA.

Algerian policy makers promote MSA as a means of instruction due to too many reasons. At the same time, they ignore AA and do not provide specific policies on how to tackle the issue of dual variety teaching. We have shown that despite the stated policy, the use of AA is a reality in the classroom. The richer and more complex talk that took place in the classroom was predominantly in AA. A reality that no one can deny or

ignore, on the contrary we should profit from the situation and use it in the favour of the young learners.

This reality still present in the Algerian classroom, we noticed that learner's oral answers in MSA were mostly characterized with a strong AA interference. Children include the two varieties in their interactions using code switching. This was also confirmed in interviews with learners of grade 5; the majority of them found it hard and difficult to use MSA.

Hymes' notion of 'repression', learners experienced linguistic insecurity, feelings of discomfort, unhappiness and lack of confidence with the imposed variety of school. If this is the case, and it is, in the Algerian schools then policy makers need to reconsider the issue of education. In a very simple manner any future change in the policy should help learners to express themselves openly, and authentically.

The arduous point in our study was the lack of these interlanguage norms which helps in the analysis of classroom talk both as process and product. This represents one of the weaknesses of the research. It was only by focusing on unit of work, was it possible to show how the changes in teachers' language impacted on learners' language and curriculum learning.

Central to this is an understanding of the relationship between MSA and AA in the classroom. Contribution of teachers is essential to the design of such complex programmes because the teachers are aware of their own language use and they, themselves, who plan the skeleton of the teaching curriculum.

We focused on how language is used and how learning is to be enacted in the Algerian classroom. As many examples have suggested, a well-designed curriculum based on learner' home language and experiences as well as on the classroom activities is of great significance for dual language learning in a more dynamic sense.

Our aim was to promote dual language education by focusing on MSA development and drawing attention to different linguistic form (by comparing the dialect and the standard). The goal was progression from awareness to production. Drawing attention to linguistic form enabled learner to correct himself whenever felt mistaken. At this stage, we may estimate to gain much not only in the MSA acquisition but also the whole learning process i.e. Learners undertake several strategies to their own learning of both form and content.

Understanding the answers of the research questions is essential to check and validate the veracity of the hypotheses that forms the study. The two first goals made in question the teachers' competence in the diglossic context, where MSA and AA co-exist. On the whole, teachers are in fact not aware about the linguistic situation that characterizes their classroom. Neither issue was recognized as problematic, nor was there a desire on teachers' part to introduce dual language education.

We believe that the third and the fourth goals affirm that teachers' practices reflect the Algerian society in their classrooms. They are competent coping well in this complex and challenging situation. Algerian teachers are unaware of the role they play in the changing of the policy by which their young learners will succeed.

We, particularly, highlighted through teachers' attitudes and different opinions that teachers need to be trained in such challenging context mainly through in-service training and perhaps the various seminars that handle those issues related to language classroom.

From the part of the government it is of their duty, in enacting the policy, to ensure the availability of appropriate learning materials and by encouraging learners to communicate more freely and openly about their particular experiences, and finally increasing parental awareness of the importance of L1 maintenance.

It was particularly interesting to witness and scrutinize classroom environment to affirm that it is not enough for the Algerian to be exposed accordingly his mother tongue needs to be maintained to facilitate the transition from the home tongue to the school language.

In summary, the results suggested that there is indeed a distant gap between MSA and AA. The correct education and training that take diglossia and other linguistic phenomenon of the Algerian children is of urgent need to learning process. The evidence, throughout this study, indicates that usage of both varieties in the kindergarten during three years can be beneficial to the language needs of Algerian learners.

However, we think the main lesson that we have learnt is just how very important the researcher's role actually is. We have enormous respect and admiration for teachers who rise to the challenges they face and hope to have gone some way to assist them by critically revealing some of the difficult issues in their classrooms and by proposing possible areas where more intervention was beneficial

ABSTRACT

The existence of MSA as a means of instruction on the one hand and AA, the mother tongue of the Algerian learner, on the other, makes the process of learning an arduous one. This thesis examines the classroom discourse in primary school. Describing first, how primary school teachers and learners have co constructed the classroom talk. It then considers lesson description by exploring teachers' knowledge, understanding of, and attitudes towards, languages and diglossia. The study scrutinizes primary teachers' attitudes vis-à-vis the introduction of dual variety education in Algerian classroom. The data are discussed in terms of education and second language acquisition theory and Algerian education and language policies. The results indicate that the teachers lack awareness about this linguistic issue which overwhelm the Algerian classroom. They all recognize that a lack of exposure to MSA is the primary cause of language problems for learners and that AA, the mother tongue is a downgraded variety and does not need to be maintained or promoted in the school. However, they do accept the introduction of dual language education as strategy to help learners learning MSA in an early age. The thesis concludes that shortcomings in training and information encourage these two assumptions to take root and that the implementation of three-year kindergarten institution in which the instruction will be in both AA and MSA is necessary.

Key words: Algerian Arabic, dual variety education, transitional period, educative Algerian system

الملخص

تتميز الجزائر بالثنائية اللغوية التي تعتمد على اللغة العربية الفصحى الحديثة (MSA) كوسيلة للتعليم العامية الجزائرية (AA) اللغة الأم للمتعلم الجزائري. هذه الازدواجية اللغوية تجعل التعلم عملية شاقة. تدرس هذه الأطروحة البيئة الصفية في المدارس . حيث تصف أولاً، في شكل دراسة حالة، كيف يقوم معلمي المدارس الابتدائية في بيئة الفصول الدراسية المرحلة تأسيس المعارف ثم تعتمد لمعرفة الاسباب الي جعلت المعلمين الي اللجوء الي مثل هذه استكشاف معرفتهم وفهمه ، والمواقف تجاه ،اللغة الاولى والثانية. هذه الدراسة تحقق أيضا في اتجاهات كل من معلمي المدارس الابتدائية وطلاب الجامعات نحو إدخال تعليمية اللغة الام في الفصول الدراسية الجزائرية. وتناقش البيانات من حيث التعليم نظرية اكتساب اللغة الثانية والتعليم الجزائرية و السياسات اللغوية. نتائج هذه الدراسة تشير إلى أن المعلمين لديهم اثنين من الافتراضات الأساسية التي تركز عليها اعمالهم، وكذا بناء الفصول الدراسية. الفرضية الأولى تبين أن نقص التعرض للغة الفصحى هو السبب الرئيسي لمشاكل للمتعلمين اللغوية، والثانية تستدل على أن اللغة الأم، لا تحتاج إلى الحفاظ عليها أو الترويج لها في البيئة المدرسية لأن المتعلمين قد تعرضوا لها بما فيه كفاية في المنزل. وفي الاخير تخلص الاطروحة أن أوجه القصور في التدريب والمعلومات تشجع هذه الافتراضات و أن ء برنامج روضة من ثلاث سنوات للأطفال في التعليمات ستكون في كل من AA MSA

,المرحلة الانتقالية,

الكلمات المفتاحية:العربية الجزائرية ,

Résumé

L'Algérie est une communauté bidialectale caractérisée par la coexistence de l'Arabe Moderne Standard (MSA) en tant que moyen d'instruction et l'Arabe algérien (AA) en tant que la langue maternelle de l'apprenant algérien. Cette dualité linguistique rend le processus d'apprentissage ardu. A cet effet, cette thèse examine l'effet de cette situation sur la classe à l'école primaire. D'abord, elle décrit, sous la forme d'une étude de cas, comment les enseignants de l'école primaire ont construit l'environnement de la phase de fondation de leurs classes. Or, elle considère pourquoi les enseignants ont réuni leurs classes dans ces moyens en explorant leurs connaissances et leur compréhension du monolinguisme, bidialectalisme, de la langue seconde ainsi que les attitudes à leur égard. Cette étude a également étudié les attitudes des enseignants à l'école primaire et des étudiants universitaires vis-à-vis de l'introduction d'une instruction bidialectale en classe algérienne. Les résultats de cette étude ont indiqué que les enseignants ont deux hypothèses fondamentales qui sous-tendent leur action et leur construction de leur classe. La première hypothèse postule que le manque d'exposition à MSA est la principale cause des problèmes langagiers des apprenants et la seconde atteste que la langue maternelle n'est plus nécessaire en classe du moment que les apprenants ont été suffisamment et naturellement exposés à leur L1 dans leur environnement immédiat. La thèse parvient à la conclusion révélant que des lacunes dans la formation et l'information en classes de primaire encouragent ces deux assomptions enracinées et que la mise en place d'un programme de trois années au maternelle par lequel l'enseignement de AA et MSA est exigé.

Mots clés : Arabe Algérien, diglossie, la période de transition, le système éducatif Algérien.