

Democratic and Popular Republic of ALGERIA

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

Dr. Tahar MOULAY University of SAIDA

Faculty of Letters Languages and Arts

Department of Literature and English Language



Language Choice outside the classroom.

(The Case of third year EFL students at the Department of Literature and English Language at Dr. Tahar MOULAY - University of SAIDA)

Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Literature and English Language in partial fulfilment of the degree of Master II in, Didactics of EFL

Presenter

Hanane BELAKHDAR

Supervisor

Khadidja BELASKRI

Board of Examiners

President: Mrs Tahia ADNANE

Supervisor: Mrs Khadidja BELASKRI

Internal Examiner: Dr Nadia KHIATI

Dr. Tahar Moulay University

Dr. Tahar Moulay University

Dr. Tahar Moulay University

2018-2019

Dedications

I am grateful to dedicate this work to my beloved father Djelloul for his advice and education.

Great thanks to my idol source of my happiness and success.

To my lovely mother Nouria, I would never have completed my studies without her support.

To my adorable sisters and brothers, Amina, Fouzia, Maroua, Toufik and the little brother Kais.

Acknowledgements

Above all, I would like to thank Allah for giving me patience and strength to finish this research.

I would like also to acknowledge my supervisor Mrs BELASAKRI whose guidance and suggestions have helped me a lot in the fulfilment of this research work.

I would like also to express my great and sincere thanks to the board of examiners: President: Mrs Tahia ADNANE and the Internal Examiner: Dr Nadia KHIATI for accepting to examine my research work.

Special thanks to my teacher of ICT in Master I: Mr R. Mounir for his technical assistance. I am very grateful to him and to all my teachers of English who taught me during the past five years.

Finally, I thank all students who answered my questionnaire, and everyone who encouraged me.

Abstract

The main goal of English language teaching is to give learners the ability to use English effectively and accurately in communication and in real life situations. In fact, many language students feel strongly motivated to study English and they enthusiastically pursue learning the language. Yet, when real contact situations arise in which English could be used, many EFL students remain unwilling to speak or use it outside the classroom whereas there are others who do. Hence, this study is devoted to investigate the factors that determine student's language choice outside the classroom. To this end, a case study research was conducted in the University of Dr Moulay Tahar of SAIDA, in which data were gathered based on investigating third-year students of English. The research instruments used in the present work consisted of a questionnaire for students and observation of student's Facebook posts and comments and analysing them. The obtained results were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results of the study revealed that EFL students' language choice is mixed. They use English outside the classroom in some situations along Arabic and French. Their choice was determined by many factors such as lack of vocabulary and lack of confidence while sometimes they are motivated to use English in order to practice the language and learn more or to express their feelings. It was noticed also that students code-switch and use a mixed code between the three languages. Ultimately, the study was expected to help students recognize that they should use English as more as possible outside the classroom in the sack of improving their skills in this language.

List of abbreviations

AA: Algerian Arabic.

(B): Berber

CA: Classical Arabic.

EFL: English as a Foreign Language.

(FR): French

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic.

List of tables

Table 3.1: Students' reasons for choosing English studies	39
Table 3.2: Students' proficiency in Arabic, French, and English	40
Table 3.3: Students' use of English outside the classroom.....	41
Table 3.4: The language in which students set up their personal devices.....	42
Table 3.5: Students' opportunities to speak English outside the classroom.....	43
Table 3.6: How often students speak with English outside the classroom.....	43
Table 3.7: How often students use Arabic, French, and English.....	43
Table 3.8: Students' family member who speaks a foreign language.	44
Table 3.9: Foreign languages spoken by students' family members.....	44
Table 3.10: Languages used by students with their teachers outside the classroom.	45

List of figures

Figure 3.1: An example of a religious post written in Arabic.	46
Figure 3.2: a post published in English by a female.	47
Figure 3.3: a post published in Arabic by a female.	47
Figure 3.4: a post published in Arabic by a male.	48
Figure 3.5: a student's post written in English.	49
Figure 3.6: a student's comments on their Facebook group.	50

Table of Content

DEDICATIONS	I
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	II
ABSTRACT	III
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	IV
LIST OF TABLES.....	V
LIST OF FIGURES.....	VI
TABLE OF CONTENT	VII
GENERAL INTRODUCTION	1
1. CHAPTER I: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	3
1.1. Introduction	4
1.2. Description of the theoretical framework	4
1.3. Key concepts related to the notion of language choice.....	4
1.3.1. Language	4
1.3.2. Linguistic repertoire.....	6
1.3.3. Dominant language	6
1.3.4. Language and social interaction	7
1.3.5. Dialect	12
1.3.6. Language variation	14
1.3.7. Language choice in multilingual communities	15
1.3.8. Diglossia.....	15
1.3.9. Bilingualism	16
1.4. Focus on the Reasons for Code-switching.....	19
1.5. Conclusion	19

2.	CHAPTER II: THE ALGERIAN LINGUISTIC SITUATION.....	20
2.1.	Introduction	21
2.2.	The Algerian linguistic profile.....	21
2.3.	Languages used in Algeria	24
2.3.1.	Arabic.....	24
2.3.2.	French	25
2.3.3.	Berber.....	26
2.3.4.	English	27
2.4.	History of languages in Algerian education	28
2.5.	The status of English in the Algerian educational System.....	29
2.5.1.	Language contact and dynamics.....	30
2.5.2.	Bilingualism in Algeria.....	30
2.5.3.	Diglossia in the Algerian speech	30
2.6.	EFL students' speaking difficulties.....	31
2.6.1.	Linguistic problems	31
2.6.2.	Psychological problems	32
2.6.3.	The Use of the Mother Tongue	33
2.6.4.	Motivation	33
2.6.5.	Lack of interest in subject	33
2.7.	Conclusion	33
3.	CHAPTER III: RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA ANALYSIS.....	35
3.1.	Introduction	36
3.2.	Research design	36
3.3.	Research tools	37
3.3.1.	Students' questionnaire.....	37
3.3.2.	Observation of students' language choice outside the classroom	38
3.4.	Analysis of the questionnaire's results	39
3.4.1.	Section one: personal information	39

3.4.2. Section two: Students proficiency and language choice (use).	39
3.5. The analysis of the observational data.....	46
3.5.1. The final results of students' posts on their profiles are as follow:	48
3.5.2. Students' posts on their Facebook group	49
3.5.3. Discussion of observation's findings	50
3.6. Conclusion	51
GENERAL CONCLUSION	52
BIBLIOGRAPHY	54
APPENDICES.....	58
Appendix (A): Questionnaire about students' choice of language.....	59
Appendix (B): Participants' observation (screenshots)	61

General Introduction

General introduction

People who speak more than two languages are often confronted with making the right language choice within a particular domain. Language choice is informed by the kind of participants in a communication situation, the topic, social distance, and location. The present study addresses the issue of language choice outside the classroom and focuses on the use of English outside the classroom since the population of this study are third year EFL students.

Learning a foreign language is considered a new element in the social environment. Therefore, students often find themselves in conflict with certain different factors that stand as a barrier to their achievement in communicating and using the foreign language outside the classroom. The use of English language is one of the main purposes in learning a second language. However, not all language learners, even after many years of studying English, can practice the language outside the classroom with mastery. Certainly, students' language choice outside the classroom can be affected by a variety of factors including psychological, political, and social factors; which must be analysed deeply.

The major goal of all English language teaching is to give learners the ability to use English in different areas of life including the outside classroom context. Language choice outside the classroom appears to be one of the central issues for many. However, little attention has been paid in this field. Since the population of this study are EFL students, the use of English inside the classroom has been already covered and managed by teachers. Therefore, the questions that remain are:

1. What linguistic varieties do EFL students of English at Dr Moulay Tahar University of SAIDA use outside the classroom?
2. Which attitudes do they have towards English language use outside the classroom?
3. What are the factors that determine their linguistic choices?

To fulfil the aim of the research, the following hypotheses has been formulated accordingly to the questions mentioned above:

Hypothesis 1: Arabic, French, and English could be the main varieties used by students outside the classroom.

Hypothesis 2: Psychological, colonial and political factors as well as Algerian culture may affect EFL students' English use outside the classroom setting.

Hypothesis 3: The choice to use English outside the classroom by third year EFL students is determined mainly by sociolinguistic characteristics.

Consequently, to confirm such hypotheses or deny them, a research – in partial fulfilment of the degree of master II in, Didactics of EFL – has been conducted and devised into the following chapters: A first chapter, entitled “literature review” aims at building the theoretical

framework of the research. A second chapter, entitled “language choice in Algeria”, aims at exploring the linguistic context in Algeria, and how such context influences and effects the language choice of EFL students. A third chapter, entitled “Research Design And Data Analysis” aims at presenting and analysing the data collected and conclude recommendations for teachers to enhance and enrich their teaching practices in terms of context they present and the guidance they provide for students.

The first objective of this study is to clarify some concepts related to language choice, the second objective is to identify factors that affect the language choice of third year students of English at Dr Moulay Tahar University of SAIDA while they are outside the classroom. Finally, this study will analyse the obtained data and suggest effective strategies to overcome the obstacles that stand against students’ use of English outside the classroom setting. The present study depends mainly on the students’ perspective towards language choice outside the classroom that may have an effect on their speaking and use of English. Thus, both of qualitative and quantitative methods (questionnaire and observation) have been used to collect data about the topic.

The population of this study included 28 female students, due to the strike that took place at Dr Moulay Tahar University since February of the current year. The population of this study were not available. The researcher’s intention was to find out whether there is an existent relationship between the personal information such as gender and place of residence with the research’s topic. However, the researcher could only elicit data from female students from SAIDA and this made questions such as gender and place of residence redundant. So, the researcher decided to exclude the personal information section from the data analysis. This was the most remarkable limitation for this study in addition to the lack of resources.

The findings of this study would be particularly significant for teachers’ potential in creating a better understanding of language choice phenomenon among EFL students. The researcher, furthermore, believes this study will make a modest contribution in bridging the gap of the noted lack of studies in the area of language choice, particularly the use of English outside the classroom.

Finally, it is hoped that the findings of this study will serve as an addition and contribution to the domain of second language acquisition or any similar researches.

Chapter I:
Literature review

1.1. Introduction

Sociolinguistics is the scientific study of society's effect on language. Its framework is based on "the study of how language serves and is shaped by the social nature of human beings" (Eble, 2005). This should not be confused with sociology of language which primary focus is the effect of language on society. Sociolinguistics is a field of study standing between linguistics – as the scientific study of language – and sociology – as the scientific study of the development, structure, and functioning of human society (Corson & Tucker, 1997).

The following chapter is devoted to building the theoretical framework which will allow the study of language choice among EFL students outside the classroom. Such task will be achieved throughout this chapter by providing definitions from various scholars and by illustrating key concepts related to the notion of language choice such as language, bilingualism, code-switching, dialect, diglossia etc.

1.2. Description of the theoretical framework

According to (Holmes, 2013) language choice involves the language or a variety of the language. Language choice can be studied in monolingual communities as well as bilingual or multilingual communities. The latter – community – being defined as a group of people with shared set of values and attitudes about language use, varieties, and practices, and which are more local in comparison to the notion of society (Morgan, 2014).

According to (Holmes, 2013) as well, language choice's study includes different types of linguistic variation used to express and reflect social factors. It involves a range of social influences such as vocabulary or word choice, sounds, and syntax. People adjust them depending upon who they are speaking to, and the circumstances of the conversation (Chambers J. , 2015).

1.3. Key concepts related to the notion of language choice

As mentioned earlier, the following will be key concepts related to the notion of language choice. These notions are mainly based on the work of Holmes (2013) and include concepts such as language, linguistic repertoire, social interaction, diglossia, bilingualism, etc.

1.3.1. Language

Language is basically a system of communication where sound or signs are used to convey objects, actions and ideas (Gogoi, 2014). Furthermore, language is defined by Arthur Sigismund Diamond as "the means of expression of human thoughts". Thus, language is used

by human being as a tool of communication and expression of thoughts, beliefs, and emotions (Diamond, 1959).

On the other hand, language differs from one society to another. According to Gogoi, society has precious cultural heritage in the form of arts, science, language, literature, philosophy, religion, values, customs and traditions. It has already been seen that language and culture are interlinked, therefore, “language is representative of the culture and psychological make-up of a speech community.” (Gogoi, 2014).

Moreover, In terms of language and people, statistics obtained from ilanguages.org show that about 40% of world’s population are monolingual, i.e. they can speak only one language. The statistics also show that 43% of world’s population are bilingual, i.e. they can speak two languages, and about 17% of world’s population are multilingual, i.e. they can speak three and more languages.

Once speakers of two or more languages interact with each others, they make a decision about which of these languages is to be used. It is clear that many factors influence language choice, and may work either with or against each other, producing a complex web of interaction, which makes the task of describing any language choice event extremely difficult (Holmes, 2013).

Therefore, Language choice is a careful selection of words, phrases, clauses or sentences from one and or more languages that are acquired within the speaker’s linguistic repertoire. Such choice seems to be something natural, automatic and unplanned (Chambers J. , 2015).

Language choice occurs when speakers within a conversation choose an appropriate register, genre, style, medium, or tone of voice in relation to the interlocutor (who), topic (what), context (where) and medium (how) in every talk (Dumanig, 2010).

Additionally, multilingualism serves as an interactional resource for the multilingual speakers. In other words, one particular language may normally be used at home or with close friends, whereas another language may be used for commerce and trade, and even a third one for dealing with government agencies (Fasold, 1990).

The analysis of language choice in bilingual and multilingual settings remains a crucial endeavour in sociolinguistic research (Gal, 1987). Early researches made by linguists and sociologists at describing language use in general quantitative terms witnessed a failure in terms of the accountment for the evident heterogeneity across communities, individuals, and occasions. Theoretically refined tools are needed to explain why language X is used in situation x, and why language Y is used in situation y. Contrary to the widely assumed belief that language use is unsystematic, sociolinguistics has held as axiomatic that “A speaker’s choice between varieties is also structured. It is systematically linked to social relationships, events or

situations” (Gal, 1987). Thus, one of the crucial issues in socially oriented linguistic disciplines issues is why a given linguistic variety is chosen to be used in a particular array of situations, while another variety is preferred in other circumstances (Dweik & Qawar, 2015).

1.3.2. Linguistic repertoire

Each speaker of any language has at his or her disposition a choice of language varieties. Gumperz used the term ‘linguistic repertoire’ to refer to the series of styles which an individual needs to accomplish all his or her communicative demands in the most right way (Gumperz, 1964). The speaker is considered as communicatively competent if he could select the appropriate variety. The choice is not casual, but it has been shown to be determined by aspects of the social organization of the community and the social situation where the discourse takes place. In such case, the bilingual or the multilingual is not extremely different from the monolingual. It is simply that a speaker has to choose not only between different varieties of the same language, but also between two or more different languages (Dweik & Qawar, 2015).

Additionally, language choice is triggered by factors such as social status, gender, educational attainment, ethnicity, age, occupation, rural and urban origin, speakers, topic, place, media and formality of the situation (David, 2009).

People make linguistic choices for many objectives. Individuals and groups select words, registers, styles, and languages to outfit their numerous needs regarding the communication of ideas, the association with and separation from others, and the establishment or defence of dominance. People are endowed with the ability to adjust their linguistic repertoires to every new circumstance and construct their languages for certain purposes (Coulmas, 2005).

1.3.3. Dominant language

The language preference of a speaker is influenced by dominant languages (Ferrer & Sankoff, 2004). Therefore, most bilinguals and multilinguals may choose a dominant language as a means of communication because it provides them with greater advantage, economic benefits, social networks expansion, and better opportunities. Choosing to use a dominant language can be triggered by the wider acceptance and functions of that language. Language choice of a speaker is influenced by the dominant language. A more prestigious language is usually favoured as the medium of communication in various domains because of its wider social functions (Dweik & Qawar, 2015). Additionally, the dominant languages can be used in formal and informal domains of communication and help to gain prestige, better economic access in the community, authority and power (David, 2009).

In a multilingual society, the language spoken by a large community can be considered superior than those spoken by the minority. Most of the speakers speak the community

language. Therefore, using the community language serves more benefits to the speakers and it can be influential on their language choice because it helps them expand their social network (Dweik & Qawar, 2015).

The use of dominant language expresses impersonal messages, which forms a social distance between speakers. On the other hand, the choice of a less dominant language is useful to express personal messages because it helps the speakers to establish solidarity in interactions (Holmes, 2013).

The choice of a dominant language provides people with the prestige and the chance to socialize more with other people, which leads to a possibility of expanding the social network and gaining more economic success. Once a person becomes a member of a certain language group, this group becomes his or her social network and develops a sense of identity, which can be revealed through code choice and manner of speaking (Managan, 2004).

1.3.4. Language and social interaction

Language is fundamental for any social interaction in every society, nevertheless of location and time period. Language and social interaction have a mutual relationship: language shapes social interactions and social interactions shape language. (Eble, 2005).

Language differs to different dialects from one speech community to another. These dialects are considered to be low varieties of language and are not used in official, formal or academic speech situations (Nordquist, 2019).

1.3.4.1. Linguistic Variables

Mainly derived from the pioneering work of Labov, along with other studies from different sociolinguists such as Trudgill (1974), Detroit (1968), Wolfram (1969) and Wardhaugh (2006:143) who defined the linguistic variable as: “a linguistic item which has identifiable variants”. Years ago, before the study of urban dialectology, linguists defined linguistic variable as ‘free variation’. The word free here meant that there were no pure linguistic constraints which would predict when one variant is used rather than another. Therefore free essentially meant unconfined. (Meyerhoff 2006:10). It means that the variants cannot be predicted by any factor. However since the 1960’s with the work of Labov on Martha’s Vineyard (1963): Sociolinguists have amassed considerable evidence showing that speaker variability can be constrained by non linguistic factors. Chambers (2003:14) says that: “the most casual observations of speech show that its variants are associated with social factors”. The linguistic variable has also been defined by Chambers and Trudgill (2004:50) as: “A linguistic unit with two or more variants involved in co-variation with other social and/or linguistic variables”. Linguistic variables can often be

regarded as socially different but linguistically equivalent ways of doing or saying the same thing, and occur at all levels of linguistic analysis.

The words ‘automobile’ and ‘car’ are an example of a linguistic variable from the lexical level. Another case from the phonological level, where the variable /ng/ has two variants [ŋ] and [n] as in the word ‘singing’. We can say ‘singing’ with [ŋ] variant, or ‘singin’ with [n] variant. We might find two or even three or more variants in one linguistic variable, but this can be more complicated. Labov’s work in (1972) make a distinction between three different linguistic variables which behave in different ways and carry different social values. According to him, a variable can be considered as an indicator, a marker or a stereotype. An indicator is the most subtle type of variables, may vary with social attributes of speakers but are not socially marked. For example, in North America, some speakers make a distinction between the vowels in ‘cot’ and ‘caught’, while others do not. Labov (1972b:314) for example offers the mixture of the vowels in ‘hock’ and ‘hawk’ as an example of a sociolinguistic indicator. The degree to which these vowels are merged varies across groups and individuals, but often below the level of speaker’s conscious awareness. A marker has been shown to correlate with social features or significance like class and ethnicity, as well as with styles of speaking. People are aware of markers. Wardaugh (2006:145) stated that “markers may be potent carriers of social information”. For instance, the variable /r/ in Labov’s New York study (1966) symbols the social stratification of people. If you pronounce the [r], you belong to a high class, and those who do not pronounce it belong to a lower class. For e.g. in preconsonantal [r]: [ha:rd] vs. [ha:d], and in final [r] in car: [ka:r] vs. [ka:]. It is the opposite in Britain. The third type of linguistic variable, stereotypes, are the most marked type of variables. They are readily commented on by hearers and often become manipulated or avoided because they are stigmatized.

1.3.4.2. Social Variables

As opposed to rural dialectology, which was concerned with mapping the different geographical distribution of different linguistic features, urban dialectology came and became more interested on linguistic variation and adopted many techniques in investigating the nature of language and its relation to social factors, and this was due to Labov’s works (1963,1966, 1972a, 1972b). Maclagan (2005:15) says: Because speech is so much part of a person’s identity, it is essential that speech language pathologists are aware of the regional and social variation that is present in the speech community in which they are working, before they undertake any treatment. Language carries information on the speaker’s identity and reveals for example his or her group membership (social class) and this is what they call language variation according

to user. Thus, it is necessary and interesting to examine the factors influencing the way people speak. The concept of sociolinguistic variable is defined by Fasold (1990:223-224) as: A set of alternative ways of saying the same thing, although the alternatives, or variants, have social significance. More specifically, a sociolinguistic variable is a linguistic element that co-varies not only with other linguistic element, but also with a number of extra linguistic independent variables. Social variation involves non-regional variation. The relationship between language and social features is correlated with, or seem to influence, differences in how people use language (Eifring & Theil, 2005).

1.3.4.3. Social Class

The term social class was first widely used in the early 19th century following the industrial and political revolution of the late 18th century. Trudgill (1995:23) gave a definition to social class or stratification as follows: “a term used to refer to any hierarchical ordering of groups within a society”. Moreover, Wardhaugh (2006:148) stated that sociolinguists use a number of different scales like occupational and educational scale for classifying people when they attempt to place individuals somewhere within a social system. For example, in Algeria, because of the diglossic characteristic, linguistic variation cannot correlated with socio-economic groups, but it can classify people according to their level of education. However, in England, English speakers may guess that a speaker is of a higher or lower social status through the dialect he or she uses. Trudgill (1995:22) says that: “there are grammatical differences between the speech of two speakers which give us clues about their social backgrounds...these differences will be accompanied by phonetic and phonological differences”. Besides, he argued that: “different social groups use different linguistic varieties” (ibid).

Many descriptions of the speech characteristics of social groups have been proposed by different sociolinguists. The work of Gumperz’s (1958) in India explained a direct relationship between linguistic variation and caste membership. Additionally, Labov’s work (1966) shows that the presence and the absence of the sound /r/ in words like ‘car’ and ‘hard’ is related to the speaker’s social class. Trudgill (1995:28) says that: “linguists have known for a long time that different dialects and accents are related to differences of social class background” (ibid).

1.3.4.4. Ethnicity

An ethnic group is a group of people who are identified by a number of factors, being cultural, racial, economic, political, linguistic, religious...and may be more or less. Among these factors, we have language, which is a primary characteristic that separates groups of humans from others. Language is always an important part of cultural identity and group affiliation. According to Trudgill (1995:41): “language may be an important or even essential

concomitant of ethnic group membership”. This is a social fact, though, and it is important to be clear about what sort of processes may be involved. In some cases, for example, and particularly where language rather than varieties of a language are involved, linguistic characteristics may be the most important defining criteria for ethnic-group membership. Chambers provided the example of Canada, where two main ethnic groups identify themselves as being native speakers of English or French. Trudgill also says that: “In other cases, particularly where different varieties of the same language are concerned, the connection between language and ethnic group may be a simple habitual association, reinforced by social barriers between the groups, in which language is an important identifying characteristic”. For example the differences that can be found in the English of black and white speakers in the USA. Speakers choose consciously their own dialect in order to display their belonging and membership. The majority of black speakers tend to use the B.E.V to exhibit their ethnic identity. In a similar way, Irish speakers in Belfast prefer to interact in their own English vernacular to differentiate themselves from others. The term B.E.V was later on known as A.A.V.E, short for African American Vernacular English. In the United States, the most investigated relationship between language and ethnicity is that of A.A.V.E. Such a speech correlates with phonological and grammatical features. On a phonological level, as Hinbel (2005) said, there is often a simplification of word-final consonant clusters and stress on the first syllable rather than the second. One of the primary ethnic characteristic that may be so strong and causes a definite boundary within a group of persons that are otherwise identical is Religion. Thus, it is a real reason to list a group as a separate ethnic group. In the Arabic-speaking community, people are differentiating themselves as an ethnic group by their language Arabic, which is an important defining characteristic of ethnic group membership.

1.3.4.5. Age

Language changes over time, these changes have all been observed through diachronic studies of historical texts. Additionally, a lot of progress can be made by looking at the role of speakers’ age in synchronic studies of linguistic variation. Age plays an important role in variation, as sociolinguists declared the there is a difference between the speech of young and adults. This can be explained in the phenomenon of age grading, which explains speech appropriate to age. Sankoff says that: “Speakers might be changing various aspects of their language over the course of their lives”. The linguistic behaviour of each generation of speakers is modified at a certain stage in life. Studies of linguistic change in progress relied on the concept of apparent time; this involves analysing the speech of a structured sample of people of different ages. Labov (1994: 112) stated that “generational change is the basic model for

sound change”. Therefore, age stratification on linguistic variables can reflect change in the speech of the individual as he or she grows up. To conclude, language variation allows people as speakers to be categorised in a multi-dimensional society. Age is one of the dimensions on which we construct identities for ourselves and others. Because of the linguistic differences between male and female, gender is considered as crucial aspect in language variation.

1.3.4.6. Gender

Prior to the advent of variationist sociolinguistics, many dialectologists based their surveys almost entirely on the speech of men and excluded women. However, sociolinguists turned their attention to the language of both men and women. They become more interested on language and gender as they proved that in most societies, there are some differences between the speech of men and that of women. There are a peculiar expression for men which the woman understand but never pronounce themselves. Whereas, women have words and phrases which the men never use, or they would be laughed to scorn. Therefore, it happens that in their conversations it often seems as if women had another language than men (Coates, 2004). Both Labov, in his study of the speech of New York, and Trudgill, in his study of Norwich in England, found that: Within each social class group, and across each stylistic context studied, their female informants tended to use more ‘prestige’ or high status language features, and their male informants more vernacular language features. Women as opposed to men are likely to speak in a more prestigious way. It has often been noted that women use more of the standard forms than men do especially in western societies (Coates, 2004).

Trudgill (1995:69) says that: “Women on average use forms which more closely approach those of the standard variety or the prestige accent than those used by men”. Trudgill (ibid: 72) stated: “It has been pointed out that working class speech, like certain other aspects of working class culture in our society, seems to have connotations or associations with masculinity, which may lead men to be more favourably disposed to non-standard linguistic forms than women”. A speaker uses one variant more than another, because as Mayerhoff (2006) says, he is constituting himself as an exemplar of maleness and constituting that variant as an emblem of masculinity. Whereas women use, as Labov concludes from his work (1966), prestigious forms to gain a remarkable position in society. Trudgill pointed out that in western societies, men are evaluated more on what they do and women on how they appear. He suggested that this might make women pay more attention to stylistic markers in speech. (Meyerhoff 2006:208-209). Romaine says: Trudgill (1972) also argued that for men speaking non-standardly has “covert” prestige, while the “overt” prestige associated with speaking the standard variety is more important to women.

However, in the Arab speaking communities, the situation is not the same. In 1980's, sociolinguists started working on that area and found that: studies of synchronic variation in Arabic seemed to be showing men using more of the overtly prestigious variants associated with classical Arabic, and women using more of the variants associated with the local colloquial variety of Arabic. (Meyerhoff, 2006: 218). In addition, as Meyerhoff (2006) says, in order to understand what is happening in the Arabic speech communities, it is helpful to consider the social role of women and men. In a study of social dialect survey done by Bachir (1986) in many arab countries, in Cairo, Iraq, Damascus, and Hama (Syria). He found that even if women have been well educated, they are likely to use local variants, whereas men use the classical Arabic variants more.

1.3.5. Dialect

Algeria has a diverse and a complex sociolinguistics situation, a range variety of dialects can be found, such as the eastern dialects, western and the north dialects. For instance, the English department can be seen as a good illustration for such language varieties where students from different regions and speaking different dialects meet and interact. (Romain, 2001) The notion of Language and Dialect are fundamentally social and not linguistic constructs.

1.3.5.1. Types of dialect: Social and Regional

Dialect generally refers to the variety of a language characterized by its own distinct pronunciation, vocabulary and other grammatical features such as plural marker deletion, subject-verb agreement, use of negatives, etc. Different dialects can be formed when people are separated geographically and socially (Fromikin et al., 2003). Hence, the term dialect can be used to describe differences in speeches which are associated with geographical areas and social groups of a speaker (Wardhaugh, 2006). Besides, there are different ways of classifying dialects. One way to classify a dialect is based on the social class and geographical background of a speaker. Based on these criteria, dialects are classified as: social dialects and regional dialects (Holmes, 2013).

Meanwhile, sociolinguists differ in the distinction between language and dialect because the difference between social and regional dialect is complex. With this regard, (Wolfram, 1998), said "... the notions of regional, social and ethnic dialect are not nearly as obvious as we might assume at first glance." Due to the fact that the speakers of a language could associate themselves at the same time with a number of different groups and their varying membership may contribute to the variety of a language they use. In addition, Wolfram stated that speakers who are located within the same geographical area may associate themselves with quite different social groups and thus, speak quite disparate varieties, though they share a common

regional language variety. Moreover, (Wardhaugh, 2006) explained that defining social group or/and class is a problem since various factors such as occupation, place of residence, education, cultural background, religion, etc. are considered in defining it.

Because of such complexities, scholars generally agree that social class or regional location of a speaker are the main ways of categorizing variations within a language. Therefore, variations in a language can be classified as regional variation and social variation, or technically as regional dialect and social dialect (Holmes, 2001). According to (Wardhaugh, 2006), regional dialect is the difference that one notices while traveling through a wide geographical area in which a language is used. (Holmes, 2001) Adds that it is also used to describe the geographical distributions of various linguistic features of a language.

On the other hand, social dialect is considered as the differences that are observed in a speech associated with social group and/or class of language speakers. It is used to differentiate one social group from the other group (Lehmann, 1976). (Romaine, 2000:2) described the two saying "Social dialects say who we are, and regional dialects say where we come from." It means that regional dialect is the separation which is formed by physical condition while social dialect is the separation by social condition of a speaker.

1.3.5.2. The distinction between language and dialect

The notion of language and dialect are fundamentally social and not linguistic constructs (Romaine S., 2001).

When observing any language, it can be noticed that many varieties exist and they could be classified from the most formal and standardized to the most informal and colloquial. Making a distinction between language and dialect is one of the most difficult theoretical issues in linguistics. Sociolinguists have tried to find a solution to such a dichotomy, and there are many ways of distinguishing them.

(Wardhaugh, 2006) believed that the word language is used to refer either to a single linguistic norm or to a group of related norms, and dialect is used to refer to one of the norms. In this respect as (Hudson, 1980) said that a language is larger than a dialect. In other words, a variety called a dialect contains less items than one called a language.

Dialects are considered to be sub categories of a language. Therefore, taking English as a language, we find different dialects of it, such as: Cockney, Yorkshire etc. It is a pretty vague concept and there is no clear line between the two as there are a lot of factors that come into play (political, geographical, cultural, etc.) for better understanding of these two concepts and in order to know the distinction between them, here are their definitions:

Language is a tool consisting of a body of words as a means for people who are of the same geographical area and cultural tradition to communicate with one another, spoken, written, action, etc. whereas dialect is defined as a locale variety of language distinguished by features of vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation from other locale varieties and forming together with them a single language. The other difference between language and dialect, is that a language is more prestigious than a dialect. According to (Trudgill, 2004) a dialect is popularly considered to be a substandard, low-status, often rustic form of a language.

Many people believed that the level of prestige a variety has is dependent on whether it is used in formal writing. Varieties which are unwritten are commonly referred to as dialects, whereas those used in written form are considered to be the proper language. For instance, Standard English is only a dialect among other dialects as it differs grammatically and lexically from other varieties of English. As a result, It is important to note that this variety has no linguistic prestige over others; the given variety that has been selected depends on social rather than a linguistic factors.

In order to avoid the problem of distinguishing between language and dialect, and to avoid negative attitudes to the term dialect, sociolinguists have chosen the use of the neutral term variety. (Holmes, 2001) stated that the term ‘variety’ is linguistically neutral and covers all the different realizations of the abstract concept ‘language’ in different social contexts.

1.3.6. Language variation

Language is considered as a powerful means of communication in any speech community. It has attracted the attention of many linguists who adopted different methods of investigating the complexity of this phenomenon. It is clear that or certainly, language varies from one country to another and even within a single country, a set of different varieties could be found in the same country and even within individuals .some may have a variety of linguistic ways to express the same thing. This fact is defined by sociolinguists as language variation. In the 1960’s study of sociolinguistic variation has emerged been developed mainly as a result of inadequate methods in earlier approaches to the study of dialects, and partly as a reaction to Chomskyan linguistic theory which has neglected the study of language in its social context. Language variation, as an essential subject, has been discussed by many sociolinguists in different dimensions. The door to this study was opened by William Labov, as he focused on the study of the relationship between social structure and linguistic structure. The quantitative and qualitative method analyse and interpret the different social variables such as the speaker’s age, gender, ethnicity and the social class, and the linguistic variables namely phonological, morphological and lexical

Labov's work in 1966: *The Social Stratification of English in New York City* inspired linguists in studying language variation and thus led to the emergence of a new approach or discipline called variationist sociolinguistics. It deals with language as tool which can vary from one speaker to another. The key to this approach is to study the correlations between linguistic and social variables, i.e. to focus on the linguistic system in relation to the social aspects of the individual and context. In his new approach of linguistic variation theory Labov's intention was: 'an empirical, rigorous and reproducible approach to language as it is actually used, through a solid data and objective analyses'.

In his work, Labov opposed all those who ignore the heterogeneity of language and consider it as a set of grammatically correct sentences. Labov focused on tackling language use (performance) and language heterogeneity, i.e. variability. According to him, linguistic theory must involve not only formal linguistic structure, but also every social function that is related to language in one way or another. (Wardhaugh, 2006) said in this respect: 'A recognition of variation implies that we must recognize that a language is not just some kind of abstract object of study.' It is also something that people use. (Wardhaugh, 2006). He means that people must know that language is used by people and not only an abstract field of study.

1.3.7. Language choice in multilingual communities

More than one language is used by people in multilingual communities. It means that those who live in this situation may speak more than one language. When socialising with others, they can choose a code or a variety which is appropriate with participants, topic and location. According (Holmes, 2001) the linguistic forms chosen by a speaker is influenced by social context in which he is talking. The focus is on who he is talking to (participants), where he is talking (setting), what he is talking about (topic), and why he is talking (function of interaction). As a result, the same message may be expressed in another manner to different people. (Holmes, 2001)

1.3.8. Diglossia

In sociolinguistics, diglossia is a situation in which two distinct varieties of a language are spoken within the same speech community. Bilingual diglossia is a type of diglossia in which one language variety is used for writing and another for speech. When people are bidialectal, they can use two dialects of the same language, based on their surroundings or different contexts where they use one or the other language variety. The term diglossia (from the Greek for "speaking two languages") was first used in English by linguist Charles Ferguson in 1959. The term diglossia refers to the existence of two varieties of the same language, used under different conditions. The term was first introduced by the French linguist (Marçais, 1930) to describe the

situation of the Arab world though he did not mention the specialization function of each variety. Two decades later (1959), Ferguson was the first to introduce it in the English literature on sociolinguistics. He defined diglossia as: Two varieties of the same language exist side by side throughout the community, with each having a definite role to play. (Marçais, 1930). In addition, (Wardhaugh, 2006) described diglossia as follows: A diglossic situation exists in a society when it has two distinct codes which show clear functional separation; that is, one code is employed in one set of circumstances and the other in an entirely different set. According to (Fishman, 1967) diglossia refers to all kinds of language varieties which show functional distribution in a speech community. Diglossia, as a consequence, describes a number of sociolinguistic situations, from stylistic differences within one language or the use of separate dialects (Ferguson's 'standard-with-dialects' distinction) to the use of (related or unrelated) separate languages.

(Holmes, 1992) defined diaglossia as having three crucial features: 1. In the same language, used in the same community, there are two distinct varieties. One is regarded as high (H) and the other low (L). 2. Each is used for distinct functions. 3. No one uses the high (H) in everyday conversation.

(Hall, 2005) asserted:

Most bilinguals on the planet, for example, will use one of their languages for more informal interaction, with family and friends, and the other for more formal communication, at work, at work, or at school. Normally, the 'informal' language will have less social prestige in the community at large than the 'formal' language, which will often be an official language of the country they live in. This situation, a sharing out of linguistic resources along the 'use' dimension of my (increasingly too simple) 3D language box, is known as diaglossia, a term introduced into English by Charles Ferguson, and deriving originally from the Greek word meaning two languages.

1.3.9. Bilingualism

Across the world, most of people are bilingual or multilingual. Bilingualism is defined as the ability to use two or more languages. In fact, it looks that sociolinguists have no clear agreement about stable characteristics for being a bilingual person or to categorize a community as a bilingual one. The literature on bilingualism provides evidence that proficient bilingual speakers employ code-switching in their speeches for different purposes and at different levels, such as discourse, sentence, and words. As a point to start the discussion, (Weinreich, 1953) argues that: "the ideal bilingual switches from one language to another according to appropriate changes in the speech situation (interlocutors, topics, etc.), but not in an unchanged speech situation and certainly not within a single sentence".

In the popular view, being bilingual equals being able to speak two languages perfectly, (Bloomfield, 1933) defined bilingualism as having the control of two languages equivalent to the native and (Haugen, 1953) asserted that bilinguals are able to produce “complete meaningful utterances in the other language”. In discussing the effects of bilingualism on individuals, (Haugen, 1953) and (Suleiman, 1981) asserted that bilingualism usually occurs within some particular social setting. Contrary to this definition which includes only “perfect bilingual”, (Macnamara, 1967) proposed that a bilingual is the person who possesses a minimal competence in only one of the four language skills, listening comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing, in a language other than his mother tongue.

Another definition of bilingualism have been used by (Asha, 2004) he declared that Bilingualism is commonly defined as the use of at least two languages by an individual. Asha argues that bilingualism is when a person uses at least two languages.

1.3.9.1. Code-switching

People often are unconscious of the fact that they code-switch when their attention is drawn to this behaviour. The term code switching (or code-switching) refers to the alternation between two or more languages, dialects, or language registers in the course of discourse between people who have more than one language in common. Code-switching was introduced in the literature of bilingualism when Espinosa (1917) wrote about the speech mixture in New Mexico, particularly about the influence of the English language on New Mexican Spanish. Since then, the research in the area of bilingualism has started to investigate different aspects of code-switching. The studies conducted have focused on the social functions of code-switching (e.g. McClure, Wentz, 1975; Poplack 1981 cited in (ibid) on the role of code-switching in young children developing their bilingualism.

According to (Berns, 1990) the main purpose of language is communication. It is assumed that superior part of the world’s populace is bilingual today (Grosjean, 2010) Therefore, using two languages in the same society got a norm in the modern world. Bilingual primarily means someone with possession of two languages (Mackey, 1962) The existence of two languages in a community is a common situation in many societies (Asali, 2011). Speakers of these communities often use two languages while interacting, it means that they shift between the languages. This fact is recognized as ‘code-switching’. Code-switching may also means mixing varieties of the same language (Wardhaugh, 2006). (Wardhaugh, 2006) stated that this phenomenon is known as diaglossia. In spite of the difference between Code-switching and code-mixing there is always a confusion between these notions. Code-switching refers to a

mixture of words from different languages in one sentence, whereas code-mixing means mixture of different lexical units and grammar (Muysken, 2000).

(Christopher J, 2005) pointed out: A common phenomenon on bilingual speakers is the alternative use of both languages in daily interaction, even with a single utterance. This known as a code-switching. In this context, Christopher asserted that code-switching is when a bilingual speaker uses two languages while talking even in one sentence. In addition, According to (Callahan, 2001) code-switching Refers to:

The use of words and structures from more than one language or linguistic variety by the same speaker within the same speech situation, conversation or utterance. Conversational code-switching refers to the use of two languages by the same speaker within the same speech event. (Callahan, 2001).

Laura claimed that code-switching is when one someone uses two languages in the same context. In addition to that, (Haugen, 1950) claimed that it is very difficult to say which language the speaker is using at a given moment, because the latter is supposed to use only one language. The same idea was shared by (Weinreich, 1953) and (Mackey, 1962). Furthermore, In 1953, Uriel Weinreich, through his book “Languages in contact”, he criticized the alternation which was examined by (Barker, 1947) in Amazon; he consider it as a product of poor parenting. Following the same light of thought, Hans Vogt (1954) wrote “Language in Contact” in which he considers code-switching as a psychological phenomenon, not only a linguistic one, as he gives the following definition:

Code-switching in itself is perhaps not a linguistic phenomenon, but rather a psychological one and its causes are obviously extra linguistic. However, Bilingualism is of great interest to the linguist because it is the condition of what has been called interference between languages. (Vogt, 1954)

1.3.9.2. Types of code-switching

Three types of code-switching have been identified (Poplack, 1980):

- Tag switching – where tag parts of sentences occur in a different variety from the main part of the sentence.
- Inter-sentential switching – where a code switch occurs at a sentence or clause boundary.
- Intra-sentential switching – where a code switch occurs within a single sentence.

1.3.9.3. Reasons speakers use code switching

There are a number of possible reasons for switching from one language to another; two are described below:

- To fulfil a need: A speaker who may not be able to express him/herself in one language might switch to another to compensate for the deficiency. Consequently, the speaker may find himself triggered into speaking in the other language for a while. This type of code switching tends to occur when the speaker is upset, tired, or distracted in some manner, or when they are less fluent in one language.
- To express solidarity: Switching also commonly occurs when an individual wishes to express solidarity with a particular social group.
- To exclude others: Code switching may also be used to exclude others who do not speak the second language from a conversation. For example, if two people in an elevator in an English-speaking place spoke Spanish, then not only would the others on that elevator who do not speak Spanish be excluded from the conversation, but also a degree of comfort and intimacy would be established between the Spanish-speakers due to the fact that not all those present in the elevator can listen to their conversation.

1.4. Focus on the Reasons for Code-switching

For decades, researchers have continued to find a sound reasoning for code-switching. Some scholars like Gumperz (1982) and Auer (1984) have considered code-switching as one of a number of discourse cues (both verbal and nonverbal) that help signal and interpret interlocutors' intentions. Whereas the focus of other scholars, like Poplack (1980, 1981), Bentahila, (Davies, 1983) and (Nishimura, 1989) was to characterize the morpho-syntactical constraints in intersentential switching focusing on the position or location in a sentence where code-switching would be allowed. In the 1990s, the focus was on the social motivations for code-switching and the differences in the structural characteristics of code-switching due to the social or psycholinguistics characteristics of different groups in the community (e.g. Weinreich, 1994, on code-switching patterns of Cantonese-speaking Chinese immigrants in Tyneside in Britain), or the interaction between bilinguals proficiency and attitudes .

1.5. Conclusion

The goal of this chapter was to identify some of the components which open a door for the next chapters to be more understood and helps the researcher to make relationship between the obtained data in the third chapter and these notions in order to better analyse the findings. These notions are related to language in general and language choice in specific. The next chapter will deal with the Algerian linguistic situation.

Chapter II:
The Algerian linguistic situation

2.1. Introduction

The socio-cultural, ideological and political components of Algeria made the Algerian linguistic situation very complex and that caused the existence of a linguistic diversity. Meanwhile, The Algerian speech community is characterized by the coexistence of Algerian Arabic, Berber and French, The sociolinguistic and socio-cultural fact of the Algerian community denies totally the notion of the Arabization policy. Certainly, the effect of the French language and culture lead to the existing of various linguistic phenomena that occur when two or more languages are in Contact.

Therefore, this chapter will tackle concisely the Algerian linguistic situation. It sheds light on the languages used in Algeria and the famous historical events that influence the policy of language in the Algerian educational system. Moreover, it shed light on the languages that occur in Algeria, rather than their statuses given by the Algerian authorities. Such as the the status of Classical Arabic as the official language of the country after the independence from the French colonies and the Algerian Arabic, dialect and Berber.

2.2. The Algerian linguistic profile.

Algeria is a multilingual country, there are some factors that influence its linguistic situation such as historical, socio-cultural and political ones. Years ago, many invaders from different countries settled in Algeria; French, Spanish, Turkish etc, but the French settlement was the one that resisted for a long time.

Berber was the first language of North Africans. According to some historians, the indigenous people of the area were the Berbers who lived here for more than 4000 years. In the mid7th century, The Arab invaders introduce Islam and Arabic to North Africa in general and to Algeria in particular, and that was a great event. Nowadays, Algeria become a member of the Arabic Muslim world and make Arabic as the the national language of the country. Although Arabic was spread, some areas maintained their Berber vernaculars and continue to be used. The major Berber varieties are Kabylean, spoken in Kabylie mountains: the Kabyles represent the largest group of Berber; the Chaoui in the Aures range, and the Mzabi in the south. About 15% of the Algerian population speak Berber, The constitutional amendment recognized Berber as a national language since May 2002 because of the social demand for that, and till now the Berbers fight to assert their existence as a distinct ethnic group.

Arabic appears in three forms which fulfil different sets of function: CA, the language of the Quran; MSA, a simplified version of the former is used in formal situations, generally associated with media and school enterprise; and Algerian Arabic in the form of a wide range of mutually intelligible geographical dialects restricted to informal contexts used spontaneously

by the Algerian speakers to communicate. This situation and the relationship between MSA and its colloquial dialects is called diglossia by sociolinguists, a complex and intricate situation that will be discussed in detail in the first chapter.

In order to have a clear image about the linguistic situation in Algeria, it is necessary to throw light on the most striking event that left a great impact on the Algerian society; it is the French colonization of the territory. Although the French language has no official status in Algeria today, it is so widespread that you can hear everywhere in the country. The French settlers have tried to remove the Arabic language and replace it with French as the official language and Arabic as a foreign one. Their main aim and their policy was to exclude Arabic from any official use or educational practice, because as Chomsky says:

“questions of language are basically questions of power”.

The French controlled Algeria through a policy of cultural imperialism and suppression of the Algerian cultural identity yet, after Algeria got its independence, the government began a policy of linguistic Arabisation in the sake of showing that Algeria is an Arabic and Muslim country by establishing Arabic as the official language of the country. However, the Algerian society has been deeply affected by the French colonisation so that even after the departure of the colonists, they still use French. Moreover, as French is considered and believed to be a prestigious variety this language is widely used by people who live in the urban cities.

The maintenance of French in Algeria can be understood as resistance to the domination of Arabisation. The aims of Arabisation were French and the first languages of Algerians (Algerian Arabic and Berber). The existence and spread of both first languages could be defined as an illustration of covert and/or overt resistance to the Arabisation policy. Contrary to Algeria's language policy first came from the Berber-speaking minority, the Kabylis. They started with an armed struggle against the central authorities in 1963–1964 under the banner of the newly formed party the Socialist Forces Front (FFS in French). The 1963–1964 dramatic turning point announced language-in-education planning in Algeria and repetitive unrest in the Kabylis region. The quick policy of Arabisation and its rushing with Mostefa Lacheraf's replacement by a 'token' Kabylis kindled rebellion in Kabylia (Tabory & Tabory, 1987). After the annulment of Mouloud Mammeri's lecture by the authorities on ancient Tamazight poetry which was to be held at the University of Tizi Ouzou in March 1980, in the spring of 1980, a series of rebellions were sparked and several demonstrations were planned. These had been followed by a number of oppressive actions against the Berber language and culture. In January 1971, The Circle of Berber Studies at Algiers University was stopped and its Berberist leaders arrested; the chair of Berber studies at Algiers University was abolished in 1973. The prevention of the local population got its climax with the suppression of Mammeri's

lecture. The 1980 convulsions, identified as the Berber Spring, turned out to be the first main destabilisation of the system and announced the 1988 October uprisings which led to the termination of the single-party socialist system and to governmental liberalisation. Before the Berber Spring, a form of passive resistance expressed in language use had been adopted by Berberphones. The use of Arabic were banned by Tamazight-speaking parents for their children at home (Kahlouche, 2004) and resistance spilled over into the streets of Algiers where Berberphones deliberately spoke French or Tamazight in cafes, restaurants, hotels and certain administrative sectors (Harbi, 1980). After 1980, under the ideological guidance of the Berber Cultural Movement (MCB in French), Berberphones call for a political liberalisation as a way to guarantee their linguistic and cultural rights within a democratic Algeria (Maddy-Weitzman, 2001). In addition, they ask for the official gratitude of Algerian Arabic and Tamazight whereas they rejected the Arabisation of the educational system because of its 'de-Frenchifying' objectives and its helplessness to convey democratic and secular ideals (Mahe, 2001). After the political liberalisation of post-October 1988, two Departments of Berber Language and Culture were shaped, one at the University of Tizi Ouzou in January 1990 and the other at the University of Bejaia in October 1991 (Chaker, 1998: 150; Kahlouche 2000: 158; Tigziri 2002). Between September 1994 and April 1995, the MCB organised a general strikes and paralysed the entire educational sector in Kabylia. As a result, 234 mohamed benrabahthe government decreed the creation of an administrative structure, the High Commission for Berber Affairs (HCA in French) to be attached to the president's office (Cherrad-Bencheфра & Derradji, 2004). The purposes of the HCA were to assimilate the Berber culture and announce the Tamazight language in education and the media (Maddy-Weitzman, 2001). A promise for a future recognition of Berber have been also done. Seven years later (April 2002) resulting uprisings in spring 2001, President Bouteflika's government institutionalised it as a national (though not official) language.

The teaching of Tamazight organised by the HCA was marked by a great deal of haste and improvisation because the Berber language lacked an official status and proper planning institutions (Kahlouche, 2000, Tigziri, 2002:). The situation changed after it became a national language. from September 2003 and the establishment of the application of measures of the recommendations prepared by the CNRSE, Tamazight has been taught as a subject in Middle Schools nationally (Benrabah, 2005). A year after, French was lastly presented as the first compulsory foreign language in Grade Two of the primary cycle with 3 hours a week while English was introduced as the second mandatory foreign language in Grade Six. The authorities also employed 1,500 French teachers to meet the demand for French language teaching (Cherfaoui, 2004). Meanwile, the reintroduction of French as a medium of instruction for

scientific disciplines in secondary education is not on the agenda yet because of the pressure exerted from the pro-arabisation quarters. However, A major move has been made against this lobby by the government. Since September 2005, the Ministry of Education has discontinued the Islamic/religious courses in the secondary cycle and their respective exams in the Baccalaureate .In August 2003, Article 6 of Ruling No.03-09 allowed private schools which provided strong forms of bilingual education and which had so far existed in a legal vacuum (Nassima, 2003).

The French language is used in scientific and business university courses, regarded as the language of science and technology. Even after independence, French continued to be used for about ten years in education to teach all subjects (Arabic was taught as a 2nd language). Whereas, in 1971 the process of Arabisation started to be practical. Almost immediately, French started to be taught as a 2nd language. At first the ministry decided to teach the French language as a subject from the fourth year of the primary level. However, recently it began to be taught from the third year, almost as early as children are taught MSA. So with the existence of at least three languages, Algeria is then considered as a multilingual country.

2.3. Languages used in Algeria

The sociolinguistic situation in Algeria is characterized by the presence of three languages: Arabic with its different varieties: Classical Arabic (CA), Algerian Arabic (A.A), modern standard Arabic (M.S.A), then Berber (B), and French (FR).

2.3.1. Arabic

The Arabic language is considered as of the powerful languages in the world as concerns the wealth of its vocabulary. It belongs to the Semitic sub group of the Afro-Asiatic group of world languages. It is the native tongue of more than 200 million people worldwide, and the official language of more than 20 countries in a region stretching from western Asia to the north of Africa. Before the Islamic eras, Arabic was spoken mostly in the Arabian Peninsula, where it was the a mean of a great tradition of poetry, then with the upswing of Islam, it extended north into the Levant, east into Iraq and west into the north of Africa due to the Islamic conquests in the mid7th century and later. There are three distinct forms of Arabic: classical Arabic, modern standard Arabic and spoken or colloquial Arabic.

2.3.1.1. Classical Arabic

After the independence of Algeria, Arabic was expected to replace French which was the official language for many years. The Algerian Nationalists tried to point out the Arabisation

process among various domains, starting from Education, Administration, Media and Economics. However, this plan led to the appearance of two opposing camps; the first camp include people who wanted to get rid of any kind of the colonial heritage as well as, they aimed at preserving the Algerian nationality. In the other hand, the second camp which included those who were against the Arabisation process because they thought that the choice of Arabic means a backward step, and they claimed that the Arabic language can inhibit or it is not proper to the improvement of the country. Classical Arabic has a prominent place because it is the language of the Holy Quran. It needed vivacity and nobody in the Arab world is brought up speaking Standard Arabic as his mother tongue, the regional or social variety of Arabic will be mother tongue of an Arab child of its home province. Whereas, Standard Arabic is learnt formally at school or at home as unless is it is mastered at all part of the child's education. In addition to that, In fact, the Arabisation process aimed at eliminating the French language which has pervaded all domains in the country. Belarbi Khaled (2012)

2.3.1.2. Algerian Arabic

AA is a vernacular form derived from CA. It represents the mother tongue of the majority of the Algerians who use it in their daily life interactions. It is also called Daridja, which is a mixture of various languages which have existed on the Algerian community through its history, such as Spanish, Berber, and French. Nowadays, AA is pervaded by the French language from which it has taken large amounts of borrowed words and expressions.

2.3.1.3. Modern Standard Arabic

Classical Arabic is different from modern standard Arabic in style and vocabulary, since each one represents the written form traditions of different historical and cultural eras. Classical Arabic is different from modern standard Arabic in style and vocabulary,

In 1963 the Algerian constitution specify that modern standard Arabic is the official language of Algeria, and this was retained in the 1976 constitution in article 3 "Arabic is the national and official language". Moreover, the modern standard literacy Arabic (MSLA), is used in the press and other media such as television and radio channels, conferences, socio-economic or political meetings. Modern Standard Arabic does not occur only in Algeria, but also through the Maghreb communities.

2.3.2. French

Due to the French colonization which lasted more than 130 years, the French language existed in Algeria during all this period. At that time, the invaders imposed their language on the Algerian citizens, and make it the official language of the country. It may look like that the

French planned to assimilate the Algerians by getting them to their culture and language. Nonetheless, French language in Algeria still plays an important role in the community in different domains, and it still considered as the language of modernism and improvement.

French is a part within the standard school curriculum, and is extensively understood 18 million Algerian people are able to write and read French, which represents 50% of the population, and the figure is upper if those who can only speak and understand it are involved; Ethnologue point out that 10 200 people in Algeria speak it as their native language, generally 'pied-noirs' who stayed behind and people raised in French-speaking households.) Some two-thirds of Algerians have a 'fairly broad' comprehension of French while the half speak it as a second language. French is extensively used in media and commerce. It is widely used and spoken in everyday life in Algeria's bigger cities, In diglossic combination with Algerian Arabic. Malika Rebai Mammri, Author of **The Syndrome of the French Language in Algeria**, claimed that French continues to be the dominant language in business and professional circles. He also stated that certain aspects of formal education and research are still carried in the French language and a great part of the economic and industrial sectors and press still use French extensively.

2.3.3. Berber

The two official languages in Algeria are recognized as Modern Standard Arabic and Tamazight (Berber). The constitutional amendment on May 8, 2002 made Berber a national language of Algeria. More than 99% of Algerians have Berber and Algerian Arabic as their native languages. About 73% of the country's population speaks Algerian Arabic while 27% speak Berber. The Algerian government also uses French as do the media and schools.

2.3.3.1. Berber-speaking areas in Algeria

Since antiquity, The Berber languages are considered as the native language of Algeria These languages are spoken in five major dialects in many regions of the territory, It mainly in Kabylia, in the Awras, and in the Algerian Sahara desert by Algerian Tuaregs.

Before, during and after Phoenician settlers' arrival, Berber remained spoken throughout ancient Algeria (Numidia), as later attested by early Tifinagh (or Libyco-Berber) inscriptions, and as understood from Latin and Greek historical sources. thought the Latin and later Arabic were still present and grow, In some urban regions, Berber stick at the majority language of Algeria since ancient times till well the French invasion in 1830.

Until 2002, Arabic continued to be the Algeria's only official language. At that time, Berber was remained as a second national language. Later on, In 2016 Berber was recognized as a second official language of Algeria.

The 1963 constitution and the 1976 constitution do not declare Berber and French. The Permanent Committee on Geographical Names for British Official Use (PCGN) indicated that official attitudes towards both Berber and French were mainly negative and that the Algerian authorities have even at periods banned the use of the very word Berber, either on the secular estates that the term undermines national unity, or on the religious estates that it is a word aggressive to Identity and have a preference to call it Tamazight another name for Berber. French and Berber are the main languages regularly used in the Kabylie region.

2.3.3.2. The Berber languages / dialects spoken in Algeria include:

In the north

- ❖ Kabyle, almost 5 million speakers typically in Kabylie and bordered regions, due to Kabyle immigration outside of the Kabyle region in Algeria and Europe, some approximations are as high as 8 million.
- ❖ Chaouia, also called Tachawit and Chawi in the Aurès, perhaps 2 million speakers.
- ❖ Chenoua, in the Dahra region, particularly of Jebel Chenoua in Algeria, just west of Algiers near Tipaza province and Cherchell and the Chlef, estimated 56,300 speakers. Two main dialects: Beni Menacer, west and south of Mount Chenoua area, in Mount Chenoua area, About 55,250 speakers.
- ❖ The Tamazight of Blida, traditionally spoken in the wilaya of Blida.
- ❖ The Matmata dialect, spoken in some villages of the Ouarsenis region.
- ❖ **In the extreme northwest**
- ❖ Beni Snous and Beni Said, dialects of Berber spoken in various villages of the wilay of Tlemcen.
- ❖ **In the Sahara**
- ❖ Mozabite (Tumzabt) in the M'zab.
- ❖ language of Touat and Gourara (called "Taznatit" by the Ethnologue, but that name is used for most of the Zenati languages)
- ❖ language of Touggourt and Temacine
- ❖ Tamahaq, among the Tuareg of the Hoggar (see Tuareg languages)

2.3.4. English

English is considered as one of the two of the two global lingua francas along with French, therefore, It is taught from the middle school years onward. Currently, English is taught from the first year of the middle school, yet, just a small number of Algerian speaks English, particularly the earlier generation.

2.4. History of languages in Algerian education

In 1962, Ahmed ben Bella the first President of Algeria, announced Arabization within the education system in 1962. Then, during 1963-1964 period The Arabic language was presented in all levels and all programmes. Before that, the time in the educational system used up on French slowly declined. In 1964-1965 primary grade one was completely Arabized along with entirely other levels each getting ten hours of Arabic per period. The strategies were complex by the flight of 25,000 European teachers from Algeria and the illiteracy percentage of 90%. The plans were complicated by the demographics. 1 million were capable to read French and 6 million were capable to speak French whereas, 10 million Algerians, approximately 300,000 were fluent in Modern Standard Arabic. To remedy this, the Algerian government borrowed 10,988 academic monitors. Gallagher C.F, The author of (North African problems and prospects: Language and identity) declared that the monitors' intellectual horizons [were] at times only slightly less limited than their pupils. In 1963, 1,000 Egyptians were employed as Arabic teachers by the government. Moreover, The writer of (Language-in-Education Planning in Algeria: Historical Development and Current Issues) Mohamed Barambah, the writer of (Language-in-Education Planning in Algeria: Historical Development and Current Issues), stated that 'Most of these teachers turned out to be unqualified for teaching and totally ignorant of the Algerian social reality'. He added 'Their spoken Egyptian Arabic was incomprehensible to Algerians in general and Tamazight-speaking populations in particular and their traditional pedagogy (learning by rote and class recitation, physical punishment and so on) proved inadequate'. Moreover, the teachers were affiliates of the Muslim Brotherhood and introduced Islamist thought in Algeria, The principal level two was completely Arabized by The Minister of Education Ahmed Taleb Ibrahim. Consequently, many parents postponed registration of their children in school until grade three when they could have an advanced educational quality and where the French language was still dominant.

The Algerian government had plans to totally Arabize the university sector effective December 1980. In all levels of education, bilingual education ended in 1985, In that period many Algerian elites practiced "elite closure" by sending their own children to schools controlled by the French government while promoting Arabization for the masses, as a result, Their own children would acquire French and have more higher opportunities to access jobs open to those with French knowledge. Since most young Algerians had a poor command of French and were in Arabized school streams, they enrolled in Arabic-language university departments such as Islamic law and Arabic literature and were exposed to Islamist point of views. Algiers had many privately bilingual primary and secondary schools and Benrabah declared that the elite closure practice was "most visible in Algiers". In 1988, Algerian nationals

and children of mixed Algerian and French people were officially banned from attending "French Mission of Algeria" schools by the Algerian government. President Chadli Bendjedid ruled that Algerian nationals were not allowed to attend all-French schools. The French lycée of Algiers moved from one region to another. The Lycée Cheikh Bouamama, originally called the Lycée Descartes, took in students from the tchitchi (children of wealthy) backgrounds instead of bohi ("rejects"). After being nationalized, It helped members of the educational, military, and political leaders. After Chadli's decree, the school had a secret program which placed higher emphasis on French than other Algerian secondary schools did. Many students in the program attended universities abroad after graduation.

A survey was conducted by Algerian authorities in which they stated that 75% of the population encouraged teaching scientific school subjects in the French language. By the middle of March 2001, French was proposed by the National Commission for the Reform of the Educational System (CNRSE according to its French name) to be reintroduced in grade two of the primary cycle, serving 6-7 year olds, rather than grade four, serving 8-9 year olds, and that scientific subjects in secondary school should be taught in French. Therefore, students would be biliterate in French and Arabic instead of having French as a subject. Next, a fatwa was declared in 2002 by opponents to the bilingual educational proposal against the pro-bilingual supporters. The reforms were intended to be implemented in September 2001. However, on 3 September 2001, The Ministry of the Interior suspended them .By 2008 the Algerian government began reintroducing French in the school system.

2.5. The status of English in the Algerian educational System

Today, it is very essential to know a language as the world become a small area. Taking into consideration that the role of English in the every community is becoming progressively important. At first, English is regarded as the language of New Media (e.g. Satellite TV, and Internet). (Tiersky and Tiersky 2001) stated that about 1,5billion people speak it and it is the language of international communication in business, diplomacy, technology, sports, travel and entertainment. Thus, the emphasis on teaching English is becoming a crucial part of education all over the world. Taking the case of Algeria, it in noticed that of the Ministry of Education recognise the growing importance which English nowadays plays in the world. Many changes have occurred concerning the subject of teaching English after the announcement of the educational reform in 2001 by the Ministry of Education. English has received considerable attention within the educational Reform, However, is still considered to be the second foreign language in the Algerian Educational System after French.

Most of all, English is introduced at the level of first year middle school (at the age of 11). It is taught for seven years, Four of years at the middle school and three at the secondary school. This as part of a whole process consisting of designing new syllabuses, devising new textbooks and accompanying documents.

2.5.1. Language contact and dynamics

Whenever speakers of different linguistic systems talk to each other, then it is clear that these languages influence each other. Speakers of one language may be influenced by the other language by introducing to it new features or words, a process called borrowing. For example in Algeria, and after a hundred and thirty two years of French colonization, the French language is today commonly used by the Algerian people and in a spontaneous way, sometimes the Algerian speakers use French without even knowing that they are speaking French. This is due to the great number of French loanwords that have entered Algerian Arabic. Language contact can also cover many phenomena such as bilingualism and code switching.

2.5.2. Bilingualism in Algeria

There are three different forms in the Algerian Bilingualism which are: CA\FR bilingualism, AA\F and B\F bilingualism. In such conditions, the varieties are in parallel distribution which means that they are used for the same purposes. It is noticed that French is part of all these bilingual situations. Therefore, there is dominant bilingualism; those speakers, who learned only French during the colonization era, are dominant bilinguals because their mastery of the French language is better than the other languages whereas the generations who came after the independence, their dominance is CA.

2.5.3. Diglossia in the Algerian speech

Diglossia is concerned with two varieties of the same language. One form is considered as high and another as low. As we have already mentioned, the official language in Algeria is Classical Arabic. In addition to it, there are many other regional varieties .Each region has its own dialect. However, almost no one in Algeria uses CA, which is considered as an official form of Arabic that is used in special settings whereas Algerians used to speak their dialectal Arabic in ordinary conversations.

In 1930, Marçais used the term diglossia to describe the linguistic situation in Arabic-speaking countries. In 1959, the English equivalent diglossain was introduced by the sociolinguist Charles A. Ferguson, using the word as the title of an article.

Arabic language appears under two perceptibly different aspects :1) aliterary languages or called written Arabic or regular or literal or classical, the only one That had always and

everywhere been written in the past, the only one in which still today are written literary or scientific works, newspaper articles, Judiciary acts, private letters, in a word, everything that is written, but which exactly as it is, has perhaps never been spoken anywhere, and which in any case, is not Spoken no wanywhere;2) spoken idioms, patois...none of which As ever been written...but which everywhere and perhaps for a long time are the only language of conversation in all popular and cultural circles. (Marçais, 1930)

2.6. EFL students' speaking difficulties

Today, the role English language become very important, since it is considered as a global language. For this reason it is taught to many learners as a foreign language. Speaking is considered to be one of the challenging skills to develop for the majority of first year EFL students who are unskilled in expressing themselves orally in English. EFL students may face some problems while speaking, especially outside the classroom setting. This can happen due to many factors such as difficulties either in linguistic features of the language, such as lack of vocabulary, misuse of grammar and pronunciation mistakes, or in their psychological factors.

2.6.1. Linguistic problems

Linguistic factors are considered to be strong features influencing students speaking proficiency, as what Thorunbury proposes, “ being skillful assumes having some kinds of knowledge base (...) Knowledge that is relevant to speaking can be categorized either as knowledge of features of language(linguistic knowledge) or knowledge that is independent of language (extra linguistic knowledge)”(2005, p. 11). That is to say, if a student lacks the linguistic features, he will not perform well in speaking, and face difficulties, which are identified as following:

2.6.1.1. Deficient vocabulary

Learning a foreign language involves accumulating a great amount of vocabulary. However, EFL students often face difficulties the appropriate words when they try to communicate. They also find themselves possessed limited vocabulary and expressions, which affect negatively on their participation in speaking and expressing thoughts. However, due to the lack of vocabulary which many students have they become unable to show and share their opinions with others in a relaxed way. The reasons behind that problem lie to lack of reading books, listening to English music, discussing with friends outside the university walls, watching English movies and using dictionaries. In addition to that, Students think, they organize their ideas in Arabic which make them produce collocations in English. Those collocations, are most of the time incorrect and inappropriate.

2.6.1.2. Grammatical mistakes

Although teaching grammar often takes the main focus on the process of learning a foreign language, But many EFL learners are not able to produce correct grammatical sentences, this is due to the ignorance of the rules and instructions, such as: the use of two negatives in the same sentence, the miss-use of modifiers, the production of fragment sentences and the mixture between tenses. Therefore, the inappropriate grammar leads to misunderstanding communication. In many situations, they give up speaking due to the fear of making grammatical mistakes in front of their partners. In this case, they prefer to keep silent instead put themselves in an embarrassing situation.

2.6.1.3. Pronunciation mistakes

Good pronunciation is an important element in speaking a language because it helps the speaker to be understood when he articulates words. However, EFL students usually fall in miss pronunciation because of the difficulty of rules, or to their poor listening. Therefore, they do not take a risk to speak avoiding to be judged in their pronunciation.

2.6.2. Psychological problems

There are distinct psychological problems that stand as obstacles of speaking a foreign language. These problems include different feature such as lack of self-confidence, lack of interest in the subject, and anxiety etc.

2.6.2.1. Lack of self-confidence

Self-confident students usually like to present their speaking capacities without caring about situations they put themselves in. However, many students prefer avoiding expressing their thoughts and opinions orally because they do not believe in their speaking abilities, and fear that they may break their good image. For instance, often times, students know the appropriate answer of the activities, but due to lack of confidence, they prefer to keep silent or ask their partners to answer instead of them.

2.6.2.2. Anxiety

Language anxiety is a condition of feelings of uneasiness and worry that comes to students when try to speak. The anxious student feels uncomfortable when he is supposed to speak in front of others. He usually avoids any oral contact with his colleagues, which may affect negatively on his communicative performance.

In speaking, adults are different with kids where they tend to feel anxious whenever they make mistakes especially in public situation because it is related to an image and judgement

from different people concerning their capability in performing their speaking (Latha, 2012). In addition, there is also a possibility of losing face and accepting ignorance from people who speak the second/foreign language if their speaking cannot be understood or not acceptable.

2.6.3. The Use of the Mother Tongue

It is obvious that EFL learners rely on the use of their mother tongue in classrooms rather than the target language because of their shyness, lack of proficiency, or being demotivated to communicate.

2.6.4. Motivation

Motivation is considered as the desire of the students in learning a language. It is not enough when the students just have the desire to learn the language, the students also need to provide a great effort to reach their goal (Ortega, 2009). In learning second/foreign languages, motivation can be divided into two factors, they are communicative needs of the students and their attitudes towards the language community (Lightbrown & Spada, 2001). In this case, the students will be motivated in learning a second/foreign language just because they need to learn and communicate it in a social large scale to support their professional ambition in the future. Thus, students need to have a good attitude toward people who speak the target language because they need to have a contact with them. To sum up, if the students are highly motivated to speak and use the target language which is English they would be self-confident and so this will influence their decision to practice the language skills by using it outside the classroom.

2.6.5. Lack of interest in subject

Sometimes, the subject of communication influences on the students speaking participation either inside or outside classroom. Insufficient information about the topic or the unfamiliarity with it, drive the speaker to lose the interest to discuss it. In this context, Ur declares that “The first thing to do to encourage fluency is to bring interesting subjects of the conversation to classroom (...). This means that, students need a reason to speak more than they need something to speak about” (1981, p. 5). That is to say, if students have a negative attitude towards the topic, they will not be expected to perform well in speaking.

2.7. Conclusion

This chapter sheds the light on the Algerian linguistic situation. Then, it throw light on EFL students' speaking difficulties.

As a conclusion to this chapter, the sociolinguistic situation of Algeria has been influenced by the successive invaders who brought to it a linguistic heritage that remained in today's Algerian languages. It is noticed that French language is still remaining and used in various domains such education, administrations, media because it was dived so deep in the Algerian society. Finally, the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria is characterized by its complication and multiplicity due to the coexistence of different languages throughout its ground.

Chapter III:
Research design and data analysis

3.1. Introduction

The following chapter is about the analysis of results obtained through investigating students' opinions and attitudes toward proposed contexts, with the focus being on English's use outside the classroom. Previously in the first chapter, the study tackled language choice in sociolinguistic studies by presenting a brief review of literature. Next, in the second chapter it dealt with the Algerian linguistic situation. Therefore, the final step will move to the more practical aspect of this research. It is based on two procedures for data collection, which are: questionnaires and observation for students, since they represent the main variables in our study, and their opinions will help us to confirm whether the hypotheses are true or false.

3.2. Research design

For the purpose of proving the hypotheses of this research right or wrong, data and information had to be gathered from our population of study: students of English language at the University of Dr. Moulay Tahar, SAIDA. They were asked a variety of questions through a questionnaire, and records of Facebook posts over a period of three months. The questions of the questionnaire can be categorized into the following topics:

- A. Language choice outside the classroom
- B. Attitudes towards English language use outside the classroom.

First, students were asked questions that are considered contributing factors in their choice of using English such as gender, the reason behind their choosing to study English since the most common way to acquire the language is through higher education studies, and competency in the English.

Next, students were asked questions about their actual use of language. Questions were designed to elicit the subjective contributing factors to such use. Students were given direct questions such as "do you use English outside the classroom?" and why? Also, in what language they set up their personal electronic devices, and how often they use words or expressions in their everyday conversations, and with whom.

Then, students were asked a question related to the context they express themselves within and interact with. The question aimed to determine whether students have opportunities to use the language or not, so as to determine the focus of this research to be whether on internal factors related to the classroom, or external factors which teachers will try to tackle and enhance.

The questionnaire is divided into two sections each of them deals with a particular aspect. The first section is about the personal information, the second section is about language choice and use.

In addition to the questionnaire, students' interaction outside the classroom was observed using records of students' Facebook posts and comment made public by them or shared within social networks groups.

3.3. Research tools

The use of online surveys is not possible within the local context in which this research took place. This is due to the population of study being unable to access the online platform designed for such a purpose, and the mastery of ICT skills, which the researcher lacks. Therefore, the most common ways for data collection at the University of Dr. Moulay Tahar, SAIDA are questionnaires and interviews. For this research, screen shots of some posts and comments posted on Facebook profiles of the students will be captured then used as an observation, and questionnaires will be distributed among students of English at the University of Dr. Moulay Tahar, SAIDA.

“A questionnaire is a mean of eliciting the feelings, beliefs, experiences, perceptions, or attitudes of some sample of individuals. As a data collecting instrument, it could be structured or unstructured”. The structured questionnaire has a closed or restricted form. The answers are either by yes or no, short sentences, or items to check. The unstructured questionnaire has the form of open and unrestricted answers. The population is free to respond by what seems to be their own answer without guidance by the researcher. (Key, 1997) The questionnaire proposed for students of the department of English at the University of SAIDA included structured, semi-structured, and unstructured questions.

The second instrument used in this research work is observation. (Milroy & Gordon, 2008) Stated that: “Participant observation can be an enormously fruitful method for sociolinguistic analysis. It produces a tremendous supply of high quality data and crucial insight into community dynamics”. Indeed, observation has given us deeper understanding of the community under investigation. The objective of such a method is “to understand the sociolinguistic dynamics of the community from the perspective of the community itself”. (Schilling-Estes, 1996).

The difficulty of this method is the problem of analysing the results, this is why other approaches are needed to be combined with such a method.

3.3.1. Students' questionnaire

The following is a description of the aims, a description, and the administration of the questionnaire that was distributed among Third year EFL students of English.

a. Aims of the Students' questionnaire

This questionnaire aims at exploring students' ideas and opinions about language choice outside the classroom and mainly about their attitudes towards English outside the classroom.

b. Description of the Questionnaire

The sample of study among learners was intended to be 50 in number, with the intention of distributing 10 questionnaires among each level of study (from third year EFL students). However, the number of questionnaires distributed reached 28 due to the fact that the majority of learners couldn't be contacted since most of them were on strike following the political situation which Algeria is going through.

The whole questionnaire deals with students' attitudes toward language choice outside the classroom. It begins with an introductory paragraph which explains the aim of the questionnaire and instructions for the students about what they are expected to do. The questionnaire is made up of 08 questions of two types "closed" and "open ended" questions. The first type requires the students to answer by «yes" or "no" or to tick up the right answer from a set of options. In the second, students are expected to offer their opinion and justify about different subjects concerning the subject.

c. Administration of the questionnaire

The researcher have administered the questionnaire to third -year English students at Dr Moulay Tahar university of SAIDA. The selection of such sample was based on the consideration that third year pupils have already experienced in having studying English language for two years, that may have been gathered enough vocabulary to express their thought. They are (28) students. The questionnaire took the students nearly 10 minutes of their time which is largely enough for them to answer. It was administered in a friendly and relaxed environment. The questions were clear enough in order to help the students understand and thus provide appropriate answers. Subjectivity absence of students' intentions

3.3.2. Observation of students' language choice outside the classroom

As far as the research topic focus on the outside classroom context. Thus, the researcher decided to observe the student's posts and comments in social networks, Facebook in particular, posted during the period of Mars, April and May. Six Facebook profiles have been chosen, 03 profiles of males and 03 of females. The analysis of the data obtained from the observation is discussed in the following title.

3.4. Analysis of the questionnaire's results

In order to have fruitful results from the questionnaire that has been used as a tool for this research, the following step is to analyse the students responses with the goal of drawing useful conclusion that could help in better understanding the subject treated in this research.

3.4.1. Section one: personal information

My intention was to find out whether there is a relationship between the personal information that include the gender and place of residence with my research topic. However, due to the strike that took place in our university during the last months, I could only elicit data from female students from SAIDA and this made the questions about gender and place of residence redundant.so, I decided to exclude the personal information section from my analysis.

3.4.2. Section two: Students proficiency and language choice (use).

The tables that follow represent detailed statistics about the whole sample of questionnaires collected from students. Data displayed in the tables show the entire number and percentage of each choice within each question.

The following table displays the choices of students about their reasons for choosing English. Students were given the possibility to choose more than one option, and / or to write down a reason not stated in the options

Question 1: I chose to study English in order to: (You may tick more than One option).

Options	Number of students	%
Communicate with foreigners	16	57.14
Improve my job opportunities	18	64.28
Learn an international language	20	71.42
Other purposes	2	07.14

Table 3.1: Students' reasons for choosing English studies

According to the table above, 57.14% of students chose to study English in order to communicate with foreigners while others 64.28 % justified their choice by aiming at improving a job opportunities. However, the high percentage 71.42 % goes to the third choice where the majority of the sampling claimed that they chose to study English because it is an international language and this result shows that EFL students are more aware about the importance of English language. Only 07.14% of them have other purposes (most of them chose English because they like it so much).

The other purposes:

1. I like this language too much.
2. Because English is a door for many life opportunities
3. Because I feel free when expressing in English, I feel it a vivid language.

The next question was about student's competency in Arabic, French, and English. The following table shows the findings:

Question 2: How do you consider your competency in the following languages?

	Very good	Good	Average	Poor	Very poor
<i>Arabic</i>	60,17	28.57	10.71	0	0
<i>French</i>	10.71	21.42	21.42	28.57	7.14
<i>English</i>	46.42	42.85	10.71	0	0

Table 3.2: Students' proficiency in Arabic, French, and English

The above results revealed that students rate their competency as follows:

First of all, 60.17% of the students see that their competency is "very good" in Arabic, 28.57% of them declared that their competency in Arabic is "good" whereas none of the students stated that their competency is "poor" nor "very poor" in this language.

Secondly; as far as to the French language 10.71% of the population stated that their competency is "very good" while 21.42% opted for "good" and the same percentage opted for "average". Furthermore, a large number of them 28.57% affirmed that their competency in French is "poor" while only 7.14% opted for "very poor". This results shows that EFL students competency become lower than years before, they become less interested in this language thought it is the second language in Algeria.

Thirdly, 46.42% of the sampling stated that their competency in English is "very good" while 42.85% of them believed that their competency in this language is "good". In addition, only 10.71% of the students stated that is it "average" however, none of the students neither opted for "poor", nor "very poor".

The next question was about students' use of English outside the classroom. They were asked the question whether they use it with friends or not, since peers and friends are the most likely to use English with. The following table shows the findings

Question 3: Do you use English to speak with your friends outside the classroom?

Options	Number of students	%
Yes	22	87.57
No	6	21.42

Table 3.3: Students' use of English outside the classroom

According to the table above, a high number of students which represent 87.57 % agreed that they use English to speak with friends outside the classroom, on the other hand, 21.42% said that they don't use it for this purpose, they justified their responses as follows:

→ Why?**Those who said yes, argued the following:**

- Increase my skills specially speaking skill.
- Sometimes to make jokes.
- Improve my skills.
- To practice pronunciation.
- In order To improve my English.
- To exchange information.
- To learn more.
- To increase my ability to communicate well.
- To improve my language and not be afraid of doing mistakes.
- Improve my level.
- Want to involve myself in conversation in order to improve my language Moreover, every language need to be practiced, practice makes perfect.
- It is easy to use with friends.
- I get used to it and sometimes I code switch between Arabic, French, and English.

Those who said no, argued the following:

- Because I have poor English.
- Because I become shy if I make a mistake in front of them.
- Because before being English student, we are Arabs, that's why I prefer to use Arabic.
- Because of different levels between friends.
- It is not helpful for me.

The next question was about students' choice of language related to personal context outside the classroom. Students' were asked about the choice of language which they set their devices to, and to choose between Arabic, French, or English, and provide a justification for their choice. The answers were as it follows:

Question 4: In which language you set up your personal devices (cell phone or Computer)?

Options	Number of students	%
English	23	82 ,14
French	5	17 .85
Arabic	0	0

Table 3.4: The language in which students set up their personal devices.

This question aims to know if the students try to create a special environment to practice English with their useful devices. Most of the students (82.14%) answered that they prefer to set up their personal devices with English language. However, other students prefer to use with French (17.85%) whereas none of them use Arabic (0%). Every student justified his choice by the following arguments:

→ Why?

English

- Improve my English.
- Because I became used to it more than other languages.
- I can understand my devices options more than Arabic and French.
- It is a technological universal language.
- Sometimes it is my favourite language.
- I feel more comfortable.
- To learn more.
- To know new words in English.
- Because I need it.
- Because I study English and I want to learn more.

Why French

- It is easier
- Because it is a second language in Algeria.
- It was already programmed in my phone.

Question 05: Do you think that you have enough opportunities to use English outside the classroom?

Options	Number of students	%
Yes	20	71.42
No	08	28.57

Table 3.5: Students' opportunities to speak English outside the classroom.

Within This question, I wanted to know whether the participants have opportunities to speak English outside the classroom or not. 71.42% of the sample answered by yes while the rest answered by "no" which means they don't have enough opportunities to use English outside the classroom 28.57%.

→ If yes, how often?

Options	Number of students	%
Always	9	32.14
Sometimes	16	57.14
Rarely	3	10.71
Never	0	0

Table 3.6: How often students speak with English outside the classroom.

According to the results, 32.14% of participants said that they always speak English outside the classroom, 57.14% pretended that they sometimes do, only 10.71% declared that they speak it. However, no one claimed that he never speak English outside the classroom. This shows that they all speak English outside the classroom but not always, they sometimes do and this is not enough as for EFL students.

Question 06: How often do you use words or expressions from the following languages in your everyday conversations?

	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Arabic	85.71	14.28	0	0
French	7.17	64.28	17.85	10.71
English	17.85	71.42	10.71	0

Table 3.7: How often students use Arabic, French, and English.

Concerning the Arabic language, The results obtained from this table shows that the majority of the participants which represents 85.71% use Arabic always, and this is obvious as it is the official language of the country, it is their mother tongue, 14.28% claimed that they sometimes use it while none of them opted for "rarely", nor "never 0%".

Let's examine now the results obtained about the French language. Most of the students 64.28% declared that they sometimes use French words or expressions in their daily conversations whereas, 17.85% agreed that they rarely use it in this context while of the sample

stated that they never use it 10.71%. However; only 7.17% of them declared that they always use French words or expressions in their daily life.

Now let's turn to the English language. The results showed that the great amount of students 71.42% stated that they sometimes use English words or expressions in their daily conversations while 17.85 % of the students opted for "sometimes". However, just 10.71 % stated that they rarely use them in their daily conversation while none of the students opted for "never" use them 0 %.

Next, students were asked about the external influence they might have from a family members which pushes them to choose a specific language. Students were given the choice between (Yes) and (No), and they were asked to tell which language or languages. The following table shows the data obtained:

Question 07: Is there anyone in your family with whom you use a foreign languages?

Options	Number of students	%
Yes	21	75
No	7	25

Table 3.8: Students' family member who speaks a foreign language.

This question aims at knowing whether EFL students at Dr Moulay Tahar University have the opportunity to practice English outside the classroom by speaking with someone from their family, it means having a daily conversation with him which could help in enhancing the English skills of our sample fortunately , 75% of students indicated that they have someone in their family with whom they speak a foreign languages, while 25 % stated that they don't have someone with whom they can speak a foreign languages in their family.

Those said yes, which languages? (Students may choose more than one option)

Options	Number of students	%
English	16	57.14
French	13	46.42
Other languages	1	3.60

Table 3.9: Foreign languages spoken by students' family members.

The reason behind this question is to know which foreign languages do Algerian families know and use at home. surprisingly, the obtained results from this table showed that English language is the most foreign language spoken one among their family members which represents 57.14% while French comes at the second place in the percentage of 46.42%, However, the minority of them (3.60%) speaks another language which is Turkish.

The final question was about the languages used by students' to communicate with their teachers outside the classroom since their teachers play a major role in their language choice, and ultimately their language choice. The data obtained is shown in the following table:

Question 8. Which language do you use with your teachers outside the classroom?

Options	Number of students	%
Arabic	15	53.57
French	8	28.75
English	24	85.71

Table 3.10: Languages used by students with their teachers outside the classroom.

The results above revealed that English is the most used language by the participants when talking to their teachers outside the classroom .Arabic comes at the second place by the percentage of 53.57 , while only 28.75 of the students claimed that they use French with their teachers outside the classroom. This shows that they don't use English too much, and French become their last choice.

Finally, the natural next step in this research is to analyse the data obtained, draw conclusions, and make the recommendations which are the final objective of this research.

3.4.2.1. Discussion of the questionnaire's findings.

With regard to our participants' responses that have been obtained from the students' questionnaire, many conclusions can be noticed concerning the attitudes of third year students' of Dr Moulay Tahar University at SAIDA toward language choice. First of all, the students' surrounded social, political and psychological factors affect their language choice such as the status of French as a second language, the lack of confidence and some students think that using English outside the classroom will make them lose their identity and also because they are afraid about the negative judgment by the members of community (see the results of Q3) , Thirdly, through investigating opinions and views of third year English students at SAIDA University, the results concluded that English is the first choice by the sample chosen for this study outside the classroom , but they are not using it always as they should do. It is noticed that the Algerian students become aware of the importance of English language and even their family members see (Q07) surprisingly, the obtained results from this question showed that English language is the most foreign language spoken one among their family members.

The results obtained from the students' questionnaire confirm our hypothesis about their language choices and attitudes towards English use outside the classroom in additions to the factors that determine their linguistic choices.

3.5. The analysis of the observational data

The data obtained from the participants' observation of language choice outside the classroom disconfirms the quantitative findings of the questionnaire. This means that the third year students of English use the language (English) outside the classroom but not too much as they pretend. Moreover, the data showed that females use English more than boys because they consider it as a prestige language; boys use English in playing video games, watching movies and series. Whereas, girls listen to songs and post citations or proverbs, this was noticed in their Facebook profiles see the examples of the appendix (B). Another remark, is that both of them use Arabic when it comes to the religious stuffs, and this is obvious as Arabic is the language of Quran, Using Standard Arabic in their religious posts reflect the fact they respect their identity. Let us mention the example we have from the observation tool in order to support the previous information.

An example of religious posts written in Arabic:



Figure 3.1: An example of a religious post written in Arabic.

This example showed that EFL students could use just one language in their written language instead of three. They choose standard Arabic and forget about the English and French in some situations like the religious stuffs.

Let's examine now another profile, it is a profile of a girl who uses only English in her posts. Here are another examples:

- I need to go in order to be ok.
- When we need them, they don't come, but when we fall they blame.
- Happy birthday mom....love u wish all the best for u my precious.



Figure 3.2: a post published in English by a female.

Both Labov, in his study of the speech of New York, and Trudgill, in his study of Norwich in England, found that: Within each social class group, and across each stylistic context studied, their female informants tended to use more ‘prestige’ or high status language features, and their male informants more vernacular language features. Women as opposed to men are likely to speak in a more prestigious way. It has often been noted that women use more of the standard forms than men do especially in western societies.

Let’s see an example of two female profiles where most of the posts were written in Arabic:



Figure 3.3: a post published in Arabic by a female.

Pillai argued that more prestigious language is usually favoured as the medium of communication in various domains because of its wider social functions. (Pillai, 2006) Also he argued that the dominant languages can be used in formal and informal domains of communication and help to gain prestige, better economic access in the community, authority and power. This could be the case of that example. Some students use the dominant language to be more understood.

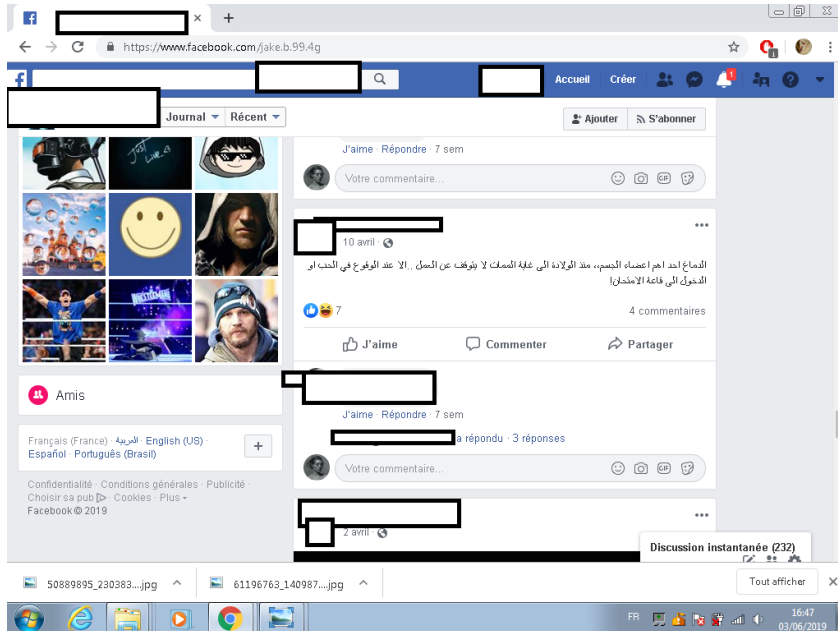


Figure 3.4: a post published in Arabic by a male.

The figure above showed that even males use Arabic in their posts which means they don't try to enhance their English skills outside the classroom by using English.

3.5.1. The final results of students' posts on their profiles are as follow:

The total number of the posts have been observed are 146.

Out of (146) posts written and shared by the sample, (108) were in Arabic (33) in English and only (2) posts were written in French. Whereas, (3) posts include code mixing.

The unexpected result was that French language is not much used, it is replaced by English while Arabic is the most used language by students outside the classroom, English is the second most used language after Arabic though the percentage is not wide while French is the last choice unlike previous years where Algerian students were so attached and influenced by French language due to the historical factors and the fact that French is the second language in Algerian educational system.

Now let move to the analysis of the posts and comments posted by EFL students on their Facebook group, starting by the posts, here are the results:

3.5.2. Students' posts on their Facebook group

The total number of the posts written in the group is (17)

Out of (17) posts , (11) were written in English , (5) in Arabic , (1) was written in the three languages: Arabic , French , English and non was written in French .This results showed that EFL students uses English according to the domain , we have seen first that in their personal profiles Arabic was the most used languages but in the English Facebook group English is most the used because they know that their posts are noticed by their classmates so they try to adjust the situation and show their level or to show off by using English in their posts.

Let see some examples from the observation.

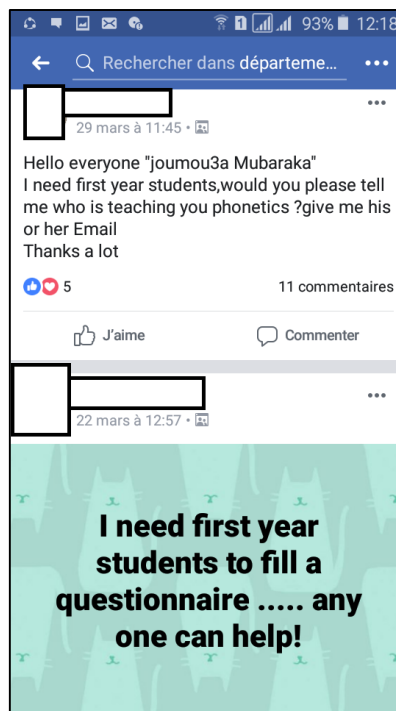


Figure 3.5: a student's post written in English.

In this case the student used English because the topic pushes him to select English rather than Arabic or French.

According to (David, 2009) language choice is triggered by factors such as social status, gender, educational attainment, ethnicity, age, occupation, rural and urban origin, speakers, topic, place, media and formality of the situation. In addition, People are endowed with the ability to adjust their linguistic repertoires to every new circumstance and construct their languages for certain purposes (Coulmas, 2005).

The last step in the observation tool used for this research is to notice the comments written by EFL students in their Facebook group, here are the results:

3.5.2.1. Students' comments on their Facebook group

The total number of the comments that have been observed are (79).

(5) Comments were written in English, 14 in Arabic, (12) a mixture between the three languages; Arabic, French and English while only (3) were written in Arabic.

Here are one example of the comments written in that confirms these results.



Figure 3.6: a student's comments on their Facebook group.

The students comments showed that they code switch too often, the example we have here(literature deja gatlina hata yhabso la grv baach dirlna test w had semana mazelhom dayrinha mala mafihach literature) explained that the lack of vocabulary pushed this student to switches and mix between English, French and dialect.

3.5.3. Discussion of observation's findings

By looking at all the mentioned examples with their different analysis, it is noticed that there are different factors and reasons that determine the language choice of the EFL students, Among the reasons there are: The facility of expressing opinion in dialect or standard Arabic when talking about a given subject like the example of religious post in the observation, The EFL students code- witch when they find that some items are better expressed in either languages, more appropriate in one language than in another, students sometimes are motivated to use English outside the classroom, girls use English more than boys, There are students who use English want to show that they are educated people and that they are capable of using a foreign language because it is noticed that they don't use it in their personal profiles as much as they use it in the English group. The data obtained from the observation disconfirms the

quantitative findings of the questionnaire, it means that the third year English students use English outside the classroom but not too much as they pretend. Moreover, the data showed that females use English more than boys because they consider it as a prestige language.

3.6. Conclusion

This chapter was designed to investigate the research design and data analysis gathered from the students' questionnaire and the observation, The participants of this study were 28 females students from one group; third year EFL students at Dr Moulay Tahar University of SAIDA. The data obtained from the observation disconfirms the quantitative findings of the questionnaire, it means that the third year English students use English outside the classroom but not too much as they pretend. Moreover, the data showed that females use English more than boys because they consider it as a prestige language.

General Conclusion

Algerian socio-linguistic situation is considered to be one of the most complex subjects in sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and many other different disciplines. Algeria is regarded as a multilingual country, since it has witnessed several invasions over centuries.

This research has tried to shed light on language choice outside the classroom. It aims at investigating the factors that determine students' language choice outside the classroom and observe their attitudes towards English language use as they are EFL students. The research instruments used for this study are both quantitative and qualitative (questionnaire and observation).

After conducting a case study at the level of third year LMD students in the English Department at the Dr Moulay Tahar University of SAIDA, the gathered data confirmed the hypotheses. The Results obtained from this sociolinguistic investigation, shows that language choice is determined by many factors such as psychological, Linguistic, political and historical factors. This has a direct influence on the language selected by the English students who find themselves obliged to switch from English to French or Arabic, and this effected their choice and may decrease their competency in English since they are not using it always and in every domain, though the results obtained from the interpretation of the questionnaire analysis show that English is their first choice but it is noticed that this results are not authentic since the obtained results of the observation disconfirms the previous data, it was noticed from the analysis of the observation that Arabic is their first choice and they code switch too much while French is rarely used.

On one side, since it is very difficult to change the position of English language in Algeria due to the different factors that stand as a barrier for using English outside the classroom, EFL students are recommended to depend on themselves. They are required to perform different activities in order to create more opportunities to speak English outside the classroom at the aim of improving their speaking proficiency, In addition to that, They should try to speak only in English when they meet, They are also advised to be self-confident and do not focus on their mistakes or the comments of surrounded people. They should also use social media network (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram...) in order to contact with native speakers and benefit from their pronunciation (academic language is required). Besides, they should try to talk in English in front of a mirror. Even it seems very bizarre, but it helps with the time to possess speaking spontaneity. Moreover, they are advised also to read in English. On the other

General Conclusion

side, Teachers should provide learners with funny tasks like games and role play in order to make them use the English language outside the classroom.

Hoping to pave the way to further studies on this topic, many studies should be done on this topic because it helps both students and teachers develop a better way of teaching learning methods for EFL students in order to improve their level in English language and motivates the learners to practice this language outside the classroom.

Bibliography

- Asali, M. (2011, September). On the effects of foreign direct investment on local human capital formation. *Cuadernos de Economía*, 34(96), 153-161.
- Bentahila, A., & Davies, E. E. (1983). The syntax of Arabic-French code-switching. *Lingua*, 59(4), 301-330.
- Berns, M. (1990). Communicative competence in the plural and the teaching of english in non-native contexts. *Language Sciences*, 12(2-3), 209-219.
- Callahan, L. (2004). *Spanish / English Codeswitching in a Written Corpus*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Chambers, J. (2015). *Sociolinguistics*. New Jersey, United States: Wiley.
- Chambers, J. K. (1995). *Sociolinguistic theory*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Blackwell.
- Chambers, J. K., Trudgill, P., & Schilling, N. (2008). *The Handbook of Language Variation and Change*. Hoboken, New Jersey, United States: John Wiley & Sons.
- Coates, J. (2004). *Women, Men, and Language: A Sociolinguistic Account of Gender Differences in Language*. London, United Kingdom: Pearson Longman.
- Corson, D., & Tucker, G. R. (1997). *Encyclopedia of language and education*. Kluwer Academic.
- Coulmas, F. (2005). *Sociolinguistics: The Study of Speakers' Choices*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- David, M. K. (2009). Language Choices and Discourse of Malaysian Families: Case Studies of Families in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. *Language in India*, 371-380.
- David, M. K. (2009). Language Policies – Impact on Language Maintenance and Teaching: Focus on Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei and the Philippines. *The Linguistics Journal*, 155-191.
- Diamond, A. S. (1959). *The History and Origin of Language*. Philosophical Society.
- Dumanig, F. P. (2010). *Language Choice in Interracial Marriages: The Case of Filipino-Malaysian Couples*. Irvine, California, United States: Universal-Publishers.
- Dweik, B. S., & Qawar, H. A. (2015, March). LANGUAGE CHOICE AND LANGUAGE ATTITUDES IN A MULTILINGUAL ARAB CANADIAN COMMUNITY: QUEBEC– CANADA: A SOCIOLOGICAL STUDY. *British Journal of English Linguistics*, 3, 1-12.
- Eble, C. (2005). *What is sociolinguistics?* Retrieved 05 16, 2019, from <http://www.pbs.org/http://www.pbs.org/speak/speech/sociolinguistics/sociolinguistics/#basics>

- Eifring, H., & Theil, R. (2005). *Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages*. Oslo, Norway: University of Oslo.
- Fasold, R. W. (1990). *The Sociolinguistics of Language*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Blackwell.
- Ferrer, R. C., & Sankoff, D. (2004). The Valencian Revival: Why Usage Lags behind Competence. *Language in Society*, 1-31.
- Gal, S. (1987). Linguistic repertoire. In R. Schjerve & E. Vetter (Ed.). *European multilingualism: Current perspectives and challenges*, 286-292.
- George, B. C. (1947). *Social Functions of Language in a Mexican-American Community*. Tucson, Arizona, United States: University of Arizona Press.
- Gogoi, D. (2014). *The role of English language in Assamese and culture*. Guwahati, India: Gauhati University.
- Grosjean, F. (2010). *Bilingual*. Cambridge, Massachusetts, United States: Harvard University Press.
- Gumperz, J. J. (1964). Linguistic and Social Interaction in Two Communities. *American Anthropologist*, 137-153.
- Hall, C. J. (2005). *An Introduction to Language and Linguistics: Breaking the Language Spell*. London, United Kingdom: A & C Black.
- Haugen, E. (1950). The Analysis of Linguistic Borrowing. *Language*, 26(2), 210-231.
- Holmes, J. (2013). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. New York, New York, USA: Routledge.
- Key, J. P. (1997). *Data Tools*. Retrieved 05 16, 2019, from Oklahoma State University: <https://www.okstate.edu/ag/agedcm4h/academic/aged5980a/5980/newpage16.htm>
- Labov, W. (1990, July). The intersection of sex and social class in the course of linguistic change. *Language Variation and Change*, 2(2), 205-254.
- Labov, W. (2001). *Principles of Linguistic Change: Social Factors*. Hoboken, New Jersey, United States: Wiley Publishing company.
- Lyons, J. (1970). *New horizons in linguistics*. London, United Kingdom: Penguin Books.
- Mackey, W. F. (1962). The description of bilingualism. *Canadian Journal of Linguistics*, 51-85.
- Managan, K. (2004). *Diglossia Reconsidered: Language Choice and Code-Switching in Guadeloupean Voluntary Organizations*. New York: New York University .
- Marçais, W. (1930). *Le diglossie arabe*. Paris: librairie Delagrave.
- Marcias, Q. (1992).
- Marcias, Q. (1992).
- Milroy, L., & Gordon, M. (2008). *Sociolinguistics: Method and Interpretation*. Hoboken, New Jersey, United States: John Wiley & Sons.

- Morgan, M. H. (2014). *Speech Communities*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Muysken, P. (2000). *Bilingual speech: a typology of code-mixing*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Nishimura, M. (1989). *The topic-comment construction in Japanese-English code-switching* (Vol. 8). Hoboken, New Jersey, United States: Wiley Publishing company.
- Nordquist, R. (2019, May 30). *Definition and Examples of Language Varieties*. Retrieved from thoughtco.com: <https://www.thoughtco.com/language-variety-sociolinguistics-1691100>
- Pillai. (2006).
- Poplack. (1980).
- Rohmah, Z. (2005). English as a global language: Its historical past and its future. *Jurnal Bahasa & Seni*, 106-117.
- Romaine, S. (2000). *Language in Society: An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Romaine, S. (2001). Multilingualism. In M. Aronoff, & J. Rees-Miller, *The Handbook of Linguistics* (pp. 512-522). Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Schilling-Estes, W. a. (1996).
- Spolsky, B. (1998). *Sociolinguistics*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
- Trudgill, P. (2000). *Sociolinguistics: An Introduction to Language and Society*. London, United Kingdom: Penguin Books.
- Trudgill, P. (2002). *Sociolinguistic Variation and Change*. Edinburgh, United Kingdom: Edinburgh University Press.
- Trudgill, P., & Chambers, J. K. (1998). *Dialectology*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Versteegh, K. (1997). *The Arabic Language*. New York, New York, United States: Columbia University Press.
- Vogt. (1954).
- Wardhaugh. (2006).
- Wardhaugh, R. (2010). *An Introduction to Sociolinguistics*. Hoboken, New Jersey, United States: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Watson, J. C. (2002). *The Phonology and Morphology of Arabic*. United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
- Weinreich. (1953).

Webography

<http://article.sciencepublishinggroup.com/html/10.11648.j.edu.20150405.22.html>

<http://dspace.univ-biskra.dz:8080/jspui/bitstream/123456789/8610/1/a36.pdf>

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_as_a_second_or_foreign_language

<https://fr.slideshare.net/AyuRetnoAditya/sociolinguistics-chapter-two-language-choice-in-multilingual-communities>

<https://www.univ-setif2.dz/images/PDF/magister/MLA6.pdf>

https://help.daytranslations.com/language-facts/difference-between-language-and-dialect?gclid=Cj0KQCQiAgf3gBRDtARIsABgdL3npkHcb6sm1rJZ9MtuoROuS_yfEbraOzNtrDKMxKkKCbh9V_VDHkMMaAkIqEALw_wcB

<http://dspace.univ-tlemcen.dz/bitstream/112/7978/1/borsla-lamia.pdf>

<https://www.worldatlas.com/articles/what-languages-are-spoken-in-algeria.html>

<https://www.thoughtco.com/what-is-linguistic-variation-1691242>

<http://digilib.uinsby.ac.id/170/5/Bab%202.pdf>

Appendices

Appendix (A): Questionnaire about students' choice of language

Questionnaire about learners choice of language

This sociolinguistic study aims at identifying the factors that determine the students' choice of language outside the classroom at Dr Moulay Taher University of SAIDA.

You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire. Please, put a tick "✓" in the appropriate box, give a full answer whenever necessary, and justify your answer wherever it is needed. Thank you.

Section one: Personal information

1. Gender: Male Female

2. Place of residence:

Section two: Students proficiency and language choice (use).

1. I chose to study English in order to: (You may tick more than one option).

- Communicate with foreigners .
- Improve my job opportunities.
- Learn an international language.
- Other purposes? Please state them.

2. How do you consider your competency in the following languages:

	Very good	Good	Average	Poor	Very poor
<i>Arabic</i>					
<i>French</i>					
<i>English</i>					

3. Do you use English to speak with your friends outside the classroom ?

Yes No

→ Why?

4. In which language you set up your personal devices (cell phone or computer):

English French Arabic

→ Why?

5. do you think that you have enough opportunities to use English outside the classroom? Yes No

→ If yes, how often? Always Sometimes Rarely Never

6. How often do you use words or expressions from the following languages in your everyday conversations?

	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
<i>Arabic</i>				
<i>French</i>				
<i>English</i>				

7. Is there anyone in your family with whom you use a foreign languages ?

Yes No.

→If yes, Which language(s)?

8. Which language do you use with your teachers outside the classroom ?

.....

THANK YOU.

Appendix (B): Participants' observation (screenshots)

