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The Influence of the Algerian Dialects on English Language Pronunciation

Case Study: English Language Teachers from (Constantine, Annaba, Tebessa and
Amazigh in Oum El Bouaghi)

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Requirement of the Master Degree in **English Language Didactics**

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Dedication

In the name of Allah, the most gracious and the most merciful.
All The praise is due to God alone, the sustainer of the entire world.

At least I can offer humble gratitude to my dear parents, whose excitement over my educational goals helped me when I would lose sight of what I am doing, they never doubted me, and freely gave unbelievable support of all kinds, and gave me more than they can. Thank you for all your sacrifices, your encouragement, and all your love.

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Abstract

This research work is considered to be a sociolinguistic study about mother tongue influence on foreign language pronunciation in Algeria, comparing the speech of teachers in the far Algerian east, who were selected randomly from Constantine, Annaba, Tebessa and Oum EL Bouaghi, with the correct pronunciation of the word. The purpose of this study is to shed the light on this phenomenon and see whether teachers support teaching phonetics as solution to improve the English language pronunciation and get rid of the dialects effects. Also to explore teachers' suggestions concerning solutions needed to improve the English language learning in Algeria. By giving a questionnaire to 15 participants (males and females) chosen randomly from each state, the respondents provide their attitudes and express their preferences about teaching phonetics as a module in middle and high schools, in addition to their suggested solutions. Also, an interview was made with 05 teachers from each state in order to explore the dialect effects and gather more solutions for the sake of improving the educational system, mainly the English language teaching. The results achieved reveal that Algerian dialects influence the English language pronunciation in the selected areas, and teaching phonetics' suggestion was supported by almost teachers. Additionally teachers have emphasized teaching English at primary schools in addition to the employment of school uniforms. At the university level it was suggested to implement a level examination at the foreign languages fields.

ملخص الرسالة

يعتبر هذا البحث دراسة لغوية اجتماعية عن تأثير اللغة الأم في نطق اللغة الإنجليزية في الجزائر , حيث تمت مقارنة نطق أساتذة اللغة الانجليزية في الشرق الجزائري , بالضبط قسنطينة , عنابة , تبسة و أم البواقي , مع النطق الصحيح للكلمات. الهدف الرئيسي من هذه الدراسة هو محاولة تفسير هذه الظاهرة ومعرفة ما إذا كان الأساتذة يدعمون تعليم الصوتيات كمادة منفصلة عن تعليم اللغة في المتوسطات والمدارس الثانوية لحل مشكلة تأثير اللهجات. أيضا لاستكشاف اقتراحات الأساتذة حول الحلول اللازمة لتحسين تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية في الجزائر خاصة المتعلقة بنطقها. حيث قد تم توزيع استبيان على 15 مشاركا تم اختيارهم عشوائيا من كل ولاية , للاستعلام عن آراء الاساتذة حول تعليم الصوتيات كمادة في المدارس المتوسطة والثانوية بالإضافة إلى الحلول المقترحة من طرفهم لمعالجة المشكل المذكور سابقا. كذلك تم إجراء مقابلة مع 05 أساتذة من كل ولاية من الولايات المذكورة سابقا لاستكشاف تأثير اللهجة في نطق اللغة الانجليزية وجمع المزيد من الحلول المقترحة من أجل تحسين نظام التعليم خاصة تعليم اللغة الإنجليزية. لقد أظهرت النتائج أن اللهجات الجزائرية تؤثر على نطق اللغة الانجليزية , و أن تعليم الصوتيات كمادة في المتوسطات و الثانويات كحل لهذا المشكل مؤيد قبل كل الأساتذة تقريبا. بالإضافة إلى ذلك , لقد حث الأساتذة على تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية في المدارس الابتدائية و تسخير الزبي المدرسي لكل مستوى قصد الالمام بكل المشاكل المتعلقة به. في حين في المستوى الجامعي , تم اقتراح تحديد فحص في مجالات اللغات الأجنبية للطلبة الذين يريدون مواصلة دراستهم في هذا المجال.

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Key to Abbreviations and Acronyms

FL: Foreign Language

FLA: First Language Acquisition

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

MT: Mother Tongue

NL: Native Language

SL: Second Language

S.L.A: Second Language Acquisition

TL: Target Language

FLL: Foreign Language Learning

TEFL: Teaching English as Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

CA: Colloquial Arabic

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

(:): Vowel Length of English

('): Primary Stress

(.): Secondary Stress

S: Sentence

NP: Noun Phrase

VP: Verb Phrase

AUX: Auxiliary

SVO: Subject, Verb, Object

SOV: Subject, Object, Verb

VSO: Verb, Subject, Object

List of Appendices

Appendix One: Teachers' Questionnaire

Appendix Two: Teachers' Interview

General Introduction

I. Statement of the Problem

Learning a language involves learning its grammar, phonology, vocabulary and even its culture. Like many countries, the linguistic variation in Algeria in relation to the mother tongue' influence on foreign language learning has been a great topic to discuss lately. The problem learners usually confront is the mother-tongue interference in the foreign language learning concerning non-standard language and the spoken vernacular. This research attempts to demonstrate the Algerian dialects influence on the English language pronunciation. The present study takes English language teachers in the east of Algeria as a sample of the study. It was conducted at the levels of Universities, High and Middle Schools. This influence would be further a barrier in the fluency of the English pronunciation and may cause misunderstanding amid the interlocutors.

II. Aims of the Study

The primary aim of this study is to make an investigation on foreign language learning. The main focus is on linguistic implications of first language interference concerning the dialects and languages contact. This research aims at shedding some light on this phenomenon and relates it to that elsewhere. Most importantly, we would check whether teaching phonetics as a module at early stages like middle and high schools is a reliable solution throughout some statistics based on questionnaires and interviews.

III. Research Questions

The research work raises three main questions:

1. Do the Algerian dialects influence the English language pronunciation?
2. Does this phenomenon affect the leaning process?
3. Is teaching phonetics as a module at early stages like middle and high schools a reliable solution for this phenomenon?

IV. Research Hypotheses

In the light of the already mentioned questions, we hypothesized the following: First, the Algerian dialects affect the English language pronunciation and may lead to misunderstanding. Secondly, it would be transmitted from one generation to another throughout the learning process if not solved. Thirdly, if the educational system obtains teaching phonetics at early stages like middle and high schools, the Algerian learners will enjoy fluency and accuracy in their education.

V. Research Tools and Methodology

To check the validity of the above hypotheses, the present research intends to use a questionnaire and an audio-recorded interview. The first was administered to teachers from different places in the east of Algeria throughout the three levels. It aims at collecting different views to reinforce the investigation about Algerian dialects influence on English pronunciation. An audio-recorded interview was conducted in order to gather information about the teachers views on the educational system in relation to this area, and to discuss the influenced parts in the speech of Algerian English language teachers. Those tools aim at showing the dialects' effect on the pronunciation of English and the differences between the three levels percentage of influenced parts. Also, it aims at checking the reliability of teaching phonetics at early stages as a solution to that phenomenon.

VI. Structure of the Study

Our research consists of four chapters. Chapter one highlights a modest survey toward the sociolinguistics and the language variations concerning the phenomenon of the mother tongue influence in foreign language learning. The second chapter attempts to show the historical profile of Algeria and the eastern Algerian dialects. The third chapter is the analysis of the results of the questionnaires which aim to show intellectual backgrounds about the subject and a statistics about teaching phonetics as a solution to the problem under question. It

also provides the examination of the audio-recorded interview according to the pronunciation of words in Standard English language. Chapter four is devoted to the pedagogical solutions for teachers, administration and the learners. In fact, it has suggested the idea of teaching phonetics as a module in middle and high schools with various educational solutions according to teachers' suggestion.

VII. Limitation of the Study

As any piece of research work, this dissertation has its limitations. First of all, this study is limited in that it focuses on particular areas. The benefits from selecting those areas are that those areas differ because of their socio-historical setting; however each area has similar pronunciation to other neighboring states. In fact, it would be preferable if more states have been involved in the study, especially as far as the linguistic variations are concerned. The study of mother tongue all around the world makes a good example to those existing here.

Time constraints proved to be another restricting condition for the present research work. Time is needed not only to have access to other areas but to the teachers also. Although the recorded interviews have been transcribed in this study concerning teachers' dialects effects, more analysis would be desirable for exploring the dialects effects concerning the stress placement, intonation and rhythm.

Last but not least, it should be acknowledged that the most important restriction which resides at the root of most of the above mentioned limitations is the absence of data concerning other areas' spoken language. Therefore, it is necessary to call for studies in this field at Algerian states.

Chapter One

Socio-cultural Aspect of Language

Varieties

Chapter 1

Introduction

This chapter intends to explore some of the sociolinguistic patterns of language use in bilingual or multilingual communities. It introduces the way sociolinguistic patterns work among individuals and state the factors which determine the variability of language use. In addition, it is necessary to shed some light on some important notions as: diglossia, code-switching, bilingualism, borrowing, linguistic transfer and mother tongue influence .As for the literature review related to the main concern of the present work , the current study picked up some of the famous cases known for the mother tongue influence on their English language use.

1.1. Socio-Linguistic Language Concepts

1.1.1. Language

Linguists have defined language as the system of human communication which entails structured arrangement of sounds into larger units such as morphemes, words, and utterances as a finite set of symbols and rules. It is described by Chomsky (1979) as “*the infinite use of finite means*” (as cited in, Deely, 1982, p. 109). Sapir believes that it is a crucial part of the life of human knowledge that distinguished him from the rest of the animal world (as cited in Edwards, 2009, p. 53). However, other linguists like Noth (1995) asserted that language also refers to the non-human systems of communication for example, the language of bees, the language of apes, birds, dolphin...etc. (p. 157-159).

1.1.2. Mother Tongue and Foreign Language

Mother tongue (MT) or first language (L1) (also native language, father tongue, arterial language, or L1) is a language that a person has been exposed to from birth or within the critical period (sensitive period). If there are multiple L1, the designation "first

language" is used for the L1 spoken the best or the one which is the basis for sociolinguistic identity. In some countries, it refers to the language of one's ethnic group rather than one's first language. Children brought up speaking more than one language can have more than one native language, and be bilingual or multilingual. According to Illich, the term "mother tongue" was first used by Catholic monks to designate a particular language they used, instead of Latin, when they are "speaking from the pulpit". That is, the "holy mother the Church" introduced this term and colonies inherited it from Christianity as a part of colonialism (First Language, 2017).

By contrast, a *foreign language* (FL) is any language that one speaks other than one's first language. It is an indigenous language to another country. It is also a language not spoken in the native country of the person referred to, i.e. an English speaker living in Italy can say that Italian is a foreign language to him or her. These two characterisations do not exhaust the possible definitions, however, and the label is occasionally applied in ways that are variously misleading or factually inaccurate (Foreign Language, 2017). Language is regarded foreign if it is not spoken in the society where the teaching occurs. Study of another language allows the effective and creative communication between individuals, and to participate in real-life situations through the language of the authentic culture itself. Learning another language grants access into a new perspective, increases the ability to explore connections across content areas, and boosts an interdisciplinary perspective while obtaining intercultural understandings. Language is the vehicle needed for effective human-to-human interactions and submits a better understanding of one's own language and culture (Moeller & Catalano, 2015, p. 327)

1.1.3. Dialect

The term dialect is usually referred to as "*a language variety along three scopes: vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation*" (Chambers & Trudgill, 1980, p. 5). It is associated

with particular group or region in common usage. Indeed, a dialect is substandard, low status, often rural form of language. Everyone, whether rich or poor, no matter of region or racial origin, speaks at least one dialect, just as each individual speaks an idiolect. A dialect is not an inferior or degraded form of a language, and logically could not be, because a Language is a collection of dialects (Chambers & Trudgill, 1980, p. 3).

1.1.4. Multilingualism

Properly speaking, a multilingual person is the one who is able to communicate in more than one Language. Multilingualism could be firmly defined as being native-like in two or more languages as to be able to communicate in two or more languages with some degrees of fluency and literacy (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 96).

1.1.5. Bilingualism

Bilingualism is the process of using two or more languages. A bilingual person is the one who is able to use at least two codes with the same degree of proficiency or literacy. It is concerned with people who speak, read, and comprehend two codes equally well. Bilingualism is concerned with its institutional dimensions such as the status and roles of the languages in a given society (Sridhar, 2002, p. 1)

1.1.6. Borrowing

It is the process by which one language adds a word or morpheme from another language to its own lexicon. It often happens in situations of language contact/multilingualism, when speakers of different languages regularly communicate. It is more than only borrowing because English does not return them back (Jamet, 2009, p. 4). A special type of borrowing is described as **loan-translation** or **Calque (/kælk/)** into this process; there are direct translations of the elements of a word into the borrowing language. Interesting examples are the French term ‘Gratte-ciel’ which is translated as “scrape-sky,” the Dutch ‘Wolkenkrabber’(cloud scratcher) or the German word ‘Wolkenkratze’ (cloud scraper),

all of which were calques for the English skyscraper. The pronunciation of loan words is often altered to fit the phonological rules of the borrowing language. For example, English borrowed ‘ensemble’ /ãsäbəl/ from French but they pronounce it /ãnsãmbəl/, with /n/and /m/ inserted, because English does not ordinarily have syllables centered on nasal vowels alone (Yule, 2010, p. 54)

1.1.7. Code Switching

Linguists have observed that the particular dialect or language a person chooses to use on any occasion is a code, a system of communication between two or more parties. They have also indicated that it is unusual for a speaker to have command of, or use, only one code or system. People are usually required to select a particular code whenever they choose to speak, they may also decide to switch from one code to another or to mix codes even within very short utterances and thereby create a new code in a process known as *code-switching* (Wardhaugh, 2010, p. 98). It can occur between sentences (inter-sentential) or within a single sentence (intra-sentential) in informal situations. Gal, 1988 stated that ‘*code-switching is a conversational strategy used to establish, cross or destroy group boundaries; to create, evoke or change interpersonal relations with their rights and obligations*’ (as cited in Wardhaugh, 2010, p. 98). Additionally, we can describe two kinds of code-switching: situational and metaphorical. Situational code-switching occurs when the languages used change according to the situations. When a change of topic requires a change in the language used we have *metaphorical code-switching* (Hudson, 1996, p. 53).

1.1.8. Code Mixing

When a bilingual speaker talks to another bilingual and changes language without any change at all in the situation, this type of change is called ‘code-mixing’ or ‘conversational code-switching’. Hudson (1996) stated that “a kind of linguistic cocktail – a few words of some language, then a few words of the other, then back to the first for a few more

words and so on” (p. 53). A good example of conversational code-mixing is the Algerian speech, that a single sentence may include diverse change, for example:

“|fErm bj2E la valiz w mat@nsaS tm@ddhalU 2a m2E prOpr| (fermes bien la valise وماتنساش وتمدها لو en main propre.) Lock the suit-case well and don’t forget to hand it on to him personally” (Kaouache, 2009, p. 59)

The example includes both Algerian Arabic dialect and French, it can be produced only by a person whose mother tongue is one of the Algerian dialects and who has also French under control.

1.1.9. Diglossia

The expression "diglossia" was initially utilized during 1930 by the French Arabist Marçais (diglossie in French), and acquainted with English by Ferguson (1959) in reference to the circumstance in Arabic today as Ferguson clarifies it ‘*one particular kind of standardization where two varieties of a language exist side by side throughout the community, with each having a definite role to play*’ (p. 232). Usually, one is a more standard variety called the **High variety** or **H-variety**, which is used in formal situations (e.g. Classical Arabic). The other one is usually a non-prestige variety called the **Low-variety** or **L-variety**, which is used locally and informally (e.g. Lebanese Arabic).

1.2.Linguistic Transfer

1.2.1. Definition

According to Ellis (2015) a linguistic transfer is a process by which linguistic features of a language affect those of another one (Chap. 5, ¶6). In the past, Whitney (1881) used the term transfer to refer to cross-linguistic influences, which had been used by many linguists ever since. However, Carroll (1968) claims that Behaviorist notion of transfer implies the extinction of earlier habits which differ from native language influence, meanwhile second language acquisition need not to replace any of learner’s primary language (as cited in Odlin,

1989, p. 25). Transfer is not simply interference but the latter can be regarded as a negative transfer that can be opposed to positive one. Finally, it is regarded as being the influence that results from differences and similarities between any language that has been previously learned and the target one (Odlin, 1989, p. 26).

1.2.2. Types of Transfer

There are four major types of language transfer; positive, negative, avoidance and over-use. Lado (1957) argued that when learning in one situation ease learning or performance in another one, a positive transfer has occurred. Otherwise, when something learned in one situation prevents one's ability to learn and perform in a second situation, thus negative transfer has occurred (Krzeszowski, 1990, p. 189). Individuals who used to drive a standard transmission when finding their selves behind the wheel of an automatic transmission often step on a clutch that does not exist there.

According to Schmidt and Young (1987) people who are learning a foreign language naturally apply patterns of speech production characteristics of their native language (NL), which gave them a foreign accent. According to Gray and Orasanu (1987), the possibility of transfer exists as long as there is a "common something" among tasks. (as cited in Silva, 2008, p11) Actually, positive transfer tends to approve learners' performance. The newly habits which compose the FL are comparable to the old ones which constitute the MT. Therefore, the latest behavior is the same as the old one. In this context, Ellis says:

It is quite possible that the means of expressing a shared meaning are the same in the first and second language. In such cases, it is possible to transfer the means used to realize a given meaning in the L1 into the L2. When this is possible, the only learning that has to take place is the discovery that the realization devices are the same in the two languages (1985, p. 22).

Also it can be illustrated by Hammerly: "*Previous knowledge can facilitate learning (positive transfer or facilitation)*" (1991, p. 63). This means that languages have similar parts that can further facilitate rapid and easy learning. Odlin (1989) commented that when having learners from different origins, with diverse native languages, it is not merely the absence of certain mistakes in which facilitation can be observed, but also during rapid and smooth learning. Ellis argued that:

Facilitation is evident not so much in the total absence of certain errors - as would be expected on the basis of behaviorist notions of positive transfer - but rather in a reduced number of errors and, also in the rate of learning (1994, p. 303).

However, a negative transfer can be defined as the process by which old knowledge interferes with Foreign Language Learning (FLL) to produce unsuitable behavior. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) identified negative transfer as those occasions of transfer which result in error since old ordinary behavior is distinct to the new behavior which is being educated. James (1994) said that: "*Intrusion causes the learner to use wrong forms*" (as cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 300). A negative transfer is an intrusion. It occurs mainly when the L1 and the target language share the same significance with different ways of articulating it. That is, an error in the L2 production is probable to happen. The learner shall use his L1 realization device to express the meaning shared with the TL. As the FL learners develop through the acquisition process, they shall meet more new structures that have no correspondent in their NL. Because of this ability to express suitably without using these structures, the learners will favor to carry on the same path (i.e. avoiding the use of the structures they do not feel the need to learn).

In addition, **avoidance transfer** is distinct from “interruption” which results in the presence of NL structures in the FL. Distinguishing intrusion from avoidance, Ellis (1994) says:

Learners also avoid using linguistic structures which they find difficult because of differences between their native language and their target language. In such cases, the effects of the L1 are evident not in what learners do (errors) but in what they do not do (omissions) (p. 304).

Schachter (1974) discovered that Chinese and Japanese learners of English make fewer errors in the relative clauses than Persian and Arab learners. It was clarified by the structure similarity to the one in Arabic but the variety from the one in Chinese (Freeman & Long, 1999, p. 61). Ellis (1994) argued that: “*It only makes sense to talk of avoidance if the learners know what they are avoiding*” (p. 308). One can only say that “avoidance” occurs if the learners know the structures they are avoiding and if the native speakers of that language would have applied it in that particular situation.

Kellerman (1992) distinguishes three categories of avoidance. The first category occurs when there is at least a condition for avoidance to take place (i.e. when the learner predicts that it will be a difficulty with a given form and has some general ideas of what the target form is like). The second type is marked when the learner knows the target form but has difficulty in applying it to specific conditions (e.g. Free-flowing conversation). The third type occurs when the learner knows the target form and knows when it should be applied but does not want to use it because s/he finds it dissimilar from his/her own norm of behavior (Ellis, 1994, p. 305).

Subsequently, according to Levenston (1971) **Over-use transfer (over-indulgence)** is an intralingual process that commonly comes as a direct result of avoidance and overgeneralization. The learners who struggle to avoid the complex L2 structures; will tend to

demonstrate a certain preference for other terms and structures which they will generalize to a large number of contexts. Despite that, the used structures might sound correct in the broadest range of situations they are applied to; they are not always suitable nor do they symbolize the best or most precise choice (as cited in, Ellis, 1994, p. 305)

1.2.3. Taxonomy of Cross-Linguistic Influence

Each linguist has his own view about transfer, and throughout many years, linguists have presented different definitions and different kinds of transfer, however they all study the mother tongue or native language effects on the target one. Moattarian (2013) has presented a good summary to Jarvis and Pavlenko's (2008) taxonomy of different kinds of cross-linguistic influence that can be presented in the table below.

Table 1

Jarvis and Pavlenko's (2008) Taxonomy of Different Kinds of Cross-Linguistic Influence

Kind of transfer		Definition
Linguistic transfer		
1	Phonological transfer	The influence of sound system of one language on production or comprehension of sounds in another language
2	Orthographic transfer	The influence of the knowledge of the writing system of one language on writing production of another language
3	Lexical transfer	The influence of word knowledge of one language in production or comprehension of words in another language
4	Semantic transfer	The influence of semantic range of words in one language in production or comprehension of another language
5	Morphological transfer	The influence of word structure of one language on the production or comprehension of word structure in another language
6	Syntactic transfer	Not only word order transfer but also the influence of a whole gamut of one language structure on the production or comprehension of another language
7	Discursive transfer	The influence of the ways thoughts are organized, introduced, or contextualized in one language on the production or comprehension of thought in another language
8	Pragmatic transfer	The influence of the ways speech acts are presented in one language on the ways they are produced or comprehended in another language
9	Sociolinguistic transfer	The influence of the ways social variables and norms presented in one language on the ways they are produced or comprehended in another language
Conceptual transfer		
10	Conceptual transfer	The influence of the ways presenting an item or concept in one language on the ways they are produced or comprehended in another language

(Moattarian, 2013, p. 42)

1.3. Behaviorist Learning Theory

The dominant school in psychology which educated most discussions of language learning was behaviorism and two key concepts can be identified in these discussions: ‘habits’ and ‘errors’. For the sake of understanding the importance of the mother tongue, it is necessary to understand the main beliefs of behaviorist learning theory. The behaviourists believe that FLL consists of imitation of what learners hear and develop habits in the FL by regular practice. According to this view, the learners are thought to relate what they know of their L1 to what they identify in the L2. Thus, a "*Positive transfer*" occurs as a result of similarities between the L1 and the L2, because habits used in the L1 easily transfer to the L2. Otherwise, a "*Negative transfer*" is caused by differences between the L1 and the L2, because errors result from using habits from the L1 in the L2. The theory of transfer is linked to a particular view of language learning as a series of habits and errors.

1.3.1. Habits

According to Behaviorism, a habit was formed when a particular stimulus became regularly linked with a particular response, and the stimulus was said to ‘elicit’ the response. That is, the presence of stimulus called forth a response. If the stimulus occurred sufficiently frequently, the response became practiced and therefore automatic. According to the neo-behaviorism of Skinner it was the behavior that followed a response which reinforced it and thus helped to strengthen the association. The learning of a habit, then, could occur through imitation (i.e. the learner copies the stimulus behavior) or through reinforcement (i.e. depending on whether it is appropriate or otherwise). It was also believed that learning a foreign language could proceed in a similar way. Ellis (1999) argues that imitation and reinforcement were the means by which the learner identified the stimulus-response associations that constituted the habits of the FL (as cited in Silva, 2008, p. 16).

1.3.2. Errors

According to the behaviorist learning theory, old habits get in the way of learning new habits. According to Ellis (1999), interference was the result of what was called proactive inhibition. This is concerned with the way in which previous learning prevents or inhibits the learning of new habits. Where the first language and foreign language share a meaning but express it in different ways (similar stimuli, different response), an error is likely to arise in the FL because the learner will transfer the realization device from her first language into the foreign. For example, a French speaker may express the idea of being cold as 'I have cold' in English, as a result of the way it is expressed in French, 'j'ai froid'. In other languages, foreign language pronunciation might be a problematic as Germans pronunciation of the sound /w/ as /v/ like: "Velcome to my home" (TEFLOne, 2014). Transfer will be negative when there is proactive inhibition. In behaviorist accounts of FL, errors were considered undesirable. They were evidence of non-learning and of the failure to overcome proactive inhibition. Some linguists believe that these challenges (errors and habits) are the principal challenges for foreign language learners (Silva, 2008, p. 16).

1.4. Foreign Language and Mother Tongue Transfer

Ellis (1999) stated that foreign language (FL) is strongly influenced by the learner's first language (L1) and it has a negative role. That is, the L1 gets in the way or interferes with the learning of (FL) such that features of the L1 are transferred into the FL (as cited in Silva, 2008, p. 16). According to Marton (1973) in a psychological point of view, we can say there is never peaceful co-existence between two language systems for the learner, rather a constant warfare, which is not limited to the moment of cognition, but continues during the period of memorizing newly learnt items (p. 17). However, Krashen (1982) rejects the idea that the first language interferes with FL. He believes that the use of the first language is a performance

strategy. The learner falls back on his first language whenever he lacks a rule in the FL.

Meanwhile, Felix (1980) said that:

“Our data on FL acquisition of syntactic structures in a natural environment suggest that interference does not constitute a major strategy in this area...it seems necessary to me to abandon the notion of interference as a natural and inevitable phenomenon in FL learning”.

(as cited in Barlow, 1998, p. 60)

1.5.The Dialects’ Impact on English Language Pronunciations

Many linguists argued that there are several factors that influence the acquisition of L2/FL. Among these factors is the learner’s first language or the mother tongue. Ellis (1985) stated that the most absolved support for this notion arrives from ‘foreign’ accents in the second language speech of learners. When a Frenchman speaks English, his English sounds French (as cited in Macharia, 20013, p. 3).

First language or the mother tongue plays a crucial and negative role in the second language acquisition in term of interference. One basic supposition in language education is that learners depend basically on their NL during the learning process. Lado stated it clearly:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language – both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives. (1957, p. 02)

The theory of learning and acquisition is based on the crucial assumption that all knowledge we acquire is interrelated chronologically that is prior knowledge always affects new learning. This is chiefly true about adult learners who are constantly depending on their

past experiences to build up new concepts, in which learning is a cumulatively process.

Presenting habit construction and cumulative acquisition, Postman says:

Learning is a cumulative process. The more knowledge and skills an individual acquires, the more likely it becomes that his new learning will be shaped by his past experiences and activities. An adult, rarely, if ever, learns anything completely new; however unfamiliar the task that confronts him, the information and habits he has built up in the past will be his point of departure. Thus transfer of learning from old to new situations is part and parcel of most, if not all, learning. In this sense, the study of transfer is coextensive with the investigation of learning. (1971, p. 1019)

According to Hammerly (1991), the learners attempt to use the foreign language as a tool of communication. Since they have constantly been communicating in their mother tongue, this will have a straight effect on their foreign language production. He says: *“beginners tend to rely initially on their mother tongue. Thus there are frequent NL intrusions in their SL output”* (1991, p. 5). Linguists depicted a distinction in transfer that is between **diachronic** and **synchronic**. Cook defines diachronic transfer as *“...transfer over time...”* and synchronic transfer as *“... transfer at a specific point in time...”* (1992, p. 580) For James (1994):

a synchronic transfer has more to do with language processing, performance and communication. It is used in encoding/decoding messages rather than breaking the code. One is reminded of the ambiguous status of the L1 transfer as either learning or communicative strategy (as cited in, Bouras, 2006, p. 140-141).

The Influence of Algerian Dialects on English Language Pronunciation.

Diachronic transfer, on the other hand, is used by the learner to break the code of second language, i.e. to learn (Ibid, p. 182). Thus, diachronic transfer helps learning rationale and synchronic transfer communication principle (as cited in, Bouras, 2006, p. 140-141)

Finally one shall say that first language/mother tongue is not always a barrier in learning second/ foreign language. In other words, different persons have different learning and acquisition rates. This means that individual differences among language learners play an influential part in the learning degree of success or failure in the learning process.

1.5.1. Some famous Cases around the World

1.5.1.1.The Case of Manchester

1.5.1.1.1. Introduction to the City

Manchester is a city and a metropolitan brought in Greater Manchester, England. It is situated in the south-central part of North West England. The name Manchester originates from the ancient Rome name "Mamucium" or "Mancunium", the name of the Roman fort and settlement generally thought to be a latinisation of an original Celtic name possibly meaning "breast like hill" for "mamm", plus old English "ceaster" = "town", which is derived from latin "castra" = "camp". An alternative theory suggests that the origin is Brittonic "mamma"="mother" was a river-goddess of the River Medlock which flows below the fort. Today, Manchester is a mixture of many civilizations that passed by throughout the years such as Roman Fort and Victorian Era (Manchester, 2017).

1.5.1.1.2. Manchester Phonological Properties

There is considerable quantity of motivating and recognized research into the acquisition of a second dialect in the equivalent language. This attainment can happen when non-native speakers of English are exposed to non-standard dialects (i.e. different from the pedagogical model). Drummond PhD research addresses this topic by looking at the extent to

the pronunciation of Polish people living in Manchester, who are using English as a second language which is influenced by their local accent.

The research covered five phonological features of a Manchester accent: the vowel sound in ‘STRUT’ words, the vowel sound in ‘BATH’ words, the hard /g/ in /ng/ syllables, /t/ glottalisation, and /h/ dropping. Data were being gathered by recording informal interviews and providing a task involving the description of cartoon pictures. The preliminary results suggest that while some people do obtain features of the local accent into their own pronunciation “*this acquisition is not a foregone conclusion and, at least at first glance, appears to be inconsistent*” (Drummond, 2008, p. 1). The variables being examined in order to explain the grade of attainment includes:

Amount of exposure to the local accent, motivation to improve English, desire to integrate into the local community, attitude towards local accent and accent change, amount of L1/L2 use, amount of formal instruction (Drummond, 2008, p. 1)

According to Wells (1982) ,‘Glottalisation’ represents a process of preglottalization or glottal reinforcement, that is a glottal stop hides the approach phase of the oral closure before /t/ (and /p, k, tʃ/) in the final environments of certain syllable. He described t-glottaling, which he defined as the complete replacement of the oral articulation by the sound /ʔ/. The glottal replacement is used in PreV (vowel) and PreP (pause) environments, and something other than released /t/ in PreC (consonant) environment (Drummond, 2010, p. 72)

The STRUT vowel was described as a slightly opener, centralized that occupies the area marked by the symbols /ɛ/ or /ɐ/, used in the phonemic representation of the STRUT vowel, as represented in the figure 1. Actually, it is used in all Southern Spoken British English (SSBrEng) as a realization of the vowel. Wells (1982, p. 131) described it as ‘*a relatively short, half slightly opener, centralized-back or central, unrounded voiced*’ (as cited

in Drummond, 2010, p. 70). However, the modern SSBreEng realization of the sound occupies the area marked by /ʌ/ as shown in the vowel diagram in figure 1 on the left (Drummond, 2010, p. 70-72).

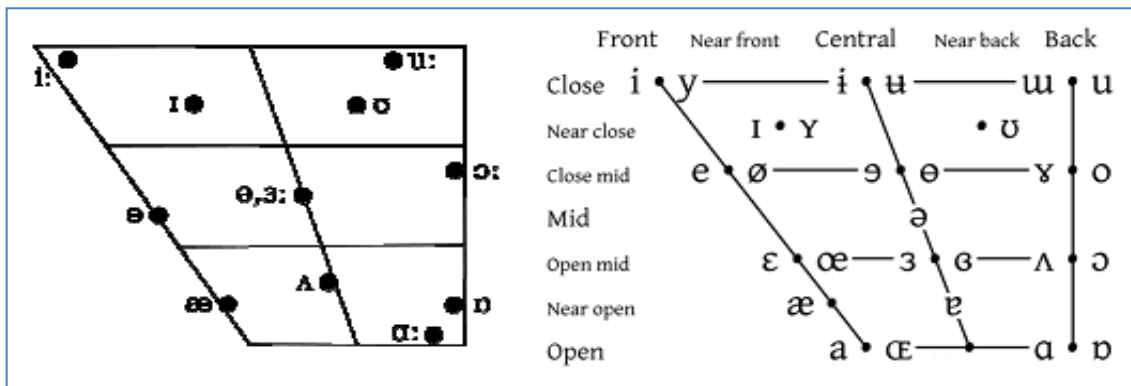


Figure 1. SSBreEng Vowel Chart from Roach (2004) and the IPA Vowel Chart (2003) (as cited in, Drummond, 2010, p. 70)

Indeed, the North of England in general, has no phonemic opposition between the STRUT vowel and the FOOT vowel. This lack of the so-called FOOT/STRUT split is in marked contrast to the pedagogical model of the pronunciation of English by the Polish speakers living in Manchester, which is based on the SSBreEng vowel system described in figure 2. The FOOT/STRUT pronunciation can be summarized according to the map division of vowel used in UK shown in the figure below.

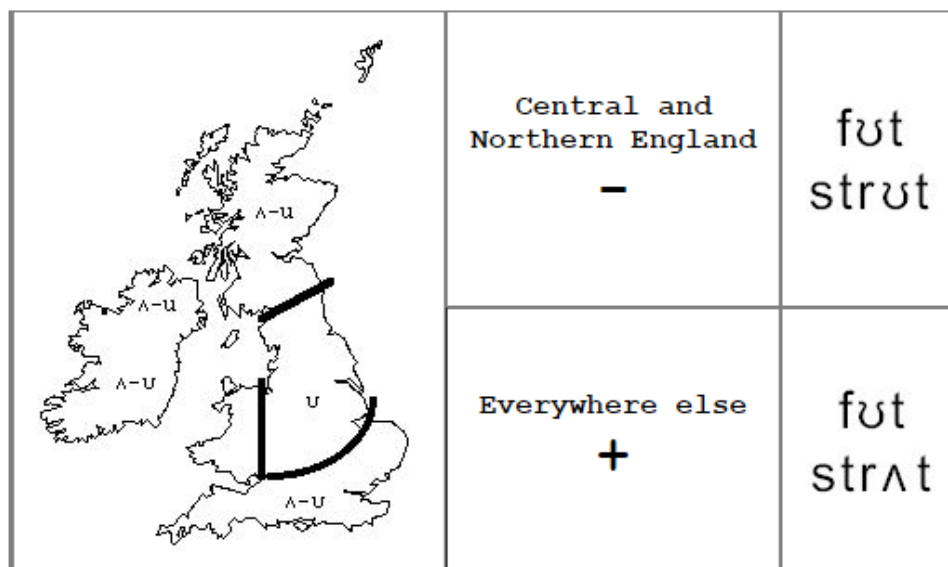


Figure 2. FOOT/STRUT Pronunciation according to UK Map (Knutsson, n.d.)

Additionally, Tollfree (1999, p. 173) stated that the h-dropping (referred to as h-loss) refers to the non-realization of /h/ in initial position of the syllable, for instance, the closed-set items such as the auxiliary verbs (e.g. have, has, had) and the personal pronouns (e.g. him, her, his, he). Also, Wells (1982) stated that the 'ing' syllable has two other variants, /ɪŋg/ and /ɪŋk/ which are common variants amongst the native speakers of the local area. Though Manchester phonological system is close to English, it still has some varieties according to diverse dimension, social, ethnographic, geographic...etc (Drummond, 2010).

1.5.1.2.The Case of Chinese Dialects

1.5.1.2.1. Introduction to China

China, officially the People's Republic of China (PRC), is a unitary sovereign state in East Asia and the world's most crowded country, with a population of over 1.381 billion . It has a continuous culture stretching back nearly 5,000 years and originated many of the foundations of the modern world. The People's Republic of China (PRC) was founded in 1949 after the Communist Party defeated the nationalist Kuomintang, who retreated to Taiwan, creating two rival Chinese states - the PRC on the mainland and the Republic of China based on Taiwan. The Chinese have built a civilization that has lasted longer than any other in the world.

In 5000 B.C., Chinese lived in the fertile Huang He river valley. In the 1700s B.C., invaders called the Shang entered their valley. These invaders built the first permanent, organized civilization. Since the Shang takeover, China has mostly been ruled by dynasties. The founder of the Ming dynasty brought China under one rule.

Later, his grandson rebuilt the capital and renamed it Beijing. He also built a palace complex called the Forbidden City. The city got this name because only the rulers and a few officials could enter it. In 1664, the Manchus invaded China, creating the Qing dynasty. This lasted until 1911. There are as many as 292 living languages in China.

The languages most commonly spoken belong to the Sinitic branch of the Sino-Tibetan language family, which contains Mandarin (spoken natively by 70% of the population), and other Chinese varieties. Standard Mandarin, a variety of Mandarin based on the Beijing dialect, is the official national language of China and is used as a lingua franca in the country between people of different linguistic backgrounds (China, n.d.)

1.5.1.2.2. China Phonological Properties

The majority of researchers in the field of language education agree that the learners' mother tongue affects the pronunciation of the substantial factor in describing foreign accents. First language or the mother tongue may interfere to cause mistakes in aspiration, stress, and intonation in the target language. Some Chinese students incline to have trouble with English sounds because they are deeply affected by similar Chinese sounds despite that they are very different from each other. For the second language learners, a particular sound which does not exist in the native language can therefore pose a difficulty to develop or sometimes to try to replace those sounds with similar ones in their mother tongue. These sounds embrace both vowels like /æ/, /u:/ and consonants like /θ/. Hence learners have difficulty first of all in perceiving these sounds, and consequently try to find closest equivalents to substitute those new sounds. A distinctive case will be the substitution of /s/ or /z/ for the English /ð/, /ai/ or /e/ for the English /æ/ as in the word 'that'. Sometimes, sounds do exist in the native language. It should be noticed that, although some consonants exist in both languages and represented by the same phonemic symbol, they may differ, at least in one phonetic feature which can be of importance. For instance, the English /r/ and /ʃ/ are very different from the Chinese /ʃ/ becomes /s/ and /r/ becomes /z/. Hence, it is not surprising when the words 'English', 'pronunciation', 'rose' and 'rise' are uncomfortably heard when they are produced by ESL learners, it was therefore suggested that the degree of perceived differences influences learners' competence in acquiring second language phonetic segments. It should be

noticed that Chinese is a syllable timed language while English is a stress-timed language and therefore they have a great deal of differences in stress and rhythmic patterns. The basis for Chinese rhythm is the number of syllables, and the production of every syllable virtually takes the same amount of time, while the basis for English rhythm is that of stresses and the stressed syllable takes more time to pronounce. With no knowledge of this significant feature, Chinese learners of English often clearly articulate every English syllable and word in speeches. This results in a foreign-sounding accent, and possibly misconceiving. Another difference between Chinese and English is that Chinese is a tone language while English is an intonation one. Intonation transfer from the second language learners' L1 to L2 is a natural phenomenon. Bolton & Kwok (1990) have found that English spoken by different Chinese dialect groups have different accents. The distinctive system of pronunciation and intonation of Chinese as compared to English may cause Chinese to be perceived as rude and thoughtless. More serious intonation transfer may even affect comprehension. In China, there are many significant dialects and different local accents which will cause difficulty in learning English. As the case of students from Yunnan province often have difficulty in distinguishing /æ/ with /e/ in the words 'bad' and 'bed'. Chinese speaker's dialectal background can be predicted from acoustic properties of his/her EFL (as cited in, Zhang & Yin, 2009, p. 142).

1.5.1.3. The Case of Joseph Conrad

1.5.1.3.1. Introduction to Joseph Conrad

According to Pousada (1994, p. 335-349), Jozef Konrad Nalecz Korzeniowski was born in 1857 in Berdyczow in the Ukraine. He was the son of Apollo Korzeniowski and Ewa Bobrowska, Polish aristocrats. His parents were sent in 1862 to live in exile in Vologda in northern Russia during the Russian occupation of Poland because of their Anti-Czarists' Polish National Messianist sentiments. Consequently, while Polish was his mother tongue, he acquired some Russian early in childhood, though he selected to reduce it as one of his

languages and bore a lasting hatred to the language and all things Russian. Korzeniowski received a living as a translator, and Conrad obtained an early admiration of English and French literature during his father's translations of Shakespeare, Hugo, and other writers. Conrad was taught French at home, and this education was continued all over Conrad's youth yet after his father's death, ensuing in a balanced bilingualism of Polish and French. He had a French governess, a Mlle. Durand, whose last words to him were: "*N'oublie pas ton français, mon chéri.*" He mentioned in *A Personal Record* that "*simply by playing with us she had taught me not only to speak French, but to read it as well*" (p. 64-65). He also learned German and Latin that were taught in written form in school very quickly, despite his poor health, he spent little time in formal classes (as cited in Pousada, 1994, p. 3)

In 1874, he left Poland for Marseilles in order to heal himself and learn a skill. He spent four years working on French vessels in the West Indies and South America. He chose English from the few intimate English sailors amid the international crews and from British newspapers. Conrad's advancement in the English language was afterward very fast Coolidge (1975, p. 62) asserted that "*His habit of using extravagant gesture further added to the foreignness of his English speech*" (as cited in Pousada, 1994, p. 4).

In all, Conrad wrote eighteen novels, twenty-nine short stories, and three play adaptations, five collections of autobiographical and personal essays in English. For instance: *Almayer's Folly* (1895), *Outcast of the Islands* (1896) and *Lord Jim* (1900). In most of his works, one can discover indications of themes of multilingualism and cultural adaptation. Hugh Walpole almost lost Conrad's friendship by reporting that Conrad: "*thought in Polish, arranged his thoughts in French, and expressed them in English*". Conrad quickly-portrayed that in a personal letter in 1918:

I began to think in English long before I mastered, I won't say the style (I haven't done that yet), but the mere uttered speech. Is it thinkable that anybody possessed of some

effective inspiration should contemplate for a moment such a frantic thing as translating it into another tongue? (as cited in Pousada, 1994, p. 4).

1.5.1.3.2. Conrad's English Language Proficiency in Relation to the Sensitive Period of Learning

Hawthorne (1979, p. 11) covered in his analysis of Conrad's stylistics, that Conrad's writing was blessed with “a more than commonly developed consciousness of language...an awakened philosophical curiosity about language, more easily developed when one speaks and thinks in more than one tongue ” (as cited in Pousada, 1994, p. 3).

Throughout Conrad's entire life, in spite of an unbelievable seize of the stream and rhythm of the English language, despite extraordinary vocabularies and deluxe wording, he remained essentially an outsider, an ‘émigré’ to the English civilization and community, Zabel (1947, p. 113-4) said that: “his very mastery of the language, advancing from early richness and exoticism to later ease and spareness, never lost the conscious dignity of an acquired speech” (as cited in Pousada, 1994, p. 11). He wrote novels in English that develop into classics of English literature; his English speech preserved the strong Polish accent of his L1. Therefore some features of an L2 (e.g. vocabulary and grammar) are easier to learn than others (e.g. pronunciation). Some linguists suggested that the influence of Conrad's Polish accent on his English is due to the later period in which he learned English and they said that learning a second language must be on a sensitive period that some define it at the age of ten:

The term "sensitive period," on the other hand, refers to the fact that the age limitation on L2 acquisition is not absolute in the same sense as above. It is indeed possible to acquire a second language after the sensitive period, but it would theoretically not be possible to do so to the extent of attaining native-like proficiency and thus being able to pass for native (Patkowski, 1980, p. 449)

Studies on accent by Oyama (1976) and Seliger et al. (1975), examining the relation of age of acquisition with the ability of native-like pronunciation, have added supporting evidence for the conception of a sensitive period for the acquisition of a second phonological system. Previously, Eric Lenneberg's theory of Critical Period Hypothesis presented in 1967, stated that a learner before puberty can learn various languages fluently much more than learners after it. The results in both cases resumed that age of acquisition is a strong predictor of accent, while various motivational and practice factors (including period of stay in the United States) have tiny effect. The study account here examined the existence of a sensitive period for the acquisition of language rules in a second language. The theory suggestion was that full, native-like acquisition of language rules in a non-native language can be reached merely if learning begins before the age of 15 years. It should be illustrated that native-like proficiency is not the necessary product of any second language acquisition experience prior to puberty, but rather is a possible outcome under optimal sociolinguistic conditions. Adult second language acquisition would never be expected to result in total native fluency. Scovel referred to this as the "Conrad Phenomenon" in honor of the Polish-born novelist who became one of the greatest literary figures of the English language despite being practically unintelligible in his spoken production (as cited in, Patkowski, 1980, p. 462)

According to Pousada (1980, p. 11): many of Conrad's friends comments regarding his English as Wells wrote once in his autobiography that Conrad spoke English "*strangely...not badly altogether*". Baines (1960, p. 233) stated that he used to pronounce the final e of these and those. Galsworthy (1924, p. 2) as well, described Conrad's speech as being in "*a strong but fascinating accent*". Also, Paul Valéry, the French poet, was surprised by Conrad's "horrible" accent in English (1924, p. 663-665). The Countess Eleanor Palffy (1929, p. 534-538) noted that "Conrad spoke English with a guttural Polish twist. Good came out

ringingly as "gut" and blood as "blut," which fitted in curiously with the complex beauties of his phrases". Ford, the cooperator of Conrad described his speech as:

He spoke English with great fluency and distinction, with correctitude in his syntax, his words absolutely exact as to meaning but his accentuation so faulty that he was at times difficult to understand and his use of adverbs as often as not eccentric (as cited in, Pousada, 1980, p. 11).

Likewise, Ford's own biographer Douglas Goldring illustrated Conrad's prose as "*largely pastiche Flaubert translated into English by someone with no great ease in the use of the language*" (as cited in, Meyer, 2015, p. 151). Lenneburg (1967) agreed that many of Conrad mispronunciations came from the fact that he learned English so late in life, after the so-called "critical period" of brain lateralization (as cited in, Pousada, 1980, p. 11).

His sensitivity with regard to his accent almost lost him the friendship of his trusty agent Pinker after a tiff in which Pinker cried that he should speak English if he could. Jessie (1964, p. 142) stated that Conrad screamed: "*Speak English...if I can...what does he call all I have written?*" (as cited in Pousada, 1994, p. 12). It is also not entirely clear that Conrad could be considered fully native-like, as indicated in the following passage by Vonnegut (1980):

The writing style which is most natural for you is bound to echo the speech you heard when a child. English was the novelist Joseph Conrad's third language. And much that seems piquant in his use of English was no doubt colored by his first language, which was polish (as cited in, Patkowski, 1980, p. 463)

Najder (1983, p. 326) stated that Conrad's correspondence showed that he found writing in English arduous. He admitted to his confidante and fictitious "aunt" Marguerite Poradowska that for him, English was still "*a foreign language and its use require a formidable effort on my part*" (as cited in, Pousada, 1994, p. 13). According to Larson and Smalley (1972, p. 398):

When a language learner has reached the point where he can translate from his mother tongue into the new language in a style and a dimension appropriate to a given situation and can do so fluently, so that his translation is received by native speakers of the new language with ease, appreciation, and interest, and when he can preserve the intentional meaning of the message from which he is translating, he has proved without a shadow of a doubt that he has become bilingual. There is no doubt that Conrad's written English was received "with ease, appreciation, and interest (as cited in, Pousada, 1994, p. 12).

Najder (1983, p.208) stated that early on Conrad's writing career, he had the good fortune to make the acquaintance of Edward Garnett, who became a life-long friend and faithful editor of his work. When *Almayer's Folly* was accepted for publication, Conrad made three rounds of corrections of the galley proofs and changed 800 words. Conrad confessed to Garnett in a letter in 1898: "The more I write the less sure I am of my English" (as cited in, Pousada, 1994, p. 12-13).

In addition, some studies on child-adult differences have focused on children in formal FLA conditions in school settings. Such research (e.g., Burstall 1975, Stern 1976) has shown basically no differences in second language accomplishment between younger and older children. According to Lamendella (1977), formal settings are conducive to an essential conscious learning process where little or no use is made of the language acquisition system. Thus, it is only under conditions of being exposed to the target language in a natural setting for a long period that the potential for effective second language acquisition of children can be detected intrinsically. Studies of FLL settings therefore do not stand directly upon the hypothesis of age limitation. The high potency of the age aspect also seems to dispute a "social learning" approach. Such approaches embrace that socio-cultural factors affect the

attitudinal and motivational factors which determine success or failure, irrespective of age factors (as cited in, Patkowski, 1980, p. 466).

Conclusion

This chapter is an overview which aimed at presenting the resulting linguistic phenomenon when languages come into contact. Its aim was to introduce mother tongue influence on foreign language acquisition. In conclusion, the influence of the mother tongue on the second language acquisition or foreign language has a positive and a negative side. It is considered by many linguists as the most important factor which interferes when we acquire a foreign language. In this chapter, it has been pointed out a special emphasis on the influence of the dialects on the English language use. Besides, to prove the idea that the dialects may influence the English language pronunciation, some examples have been chosen which reveal such influence in relation to the sensitive period of learning.

Chapter Two

The Socio-cultural Profile of Algeria

Introduction

This chapter aims at introducing some socio-cultural aspects of language varieties in Algeria in relation to linguistic transfer and mother-tongue effect on foreign language acquisition. It points out the different ages which marked the history of the country and the role of the different raiders who contributed in shaping the sociolinguistic profile of Algeria. It also states the tools of the verbal repertoire of the Algerian's community: Classical Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), Colloquial Arabic, Tamazight and French. It attempts to demonstrate different positions given to them and points out some initial general information on the characteristics of the Arabic language. Furthermore, this chapter is also an attempt to discuss concisely the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria in terms of multilingualism, and borrowing then we will give a brief information concerning Arabization in Algeria.

2.1.The Language Situation in Algeria

2.1.1. The Historical Background

Algeria's history goes back to nearly 700,000 BC. It has discovered cave paintings that are believed to date between 8000 and 4000 BC. It shows elephants, rhinoceros, and hippopotamus that were in the area at that time. Settlers getting in later became known as Berbers. By 900 BC Phoenician traders had moved into the area and established seaward cities. In the 4th century BC, the Berbers formed an army and revolted towards independence and that was successful. Berber kingdoms were then established and remained in reign till the Romans arrived in AD 24. Primarily coastal areas and cities became under Roman control. Christianity and Judaism were introduced into the area during that time. Some Berber groups transformed to Christianity whilst others transformed to Judaism. In the earlier part of the fifth century, the Vandals invaded Northern Africa from Spain. Led by King Gaiseric, troops defeated the Roman monopoly in the area, permitting Berbers to restart their lands.

The most significant invasion of North Africa happened in the mid seventh century when Arabs swept across the northern half of the continent. Mass groups of Berbers converted to Islam. All non Arab people were seen as inferior. While the Umayyad empire leaders enforced the dominance of Arabs, the Kharijite sect required equality for all Muslim people. As they gained support, the Kharijites overthrew the empire and recognized numerous kingdoms. By 751, the Abbasid dynasty moved into the area. Mystical Islam (a Shi'a form of Sufism) grew and converted numerous Berber tribes which led to a revolt against the dynasty forming the Fatimid Dynasty in the early tenth century. Berber forces resisted the new dynasty. Massive numbers of Arabs immigrating eventually led to the "Arabization" of Algeria, the rest of North Africa and smaller Arab kingdoms tracked.

Later on, in the fifteenth century, Spanish troops ruled the south of the country and established their culture mainly on: Mersa El Kébir (1505), Oran (1509), Algiers (1510) and Bugia (1510). They were defeated by Ottomans in the sixteenth century. However, the Spanish returned in 1732 when the armada of the Duke of Montemar was victorious in the Battle of Aïn-el-Turk and took again Oran and Mersa El Kébir. Both cities were held until 1792, when they were sold by the king Charles IV to the Bey of Algiers. Ottomans rule started in 1516 by the Muslim privateer brothers Aruj and Khair ad Din—the latter known to Europeans as Barbarossa, or Red Beard. Under Khair ad Dins regency, Algiers became the centre of Ottoman authority in the Maghreb, from which Tunis, Tripoli, and Tlemcen would be overcome and Morocco's freedom would be threatened.

In 1830, an attack was planned by Charles X against Algeria, which was to be a civilizing mission, more exactly an attempt to boost his fame. The armed forces snatched into Algiers and occupied the city after three weeks. In 1834, Algeria officially turned into a French settlement. Algerians were obliged to leave their lands which were then sold at low price to French and other European immigrants, most of whom were criminals sent to Algeria in exile.

The Influence of Algerian Dialects on English Language Pronunciation.

A Famous Algerian Muslim leader named Abd al-Qadir who was recognized as Amir al Muminin (commander of the faithful), unified tribes guiding roughly a victorious revolution against the French army. Two-thirds of the country became under this control, a temporary government was created and the economy strengthened. Hence, the French sent around one hundred thousand soldiers to combat Abd al-Qadir's army. Virtually 200,000 Algerians defended for France in World War I, 1914-1919. Those veterans demanded rights and French nationality according to their years of service, an appeal that was rejected.

However, the only way for an Algerian to live as a human was to abandon Islam or to revolt. In World War II, 1939-1945, the Algerian people fought again beside the Allied forces against the Nazi rule. The latter took over France, Algeria also became under their rule. All Jews in Algeria were taken to Europe and positioned in concentration camps. Many Jews in Algeria shrouded in houses of their Muslim neighbors. As soon as the Nazi's were crushed, the Algerians called for independence as a country in appreciation of their accompaniment of the Allied forces throughout the war. Their requirement was refused and Nazi's former behind French officers were put in control positions in Algeria. Thence, Algerians commenced a war of independence against the French in 1954; it was one of the bloodiest to be fought on the continent. The war was guided by Algerian Muslim nationalist parties with a chain of bombings on French military and later civilian intentions. The French reactions resulted in the murdered of one-tenth of the total population.

By 1962, President Charles de Gaulle sensed that retaining the war and Algerian occupation was too expensive, and negotiated for independence. July 5, 1962 Algeria officially became a self-governing nation after 132 years of French colonialism. The new established self-government was led by the Nation Liberation Front (FLN) who had originated the war and Ahmed ben Bella as Algeria's first president. A combination of French

and Islamic law was shaped to rule the land. (Federal Research Division Library of Congress, 2008; History of Algeria, 2017)

2.1.2. The Sociolinguistic Profile

Algerian linguistic setting is rich with a variety of languages including Arabic, Berber, French and English. The Algerian population has three sociolinguistic strata: educated, uneducated and semi-educated bilinguals.

Educated bilinguals speak both the local dialect and standard French. This is defined by Meillet (1934) as '*le bilinguisme des hommes cultivés*' (as cited in, Hassaine, 2011, p. 35). Some educated Algerians are multilingual in which they speak Berber, Arabic and French, and use them in different fields.

Uneducated bilinguals represented approximately 80% of the Algerian population, which could not read and write after independence. However, among them we find bilinguals. It is apparent that all of them spoke a local dialect and understood French even if they did not speak it. Also, they used some French words adapted morphologically and phonologically to Algerian dialects, to make themselves understood.

Semi-bilinguals consist of bilinguals whose fluency in French is non-existent but they are usually of the same social background as those of group two. This group is bilingual in the sense that its members speak both Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and Berber. The following paragraphs represent a detailed overview about the used languages in Algeria.

2.1.2.1. Arabic

Language is the tool of communication by which a person expresses his thoughts, and feelings in such a way that he can be understood by others. Indeed, Arabic is considered as the most developed Semitic language because it is marked by restricted vocalic system and a rich consonantal system.

Today, Arabic is considered as one of the most essential languages of the world. Arabic is the fourth most-commonly-spoken language in the world and it is one of the six official languages of the United Nations. It is a part of the wider Afro-asiatic phylum including ancient Egyptian, Coptic, Cushitic, Berber, and Chadic.

The Arabic of today has descended mainly from the old dialects of Central and North Arabia which were divided by the classical Arab grammarians into three Groups: Hejaz, Najd, and the language of the tribes in adjoining areas. The original homeland of speakers of Arabic is the central and northern regions of the Arabian Peninsula. The lower half of the Arabian Peninsula was populated by speakers of languages known as Epigraphic South Arabian.

Arabic is the exclusive official language in twenty countries in a region expanding from West of Asia to the North of Africa. These are Morocco, Algeria, Mauritania, Tunisia, Libya, Egypt Sudan, Djibouti, Somalia, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Bahrain, Qatar, the United Arab Emirates, Oman, Yemen, Jordan, Syria, Iraq, Palestine and Lebanon. Besides, it has speakers in the south-western corner of Iran, in southern Turkey, in Chad, in some areas in the south of the Sahara, in some territories of the Central (Watson, 2002, p. 6).

2.1.2.1.1. Varieties of Arabic

a. Modern Standard Arabic

Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) also refers to as Literary or Standard language. It is regarded as the official language of an estimated 320 million people in the 22 Arab countries represented in the Arab League including Algeria. Fischer (1997, p. 188) stated that the literary Arabic or modern standard Arabic began to attain a standard form through the development of grammatical norms in the eighth century. MSA is deduced from Classical Arabic, which is the language of the Qur'an (the holy book of Muslims) and other early Islamic literature. It is applied for government, trade, and literature.

Additionally, it is the subject of grammar writers and an instrumental medium of education and advancement. It is limited to formal written and spoken occasions. Modern standard Arabic has two variations which are the written and the spoken form. The former is basically the same all over the world, whereas the latter differs according to geographical location, usage, context and regional dialects. MSA is to be distinguished from regional and social colloquial varieties of Arabic in terms of phonemics, word structure, sentence structure, and vocabulary (Watson, 2002, p. 8).

b. Classical Arabic

Classical Arabic is the formal version that was used in the Al Hejaz region. It carries the double prestige of being the words of God and the language that survived through many centuries and is regarded as a crucial part of the culture of the Arab. It is to be distinguished from modern standard Arabic because the latter uses simplified grammatical features and diacritical phonetic symbols that dictate pronunciation. Purportedly, Classical Arabic, according to the syntactic and grammatical norms laid down by classical grammarians (such as Sibawayh) is considered normative.

However, present-day authors approximately never write in arrant eloquent Classical Arabic, instead they use a simplified standard Arabic with its own grammatical norms and vocabulary that suits the period lived in Classical Arabic is characterized by some norms such as preceding the verb in the sentence (VSO order). It favors the order: “verb +subject +predicate”, for example: “كتب الأطفال الحروف” (Wrote +The boys +the letters). Usually, the used verb is always singular (Watson, 2002; Modern Standard Arabic, 2017 & McLaughlin, 2003, p. 27).

c. Colloquial Arabic

Colloquial Arabic, also referred to as spoken Arabic, is a variety of Arabic. Unlike MSA and classical Arabic that are uniform in all Arab countries, colloquial Arabic is subject to local variation, not only between different countries, but also across provinces in the same country. It is a mixed form, which has many variations, and often a dominating impact from local languages. Differences between various spoken Arabic can be large enough to make them incomprehensible from one region to another. Colloquial Arabic characteristics can be summarized in the following points:

- It has almost no case endings, and verb suffixes are far fewer.
- Simplicity: that is the structure of the sentence is very simple.
- Stress patterns: the place of the stress in an utterance approximately determined by fixed rules
- Formality: it has many ritual or formal phrases in Greeting, salutation etc. (McLaughlin, 2003, p. 5)

2.1.2.1.2. Characteristics of Arabic

a. Consonants and Vowels

Arabic language originated out of Semitic group of languages. It is illustrated by its inflectional nature. The Arabic alphabets are composed of twenty-eight consonantal phonemes occurring in nine places of articulation. They are submitted at the following table.

Table 02

Arabic Alphabets

Letter	Phonetic Symbol
أ ب ت ث ج د ذ ر ز س ش ص ض ط ظ ق ك ل م ن ه و ي	a : b t ʔ dʒ h x d ɒ r z s ʃ S d z ? g f q k l m n h w u : j i:

(Bouras, 2006, p. 13-14)

Moreover, the Arabic language articulation of consonants can be summarized in the table below.

Table 03

Phonetic Features of Standard Arabic Consonants

A.

	Voiced	Oral	Bi labial	Labio Dental	Dental	Inter- dental	Alveolar	Palato alveolar	Post alveolar
b	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
t	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
ṭ	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
d	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
ḍ	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	-
k	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
m	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
n	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
f	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-
s	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
ṣ	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
θ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
ḏ	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
ḍ	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
ʃ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʒ	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
r	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
z	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
l	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
j	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
w	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
h	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʕ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʕ	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
x	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
q	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
y	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
h	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

B.

	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	glottal	Pharyngeal	Stop	Approximant	Glide	Lateral	Consonantal	Syllabic
b	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
t	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ʈ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
d	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ɖ	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
k	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
m	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
n	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
f	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
s	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ʃ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
θ	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ð	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ɸ	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ʎ	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ʒ	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
r	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	+	-
z	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
l	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	+	-
j	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
w	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-
h	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
ʕ	-	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ʁ	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-
x	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
q	-	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+	-
ɣ	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-
ħ	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	+	-

(Beghoul, 2007, p. 75-76)

Arabic language is based on three pairs of phonemes which are short vowels /u/ (damma), /a/ (fatha) and /i/ (kasra) are represented by phonetic symbols placed on table 03. In addition, it also has long vowels, we should add « َ » to obtain /a:/, « ُ » to obtain /u:/ and « ِ » to obtain /i:/ as presented in table 04. If a word lacks a vowel, the symbol used then is « ° » (soukoun) placed on top of the consonants. The following tables 4, 5 and 6 show the phonetic transcription of Arabic vowels according to I.P.A (International Phonetic Alphabets):

Table 04

Short Vowels in Arabic

Arabic Symbol	Phonetic Symbol
◌َ	/a/
◌ُ	/u/
◌ِ	/i/

(Bouras, 2006, p. 16)

Table 05

Long Vowels in Arabic

Arabic Symbol	Phonetic Symbol
أ	/a:/
و	/u:/
ي	/i:/

(Bouras, 2006, p. 17)

The Arabic word's semantic value lies in the "root". It is customized by the shifting of vowels, the addition of some vowels and consonants and the accumulation of suffixes and prefixes. It is inflected according to number, gender or function. When shifting from short to long vowels, we provide the subsequent sounds except the « fatha » which must be long in order to be doubled. It can be shown in the following table.

Table 06

Doubled Vowels in Arabic

Arabic Symbol	Phonetic Symbol
اَ	/an/
اِ	/in/
اُ	/un/

(Bouras, 2006, p. 18)

Standard Arabic has a contrastive vowel length. A smallest pair such as 'جمال'/dʒamal/ and 'جمال'/dʒama:l/ mean 'camel' and 'beauty' respectively. The following table classifies the vowels of Standard Arabic:

Table 07

Phonetic Features of Vowels in Standard Arabic

Vowel	Oral	front	central	back	close	mid	open	rounded
i	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
i:	+	+	-	-	+	-	-	-
a	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
a:	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	-
u	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+
u:	+	-	-	+	-	-	-	+

(Beghoul, 2007, p. 64)

b. Diphthongs

El-Imam (2001, p. 357) stated that Standard Arabic has two closing diphthongs /aj/ and /aw/. They occur when the two glides /j/ and /w/ are preceded by a vowel. The diphthong /aj/ may be found in such words as 'جيد'/dʒajjid/ 'good', and the diphthong /aw/ in such words as 'حول'/hawwal/ 'to change' (as cited in, Beghoul, 2007, p. 64)

c. Stress in Arabic

Standard Arabic words' stress is not as significant as that in the English language because the stressed syllable in the Arabic language is not as a prominent unit as that in the

English language. In fact, the vowel quality of the stressed syllable and unstressed ones does not frequently stand in sharp contrast as the case in English. It is like the case of the French language, the centers of unstressed syllables are usually strong syllables. Arabic and English languages have a free mutable stress in common. According to Al Ani (1970, p. 88), the rules of locating word stress in Standard Arabic are as follows:

a. When a word is made up of a string of the CV type syllables, the first syllable receives the primary stress and the remaining syllables are weak and unstressed.

'كتب' /kataba/ 'to write' 'درس' /darasa/ 'to study'

b. When a word contains only one long syllable, CVC, the long syllable receives the primary stress and the remaining syllables are weak and unstressed.

'كاتب' /ka:tib/ 'writer' 'معلمه' /muʕallimuhu/ 'his teacher'

c. When a word contains two long syllables CVC or more, the long syllable nearest to the last one receives the primary stress and the closest syllables to the beginning receives, in most cases, a secondary stress.

'رئيسهن' /raʔi:suhunna/ 'their chief. Fem plural'

'مستودعاتهم' /mustawdaʕa:tuhum/ 'their deposits' (as cited in Beghoul, 2007, p. 77)

Watson (2011) stated that the placement of word stress in Arabic varies considerably from one dialect to another, and has been the focus of extensive research and debate. In determining word stress, Arabic language recognizes three weights of syllable: light, heavy, and super-heavy. Light syllables are always open, heavy syllables are open or closed, and super-heavy syllables are closed or doubly closed. They can be shown in the table below.

Table 08

Examples of Classical Arabic Syllable's Types

(1)		<i>open</i>		<i>closed</i>		<i>doubly closed</i>
	light	CV	wa 'and'			
	heavy	CVV	sā.fara 'he traveled'	CVC	min 'from' ka.tab.tu 'I wrote'	
	super- heavy			CVVC	bāb# 'door'	CVCC bint# 'girl' CVVGG ¹ mādd# 'stretching'
				CVVG	mād.dun 'stretching (NOM)'	

(Watson, 2011, p. 2)

Beghouli (2007) stated that the stress placement is most probably according to the vowel quality because vowels' length is one of the prominent features that attract the stress. Other concepts are illustrated by the existence of a consonant geminate or '*Shedda*', which suggests in Arabic a phonetic context that is much related to stress.

2.1.2.2. Tamazight

In searching over the origin of the Tamazight (Berber), there isn't one specific place mentioned but several including Western Europe, Sub Saharian Africa and Northeast Africa. However, for centuries, a mixture of waves established in North Africa and made up its indigenous populations. Greenberg (1963) stated that Tamazight, or Berber, represents one of the famous five branches of Afro-Asiatic (formerly Semito-Hamitic) languages alongside with Semitic, Chadic, Cushitic and Egyptian (Haoues, 2008, p. 33). The word *Berber* is a derivative from the Greek word "*Barbarus*" in indication to the people of North Africa who were refractory to the Roman civilization. However, it was obtained by the Arabs then the Europeans. Likewise, Amazigh is the indigenous self-identification for a Berber, which means "free man" or "noble man". Its plural form is Imazighen, which used to describe the Berbers

community. Their land is called Tamazgha, which refer to all indigenous homelands of Berbers (Ghoul, 2013, p. 9). According to Katzner (1977, p. 32) Afro-Asiatic languages are spoken by people of vastly diverse racial, religious, and cultural origin. These languages are spoken in North Africa, mostly in Morocco and Algeria, and to a slighter scope in Niger, Mali, and other countries. The Berber languages are parallel to each other that some establishment speaks of a sole Berber language (Haoues, 2008, p. 33).

According to Saadi Mokrane (2002, p. 48) the people of North Africa may use the following words when classifying themselves: the word “*Qabayl*”: the tribes (set to them by the Arab pioneers) or the word “*Imazighen*”: the free men (as cited in Arfi, 2008, p. 72). In contrasting today’s Algerian languages such as Arabic (literate and spoken) and French, Berber is considered as the oldest of them all. Before the Arabs’ settlement in the areas, all of Tunisia, Morocco, Libya and Algeria represented a Berber territory. Cameron &Hurst (1983, p. 178) wrote:

As many as half of the Berber speaking minority already speak Arabic as a second (or third) language which, added to the 81.5% of the population (1966 census) who declared Arabic as their mother tongue, produced a 90% Arabic speaking population (as cited in, Haoues, 2008, p. 33).

Berber languages existed chiefly as an oral standard although Berber texts were written in Arabic and Roman scripts during the past by means of adding a few characters to symbolize various Berber phonemes. Although they shared some structures and vocabulary, the Berber dialects are totally separate. The ancient Berber script Tifinagh still survives among the Algerian Berbers districts. Cheriguen (2002) stated that the dissimilarity can be explained in terms of geographical situation. The tribes existing in distant regions, had slight or no communication. Within the 1970’s, the traced size of the Berber speaking community was a propos of three millions. The Algerian Berber languages are Kabyle (North), Chaouia (East),

Chenoua (central and West), Mzab (Mzab region), and Touareg language (Sahara). For example, Kabyle (Taqbailit) has two apprehensible dialects: Petite Kabylie dialects (East) and Grand Kabylie dialects (center). Amongst the four dialects, two involve a specific awareness; the Targui and the Kabyle. The Targui is said to be the dialect that has best outlasted despite any type of influence from any other language spoken in Algeria (Bouras, 2006, p. 20). The following table presents a classification of Berber tribes according to their geographical position done by Abderrahim (1972, p. 22):

Table 09

Algerian Berber Tribes, Dialects and Geographic Positions.

Name of the Berber Tribes	Name of the Dialects	Name of the Regions
The Kabyles	Kabyle	In Kabylie: mountain east of Algiers
The Chaouis	Chaoui	In the Aures, south west of Constantine
The Mozabites	Mozabite	Chardaia, northern Sahara
The Touaregs	Targui	In the central Sahara, A Hagggar Massif

(as cited in, Bouras, 2006, p. 19)

Lately, in 1997 the Tamazight language started being taught as an optional module in the public schools in the region of Kabylie. Nowadays, it is nationally generated to all public schools (Bouras, 2006, p. 20). In addition, Chaker (1984, p. 8–9) stated that the Berber speaking Algerians are likely to be between 20-25%. One out of five Algerians speaks Berber. Thanks to the hard work made to bring this language back to the cultural and linguistic sight, the late 1980's saw the birth of a Kabyle speaking broadcasting station concerning the linguistic aspect, a written form using Latin characters has been developed. Later, in 1999 an Algerian Tamazight channel was created and broadcasted internationally to spread the language (Bouras, 2006, p. 20).

According to Wardhaugh (1987, p. 178) the Islamization of the Maghreb preceded its Arabization which was never completed. One would say that the Islamization of the Imazighen people and the implementation of Arabic as the language of learning were regular, through conversion to Islam and the practice of the religion (as cited in, Aarfi, 2008, p. 73). Berber existed before 'Arabization' and therefore, has been considered by the Arabs as an old-fashioned language and maybe as a menace to national unity Grandguillaume (1983, p. 14) said that: *"The fact that Berber was the previous language to Arabization-Islamization of the Maghreb, leads the Arabs to consider it as a pre-Islamic survival and therefore depreciate it.."* (as cited in, Tatar, 1992, p. 13). Chaker (1978) reported that for some mysterious political causes, the Algerian state has avoided to deal with Berber. Despite the existence of alphabets labeled 'Tifinagh', Berber was only used for close matters within the family and in the cultural part, i.e. music, poetry and theater. Crystal (1987, p. 316) asserted that 'Tifinagh' originated from *"Numidian, an ancient Libyan script used in Roman times. The System consisted only of consonants, usually written right to left"* (as cited in, Tatar, 1992, p. 15). After the organization of the High Commissariat for Tamazight in 1993 and the allowance of legal recognition in 1996, Tamazight was approved as a national language through the application of Article.03 of the Algerian Constitution, amended in March 2002, to commence Tamazight as a national language and to foster its use amongst Algeria's institutional authorities. Then, it was decided that Tamazight was to be taught increasingly for all levels since the academic year 2003-2004. The following table represents the Tamazight alphabets done by Cheriguen Foudil (2002, p. 23):

Table 10

Tamazight Alphabets

Berber Notation	French Notation	API Value
a	a, e	a
i	i	i
u	ou, o	u
e short	e	e
w	ou	w
b	b	b
m	m	m
n	n	n
l	l	l
k	k, c, q	k
q	k, c, q	q
r	r	r
c	ch	ʃ
č	tch	tʃ
j	j	ʒ
ğ	ğ	ğ
ğ	dj, j	dʒ
y	y	j
ε	aa	
z	z	z
z	z	z emphatic
ž	dz	dz

The Influence of Algerian Dialects on English Language Pronunciation.

r	r	r emphatic
ɣ	gh , rh , r', r	r
x	kh	x
h	h	h
h	h	
d	d	d
d spirant	dh , d	ð
d	dh	
t	t	t
t spirant	th	θ
ṭ	t	t emphatic
t	ts , tz	ts
s	s , ç	s
š	s , ç	s emphatic

(Bouras, 2006, p. 21-23)

2.1.2.3.French

French entrance to North Africa and particularly to Algeria was in 1830 as a colonizing power. Algeria was regarded as a fundamental part of France. The French language was enforced as the language of administration and power. As a result, the Arabic as a challenging language of knowledge was censored except through Muslim prayers. Algerians, Arabic or Berber speaking, were obliged to deal with officials in French. No analysis was permitted and no official appreciation was given to either ones. By the end of the nineteenth century, a policy of adaptation was enforced in which the way to success was only through French. Saadi Mokrane (2002, p. 52) said: "*In 1938, [Arabic] was declared a foreign language by a law that was rescinded only in 1961, just prior to independence, by Charles de Gaulle*" (as cited in, Aarfi, 2008, p. 80). The colonizing government was reinforced by thousands of French and European migrants making the society more multifaceted. The colonizers were against the education of Algerians who were required to employment in the colonizers farms and property which was theirs before (Aarfi, 2008, p. 80). One must say that admission to university reckon on the colonial policy and administration. French learning according to Murphy (1977, p. 3) was considered as: "*....the necessity to acquire a knowledge of the language however basic, at least, in some parts of their (the Arabs) daily life*" (as cited in, Tatar, 1992, p. 16). Consequently, during the colonial era, French was the widespread language. However, its importance has been minimized today in status and number.

French has been exchanged steadily by classical Arabic *at almost* educational levels. Teaching Arabic was performed in the medersas (educational vocation), the zaouias and mosques (religious vocation). However, these establishments barely supported the French policy. For instance, the Jules Ferry law of 1872 ordered that the French primary school was obligatory. Moreover, the French language was set as the language of administration and social support, reducing Arabic and Berber to the rank of vernacular Languages. Djite (1992,

p. 17) stated that: “*The French imposed a system of direct administration, seized control of the educational system and undertook to displace Arabic*” (as cited in, Bouras, 2006, p. 24)

After almost a century of colonization, the French departed leaving the nation in an environment fulfilled by a “*language of discrimination, anger, and violence*” (Aarfi, 2008, p. 80). Minority of Algerians, Arab and Berber, were educated in French, which led to the creation of French elite who used to rule after independence. However, Wardhaugh (1987, p. 183) stated that the level of Arabic literacy was at its lowest level and after independence less than few thousands were capable of reading and writing in Arabic. During the beginning of sovereignty at 1962, most Algerians were illiterate, and French was kept as the language of the government. As a matter of fact, French continued to be widely used regardless of the Arabization program. Today, most educated Algerians are fluent in both languages French and Standard Arabic (Aarfi, 2008, p. 80).

Currently, French keeps enjoying an honored position in all of the three Maghreb’s countries in spite of governmental Arabization programs. French is still used properly and in code-switching situations by many people. According to Balta (1982):

Twenty times more children learn French than during the time of French Algeria. Even though the government refuses to recognize bilingualism and francophonie, Algeria is the second most francophone nation in the world. (as cited in, Haoues, 2008, p. 36)

Factually, according to Morsly (1984, p. 25) French was referred to as the first foreign language rather than a second language in Algeria in official discourses. Houari Boumediene, the Algerian president from 1965 to 1978, identified the position of French as being a foreign language that has particular situation because of historical objectives dimension (Haoues, 2008, p. 37). Hence, the language situation in Algeria might be portrayed as a diglossic, bilingual, and even multilingual. Concerning this aspect, Djite (1992, p. 2) says:

There is an overriding attitude of the elite who regard French as an “habitude de société” a part of their culture that they find very difficult to deny. To this day many of them purchase parabolic antennas and trans-coders to view French television programs (as cited in, Bouras, 2006, p. 25)

It has been mentioned that during 2004, the French programs are no more limited to that elite. They became now part of the everyday life of the whole Algerian society. The educational policy introduced French earlier (2nd year) to the primary school to emphasize French in the cultural and linguistic prospect more strongly than ever. The rejection aspect has vanished since the colonization factor is no longer characteristic of the French language. In the minds of the people, it becomes a feature of modernization, civilization and development (Bouras, 2006, p. 25). The following table presents the French Alphabets:

Table 11

French Alphabets

i. Vowels				
	Description	Examples	Transcription	Meaning
i	close, front, unrounded	ami	ami	friend
y	close, front, rounded	lune	lyn	crescent
e	half close, front, unrounded	et	e	and
ø	half close, front rounded	ceux	sø	those
ɛ	half open, front, unrounded	maître	mɛtr	master
ē	half open, front, unrounded, nasal	vin	vē	wine
œ	half open, front, rounded	club	klœb	club
œ̃	half open, front, rounded, nasal	un	œ̃	one
a/a	open, front, unrounded	la	la/la	the
ā	open, front, unrounded nasal	exemple	ɛgzāpl	example
u	close, back, rounded	tous	tus	all
o	half close, back, rounded	dos	dɔ	back
ɔ	half open, back, rounded	alors	alɔr	so
ɔ̃	half open, back rounded, nasal	ton	tɔ̃	your
ɔ	half close, central, unrounded	regard	rɔgard	look

ii. Consonants				
	Description	Examples	Transcription	Meaning
p	voiceless, bilabial, stop	petit	pəti	small
b	voiced, bilabial, stop	belle	bel	beautiful,
t	voiceless, dental, stop	ta	ta	your
d	voiced, dental, stop	dormir	dɔʁmiʁ	to sleep
k	voiceless, velar, stop	cas	ka	case
g	voiced, velar, stop	garde	ɡɑʁd	keep
m	voiced, bilabial, nasal, stop	matin	matɛ̃	morn
n	voiced, dental, nasal, stop	ne	nə	not
ŋ	voiced, velar, nasal, stop	footing	futiŋ	jogging
ɲ	voiced, palatal, nasal, stop	vigne	viɲ	vine
f	voiceless, labiodental, fricative	fille	fij	girl
v	voiced, labiodental, fricative	vite	vit	quick
s	voiceless, dental, fricative	son	sɔ̃	sound
z	voiced, dental, fricative	raser	ʁazɛ	shave
ʃ	voiceless, palato-alveolar, fricative	chat	ʃa	cat
ʒ	voiced, palato-alveolar fricative	gène	ʒɛn	disturb
ʁ	voiced velar fricative	reste	ʁɛst	remain
l	voiced, dental, lateral	le	lə	the
j	voiced, palatal, glide	oeil	œj	eye
ɥ	voiced, bilabial, glide	lui	lɥi	him
w	voiced, bilabial, velar, glide	doigt	dwa	finger
dʒ	voiced, palato-alveolar, affricated	adjoit	adʒwɛ̃	assistant
h	voiced, glottal, fricative	hop!	hop	-

(Beghoul, 2007, p. 19-21)

2.1.2.4. Arabization

Arabization refers to the introduction of Arabic education and the increased usage of Arabic where French was used previously. Governments in North African countries have long promoted Arabization as a nationalist platform.

During the colonization, the majority of Algerians received French education. However, the use of the language of past tyranny as a principal medium of tutoring or communication would be considered as a national shame. After independence, Algeria fronted an enormous problem of language, in which different languages and numerous dialects have coexisted during many years; it would be convenient to have one language. However, the chief reason for adopting a national language is its function as proof of unity, harmony and total acculturation in the country (Hassaine, 2001, p. 43).

Arabization is the process of bringing back Arabic to a principal position in the linguistic situation of the country. After independence, the leaders of the country were chiefly required to restore the cultural identity of the country. Arabic was certainly an essential variable to be considered in the process. As described by Djite (1992, p. 21):

In the Tripoli program of June 1962, the FLN (Front de Libération National) restated that the role of the revolution was to restore Arabic, the very expression of the cultural values of the country, its dignity and its sufficiency as a language of civilization (as cited in, Bouras, 2006, p. 26)

After the Evian Accords (a treaty which was signed on 18 March 1962 which sought Algeria's independence from France), the Algerian government under Ahmed Ben Bella's rule started a policy of "Arabization". Indeed, because of the colonization, French was the major administrative and academic language in Algeria, even more than in neighbour countries.

The Arabo-Islamic patrimony was retrieved by executing the Arabization process to combine the Algerian people after 130 years of instability, war and identity loss. In 1964 the first

practical measure was the Arabization of primary education and the introduction of religious lessons. The country relied on Egyptian teachers (the Muslim Brotherhood) due to its lack of literary Arabic-speakers.

In 1968, during Houari Boumediene 's (a preceding president) command Arabization was extended as a law, which tried to enforce the use of Arabic for civil servants. However the major role played by French was only diminished. Defending the national identity Houari Boumediene asserted addressing himself to secondary school students, and clarified that:

Ce que nous ne saurons trop vous conseiller, c'est de sauvegarder la personnalité Algérienne. Il est vrai que l'Algérie est située entre deux continents. Elle appartient en effet au continent Africain mais elle se trouve aux portes de l'Occident. Nous faisons donc partie d'un continent arriéré en voie de développement et nous avons en face un continent qui a ses qualités et ses personnalités. Autant nous sommes ouverts aux sciences et au progrès que nous ont apportés les nations qui nous ont devancés dans ce domaine, autant nous devons être soucieux de conserver notre personnalité et nos valeurs et autant nous devons faire pour préserver notre patrie et renforcer ses bases (as cited in, Hassaine, 2011, p. 44)

(What we can advice you, is to save the Algerian personality, it is obvious that Algeria is situated between two continent. It belongs indeed to the African continent but it is at the gates of the west. We are therefore part of a backward continent which is in the process of development and we have on our side a continent that has its qualities and personalities. As much as we are open to the sciences and to the progress brought to us by the nations that have preceded us in this field, we must be careful to preserve our personality and our values and

as much we must do to preserve our homeland and strengthen its foundations).

Translated by the author of this thesis.

Many laws after tried to ban French, Algerian Arabic and Berber from schools, administrative acts and street signs, but this resulted in Berber opposition to the government and created a distinction between those educated in Arabic and those in French, the latter kept being favoured by elites.

The preservation of Algerian culture will help it avoid being a population without soul and history. The ex-minister of education, A. Taleb Ibrahimi mentioned that Algerians should not destroy their acquired colonial knowledge, but we should make the most of it (Hassaine, 2011). However, after a long period of colonization, the restoration of Arabic as the national language was too delicate. This was initiated in Taleb Ibrahimi's speech when he said that: "*Arabization is essential but it must not be rushed or chaos will follow*" (as cited in, Hassaine, 2011, p. 46). The process was established until the BAC (exam of the end of the secondary cycle) All specialties were introduced by Arabic in 1990. At the university level, only few technical subjects kept being taught in French as biology and all its branches. (Bouras, 2006, p. 28)

Arabization must have taken place increasingly. The other factors which extend the difficulty to Arabize the country is linked to teaching. In Algeria more than 80% of the people were illiterate; therefore starting the Arabization process in the country where teachers were not competent to teach at various levels took much time. Between the age of 06 and 11, the children were trained accurately in Arabic. Nyrop (1972, p. 122) refers to this aspect as follows: "*...having adopted a deliberately moderate and pragmatic position on the language issue, the Boumedienne government is not likely to enact drastic measures*" (as cited in, Bouras, 2006, p. 27). However, this policy was in perfect concord with the socialist tendency of the country. As Ageron (1974, p. 122-123) states it clearly: "*It is not possible to build*

socialism without arabizing” (as cited in, Bouras, 2006, p. 27). A developmental program with soft steps was to be applied. The following table shows the first initiatives to be adopted.

Table 12

The Evolutionary Steps in the Arabization Process.

Date	Step
1964	1. Creation of a school of translation 1. All administrations had to prove themselves competent in Arabic.
1968	2. Arabization of media (time allocated to French speaking programs dropped to 43 %). 3. Arabization at the university (Literature, philosophy, history).
1973	1. Progress in the arabization process at the university level (Geography, sociology, pedagogy) in addition to a partial arabization of 40 % of the students in the faculties of law in Algiers, Constantine and Oran.
1974	1. Public Primary school system arabized , French was to be taught as a second language starting from the third year. 2. Arabization of al the literary subject at the secondary school level.

(Bouras, 2006, p. 28)

In spite of the Arabization policy, French had kept its importance and Berber opposition was growing, resulting in the 1988's October Riots. Indeed, some Berber groups viewed that their ancestral culture and language were in risk and that Arabic was given importance at the expense of their own identity. Moreover, after the Algerian Civil War, the government tried to reinforce even more the use of Arabic. Indeed the effect of this policy after 1998 forced the heads of state to make use of Berber languages, adopting it in 2002 as

another national language. Additionally, the unicity of literary Arabic gave it an advantage over divided Berber languages. Arabization is still an objective for the state for example, laws on civil and administrative procedures (Arabization, 2017)

2.1.3. Languages in Contact in Algeria, Multilingualism and Borrowings

Languages contact leads to language change overtime. This change entails the contact of different lexical and grammatical systems such as various social patterns in the community. Like that of other Arabic countries, Algerian speech takes place in ‘multiglossic’ and multilingual relationship over the different languages it includes. The linguistic situation is conflictual , that it is qualified by Arabic-French bilingualism at the educational and community levels, diglossia within the Arabic language and even multilingual. Most of Algerians have several codes at their disposal, that they can vary codes instantly. These codes are: Algerian Arabic (AA), Standard Arabic (SA), Berber, French, and Arabic-French. (Haoues, 2008, p. 46)

According to the Algerian situation, diglossia might take place over FuSHa/ Darja (H variety/ L variety, defined before according to Ferguson, 1959). However, Versteegh (1997, p. 190) notes this model as “*restricted the notion of ‘diglossia’ to situations where the low variety was genetically related to the high variety, of which it was a simplified version*” (as cited in, Aarfi, 2008, p. 79). Algerian Arabic (AA) is the language of communication in everyday life, mostly in the family, sometimes it is used in the media. AA is a spoken form with a variety of mutually intelligible regional dialects. As far as prestige is concerned, the Arabic language speakers consider the high form as superior to the low one.

In revising Ferguson’s and Versteegh, it is explained that there is no difference between the two discrete varieties, which means that the speaker has to choose one or the

other via a method of code-switching. Alternatively, there is a continued speech in which “*the two varieties are the extremes*” (Aarfi, 2008, p. 79).

The Algerian inhabitants was linguistically influenced by the French occupation that, today nearly 50 years after the independence, French language still play an important role in spoken likewise in written domains. It is often mixed in with the spoken variety of Arabic (Algerian Arabic) in everyday conversation (Arabic-French), or used in professional settings

Languages contact in Algeria gave birth to a kind of language transfer that goes within simple borrowing and bilingualism. However, Bilingualism in Algeria is the consequence of the educational system and social specificity. It is a coordinate bilingualism, because children learn both Arabic and French in primary school. Learners build up two semantic systems, one system for the first language and the other is for the second language words he has obtained. According to Myers-Scotton (2006, p. 3) “*A bilingual is one who has acquired or learned to speak or understand ... some phrases that show internal structural relations in a second language*” (as cited in, Haoues, 2008 ,p. 41)

In Algeria, individuals do not speak one language or the other with each other but they use Berber, Darja, French, and MSA according to the social conditions and their linguistic devotion and harmony. Khadidja Aarfi in her thesis to Florida University said:

I experience this, myself in the United States, adding English to the table, whenever I meet with other Algerians. That is one reason, why most middle easterners do not understand Algerians or maghribis when they speak among themselves. Yet, they maintain that Algerians speak French (2008, p. 79)

Approaches in bilingual situation are various; Rubin (1968, p. 15) required the attention to the fact that:

A bilingual situation may be expected to produce different types of attitudes; some reflect emotional value of a language for its speakers, others the value of a language from a social or group point of view, still others reflect its value from the point of view of formal attributes (as cited in, Hassaine, 2011, p. 40)

All the three types of approaches might be portrayed in the Algerian context. The first type might reflect the attitude towards both varieties of Arabic in addition to Berber; the second type replicates the attitudes into both Algerian mother tongues, the third type reflects the attitudes over French and yet those towards Classical Arabic.

This phenomenon is obvious in oral communication when mentioning French terms in the subject matter whether scientific, practical or institutional. The measure of Arabic terms used will rise higher if it concerns local reality. The use of idiomatic expressions of one of the languages as the other characterizes the vital medium of communication can also justify the ensuing mixed segment of language. This manner of use can explain the mixed piece of languages in the Algerian society. In addition, it is used very suddenly by the community without any effort or awareness by the speakers. According to Lanly (1962), the contact between human societies leads to an evolution of the values and a long modification of the forms (as cited in, Bouras, 2006, p. 26).

2.1.4. Algerian Arabic

Algerian Arabic usually known as dialectal Arabic is the spoken form of Arabic (Vernacular, Darija, 'Amiya) and the mother tongue of most of the Algerian population. When deciding to write, people switch to CA, MSA, French or English. In fact, Algerians speak a diverse dialectal Arabic. Dialects vary from one region to another. Grandguillaume (1983) stated that it also differ from classical Arabic in the grammar and vocabularies' use (as cited in, Tatar, 1992, p. 6). The Algerian Arabic includes many borrowed words from different African and foreign languages. The northern Algerian Arabic has borrowed many

words from Tamazight for example, /argaz/ which stands for a courageous person or man.

The western Algerian Arabic borrowed many words from Spanish as follows:

Table 13

Loan Words from Spanish in the Algerian Dialects

Loan words * from Spanish	Phonetic Transcription	Equivalent in English
1 - rojo	[rɔʒɔ]	red-haired boy
2 - moro	[mɔrɔ]	Arab
3 - armario	[ærmæɾjɔ]	wardrobe

(Tatar, 1992, p. 7)

The eastern Algerian Arabic and mainly in Tebessa, a large number of words have been borrowed from the neighboring Tunisia:

Table 14

Loan Words from Tunisian in the Algerian Dialect.

Loan words from Tunisian Arabic	Phonetic Transcription	Equivalent in English
1 - باهي	[behi]	nice
2 - برش	[bæɾʃæ]	many

(Tatar, 1992, p. 7)

In the southern part of Algeria, the various dialects used are not always comprehensible in other parts of Algeria because they often vary lexically from the above dialects as shown in the table below.

Table 15

Southern Algerian words.

Southern Algerian words	Phonetic Transcription	Equivalent in English
1 - شقال	[ʃæqa: æ]	a plate in metal
2 طرطبوننت	[tʃæntʃæ bʊjət]	a type of date

(Tatar, 1992, p. 7)

However, French is considered as the main language from which approximately all dialects have borrowed the most, particularly in the north (Algiers). Borrowing started during colonization and has remained so. Hamers and Blanc (1983) affirmed that there are two ways to consider borrowings. Firstly, there is an adapted borrowing from French which occurs at the beginning of the Algerian word only. e.g.:

Table 16

Borrowed French Word in the Algerian Dialects and its Pronunciation.

The French word	English equivalent	The Algerian pronunciation	Missed sound	Sound used
Directeur	Director	/direktu:r/	/ə : /	/u:/
Militaire	Military	/mlliti:r/	/ɛ/	/i:/

(Tatar, 1992, p. 8)

Since the vowel /ə : / does not exist in Arabic, it has shifted to the vowel /u:/ for phonological convenience. Also the vowel / ɛ / does not exist in Arabic, it has also been changed into the vowel /i:/ for the same reason. Secondly, there is the case of French words which are wholly 'adapted' to Arabic, as follows:

Table 17

Adopted French Words in the Algerian Dialect.

Algerian Words	Phonetic Transcription	French Equivalent	English Equivalent
1 - شيفور	[ʃi fu:r]	chauffeur	driver
2 - سبيطار	[sbiʔa:t]	hôpital	hospital

(Tatar, 1992, p. 8)

In both examples, initial and terminal changes have occurred. The following passage will be an overview on a set of mixed Algerian spoken sentences that includes French and Arabic words. Weinreich (1968) argued that this case happens only to the 'ideal bilingual' who has a perfect control of two languages (as cited in, Tatar, 1992, p. 9) Moreover, this phenomenon is termed 'Code Switching' and occurs when switching from one language to another in order to suit specific situations. It is either placed at the beginning, in the middle or at the end of sentences as follows:

- **A French Word at the Beginning**

e.g Le prof est arrivé = The teacher has come.

Table 18

Adopted French Words in the Algerian Dialect

AA sentence	The French word used (loan word)	English equivalent
e.g. الپروف جا [ʔl pɾo:f ʒa:]	Prof	The teacher

(Tatar, 1992, p. 9)

The utterance /ʔl/ stands for the definite article 'the'. However, Algerian dialects have diverse sentences' order; an example is shown in the table below.

Table 19

Sentences' Order in the Algerian Dialects

Order number 01	Order number 02
<p>[البروف جا] [ʔl pɾɔ:f ʒa:]</p>	<p>[جا البروف] [ʒa: ʔl pɾɔ:f]</p>

(Tatar, 1992, p. 9)

Alternatively, the word-order in French and English is feasible and important in contrast to Arabic which enjoys various word-orders.

- **A French Word in the Middle**

e.g. J'ai eu le BAC l'année passée= I won the BAC last year

Table 20

Adopted French Words in the Algerian Dialect

AA sentence	The French word used (loan word)	English equivalent
<p>e.g. ربحته الباك لعام لول [rɔ:ɛht ʔl ba:k ʔl ʔa:m lɛw]]</p>	BAC	Baccalaureate

(Tatar, 1992, p. 10)

The utterance “باك” /b a: k/ is a loan word from French 'BAC' which interferes in the middle of the sentence which stands for 'I won the 'baccalaureate last year.'

- **A French Word in the Terminal Position**

e.g. J'ai mangé le gateau = I ate the cake.

Table 21

Adopted French Words in the Algerian Dialects.

AA sentence	The French word used (loan word)	English equivalent
e.g. كليت الفا طو [kii:t] ا ل (ga:t))	BAC	Baccalaureate

(Tatar, 1992, p. 10)

The utterances /ga: tʰ/ “فاطو” are a switch from the French word « gâteau » which interferes at the end of the sentence. /ʔ/ is always used as the definite article (the).

As mentioned before the Algerian Arabic has borrowed many words from various foreign languages including Spanish, Turkish, Italian, Berber and French. The following table presents some extra examples on this borrowing.

Table 22

The Origin and the Meaning of Some Borrowed Words in the Algerian Dialects

Words	Translation	Transliteration	Origin
فكرون	a tortoise	<i>Fakruwn</i>	Berber
شلاغم	Moustache	<i>šliAyam</i>	
فرجومة	a throat	<i>Qarjuwmaḥ</i>	
تقاشير	Socks	<i>tqaAšiyr</i>	Turkish
سكارجي	a drunkard	<i>sukaArjiy</i>	
زرده	Feast	<i>Zardaḥ</i>	
فيشطة	Party	<i>fiyšTaḥ</i>	Italian
زبلة	Foul	<i>Zablaḥ</i>	
صوردي	Money	<i>Suwrdiy</i>	
سيمانة	a week	<i>siymaAnah</i>	Spanish
سبردينة	Snickers	<i>Spardiynaḥ</i>	
سكويلا	a school	<i>Sukwiylaḥ</i>	
طابلا	Table	<i>TaAblaḥ</i>	French
تيليفون	Phone	<i>Tiyliyfuwn</i>	
فرملي	Nurse	<i>Farmliy</i>	

(Saadan & Habash, 2015, p. 74)

In the light of the above, French interference, as any other language interference, can be at any position whether initial, middle or at the end of a sentence. Achour (1985, p. 42) stated that “*Even when there is a will of rupture as it is the case of our country with the cultural colonial legacy, a certain number of effects have remained so far*” (as cited in, Tatar, 1992, p. 10).

Consequently, the Algerian dialects include plenty of foreign loan words, because of its considerable period of colonialism. Akeb (1986) stated that the Algerian dialect is depreciated by the language purists; however, it is deep-rooted (as cited in, Tatar, 1992, p. 11)

The Algerian Arabic as a mother tongue has got an influence on the pronunciation of some sounds in all foreign languages. Arabic as we mentioned before was considered a foreign language, thus its use likewises French or English is affected by the phonological system of the Algerian dialects. This case can be shown in the following tables 23, 24 and 25 bellow.

Table 23

Influence of the Dialects upon Standard Arabic I

Dialects	Skikda	A. Beida	Algiers	South East	Batna	Annaba
Standard Arabic	t	t	ʒ	t	t	-
Dialectal Substitutes	-	ʈ	dʒ	t ^s	ʈ	-
students substituting	0/2	2/2	1/2	1/2	1/1	-

(Beghoul, 2007, p. 121)

Table 24

Influence of the Dialects upon Standard Arabic II

Dialects	Cne		Jijel			Mila	
Standard Arabic	t	ʒ	t	dʒ	q	t	dʒ
Dialectal Substitutes	t ^s	dʒ	t ^s	ʒ	k	t ^s	ʒ
Students substituting	17/22	3/22	14/18	1/18	4/18	5/9	2/9

(Beghoul, 2007, p. 121)

Table 25

Interligual Substitution of Consonant in English by Dialectal Arabic

English Consonant	Dialectal substitute	Erroneous use	Correct Use	Spelling
t	t ^s	dæt ^s	ðæt	that
	t ^ʃ	t ^ʃ u	[t ^s u]	to
	ṭ	'samṭaimz	'samṭaimz	sometimes
[t ^ʃ]	t ^s	t ^s ru:ps	tru:ps	troops
ð	d	dɪs	ðɪs	this
r	ṛ	'prækṭɪs	'prækṭɪs	practice

(Beghoul, 2007, p. 150)

2.2.The Phonological Properties of some Algerian Dialects

2.2.1. Annaba

2.2.1.1.Introduction to the City

Annaba (Arabic: عنابة) informally known as Balad al Unnâb "Jujube Town" and Bona. It is a city in the north-eastern corner of Algeria near the Seybouse River. It is located in edge of sea at the East of the country; it was founded at the 12th century before Jesus-Christ. Beloved resident of kings of Numidia, it suffers the result of the war which opposed Cesar to

Pompee, and becomes Roman after Cesar's victory and the annexation of Numidia in year 46 before Jesus Christ.

Annaba is known as an accessible, open and tolerant city. Annaba - or Hippo-Regius, Hippone, Bouna and Bône knew the presence of Numidia and the occupation of Phoenicians, the Carthaginians, the Romans (Augustine saint was the bishop from 395 to 430), the Vandals, Fatimides, Zirides and Hamadites, to which testify some vestiges after a fashion preserved. The ancient city was founded by Phoenicians in the 14th century BC on Bejjina, a navigable river in the past, now diverted. At the 16th century, it was named ANNABA due to the stretch of many jujube trees in the area. In 1522, the city knew the print of the Ottomans Empire. Later on 1535 to 1540 it was occupied by the Spaniards. Finally Bône was occupied by the French troops in 1832, which lasted until the independence of Algeria, in 1962.

Annaba has a metropolitan area with a higher population density than the other metropolises of the Algerian coastline such, as Oran and the capital Algiers. Much of eastern and southern Algeria seeks the services, equipment, and infrastructure of the city. Economically, it is the centre for various dynamic activities, such as industry, transport, finance and tourism.

For many people, Annaba is considered to be the number one as a touristic place consisting of ancient buildings such as early French houses, the Mosque of Salah Bey, the Mosque of Sîdî Bou Merouan which was built with columns taken from Roman ruins, the cathedral, and basilica of Saint-Augustine (Annaba, 2017 & Annaba la coquette, 2010).

2.2.1.2. Annaba's Phonological Properties

Spoken Arabic in Algeria differs from written Arabic; it has vocabularies stimulated from Arabic but the innovative words have been changed phonologically, with major Berber substrates, and many other words like loan-words borrowed from Turkish, French and

Spanish. Algerian Arabic has dropped the case endings of the written language like all Arabic dialects. It is used only in intimate cases rather than in schools, television or newspapers, which usually use standard Arabic or French. However, more common heard in songs, homes and on the street. It is spoken daily by the enormous majority of Algerians. It is part of the Maghreb Arabic dialect continuum which can be divided into Moroccan Arabic and Tunisian Arabic all along the respective borders. Algerian Arabic vocabularies are pretty much similar all over Algeria, although the easterners sound closer to Tunisians whereas the westerners speak Arabic closer to that of the Moroccans. In the following passages we spotlight on one of the known easterners' dialects of Algeria: Annaba's dialect (AD). This choice is justified by the fact that this dialect is the one we know best and practice.

Annaba's dialect (AD) is spoken in the city of Annaba that is located at the east of Algeria. It is spoken mostly by one million people. Its most notable feature is the collapse of short vowels for example, the word كتاب /kita:b/ in MSA that is a book is pronounced كتاب /ktab/ in Annaba dialect. Therefore the short vowel /i/ in the first consonant that is called in Arabic "kasra" is deleted by Annaba dialectal Arabic and replaced by the "sukun". In AD, there are some consonants that are not pronounced as in MSA, the consonant 'ق'/q/ is generally pronounced 'ق'/g/. For example, MSA /qa:l/ (to say) is pronounced /ga:l/ the following table can illustrate this case:

Table 26

The Pronunciations of some Consonant according to AD

Consonant	Pronunciation
ق, /q/	ق, /g/
ث, /θ/	ت, /t/
ذ, /ð/ / ظ, /ð ^s / / ض, /d ^s /	د, /d/

(Meftouh, Bouchemal & Smaili, 2012, p. 1)

In contrast to MSA, the « Hamza » is avoided by Algerian dialects such as Annaba dialect. For instance, in the word مائدة/maʔida/ (small table) is changed into the easier pronounced word /mida/ or /meida/. Personal pronoun may appear in two forms: Detached or Attached. The detached pronouns which are used in the appropriate form (the equivalent of ‘I’, ‘he’, etc) are separated from other words. The suffixed pronouns which are used in the possessive (the equivalent of ‘my’, ‘his’, etc), or in the objective form (the equivalent of ‘me’, ‘him’) are attached to nouns, verbs or certain particles. The separate personal pronouns can be distinguished in the following use of singular and plural forms (Table 27).

Table 27

Personal Pronoun Forms in Annaba Dialect

Singular Forms	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. أنا <i>anā</i>, أني <i>anī</i> (I). 2. masc. ننت <i>nta</i>; fem. نتي <i>nti</i> (You). 3. masc. هو <i>huwa</i> (He); fem. هي <i>hiya</i> (She).
Plural Forms	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. إحننا <i>ḥnāyā</i>, إحننا <i>ḥnā</i> (We). 2. نتوما <i>ntūmā</i> or إنتم <i>intum</i> (You) is said to both plural masculine and feminine. 3. هوما <i>hūmā</i> (They) also is said to both plural masculine and feminine.

(Meftouh et al, 2012, p. 3)

During using AD it is possible to omit pronouns especially once asking about something like saying: ‘/dʒiʕa:ne/?’ Instead of MSA: ‘/hal enta dʒaʔiʕ/?’ In English: ‘Are you hungry?’. However, sometimes it is noticed the adding of a personal pronoun to a word that is already defined, this addition may become essential when the predicate is also defined. Therefore the added pronoun acts as the equivalent of the verb ‘to be’, for instance: ‘أنا هي الحفافة’ ‘I am the hairdresser’. Pronouns can also be expressed by a reduced form which is added to the end of a noun, verb or certain particles. The frequent suffixes used in singular and plural forms are demonstrated in the following table.

Table 28

AD Suffixes Used in Singular and Plural forms

Singular Form	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. ي <i>y</i> is used for "My", for example كتابي <i>ktabr</i> (My book). 2. ك <i>k</i> is used for "Your", as كتابك <i>ktābik</i> (Your book). 3. For masculine form و <i>ū</i> or ه <i>h</i> "His" as كتابو <i>ktābū</i> (His book), خوه <i>hūh</i> (his brother) and for feminine form ها <i>hā</i> "Her", as كتابها <i>ktābhā</i> (Her book).
Plural Form	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. نا <i>nā</i> is used for "Our", دارنا <i>dārnā</i> (Our house). 2. كم <i>kum</i> is used for "Your", as داركم <i>dārkum</i> (Your house). 3. هم <i>hum</i> is used for "Their", as دارهم <i>dārhum</i> (Their house).

(Meftouh et al, 2012, p. 3)

Annaba dialects include diverse interrogative pronouns that have no correspondence to the MSA interrogative pronouns. Only one pronoun is modified from the MSA 'أين' /*ayna*/ in English 'where', AD used it as 'وين' /*wəyn*/. The following table shows the different types of interrogatives that are used by Annaba dialect.

Table 29

Interrogative Particles and Pronouns in AD and their Equivalents in MSA.

English	Annaba dial.	MSA
Who	شكون <i>škūn</i>	من <i>man</i>
Which	ونا <i>wanā</i>	أي <i>ayu</i>
Where	وين <i>wayn</i>	أين <i>ayna</i>
Where	منين <i>mnīn</i>	من أين <i>min ayn</i>
What	وشيا <i>wšiyā</i> وش <i>wš</i>	ماذا <i>mādā</i>
With what	باش <i>bāš</i>	بماذا <i>bimādā</i>
When	وقتاش <i>waqtāš</i>	متي <i>matā</i>
Why	وعلاش <i>walāš</i>	لماذا <i>limādā</i>
How	كفاش <i>kifāš</i>	كيف <i>kayfa</i>
How many	قداش <i>vidāš</i>	كم <i>kam</i>

(Meftouh et al, 2012, p. 4)

In the light of the above information on the AD, we provide some examples of spoken words in AD and their equivalents in the Modern Standard Arabic. The following tables illustrate some sample of Annaba dialect compared to MSA.

Table 30

Levenshtein's Distance for AD Words and their Equivalents in MSA

MSA	Annaba Dialect	Lev. dist.
تعرف <i>tavif</i> تمرض <i>tamradu</i> خرجت <i>haragtu</i> يلبس <i>yalbasu</i> يلعب <i>yal'abu</i> يسهل <i>yusahilu</i> قصير <i>.qaštr</i> جارتنا <i>ġaratna</i>	تعرف <i>tavaf</i> تمرض <i>tumrid</i> خرجت <i>hriġt</i> يلبس <i>yilbas</i> يلعب <i>yil'ab</i> يسهل <i>ysahil</i> قصير <i>.qəštr</i> جارتنا <i>ġaritna</i>	0
البحر <i>al-baħr</i> يخاسبونه <i>yuhāsibūnahu</i> يعلمن <i>yaʿlamūn</i> يقرأ <i>ya.qra'u</i> يقعد <i>ya.q'ud</i> وراء <i>warāhu</i> ملايين <i>malāyīn</i>	لبحر <i>lbħar</i> يخاسبوه <i>yħāsibūh</i> يعلمن <i>yʿamin</i> يقرأ <i>ya.qrā</i> يقعد <i>yuvud</i> وراه <i>wrāh</i> ملايين <i>mlāyīn</i>	1
الأيام <i>al-ayām</i> أشتره <i>aštarh</i> أذني <i>uḏunī</i> كيف <i>kayfa</i> الأحوال <i>al-aħwāl</i> معي <i>maʿī</i>	ليام <i>liyām</i> نشره <i>nišrħ</i> ودني <i>wadnī</i> كفاش <i>kifāš</i> لحوال <i>lahwāl</i> معايا <i>māyā</i>	2
يعينه <i>yuʿīnuh</i> الخضار <i>al-ħuḏār</i> لتر <i>litr</i> أكل <i>akl</i> الشاي <i>al-šāy</i> لاشيء <i>lašay</i> العاقبة <i>al-ʿāqibah</i>	يعاونو <i>yūʿawnū</i> لخضرة <i>lħuḏrah</i> إترا <i>itrā</i> ماكه <i>māklah</i> إتاي <i>itāy</i> حتشي <i>ħatašay</i> لعقوبه <i>lavābah</i>	3
الجزائر <i>al-ġazāʾir</i> أوراق <i>awraq</i> يدعك <i>yadakk</i> لم تحب <i>lam taħib</i> إتصلي بها <i>itašill bihā</i>	دزائر <i>dzāyir</i> ورقات <i>war.qār</i> يخليك <i>yħallik</i> ماشاحتش <i>māšāħitš</i> يعطيها <i>yayṭilha</i>	> 3

(Meftouh et al, 2012, p. 8)

Table 31

Examples of Arabized Foreign Words

English	Annaba Dialect	Origin
Nurse	فرملي <i>farmli</i>	French "Infirmier"
Place	بلاصة <i>blāṣah</i>	French "Place"
That's enough	يزي <i>yizzf</i>	Berber
Ship	ببور <i>babūr</i>	Turkish

(Meftouh et al, 2012, p. 5)

Table 32

A Sample of the Dictionary MSA-Annaba's Dialect

Annaba Dialect	MSA
جریت <i>ḡrīt</i>	جریت <i>ḡaraytu</i>
لجان <i>lḡnān</i>	البيستان <i>āl-bustān</i>
لجان <i>lḡnān</i>	الحديقة <i>āl-ḥadīqah</i>
ورا <i>wrā</i>	وراء <i>warā'a</i>
خلص <i>hallas</i>	سدّد <i>saddada</i>
خليك منها <i>hallik minhā</i>	دعك منها <i>daka minhā</i>

(Meftouh et al, 2012, p. 5)

The following figure represents a study of Annaba dialect influence on the pronunciation of English language.

(32)

a. ɔ:l də stju:dənts in də seim wei hi məsnt ɛtəfɪə də pedəgɔʒɪkəl ænd də
b. ɪ ð ð in ð ə dʒ əl ə θ ð
c. all the students in the same way. He mustn't interfere the pedagogical and

(33)

a. sɑ:tɪməntəl saɪdz təgedə ænd sɑ:mʔaɪmz wen də stju:dənt faɪndz sɑ:m
b. en əl ə ð ə θ t ð
c. sentimental sides together, and sometimes when the student finds some

(34)

a. dɪfɪkəltɪz tə ɪkspres wɒt hi...wɒt hi wɪʃəz ɔ:r bɪkɔ:z der ɑ:r sɑ:m
b. ə ə ɪ θ ð θ
c. difficulties to express what he...what he wishes, or because there are some

(35)

a. stju:dənts hʊ...hʊ faɪnd demselvəz ɪn sʌʃ wei dæt deɪ kənt ɪkspres
b. ðə ɪ θ ðə ð
c. students who...who find themselves in such way that they can't express

(36)

a. demselvəz səʊ də ɪtʃə məst nɒt nɪgɪlekt dæt²⁰ stju:dənt...hɪ wʊd...hɪ wəd
b. ðə ɪ θ ð ti: ə ð θ ə
c. Themselves so the teacher must not neglect that student...he would...he would

Figure 3. The Influence of Annaba Dialect on English Language Pronunciation (Beghoul, 2007, p. 167)

2.2.2. Tebessa

2.2.2.1. Introduction to the City

Tebessa is an Algerian city which is situated about 20 kilometers from Tunisian borders. Like other cities, it has a long history which can be seen clearly in terms of traditions, customs, and the various dialects used in daily life situations.

The name of the city has passed through many stages from a town of a North African Tamazight kingdom called Numidia into a part of the Roman Empire in 146 CE when it started being called Thevest. In 1851 and during the French colonialism, it has been labeled Tebessa. It has been given a great importance because of its connection with roads and rails additionally to its neighbourhood with Tunisia which tourists find an attractive place to visit.

Moreover, it has many ancient buildings of numerous empires and kingdoms including the Gate of Caracalla dating back to 214 CE which is a Roman triumphal arch and the richly mosaic decorated Temple of Minerva that dates back to the early part of the third century CE. Also, the basilica of Saint Crispinus' remains complete with chapels, baptismal urns, gardens and catacombs, dates back to the fourth century CE. Furthermore the Sixth century's Byzantine walls that are referred to as "Solomon's Walls" are flanked by thirteen impressive square towers. Other places of interest include a Roman theatre, an archaeological museum and an amphitheatre from the fourth century CE.

Actually, the city which consists of 12 districts and 28 municipalities is well known for its proficiency in making traditional carpets, a phosphate mine, museums and temples. In brief, Tebessa's rich traditions and customs additionally to its long history encourage tourists from different places of the world to discover its extreme beauty (Tebessa, 2017).

2.2.2.2. Tebessa Phonological Proprieties

Similar to many Algerian cities, Tebessa has passed throughout different civilization that gave it the inheritance of various spoken dialects. Actually, Tebessa is the neighbor of Tunisia and its dialects are as similar as much, because of the mixture of civilization, trade and intermarriage between the Tunisian and Tebessian families. Thus the dialects became closer in terms of intonation patterns, stress, rhythm and place of articulation.

It is based mainly on modern standard Arabic transmission of words that are influenced by latter part French, Roman, Numidians linguistic factors...etc. According to the limitation of researches made on Tebessa dialect (TeD) we tend to testimony Tunisian dialect phonological system as similar as much to Tebessa dialect.

However, the dialect of Tebessa is as much as similar to Annaba dialect, and differs only in matter of omitting some consonant as in AD that are clearly spoken in Tebessa as their original form in MSA. However, the city itself has various manner of speaking according to different families. That is the areas near Tunisian borders speak a dialect similar to Tunisian one, while areas near the Tamazight stretch speak a Tamazight dialect or a dialectal Arabic similar to Tamazight language accent.

However, TeD is known as being eloquent and the most similar pronunciation to MSA. The following table presents the significant phonemes of Sibawayh's account, representative of Old Arabic, with their realizations in the modern dialect of Sousse (similar to Tebessa). The orthographic form of each sound has been included for ease of reference, and inconsistencies are bolded.

Table 33

Sousse/Tebessa Consonants Data

Series	Orthography	Sibwayh	Sousse
Interdental	ث	θ	θ
	ذ	ð	ð
	ظ	ð̣	ð̣
Uvular	ق	ɢ	g, q~k
	خ	χ	χ
	غ	ɣ	ɣ
Pharyngeal	ح	h	h
	ع	ħ	ħ
Pharyngealized	ط	ɟ	.t
	ظ	ð̣	ð̣
	ك	s	s
Glottal	ء	ʔ	Ø, h
	ه	h	h
Lateral	ظ	ɬ	ð̣

(Leddy-Cecere, 2010, p. 23)

According to Talmoudi (1980, p. 149-162) the question words of the Arabic dialect of Sousse/ Tebessa are as follows, with the corresponding Cowan's (1994) Classical Arabic elements presented for comparison.

Table 34

Sousse /Tebessa Interrogatives

Sūsi (Talmoudi 149-150, 162)	Meaning	Classical Arabic (Cowan)
<i>ʃnuwwɛ:</i>	'what (n.)'	<i>mā</i>
<i>əʃ</i>	'what (v.)'	<i>māðā</i>
<i>ʃku:n</i>	'who'	<i>man</i>
<i>waqte:ʃ</i>	'when'	<i>matā</i>
<i>wi:n ~ fi:n</i>	'where'	<i>ʔayna</i>
<i>mni:n</i>	'from where'	--
<i>lwi:n</i>	'to where'	--
<i>ʃle:ʃ</i>	'why'	<i>limāðā</i>
<i>kife:ʃ</i>	'how'	<i>kayfa</i>
<i>qadde:ʃ</i>	'how much/many'	<i>kam</i>
<i>ɛ:ne</i>	'which'	<i>ʔayy</i>

(Leddy-Cecere, 2010, p. 39)

According to Thomas A. Leddy-Cecere (2010) the forms of the Sūsi (like Tebessa) interrogatives varies sharply from their Classical Arabic equivalents. Akin to AD, Tebessa dialect includes the omission of ‘Hamza’ /ʔ/, the addition of pronouns that act as the equivalent of the verb ‘to be’, for instance ‘أنا هو المدير’ ‘I am the director’, and the same manner of using personal pronouns as mentioned before in table 27. Additionally, TeD uses either the mentioned interrogatives or intonation as a way to question for example: ‘جعتي’/ʒɛʔti/ ‘Are you hungry?’ With regard to lexico-semantics, the dialect of Sousse/Tebessa emerges to be more Creole-like in nature than it does in the other domains examined in this study. According to Leddy-Cecere (2010, p. 39-43) the two features examined were:

1. Bimorphemic question words: the use of diverse morpheme attached to the morpheme /ɛʃ/ like : ‘علاش/ʔleʃ/,/wɛʃ/واش’ in English ‘what, why, how much’
2. A reduced pronominal system: comprises two paradigms, the free and the bound. The first stand as independent lexemes and are used in subject position; the bound pronouns are clitics and are used as object and possessive pronouns (reduced).

As regards the first point, the Tebessa question words are nearly all Bimorphemic, as is predicted for a product of creolization. The pronominal system, on the other hand, does not display any strong Creole traits, though the general reduction in semantic distinctions could be seen as consistent with a process of restructuring. Thus, though Sūsi’s or Tebessa’s lexico-semantics are more Creole-like than its phonology or morphosyntax, they are far from incontrovertible evidence for prior creolization (Leddy-Cecere, 2010).

2.2.3. Constantine

2.2.3.1. Introduction to the City

The north eastern Constantine is considered to be the third largest city in Algeria after Algiers and Oran. It is situated in the east of Algeria, on a plateau at 640 metres (2,100 ft) above sea level. It is about 80 kilometres (50 miles) from the Mediterranean coast,

on the banks of the Rhumel River. It was first called Sewa or royal city by Phoenicians before returning it into a capital by the Numidian king Syphax who renamed it as Cirta. Under the Roman reign, it was one of the wealthiest cities in North Africa before the war that preceded the reign of roman emperor who took the responsibility of rebuilding it then it was renamed "Constantina" in honour of Emperor Constantine the Great.

Later on, it was captured by the Vandals in 432, Constantine was returned to the Byzantine Exarchate of Africa (i.e. North Africa) from 534 to 697. It was conquered by the Arabs in the 7th century, receiving the name of Qusantina. It is often referred to as the "City of Bridges" due to the numerous fabulous bridges connecting the mountains which the city is built on. It is almost known by the el-Kantara Bridge. The city recovered in the 12th century and under Almohad and Hafsid rule it was again a flourishing bazaar, with links to Pisa, Genoa and Venice. Since 1529 it was haphazardly part of Ottoman Empire. Constantine was ruled by the Turkish Bey (governor) Salah Bey from 1770 till 1792, he greatly embellished it and built much of the Muslim architectures which are still visible today. Khennouf (2007, p. 34) stated that the Constantinians may still remember bitterly the invasion of Ibn El Ahrache to Constantine on July 20th, 1804, that is during the Ottoman's reign, actually when the leader of the tribes of Jijel, Ibn El Ahrache, gathered his army and attacked Constantine, (as cited in, Kaouache, 2009, p. 89). In 1826 the last Bey, Ahmed Bey ben Mohamed Chérif, was nominated the new head of state. He led a severe resistance against French armed forces, which invaded Algeria four years later. By 13 October 1837, the territory was captured by France, and from 1848 till 1962 it was an integral part of the French motherland and centre of the Constantine Department. Its social background goes back to the French burned land policy when the citizens of El Milia region (50 kilometers east of Jijel) moved to Constantine, and justified their move as to fled away from the burning mountains: '[hrabna mən lahOrika di laʒba:l]' (هربنا من الحريكة دي الجبال) (Kaouache, 2009, p. 89). In World

War II, during the campaign in North Africa (1942–43), Constantine was used by the Allied forces as operational base. In 1880, Charles Louis Alphonse Laveran discovered that the cause of malaria is a protozoan, in the military hospital in Constantine after observing the parasites in a blood smear taken from a soldier who had just died of malaria. Nowadays Constantine is known as the cultural and scientific capital of Algeria (Constantine, Algeria, 2017).

2.2.3.2. Constantine Phonological Settings

Similarly to Annaba and Tebessa, Constantine dialect (CA) is a dialect of reduction and vowel weakness. Constantinians tend to pronounce some sounds differently than their phonetic transcription according to MSA. The following table illustrates some consonants' pronunciation in Constantine dialects.

Table 36

Pronunciation of Consonants by Constantine Dialect.

Consonant	Pronunciation
/ð/	/d/
/q/	/q/
/t/	/t ^s /
/θ/	/t/

(Beghoul, 2007, p. 165)

Algerian dialects are MSA variants that rise from ethnic, geographical, and colonial influences of Spanish, French, Turkish, and Italian. Constantine dialect as well, is affected by Italian. (Hamdani, Selouani & Boudraa, 2010, p. 160).

As one of the eastern dialects , it also has the omission of the ‘Hamza’ /ʔ/ and also the same use of personal pronouns similar to those we mentioned before in the case of Annaba

2.2.4. Amazigh: Case of Oum El Bouaghi (Canrobert)

2.2.4.1. Introduction to the City

Oum al-Bouaghi (OEB), also called Oum al-Bouachi, which was named Canrobert (during French occupation), Sidi R'Ghis a few years later, and Oum El Bouaghi after the independence. The town is situated in the high plains of the Atlas Mountains, about 40 miles (65 km) southeast of Constantine city. This broad high-plains region receives about 20 inches (500 mm) of rain annually, and the town is a principal trading centre for the wheat, barley, figs, and olives grown nearby.

The area was chosen to demonstrate the '*Autogestion*' (self-managed farms) advocated by Ahmed Ben Bella in the first years of Algerian independence from France so that workers could share in the management and profits of the land. Salt-marshes (*chotts*) provide seasonal grazing pastures for sheep (Oum el Bouaghi, 2017) .

It became a national state in 1974, in which Khenchla (a national state nowadays) was one of its cities. It has more than 700.000 habitants living in twenty-nine cities. The people living in Oum el Bouaghi are Amazigh and almost of them speak the Tamazight. As all the eastern cities, it has survived the existence of various civilizations including, Phoenicians, Numidians, Byzantines, Roman, Ottoman...Etc.

The Chaoui people or Shawiya (Algerian Arabic: شَاوِيه, Shawiya: Iṣawiyen) are a Berber population living in the Aurès, Oum El Bouaghi, Nememcha and Belezma regions located and surrounded by the Aurès Mountains. They also live in Tebessa and other parts of eastern Algeria coextensive with ancient Numidia, also few neighbouring towns in Tunisia. They name themselves Iṣawiyen/Icawiyen (pronounced /iṣawijən/) and speak the Shawiya language.

It has various monuments including the Roman city hidden in the land of el Dalaa, the Sila and Ain el Bordj location, Gaduvala (Byzantine city) in Ksar Sbihi and a lot of ancient Islamic buildings originated from Arabic invasion as Zaouia of Bouhajar el Rahmania in Sigus built on 1729, the mosque of Ain el Beida build on 1860... Etc. One of its famous heroes was the leader El Aarbi Ben Mehidi, who gave a bravery example during the French colonialism. He was one from the first who asked for and supported the revolution of the first November 1954 (Oum el Bouaghi, 2017).

2.2.4.2.Oum El Bouaghi Phonological System

In fact, the people living in Oum El Bouaghi are Amazigh. They are speaking a dialectal variety of Tamazight which is known as Shawiya. It is also spelled Chaouïa (native form: Tacawit /θafawiθ/, it is an Afro-asiatic language of the Berber branch. It is a variety of the Tamazight languages spoken in Algeria by the Shawiya people.

The language is spread in the area of the Awras, a mountain in eastern Algeria and the surrounding areas, including Batna, Khenchla, Sétif, Oum El Bouaghi, Souk Ahras, Tebessa, and the northern part of Biskra. It is also known as *Numidian Berber* (IPA: /θfawɪθ/ or /ħfawɪθ/). Estimates of number of speakers range from 1.4 to 3 million speakers.

Shawiya Berber was, until recently, an unwritten language, its standard form Tamazight has started being taught at school lately. They often code-switch to Algerian Arabic, French or even English to discuss non-traditional technology and sociological concerns within their daily life, also whenever a non-native speaker is with them.

The spoken Arabic in this area is as similar as the one in Tebessa and Annaba but with a different accent, rhythm and intonation from the mother tongue (Berber). Its phonological system is the same as Tamazight which is regarded as their own standard mother

tongue. As mentioned before, it has also the same AD use of pronouns (attached & detached), Hamza omission, reduction of pronouns....etc. However, it is much similar to Tebessa because of their ethnographic origin which is mostly related to Numidia. Its spoken Arabic usually has the variant /t/ instead of /t/, the same case for any other foreign language to them. The Chaouïa influence on the English language pronunciation can be presented the following figure.

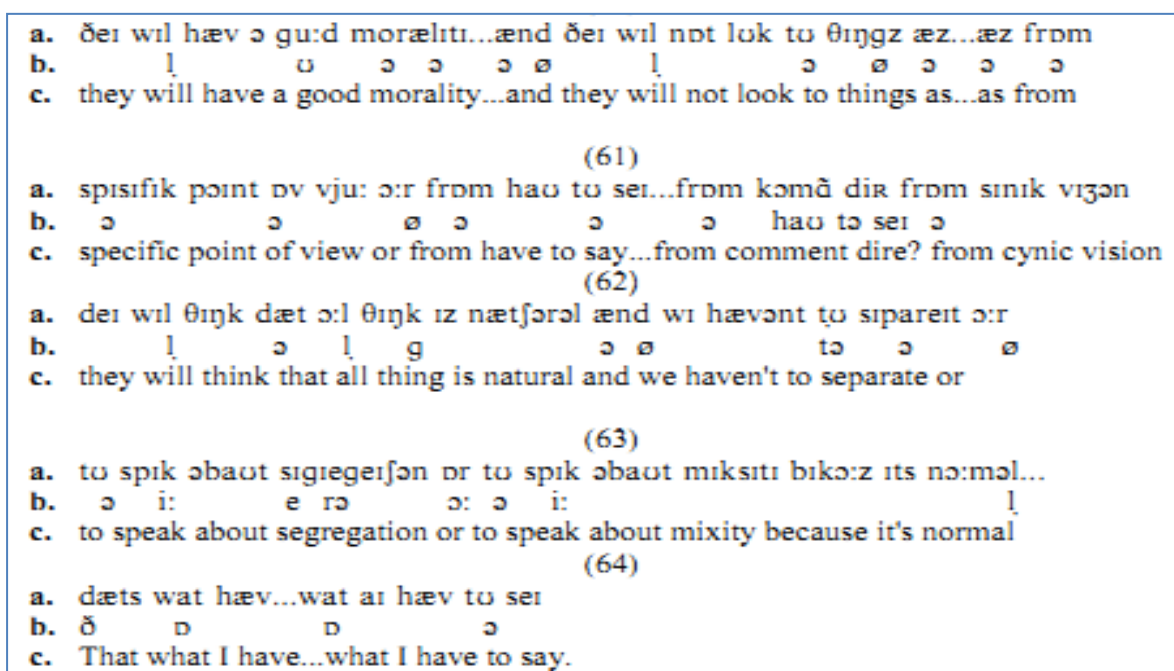


Figure 5. The Influence of Oum El Bouaghi Dialect on English Language Pronunciation (Beghoul, 2007, p. 170)

The previous figure represents a study of Chaouïa dialect in Khenchla (1974 was a city in the state of OEB). Actually, Beghoul (2007) stated that there are various realizations of vowels and consonants in OEB dialect, for instance: the sound /d/ instead of the sound /ð/, /l/ instead of /l/ and a strong pronunciation of the vowel because of the harsh nature of the language and its traditions. The following words are example of some words token from Shawiya dialect: afus "hand", argaz "man", udem "face", ul, "heart", ixef "head" and iles "tongue" (Berber Languages, 2017).

2.3.Literature Review on English Language Teaching in Algeria

2.3.1. Historical Background of the Educational System in Algeria

Education in Algeria passed through three stages: pre-, during- and post French colonialism. In the first stage, education was widespread and traditional Arabo-Islamic learning process. Arabic was taught through religious studies in addition to some scientific knowledge in medersas, zaouias and mosques. The literacy rate was 40% ; Harbart stated that in 1830 Algeria had a hundred of schools including 86 in Constantine, 50 in Tlemcen and 10 universities spread in the Algerian territory.

During the French colonialism, the Algerians were deprived from their right to go to school, only some were privileged. In contrast to French people who had all the encouragement and facilities for schooling. In an assessment of the country situation the duke of Aumale said:

What we have done just after the settlement? Unsatisfied with taking the medersas to turn them into shops, accommodations, stables or barracks. We took all the goods of mosques and especially those assigned to public instruction. (As cited in, Chaouche, 2006, p. 25)

The post-colonialism period knew the use of French as the dominant language of instruction. The Algerian educational system passed through various reforms. In 1970's, the Arabization process was applied in the lower level of education. By 1980's, it was applied throughout the higher levels of education in all fields except for sciences and medicines. Government aimed to restore the national identity by applying the Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) as a means of instruction. Consequently, French had become the first foreign language and English the second foreign language.

Professor Miliani (2000, p. 13) says:

In a situation where the French language has lost much of its ground in the sociocultural and educational environment of the country: the introduction of English is being heralded as the magic solution to all possible ills including economic, technological and education ones (As cited in, Saf & Ouahhoud, 2015, p. 21).

Education in Algeria is free of any charge, and officially compulsory till the age of 16. Private schools are authorised by the law and also compulsory under the constitution. All Algerian schools are mixed-sex. The academic year begins in September and ends in June for southern states and July for the others, with two 15 days vacations in December and March. The educational system is formed as follows: the pre-school, the primary school, the middle school, the secondary school and at last comes the university level.

At the age of 05 years old, children go to the pre-schools which are generally near their houses. At the age of 06, they begin their primary education in the same school. At the end of this stage pupils should take a final examination in order to move to the middle school where they complete their four years of study. Also, at the end of this stage, they should sit for another exam called the “BEM” that enable them for admission to secondary education which is based on three years specialized education including literary or scientific streams. It ends when students take the baccalaureate examination which (BAC) acts as a passport to the universities, state technical institutes, or vocational training centres which fall under the responsibility of the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research.

The specific degrees awarded are determined by the field of study, not the institution. However, the Algerian educational system in the universities is based on three steps: Licence, Master and Doctorate (LMD). The Ministry of Higher Education approves the curriculum,

which is standardized for each field of study. Algerian institutions also award graduate degrees in most fields in which a Licence or DES (Diplôme d'Etudes Supérieures) is awarded. Nowadays, the literacy rate in Algeria is 70% higher than Morocco and Egypt (Federal Research Division-Library of Congress, 2008)

2.3.2. English Language in Education in Algeria

ELT in Algeria can be divided into four stages. The first stage (from 1962 to 1970), was based on the use of Grammar Translation Method (GTM) which aimed to improve the learners ability in translating literary pieces from the target language (TL) to the native language (NL) and vice versa. However, speaking was neglected since priority was given only to reading and writing skills. The second period (from 1970 to 1984), knew the use of Structural Approach (SA) which supported oral teaching at first apart from translation which was completely banished from any classroom activity. The third period (from 1984 to 2003), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was introduced to the system, it was focused on functional and communicative uses of language. Finally, The last phase (from 2003 till now), the system adopted the Competency Based Approach (CBA) which is based on the development of students' competencies, intellectual, linguistic and problem solving capacities. It also highlights the importance of linking between learning and context.

2.3.2.1. The Middle School

English is taught from the first year of the middle school till the fourth year. The official courses planned for teaching English are three hours per week. Concerning the speaking-listening skill, pupils usually practise the language by making conversations and dialogues. Also they are introduced with authentic materials, while in reading-writing skills pupils are

instructed to write short paragraphs, filling the gaps, reading passages and extracting information.

2.3.2.2.The Secondary School

In the secondary school, English language is taught in both streams: literary and scientific branches. It differs according to their fields and levels. Concerning the listening-speaking skills, some phonological features are introduced in order to improve the students' pronunciation. Whereas in the reading-writing skills, students are asked to write essays, long paragraphs, completing imaginative and descriptive stories and reports.

2.3.2.3.ELT at the University Level

English is regarded as a global language, thus it is taught in all the university branches either in the English departments or as ESP module in the other fields (Mathematics, Mines...etc). Previously, The English departments at the Algerian Universities used the classical system which was structured as follows: four years for 'License' degree, three years for 'Magister' degree and four years to get the 'Doctoral' degree. However, with the new reforms in 2004/2005 the LMD system (License, Master, Doctorate) has been adopted from the European educational system. The latter is based on three years for 'License' degree, two years for 'Master' degree and three years to get the 'Doctoral' degree. Its main purpose is to involve both students and teachers in vocational training, and to highlight the quality of higher education (Saf & Ouahhoud, 2015, p. 21-22)

2.3.3. The Phonological System of English Language

According to Roger Lass (1984, p. 1) Phonology is a linguistic subdiscipline which is concerned with the sounds' function, behavior and organization. However, Phonetics is the analysis and classification of speech sound including its production, perception and acoustic analysis (as cited in Roach, 1991). Once talking about the phonological system of English, it

means the total of phonemes which are used in this language, and to how they are organized.

English language is composed of 26 Latin letters that can be detailed below.

2.3.3.1.English Vowels

Vowels can be classified into different ways. The principle vowels classification is according to their length, English has 12 vowels: 4 long and 8 short vowels. The former take more time in their articulation whereas short vowels take less time. The English language short vowels are:

/ɪ/ close, front, unrounded short vowel. E.g. bit

/e/ mid, front, unrounded short vowel. E.g. edge

/æ/ open, front, unrounded short vowel. E.g. bat

/ʊ/ close, back, rounded short vowel. E.g. put

/ʌ/ open, central, unrounded short vowel. E.g. up

/ə/ close, central, unrounded short vowel. E.g. about

/ɔ/ open, back, rounded short vowel. E.g. stop (Roach, 1991, p. 14-15).

The following quadrilateral can show the short vowels position according to the body of the tongue (Fig. 6.).

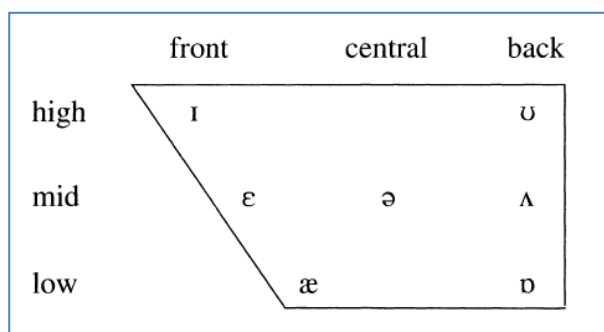


Figure 6. The Vowel Quadrilateral including Short Vowels (Radford, Atkinson, Britain, Clahsen & Spencer, 2009, p. 37)

The English long vowels can be classified as follow:

/i:/ close, front, unrounded, long vowel. E.g. Peace.

/a:/ open, back, unrounded, long vowel. E.g. Half.

/ɜ:/ mid, central, unrounded, long vowel. E.g. Purse.

/o:/ open, back, rounded, long vowel. E.g. Board.

/u:/ close, back, rounded, long vowel. E.g. Soon (Roach, 1991, p. 18-19).

The following quadrilaterals can show the long vowels position according to the body of the tongue (Fig. 7 & 8)

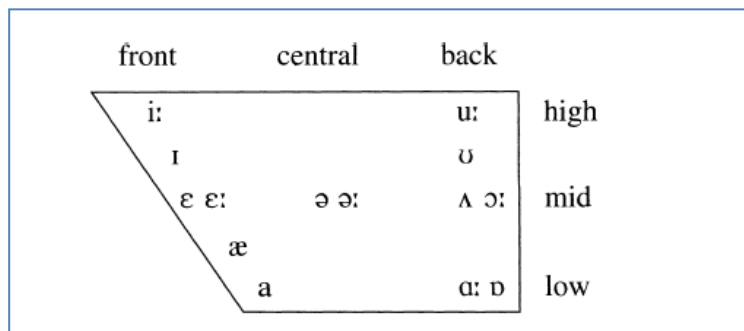


Figure 7. The Vowel Quadrilateral with Long Vowels (Radford, 2009, p. 38)

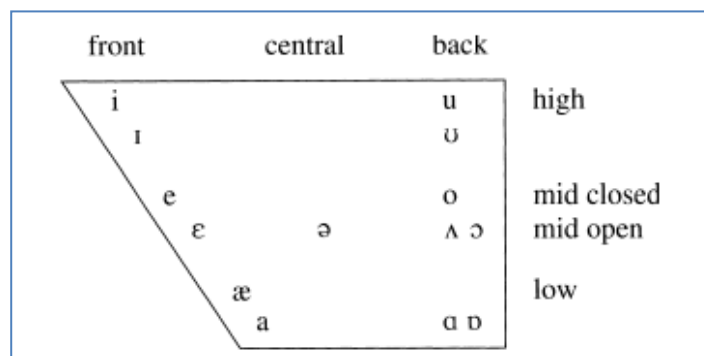


Figure 8. The Vowel Quadrilateral Including Mid-Closed Vowels (Radford, 2009, p. 38)

English language has eight diphthongs which are shown in the following table. The English Diphthongs can be classified according to three endings which are shown in the figure below.

Table 37

English Diphthongs.

Diphthong	Example
/ɪə/	Peer /pɪə /
/ʊə/	Poor /pʊə /
/aʊ/	Bough / baʊ /
/eə /	Air /eə /
/ɔɪ/	Boy /bɔɪ /
/eɪ /	Take /teɪk /
/aɪ /	Bye /baɪ /
/əʊ/	Go /gəʊ/

(Roach, 1991, p. 20)

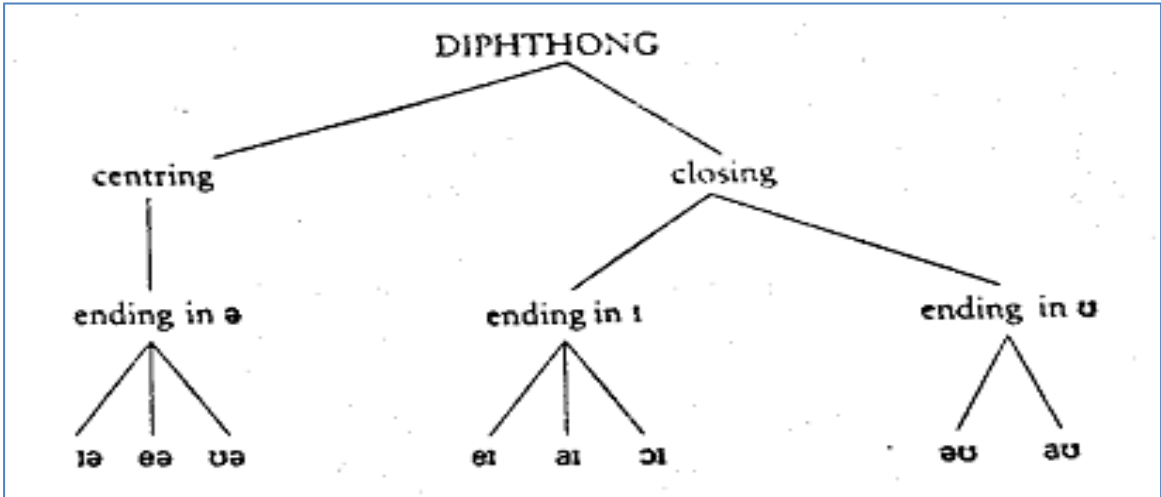


Figure 9. The Classification of Diphthongs (Roach, 1991, p. 20)

Moreover, the English language has a complex vowel sounds that are the Triphthongs. They composed of the five closing diphthongs described above with /ə/ added at the end.

Table 38

Triphthongs Composition and some Examples

Triphthongs composition	Examples
$eɪ + ə = eɪə$ $aɪ + ə = aɪə$ $ɔɪ + ə = ɔɪə$	$eɪə$ 'layer', 'player' $aɪə$ 'liar', 'fire' $ɔɪə$ 'loyal', 'royal'
$əʊ + ə = əʊə$ $aʊ + ə = aʊə$	$əʊə$ 'lower', 'mower' $aʊə$ 'power', 'hour'

(Roach, 1991, p. 23)

2.3.3.2. English Consonants

The consonants of English would be better shown in the form of a chart that reveals the place and manner of articulation of each consonant. There are about 24 consonants choices used in English words (the number differs according to accents and loan words).

The typical phonetic form of these choices can be used to group the consonants in many ways. Within a typical English accent, the consonants choices can be divided according to Voice (voiced, voiceless), Place (bilabial, labiodental, dental, alveolar, palatal, velar and glottal) and Manner (plosive, affricate, fricative, nasal and approximant).

To denote these choices and their typical articulation, symbols from the International Phonetic Association Alphabets (**IPA chart**) were used in the following table and figure.

Table 39

Consonants Manner of Articulation

Symbol	Keyword	Place	Symbol	Keyword	Place
Voiced			Voiceless		
Plosives					
b	Bin	Bilabial	p	pin	Bilabial
d	Din	Alveolar	t	tin	Alveolar
g	Give	Velar	k	kin	Velar
Affricates					
dʒ	Gin	Palato-alveolar	tʃ	chin	Palatal
Fricatives					
v	Vim	Labiodental	f	fin	Labiodental
ð	This	Dental	θ	thin	Dental
z	Zing	Alveolar	s	sin	Alveolar
ʒ	Measure	Palato-alveolar	ʃ	shin	Palatal
h	Hit	Glottal			
Nasals					
m	Mock	Bilabial			
n	Knock	Alveolar			
ŋ	Thing	Velar			
Approximants					
r	Wrong	Alveolar-retroflex			
l	Long	Alveolar-lateral			
w	Wasp	Labial-velar			
j	Yacht	Palatal			

(UCL, 2017)

		PLACE OF ARTICULATION						
		Bilabial	Labiodental	Interdental	Alveolar	Alveopalatal	Velar	Glottal
MANNER OF ARTICULATION	Stops							
	voiceless	p			t		k	
	voiced	b			d		g	
Fricatives	voiceless		f	θ	s	ʃ		h
	voiced		v	ð	z	ʒ		
Affricates	voiceless					tʃ		
	voiced					dʒ		
Nasals		m			n		ŋ	
Liquids					l			
Glides		w (w)			r	j		

Figure 10. Classification of Consonants (Akmajian, Farmer, Bickmore & Harnish, 2017, p. 70)

2.3.3.3. English Stress and Rhythm

2.3.3.3.1. Stress in English

Stress is the breath's force by which speech sounds are pronounced, the stressed syllable is more prominent than the other unstressed ones. Actually, there are four features in the scale of importance that act toward bringing syllables into prominence. The first which is the pitch of the voice is considered as the most efficient factor in the perception of stress, while loudness is the least significant one. The two other factors which are the vowels' length and quality are more important than the last factor (Nasr, 1997, p. 42).

a. Levels of Stress

In English, there are three basic levels of stress; primary stress, secondary stress, and unstressed syllable. These are some examples illustrating the three degrees of stress specified above.

*Primary stress, e.g. a'round /ə'raʊnd/

*Secondary stress, e.g. **Photographic** / ,fəʊtə'græfɪk/

*Unstressed, e.g. about /ə'baʊt/ (Roach, 1991, p. 87).

b. Placement of Stress within the Word

Roach (1991) stated that in some languages, describing word stress is a simple affair (p. 95-96). That is to say stress always falls on the same syllable of words (French in the penultimate syllable). Such languages are said to have fixed word stress. For instance, in Czech, stress falls on the first syllable of the word. However, word- stress in English is not fixed, but that does not mean it is not predictable. Stress placement in English words is based on the morphological and the phonological information of the word.

.Firstly, a word may be simple, consisting of a single stem. Here the stem by itself carries a primary stress, for example: 'Care' .Some words are compounds, consisting of two grammatical units, each one existing as an independent word in the language; for example: 'Ice-Cream', 'Armchair'. Some words are complex as they consist of identifiable parts: 'Stem + Affixes'. When the affix precedes the stem, it is called a prefix; when the affix comes after the base, it is called a suffix. Roach (1991) stated that words which have prefixes are likely to have the same rule as words without prefixes, since their effect on stress does not have a comparative regularity and independence (p. 98). However, all the suffixes in English fall into 3 categories according to the influence they may or may not have on the location of the primary stress in such complex words. The first category is the **weak suffixes**: those which have no influence on the primary stress e.g.

'-ish' devil 'devilish

'-ful' wonder 'wonderful

'less' 'power 'powerless

'-ing' amaze am'azing (Oxford learners' dictionaries online, 2010)

The second category is the **Stress-carrying suffixes**: these are strong suffixes since when they are added to a word they attract the primary stress from the stem onto the suffix itself.

e.g. '-ain' enter'tain

'-ette' ciga'rette

'-eer' mountai'neer, volun'teer

'-esque' pictu'resque (Oxford learners' dictionaries online, 2010)

The last category is the **Stress–shifting suffixes**: these are also strong suffixes which cause the primary stress to shift from one syllable of the stem to another one.

e.g. **‘-ic’** **‘climate** cli'**matic**

‘graphy’ **‘photo** pho'**tography**

‘-ion’ **‘perfect** per'**fection**

‘-ive’ **‘reflex** re'**flexive** Oxford learners’ dictionaries online, 2010)

Secondly, stress placement in particular words depends on the phonological structure of the last two syllables. We need to consider whether a syllable is an open syllable that is ending with a vowel and no consonants after it e.g. ‘money’, ‘envy’ or whether it is a syllable closed by a certain number of consonants. We also need to consider if the vowels are short or long. The following passages represent modest information toward the set of rules for stress placement in simple words. Concerning words with one syllable, they always have a primary stress if they are pronounced in isolation.

Table 40

Stress Placement on Verbs according to Phonological Properties

Syllable Division	Two-Syllable	Exceptions	Three-Syllable	Exceptions
Verbs	Stress falls on the second syllable if it contains a long vowel e.g. apply /ə'plai/ if not it falls on the first one e.g. Open /'əʊpən/ Note: adjectives have the same rule here.	If the final syllable contains the diphthongs /əʊ/ it will not be stressed e.g. Follow /'fɒləʊ/	Stress falls on the last syllable if it contains a long vowel, diphthong or ends with more than one consonant e.g. Entertain /entə'teɪn/ Resurrect /rezə'rekt/	Stress will be placed on the penultimate syllable if the last syllable contains a short vowel and ends with only one consonant e.g. Determine /dɪ'tɜ:mɪn/

(Roach, 1991, p. 89-90)

Table 41

Stress Placement on Nouns according to Phonological Properties

Syllable Division	Two-Syllable	Three-Syllable
Nouns	<p>Stress falls on the first syllable if the second syllable contains a short vowel e.g. Money /'mʌni/. If not it will fall on the second one e.g. Design /di'zain/</p>	<p>Stress usually falls on the first syllable if the others contains short vowels e.g. Cinema /'sɪnəmə/. Otherwise the stress falls on the middle syllable if it contains a long vowel, diphthong or ends with more than one consonant e.g. Potato /pə'teɪtəʊ /</p> <p>Disaster /dɪ'zɑ:stə/</p> <p>Stress can fall on the last syllable if it doesn't contain a short vowel or /əʊ/.</p> <p>Note: adjectives have the same rule here.</p>

(Roach, 1991, p. 89-90)

Table 42

Stress Placement in Compound Words

Compound words	Noun + Noun	Adjective + Noun	Number + Noun	Function as: Adverb or Verb
Stress placement	'Car-ferry 'Sunrise	Bad-'tempered Heavy-'handed	Five-'finger Three-'wheeler	North-'east Down-'grade

(Roach, 1991, p. 99)

2.3.3.3.2. English Rhythm

The natural rhythm of English is based on the alternation of stronger (stressed) and weaker (unstressed) syllables. English language has a “*stress-timed rhythm*” (Roach, 1991, p. 120). It means that the time for each stressed syllable to the next will be the same, irrespective of the number of intervening unstressed ones. The basic principle is that in English stresses tend to occur at regular interval of time, whatever the number of unstressed syllables between them; the latter are squeezed in between the strong stresses and often pronounced with weak vowels. The figure given below shows the stressed syllables which are given numbers: syllables 1 and 2 are not separated by any unstressed syllables, 2 and 3 are separated by one unstressed syllable, 3 and 4 by two and 4 and 5 by three.

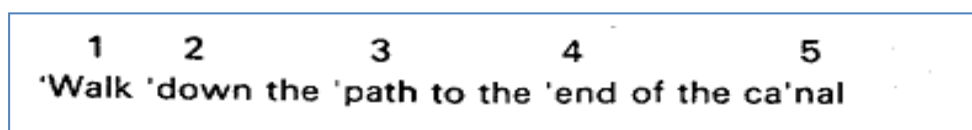


Figure 11. Stressed-timed Sentence in English language (Roach, 1991, p. 120)

The Syllables' pronunciation rate of speech, the number and length of pauses determine the tempo of speech. Tempo is not steady, it changes and shows the relative semantic significance of a sense group and the speaker's emotions. Stressed elements are said slower than unstressed ones. While Timbre is a special tone that affects the speaker's voice. It aims at expressing joy, sadness, anger, indignation, etc. A speaker's voice may be characterized as flat, resonant, creaky, husky, bright, dark, soft, flurry, etc. The physical nature of timber has not yet been physically established (Roach, 2011, p. 90-91).

Conclusion

After providing an overview about the linguistic scene in Algeria, one can say that the Standard Arabic is the base for which Algeria created a linguistic dimension to save its

The Influence of Algerian Dialects on English Language Pronunciation.

identity, in relation to the spoken production which is an umbrella piece of various origins, to which Tamazight is the significant one. In this chapter, a special emphasis on the influence of the far eastern Algerian dialects on the English language use was pointed out in order to review the phenomenon in Algeria. A historical background of each of the selected areas was submitted with brief information on its phonological system. Besides, an overview about those dialects' influence on the English language pronunciation was explored basically from previous researches for the sake of enrichment of the theoretical part of the phenomenon.

Chapter Three

Practical Framework of the Study

Introduction

The mother tongue influence on the second language is a huge phenomenon in the language education sphere all around the world. It has been examined by most linguists in the study of second language learning. This influence is sometimes considered as a barrier to learning a second language. This chapter is an attempt to give an overview about the influence of the eastern Algerian dialects on the English language pronunciation. The speech of the chosen teachers would be analyzed concerning the negatively influenced parts by diverse dialects which hinder the fluency of English language pronunciation. Furthermore, some recommendations would be suggested for the sake of improving Algerian speakers of English to be fluent afterward.

1.1. Rational

For the purpose of proving the influence of Algerian dialects on the English language pronunciation, a questionnaire was given to teachers of English in Constantine, Annaba, Oum el Bouaghi and Tebessa. From the three different levels, that is middle, high schools, and universities. Also an interview was conducted for the sake of gathering information about teachers' views on improving the educational system and solutions they think may help easing the English language learning and perfect its pronunciation. The interview is recorded for the sake of proving dialects influence in teachers' pronunciation of the English language. It is also submitted for the same levels in the selected areas. The findings of the questionnaire and the audio recording would constitute the data of our study. These data would be quantified, qualified and submitted for statistical analysis and histograms. This kind of test is processed to find out possible significant solutions concerning the influence of Algerian dialects on the English language pronunciation. On the basis of the obtained results of analyses, some generalizations would be made.

1.2. The Instruments

A questionnaire and an audio recording interview were administered to subjects in the investigation. The questionnaire consists of 11 statements; each statement was scored on two-point squared scale ranging into “Yes”/“No” and some points according to the quantity that the question requires. All the statements presented were reflective of the Algerian dialects influence on the English language pronunciation. For that reason, it is deemed that it would be both theoretically and practically proper to use that scale in the current investigation. (See the appendix number 01)

In order to check the hypothesis stated at the beginning of this research, audio-recording interviews were carried out. This step was taken in order to see whether the Algerian dialect of the selected regions influences the English language pronunciation by talking with different teachers who were randomly chosen. The participants’ oral performance were recorded and transcribed for analysis. Teachers’ oral performance was assessed in terms of the mother tongue influence factor.

The interview was conducted through asking few questions about the main problems teachers face in everyday sessions and the solutions they would like to suggest in order to improve the learning and more importantly to optimize English language learning and pronunciation in Algeria. The choice of the topic was made on the fact that all participants in our sample were English language teachers originating from the areas we have chosen. (See the appendix number 02)

The interviewer asked the questions and the teachers were discussing and exchanging ideas, the interviewer interfered to provide some related examples that have been found on the previous studies in order to get new comments. In order to maintain the credibility too this work, teachers were informed that they would be recorded.

The interview was untimed thus to avoid such change because people may, consciously or unconsciously, change the way they behave while they are being observed, and therefore observational accounts of their behavior may be erroneous representations of how they behave 'naturally'.

The quantitative data from the questionnaire were analyzed using descriptive and comparative statistics. The qualitative data collected from the interview were also analyzed used descriptive, comparative and inferential statistics. The data collected from the questionnaire were correlated with teachers' oral performance in the audio-recorded interview.

1.3. The Sample

A total number of forty five (45) teachers of the three levels universities, high schools and middle schools were chosen randomly to participate in this study. The study is also based on similar work done by the same researcher in 2014 concerning the analysis of Constantine teachers' responses. The questionnaire was introduced to 15 teachers at each level on the selected areas of Tebessa, Annaba, and Oum el Bouaghi. Meanwhile, the interview was submitted to five teachers at each level.

The choice of the different levels of English language teachers was done for the sake of practical data, appropriateness and for the comparative study between the three levels' degree of mother tongue influence on their pronunciation.

1.4. Software for Analysis

Concerning the statistical analysis of the data, both descriptive and inferential analysis were used, we used two computer software programs, one designed for typing information

(Microsoft WORD 2007) and the other designed for general statistics (Microsoft EXCEL 2007).

1.5. Obtained Results

1.5.1. Questionnaire Analysis in Constantine

According to similar work done by the same researcher in 2014, the following table represents a quantitative analysis of teachers' answers on YES/NO questions, related to Algerian dialect influence on English language pronunciation, which are:

- Do you think that Constantine/Annaba/Tebessa dialects affect English language pronunciation? Q01
- Do you think that your colleagues' dialects affect their pronunciation of English? Q03
- Do you think that mother tongue influence on second language acquisition can affect the generation throughout the years?Q05
- Do you think that a dialect is a matter of identity? Q06
- Do you think that teaching phonetics at early stages like middle/high schools is a reliable solution? Q11 (Ouanada & Chebouki, 2014)

Table 43

Value Measure "1"

Value	
Yes	10
No	10

(Ouanada & Chebouki, 2014, p. 88)

Table 44

The Overall Percentage of Teachers Answers on the Questionnaire in Constantine

Constantine	Middle School		High School		University			Percentage of Answers:	
	Informant 1	Informant 2	Informant 1	Informant 2	Informant 1	Informant 2	Informant 3	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(1) Q1	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	71.42857143	28.57142857
Answer(2) Q2	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	71.42857143	28.57142857
Answer(3) Q3	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	71.42857143	28.57142857
Answer(4) Q4	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	0	100
Answer(5) Q5	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0
Answer(6) Q6	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	85.71428571	14.28571429
Answer(7) Q7	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0
Answer(8) Q9	No	No	No	No	No	No	No	0	100
Answer(9) Q10	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	100	0
Answer(10) Q11	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	85.71428571	14.28571429
Value	10	10	10	10	10	10	10		

(Ouanada & Chebouki, 2014, p. 88)

As can be seen in the table above, an illustrated analysis of each question solely to indicate the percentage of the correctness of the ideas that has been mentioned before was merely based on the influence of Algerian dialects on English language pronunciation. The table above discusses these answers according to teachers from Constantine. It shows that almost teachers are merely aware of the phenomenon of mother tongue influence on foreign language pronunciation. Teachers' responses are supportive to the idea of teaching phonetics at early stages to eliminate dialect influence and improve learning English language. Figure 12 discusses the data of the previous table. It draws those percentages into vertical axes that grow higher according to supporting answers. Another kind of statistics was made to show the

percentage of teachers' response to the answer according to their level that is middle school, high school and university. The following table tends to show the supporting answers' number according to the three levels in Constantine based on two teachers from middle and high school level and three teachers from university as mentioned in table 44.

Table 45

“Yes” Percentage according to each Level in Constantine.

Yes Answers	Middle School	High School	University
Answer(1) Q1	1	2	2
Answer(2) Q2	1	2	2
Answer(3) Q3	1	2	2
Answer(4) Q4	0	0	0
Answer(5) Q5	2	2	3
Answer(6) Q6	2	2	2
Answer(7) Q7	2	2	3
Answer(8) Q9	0	0	0
Answer(9) Q10	2	2	3
Answer(10) Q11	1	2	3

(Ouanada & Chebouki, 2014, p. 88)

However, the next figure is a histogram of vertical axes that illustrates the rates according to each level. According to the results, university teachers are more aware about the phenomena and have supported teaching phonetics at early stages. Additionally, middle and high school teachers supported the idea too, with a lesser percentage rather than university teachers. As a result of the gathered data, teaching phonetics according to teachers from Constantine is a reliable solution to improve the pronunciation and eliminate dialects influence on foreign languages' use.

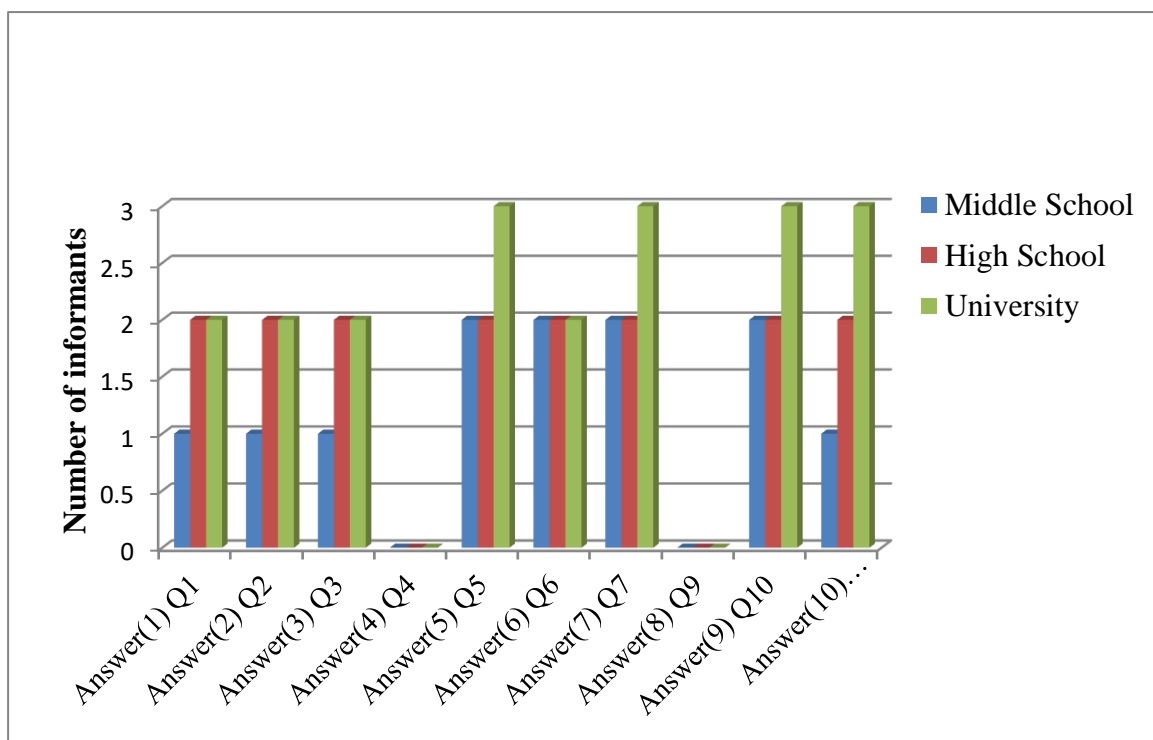


Figure 12. “Yes” Answers Rate according to each Level in Constantine (Ouanada & Chebouki, 2014, p. 88)

1.5.2. Questionnaire Analysis in Annaba, Tebessa and Oum El Bouaghi

Actually, the questionnaire can be divided up to four features: Teachers’ knowledge about the topic, teachers’ language effects on students, the language change theory in Algeria, the cause of dialects’ effects and the solution of teaching phonetics as a module in middle and high school to improve the pronunciation of English language.

1.5.2.1. Teachers’ Knowledge on the Topic

The questions related to this part are those of number 01, 03, 04 and 06. They were submitted for teachers in the three levels randomly in Annaba, Tebessa and Oum EL Bouaghi regularly. The following table shows the results gathered and the percentage of teachers’ knowledge (‘yes’ answers). Next, a histogram is used to show the exact percentage of knowledge at each level.

1.5.2.1.1. Annaba

Table 46

Teachers' Knowledge on the Topic in Annaba.

Annaba	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(1) Q1	10	0	8	2	9	1	90%	10%
Answer(3) Q3	8	2	7	3	7	3	73%	27%
Answer(4) Q4	6	4	6	4	6	4	60%	40%
Answer(6) Q6	9	1	8	2	10	0	90%	10%

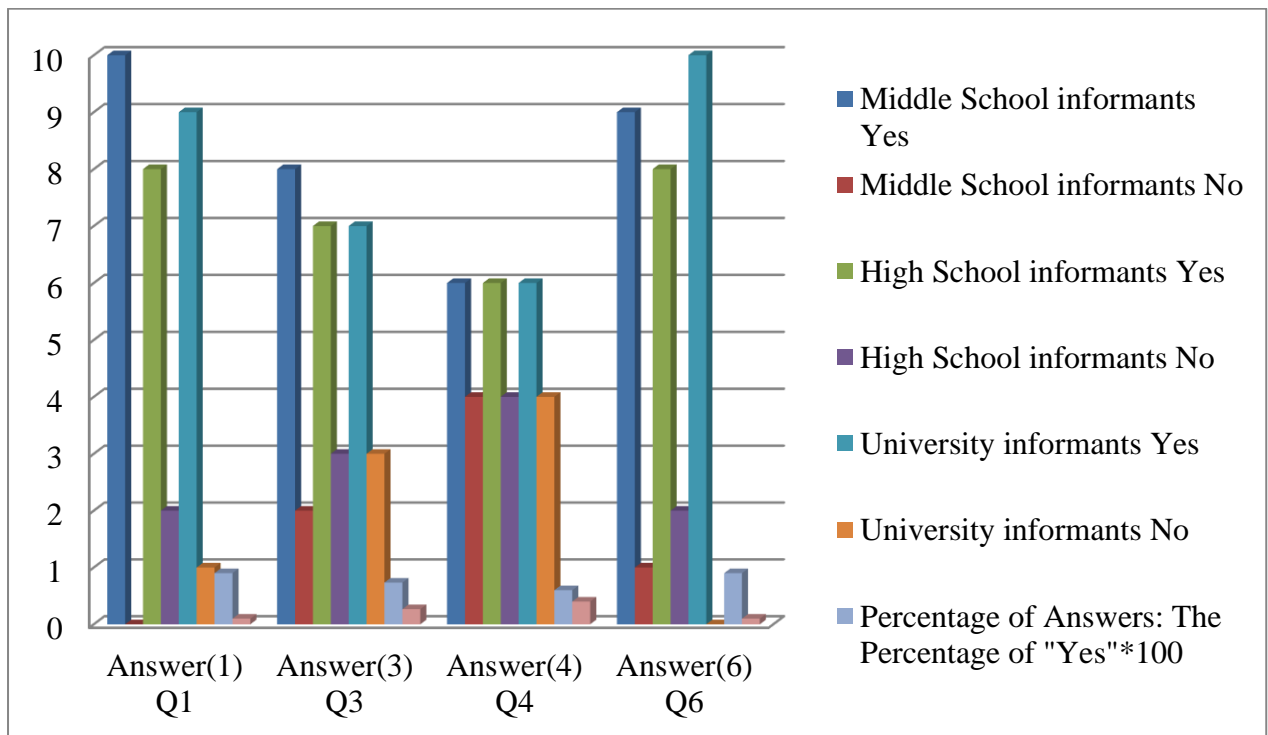


Figure 13. Annaba Teachers' Knowledge on the Topic.

1.5.2.1.2. Tebessa

Table 47

Teachers' Knowledge on the Topic in Tebessa.

Tebessa	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(1) Q1	7	3	10	0	10	0	90%	10%
Answer(3) Q3	5	5	7	3	7	3	63%	37%
Answer(4) Q4	6	4	8	2	4	6	60%	40%
Answer(6) Q6	8	2	9	1	10	0	90%	10%

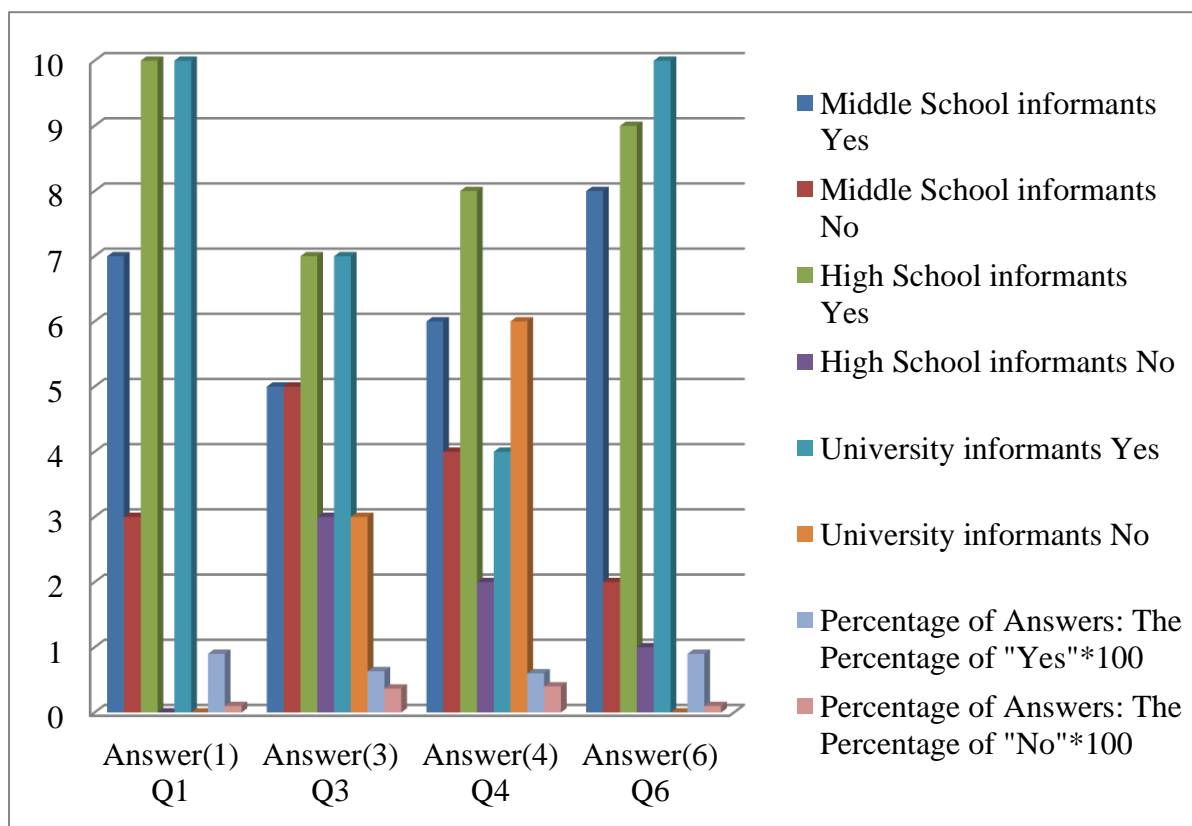


Figure 14. Tebessa Teachers' Knowledge on the Topic.

1.5.2.1.3. Oum El Bouaghi

Table 48

Teachers' Knowledge on the Topic in Oum El Bouaghi.

Oum El Bouaghi	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(1) Q1	10	0	10	0	9	1	97%	3%
Answer(3) Q3	8	2	7	3	7	3	73%	27%
Answer(4) Q4	7	3	7	3	5	5	63%	37%
Answer(6) Q6	9	1	9	1	8	2	87%	13%

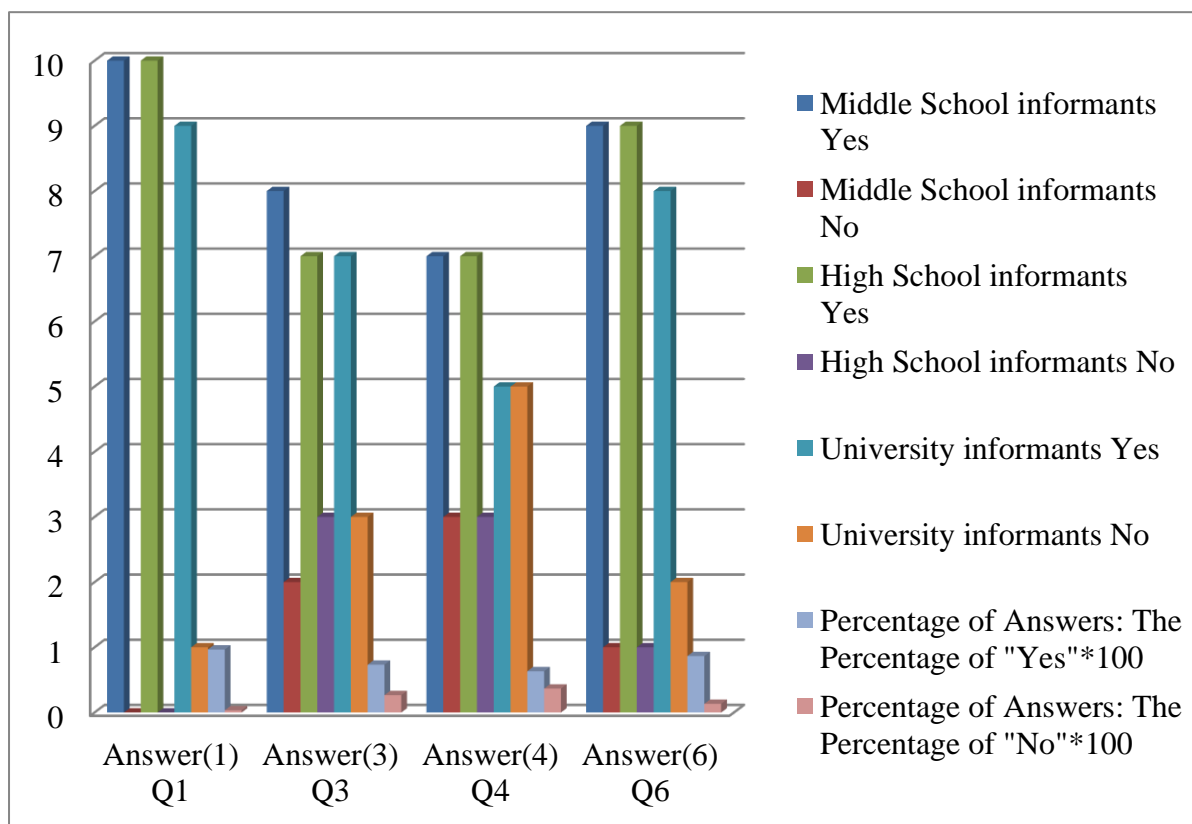


Figure 15. Oum El Bouaghi Teachers' Knowledge on the Topic

Teachers' knowledge on the subject in the three states is higher. Only some teachers do not have access to the phenomenon, also some refused to admit the dialects' negative influence on the pronunciation of English language. Almost teachers agreed that Algerian dialects influence the English language pronunciation. They also agreed that once hearing each dialect they can predict the identity of the speaker. Especially the case of Skikda, teachers mentioned that there is a mispronunciation of the sound /t/ as /tʃ/ in English and the case of Annaba concerning the sound /d/ pronunciation instead of the sound /ð/ and the sound /t/ instead of the sound /θ/. Almost all teachers agreed that they are totally aware of their pronunciation in natural circumstances; however the interview presented later showed the contrast. Finally, the Algerian dialects influence is approved by teachers in the east of Algeria concerning the selected cities.

1.5.2.2. Teachers' Language Effects on Students' Pronunciation

This part is concerned with the fifth question which assesses teachers' views on the influence of the teachers' language on students' pronunciation. The following table represents the statistics of the gathered results which is presented next in a histogram.

1.5.2.2.1. Annaba

Table 49

The Effect of Teachers' Language according to Annaba Teachers.

Annaba	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer (5) Q5	9	1	5	5	9	1	77%	23%

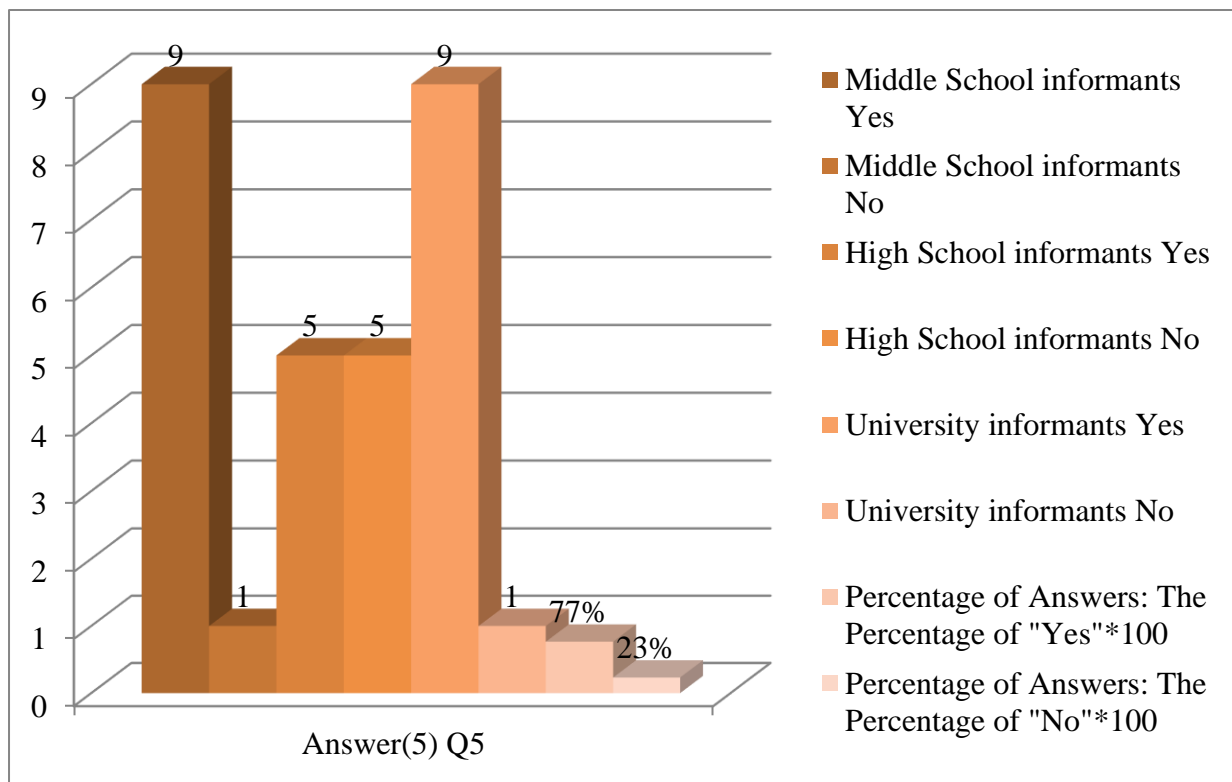


Figure 16. The Effect of Teachers' Language according to Annaba Teachers.

1.5.2.2.2. Tebessa

Table 50

The Effect of Teachers' Language according to Tebessa Teachers.

Tebessa	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer (5) Q5	7	3	8	2	10	0	83%	17%

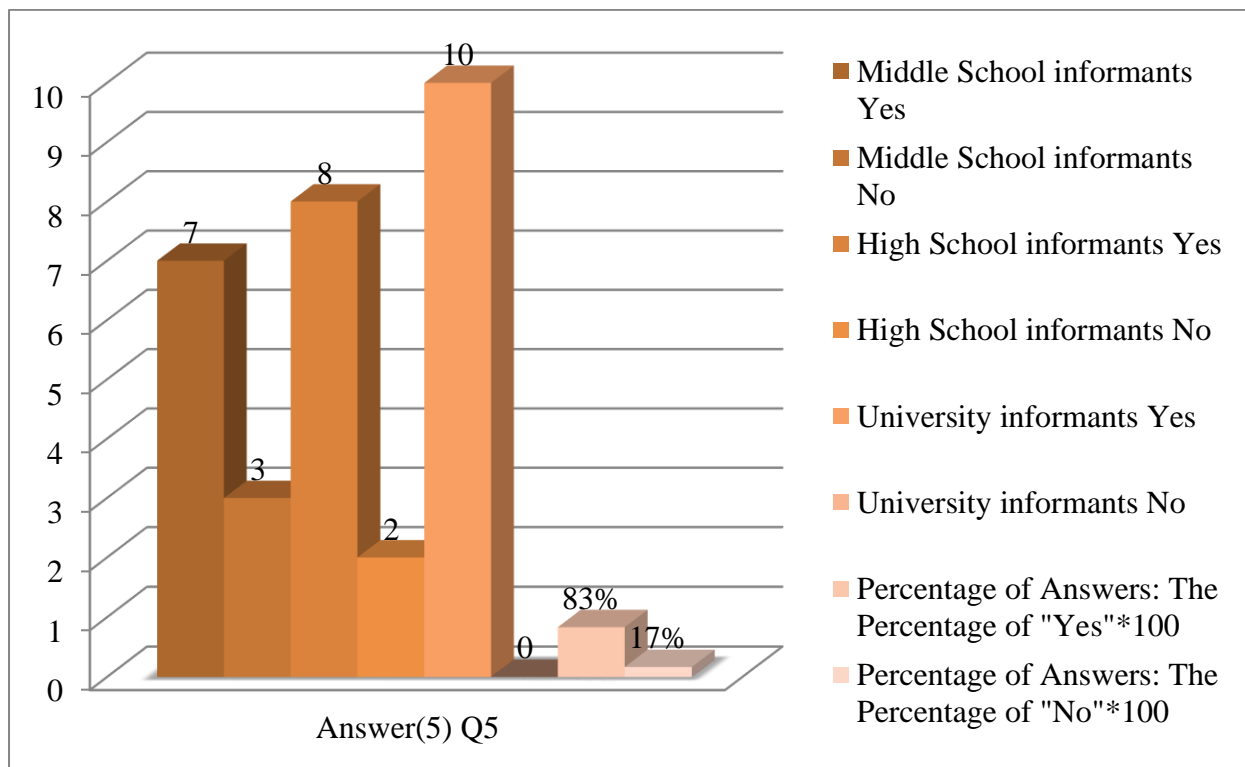


Figure 17. The Effect of Teachers' Language according to Tebessa Teachers.

1.5.2.2.3. Oum El Bouaghi

Table 51

The Effect of Teachers' Language according to Oum El Bouaghi Teachers.

Oum El Bouaghi	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(5) Q5	10	0	7	3	8	2	83%	17%

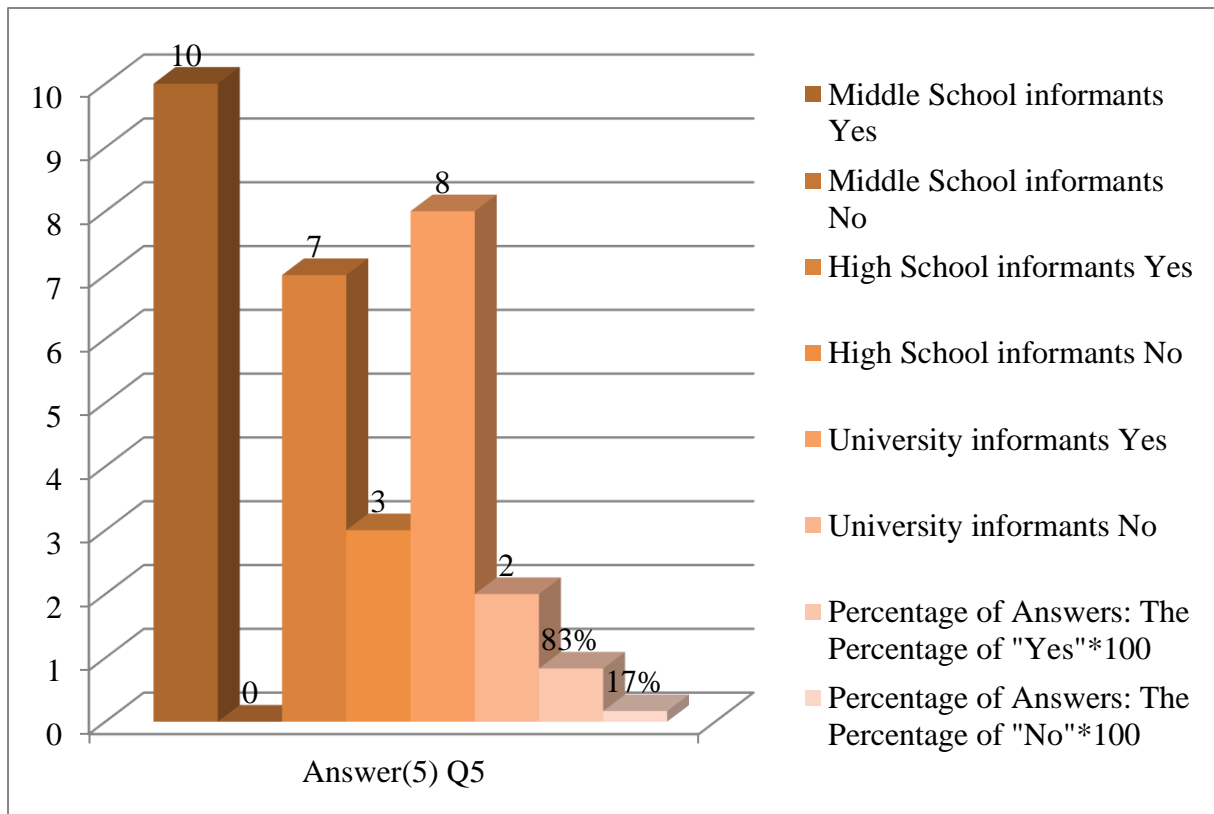


Figure 18. The Effect of Teachers' Language according to Oum El Bouaghi Teachers.

According to the statistical results almost all teachers from the selected areas agreed that the language used by the teacher affects the students' use of that language, since for them the teacher is the trusted source of knowledge. The language used by teachers especially at elementary level may affect the learners positively or negatively, and this is according to the teachers' pronunciation whether influenced by their dialects or not. Some teachers agreed that there are other sources to obtain the language for the case of undergraduate students. However, it is said that the learned habits cannot be changed randomly but teachers must raise awareness on the subject and use the standard languages only in classrooms to avoid such a problem.

1.5.2.3. The Language Change Theory in Algeria

Linguists have already studied the language change and the main causes leading to it. Trask (1994) and many others stated that a conflicting linguistic situation may lead to language change overtime because of the need to use such units. Thus the questionnaire posed a similar question 07 to teachers as the main language users to see their views on the language change in Algeria as a society of conflicted use of languages.

1.5.2.3.1. Annaba

Table 52

The Language Change Theory according to Annaba Teachers

Annaba	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer (7) Q7	6	4	6	4	6	4	60%	40%

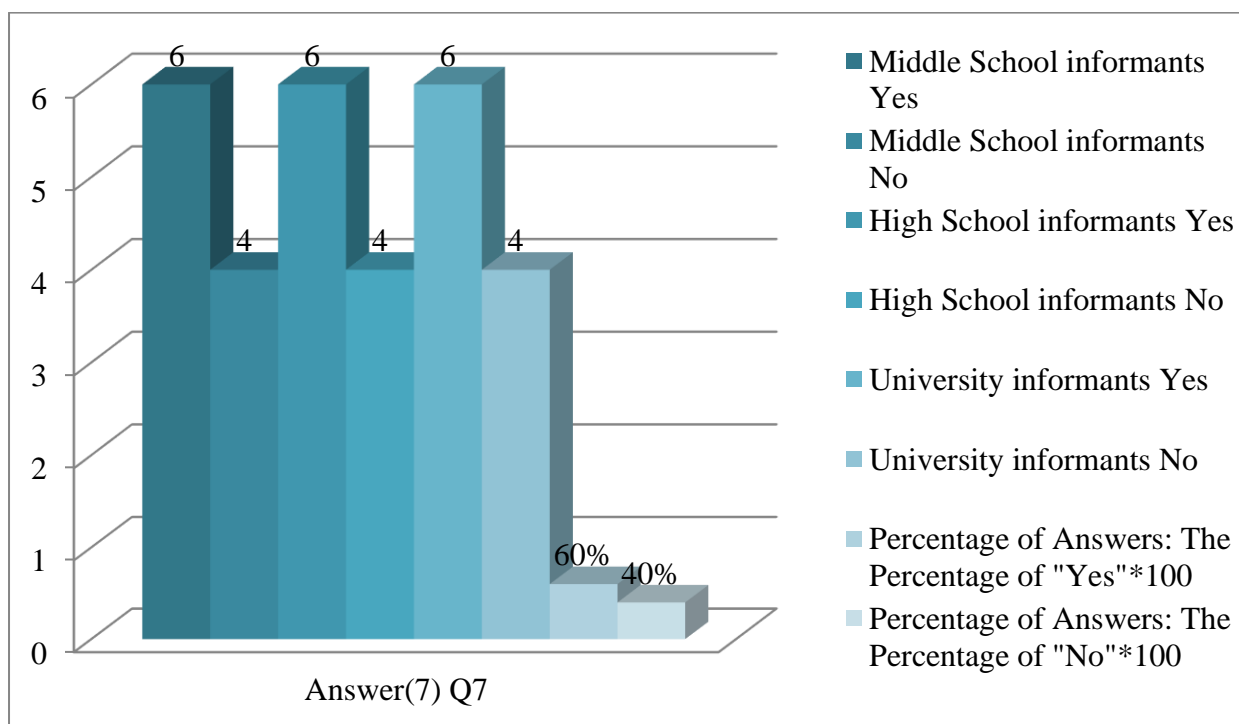


Figure 19. The Language Change Theory according to Annaba Teachers.

1.5.2.3.2. Tebessa

Table 53

The Language Change Theory according to Tebessa Teachers

Tebessa	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer (7) Q7	6	4	5	5	7	3	60%	40%

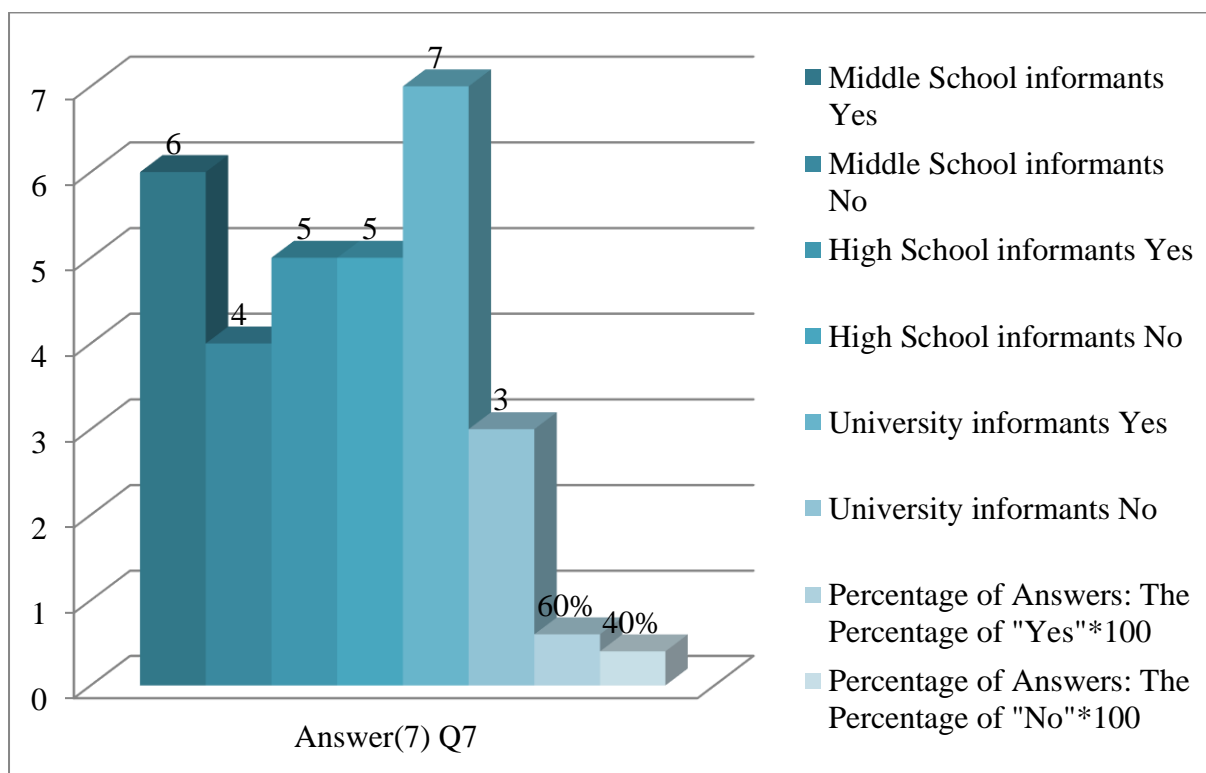


Figure 20. The Language Change Theory according to Tebessa Teachers.

1.5.2.3.3. Oum El Bouaghi

Table 54

The Language Change Theory according to Oum El Bouaghi Teachers

Oum El Bouaghi	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(7) Q7	8	2	6	4	6	4	67%	33%

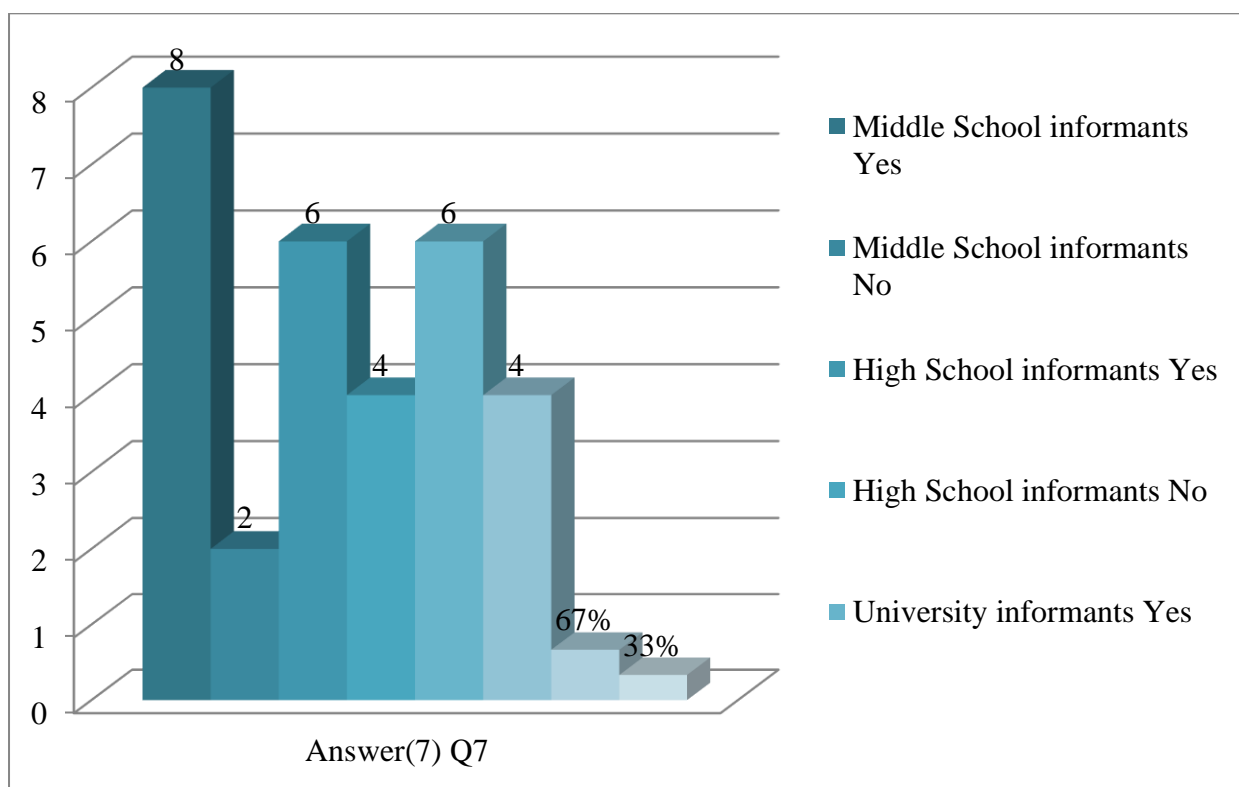


Figure 21. The Language Change Theory according to Oum El Bouaghi Teachers.

The results gathered for this question show that 60% of teachers agreed that Algerian dialects may cause a language to change because of the need to use such words which have no exact equivalent in the target language. Thus a speaker may borrow a word from his dialect

which might be also a loan word of other language because of the mixed linguistic situation that has various adopted words of various origins. Actually, not only in the case of words but also in pronunciation since a language may lose its rhythm because of the dialects' accents effects on the target language.

1.5.2.4. The Cause of Dialects Effects

As far as the mother tongue affects the foreign language use, it may be based on various reasons. One of the main reasons as mentioned above is the 'Habit' by which the speaker is used to perform such linguistic habits that tend to be performed at any other language. However, there is also a psychological factor which is the intended use of first language habits as a way of prestige and identity show, other linguist stated that it is a matter of sense of inferiority ("مركب النقص" in Arabic linguistics). Thus a statistical table and histogram are used to show the teachers views concerning the questions number 08 and 09.

1.5.2.4.1. Annaba

Table 55

The Dialects' Effect Causes according to Annaba Teachers.

Annaba	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer (8) Q8	6	4	3	7	4	6	43%	57%
Answer (9) Q9	10	0	7	3	10	0	90%	10%

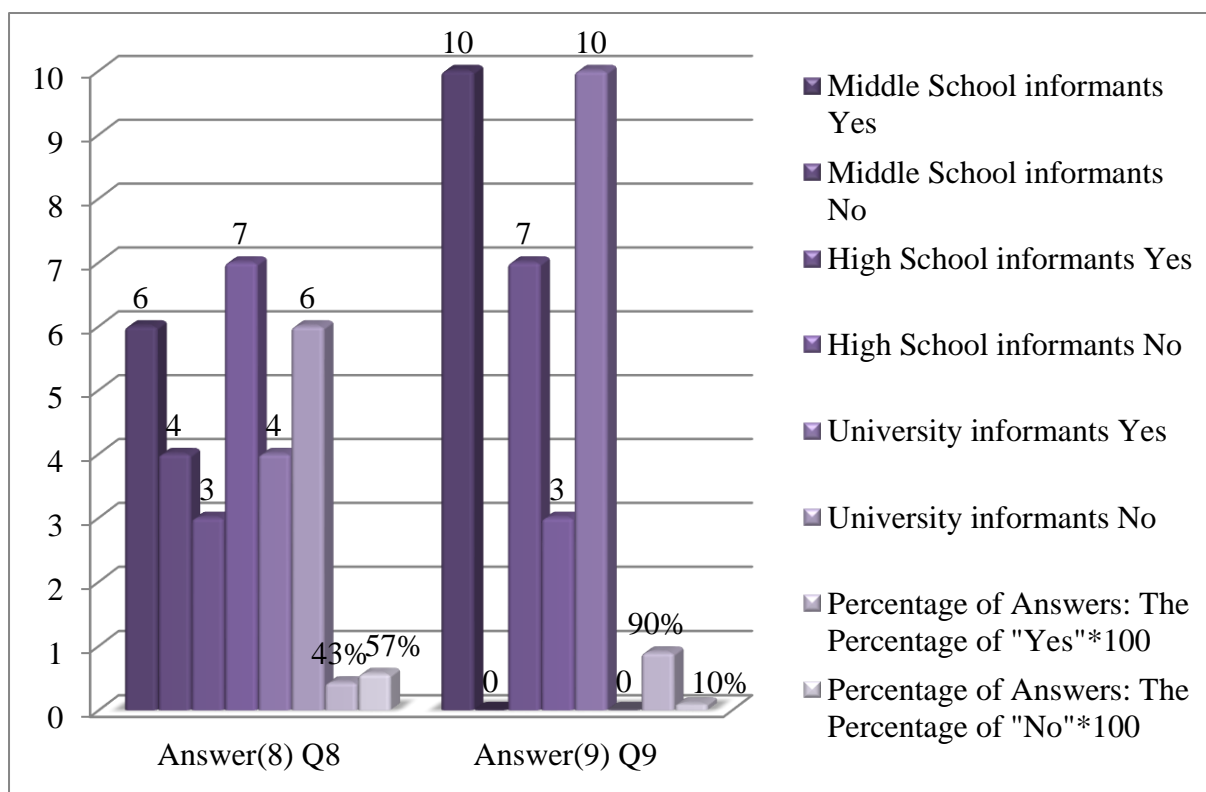


Figure 22. The Percentage of Dialects' Effect Causes according to Annaba Teachers.

1.5.2.4.2. Tebessa

Table 56

The Dialects' Effect Causes according to Tebessa Teachers.

Tebessa	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer (8) Q8	7	3	4	6	4	6	50%	50%
Answer (9) Q9	9	1	9	1	9	1	90%	10%

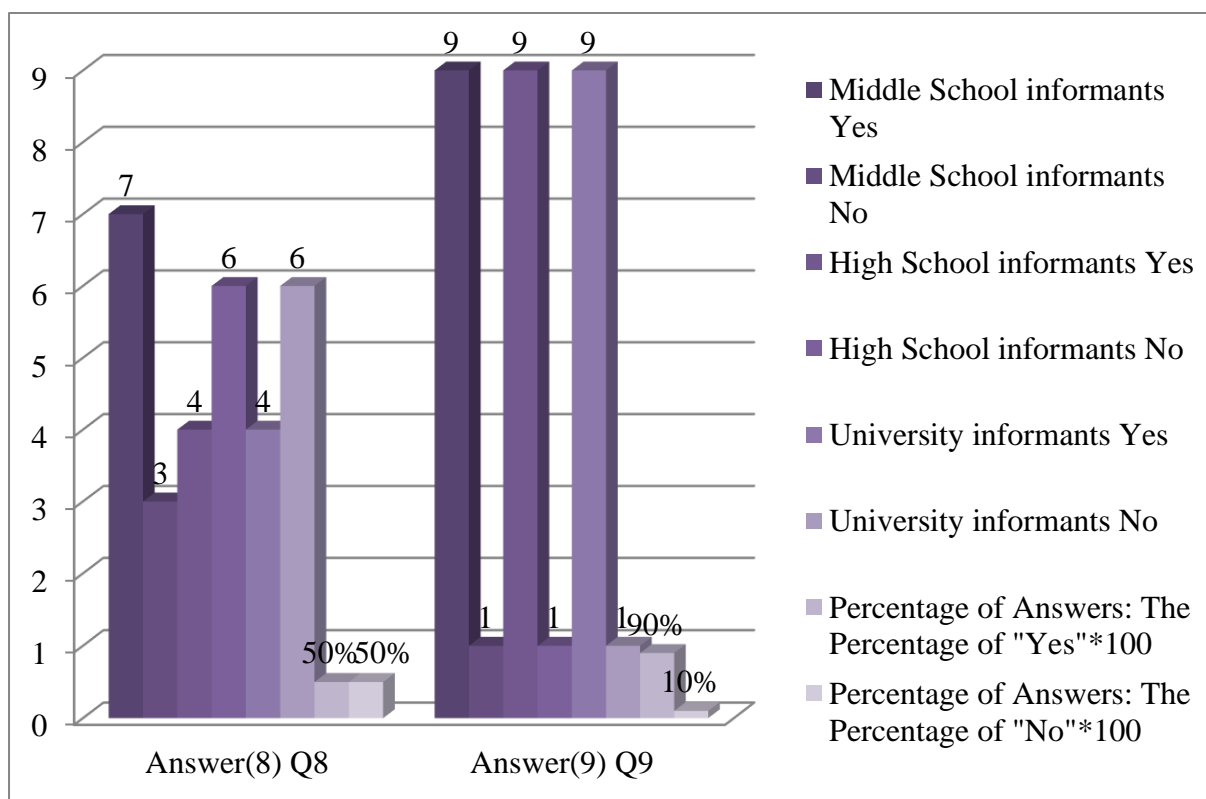


Figure 23. The Percentage of Dialects' Effect Causes according to Tebessa Teachers.

1.5.2.4.3. Oum El Bouaghi

Table 57

The Dialects' Effect Causes according to Oum El Bouaghi Teachers.

Oum El Bouaghi	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(8) Q8	7	3	6	4	7	3	67%	33%
Answer(9) Q9	10	0	10	0	10	0	100%	0%

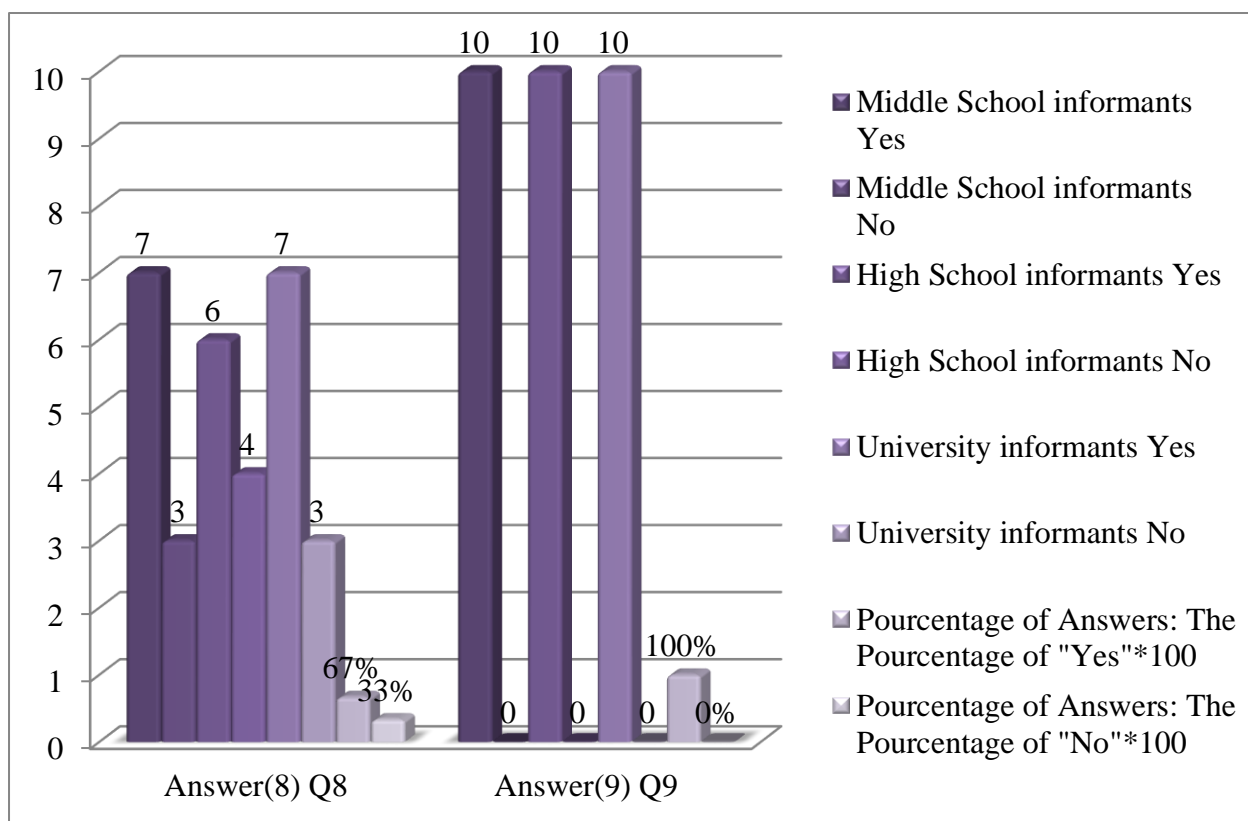


Figure 24. The Percentage of Dialects' Effect Causes according to Oum El Bouaghi Teachers.

In this case, it is agreed by almost teachers that the dialects influence is a matter of habit, by which non-native speakers use the habits learned in the first language in order to perform the target language similar habits. Once there is a lack of the learned habit of the mother tongue, the speaker tends to use similar habits as the case of speakers in Annaba. However, 60% of teachers agreed that this influence is a matter of intended use of one's own habits to show the identity, though it is not applicable for all but still available, for example the Algerian use of sound /t/ instead of /γ/ in French language.

1.5.2.5. Teaching Phonetics as a Module in Middle and High Schools to Improve Pronunciation

Using a foreign language always is based for communicative objectives. Anyone would like to perceive the message correctly and in a native-like manner. Teaching phonetics

is known as the port of the correct use of language and pronunciation itself. In this research, it is suggested to teach phonetics for students as a separate module in the middle and high school levels. The question number 10 is based on teachers' views on this suggestion whether they support it or no. The following table and histogram are a statistical analysis for this solution

1.5.2.5.1. Annaba

Table 58

Teaching Phonetics as Module according to Annaba Teachers.

Annaba	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(10) Q10	10	0	10	0	10	0	100%	0%

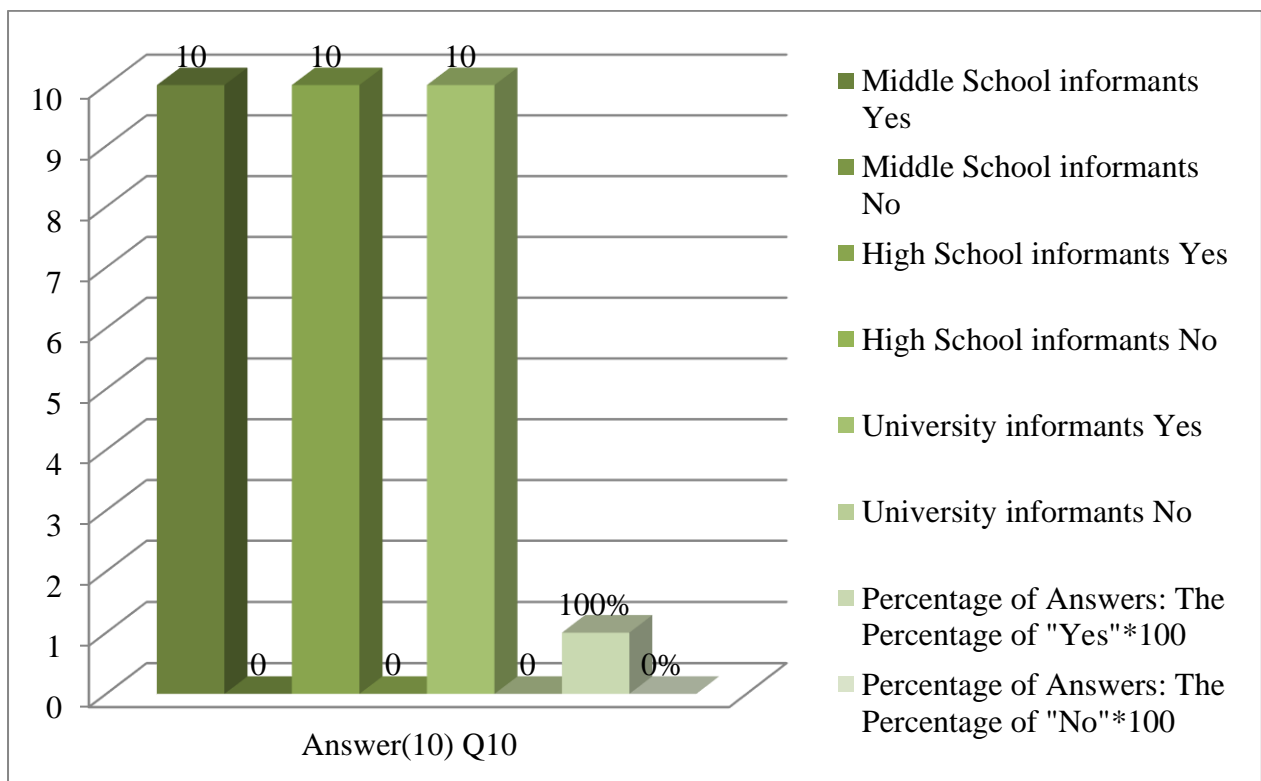


Figure 25. Teaching Phonetics as Module according to Annaba Teachers.

1.5.2.5.2. Tebessa

Table 59

Teaching Phonetics as Module according to Tebessa Teachers.

Tebessa	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(10) Q10	10	0	10	0	7	3	90%	10%

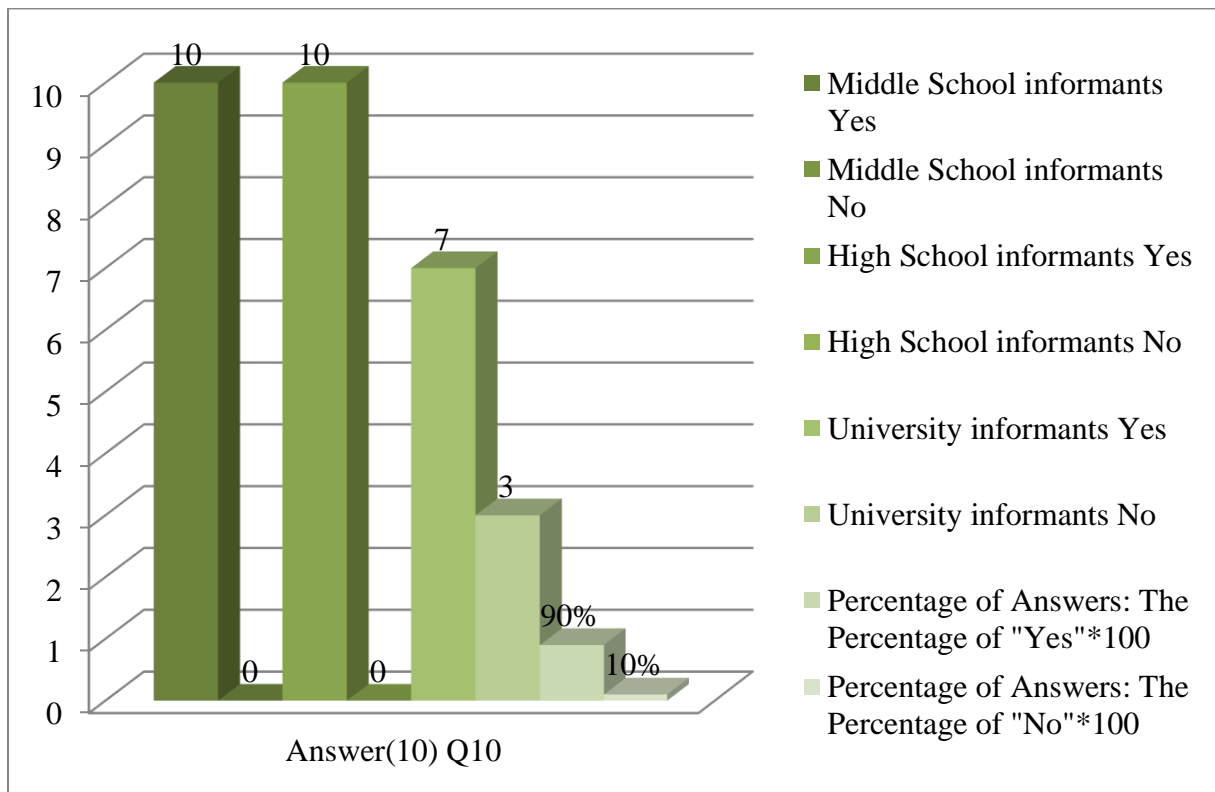


Figure 26. Teaching Phonetics as Module according to Tebessa Teachers

1.5.2.5.3. Oum El Bouaghi

Table 60

Teaching Phonetics as a Module according to Oum El Bouaghi Teachers.

Oum El Bouaghi	Middle School Informants		High School Informants		University Informants		Percentage of Answers:	
	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	The Percentage of "Yes"*100	The Percentage of "No"*100
Answer(10) Q10	10	0	9	1	10	0	97%	3%

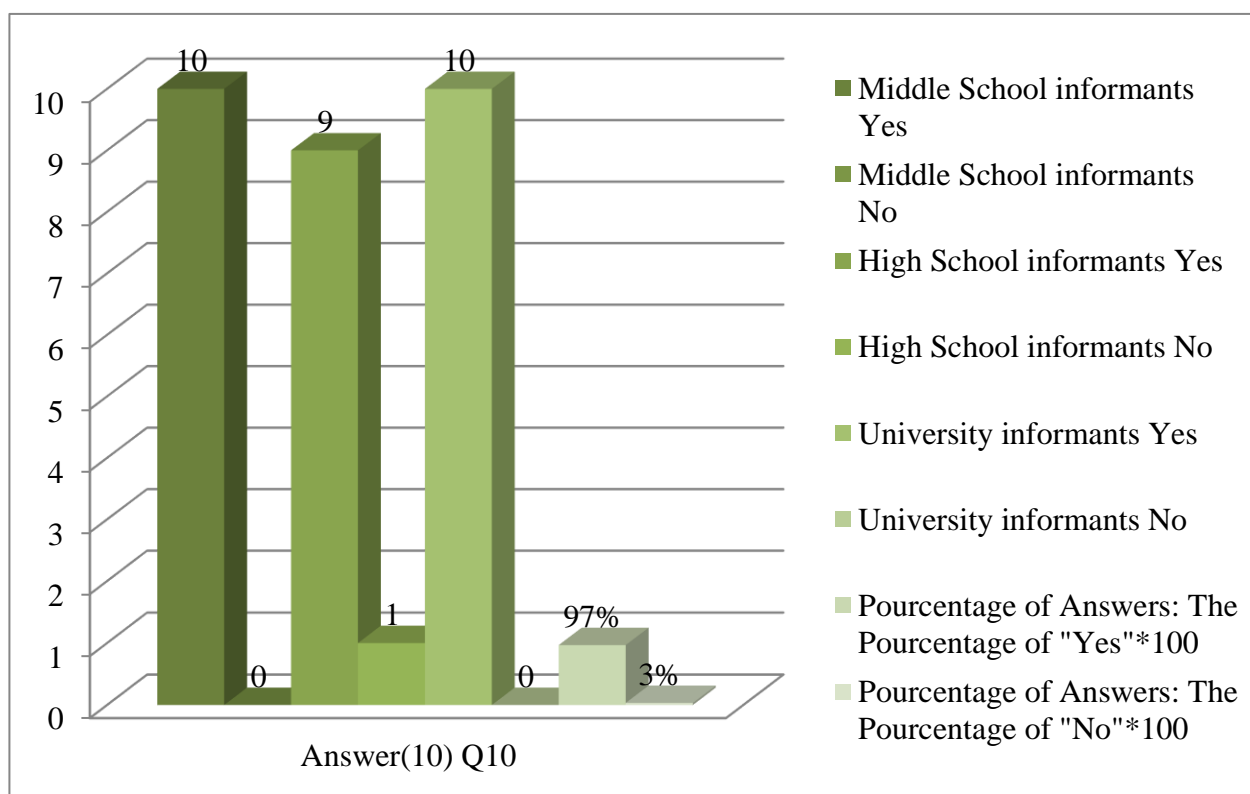


Figure 27. Teaching Phonetics as a Module according to Oum el Bouaghi Teachers

Almost all teachers with 96% rate from the selected regions agreed on teaching phonetics as a separate module in middle and high schools as a solution to the phenomena. They stated that the phonetics used in nowadays curriculum is not clear since it has no introductory phase. Pupils would neither understand its use nor its aim since they are introduced directly with sounds. It was stated that it cannot be helpful for them without any

practise of its rules. Additionally, it was stated that teaching phonetics will be helpful not only for English but for any learned language since it raises the awareness toward correct pronunciation of sounds.

1.5.3. The Audio-Recorded Interview

As it has been mentioned before, the interview is made for the sake of gathering concrete facts about the phenomena concerning teachers' views and suggestions to improve English language learning in Algeria, mainly pronunciation. Some corpus of teachers' answers would be transcribed for the sake of showing the influenced parts in their pronunciation. Consequently, the following analysis would clearly show the percentage of the teachers' dialect influence using histograms. The interview was done in the same states mentioned above; Constantine results are based on 2014 data.

1.5.3.1. Constantine

1.5.3.1.1. The Results

a. University Level

(1) "Of course to a large extent the Algerian dialects contribute. they can be..."

/e ts ts ts d ts ts d/

(2) "You re welcome to our university and to the city of Constantine"

/ ts 't ts 'tɪə/

(3) "Nice to meet you..I don't think so...I don't think so...totally disagree with that"

/ts ts Ø t ts ts/

(4) "I think thatYou will be trained to.....I think that"

/ Ø ts ts ts/

(5) "I do that it affects the learners pronunciation...focusing on the system and the.."

/ eɒ tser ts prenəsieɪfn d ts d/

(Token from, Ouanada & Chebouki, 2014, Track 01-05)

b. High School Level

- (1) “So this is the reason.. before university..with their future needs....to make literal”
 /d d ju:nɪ'versɪtɪ d d ts ts ts/
- (2) “We can notice that..the identity of the other..Constantine..we try to imitate the others”
 /ts dɜ:ts d ts ts d d kɒnstɒntsɪne ts ts ts ts d d/
- (3) “We are unable to..the use.. this language correctly...that we learn..after or later”
 /ɪ ts z d ts d ts ts ts/
- (4) “We are talking...teaching English..so the dialects.. and mixture...trying to pronounce”
 /ts ts d tsʃ ts ts/
- (5) “We live in the same country so we have this interference between our dialects”
 /d ts d ts ts /

(taken from, Ouanada & Chebouki, 2014, Trak 01-05)

c. Middle School Level

- (1) “Even if the origin of the word..the interference between their dialect and the English”
 /d d d ts ts d ts d/
- (2) “In Algeria we don’t pronounce the same way...that that we don’t practise”
 /ts d d ts d ts ts/
- (3) “Our ‘t’ is more..table table..they are always like that..the accent..but Constantine”
 /ts ts ts d dɜ:ts d ts ts kɒnstɒntsɪne/
- (4) “In Constantine.....They want to pronounce according to their dialect”
 / kɒnstɒntsɪne ts ts e ts ts/
- (5) “The ability and the capacity.....When the teacher about to say that..”
 / d ts d ts d tsɪʃər ts ts d ts /

(Taken from, Ouanada & Chebouki, 2014, Track 01-05)

1.5.3.1.2. The Analysis

The following table and figure represent a statistical study of the data shown previously about the dialect influence on the teachers’ speech according to informants’ number at each level.

Table 61

Constantine Dialect Effects on Teachers Speech

Constantine	Effects' Percentage	Informants
University Teachers	100%	5
High School Teachers	100%	5
Middle School Teachers	100%	5
The Effect in Constantine	100%	

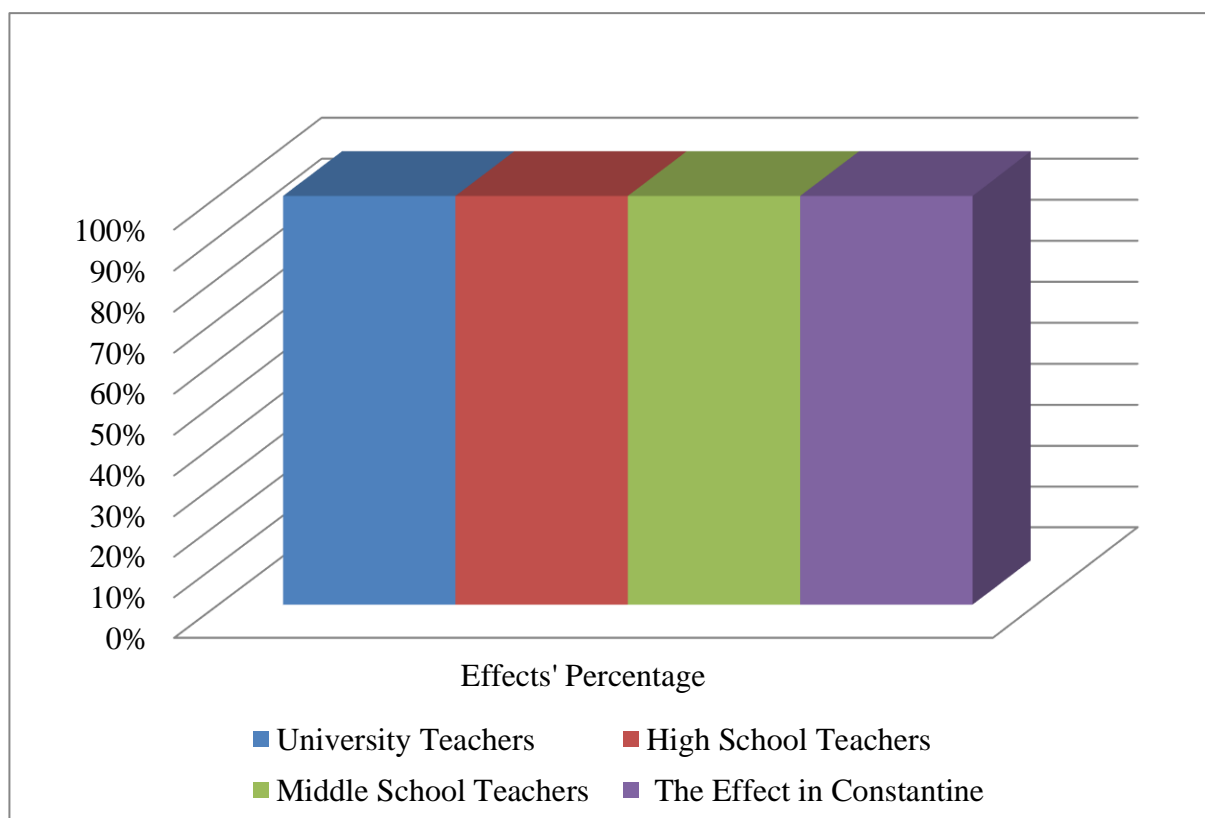


Figure 28. Constantine Dialect Effects on Teachers Speech

The results have shown that Constantine teachers are also influenced by their dialect. This influence can be detected in three positions: initial, middle and final in the word and the sentence also. Whether the informants tried to get rid of their dialect influence at an initial position, it still can be detected at the other position. This is mainly because it is the language habit they used to do since their puberty.

1.5.3.2. Annaba

1.5.3.2.1. The Results

a. University Level

- (1) “the age...the module..they need..so there...not only...with my master..whether”
/d d d d ɒnlɪz d d/
- (2) “First they don’t.. the language that they see..the music they listen to..they maybe”
/d d d d/
- (3) “They they don’t.. them..both..methodological ..these problems..they study..the”
/d d t t d d d/
- (4) “The university..around them...in the classroom..the teacher..otherwise..methodology”
/d d d d d t/
- (5) “I think the major.. with students..the first..there is..both of them..i think..thank you”
/t d d d d t t t/

b. High School Level

- (1) “They faced...the problem..they are...this problems...although...with the French..them”
/d d d d d d d d/
- (2) “From the early...they are unable...another problem..there is...methodology...through”
/d d d d d tɒ tʃ/
- (3) “We have also the the..they listen..they hear.. their....gonna to...themselves..how they”
/dɪ d d d tʃ d d/
- (4) “The pronunciation..when they..the pronunciation...their dialects..they say...the first”
/d d d d d d/
- (5) “The main...for them...since all the...they are weak..this point..parents..them”
/d d d d d pærents d/

c. Middle School Level

- (1) “The major they...there is..to..their good.. the ‘ch’..main problem..both..methodology”
/d d d tʃu d d brɒblem t t/
- (2) “Affect on the way..when they speak..Judge the teachers..”
/d d d/
- (3) “Twenty-two years..their ideas..the milieu...help their...both methodology...both”
/tʃ tʃ d d d t t t/

(4) “I think in both...the problem that.. go back to..to teach it...they always..it’s both”

/ t t d d tʃ tʃ d t/

(5) “The weak level...to repeat....teach them...they..they use..between them..both of them”

/d tʃ d die d d t d/

1.5.3.2.2. The Analysis

Table 62

Annaba Dialect Effects on Teachers Speech

Annaba	Effects' Percentage	Informants
University Teachers	100%	5
High School Teachers	100%	5
Middle School Teachers	100%	5
The Effect in Annaba	100%	

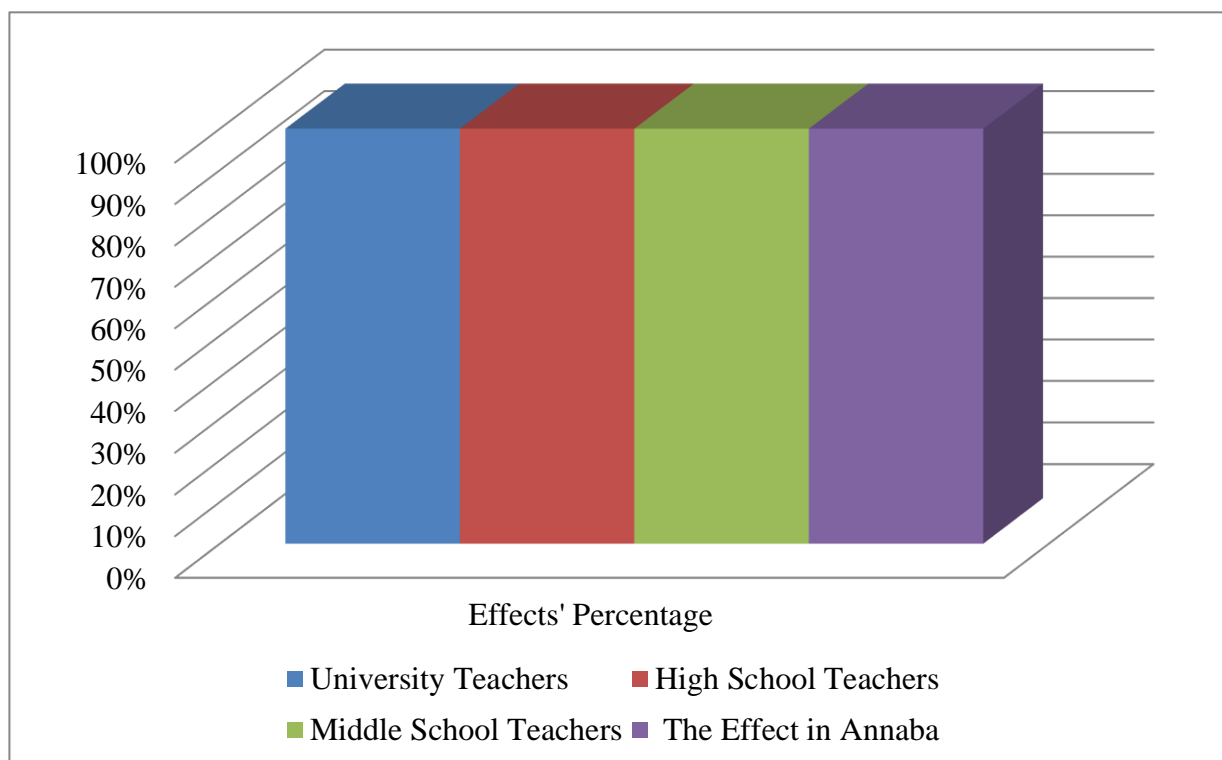


Figure 29. Annaba Dialect Effects on Teachers Speech

The analyses of the results have shown that Annaba teachers are influenced by their dialect like Constantinians. The effect of their dialect can be also detected in the three

mentioned positions, whenever a teacher tries to control his language use it can be omitted from the initial one but rarely controlled in the mid and final positions. However, the focus on the subject matter can catch teachers' attention which results in the dialect effect. As mentioned in the analysis, there are some teachers who have shown full control of the usual influenced sounds; however they lose such control whenever they focus more on the subject they are talking about. Moreover, rather than the sounds mentioned in the theoretical part of the study, some of Annaba teachers have shown the pronunciation of the sound /t/ as /tʃ/. This case is related to the neighbouring state which is 'Skikda' where people talk that way. One can say that it is because of the intermarriage between the two races. Also, some cities in Annaba were at the past's administrative division that belonged to Skikda.

1.5.3.3. Tebessa

1.5.3.3.1. The Results

a. University Level

(1) "In order to learn...sometimes...teach..that...do not..solution..the fact that..start"

/lɔ:rn t̥ t̥ ð̥ t̥ l̥ t̥ t̥/

(2) "I have studied...i will start....say that...teacher are the source...after..related to"

/t̥ st̥a:tʃ ð̥̥æ̥t̥ s̥ s̥ tʃ tʃ/

(3) "Good morning...at...approximately...until the end..at all...mother tongue..their"

/ged æ̥t̥ t̥ t̥ t̥ t̥ɔ:ŋg d/

(4) "Two years...we are not...that confident..about..that i make...that importance"

/tʃ t̥ t̥ t̥ t̥ t̥ t̥/

(5) " To talk...often deal...totally...they look..behind....its not.....without.....at"

/t̥ t̥ d̥ t̥eʊ̥æ̥l̥ɪ l̥æ̥k be̥h̥ḁɪ̥nd̥ə n̥a:t̥ t̥ t̥/

b. High School Level

(1) "That years..taught by..there is a gap ...but as a teacher...to travel..society..not"

/t̥ t̥ d̥ t̥ t̥ t̥ t̥ t̥/

(2) "When i was student.....when studying...student are not interested at all.. to talk.".

/st̥ʃju:d̥ent t̥ tʃ t̥ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ/

(3) “Tend to...always students want you to..they tend to love..not...teaching..little”
 /ts tʃ tʃ tʃ ts ts ts tsɪ:tʃɪŋ tʃ/

(4) “Starting ...most important...watching movies..not to the methodology...otherwise”
 /tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ mæədɒlədʒɪ ʌðəweɪz/

(5) “And not..Students..and not interested..deeply affected...to learn..mother tongue”
 /ts tʃ ts ts ts ts ts ts/

c. Middle School Level

(1) “Sometimes i ..clear instruction..the target..sentence structure...too much time..are not”
 /tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ/

(2) “So i ..i’m studying...at all...what i said...is not useful...sometimes..that..more than”
 /sɜv tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ æ/

(3) “Two years...that ..itself...that...to social factors..i think that..it very well..laboratories”
 /tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ/

(4) “Good afternoon...fourteen...mother tongue many times...do not..students..outside”
 /tʃ tʃ tʃæ tʃ tʃ ts tʃ/

(5) “Teacher in..the use..in a better way..the fators.sometimes..the materials..technology”
 /tʃ z tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ tʃ/

1.5.3.3.2. The Analysis

Similarly to the first presented two cases, Tebessa teachers are influenced by their dialect. However, these effects differ a little bit from the first two cases because it has not a specified position of the sound itself but what it is joined by. The glottalisation of the sound /t/ becomes /tʃ/ whenever there is a joined low front vowel sound /æ/ or the back vowel sounds. Additionally, not only this effect but also as a manner of relating the new language habit to their old ones, it results in sound mixture which lead to the random use of the sound /tʃ/ and /ts/ instead of the sound /t/ in order to sound native like or to have a correct pronunciation of English language sounds which do not exist in the phonological system of their dialect. Moreover the fact that the region has a harsh dialect pronunciation ,which is related to

historical affiliation to Berbers, has affected their use of vowels which has more the back and low front ones.

Table 63

Tebessa Dialect Effects on Teachers Speech

Tebessa	Effects' Percentage	Informants
University Teachers	100%	5
High School Teachers	100%	5
Middle School Teachers	100%	5
The Effect in Tebessa	100%	

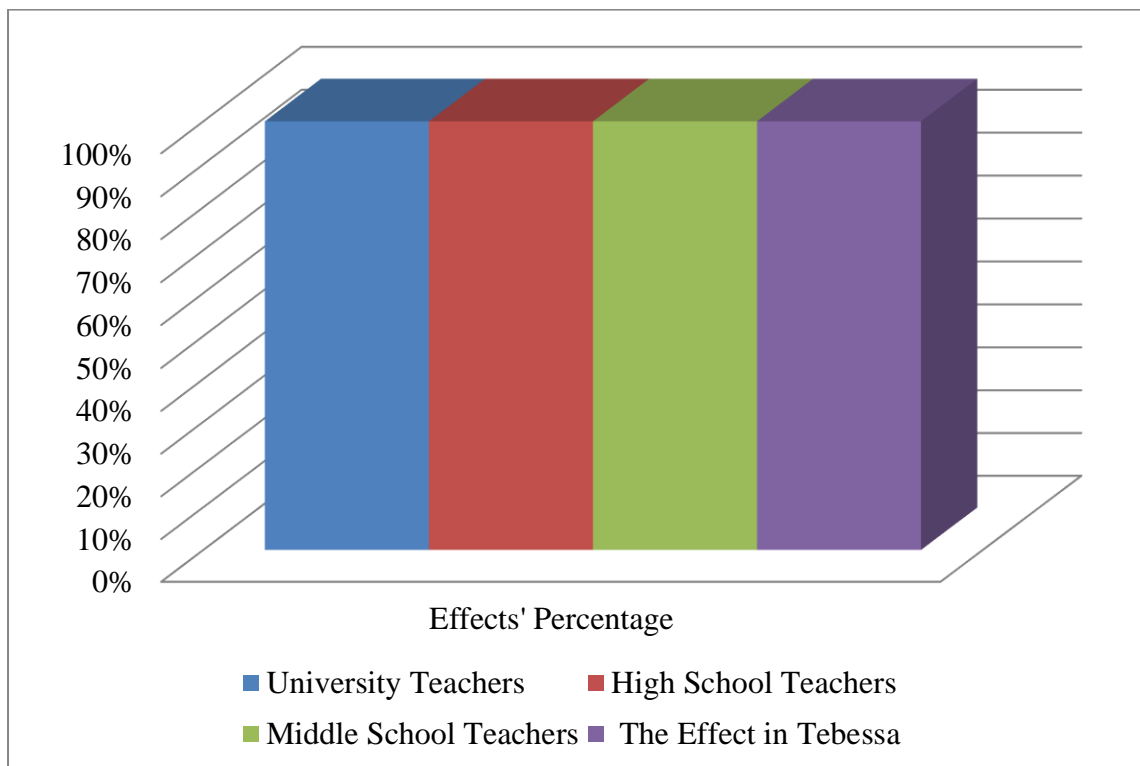


Figure 30. Tebessa Dialect Effects on Teachers Speech

1.5.3.4. Oum El Bouaghi

1.5.3.4.1. The Results

a. University Level

- (1) “I was student..pronunciation.. a lot...the problem..try to...factors..they are..that”
/tʃ prɔːnsɪeɪʃn t̪ d tʃ tʃ t̪ d t̪/
- (2) “Seven months...methodology..translating...that with practising..at...mother tongue”
/mɒns t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪/
- (3) “To meet you too...teaching..level of students..the famous...the tenses..their..not”
/ts ts ts ts ts d d t̪ d nɒ?/
- (4) “Not...difficulties that...grammatically...mother tongue....inevitable...cannot..detach”
/t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ tsɔːŋ ts ts t̪/
- (5) “Using the ..what i want to..phonetics... writing..teaching..understand..they..noticed”
/ŋg t̪ t̪ t̪ fəniːtiks ŋg ŋg t̪ d t̪/

b. High School Level

- (1) “Years old..twenty..difficulties...but now ..start...outside the..cannot pronounce it”
/l̪ t̪ l̪ t̪ t̪ ts t̪ t̪ ts/
- (2) “High school...learning.. a language...we find that..do not..towns..the use..say..better”
/l̪ l̪ ŋg l̪ ts ts ts z sɛɪ tʃ/
- (3) “ This language...between..literary..catastrophy...scientific..does not..materials..that”
/l̪ tʃ tʃ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪/
- (4) “That..active..They don’t ..to write...task...phonetics..impact..to...factors..important”
/t̪ t̪ tʃ t̪ t̪ t̪ fənæt̪k t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪/
- (5) “By the way..What...student ..at..they won’t understand..that’s it..they used..they have”
/d t̪ ts ts d t̪ t̪ t̪ d d/

c. Middle School Level

- (1) “That..importance..society...students....teachers...motivated...competency..ministry”
/t̪ t̪ t̪ stsuːdnts ts t̪ t̪ t̪/
- (2) “Twenty..that..the level..understand...opportunities..problems...French..learn..their”
/t̪ t̪ t̪ lɪvəl t̪ γ pyɒblemz γ γ γ/
- (3) “Forty..teaching..can’t..sometimes..not..don’t..society...at all..time..contains..structure”
/t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪ t̪/

(4) “Afternoon..concerning...but..imagine...example..attention at all...also...that..acting”
 /tæ ŋg ʔ ɪmæʒɪn ɪkzɪmpl tæ ʔ ɒlseʊz ʔ ʔ ŋg/

(5) “Teacher..fifty..thirty...what i...that we...tried to study..but...at all..they..attention”
 /tɪtʃerə fɪvtɪ ʔ ʔ ʔ ʔ ʔ stɜdiə bɜt ʔ d ætɪʃn/

1.5.3.4.2. The Analysis

Table 64

Oum El Bouaghi Dialect Effect on Teachers Speech

Oum El Bouaghi	Effects' Percentage	Informants
University Teachers	100%	5
High School Teachers	100%	5
Middle School Teachers	100%	5
The Effect in Oum El Bouaghi	100%	

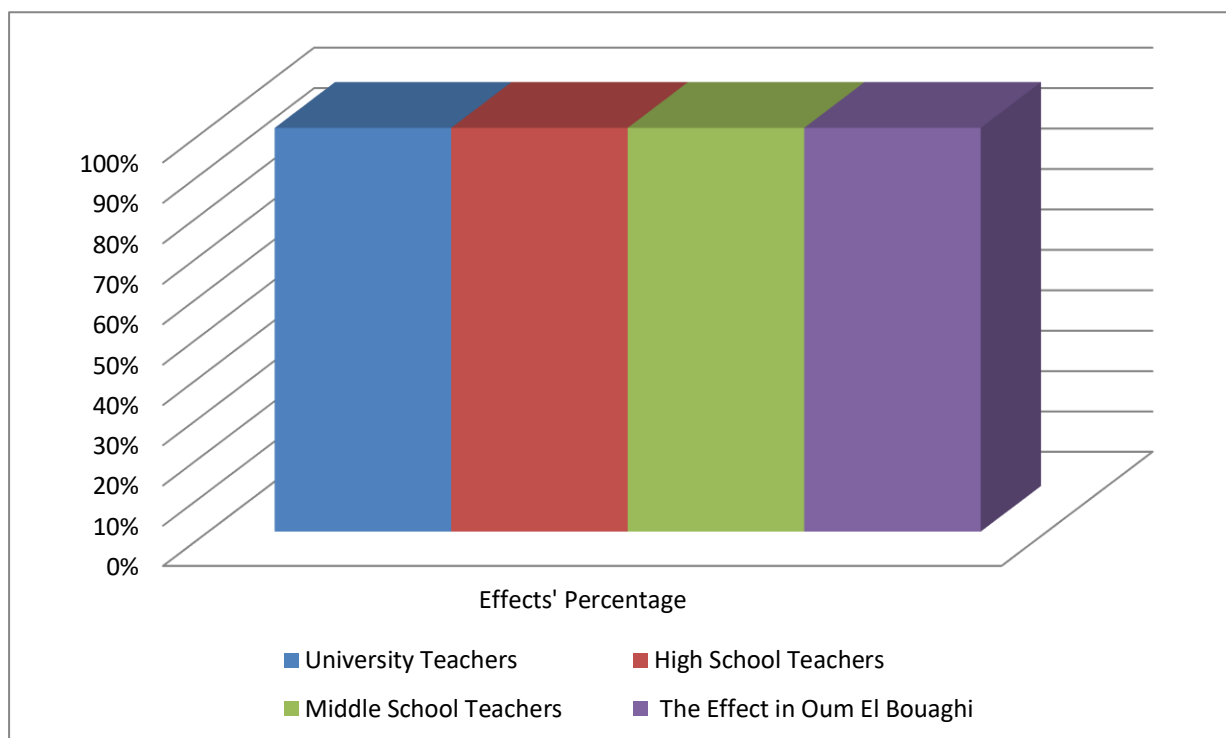


Figure 31. Oum El Bouaghi Dialect Effects on Teachers Speech

The case of Oum El Bouaghi is as much similar to Tebessa. Teachers in Oum el Bouaghi have shown more influenced parts concerning the consonants joined by back and low front vowels. The pronunciation of those consonants seems to be low and kind of dark. One

can say that those are the habits of their dialect which is a little bit harsh since it reflects their historical belonging to Amazigh. For instance, we have the sound /ɣ/ instead of /l/ whenever there is a strong, back or low front vowel. Moreover we have been faced with an ITE (Institut Technologique de L'Education) teacher whose pronunciation is mainly influenced by French, that the sound /r/ is pronounced as /ɣ/ in her use of English language. ITE teacher had no training in phonetics which led her to relate the first and second language habits to the other foreign ones. Additionally, Oum El Bouaghi teachers tend to perform the sounds from the nasal cavity much more than the oral cavity. This can be related also to their Chaoui dialect.

1.6. Discussion and Interpretation

The results gathered in both the questionnaire and the interview show that the Algerian dialects influence the English language pronunciation in a way or another. Even though teachers prepared their answers sometimes but the effect still exists. It is a language habit which one used to perform in particular situation and cannot be changed without raising awareness to the subject. Teachers actually agreed on teaching phonetics as a solution to avoid this concept and misuse of the language habits. Also they agreed on teaching English at primary schools in parallel with French. Chomsky's Language Acquisition Devise (LAD) and Lenneburg's Critical Period Hypothesis were mentioned by teachers as a perfect view on the language learning as discussed before concerning the sensitive period of learning. The audio recoded interview has shown that teachers are not influenced only by their dialect but also by French as a lingua franca in the country. They tend to use similar sounds whenever the needed sound does not exist in their language habits. This use results in a mixture of sounds in which the sound /t/ for instance, is pronounced as /t/, /ṭs/, /ṭf/, /ts/, or /tʃ/ with no exact rule. However, many teachers agreed that they cannot be aware of their pronunciation in natural circumstances which lead to the dialect print on the target language use.

Conclusion

The study carried out in this chapter has yielded many results. The phonological interlanguage in teachers' speech is not only the result of the mother tongue but to French also. Usually, informants under observation tend to perform perfectly, even though the interview is recorded, the dialects influence still exists and it cannot be controlled totally since this use itself becomes a language habit. Teachers suggested that teaching English at the primary schools with French will improve the students' level. Additionally, they totally agreed on teaching phonetics at early stages to improve the use of language and to have accurate and fluent speakers of the language.

Chapter Four

Pedagogical Solutions

Introduction

This chapter is based on the pedagogical solutions that were suggested by the researcher and gathered through the research process. It has been divided into three specialized implementations: one for the teachers, one for the educational system and the other for the learners. The researcher suggested teaching phonetics at early stages like middle and high school to improve the use of any language that is considered a foreign. Additionally and according to the educational experiment done years ago by the ministry of education in Algeria concerning the teaching of English language in primary schools, teachers had opened the file again to suggest teaching it in primary schools but in parallel with French. They supported their views with the critical period hypothesis. However, various solutions have been suggested for the sake of better learning and better results.

4.1. Implicaion for the Teacher

4.1.1. Educational Excursion to Native Countries

The conducted research with teachers suggested implementing educational excursion (field trips) to native speaking countries of the foreign language in order to have concrete use of the language. Through educational field trips most of the data may be easily clarified, understood and assimilated. It is a good deal of energy and time for both the teachers and students. Aggarwal (2009) stated that over the years, educators, philosophers like Comenius (1592-1670), Rousseau (1782-1852), Pestalozzi (1746- 1827), Herbart (1746-1841), Froebel (1782-1852), Spencer (1820-1903), and Dewey (1859- 1952) have pointed out the need for reinforcing abstract learning with concrete experiences (as cited in, Shakil, Faizi & Hafeez, 2011, p. 4). It is a progressive method of learning by which learners go through the necessary learning experiences under the guidance of the teacher. They are useful to develop the learners' complete personality like their physical, mental, social and emotional development. Educational field trips offer the opportunity to have first-self experiences and the world

exploration. It helps them interact with the learning objectives. Field trips allow for actual tactile experiences which enable learners to see it, manipulate it or participate in it physically.

4.1.2. Pedagogical Seminars each Month

While investigating the solution suggested improving the learning process of English language, teachers suggested having a pedagogical seminar with the inspector each month. Usually, teachers have a pedagogical seminar each three or four months and whenever something new is introduced to the curriculum. Consequently, teachers suggested that it would be beneficial if they have pedagogical seminars each month, a place where they can use their own language and discuss their monthly issues regarding the scope of the method with the objectives and the level of students. They have asserted that it would be beneficial for various authorities. Firstly, the teachers themselves can exchange the diverse views and techniques to use. Secondly, the inspectors can have general overview on the pedagogical scope and propose new techniques and methods in presenting the lessons and the enrichment of the objectives. Thirdly, the administration would be able to have detailed reports on the materials needed and the results of the pedagogical scope concerning the method and the students. Finally, the students would benefit from the updated method, techniques and materials. Pedagogical seminars are considered as port to achieve the successful learning.

4.1.3. Specialized Training in Phonetics for ITE Teachers

After colonialism, there were no specialized universities to graduate teachers to fulfill the need of the schools; teachers were brought from other countries. Later the country built institutes which are based on pedagogical training on the subject matter that is called 'Institut Technologique de L'Education' in which students graduated after two academic years. Teachers graduated from either universities or ENS (Ecole Normale Superieure) stated that teachers graduated from ITE lack the correct pronunciation, since they had no formation and knowledge about phonetics. Their learning was based only on imitation and grammatical

objectives. Additionally, they stated that the language pronunciation by ITE teachers is completely broken and lack the characteristics of the correct English. According to the research process, it was found that ITE teachers are much more influenced by their dialects and the French language too. Consequently, teachers suggested that a special training based on phonetics should be given to ITE teachers in order to improve their pronunciation.

4.2.Implication for the Educational System

4.2.1. Teaching Phonetics as a Module in Middle and High Schools

Phonetics is considered as the scientific study of speech sounds. It is very helpful in the improvement of the pronunciation and the adoption of new sounds. The research suggested having a new module to be taught at both middle and high schools which is phonetics. Since the aim of learning a new language is communication, written or spoken, administrative or social and all other kinds involve a good perception of the language to be used. This suggestion is mainly supported by teachers since they think what to be learned before using any language is how to pronounce firstly rather than how to communicate. The percentage of teachers who supported this idea through the questionnaire statistics is nearly 100%.

Teaching phonetics as a module would serve for better results not only for the foreign languages but even for the mother tongue or the national language used which is Arabic. The International Phonetic Alphabets (IPA) provides various symbols for all speech sounds which are phonologically distinct in any language (Trask, 1996). Since its development, various IPA versions have been adopted by teachers to be included in textbooks for teaching pronunciation, but still not sufficient since it is learned theoretically more than practically.

Nowadays, phonetics is presented in English language books at middle schools as symbols to be learned without any introduction which would result in learners' confusion, they would keep asking: what is this? How it is a sound? Is it an alphabet? What for?...etc.

They cannot even use it since there are no sessions provided at least to use this sound and to read it from dictionaries. Also, because of the English language nature in which there is no relation between the sign and the signifier, learners would be confused whenever they heard an English word from the teacher. Phonetics will help them much acquire the pronunciation of word at the time they are acquiring its meaning.

Additionally, some places may vary even in the production of sounds, for instance Oum El Bouaghi teachers showed that their production of sounds is mostly based on the nasal cavity more than the oral cavity. Thus phonetics is the solution to solve all these problems and to have a near native like pronunciation. It will help in the building of their mental abilities since learning a new language provides new perspectives and develops their meta-cognition (thinking about thinking).

4.2.2. Teaching English at Primary Schools

English language started being taught in 1993 in primary schools and was granted five hours. Its learning was done by choice, parents used to choose for their children one of the foreign languages to be learned: French or English. Thus, English changed its position from the second foreign language to the first foreign language. However, the analysis done on this topic showed that learning English percentage in 1995/96 neared 01.27% and 1.28% in 1997/1998 in contrast to French. Actually, the French language was regarded as a prestigious language in Algeria that time, because of the modernity that come with French and the high social success. Also, it was more useful and familiar concerning the Algerian cultural and linguistic setting (Benmati, 2008, p. 158-237) .Nevertheless, English was and still the language of technology and science which became nowadays an international language.

The research process investigated nowadays teachers view about the best solutions to improve the English language learning and to make future expert, knowledgeable and capable learners who are able to grasp with the use of the English language at their specialized

position, specially that English nowadays is taught at any field in the university as general English for the first year and ESP (English for Specific Purposes). Teachers went back to the previous use of English language at the primary schools and suggested teaching it in primary schools in parallel with French. They said that teaching languages at an early age before puberty is more successful and valid rather than after puberty and this is according to Chomsky 's LAD (Language Acquisition Devise) or Lenneburg's Critical Period Hypothesis.

Many linguists had stated that after puberty learners would never have the full command of the language in comparison with learners who studied the language before puberty. Penfield and Roberts (1959) said that:

A child is a specialist in learning to speak; he can learn 2-3 languages as easily as one. However, for the purpose of learning languages, the brain progressively becomes a stiff and rigid during the age span of 9-12 (as cited in, Benosmane, 2006, p. 39)

Some teachers go far by saying that English is the only one which must be taught in primary schools since French no more a scientific language, nor an international one, nor the administrative language in Algeria and it only represents 1% of the African speaking countries because of the colonialism. Moreover, teachers stated that learning a new language in that age (middle school) is difficult, because the learners are adolescents. They refuse such kind of learning where they start learning alphabets and repeat some oral discussions, since they think it is trifle and not suitable for their age. Thus teaching English at primary schools will be beneficial not only for the learners level concerning the language use but also for the development of their mental cognition.

4.2.3. Time Extension

The time allocated to learning English language is usually a three or four hours per week for all the levels. During these sessions, there is only one session devoted to TD (Travail Dirigé) work where submitted exercises based on the course are practiced. No sessions are devoted to writing or to speaking skills. The assessment is based only on grammatical manners which changed the aim of learning a language from using it into gathering grades. Students' levels differ, a class usually has five excellent, five medium and the rest are less competent students. These differences cannot grasp the same information at the same allocated time.

Consequently, teachers suggested allocating more hours to cover all the skills and to customize one hour per week as a makeup session for students who are less competent to improve their use of the language. Timing is not usually enough to cope with the data in the curriculum. Carroll (1963) asserted that the time spent in learning is based on the time needed for learning. Carroll's model on the time needed for learners to obtain a given concept depends upon five factors:

- APTITUDE - the amount of time an individual needs to learn a given task under optimal instructional conditions
- ABILITY - capacity to understand instruction
- PERSEVERANCE - the amount of time the individual is willing to engage actively in learning
- OPPORTUNITY TO LEARN - the time allowed for learning
- QUALITY OF INSTRUCTION - the degree to which instruction is presented so as not to require additional time for mastery beyond that required by the aptitude of the learner (Carroll, 1989, p. 26-31)

Thus, timing must be studied expertly according to the curriculum and the mentioned factors by Carroll.

4.2.4. Suitable Coefficient

Though English language is considered as a principle module, its coefficients do not reflect that. They are usually either two or three, in which students neglect it and do not make any effort to study it since they see it as not important. Although the teachers make a lot of efforts concerning the teaching of the program in fewer hours in comparison to French language, two tests per trimester equally to French, the coefficient are always lesser. Thus, raising the English language coefficient will be better for both teachers and pupils, since they act as a stimulus by which learners will react positively.

4.2.5. Raising Awareness to Use Only Standard Language in the Schools

Usually, outside the school, learners use their dialects, but the unusual is their use of dialects within the schools and even in the courses together or with the teacher. Actually, this kind of use act as a barrier to the correct use of the language and to gain the full command of the languages learned. Since there is no other place where learners can use the target language, teachers and parents must raise awareness to this subject and apply it in their daily courses at least. Since the use of the dialects habits will later on interfere in the languages learned and results in new language habits that the learners will use to perform.

4.2.6. Revising the Curriculum

Many teachers agreed that the books they are using nowadays are old fashioned and they do not cope with students daily life since they have not a subject that can attract them. Nowadays' learners are so much attached to the use of technologies and the social applications, so they neglect historical and ancient information. Teachers suggested that the books must be changed at least each five years and include subjects that cope with the students' daily life. Additionally, they stated that the information included does not cope with

both the level and the time allocated to. Since Algerian students are not native-like speakers (Europeans with Latin alphabets), the ministry of education must take into consideration the linguistic level of the students which may also differ according to the region lived in. Consequently, new suitable books mean competent learners.

4.2.7. Oral Examination in BAC

Usually, the assessment is based on the grammatical competencies which mean the speaking skill is neglected. In other countries, a bachelor is able to communicate in the learned foreign languages and they are even given a choice to teach in private schools. This is certainly not the case in Algeria. Most bachelor students are not able to communicate in the foreign languages because of the overloaded focus on the written skill. Thus an assessment that is based only on the written skill and neglects the oral one is said to be non-valid. Teachers in high schools suggested having an oral exam in baccalaureate (BAC) in order to confirm and to have access to the real level a student may have. Many countries including France allocate oral examination in specific modules in the BAC. This kind of examination is decided by the academic rector in each state separately from the written exams which is done in specific days nationally. This oral examination will be based on the learned foreign languages. Thus a valid assessment means a valid leaning and achieved objectives. The following figure represents background information of the oral examination in France.

ÉPREUVES ORALES DU BACCALAURÉAT SÉRIE L (B.O n°43 du 21 nov 2013)							
Série	ORAL	Quand	Durée	Niveau attendu	Modalités	Supports	Evaluation
E X P R E S S I O N	L LV1 et LV2	Epreuve de langues vivantes obligatoires [LVO]	ORAL TERMINAL Temps de préparation : 10' Durée de l'épreuve : 20' ▪ prise de parole en continu : 10' ▪ interaction : 10'	LV1 => B2 LV2 => B1	1. Choix par l'examinateur de l'une des 4 notions 2. Présentation de cette notion par le candidat 3. Conversation conduite par l'examinateur, prenant appui sur l'exposé du candidat	▪ Liste des 4 notions du programme étudiées par le candidat pendant l'année ▪ Les documents qui les ont illustrées (que le candidat apporte le jour de l'épreuve)	L'examinateur établit son évaluation à partir de la fiche d'évaluation de cette épreuve Cette fiche a le même statut qu'une copie d'examen
	L LV1 ou LV2	Epreuve de langue choisie comme enseignement de spécialité (langue vivante approfondie) [LVA]	ORAL TERMINAL A la place de l'épreuve de LVO Temps de préparation : 10' Durée de l'épreuve : 20' ▪ présentation : 10' ▪ interaction : 10'	LV1 => C1 LV2 => B2	1. Choix par l'examinateur de l'une des notions 2. Présentation du dossier et justification des choix par le candidat 3. Conversation conduite par l'examinateur, prenant appui sur l'exposé du candidat.	2 notions étudiées pendant l'année choisies par le candidat et pour lesquelles il aura constitué un dossier comportant : ▪ 2 documents étudiés en classe ▪ 1 document de son choix illustrant ou complétant cette notion	L'examinateur établit son évaluation à partir de la fiche d'évaluation de l'épreuve LVA Cette fiche a le même statut qu'une copie d'examen
	L LELE	Épreuve orale obligatoire de littérature étrangère en langue étrangère [LELE]	ORAL TERMINAL à la suite de l'épreuve de LVO ou de LVA Pas de temps de préparation. Durée de l'épreuve : 10' - présentation du dossier : 5' - interaction : 5'	Perception : ▪ des enjeux des textes présentés ▪ des spécificités de la littérature en langue étrangère étudiée Expression claire dans une gamme de langue suffisamment étendue pour pouvoir: ▪ décrire ▪ exprimer un point de vue ▪ développer une argumentation	1. Choix par l'examinateur de l'une de ces thématiques 2. Présentation par le candidat du dossier portant sur la thématique choisie par l'examinateur et justification du choix des documents. 3. Conversation conduite par l'examinateur, prenant appui sur l'exposé du candidat.	2 thématiques du programme de LELE choisies par le candidat Dossier constitué pour chacune d'elles composé de : ▪ 2 extraits d'une ou plusieurs œuvres étudiées (roman, théâtre, poésie) ▪ ET tout document pertinent pour analyser la réception de la ou des œuvre(s) (extrait de critique, adaptation, illustration iconographique, etc.)	(coefficient 1) La note est distincte de celles des autres épreuves de langues de la série L'examinateur établit son évaluation à partir de la fiche d'évaluation de cette épreuve Cette fiche a le même statut qu'une copie d'examen

Figure 32. Oral Examination Information of 2013 BAC in France (Ministère de l'Éducation Nationale Française, 2017)

4.2.8. Level Examination in the University for Foreign Language Learners

Actually, the orientation after the BAC examination is based on students' level and average not on their desire. The students who usually have at the BAC average under 12 are oriented to foreign languages even they do not like to study it but they find themselves obliged to do it since they have not any other best choice.

Consequently, those students who are actually less competent concerning the foreign languages find themselves in a non-enviable situation. Students usually think they are going to study grammar, vocabularies and some kinds of written expression, and then they find that studies are more complicated concerning linguistics, sociolinguistics, didactics and literature. Students cannot cope with both studies and the level they are expected to have. They start neglecting the language focusing only on grades and module coefficients, while others leave and re-sit for the BAC exam for other choices.

Thus, foreign language teachers at the university level suggested that a level examination must be done for students who passed the BAC examination and oriented to study in the foreign languages field to see whether they are able to cope with this subject or no. This solution will be helpful for both since teachers will not be obliged to translate and to teach grammatical matters in each module to correct students' language behaviour. Also for the students so that their decision will be clear since they will have a general overview about the field they are engaged in.

4.2.9. Reinforcement of Group Work

As a matter of fact, the Algerian curriculum is based on either teacher based or learner based, sometimes pair work but group work is usually neglected. Using a group work within the classroom will enhance the process of learning since it provides peer correction and a family like scene. Students will overcome their psychological problems concerning shyness and loneliness. It provides the opportunity for students to discuss, communicate using the language and raise their sense of competition (critical thinking skills) and changes them from passive to active learners. The focus then will be on students who will be engaged in their own learning thus it improves the learning outcomes. Also, it provides a structured learning experience which enables them to cope with the realities and diversities, working with people with different skills, cultures, approaches and from different places. Moreover, students will develop and practice skills concerning: decision making, problem solving, values clarification, communication, critical thinking, negotiation, conflict resolution, and teamwork. Vygotsky (1969) stated that *"What children can do together today, they can do alone tomorrow"* (as cited in, Adams & Hamm, 2005, p. 107). In group work, each learner will feel responsible for the group success, sharing this responsibility with the group member will teach them how to behave in the climate of team work. Interaction and motivation in the group will arise as much the number is bigger, as it can be shown in the following figure.

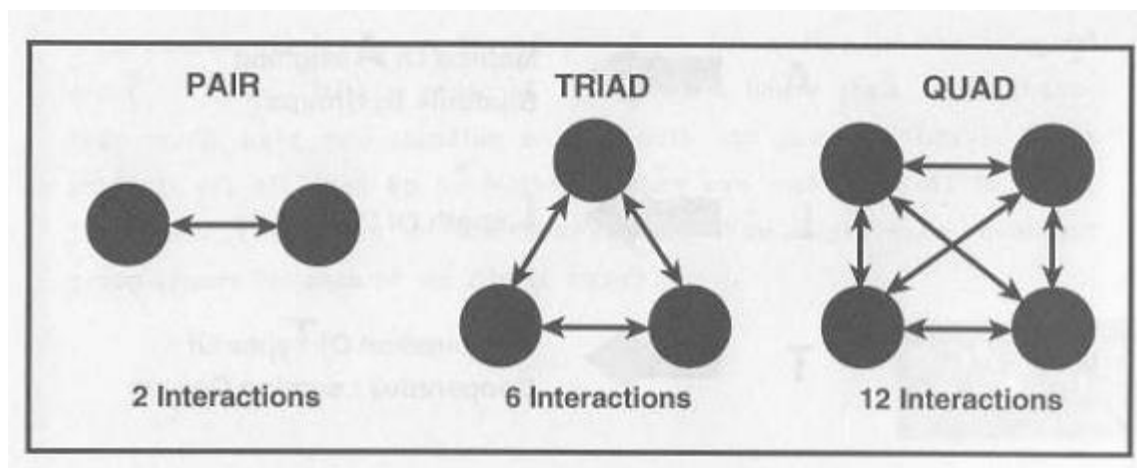


Figure 33. Interaction in the Group Work (PPDS, n.d.)

However, the group must be organized by the instructor who will act later on as guider in order to serve the learning objectives and guide students' behaviour toward the learning materials, objectives and their peers. The following table will show the best organisation results and the best for students' perception.

Table 65

Advantages and Disadvantages of Students' Organization in Group Work

	Balance and diversity	Student perception	Best suited for
Student-selected	Poor	Seems fair, but some can feel left out	Short, informal tasks
Randomly-selected	Fairly good but not guaranteed	Seems fair	Short to medium-term tasks
Instructor-selected	Very good	Can be prone to perceived instructor bias	Long-term tasks

(BCIT, 2010, p. 4)

Johnson & Johnson (1989) asserted that group work simultaneously models interdependence and provides learners with the experiences needed to understand the nature of cooperation. Their future depends on the constructive and competent management of the interdependence in family, work, community, and societal environments. Students who had opportunities to work cooperatively with students, who had various abilities, ethnicities,

gender, and so forth will be certainly able to construct positive and interdependent relationships. The following figure will represent the outcomes of cooperation.



Figure 34. Outcomes of Cooperation (Johnson & Johnson, 2002, p. 72)

4.2.10. Reinforcement of the Speaking Skill Practise in Classroom

As a matter of fact, speaking is learned unconsciously by imitating the modal provided. A good example for that are people living in the foreign countries, they start listening to the native speakers' utterances which will be saved in their mind then they start using it unconsciously to communicate with the society around. Progressively, they will reach a stage where they can speak like people around them.

However, in their native countries where the target language learned is regarded a foreign, the practice of language is done regularly at schools since the society is not supportive. O'Malley and Pierce (1996, p. 59) assert that the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Language (ACTFL) suggests that "*different kinds of speaking activities (and consequently assessment task) are appropriate at different levels of proficiency.*" (as cited in, Kouicem, 2010, p. 39). Thus learners must have a session

specialized in language use concerning discussion related to similar life situation where they can use the language spontaneously.

This kind of language practise usually provides active learners and enhances the speaking proficiency. Richards and Lockhart (1996) define it as tasks used to carry out or learn a particular item or engage the use of a given model. For instance, dialogues may be used to learn sentence patterns. Richards, Platt and Weber (1985, p289) stated that “*the use of variety of different tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative[...]*since it provides a purpose for classroom activity” (as cited in, Kouicem, 2010, p. 39). Beyond practicing the language itself, this kind of use is tend to be communicative.

Usually, the main aim of learning a foreign language is to communicate thus this kind of activities must be supported by the teacher and the curriculum. Scievenner (2005, p. 152) asserted that: “*the aim of communicative activity in class is to get learners to use the language they are learning to interact in realistic and meaningful ways*” (as cited in, Kouicem, 2010, p. 39). These activities can be classified as the following:

4.2.10.1. Communication Games

Such games are designed to encourage and involve the students' language use in a verbal interaction. Bybate (1987) asserted that such activities include:

- firstly “*Describe and Draw*” in which one student describes a given picture while the other one draws it.
- Secondly “*Describe and Arrange*”: one student describes a particular structure orally and the other reconstructs it without accessing to the original one.
- Thirdly “*Find the difference*”: similar pictures with some differences are given to two students who must extract these differences through describing it (i.e. Without looking at each other's pictures).


O'Malley and Pierce (1996) named it as "*Information Gap Activities*"; which they defined as "*The ability of one person to give information to another. An information gap is an activity where one student is provided with information that is kept from a partner.*" (as cited in, Kouicem, 2010, p. 40).


This kind of activities is usually applied in middle and high schools, the following figures 35 and 36 represent a sample of these activities.







Let's Talk







DAILY ACTIVITIES

Find your question by rolling your die twice. The 1st roll determines the number on the top. The 2nd roll determines the number on the left. **Talk for one / two minute(s) about that topic.** Your classmates will ask you follow-up questions. Your classmates can ask you anything if you land on "Ask Any Question".





1	2	3	4	5	6
					


1		Ask any question!	Describe what you usually do on weekday mornings.	Talk about a hobby that you have.	Talk about what you usually do on weekend mornings.	Do you like to go window shopping?	Talk about your school or work schedule.
2		Do you have a busy schedule?	Where do you like to go out to eat?	How do you like to relax in your free time?	Ask any question!	Talk about how you commute to school or work.	Do you have too much free time or not enough?
3		Talk about your favorite TV show.	Describe a good place to go for a walk.	Talk about what you usually do in the evenings.	What do you like to eat for breakfast?	What do you do in the first hour after you get up?	Ask any question!
4		Describe the place where you usually eat lunch.	Ask any question!	What do you do in the last hour before you go to bed?	What kind of music do you like to listen to?	Do you like to exercise? Why? / Why not?	Do you like to take a bus? Why? / Why not?
5		Do you like to take naps? Why? / Why not?	Are you usually early, on time, or late? Why?	Talk about what your family does on the weekend.	Where do you like to hang out in your free time?	Ask any question!	What do you sometimes do on weekend evenings?
6		Describe your favorite snack.	Which do you like better: mornings or afternoons?	Ask any question!	Are weekends better than weekdays?	Talk about what you like to read.	Do you like to go on-line? Why? / Why not?

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Figure 35. Communication Game Sample 01 (Pinterest, n.d.)

WHERE ARE THEY?


1



Where is the spoon?

- It is on the glass
- It is in the glass
- It is near the glass
- It is between the glasses

7



Where is the rabbit?

- It is on the table
- It is in the table
- It is next to the table
- It is under the table


12



Where is the dog?

- It is in the box
- It is behind the box
- It is next to the box
- It is under the box


2



Where is the spoon?

- It is under the glass
- It is in the glass
- It is in front of the glass
- It is behind the glasses


8



Where is Garfield?

- It is behind the box
- It is in the box
- It is opposite the box
- It is under the box


13



Where is the monkey?

- It is on the box
- It is opposite the box
- It is near the box
- It is in the box


3



Where is the spoon?

- It is under the glass
- It is in the glass
- It is in front of the glass
- It is behind the glasses

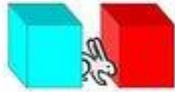
9



Where is Garfield?

- It is on the box
- It is in the box
- It is next to the box
- It is between the boxes


14



Where is the rabbit?

- It is between the boxes
- It is in the box
- It is next to the box
- It is behind the box


4



Where is the spoon?

- It is on the glass
- It is in the glass
- It is opposite the glass
- It is next to the glass


15



Where is Tweety?

- It is on the box
- It is under the box
- It is next to the box
- It is near the box


5



Where is the spoon?

- It is behind the glass
- It is in the glass
- It is under the glass
- It is near the glass

10



Where is Garfield?

- It is in front of the box
- It is behind the box
- It is near the box
- It is between the two boxes


16



Where is the monkey?

- It is opposite the box
- It is in the box
- It is under the box
- It is next to the box


6



Where is the dog?

- It is behind the kennel
- It is in the kennel
- It is on the kennel
- It is next to the kennel


11



Where is Garfield?

- It is under the box
- It is in the box
- It is next to the box
- It is between the boxes

17



Where is Garfield?

- It is in front of the box
- It is in the box
- It is near the box
- It is behind the box

GOOD LUCK!

Figure 36. Communication Game Sample 02 (Pinterest, n.d.)

4.2.10.2. Drama, Simulations and Role-Plays

These three sorts of oral activities are very essential in the improvement of the speaking proficiency. Bygate (1987) asserted that they are not presented for audiences only, the participants work together in an imaginary scene. O'Malley and Pierce (1996) stated that such activities are genuine since they offer situation similar to the real life conversation such as interruptions, recitations, facial expressions and gestures. Role-plays, drama and simulations activities offer the students the ability to engage in other identity and get rid of their shyness, their anxiety will be reduced, motivation is increased and their language acquisition will be enhanced (Kouicem, 2010, p. 39).

4.2.10.3. Discussion Activities

These activities are known as spontaneous interaction and are submitted only for advanced language learners. Lindsay and Knight (2006) asserted that in this sort of activities students are given the opportunity to talk freely about the subject chosen by the instructor. Thornbury (2005) asserted that the best discussions are those that happen spontaneously either as one learner reports personal records or since the course's book topic arises discussion (Kouicem, 2010, p. 39).

4.2.10.4. Presentations and Talks

This sort of language practise is beneficial for the speaking proficiency, self-confidence gain and the meta-cognition. Offering the students this opportunity to talk and present in front of their classmate is a concrete access to the real life situation and a successful training. Thornbury (2005) asserted that the act of standing up and talking in front of their colleagues is an excellent preparation for authentic speaking. This kind of prepared talk for the presentation on a given topic of their choice is usually more writing- like which means formal use of the language that later become a habit (Kouicem, 2010, p. 39).

4.2.11. A New Method of Teaching ‘Generalism’

According to the researcher modest experience in teaching, it is suggested to use a new method of teaching that she called ‘Generalism’, that is to use whatever, whenever to reach the ever. It will be based on achieving the objectives of leaning and to have competent learners and competent teachers. This method is not restricted by rules that govern the teacher, the lesson and the students’ level but it is open and helpful for all. This is because the method does not control the teacher by following certain steps but it allows him to use all the steps to reach the objectives and to clarify the language for learners by relating it to the real life situation. At this method teachers role is instant to which he reacts to the learners need and clarify the language use so that all the learners at the end of the session will have the knowledge they are expected to have. Learners’ role is to react to the sort of information actively where the situation is holly attention attracted, that is they react to the information given by either the instructor or the peer. An active situation where the teacher is basically source guider and the learner is the leader on the curriculum objectives. Generalism active learning results in successful situation, self confident and competent learners.

4.3.Implication for the Learners

4.3.1. Class Division according to the Level

The actual learners division in class is sometimes random or not beneficial for learners, since at each class there are a three to five competent learners which are expected to cope with the method and the lesson timing, while the others are less competent. This kind of situation learning is not supportive to all; administration, teachers, objectives and the important are the learners. Usually, competent learners become bored whenever the teacher stops at a specific data that he will keep repeating and clarifying for less competent students who the feel embarrassed to ask for clarification, thus they act as they have understood the lesson. Thus they act as they have understood the lesson but at the examination copies it will

be the contrast. Thus, teachers suggested that learners must be divided in classes according to their level in the concerned module so that the learning will be effective and there will be no confusion. This is also will be suitable for the teacher since he will know from where to start and what level he is teaching and the learners' needs. Administratively there will be better results and competent learners who will develop their mental competencies in that learning situation.

4.3.2. Psychological Care each Month

Algerian schools usually have an adviser who is usually concerned with orientation to the field of study and administrative statistical analysis concerning students study desire. The adviser relationship with student is usually obvious as an administrative guidance. Students usually have problems that can affect their studies, which is related to their society or to their schools concerning teachers or classmates. Sometimes, they do not even share it with their families which make the problem more severe. Thus, a suggested psychological care to Algerian students will enhance the society over years. Teachers said that some students come even to share their problem with their teachers, however they said that they are still inexpert to guide them correctly, even the time does not allow them to do. There is no specific time allocated for the sociological and the psychological education to guide their behaviour toward a good point. Nowadays, with the development of studies, sociologists and psychologists have developed a science of human development which arise the sense of building one's future and constructing self confidence that act toward guided steps to be followed in order to reach a specific aim. One of its famous experts is Ibrahim Elfiky who is beloved by many students. Lately, students attend various seminars based on his view about the human development. Some experts in this field in the USA has also suggested learning while sleeping by opening an audio tape that includes a language information which the brain will analyse it and learn it unconsciously. Consequently, this kind of psychological care is supported to be included

within the national curriculum since it will be beneficial concerning students psychological development and also for the learning development.

4.3.3. School Uniforms

Many teachers have talked about this dilemma. They stated that nowadays' learners are much more interested in what they are going to wear the afternoon or the next day rather than their studies. The break time becomes a fashionable presentation for their selves and styles that reflect their position in the society and also their mentality. They stated that in national or religious festivals specially, some students do not come to school because they do not have new clothes as their colleagues; they even absent for more than that day but usually for a week till their colleagues forget about that festival. Some students do not even participate or accept to be in front of the audience if they are wearing old fashioned clothes, because they fear that their colleagues will laugh at them. Consequently, teachers set this solution to get rid of this barrier in learning especially foreign languages which involves presentation and talk. Wearing the same costume at school will be helpful for learners, learning and parents too. A lot of students will act positively and actively if it is applied within the national curriculum. The following figures represent the school uniforms in some countries.



Figure 37. School Uniform in Indonesia (Vitto, 2013)



Figure 38. School Uniform in China (Vitto, 2013)



Figure 39. School Uniform in Tunisia (Vitto, 2013)



Figure 40. School Uniform in India (Vitto, 2013)



Figure 41. School Uniform in the United States (Vitto, 2013)

Conclusion

This final chapter was concerned with the educational solutions suggested to improve the pronunciation of English language as a foreign language and also to improve the learning of it in the country. Actually, those suggested solution act toward the development of the mental competencies of learners that act toward their pronunciation and enhance their self confidence. They will construct a successful educational system that serves learners, teachers and administrative needs. One of the main solutions suggested by the researcher was to teach phonetics as a module at early stages like middle and high schools in order to develop and improve the pronunciation of learners concerning foreign languages. Another solution suggested, was the teaching of English at primary schools in parallel with French, which was based on the critical period hypothesis. For the sake of improving the teachers' use of the language, it was suggested to implement educational trips to the native speaking countries in order to have authentic access of the target language. Concerning the educational solutions that serves the learners needs, it was clarified that implementing a school uniform will be beneficial for all of learners, parents, teachers, administration and the development of the achieved objectives rate including pronunciation. Finally, a modest view of the researcher was clarified concerning the method of teaching that should be used in order to develop the educational system and fulfil learners' need that she calls Generalism. The latter is based on the freedom of teaching and the instant reaction to the learners' needs, also the instant reaction of the learners on the provided knowledge that is the base of learning. Finally, it is hoped that the ministry of education and higher education will study these solutions and implement them in their systems.

General Conclusion

Algeria has been always considered as a melting pot of the civilizations' mixture. Its socio-historical profile is full of historical events that contributed toward building its sociolinguistics landscape which is considered to be very complex and diverse. This study attempted to investigate the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria and highlight its historical linguistic background and explain its richness. It focused on the dialects as a part of its linguistic setting and its effects on the pronunciation of English language at the far east of Algeria in relation to Amazigh. Finally, some solutions were suggested to get rid of its negative effects

As a matter of fact, Algeria has always been regarded as a cradle of languages and civilizations. Algeria is a multilingual country where we can find several varieties in society such as: Algerian Arabic, MSA, and Berber in addition to the French language that is considered as a lingua-franca that pervades the Algerian speech and society even after more than 50 years of independence. Those varieties are used to communicate in daily interactions which is pervaded by various phenomenon concerning code mixing and switching, borrowing..etc. This kind of language use happens at certain circumstances, however sometimes it is not controllable. Moreover, it has the mother tongue influence on the foreign language use as any other country, especially concerning pronunciation in some places where their dialects miss a sound that exists within the target language. However, French became a part of the Algerian dialects due to the long period of colonization and thus it influences any other foreign language use.

Furthermore, despite the efforts done by the Algerian teachers and government to improve the pronunciation and learning of foreign languages, the dialects negative influence still imposes itself as a part of the learned language habits, in which this effect by itself will

turn into a language habit. Consequently, this effect will act as a barrier in learning and teaching any foreign language. From this respect, it is important to understand to what extent speakers' dialects influences the foreign language pronunciation concerning sounds, stress, rhythm, intonation and sounds' articulation. For this sake, a study has been conducted in four different areas in the far east of Algeria in order to investigate the various effects of the dialects and explain the different factor leading to such phenomenon.

Additionally, considering the dialects' effects in these areas, it has been shown that teachers from the three levels are influenced by their dialects which is a habit by itself that they used to perform at a specific position when there is no equivalent sound in their dialects. They try to perform near sounds to the target one in order to sound native like, this random use results in sound mixture. The researcher suggested teaching phonetics as module in middle and high schools as a solution to the phenomenon, that was investigated according to teachers views which supported it. Also she introduced teaching using Generalism that offers the freedom to the teacher and the learner.

The results of this research work revealed that teaching phonetics at early stages as a module will be a perfect solution that yields the correct pronunciation of any language and the improvement of learning. It is beneficial since it will develop the learners' meta-cognition and the mental competencies. Moreover, various pedagogical solutions were suggested by teachers in order to develop the learning and foreign languages learning mainly. Teachers have emphasized teaching English at primary schools in addition to French, also the introduction of school uniforms besides some other solutions that will act toward the improvement of the educational system.

This research work may give the way to further investigations and researches. It ends with recommendations which are tentative plans, which means that they still need to be

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discussed by experts. However, they are supposed to give a modest contribution to the field of teaching, especially teaching English as a foreign language. Moreover, further studies on the Algerian dialects are needed in order to generate the learners' needs.

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Appendices

2. Do you think that such phenomenon is related to?

- A. Algeria only B. To other countries
C. To all

- If you choose (A), give us examples that may picture such influence?

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-
-

3. Do you think that your colleagues' dialects affect their pronunciation of English language?

- A. Yes B. No

-If yes, can you give us examples of such effects?

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4. Do you think that teachers are aware of their pronunciation when using the foreign language in natural circumstances (out of the academic environment)?

- A. Yes B. No

5. Do you think that foreign languages' teachers who are influenced by their dialects can affect the generation throughout the years?

- A. Yes B. No

6. Do you think that dialects reflect the identity?

- A. Yes B. No

7. What can you say about teachers' claim that the identity of Algerian dialects can affect the identity of the other languages and cause languages to change over time?

.....
.....
.....
.....

8. Some teachers believe that any one has the capacity to pronounce sounds correctly and it is only a matter of fashion in which people use their own style to show up their identity. Do you agree with them? Please clarify your view?

A. Yes,.....

B. No,

9. Do you think that the influence of the mother tongue on foreign language pronunciation is a matter of habit?

A. Yes B. No

10. Do you think that teaching Phonetics as a module at early stages like middle/high schools is a reliable solution to eliminate dialects' influence on foreign language pronunciation?

A. Yes B. No

11. What other solutions do you suggest?

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Thank you for your collaboration

Appendix 2

Teachers' Interview

Good morning/afternoon, this is Miss Ouanada Narimen Saida. I am a master student researcher from El Chadhli Ben Jedid University. Dear teacher/s, this interview is intended to collect data about which problems in general have you faced while teaching English concerning the language and its use, as well as students' too. You are, therefore kindly requested to answer the following questions:

1. Can you please introduce yourself mentioning your age and how long have you been teaching English?
2. According to you, what are the important problems you have faced while using English and while teaching it?
3. Moreover, what are the main problems you have noticed in students' use of the English language?
4. Do you think that these problems are due to the methodology of learning or to other factors?
5. According to you what are the valuable and reliable solutions needed to improve the learning process and ease the use of the English language?

Thank you.