

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Acknowledgments	I
Abstract.....	IV
Abbreviations	V
Introduction	1
Chapter one: Fundamental Sociolinguistic Considerations	6
1.1 Language Conflict	7
1.1.1 <i>Origins of the problem</i>	7
1.1.2 <i>Contemporary Cases</i>	8
1.1.2.1 Norway.....	9
1.1.2.2 Belgium.....	9
1.1.2.3 Canada.....	10
1.1.2.4 Algeria	11
1.2 Language Conflict in Sociolinguistic Studies	13
1.2.1 <i>Contact Linguistics</i>	14
1.2.2 <i>A Sub-area in contact linguistics</i>	15
1.2.3 <i>A Key Factor: Language Attitude</i>	16
Chapter Two: Language Planning and Language Attitude: The paradox.....	18
2.1 Language Planning.....	20
2.1.1 <i>Language Planning Ideologies</i>	21
2.1.2 <i>Language Planning Stages</i>	21
2.1.3 <i>Neglect of Language Attitude Change in Language Policies</i> ...22	
2.2 Language Attitude	23
2.2.1 <i>Previous Studies on Language Attitude</i>	23
2.2.2 <i>The Behavioural and Cognitive Approaches</i>	24
2.2.3 <i>The Three Components</i>	25
Chapter Three: Methodological Considerations.....	28
3.1 <i>Research Strategy</i>	29
3.2 <i>Data Collection: site and sample selection</i>	32
3.3 <i>The Data Collection</i>	35
3.4 <i>The Questionnaire</i>	35
3.5 <i>The Text</i>	37
3.6 <i>Framework for Data Analysis</i>	39

Chapter Four: Research Results and Discussion	41
4.1 Results..	43
4.1.1 <i>Standard Arabic</i>	43
4.1.2 <i>Algerian Arabic</i>	49
4.1.3 <i>Berber</i>	55
4.1.4 <i>French</i>	61
4.2 Discussion	67
4.2.1 <i>Attitudes towards Standard Arabic</i>	69
4.2.2 <i>Attitudes towards Algerian Arabic</i>	72
4.2.3 <i>Attitudes towards Berber</i>	74
4.2.4 <i>Attitudes towards French</i>	76
Chapter Five: Language Attitude Change According to the Variables of Gender	79
5.1 <i>Attitudes towards Standard Arabic</i>	81
5.2 <i>Attitudes towards Algerian Arabic</i>	91
5.3 <i>Attitudes towards Berber</i>	94
5.4 <i>Attitudes towards French</i>	96
General Conclusion	100
Appendices	105
<i>Appendix A: Questionnaires</i>	106
<i>Appendix B: Text in English</i>	114
<i>Appendix C: Text in Arabic</i>	115
Bibliography	116
Abstract in Arabic.....	121
Abstract in French.	122

ABSTRACT

A by-product of multilingualism, language conflict is a thorny problem that may induce tragic consequences. Solving it is a major concern in language planning and management. This dissertation attempts to present a potential solution to language conflict problems: alteration of negative language attitude by direct intervention on its cognitive component. Based on the assumption that negative language attitudes are at the core of any language conflict, it was hypothesised that exposure to rational literature favourable to language diversity would lead to a change of language attitude by making it less negative.

A quasi-experiment was designed to test that hypothesis in a multilingual setting province in the west of Algeria. The results revealed that the change of negative attitude was possible through that procedure. These findings can encourage giving more consideration to *change of language attitudes* as a feasible means in the management of language conflicts and the prevention of their tragic consequences.

Language conflict is one of the most salient characteristics of multilingualism in the world. The speech communities' negative attitudes and stereotypes regarding other languages and varieties are fundamental factors in language conflicts. Although many researchers have focused on investigating the problem of language attitude, there is a lack of emphasis on the topic of *language attitude change* and its beneficial impact in easing such conflicts. The present research attempts to address such a topic as a contribution in the language management studies and also as an attempt to investigate this topic to find any possibility of changing negative language attitude through challenging the cognitive component of language attitude by exposing it to some input which is favourable to language diversity.

ABBREVIATIONS

- AA:** Algerian Arabic
B: Berber
F: French
SA: Standard Arabic
LA : language attitude

General Introduction

Language conflict is a by-product of language contact in multilingual settings, as observed by Nelde (1998). These conflicts can range from a given speech community's contempt for another speech community and its language to even violence and murder. From Belgium and Norway in Europe to India and Bangladesh in Asia, the world abound with cases in point of such sociolinguistic situations.

The world's 195 sovereign countries include about 6500 languages. With official status granted to just a few of them , most of these languages , if not endangered by loss or death, are in a state of conflict in some way or another ('Languages of the world,'1996).

Accordingly, language conflict has received special attention by many researchers in contact linguistics and language planning realms. There is an abundant literature on this subject because of its implications on the people's social lives in the concerned countries. Language conflict has also been one of the most pressing problems for language planning and language policies all over the world. This is due to its potential to induce dramatic consequences, violence and instability in many societies.

Negative language attitudes are at the core of any language conflict . Protagonist speech communities' negative attitudes and stereotypes towards other languages and varieties are fundamental factors in any language conflict.

Like many experts in contact linguistics and language planning , Fishman (1972) recognised and stressed the determining effect of attitudes, not only in inciting language conflicts but also in devising solutions to them .

Recognition of the crucial role of language attitude (LA henceforth) in language conflict and language planning can also be inferred from the wealth of research on this topic worldwide, including Algeria. However, in spite of the various researches on the theme of language attitude, there is almost an entire absence of emphasis on the potential positive impact that the deliberate change of negative language attitudes can have on language conflict. In his review of literature, Baker (1995) observed this “deficiency” in the studies on language attitudes. There is also a shortage of research on how to change negative language attitudes. To my present knowledge, no research in Algeria has investigated about this issue.

This is a paradox. LA is recognised as crucial in maintaining language conflict, but utilisation of this knowledge to ease such conflicts seems to be overlooked in language management empirical research. It may also appear strange because the outcomes of such researches can have a say in solving language conflict troubles. Moreover, changing negative LA may optimise any other solutions designed to resolve language conflict. Baker (1995) asserts that this type of studies is a prerequisite for any successful language policy.

Being a multilingual country, Algeria has known a state of language conflict between its four main languages: Standard Arabic, Algerian Arabic, Berber and French (SA, AA, B and F henceforth). This conflict is apparent in the negative attitudes associated with these languages . F is seen as the language of the former

colonial oppressor by some Algerians. On the other hand, AA and B cannot be considered as languages by some other Algerians. SA is viewed as unfit for modernity and technological progress by some others.

Yet, a general review on the research done on language attitudes in Algeria reveals the same paradox: a wealth of research on the topic but a lack of emphasis on how can we change these attitudes lying at the core of any language conflict.

The above observation was a major motive in the present research which was guided by the following research aims:

- evaluating to what extent can we deliberately decrease negative language attitudes and enhance positive ones.
- assessing to what extent can the treatment of the cognitive component lead to LA change.
- investigating the impact of exposure to ideas favourable to language diversity on LA.

The hypothesis was that exposure to a rational written discourse favourable to language diversity would lead to a change in LA in the experimental group.

To test that hypothesis a quasi-experiment was designed. The setting of the study was a wilaya (a province) in the west of Algeria, called Tiaret, a multilingual location where the four languages mentioned above have coexisted for a long time.

The main finding was that negative LA can be changed by deliberate intervention on the attitude cognitive component: thoughts and beliefs about languages. However, this change was not a radical one. The negative attitude did not change completely.

These limited results made us realise why this issue has been seemingly overlooked in language planning. Indeed, LA is a very complex construct which is influenced by many factors, not only the cognitive one. Its change is possible but is not an easy task.

This thesis is divided into five chapters and a general conclusion. The first and second chapters will examine the three interrelated constructs of this study: language conflict, LA and language planning and management. This is done to clarify the context of this study and the relationship that exist between these concepts.

The third, the fourth and the fifth chapters are devoted to the empirical part. The third chapter addresses the methodological aspects and the rationale behind the choice of the research method and strategy.

While the fourth chapter presents and discusses the results of this research, the fifth one focuses on the findings as related to the variables of gender. A general conclusion summarising the main points is provided at the end of this study.

Chapter One:

Fundamental Sociolinguistic Considerations of Language Conflict

Easing language conflict problems is a critical challenge for language management and language planning. This research investigates a potential solution: altering the current negative mental representations about the languages in conflict. We need, first, to agree on what is meant by language conflict, language contact, and language planning and language attitude. These constructs are closely interrelated and constitute the specific sociolinguistic context of this study.

1.1 Language conflict

Language conflict is a state of opposition between two or more social groups within a multilingual setting, as stated by Nelde (1998) who wasn't the only one to notice the multilingual nature of linguistic struggles. Calvet (1999) also acknowledged that multilingualism is a prerequisite for language conflict.

Multilingualism involves not only distinctive languages but also varieties and dialects. In New York, for example, the different English varieties "may be regarded as a sink of negative prestige," as reported by Labov (1969:136). Therefore, the construct of language conflict is not limited to languages but can also encompass dialects.

1.1.1 Origins of the problem

Throughout history, linguistic hostility has been so widespread among speech communities to the point that Nelde stated that "there can be no language contact without language conflict." (1998:201). considering the many instances that confirm it, this 'Nelde's Law' cannot be easily refuted. For example , we can notice a resemblance between the current conflicting speech communities and the

ancient Greeks' tendency of 'contempt' for linguistic differences (Calvet 1999: p.64). Anyone who didn't speak Greek was seen as a 'barbaroi' i.e. a member of an uncivilised people. Both the term and the concept ' barbarus' was borrowed into Latin by the Romans with their large empire, fostering the same negative attitude towards the various other speech communities' languages.

Another instance is the Europe of the Middle Ages under the Judeo-Christian cultural influence. Multilingualism was a punishment for human beings who used to be monolingual according to the biblical myth of the Babel tower (Calvet, 1999). Condemning the Ephraims to death because of their different pronunciation of the Hebrew word 'shibboleth' is another instance of language role in conflicts reported in the Bible. Even the expansion of a language such as French was due to the Crusades and their occupation of England in 1066. The main linguistic concern of the French state from the 16th to the 19th century was to grant supremacy of French over all the other languages (Calvet, 1999).

For the English language, suffice it to mention the 'English Only Movement' in America. All the other languages were banned from the official sphere. In 1919, President Theodore Roosevelt wrote:"We have room for but one language in this country and that is the English language." ('English Only Movement'', 2010).

1.1.2 Contemporary cases

The following instances are by no means exhaustive, but they are some of the well known in the world.

1.1.2.1 Norway

Explicit linguistic choices are more apparent in the Norway case in its attempt to remedy language conflict extensively studied by Haugen (1966).

Haugen, who coined the term ‘language planning’, mentioned the conflict between the two Norwegian varieties: Bokmal and Landmal. The former associated with the high Norwegian elite and the latter spoken by the rural people. Haugen (1966) clearly showed how the choice of each variety depended on the political authorities. From 1914 to 1938, the influential Communist party emphasised the use of Landmal as both a means of national unity and a symbol of the proletariat class struggle since Landmal was very close to rural varieties. The German occupation abolished that in 1941 and installed Bokmal. After the end of World War II, Landmal was recognised again and the language conflict had to go on ever since despite the many efforts to manage it. Haugen (1966) described the outcome of the Norwegian language conflict and the language policies to remedy it as ‘schizoglossia’ which is a type of internal personality split in many speakers because of the linguistic uncertainties they encounter. That concept is totally different from Ferguson’s diglossia with its high and low varieties.

1.1.2.2 The Belgian case

Belgium also represents a clear example of current language conflicts in the world. Belgium is a multiethnic and multilingual country (French, Flemish, Brabantish, Limburgish, Walloon, Picard, and Lorraine). Because of specific

historical conjunctures, the conflict exists between French and Dutch, called Flemish in French texts.

From the Napoleon wars, French enjoyed higher power and prestige than Dutch. Later on, Dutch knew some glory days under the reign of the Dutch king who imposed it on whole Belgium and the other parts of his Netherlands Kingdom. French regained its power and prestige with Belgium independence in 1830. French monopoly in the official and social spheres was seen by the Belgian elite as a national unitary factor. This situation, however, didn't suit the Flemish who militated and got the right to use their language in primary schools in 1883. The Flemish language replaced French in Ghent University in 1894. As a solution to this linguistic conflict that went on during the 20th century, Karra (2007) mentioned the government chose to divide the country into three 'language frontiers':

- 1- a French part in the South
- 2- a Flemish part in the North
- 3- a bilingual part in Brussels .

1.1.2.3 The Canadian case

Canada was originally a French speaking country under the French crown. It had, however, known a growing English speaking community under the English crown after the Indian Wars in 1760 to the point of outnumbering the French speakers in the subsequent years. With the need to choosing a national language for

the new Canadian Confederation in 1867, the language conflict between the two communities started, tearing the country between the French speaking Québécois and the English speaking group in the other part of the country. The Charter of the French Language of 1977 represents an aspect of the ‘official bilingualism’ solution that Canada adopted to solve the language conflict so pervasive in its modern history (Noel, 2010).

In the ‘Third World’, on the other hand, Calvet (1974) argued that language conflict cannot be attributed to multilingualism alone but also to the post-colonial sociolinguistic heritage raised many instances of language conflict. This observation seems to be very pertinent. Most of linguistic troubles in Third World countries incorporate the former colonial language in them.

1.1.2.4 The Algerian case

Being a multilingual country and a former French colony, Algeria cannot be an exception to the havocs of language conflict spread all over the world.

In fact, the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria is characterised by the existence of four main languages: SA, AA, B and F. AA and B have many varieties. Sociolinguistic phenomena such as code switching, code mixing and borrowing are also omnipresent because of the long contact between these languages.

This view is shared by most of the scholars who studied the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria, including two Algerian prominent specialists on the matter: Bouamrane (1986) and Taleb Ibrahim (1995). Although some researchers claim

that the number of languages in Algeria exceeds twenty (Boukli, 2006), all the researchers agree that the above four languages are the main ones in Algeria. They also recognise the existence of a state of language conflict in Algeria.

This conflict is clearly manifested in the negative attitudes expressed towards each of these languages. F, for example, is considered by some as the language of the former French colonizer who made all efforts to clear out any signs of a typical Algerian identity. In this context, SA was chosen as the unique official and national language for Algeria after its independence in 1962. Nevertheless, the radical policy with which Arabisation was applied gave rise to many social tensions. Denying the existence of a B language and culture as an integral part of the Algerian identity gave rise to some tragic events in 2001.

On the other hand, AA has little prestige and is viewed as not being a language. This phenomenon can be explained by the diglossic situation in Algeria. Calvet(1999) observed that the language conflict in Algeria, as well as in the Maghrib, is marked by diglossia and is aggravated by the post-effects of the Arabisation policy that denied the existence of any other language as part of the Algerian identity .

In spite of its high prestige , some researchers have also found that SA was viewed as unfit to technology and modernity in comparison to French language (Boukli, 2006). Accordingly, many Algerian sociolinguists warned against the dangers of language conflicts that might arise out of the radical language policies undertaken in the 1970's. Benrabah (2001), for instance, affirmed that not only have the language policy practices failed to solve the Algerian language conflict problems, but they have also led to tragic social consequences.

Elimam (1997) qualified these language policies as a 'glottocide' i.e. the killing of languages. He called for the instauration of the AA variety as an official language to solve the linguistic dilemma in Algeria. Moreover, Boukli (2006:3) predicted catastrophic language conflict consequences if such a policy doesn't change.

In a broad management viewpoint to solve the language problem in Algeria, Bouhadiba (2004) suggested a democratic consensus between the government and its people to settle the question of "what languages for which purposes" (as cited in Dakhli, 2004).

What we can notice in most studies such as the above ones is the total absence and sometimes the lack of emphasis on how the systematic change of the negative attitudes towards the languages in conflict, both in the minds of the language planners and the protagonist speech communities, can neutralize or at least minimize the linguistic problems of multilingualism and language contact. The present research is an attempt to investigate this aspect of the issue.

1.2. Language conflict in sociolinguistic studies

The magnitude of the language conflict problem requires us to ask another question: where does this trend stem from? We already saw that language conflict is a by-product of language contact in multilingual settings. Therefore, is it something intrinsic in languages that cause such conflicts or are the reasons completely different from that?

To answer, let us first see how language conflict studies have become a major theme in the discipline of linguistics.

1.2.1 Contact linguistics

Contact linguistics concerns itself with studying the interaction and outcomes of languages and varieties in contact within multilingual settings. Uriel Weinreich is considered the founder of this linguistic discipline. In his foundational book *Languages in Contact: Findings and Problems* (1953), he established the bases for the studies of many areas in this field. Some of them are: borrowing, interference, language mixing, code switching, language shift, and language maintenance and language loss. Although he included in his analyses extra linguistic factors such as the psychological and social ones, these latter were more emphasised by subsequent sociolinguists such as Fishman and Haugen (Nelde, 1998).

This important development in linguistic studies was aided by the context of the various scientific advancements in other human sciences such as sociology and psychology. Besides the Boas's and Sapir's findings culminated in Dell Hymes's refutation of the existence of exclusively 'homogenous speech community' linguistic rules as proclaimed by Chomsky (1965:4). Hymes (1971:278) asserted that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar will be useless."

Disconnecting language from its natural social context could no longer resist the empirical evidence that proved the keen relationship between language and its social environment. Labov's influential work (1972) is a substantiation of that.

Another influential study that helped expanding linguistic research beyond the abstract Chomskyan confinement was the concept of Diglossia introduced by Ferguson and expanded by Fishman and Kloss (Trask, 1999).

With this new trend in linguistics, more and more studies interested in the sociolinguistic aspects of language grew. Consequently, the difficulties of many variety speakers and the deprived city inhabitants in language conflict areas were put into focus.

In fact, the very interdisciplinary nature of language contact studies facilitated taking advantage from the advancements and discoveries in other linguistic and human sciences areas.

Language contact encompasses the study of language, language user and the language spheres. It studies language internally and externally. Internally, it studies phonology, syntax, lexicon and pragmatics,...etc. Externally, it studies the multilingualism aspects of language community and language boundaries, language loyalty, prestige and attitudes.

1.2.2 A Sub-area in contact linguistics

An essential sub-area of contact linguistics is language conflict. In fact, Nelde's observation (1998) that conflicts are always between speech communities, rather than between languages per se, is very relevant. Obviously, a language syntax and lexis are unable to hate or despise another language syntax and lexis. He also considers that conflicts have a deep structure and a surface structure. The deep one is made up of social and economic factors while the surface structure is made up of linguistic features. This view might be a modelling upon Karl Marx's theory which

claimed that material infrastructures (e.g. production tools ownership) determines superstructures (e.g. values and beliefs), or a modelling upon Chomsky's theory of deep and surface structures of language. This idea of deep and surface structures of language conflict seems useful because it enables grasping the multidimensional nature of the problem. The main focus of this study is language attitude which constitutes part of the language conflict deep structure.

1.2.3 A Key factor: language attitudes

Language conflict social factors consist of fears, interests, and divergent values that make ethnic groups oppose each other. They do so because of their belief that only one value must be valid. Extrapolated to the linguistic domain, each group believes that only their linguistic forms are valid; other forms have less or no value. This type of beliefs orients the attitude towards languages as either positive or negative. Negative language attitudes, in their turn, fuel language conflicts. It was this dynamic role of LA in linguistic struggles that made Nelde (1998:14) affirms that:

Language conflict arises from the confrontation of differing standards, values, and attitude structures.

Also, when a dominant language group (for example, French in Belgium and English in Canada) exerts control in the economic and political domains, it leads to compelling the dominated group to either assimilate or give up social ambitions. However, many language groups choose the alternative of political resistance, giving rise to overt language conflicts. These latter can go from threats and sanctions to blatant violence. We can conclude from all this that LA constitutes part and parcel of the deep structure of language conflict.

This chapter tried to assess the value of language attitudes in language conflict and language contact studies. In fact, these studies recognise the important role of LA, but they don't consider it as the sole reason of sociolinguistic conflicts. The next chapter will examine language planning policies and ideologies so as to assess the value that these studies assign to language attitudes.

Chapter Two:

Language Planning and Language Attitudes: The Paradox

The term language planning in this dissertation also covers what is known as language management. We believe that language management is a new paradigm in language planning and not a totally new discipline in sociolinguistics. At least two reasons can support this assumption. A click on Google will reveal that most subject matters in language management are identical to the ones in language planning, though the approaches are different. Besides, a different approach in treating an issue does not necessarily justify labelling it as a new scientific discipline. We fully acknowledge, however, that language management is more sensitive to the needs and opinions of the people it serves than the rigid top-down traditional language policies. Moreover, it can be asserted that the limitations of the traditional language policies led to the emergence of the language management approach which is more in symbiosis with the democratic trend of the actual globalisation era.

Accordingly, language conflict problems have always represented a major concern in language planning. This interest was sometimes a reaction to periods of turmoil caused by language conflicts; on other times, it was an attempt to deal proactively with these troubles before they occurred. Moreover, language planning itself, when inadequate or not based on rational principles can exacerbate the state of language conflict. The failure of many language policies in many parts of the world can confirm this view. One of these rational principles is taking language attitudes into consideration throughout the language planning stages.

Before going further, however, we need to agree on what is meant by language planning.

2.1 Language Planning

The term was coined by Einar Haugen in 1959 during his study of the Norwegian effort to promote a 'national' language in a context of a conflict between the linguistic norms of two Norwegian varieties: Bokmal and Landsmal (Haugen, 1966). It has evolved from focusing on internal language aspects and norms (orthography, grammar and lexicon) and ways of their standardization through modernisation and graphisation to seeing language as a social source within a management paradigm during the 80's with the contribution of such sociolinguists such as J.V. Neustupný and B.H. Jernudd (Daoust,1998).

Fishman (1980) saw language planning as the " the authoritative allocation of resources to language" in the same way resources are allocated to vital economic sectors such as agriculture and industry. All the management approaches to language planning share this view of language as an important resource that can make the difference in the daily lives of individuals and groups. Educational and social economic promotion of an individual, for example, is conditioned by his mastery of a given linguistic code in many countries all over the world.

On the other hand, language planning implies conscious and deliberate choices to affect change both in language and language use, argues Daoust (1998). That is why we cannot consider the individual choice of languages and their use as an instance of language planning because that individual choice is a part of the unconscious sociolinguistic competence of any speaker . Therefore, that absence of deliberate choice can prevent us from considering the wide spread of Latin during the Roman Empire as an instance of language planning.

However, annihilating the French ‘patois’ and decreeing Standard French as the sole language of law and education by the revolutionary eighteenth-century France is one of the first language planning policies in modern times . Another instance is the Russification policy in the former Soviet Union (Daoust, 1998). In fact, these two examples embody one of the main ideologies behind the linguistic policies of the language policy makers: assimilation.

2.1.1 Language planning ideologies

Usually, the language policy makers are the governments, despite the fact that political pressure groups and even individuals can sometimes contribute to that.

An opposite ideology to assimilation is linguistic pluralism. Canada and Belgium are two examples of that .They have more than one official language. Such a policy is considered as a more democratic alternative in dealing with the language problems of multilingualism .This latter, by the way, is the rule rather than the exception all over the world.

The importance of the non-linguistic factors obliges any language policy to deal with the sociolinguistic aspect (status) along with the purely linguistic one (corpus).

2.1.2 Language planning stages

Daoust (1998:306) considers that an ideal first stage in a language planning endeavour is the identification of the problem and the ‘fact-finding’. Except in some rare cases, such as in Quebec, this stage is either overlooked or even ignored totally,

causing more subsequent language problems. Other stages are the ‘implementation’ as well as the ‘evaluation’ of the language policy outcomes in order to be able to treat any negative effect.

These stages overlap with Haugen’s (1966:18) language planning principles, namely: ‘selection of norm, codification, elaboration of function and acceptability’.

2.1.3 Neglect of language attitudes change in language policies

Coming back to the question of language planning and LA, we can notice that this latter is hardly ever considered in the fact finding, implementation or evaluation stages. Throughout his thorough review of literature on language planning, Daoust (1998) didn’t mention a single instance where the issue of LA change was seriously taken into consideration in language policies carried out worldwide. He concluded, however, by highlighting the paramount role language attitudes have, not only in setting the language planning policies, but also in determining their potential success or failure (1998:134).

Language reforms rely on attitudes about language...Change in linguistic behaviour and attitude is what language planning is all about.

These facts may confirm the paradox mentioned in this chapter’s title. LA is recognised as crucial in language planning and management, but both finding strategies to change negative language attitudes and using that to ease language conflict tensions seem to be generally overlooked.

In his review on attitudes and languages, Baker (1995:2) also noticed this absence of taking LA change into consideration when making language plans. He labelled that a 'deficiency' in such studies. This seems an inconsistency because most sociolinguists can only agree on the importance of language attitudes in any successful language policy as affirmed by Baker (1995).

Another question that may seem relevant here is what is meant by LA?

2.2 LA

Out of the many definitions of this construct, we chose David Crystal's. Crystal (1992) defines LA as "the feelings people have about their own language or the languages of others."

2.2.1 Previous studies on LA

Lambert's study (1960) on the Canadian speech communities attitudes towards English and French is a pioneering work in this field. In spite of Baker's criticism, we have to acknowledge that Lambert (1960) set the foundations of research on this topic. He also devised an innovative technique of research called 'the matched guise'. With this latter, the researcher can be able to elicit the informants' attitudes towards languages and their speakers by listening to the same person speaking different languages or varieties without the informants being aware of that.

The same technique was also used in many settings, as in Chicago to elicit the attitudes toward Spanish and Mexican English (Fasold, 1984). In the United

Kingdom, Bourhis and Giles (1976) examined the attitude towards the RP accent spoken in radio announcements.

On the other hand, a study on the factors that can affect LA was carried out by Bouchard, Giles and Sebastian (1982). They considered standardisation and vitality as very critical factors. Standardisation fosters a positive attitude towards a given language by increasing its prestige as an official language. Vitality of a language, i.e. having many functions and numerous speakers, also ensures a more favourable attitude. Yet, although we can't refute that standardisation and functions can orient LA towards being positive, the speakers' number criteria seems to be problematic. For example, Spanish outnumbers English, but English outclasses Spanish.

In Algeria, the issue of attitudes towards languages has been investigated by many researchers such as Bouamrane (1986) and Taleb-Ibrahimi (1995). However, as noticed by Benali-Mohamed (2007), few studies were undertaken on this subject in comparison with other areas of sociolinguistics. In addition, the issue of changing negative language attitudes by deliberate interventions has received very little attention by these studies.

2.2.2 The behavioural and the cognitive approaches

Two approaches have marked attitude studies: the behavioural approach and the cognitive approach.

The behaviourist approach focuses on external behaviour as an indicator of attitude (Bain 1928). A person with a positive attitude to German, for example, will be willing to accept its use in media and education. The opposite is also true.

The cognitive approach: focuses rather on the thoughts and beliefs that form and sustain such attitude. A person with a positive attitude towards French will likely have thoughts and firm beliefs that French is important in some way or another.

It is obvious that assuming attitudes to be just a behaviour will limit the study scope of such a complex construct as attitude and prevents any analysis of the correlation between attitude as an independent variable and behaviour. Furthermore, research in this field has moved from behavioural models of analysis in the early sixties to more cognitive ones later on.

Therefore this study will use the mentalist approach as did many sociolinguists recently (Garrett et al. 2003). The mentalist approach assumes that attitudes are mental states that can be elicited and inferred from the subject's introspection (Fontana, 1985).

2.2.3 The three components of LA

LA is made up of three components: a 'cognitive', an 'affective' and a 'readiness for action' or behavioural components (Baker, 1995:12).

1-The cognitive component (fig.1) comprises thoughts and beliefs. A favourable attitude towards English implies a firm belief of the importance of this language

2. The affective component manifests in feelings such as hate or love for a given language.

The logo for Clicours.COM, featuring the text "Clicours.COM" in a white, sans-serif font on a blue rectangular background.

3. The action component is the behaviour towards that language. For example, a father with a favourable attitude to French would likely accept to send his son to study it in a private school if he can afford that .

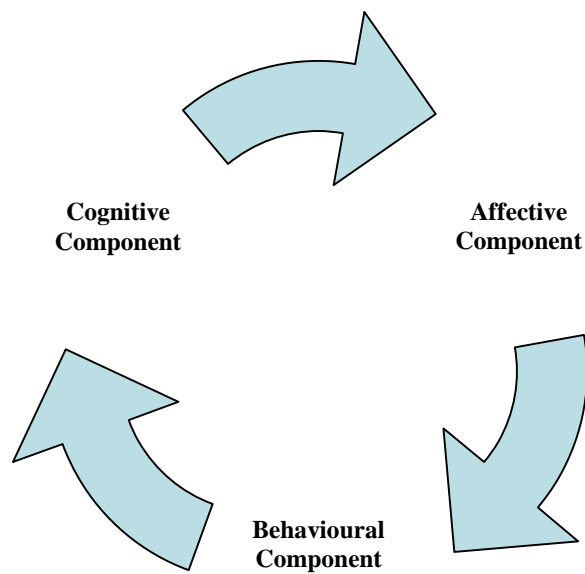


Figure 1. The Three Components of LA.

Adapted from *Attitude and Languages* (Baker, 1995)

The three components are interrelated and any intervention on one of them will affect the others. The cognitive component is considered the key ingredient in the process of attitude change.

How to change negative language attitudes is the main aim for this study. This chapter tried to justify the need for such research by examining the concept of language planning. We noticed that LA is recognised as important, but its change as a tool for solving language problems is overlooked.

Nevertheless, a research on how to change negative language attitudes is a daunting task that cannot be undertaken in one magistere dissertation. Therefore, we chose to tackle the problem from a specific and limited angle: can we change language attitudes by exposing people to discourse favourable to language diversity?

This is the main guiding research question of this dissertation. Next chapter will examine the methodology that was used to answer that question, the obtained results and their discussion.

Chapter Three:
Methodological Considerations

Acknowledging the importance of LA in language conflict and the scarceness of studies on changing LA is a paradox that was the main concern for this research which aimed at:

- Investigating the impact of exposure to ideas supporting language diversity on LA.
- Assessing to what extent the treatment of the cognitive component can lead to LA.
- Evaluating to what extent we can decrease negative language attitudes and enhance positive ones.

3.1 Research strategy

After examining many research strategies, such as case studies, surveys, action research, ethnography ...etc, it was found that the experimental design was the most suitable research type to answer the above research questions.

The experimental design has some parameters which are absent in the other strategies. For example, the comparison between a control group with an independent variable receiving no treatment and an experimental group whose independent variable is treated can enable us to test the hypothesis of this research more accurately and with more confidence than the other strategies. In all the other strategies, the existence of a control group to test the hypothesis is not a must.

Geoffrey et al (2005:123) classified research designs into three categories: “experimental, quasi-experimental, and non-experimental”.

The experimental research has a variety of designs, but the common denominator that distinguishes an experimental research from a non-experimental one is the use of multiple groups’ measurement (Trochim, 2001). In its simplest form this means measuring the results of the experimental group and comparing it with control group results.

In the experimental group, there is usually an independent variable and a dependant variable .The independent variable is the one which is manipulated by the researcher, and the dependent variable is the one affected by that treatment (Rosenthal and Rosnow, 1991).This is done in order to explore the causality relationship that can exist between the two variables.

In the present research, the independent variable was the cognitive component of the LA. It was treated by exposing it to an input supporting language diversity. The dependent variable was the language attitude towards the four languages mentioned above.

The pre-test /post-test with a control group design was adopted in this research because of its common use and strength in limiting threats to internal validity, as observed by Campbell & Stanley (1963) .

Thus, the participants in this research were divided into two groups: the control group and the experimental one. Each group comprised 104

participants. After that, the language attitudes towards the four languages were elicited from the control group, using a questionnaire (Appendix A).

Next, the language attitudes were elicited from the experimental group using the same questionnaire. This can be considered as the pre-test phase. Then, a written text containing ideas supporting language diversity (Appendix B) was given to the experimental group and not given to the control group. This was done as a treatment procedure to the cognitive component of language attitude.

After that, the language attitudes towards the four languages were measured in the experimental group using the same questionnaire. This was done as the post-test phase of the experiment.

Because of many limitations and obstacles such as time, the researcher couldn't use the random assignment sampling technique to the control and experimental groups. Convenient sampling was used instead (i.e. using participants who could be reached easily instead of being chosen at random). Geoffrey et al (2005:123) noticed that random assignment can be relatively easy in laboratory environment, but 'it is often not feasible in real-world environments'.

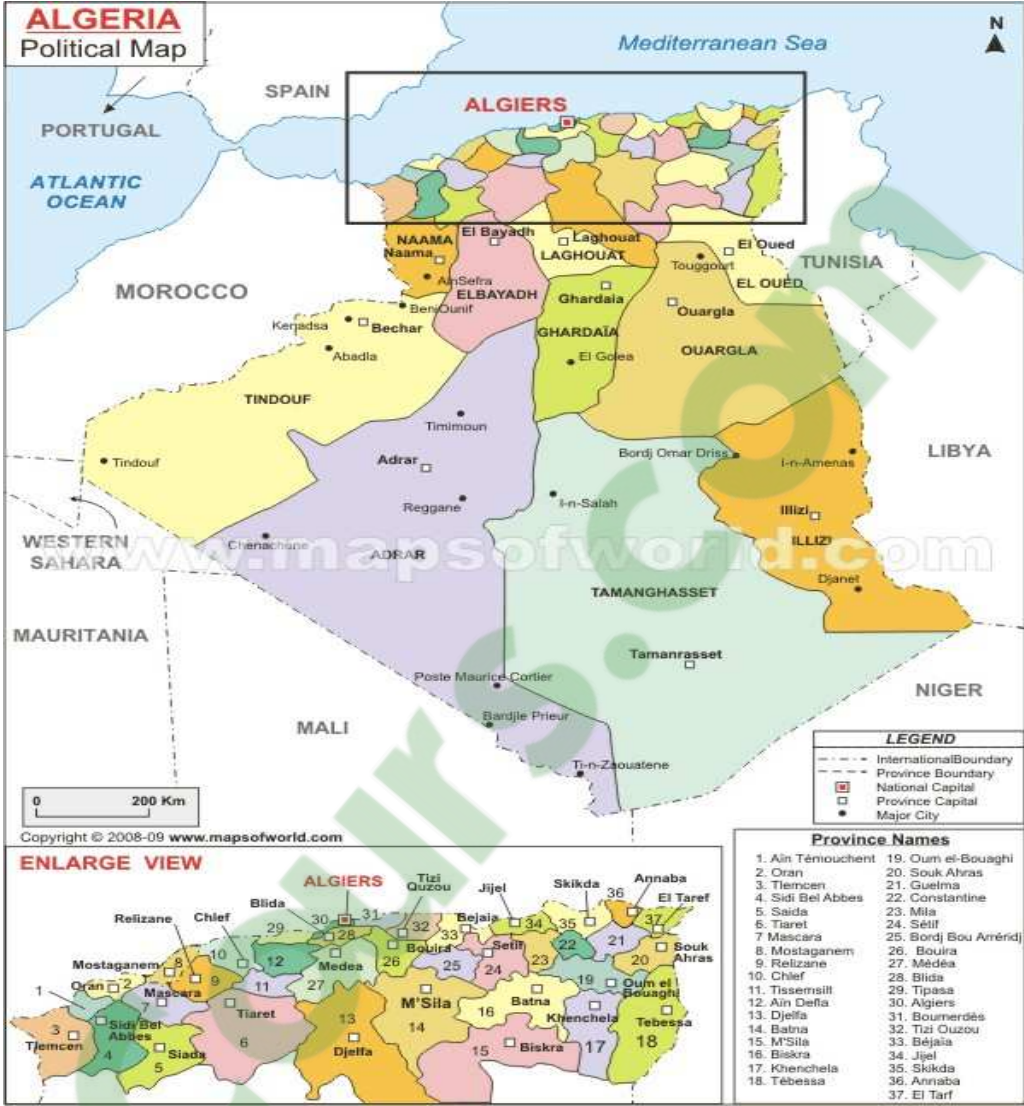
Although the researcher tried his best to assign participants with different ages and backgrounds to the two groups, this absence of random assignment makes this research a quasi-experiment and not a true one. A quasi-experiment is an experimental research design similar to a true experiment, except in one criterion: random choice of participants.

Lack of random sampling causes a quasi-experiment to be inferior in validity in comparison to a true experiment, but both of them share most of the experimental design features as described above. In addition, a quasi-experiment can be a very useful method for measuring social variables, such as language attitudes (Shuttleworth, 2008).

3.2 Data collection: site and sample selection

The context of this study is a province in Algeria, called Tiaret. Algeria is composed of 48 provinces (called wilaya). Tiaret is one of them. It is situated in the mid-west of Algeria (see map).

As elsewhere in Algeria, Tiaret has a suitable sociolinguistic profile for such studies. It is a multilingual setting where the four languages (SA, B, AA, and F) have been used for a long time.



Map 1. The research site : Tيارت¹, province number six.

¹ Algeria political map. Retrieved 7th December, 2011 from www.mapsofworld.com

The total number of the participants in this experiment was 208. Each of the control and experimental groups comprised 104 participants. Special care was given as much as possible to assign the participants evenly for each of the two groups, as shown in Table 1.

Control Group	Age	Percentage	Male	Female
	[15-20]	48,07%	20	30
	[20-30]	23,07%	10	14
	[30-50]	15,38%	6	10
	[50-60]	13,46%	4	10
	Total	100%	40	64
Experimental Group	Age	Percentage	Male	Female
	[15-20]	48,07%	20	30
	[20-30]	23,07%	10	14
	[30-50]	15,38%	6	10
	[50-60]	13,46%	4	10
	Total	100%	40	64

Table1. Distribution of the research participants by age and gender .

As shown in Table1, 48, 07% of the participants were aged between 15 and 20 years old. This category included secondary school students and professional training school students. 51, 93% of the participants were aged between 20 and 60 years old. This category included white-collar professionals, blue-collar workers, and housewives.

In each of the experimental and control groups, 84 participants spoke Algerian Arabic as a mother tongue and 20 participants were Berber speakers. All of the participants said that they knew Standard Arabic. Knowledge of French was sporadic in both groups, varying between fluent speaking to mild contact via

education or media. Only seven participants in the control group and seven in the experimental one reported that they do not know it.

This variety in linguistic competence may confirm that the sociolinguistic setting in Tiaret, similarly to the other parts of Algeria, is multilingual and not monolingual.

3.3 The data collection

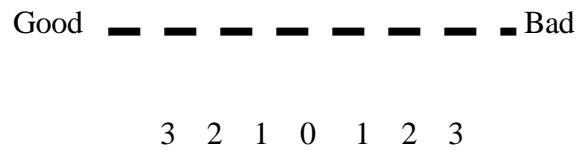
The experimental procedures were carried out as follows: After assigning the participants into an experimental and a control group, they were all given a questionnaire (Appendix A) to fill. Then the experimental group was given a text (Appendix C) to read. The control group was not given that text. Finally, the questionnaire was administered again to the experimental group to see any change in the language attitudes.

3.4 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was entirely based on the Semantic Differential Model developed by Osgood (1964). Heise (1965) explained the Semantic Differential Model questionnaire that measures attitudes towards concepts such as language in the following way:

1- It presents the informant with a list of bipolar contrasting adjectives such as : good/bad , useful/useless/ , easy/difficult...etc.

2. Then the informant is asked to rate the language for each adjective on a scale like the following :



in this scale , the position 0 indicates a neutral reaction .The label ‘slightly’ is assigned to 1, ‘quite’ to 2 and ‘extremely’ to 3 . Heise observed that this scale measures ‘directionality’ of a reaction (e.g. good versus bad) and also ‘intensity’ (slight through extreme).

Therefore, the questionnaire of this study is made up of two sections:

1- The first part which contains information about the participants (age, gender, occupation and mother tongue).

2- The second part which comprises the following bipolar contrasting adjectives:

- Beautiful/ugly
- Easy/difficult
- Useful/useless
- Modern/outdated
- Elegant/Vulgar
- Moral/ immoral

The informants were asked to rate each language for the above traits on this scale:

Strongly Agree

Agree

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree

Strongly Disagree .

Data was coded by assigning:

- 5 to Strongly Agree
- 4 to Agree
- 3 to Neither agree nor disagree
- 2 to Disagree
- 1 to Strongly Disagree.

3.5 The text

The text that was used to change the language attitudes included two main ideas (Appendix C). First, the idea that the Koran has a positive view on language diversity and considers it as one of the great signs of God .Second, the idea that language diversity is as important to human cultural heritage as is biological diversity vital to human survival. Another concept is that each language that dies or is endangered is like a plant that dies and threatens the balance of nature.

The rationale for the selection of these two main ideas is based on the Functional Theory of Language Attitude (Katz, 1960). Functional theories hold that successful persuasion entails implementing change procedures that match the

functional basis of the attitude that one is trying to change. According to Katz, 'attitude' has four personality functions:

1- utilitarian: the attitude function here is to gain pleasure and avoid pain. If the object of attitude is associated with pain, the attitude would be negative. If it is associated with pleasure, the attitude would be positive.

2- knowledge function: a basic need of human being is to have meaningful view of the outer world. If we have a clear picture of something, we are likely to have a positive attitude towards it more than if we have doubts and opacity

3- ego-defensive: human beings tend to form attitudes that defend their self-worth and self-concept

4- value-expressive: attitudes can be used to express values both positively and negatively.

Therefore, successful attitude change is proportional to successful matching of these functions.

In this text, the utilitarian function was matched by evoking the importance of language diversity through the analogy of biological diversity.

The knowledge function was matched by giving a meaningful reason for language diversity: manifesting God's greatness by creating thousands of languages as well enriching humanity cultural heritage.

It is also important to notice that many LA studies in Algeria, such as Benali-Mohamed (2007), emphasised the role of religion in forming language

attitudes. This was another reason to include that idea in the text to change the LA by citing a verse from the Koran that states that language diversity is a good thing. Finally, the value-expressive function was matched by the tolerant attitude towards language diversity embedded in the text.

3.6 Framework for data analysis

A statistical analysis was performed by using the SPSS (the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software). It gave results in the form of mean values, standard deviations and graphs. A t-test was performed between the pre-test and post-test stages of the experiment, with the standard level of significance set at 0.05. Any changes above that level support the H₀, while results below it support the confirmation of the H₁.

The mean value for each trait is obtained by adding up all the numbers assigned for that trait and then dividing them by the total number of the participants. Standard deviation shows how far the values (assigned numbers) for each trait deviate from the mean (the average).

The t-test assesses whether the means of two groups are *statistically* different from each other. If the difference is above the standard level of significance 0.05, this means that the hypothesis is not confirmed (H₀). If the difference, however, is below that standard level of significance, it means that the results support the confirmation of the hypothesis (H₁).

A description of the results will be given in the next chapter followed by their interpretation and discussion. The empirical findings are presented in the following way:

- Tables of results showing mean values, standard deviations and t-tests for the control group and the two stages of the experimental group.
- LA traits for each language were grouped into two categories:

1. General Traits: beautiful/easy, Easy/difficult, Strong /weak, elegant/vulgar.

2. Functional Traits: useful/useless, modern /outdated, moral/immoral

This division was done to give a clear picture about the changes and fluctuations of language attitudes by presenting adjectives that share common features together. This would also avoid making the results seem complicated by running into lengthy individual descriptions for each adjective. Verbal description of these quantitative results is provided for each table. Graphs and figures display results so as to ease grasping whole and detailed views on the change in LA before and after the experiment treatment stage.

Taking the above points into consideration, the aim of this section was to explain how this research results were obtained, analysed and presented.

Chapter Four:

Research Results and Discussion

Results are presented in the form of mean values, standard deviations and graphs. Results of the t-test which was performed between the pre-test and post-test stages of the experiment had the standard level of significance 0.05.

The mean values for each trait were obtained by adding up all the numbers assigned for that trait and then dividing them by the total number of the participants. Standard deviation shows how far the values (assigned numbers) for each trait deviate from the mean (the average).

The t-test considers whether the means of two groups are *statistically* dissimilar from each other. If the divergence is above the standard level of significance 0.05, this means that the hypothesis is not confirmed (H0). If the difference, however, is below that standard level of significance, it means that the research findings sustain the confirmation of the hypothesis (H1).

LA traits for each language were grouped into two categories:

1. General Traits.

2. Functional Traits

This was done because it seemed to be more convenient than presenting the results of each trait separately and running into a very lengthy presentation that might distract the reader. Grouping all the traits in just two groups may provide a clear picture about the changes and fluctuations of language attitudes by presenting adjectives that share common features together.

4.1 Results

4.1.1 Results for Standard Arabic LA

I. Positive general traits

As shown in Table2, the post-test mean values of the general positive traits were higher than the pre-test and control group ones. Besides, the beauty trait 4,33($s=0,89$) went up higher than the elegance 4,28($s=0,83$), strength 4,27($s=0,97$) and easiness 3,69($s=1,08$) traits. The treatment group t-test results were all below the significant level set at 0.05.

	Beautiful		Easy		Strong		Elegant		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group									
Pre-test	3,88	0,93	3,28	1,26	3,41	1,53	6,3	1,11	104
Post-test	4,33	0,89	3,69	1,08	4,27	0,97	4,28	0,83	104
C.Group	3,50	1,13	3,14	1,33	3,24	1,59	3,47	1,09	104
t-test	-3,88		-2,53		-4,84		-4,99		

Table2. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards SA. N= number of participants. M= mean .S= standard deviation. Exp. = Experimental. C = Control.

II. Negative general traits

Table 3 depicts the post-test mean values of the general negative traits which were lower than the pre-test and control group ones. Noticeably, the vulgarity trait 1,03($s= 0,29$) decreased more than the weakness 1,47($s= ,72$), ugliness 1,43($s= 0,85$) and difficulty 2,12 ($s= 1,38$) traits.

	Ugly		difficult		weak		vulgar		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group									
Pre-test	1,67	0,85	2,79	1,42	2,14	1,19	1,69	1,25	104
Post-test	1,43	0,85	2,12	1,38	1,47	0,72	1,03	0,29	104
C.Group	1,57	0,76	2,69	1,46	2,09	1,21	1,79	1,23	104
t-test	-2,02		-3,44		-4,91		-5,25		

Table 3. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards SA.

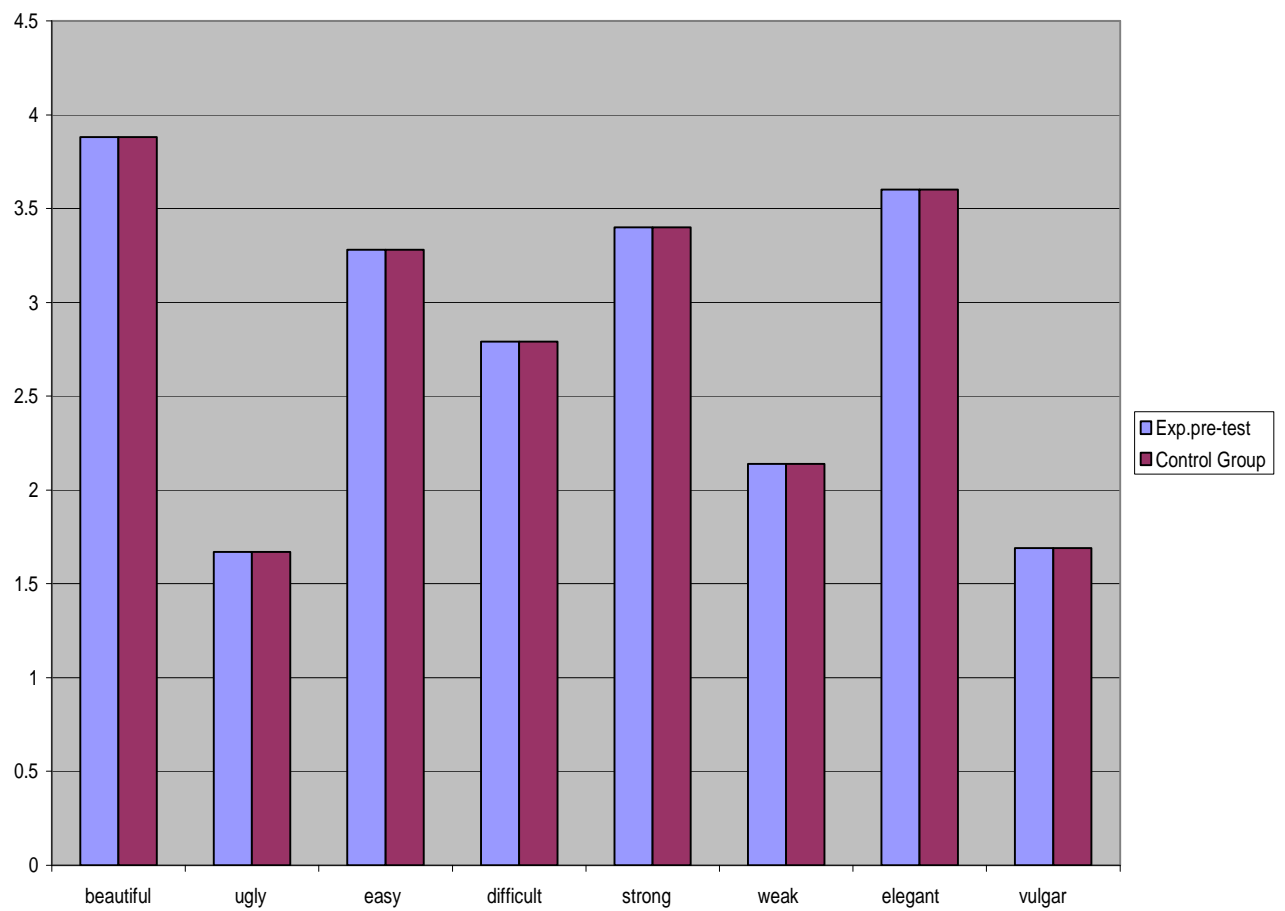


Figure 2/1. LA towards SA in the pre-test stage.

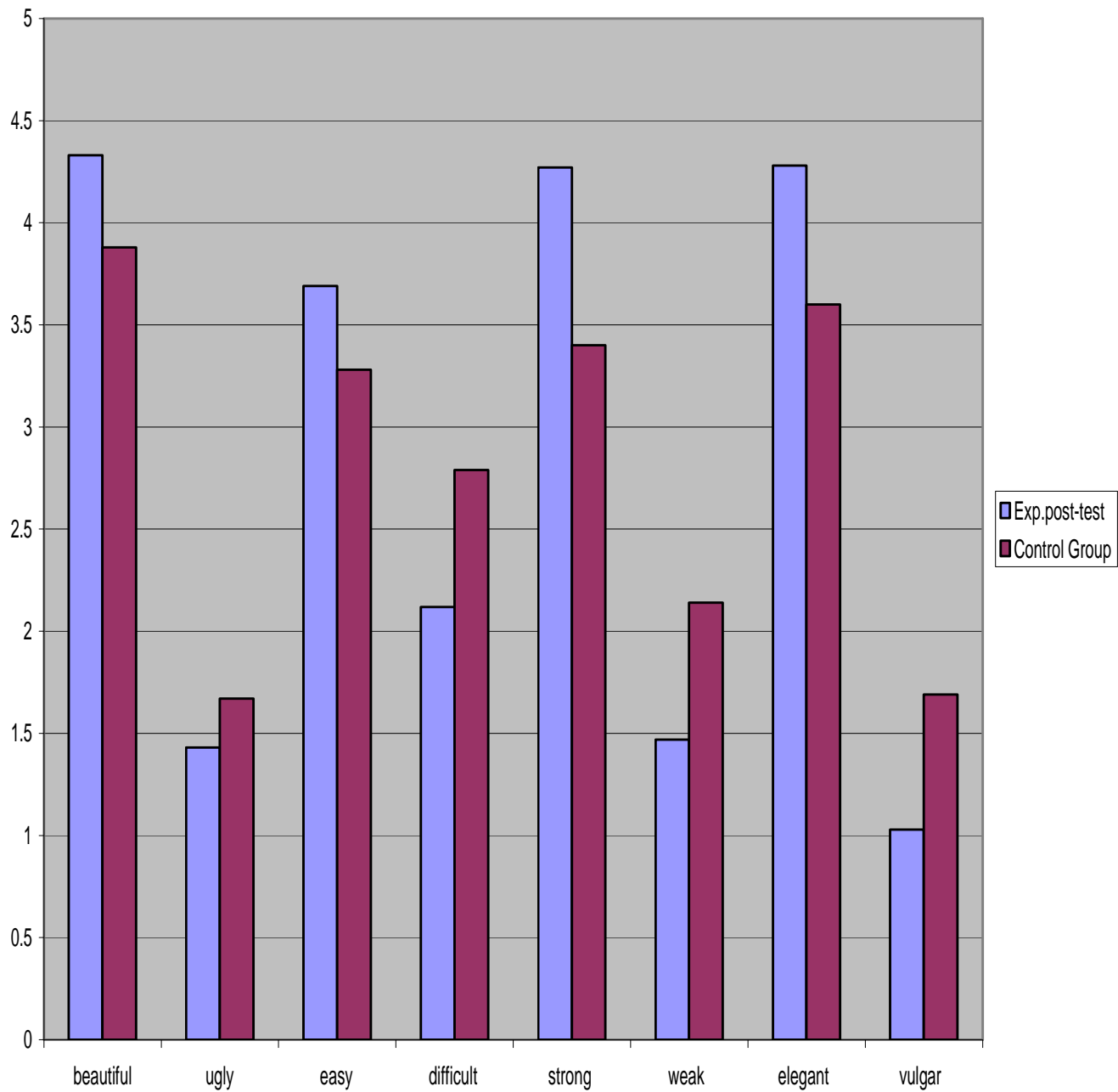


Figure 2/2. LA towards SA in the post-test stage.



III. Positive functional traits.

The means of the positive functional traits (table 4) were higher in the post-test phase of the experiment than in the pre-test phase and control group. The moral trait 4, 47 (s= 0, 88) went up higher than usefulness 3,99(s=1,08) and modernity 3,63 (s=1,40) .

	useful		modern		moral		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group							
Pre-test	3,51	1,43	3,23	1,65	4,07	0,99	104
Post-test	3,99	1,08	3,63	1,40	4,47	0,88	104
C.Group	3,44	1,44	3,13	1,70	3,88	1,00	104
t-test	-2,50		-1,90		-3,09		

Table 4. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards SA.

IV. Negative functional traits.

The means of the negative functional traits(table 5) were lower in the post-test phase of the experiment than in the pre-test phase and control group. The uselessness trait 1, 33 (s= 0,67) dropped lower than outdated 1,41(s= 0,87) and immorality 1,58 (s=1,08) .

The results of the t-test between the pre-test and post-test data for all the traits were entirely below the statistically significant level set at 0.05.

	useless		out-dated		immoral		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group							
Pre-test	1,77	0,92	1,58	0,99	1,78	1,05	104
Post-test	1,33	0,67	1,41	0,87	1,58	1,08	104
C.Group	1,68	0,90	1,62	0,98	1,76	0,97	104
t-test	-3,93		-1,25		-1,65		

Table 5. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards SA.

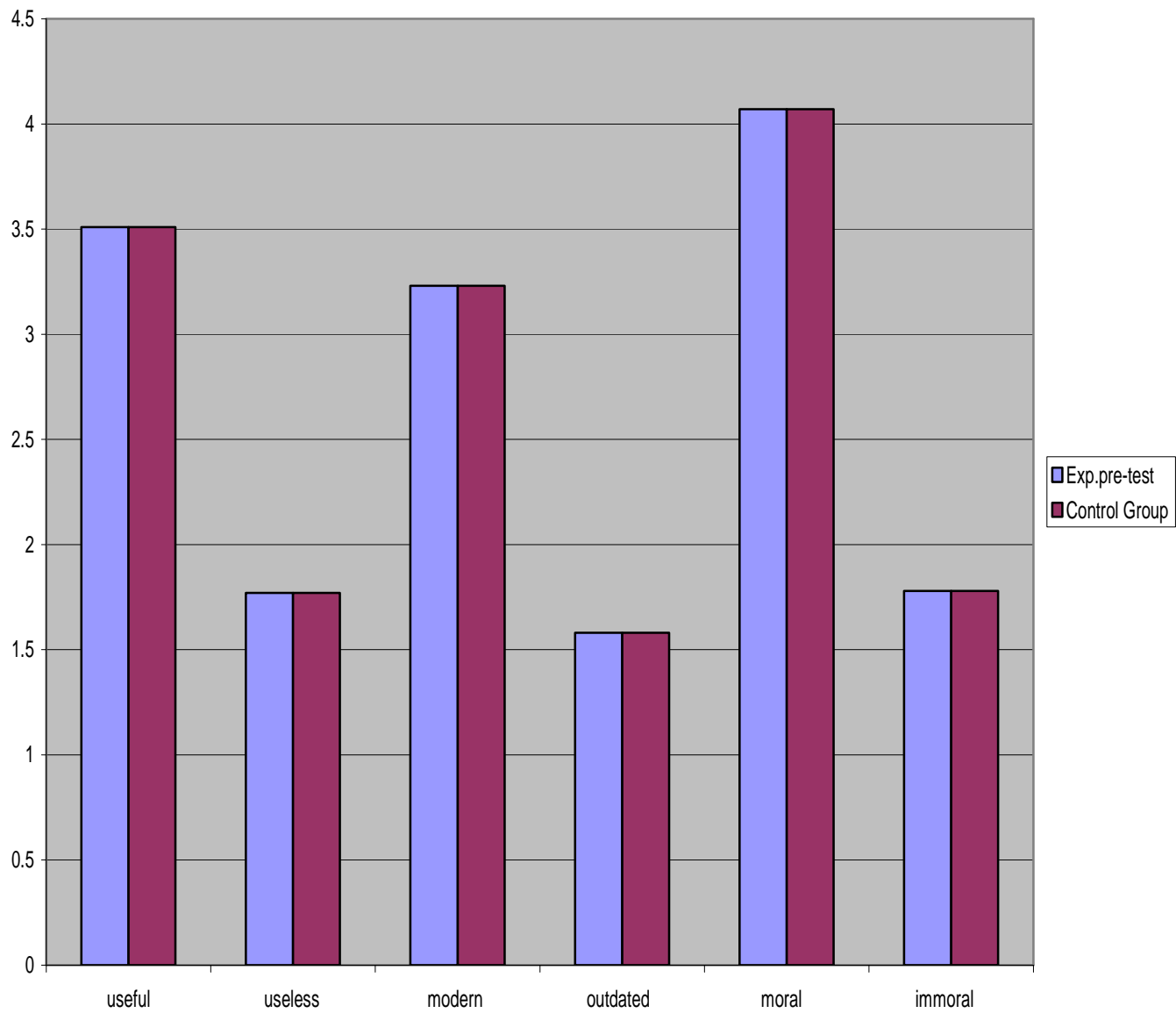


Figure 2/3. LA towards SA in the pre-test stage.

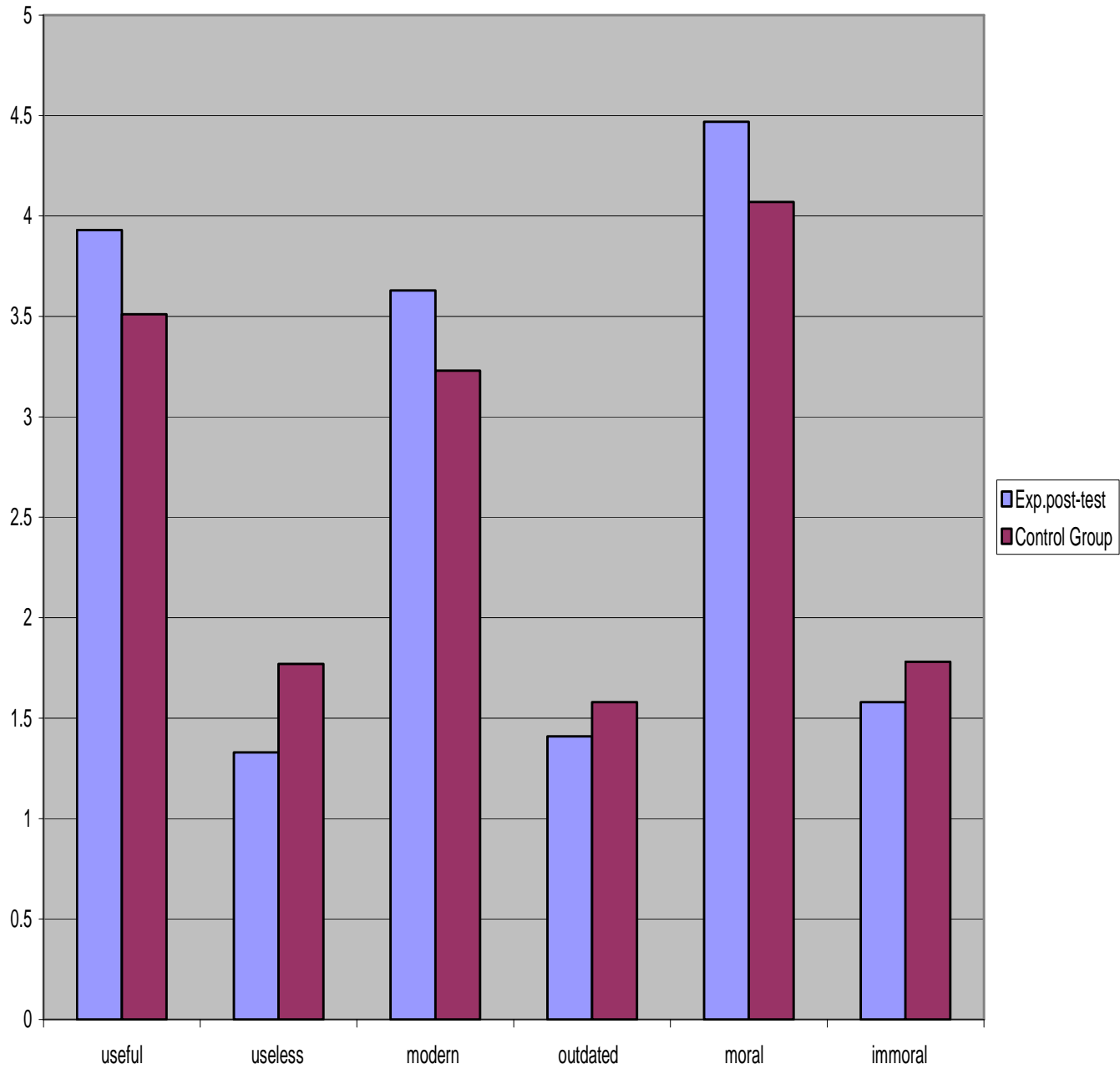


Figure 2/4. LA towards SA in the post-test stage.

4.1.2 Results for Algerian Arabic

I. Positive general traits

As shown in Table 6, the post-test means of the general positive traits were higher than the pre-test and control group ones. The easiness trait 4, 64 (s= 0, 63) increased more than the beauty 4, 38(s= 0, 96), elegance 3, 92 (s=1, 31) and strength, 7 (s=1, 21) trait. The treatment group t-test results were all below the significant level set at 0.05.

	Beautiful		Easy		Strong		Elegant		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group									
Pre-test	3, 65	1, 51	4, 27	0, 87	3, 03	1, 3	3, 21	1, 39	104
Post-test	4, 38	0, 96	4, 64	0, 63	3, 77	1, 21	3, 92	1, 31	104
C.Group	3, 85	1, 41	4, 21	1.01	3, 22	1, 37	3, 44	1, 34	104
t-test	-4,09		-3.53		-4,07		-4,02		

Table 6. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards AA
N= number of participants. M= mean .S= standard deviation. Exp. = Experimental.
C = Control.

II. Negative general traits

Table 7, depicts the post-test means of the general negative traits which were lower than the pre-test and control group ones. The difficulty trait 1,5 (s= 0,924) decreased more than the vulgarity 1,87(s= 1,02), ugliness 2(s=1,29) and weakness 2,38 (s=1,21) trait.

	Ugly		difficult		weak		vulgar		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group									
Pre-test	2,68	1,58	1,92	1,1	3,16	1,27	2,6	1,43	104
Post-test	2	1,29	1,5	0,924	2,38	1,2	1,87	1,02	104
C.Group	268	1,58	1,98	1,21	2,97	1,28	2,43	1,37	104
t-test	-3, 40		-2,98		-4,55		-7,92		

Table 7. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards AA.

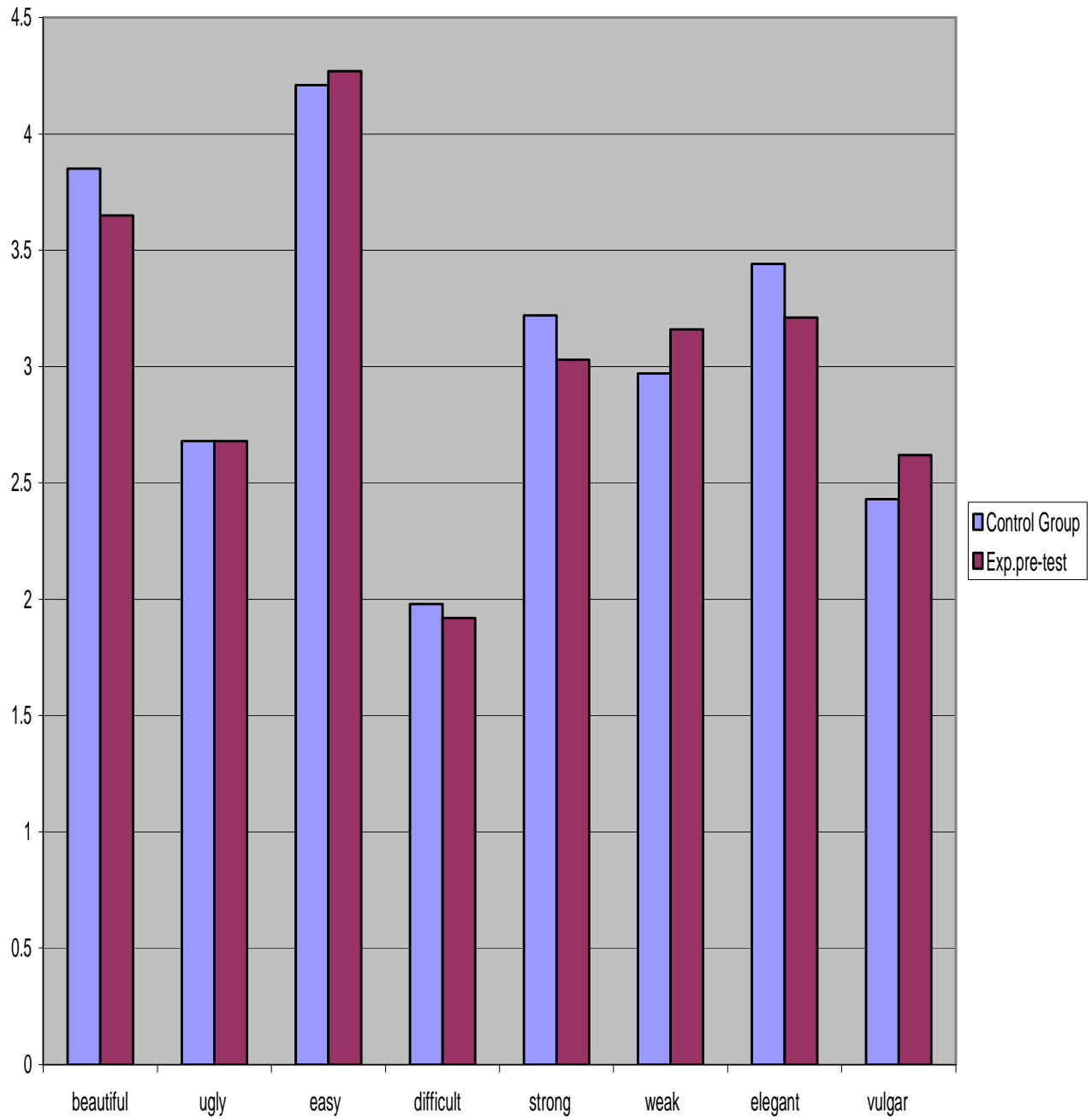


Figure 2/5. LA towards AA in the pre-test stage.

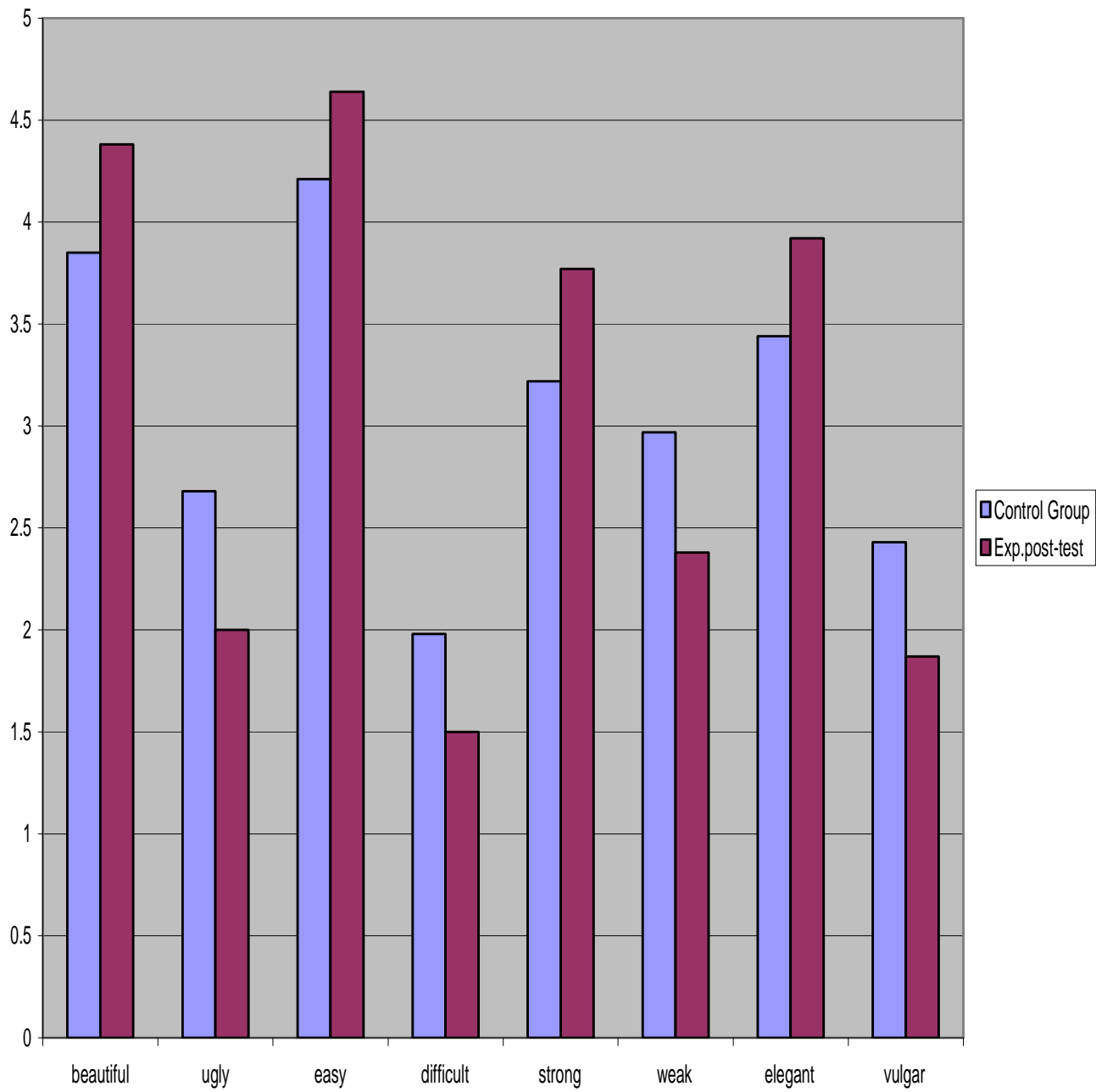


Figure 2/6. LA towards AA in the post-test stage.

III. Positive functional traits.

The means of the positive functional traits (table 8) were higher in the post-test phase of the experiment than in the pre-test phase and control group. The usefulness trait 3, 89($s=1, 20$) went up higher than morality 3, 70($s=1, 27$) and modernity 3, 58 ($s=1, 18$).

	useful		modern		moral		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group							
Pre-test	3,15	1,45	2,8	1,34	2,89	1,40	104
Post-test	3,89	1,20	3,58	1,18	3,70	1,27	104
C.Group	3,27	1,43	3,01	1,36	3,12	1,39	104
t-test	-3,99		-4,16		-4,34		

Table 8. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards AA.

IV. Negative functional traits

The means of the negative functional traits (table 9) were lower in the post-test phase of the experiment than in the pre-test phase and control group except for the useless trait 2,78($s=1,40$), contrary to the out-dated trait which decreased in the post-test 2, 67($s=1,17$), and the immorality trait which went down 2, 62($s=1,46$). usefulness trait 3,89($s=1,20$) went up higher than morality 3,70($s=1,27$) and modernity 3,58($s=1,18$).

The treatment group t-test results for all the traits were entirely below the significant level set at 0.05.

	useless		out-dated		immoral		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group							
Pre-test	2,78	1,40	2,79	1,10	2,86	1,50	104
Post-test	2,89	1,41	2,67	1,17	2,62	1,46	104
C.Group	2,02	10,07	2,35	1,27	2,05	1,23	104
t-test	-4,39		-2, 67		-4, 23		

Table 9. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards AA.

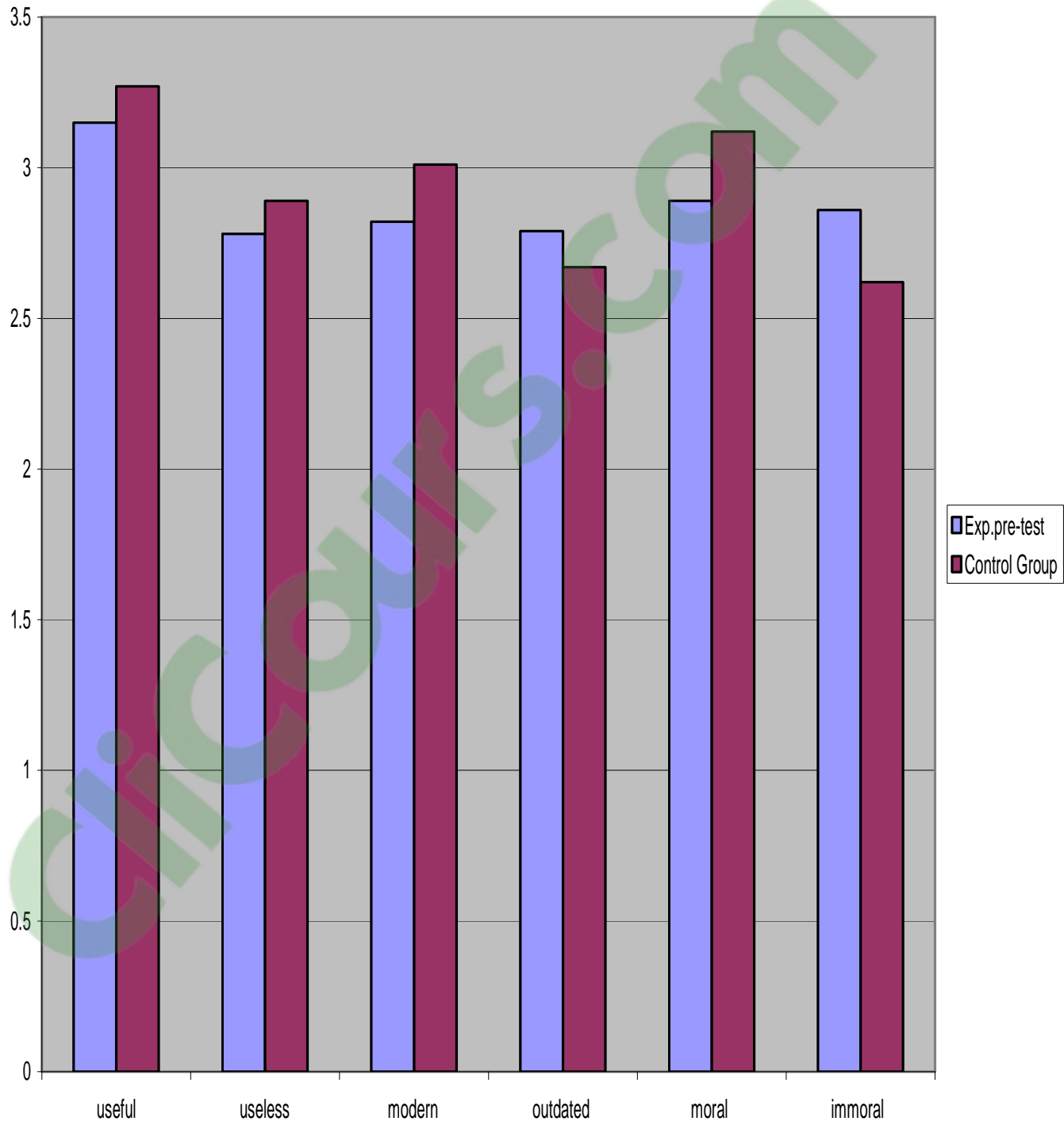


Figure 2/7. LA towards AA in the pre-test stage.

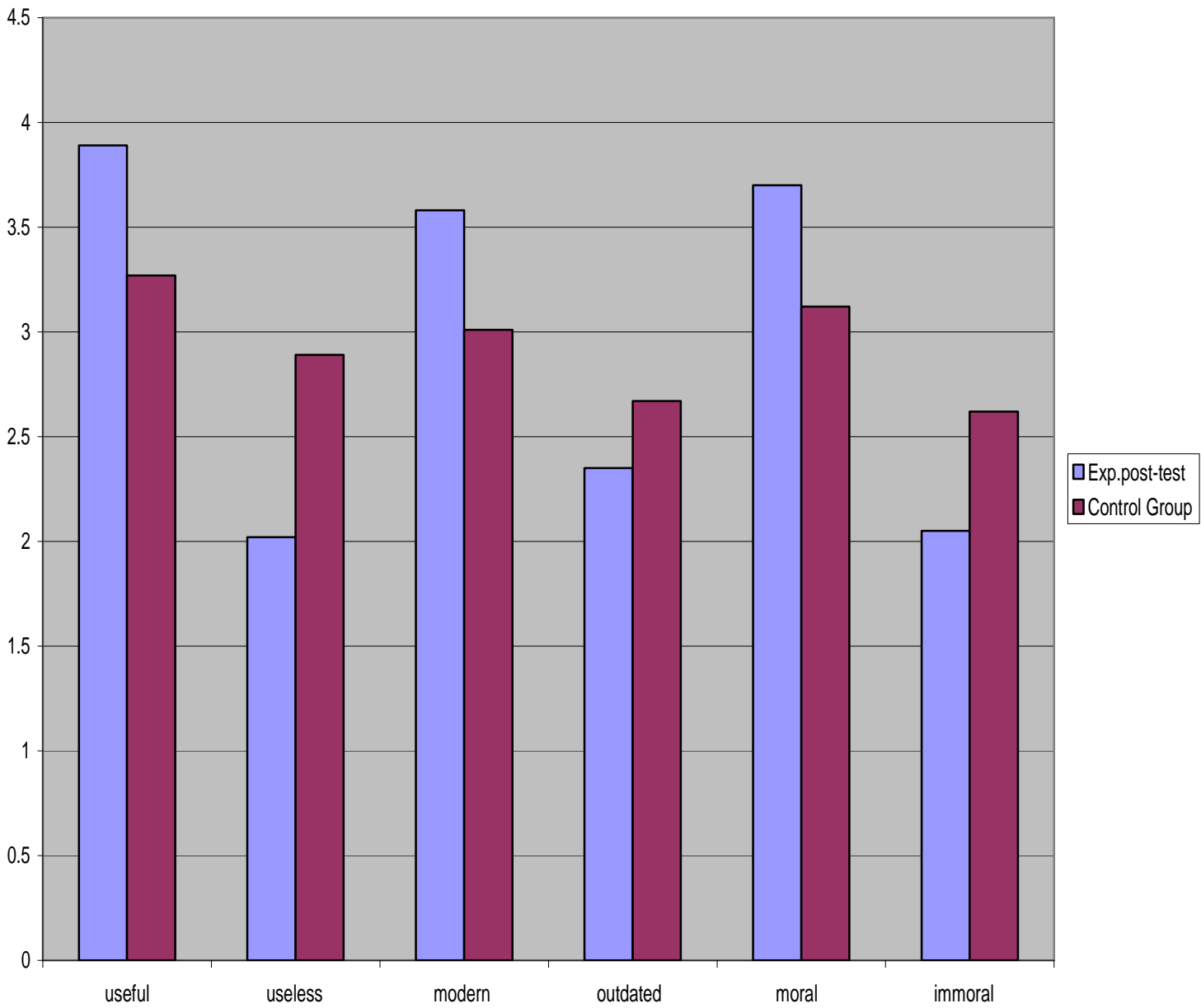


Figure 2/8. LA towards AA in the post-test stage.

4.1.3 Results for Berber LA

I. Positive general traits

As shown in Table10, the post-test means of the general positive traits were higher than the pre-test and control group ones. The beauty trait 3,88($s= 1,20$) went up more than elegance 3,66($s= 0,79$), strength 3,47($s=1,32$) and easiness 1,99($s= 1,27$) trait . The treatment group t-test results were all below the significant level set at 0.05 for all the traits except for the easy trait t- test = 1.55 .

	Beautiful		Easy		Strong		Elegant		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group									
Pre-test	3,4	1,26	2,26	1,23	2,86	1,40	3,22	1,19	104
Post-test	3,88	1,20	1,99	1,27	3,47	1,32	3,66	0,79	104
C.Group	3,23	1,30	2,52	1,44	2,78	1,47	3,05	1,21	104
t-test	-2,80		1,55		-3,24		-3, 15		

Table10. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards B. N= number of subjects tested. M= mean .S= standard deviation.

II. Negative general traits.

Table11, depicts the post-test means of the general negative traits which were lower than the pre-test and control group ones. The vulgarity trait 1,53 ($s= 0,95$) decreased more than weakness 1,82 ($s=1,14$), ugliness 1,99($s=1,15$) and difficulty 3,1($s=1,56$).

	Ugly		difficult		weak		vulgar		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group									
Pre-test	2,45	1,26	3,86	1,11	2,28	1,31	2,02	1,35	104
Post-test	1,99	1,15	3,1	1,56	1,82	1,14	1,53	0,95	104
C.Group	2,62	1,32	3,60	1,37	2,23	1,34	2,12	1,31	104
t-test	-2,75		-4,02		-2,69		-2,97		

Table11. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards B.

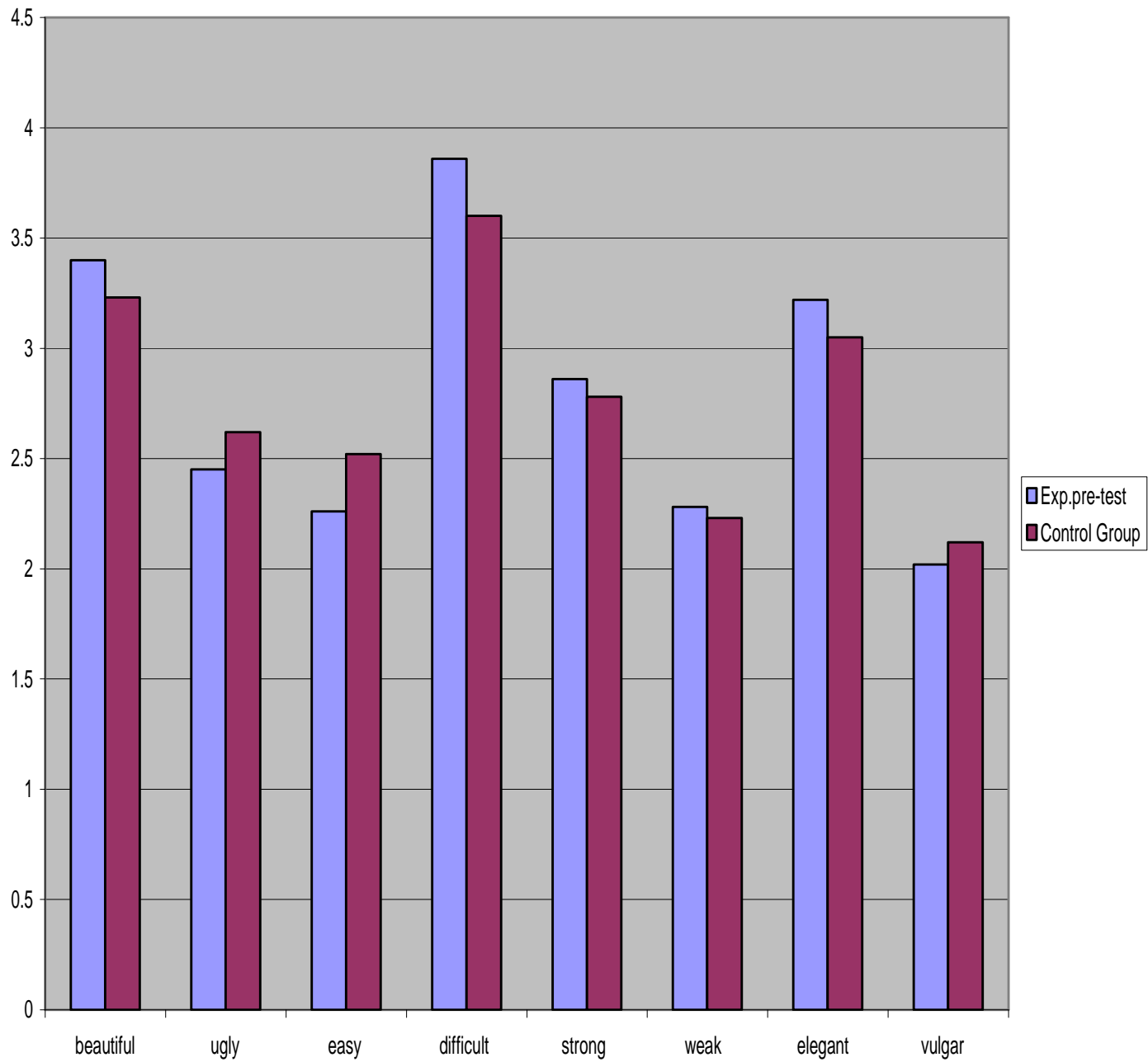


Figure 2/9. LA towards B in the pre-test stage.

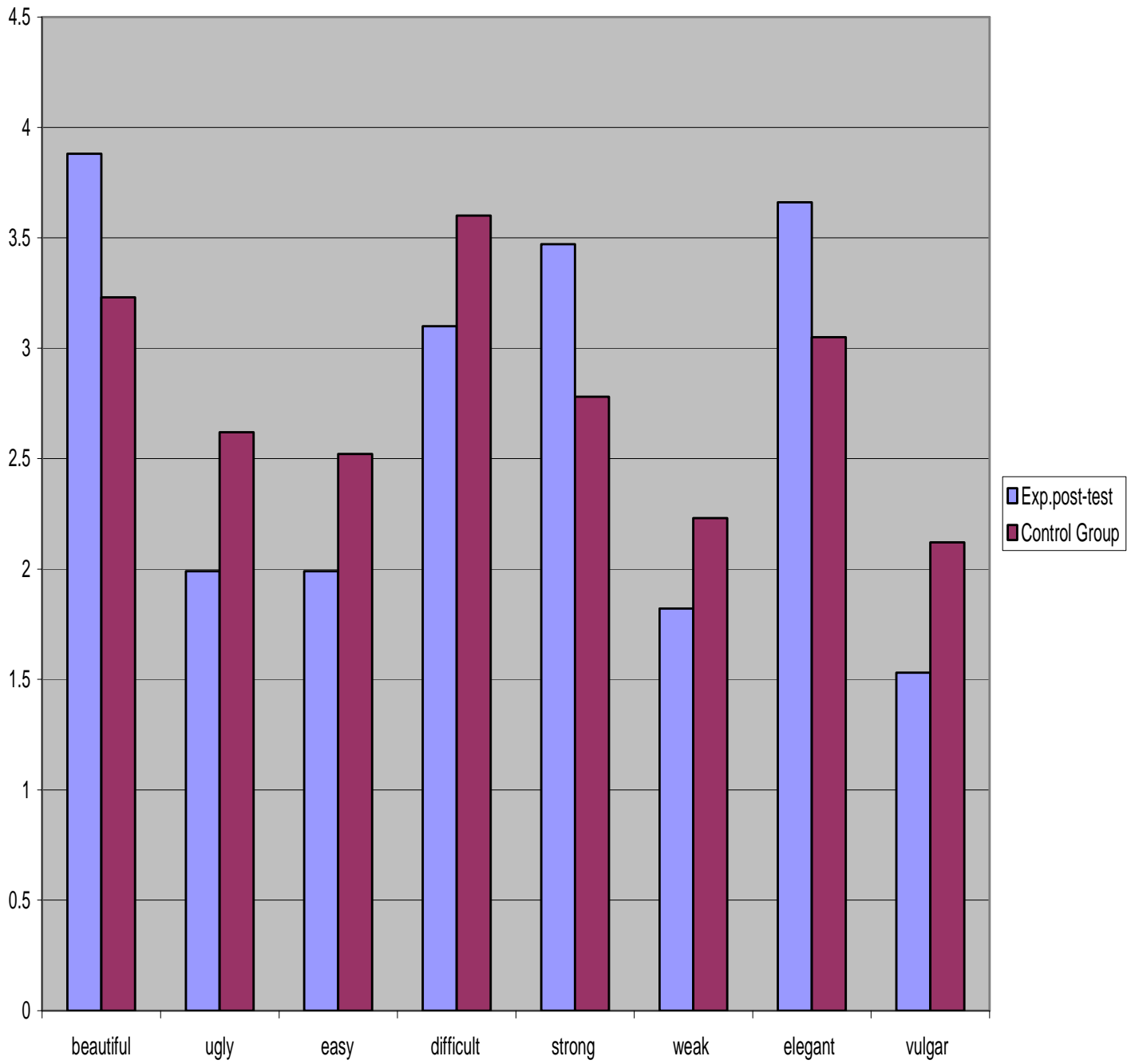


Figure 2/10. LA towards B in the post-test stage.

III. Positive functional traits.

The means of the positive functional traits (table 12) were higher in the post-test phase of the experiment than in the pre-test phase and control group. Furthermore, the morality trait 3,78 ($s= 0,89$) scored higher than the usefulness 3,53($s=1,37$) and the modernity 3,34($s=1,22$) traits .

	useful		modern		moral		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group							
Pre-test	2,76	1,28	2,8	1,34	3,57	1,17	104
Post-test	3,53	1,37	3,34	1,22	3,78	0,89	104
C.Group	2,93	1,30	3,06	1,45	3,36	1,25	104
t-test	-4 15		-3,01		-1,46		

Table12. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards B.

IV. Negative functional traits.

The means of the negative functional traits(table 13) went lower in the post-test phase of the experiment than in the pre-test phase and control group . The uselessness trait 1,97 ($s= 1,009$) decreased more than the outdated trait 1,88($s= 1,10$) and the immorality one 1,51 ($s=1.02$) .

The treatment group t-test results for all the traits were entirely below the significant level set at 0.05 except for the easiness trait ($t =1, 55$) which was above the significant level .

	useless		out-dated		immoral		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group							
Pre-test	2,45	1,12	2,35	1,25	2,03	1,24	104
Post-test	1,97	1,009	1,88	1,10	1,51	1,02	104
C.Group	2,26	1,26	2,35	1,25	2,14	1,37	104
t-test	-3,24		-2,82		-3, 01		

Table13. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards B.

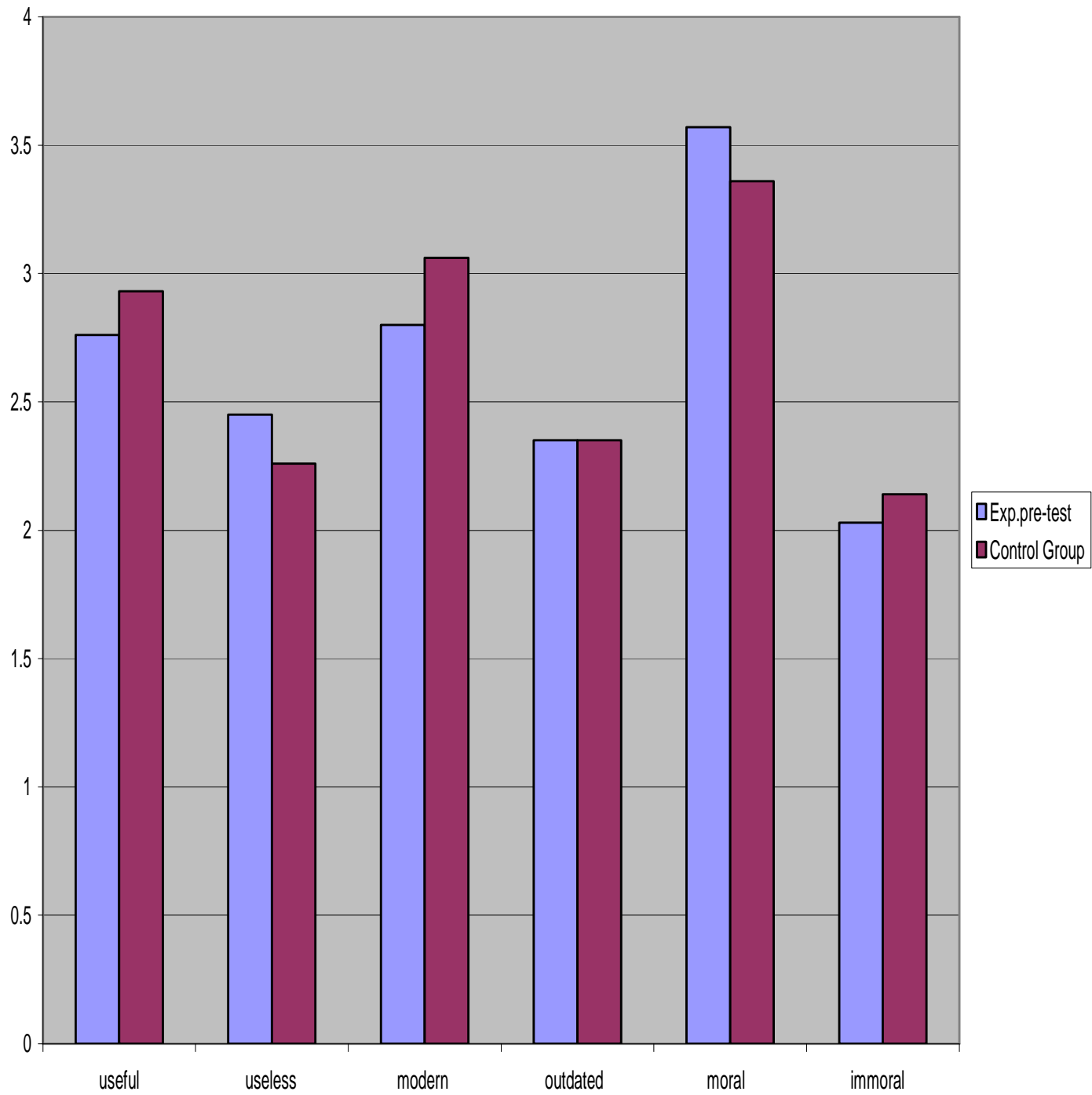


Figure 2/11. LA towards B in the pre-test stage.

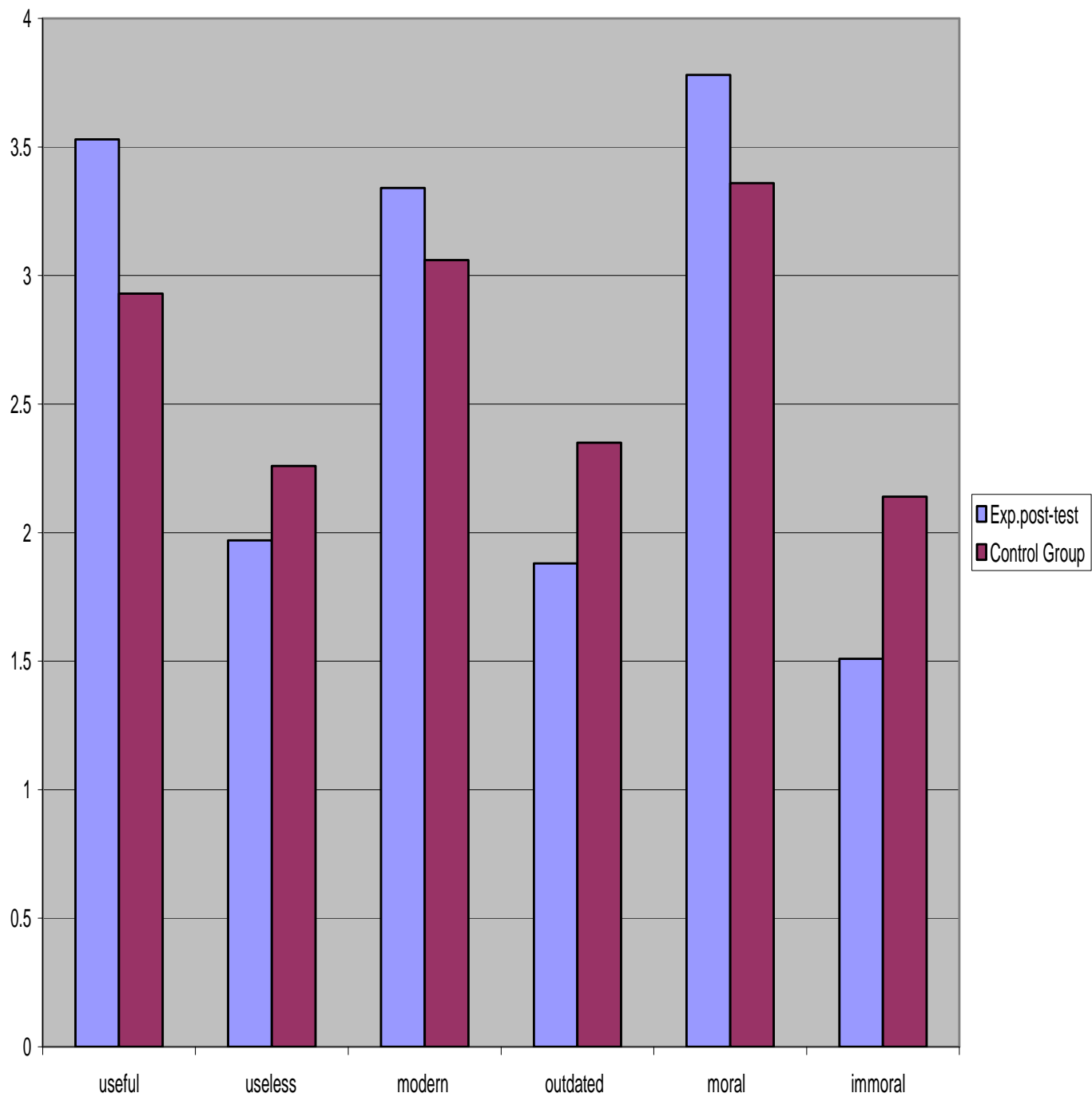


Figure 2/12. LA towards B in the pos-test stage.

4.1.4 Results for French LA

I. Positive general traits.

As shown in Table14, the post-test means of the general positive traits were higher than the pre-test and control group ones. The elegance trait 4.07($s=1.07$) increased more than the beauty 3,39($s=1,58$), strength 3,19($s= 1,40$) and easiness 2,62 ($s= 1,33$) trait.

The treatment group t-test results were all below the significant level set at 0.05.

	Beautiful		Easy		Strong		Elegant		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group									
Pre-test	2,62	1,56	2,05	1,29	2,64	1,6	3,31	1,47	104
Post-test	3,39	1,58	2,62	1,33	3,19	1,40	4.07	1.07	104
C.Group	2,82	1,60	1,91	1,22	2,8	1,59	3,1	1,52	104
t-test	-3, 57		-3,15		- 2,62		- 4,24		

Table14. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards F. N= number of subjects tested. M= mean .S= standard deviation.

II. Negative general traits

Table15, depicts the post-test means of the general negative traits which dropped lower than the pre-test and control group ones. The weakness trait 1,68($s= 1,11$) decreased more than ugliness 1,8 ($s= 1,09$), vulgarity 1,99($s=1,23$) and difficulty 3,31($s=1,35$).

	Ugly		difficult		weak		vulgar		N
	M	S	M	S	M	S	M	S	
Exp.Group									
Pre-test	2,52	1,55	3,89	1,34	2,47	1,61	2,78	1,56	104
Post-test	1,8	1,09	3,31	1,35	1,68	1,11	1,99	1,23	104
C.Group	2,8	1,6	3,68	1,46	2,6	1,53	2,54	1,52	104
t-test	-4,18		-3,13		-4,08		-4,03		

Table15. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards F.

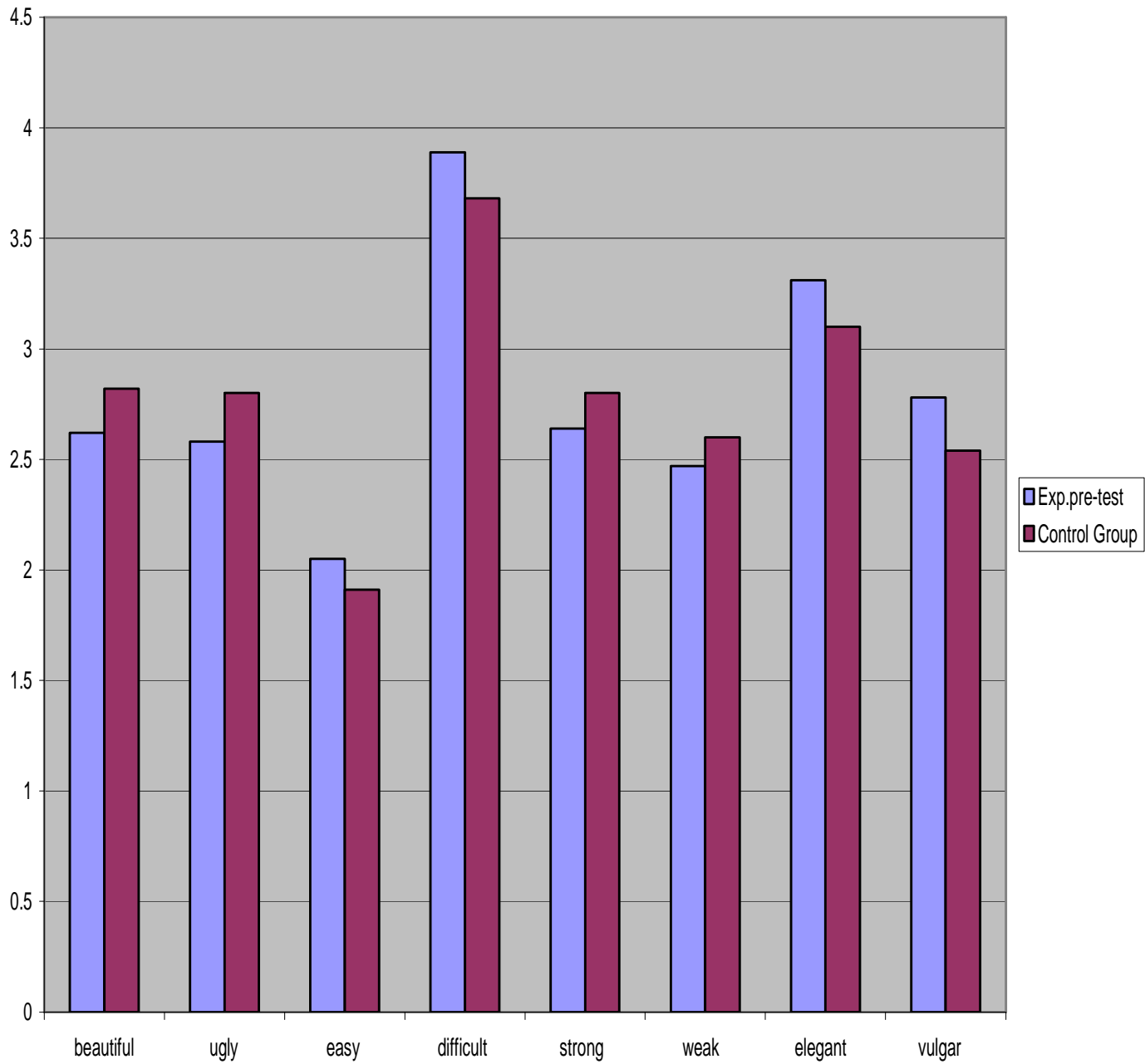


Figure 2/13. LA towards F in the pre-test stage.

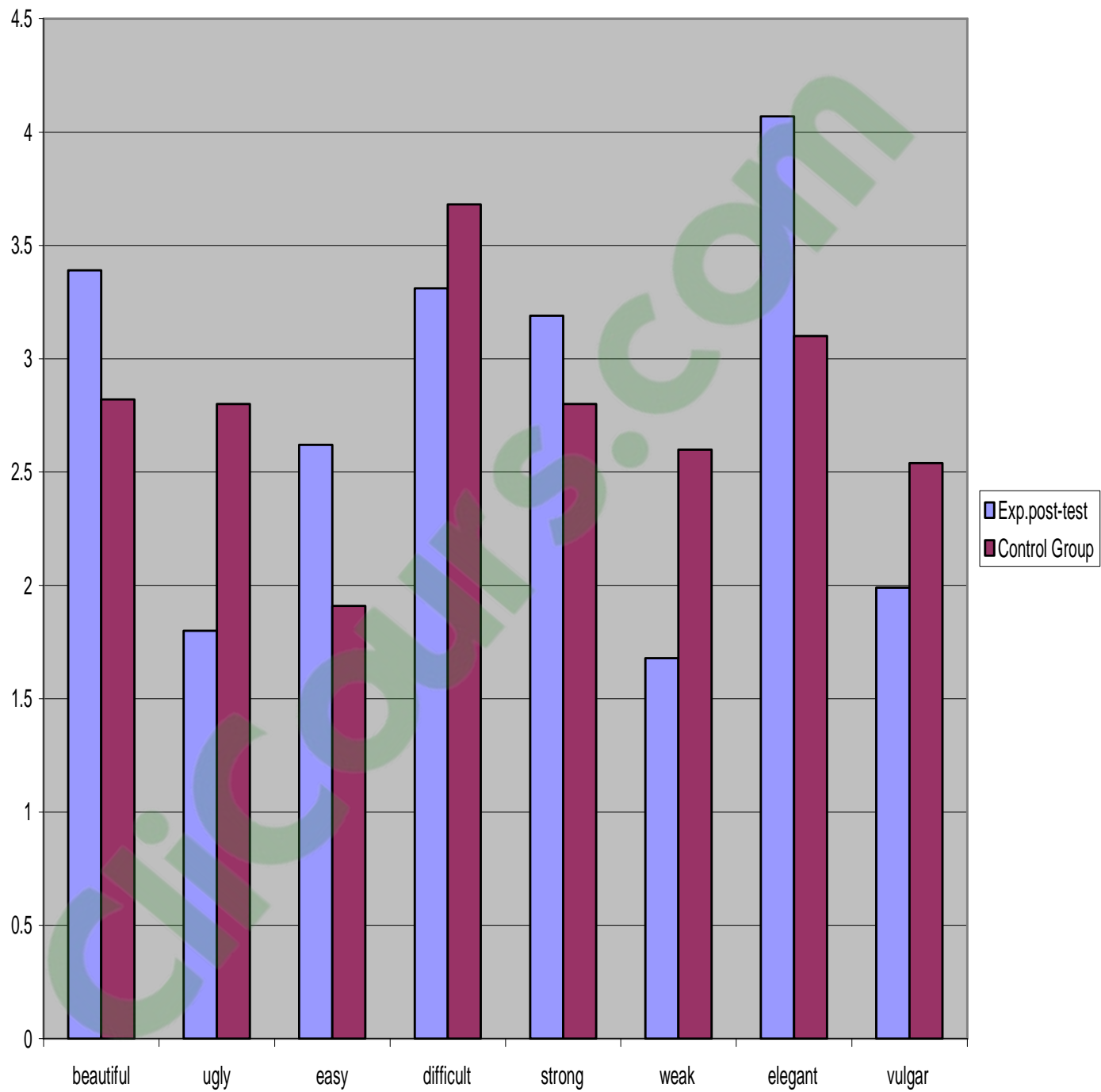


Figure 2/14. LA towards F in the post-test stage.

III. Positive functional traits

The means of the positive functional traits(table 16) went up higher in the post-test phase of the experiment than in the pre-test phase and control group. The modernity trait 4,22 ($s=1,18$) increased more than the usefulness trait 4,21 ($s= 1,12$) and the morality one 3,35 ($s=1,55$) .

	useful		modern		moral		<i>N</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S</i>	
Exp.Group							
Pre-test	3,79	1,12	4,03	1,11	2,5	1,47	104
Post-test	4,21	1,12	4,22	1,18	3,35	1,55	104
C.Group	3,62	1,26	3,91	1,21	2,71	1,54	104
t-test	- 2,71		-1,20		-4, 02		

Table16. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards F.

IV. Negative functional traits.

The means of the negative functional traits (table 17) were lower in the post-test phase of the experiment than in the pre-test phase and control group . The immorality trait 1,53 ($s= 0,98$) decreased more than uselessness 1,8 ($s= 1,14$) and outdated trait 1,83 ($s=1,08$) .

The treatment group t-test results for all the traits were entirely below the significant level set at 0.05.

	useless		out-dated		immoral		<i>N</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S</i>	
Exp.Group							
Pre-test	2,24	1,16	2,24	1,16	2,39	1, 61	104
Post-test	1,8	1,14	1,83	1,08	1,53	0,98	104
C.Group	2,41	1,28	2, 12	1,01	2, 63	1,48	104
t-test	-2,76		-2,76		-4, 66		

Table17. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards F.

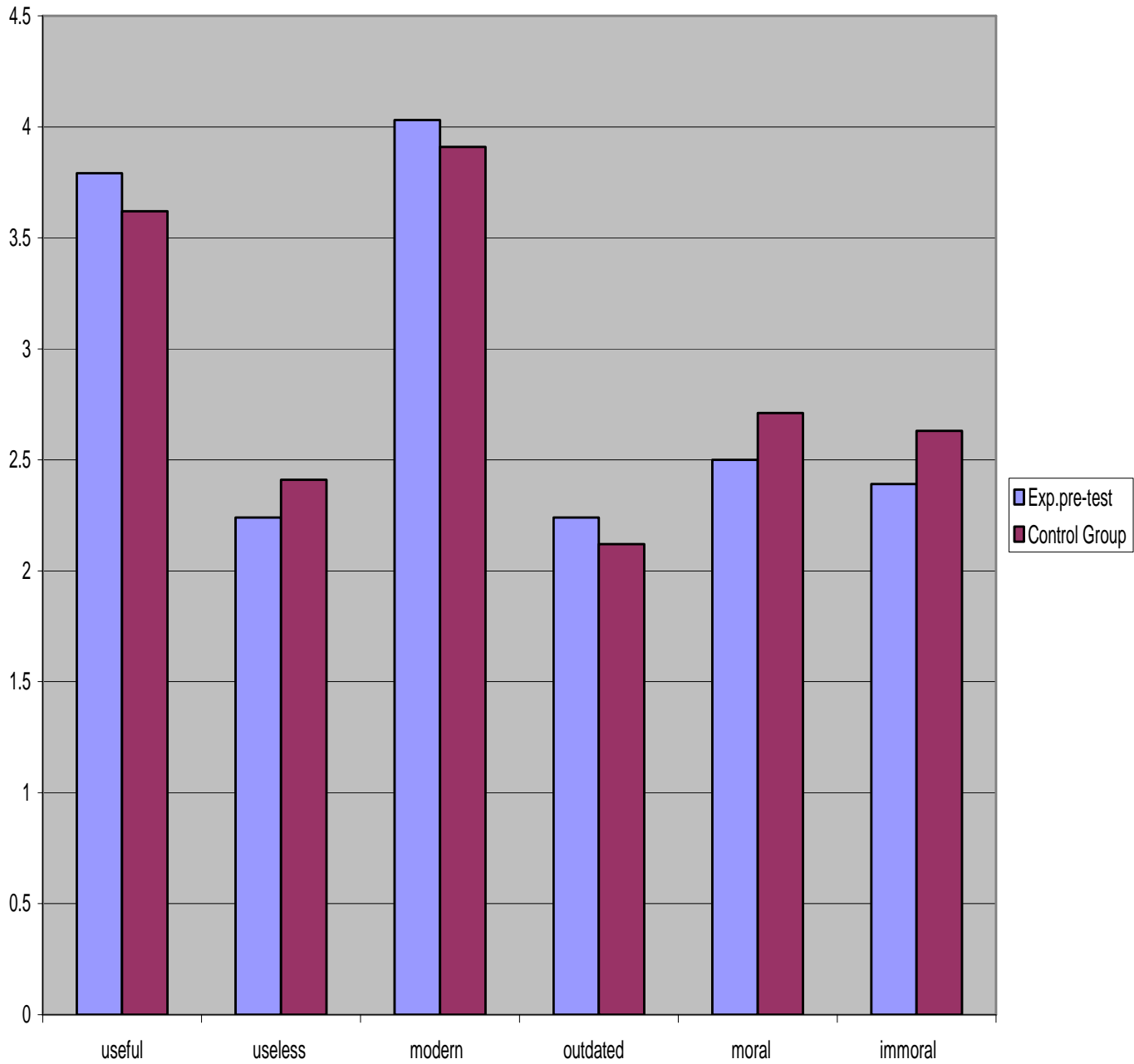


Figure 2/15. LA towards F in the pre-test stage.



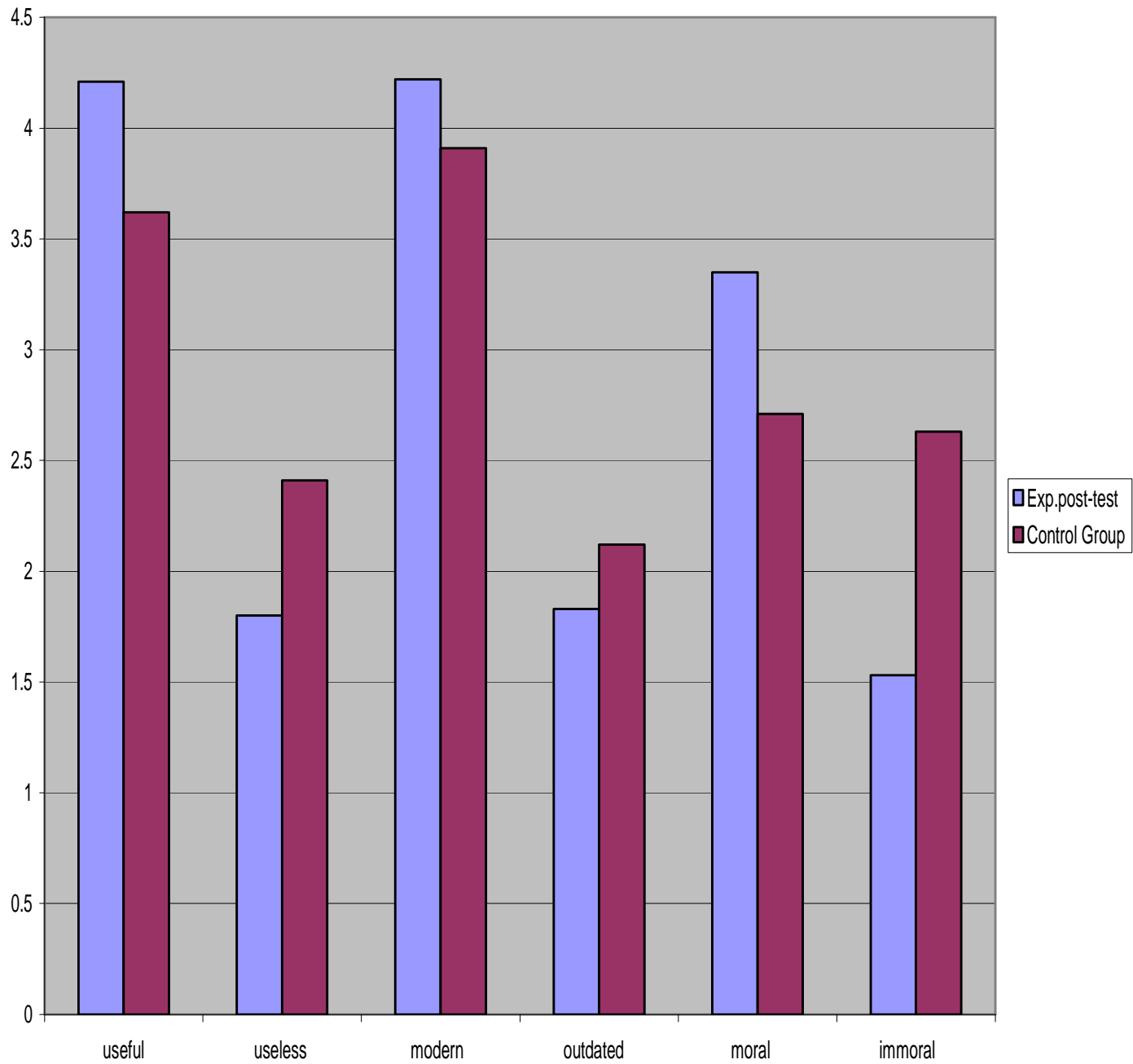


Figure 2/16. LA towards F in the post-test stage.

This section has presented the results obtained from this experiment. The next section will discuss these results in detail and point out the apparent patterns of language attitudes and their changes after the treatment. Comparison between the four languages attitudes will be made to have a clearer picture of the impact of the language attitudes and the impact the treatment had on them.

4.2 Discussion

Figure 3 and 4 show that LA towards the four languages (SA, AA, B and F) changed after the exposure to a written discourse that highlights the value of language diversity to human welfare. We can also notice the fluctuations in LA between the four languages. These LA fluctuations seem to echo the complex sociolinguistic situation in the research setting. The graphs reflect to some degree to the different *perceptions of prestige, functional divisions and easiness* associated with the these languages.

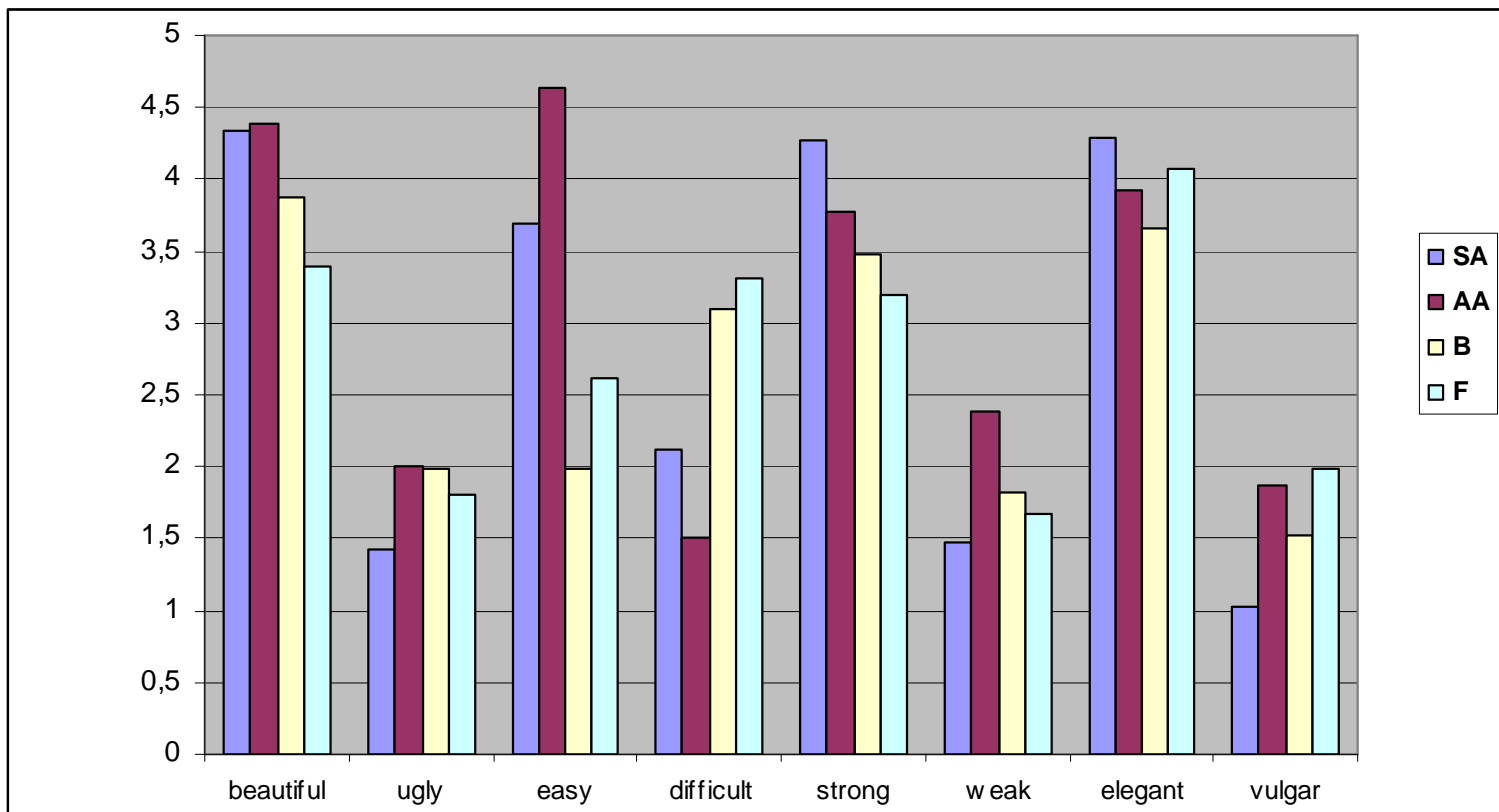


Figure 3. The experimental groups language attitudes after the treatment phase .

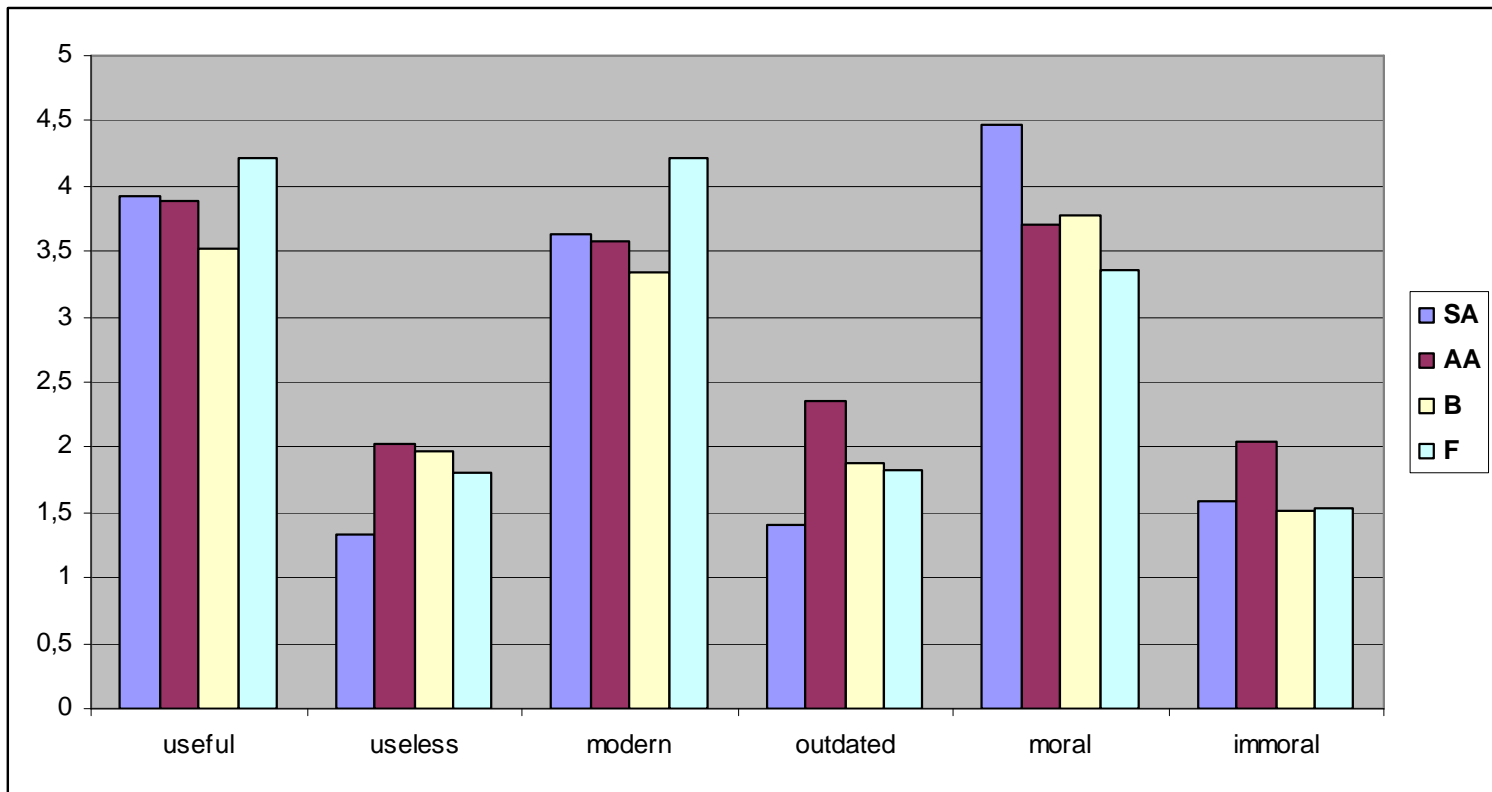


Figure 4. The experimental group language attitudes after the treatment phase .

4.2.1 Attitudes towards Standard Arabic

The post-test results indicate that the attitude towards SA changed. Negative traits decreased while positive ones increased (fig.5 and 6).

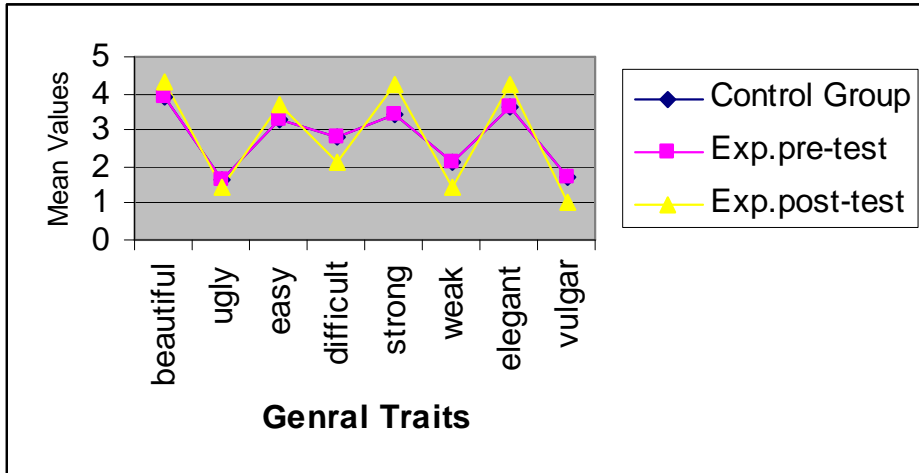


Figure5. Change of LA towards SA after exposure to written discourse favourable to language diversity.

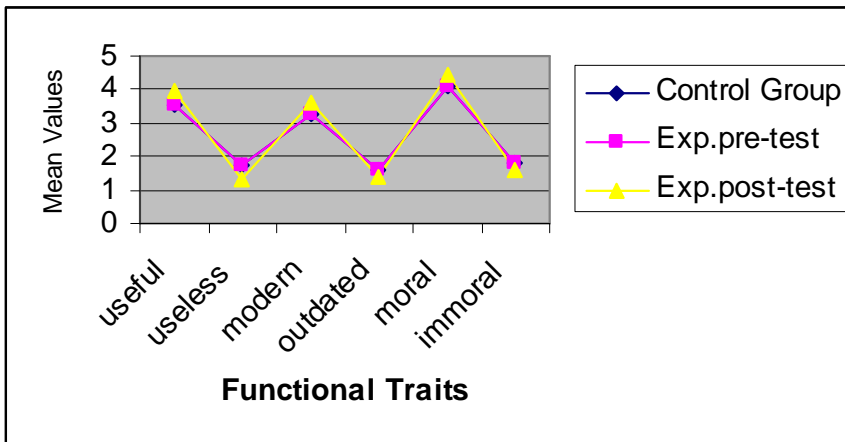


Figure 6. Change of LA towards SA after exposure to written discourse favourable to language diversity.

We can also notice that there is nothing such as a totally positive attitude towards SA or a completely negative attitude towards any of the other languages (fig.5 and 6). LA is a complex construct, indeed. However, what may enable us to label an attitude as positive or not is the magnitude of the positive traits in comparison to the negative ones.

As such, results suggest that SA language attitude was already positive and became more positive after the exposure to the literature supporting language diversity (fig. 5 and 6). The same observation can be made about the other languages (fig.3and 4).

The aesthetic ‘beautiful/ elegant’ traits clearly stood higher than all the other languages traits in the pre-test and control group and continued to do so after the treatment phase (fig.5). Obviously, the diglossic phenomenon (Ferguson, 1971) is functioning here.

However, we can see a difference in the ‘easiness’ trait ‘. It scored low in the pre-test and didn’t change dramatically in the post-test. This can be explained by the complex grammar of SA and its being learned formally at school and not at home as a mother tongue.

Very low in the pre-test, the ‘vulgarity’ and ‘immorality’ traits went lower in the post-test, in contrast to the ‘morality’ trait which was high and went higher (fig.5). This might be caused by the association with religion and the sacred scriptures associated with SA.

The results also show that the ‘modernity’ trait was high both in the pre-test and post-test phases of the experiment. This might be due to the power SA enjoys in the political and educational fields in Algeria. In 1962, and after much sacrifice against the French colonial power, Algeria got its independence and chose SA as its official language. Another possible explanation is the widespread use of SA in the media and the internet, not only in Algeria but also in the rest or the Arab World. The fact that brings us back to the functional divisions of language use in diglossia. Yet , results don’t support an absolute attitudinal division between a completely positive attitude towards SA

considered as the high variety and a completely negative attitude towards B and AA seen as low varieties (see fig.3 and 4).

The principal concern of this study was the change of LA after an exposure to literature supporting language diversity. A statistically significant change between the pre-test and post-test results (table1and 2) may suggest that such a change did happen for SA as well as for all the other languages as shown in the next sections. However, the findings also indicate that such a change was neither a dramatic nor a spectacular one. This can make us admit that language attitude is far from being a simple construct.

The next sections will discuss further the results of change in attitudes towards the other languages.

4.2.2 Attitudes towards Algerian Arabic

Here too, results indicate that the attitude towards AA changed. Negative traits decreased while positive one increased in the post-test phase of the experiment (fig.7and8)

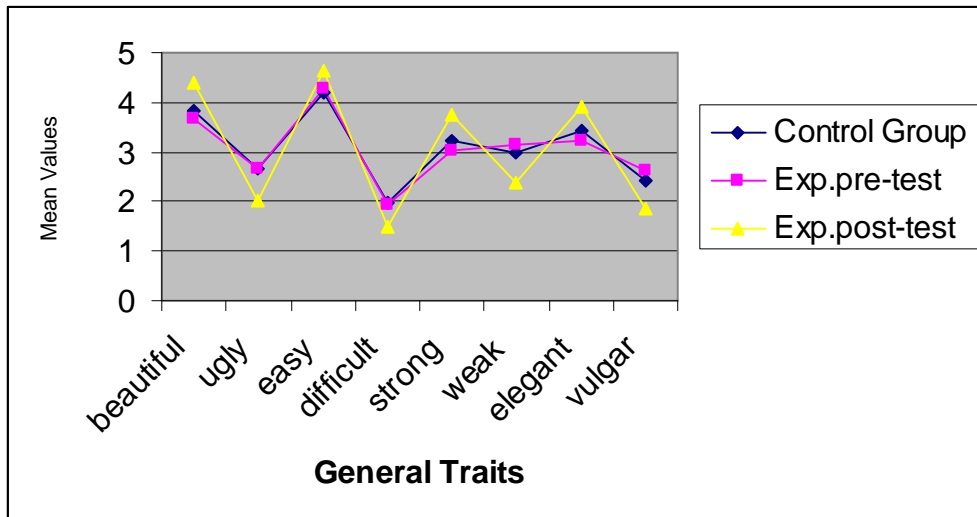


Figure7. Change of LA towards AA.

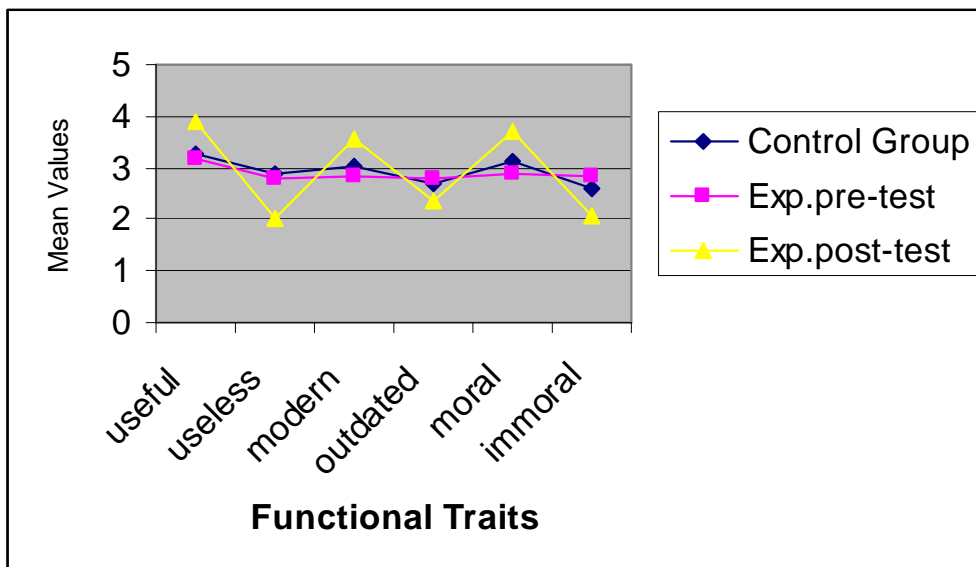


Figure 8. Change of LA towards AA.

As was expected because of the diglossic situation, AA language attitude was less positive than SA language attitude as shown in fig.3 and 4. The results, however, also demonstrate that the AA language attitude tended to be more positive than negative in the pre-test phase and continued to be so after the exposure to a written discourse favourable to language diversity (fig. 7 and 8).

This might suggest that the clear functional distinction between the high variety (SA) and the low one (AA) in linguistic practices is not exactly echoed in the attitudinal domain.

For example, the AA 'easiness' trait maintained its positions as the highest trait both across all the stages of the experiment (fig. 7 and 8) and across all the traits of the four languages (fig. 3 and 4).

Furthermore, it could be understood that the AA 'easiness' trait scored very high after being already high in the pre-test since it is the mother tongue of the majority of the participants and its grammar is far simpler than the SA. Nevertheless, the high score of AA 'beauty' and 'elegance' traits in both the pre-test and post-tests phases (fig. 7) might seem somehow inconsistent with the diglossic explanation which, paradoxically, fit perfectly to explain the fact that AA is seen as uglier than SA in the two stages of the experiment (fig.3). The same diglossic explanation can also successfully account for the reason why AA is seen as more vulgar than SA across the experiment stages. Swearing and taboo words are exclusively reserved for AA.

As for all the other traits, AA 'usefulness' trait also increased significantly (fig.8). Incorporating the idea that all languages are important for humanity by making

the analogy between biological diversity and linguistic diversity might have had an impact in that.

4.2.3 Attitudes towards Berber

The attitude towards B also changed. Positive traits scored higher and negative ones scored lower as it is shown in the post-test results (fig.9 and 10).

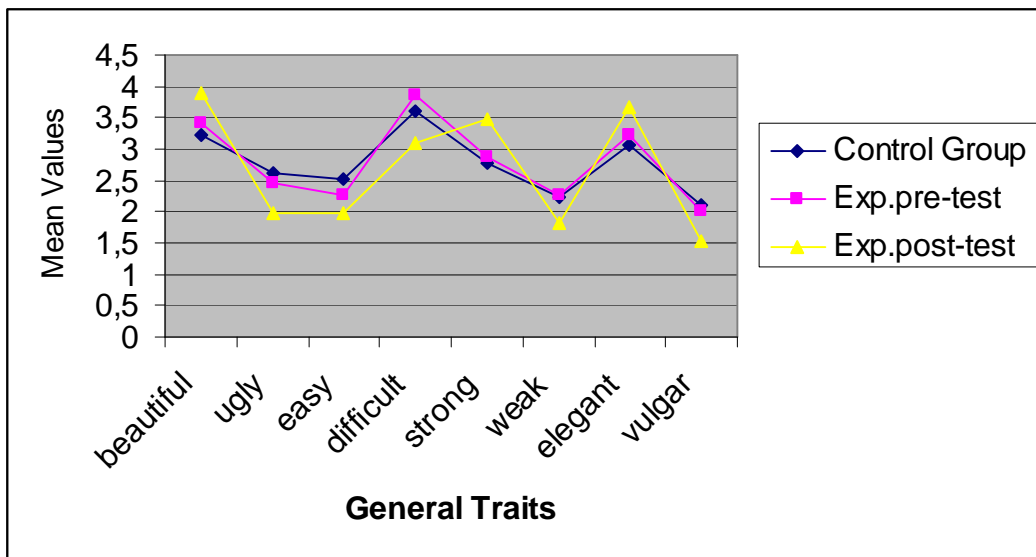


Figure 9. Change of LA towards B.

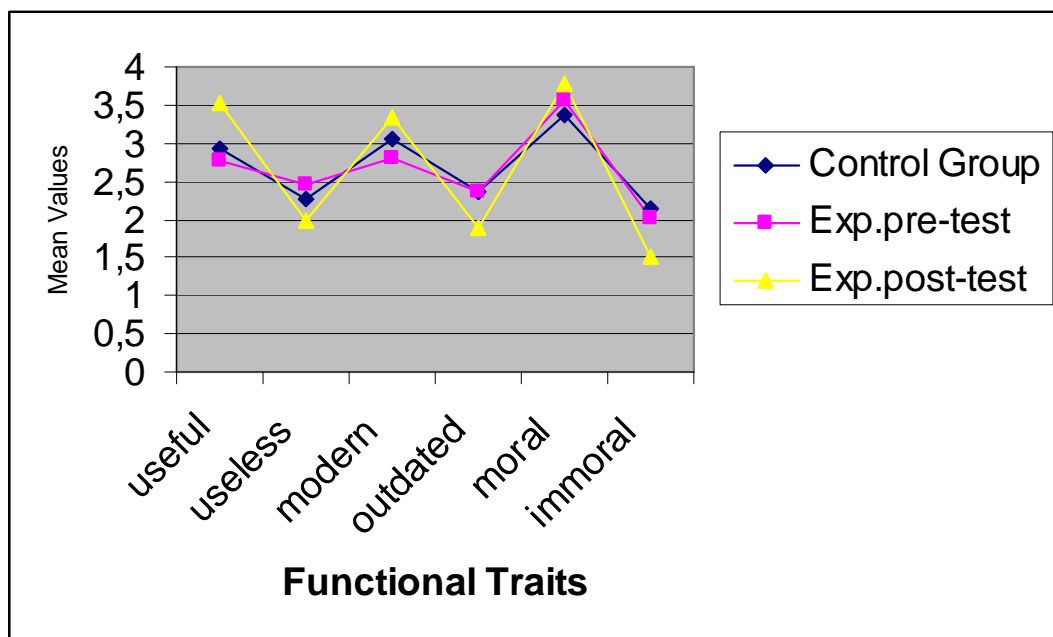


Figure 10. Change of LA towards B.

For example, Berber was perceived as more 'beautiful' and less ugly in the second stage of the experiment (fig.9). All the other traits followed the same pattern. The positive traits increased while the negative ones decreased.

However, it might be significant to notice that all the positive traits of Berber were already higher than the negative ones both in the control group and the pre-test group. We can conclude then that the LA towards B was already positive as a whole (fig.10 and 10).

This might be interesting because both B and AA used to trigger less positive attitudes than SA or F, as observed by many Algerian sociolinguistic researchers such as Benali Mohamed (2007:3) and Taleb-Ibrahimi (1995:108).

This positive change in LA towards B can be explained by the Tamazight revival movement in the Maghrib in general and in Morocco and Algeria in particular, culminating in recognizing B both as a national language and an integral part of the Algerian identity with Islam and Arabic dimensions in 2001.

The trait 'moral' also increased in the post-test. But we can notice that it was already higher than that of AA or even F (fig.4). These results, with the observation that the attitude towards the four languages changed positively to some degree after having been already positive in the pre-test phase, can imply that the ideas favourable to language diversity used in the experiment didn't encounter a great resistance to have a further positive impact.

4.2.4 Attitude towards French

After the treatment, LA towards F changed in the experimental group (fig.11 and 12). We can notice that negative traits decreased while the positive ones increased in comparison to the experimental group before treatment and the control group.

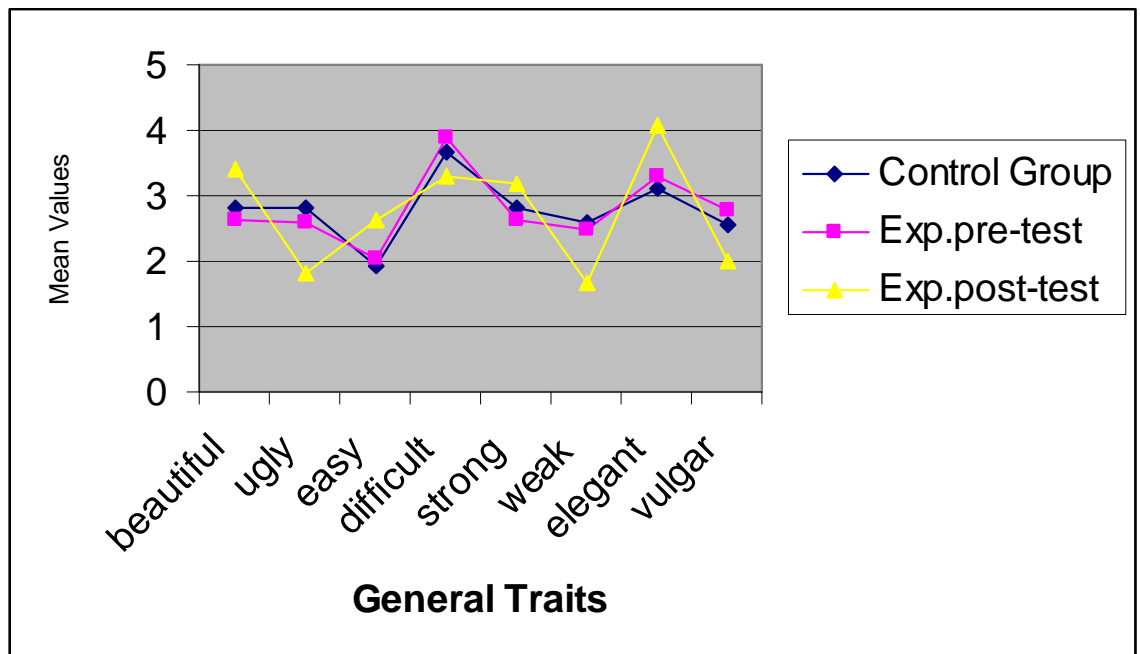


Figure 11. Change of LA towards F.

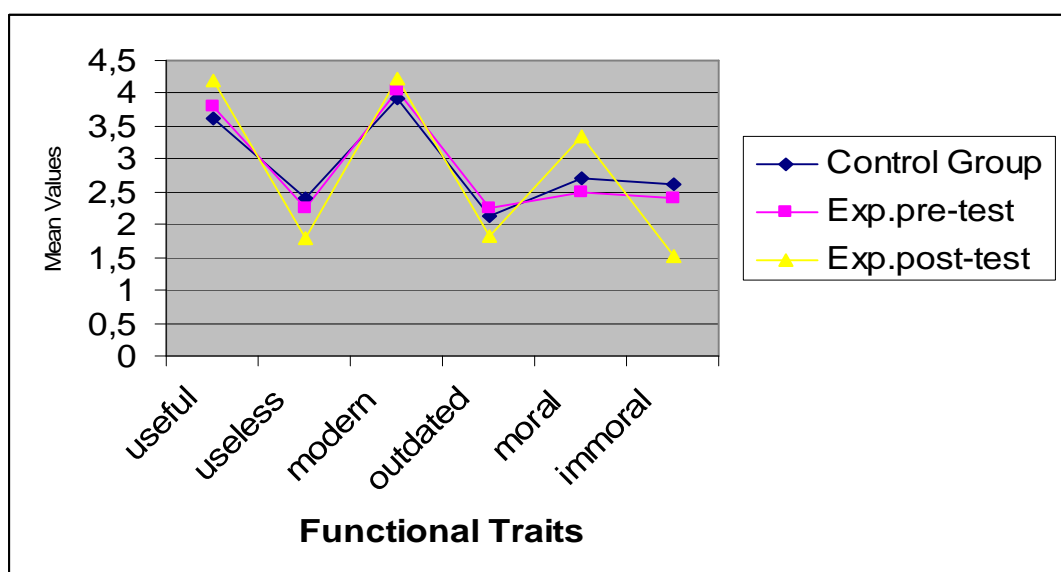


Figure 12. Change of LA towards F.

Noticeably, the ‘elegance’ trait scored higher than all the other traits. After being a prominent negative trait, ‘difficulty’ also went down. While the ‘easiness’ trait went up (fig.11).

The high association between F and the traits of ‘usefulness’ and ‘modernity’ both before and after the treatment may imply a positive attitude towards this language. However, seeing it as very ‘difficult’, in contrast to the other languages (fig.3), may suggest that the ambivalent attitude towards French observed by many researchers such as Benali-Mohamed (2007) still exists in spite of the weight it has in the educational and economic fields. Yet, results suggest that the attitude towards French was generally more positive than negative both before and after the experiment (fig.11 and 12).

The similar conclusion can be drawn for the four languages as a whole (fig.3 and 4). The discourse favourable to language diversity had an impact on the language attitudes towards these languages. Negative traits scored lower while the positive traits scored higher in the experimental group post-test in comparison to both the pre-test and the control group.

However, we can also notice one exception for the above conclusion. The ‘easiness’ trait for B seems to remain unchanged. This may be explained by the fact that Berber is still not having the same positions that SA and F have in the educational and media fields in spite of recognising it as a national Language in 2001.

Another observation is that the diglossic phenomenon (Fergusson, 1971) is also confirmed by the fact that the high variety (SA) had a more positive attitude than the low

variety (AA). This trend persisted even after the significant attitude change following exposure to literature favourable to language diversity (fig.3 and 4).

Yet, we can also notice that the ‘easiness’ trait of AA scored higher than SA both in the pre-test and post-tests phases, even higher than the SA’s ‘beauty’ trait (fig.3). One can be hesitant to infer that this finding is inconsistent with the diglossic explanation, but the results might suggest that.

After this discussion of the findings obtained by this quasi- experiment for each language, a summary of the main results related to whether the research aims were met or not will be given in the general conclusion of this work.

Chapter Five:

Language Attitude Change and the Variables of Gender

This chapter focuses on the gender variables and their impact on the experiment results. It examines the data in order to point out some particular patterns or differences in the answers of the male and female participants. It aims at answering the following questions:

- To what extent did the gender variable affect differences of LA in this research?
- What are the plausible explanations for such differences?

As mentioned in the methodological part, complete control of variables is easier in laboratories than in social settings. While true experiments are carried out in laboratories, quasi- experiments are still valid research methods more suitable to social settings (see chapter 3). The uneven allocation of males and females makes this research a quasi- experiment and not a true one. Although, this uneven number distribution could account for some results, it could not explicate many others as we shall see in details. This might support our choice of the quasi-experiment as a valid research tool widely used in social sciences. The main patterns revealed by our findings were:

- 1- Females' rating for all the traits was higher than that of the males.
- 2- LA was already more positive than negative in the pre-test phase for SA, AA, B and F.
- 3- Both participants, nevertheless, hold some negative LA.
- 4- Females had more positive LA towards prestigious languages such as SA and F than males.
- 5- Negative LA diminished relatively more in males than in females at the post-test.

6- Positive qualities went higher while negative ones went lower for both genders after the exposure to the written discourse favourable to multilingualism.

If the factor number (64 females versus 40 males) could explain the observed pattern number 1, it couldn't account for the other ones. Only sociolinguistics seems to provide clues for their understanding. The next section presents LA results for each language according to the variables of gender. In addition to the graphs, the results are displayed in tables which contain the mean values for each trait. The mean values are obtained by adding up all the numbers assigned for a given trait and then dividing them by the total number of the female/male participants.

5.1 Attitudes towards Standard Arabic

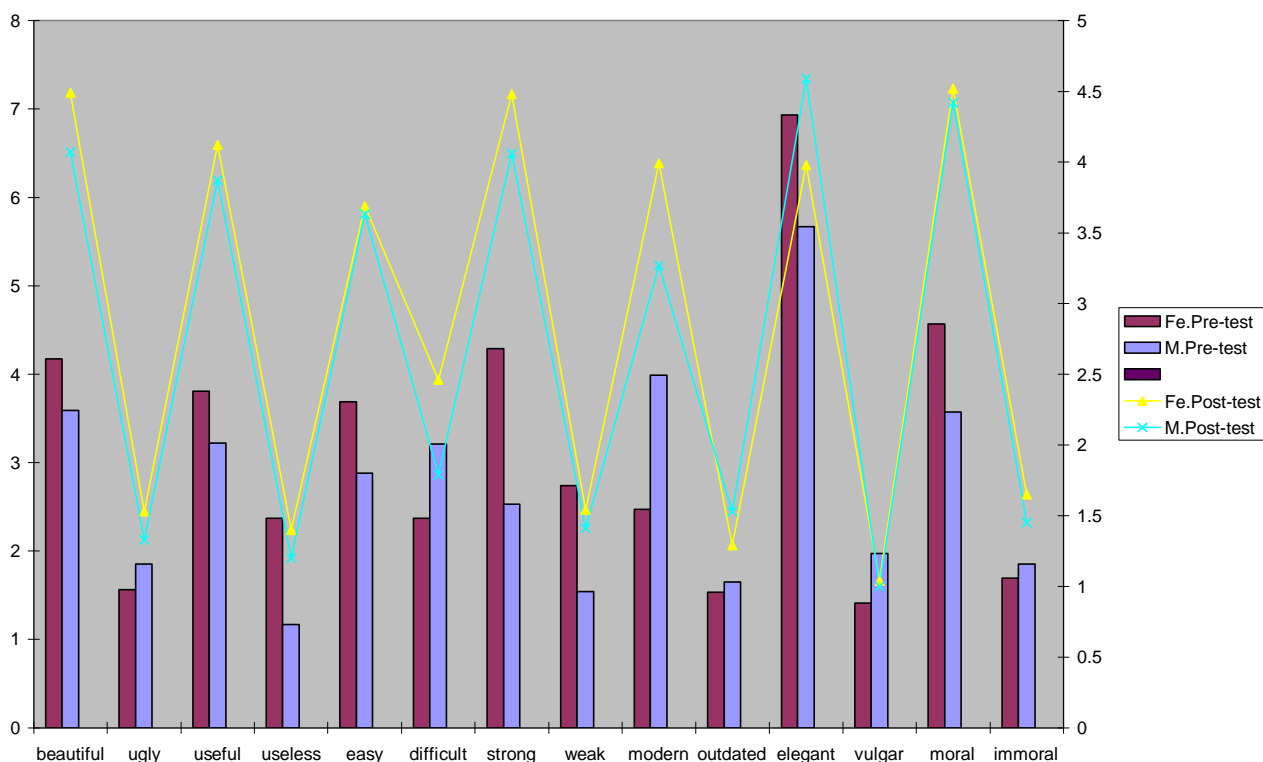


Figure13. Change of LA towards SA. Fe= females' results. M= males' results.

Discovering the social aspect of languages, sociolinguists were the first scientists who emphasised that languages have more aspects than just their structural syntactic and lexical systems. Results for the ‘beauty’ trait (table 18), for example, cannot be explained except by referring to sociolinguistic aspects that characterise languages.

	Beautiful	Ugly	Useful	Useless	Easy	Difficult	Strong	Weak	Modern	Outdated	Elegant	Vulgar	Moral	Immoral
Females' LA Pre-test	4,17	1,56	3,81	2,37	3,69	2,37	4,29	2,74	2,47	1,53	6,93	1,41	4,57	1,69
Males' LA Pre-test	3,59	1,85	3,22	1,17	2,88	3,21	2,53	1,54	3,99	1,65	5,67	1,97	3,57	1,85
Females' LA Post-test	4,49	1,53	4,12	1,4	3,75	2,46	4,48	1,54	3,99	1,29	3,98	1,04	4,52	1,65
Males' LA Post-test	4,07	1,33	3,87	1,2	3,57	1,79	4,06	1,41	3,27	1,53	4,59	1	4,42	1,45

Table18. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards SA.

Although SA is seen as more beautiful than ugly by both genders (table18) , this same language with its syntax and lexis is aesthetically perceived differently by females(4,17) and males (3,59) . SA is also perceived as more beautiful than the other languages at hand (see tables 19, 20, 21). This may indicate the powerful influence social norms might have on the perception of the speakers towards their languages in multilingual settings.

	Beautiful	Ugly	Useful	Useless	Easy	Difficult	Strong	Weak	Modern	Outdated	Elegant	Vulgar	Moral	Immoral
Females' LA Pre-test	4,01	2,35	3,37	2,34	4,5	1,65	3,45	2,87	3,01	2,68	3,57	2,18	3,28	2,15
Males' LA Prêt-test	3,31	2,97	2,93	3,23	3,9	2,19	2,61	3,45	2,55	2,95	2,85	3,19	2,27	3,57
Females' LA Post-test	4,015	2,375	3,79	2,29	4,5	1,65	4,12	2,57	3,95	2,57	4,07	2,39	3,85	1,83
Males' LA Post-test	4,95	1,4	3,99	3,01	4,875	1,35	3,43	2,09	3,22	2,77	3,77	1,35	3,57	3,37

Table19. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards A A.

	Beautiful	Ugly	Useful	Useless	Easy	Difficult	Strong	Weak	Modern	Outdated	Elegant	Vulgar	Moral	Immoral
Females' LA Pre-test	3,93	2,36	3,26	2,25	2,49	3,67	3,42	2,31	2,95	2,19	3,25	2,14	3,64	2,41
Males' LA Pre-test	2,87	2,54	2,26	2,65	2,03	4,05	2,31	2,25	2,65	2,51	3,19	1,9	3,5	1,65
Females' LA Post-test	4,11	2,09	3,75	2,13	2,53	3,15	3,81	2,1	3,41	1,95	3,45	2,06	3,86	1,89
Males' LA Post-test	3,65	1,89	3,31	1,81	1,45	3,05	3,15	1,55	3,27	1,81	3,87	1	3,7	1,17

Table20. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards B.

	Beautiful	Ugly	Useful	Useless	Easy	Difficult	Strong	Weak	Modern	Outdated	Elegant	Vulgar	Moral	Immoral
Males' LA Post-test	3,62	2,04	4,47	1,84	2,68	4,35	3,37	1,57	4,22	1,68	3,87	1,91	3,85	2
Females' LA Pre-test	2,98	1,79	3,86	2	2,23	2,95	2,84	1,87	4,07	2,01	3,81	2,2	2,73	1,56
Males' LA Pre-test	2,27	3,25	3,73	2,43	1,87	4,83	2,44	3,07	3,99	2,47	2,82	3,36	2,27	3,22
Females' LA Post-test	3,17	1,57	3,96	1,83	2,57	2,27	3,01	1,79	4,23	1,98	4,27	2,07	3,15	1,06

Table 21. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards F.

What can explain the clear high rating for this positive trait by females more than males is the females' preference for standard forms as observed by Wodak and Gertraude (1998) in their literature review on Sociolinguistic research on gender as a variable affecting language variation .

The fact that SA is seen as more beautiful than the other languages might be accounted for by the diglossic sociolinguistic situation in Algeria. SA is the high variety while AA and B are considered the low varieties. French is also perceived as a prestigious language, but the gradual decline of its mastery and use in Algeria makes it have the status of a foreign language.

For SA 'easy' trait , we can see that the females' results were higher than the males' in both phases of the experiment .The females' rating of the 'easy' trait went up from 3,69 to 3,75 in the post-test while the males' increased from 2,88 to 3,57 .

With sixty four female participants and fifty four males, the number factor can in no way be ignored. Therefore, it won't be repeated for this trend when encountered in other results. Focus will be given to other factors especially when the results contradict the outcomes of that effect.

SA is a formal subject at school where it is learned and not acquired as a mother tongue. The Algerian educational system allocates great importance to the teaching of SA in primary, secondary and even higher education. In recent years, the media have incessantly reported the higher success of females over males at school (Sadki, 2012).

Along with the outnumbering the males participants, this females' school success may have contributed to viewing SA as easier than the males because SA is a learned language and not an acquired one.

Nevertheless, both the number factor and the success one cannot explain the shift in the males' attitude in the second phase of the experiment. The males' score increased from 2,88 to 3,57, nearly the same as that of females (3,57). This positive change in LA, particularly for the males, could be explained by the impact that exposure to favourable ideas on multilingualism had on their LA.

Embedding the attitudes' needs (Katz, 1960) in the ideas that participants were exposed to might have created a state of cognitive dissonance that helped the positive shift in their LA.

Cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) is the psychological discomfort that we experience when we have two conflicting beliefs. We generally tend to eliminate such discomfort either by creating a harmony between the two conflicting beliefs or by changing our behaviour to be consistent with the belief we have. For example, if some one believes that lying is bad and at the same time lies, he is likely to experience a psychological discomfort in the form of guilt feelings. He probably will try to regain balance by eliminating this inconsistency. Therefore, he either may choose to believe that it is just a 'white lie' and there is no harm in it, or he will avoid the behaviour of lying altogether. This is because human beings tend to be consistent in their beliefs, and any inconsistency creates that state of cognitive dissonance.

Having read a text communicating ideas favourable to multilingualism, the participants might have experienced a state of cognitive dissonance between their favourable and unfavourable beliefs about languages. Their positive change in LA could be the consequence of trying to eliminate that inconsistency between beliefs to regain the natural balance.

The rating of the 'strong' trait (table 18) changed in the post-test for both genders. Females score went up from 4,29 to 4,48 while the males' from 2,53 to 4,06 . The tendency to see a prestigious language in a diglossic situation as stronger than weak might explain this high rating of SA in the two phases of the experiment by both genders .Strength is an aspect of SA prestige.

However, we can notice that the boys' scores were lower than of the girls. Sociolinguistic findings report that stigmatised language forms also have their own 'covert' prestige that appeal to males more than females as mentioned by Labov (1969) and Trudgill (1974).

What is important is the rise of the males' score to 4, 06 in the post-test, nearly the same as that of the females. This might, therefore, confirm that attitudes are changeable to some extent.

Concerning the 'elegant' trait, the females' rating and even the males' was higher than all other traits in both tests (see table18). 'Elegance' and 'beauty' are aesthetic aspects. Their results may indicate the powerful influence social norms exert on the perception of the speakers. 'Elegance' is something that pertains to form while 'beauty' can have internal as well as external features. The reason

behind rating 'elegance' higher than all the positive traits of the other languages, altogether with SA beauty itself, might be the high exposure to literary 'elegant forms' in media and education. The amount of SA poetry, for example, exceeds that of AA, F and B in educational material, drama and newspapers.

Language elegance appears in its literary forms such as poetry and writing genres. Unlike SA, AA's elegant forms are rarely published because of the diglossic factor. For both F and B, the degree of their mastery might have hindered the capacity of the participants to appreciate their aesthetic aspects and therefore the results of their rating.

Language pragmatic appeals such as opportunities to get a job, social promotion and status is what defines its usefulness. Table 18 shows clearly that SA is perceived as highly 'useful' for both genders in the pre-test.

The small difference between this trait's scores and the other positive ones suggests that the LA is very positive. This seems in logical accord with the social functions of SA in the Algerian society.

Gradually after the independence, with its choice as the official language in Algeria, SA has become a prerequisite to professional promotion. It is also the language of education and media. No wonder in the high rating of SA positive traits by the both categories of participants when we consider the fact that not knowing SA is a real handicap for any person wanting social promotion in Algeria. This also can explain the easiness by which these positive traits got even higher in the post-test after exposure to ideas accentuating the importance of languages (see fig.13).

The 'modern' trait changed for both genders, it was 2, 47 for females and 3,99 for males. It became 3, 99 and 3, 27. We can notice, however, that the females' means were lower than the males' in the first stage (table 18). Comparing SA to F may provide a clue to explain this. Indeed, many Algerian sociolinguists and scholars such as Taleb-Ibrahimi (1995) observed that F was more equated with modernity than SA.

Nonetheless, even this trait did change in the post-test (table 18). SA came to be seen as more modern by the females, confirming the hypothesis and achieving the aim of this experiment.

'Moral' is related to the social norms of right and wrong that govern the individuals' behaviour in a given society. Knowing that, for most societies, these norms are usually drawn from religions, no wonder that females and males rated SA as more 'moral' than 'immoral' in both phases of the experiment (table 18).

In Algeria, SA has the exclusive religious functions such as preaching and giving sermons in the media. This is what can explain both the high score of this trait in comparison to the other languages and also the easiness with which the score had augmented in the second phase of the experiment.

Nevertheless, as already pointed out, LA is such a complex construct that there is no such a thing as a completely positive or negative LA. It is rather the strong tendency to be more or less positive that can permit to sort out the type of LA towards a given language.

Both genders' score for SA 'ugly' trait seems to confirm this observation (table 18). Therefore, there are residuals of negative LA towards SA in spite of the overall favourable stance towards it.

The research's setting being part of Algeria where a 'mild' state of language conflict exists may explain these unfavourable LA residuals towards SA. Many Algerian scholars and sociolinguists have pointed out that situation of language conflict in Algeria, though they didn't sometimes call it so (see chapter 1). What may permit us to qualify it as 'mild ' is the fact that it is not as acute as to lead to civil wars as in some other regions in the world . Sociolinguistics, on the other hand, informs us that negative LA is an active ingredient in language conflict.

On the other hand, what fuel language conflict are the negative attitudes rather the positive ones. Accordingly, our results showed SA was seen as ugly by females 1,56 and males 1,85. The research's hypothesis moved towards confirmation by females' score dropping to 1,53 and males' to 1,33. This might be of interest to language management aiming at attenuating language conflicts.

The 'difficult' trait scored higher than the other negative ones. This is probably due to the fact that SA is learned via schools and not acquired as a mother tongue. Mother tongues are generally seen as easier than languages learned formally. Compared to SA, AA's rating for both the 'easy/difficult 'traits may confirm this (table 19).

Because of this observed attitude ambivalence, we can assume that the social norms that assign 'beauty' to a given language are not affected by how

difficult it might be. Although a language might be seen as difficult, this doesn't alter perceiving it more beautiful than other languages.

The interesting outcome here was the change of males' attitude. While the females' score for 'difficult' nearly remained the same in post-test, the males' one dropped from 3, 21 to 1, 79. The theory of cognitive dissonance, mentioned above, can account for this change. This suggests that shift in attitude can alter the perception of whether a language is easy or difficult to some extent.

The means' change of the t 'weak' trait suggests that the effect of exposure was more significant in females than the males (table 18). It decreased from 2,74 to 1,54 . However, this doesn't exclude that the attitude of males also changed. Scoring went down from 1,54 to 1,41 . Although the shift in females' attitudes for this trait was easier than that of males', both categories' results seem to confirm the hypothesis hitherto.

In both stages of the experiment, the two categories of participants rated the 'vulgar' trait lower than the other ones (table18). This might be explained by the fact that AA is exclusively reserved for 'vulgar' functions such as cursing. If you manage to get an Algerian person very angry to the point of swearing, he will certainly use AA and not SA. This latter is used for higher social functions such as teaching, preaching...etc. This is probably why this trait was rated low by both genders. What is significant to us is that the score decreased in the post-test, though not considerably because it was already low. For the other negative traits: 'useless', 'out-dated', 'immoral', the scores revealed nothing particular. All were rated low (table 18).

The results for SA, as well as for the other languages, suggest that the positive connotation on multilingualism expressed in the text of exposure made attitudes shift for all the languages at hand, reducing residual negative LA such as in the above ones.

5.2 Attitudes towards Algerian Arabic

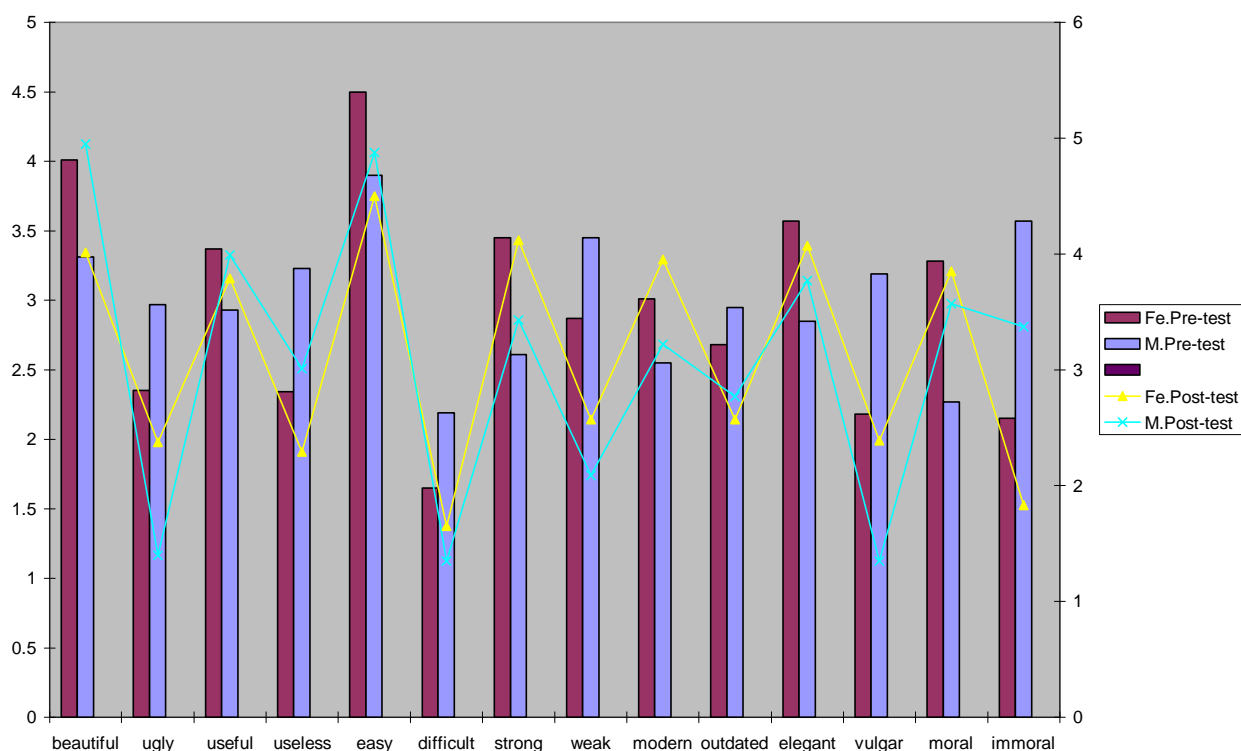


Figure14. Change of LA towards AA. Fe= females' results. M= males' results.

AA language attitude results resonate well with the diglossic functional division. All AA's positive traits scored lower than SA (see table 19). 'Beautiful' rating, however, seems problematic because it is not very far from that of SA (tables 18 & 19). This might imply that either the attitudinal division is not as sharp and total as that of the functional one or the diglossic situation is not as stable as it seems to be.

	Beautiful	Ugly	Useful	Useless	Easy	Difficult	Strong	Weak	Modern	Outdated	Elegant	Vulgar	Moral	Immoral
Females' LA Pre-test	4,01	2,35	3,37	2,34	4,5	1,65	3,45	2,87	3,01	2,68	3,57	2,18	3,28	2,15
Males' LA Prêt-test	3,31	2,97	2,93	3,23	3,9	2,19	2,61	3,45	2,55	2,95	2,85	3,19	2,27	3,57
Females' LA Post-test	4,015	2,375	3,79	2,29	4,5	1,65	4,12	2,57	3,95	2,57	4,07	2,39	3,85	1,83
Males' LA Post-test	4,95	1,4	3,99	3,01	4,875	1,35	3,43	2,09	3,22	2,77	3,77	1,35	3,57	3,37

Table19. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards A A.

Another explanation is that ‘stigmatised’ language forms do have ‘covert’ appeal and prestige of their own (Labov, 1969). This view is also endorsed by Trudgill (1974) and Holmes (1992). This ‘hidden prestige’ is more manifest in the males’ results than the females’. Males’ rating went up from 3, 31 to 4, 95. It was higher than that of females which barely changed from 4, 01 to 4,015.

Moreover, it might be the feature of stigmatised language forms that facilitated the increase in males appreciation of AA as ‘beautiful’ in the second phase more than females because of the preference of the latter for standard forms (Holmes, 1992).

Another trait rating that defies the diglossic division is the ‘easy’ one. This trait scored higher than SA altogether with the other languages (fig.14). The obvious reason for this is that AA is both the mother tongue and the language of daily communication of the participants. Therefore, no large difference can be observed in this quality for both genders in the pre-test (see table 18).

In the post-test, however, we can notice a bigger increase in males' rating than in that of females (table 19). This observation is also valid for the other two traits: 'elegant' and 'strong'. It might be the females' preference for standard forms, mentioned above, that can account for this difference.

This clear pattern persisted for all the remaining traits. Positive ones such as 'useful' and 'modern' increased higher in males' responses than in females' ones. Furthermore, negative traits such as 'ugly', 'difficult', 'weak', and 'vulgar' dropped lower for males than for females (see table 19), confirming what was observed about the females' preference for standard language forms. This, of course, doesn't exclude the slight change in females' attitude at the second stage of the experiment (table 19).

5.3 Attitudes towards Berber

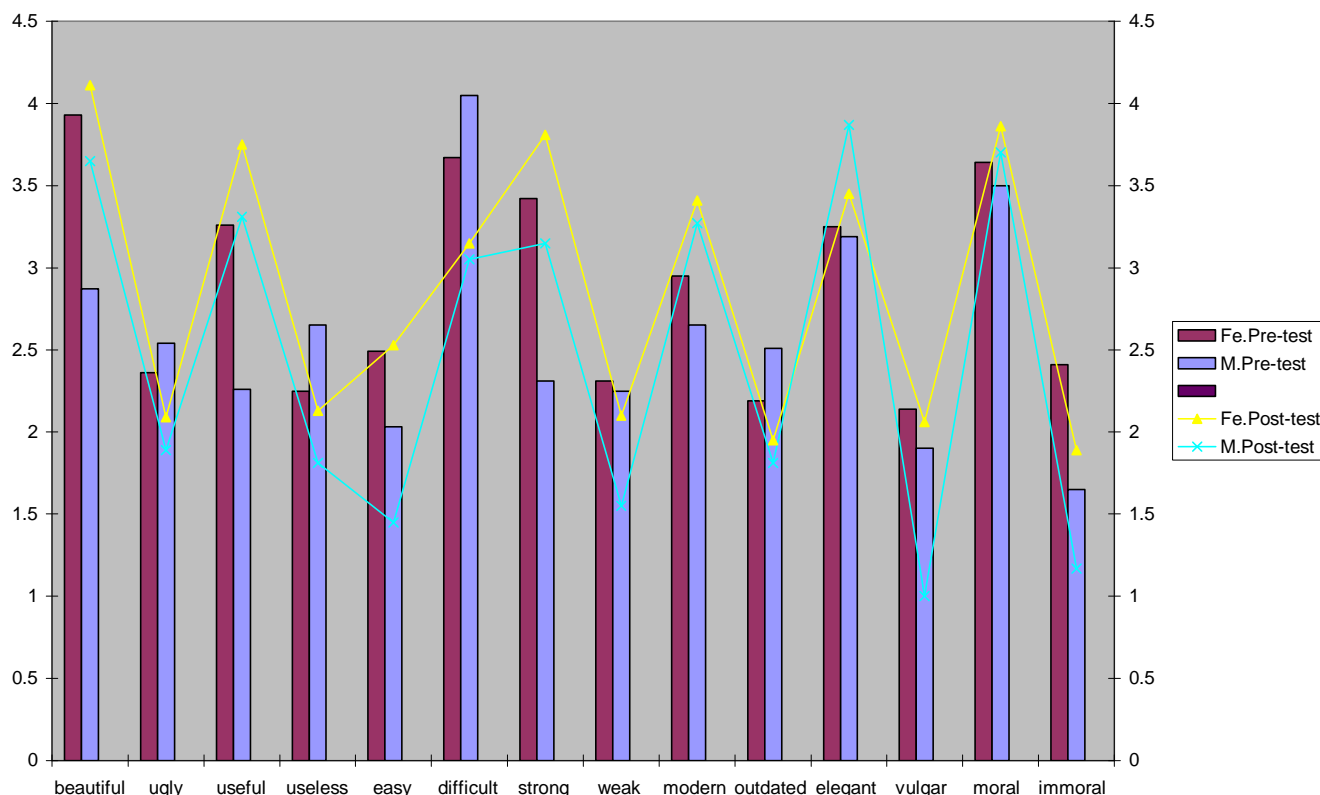


Figure15. Change of LA towards B. Fe= females’ results. M= males’ results.

Although table 20 shows that LA towards B is globally more positive than negative for both genders, there is a greater resemblance to AA’s LA than to that of SA (fig.14 & 13).

	Beautiful	Ugly	Useful	Useless	Easy	Difficult	Strong	Weak	Modern	Outdated	Elegant	Vulgar	Moral	Immoral
Females’ LA Pre-test	3,93	2,36	3,26	2,25	2,49	3,67	3,42	2,31	2,95	2,19	3,25	2,14	3,64	2,41
Males’ LA Pre-test	2,87	2,54	2,26	2,65	2,03	4,05	2,31	2,25	2,65	2,51	3,19	1,9	3,5	1,65
Females’ LA Post-test	4,11	2,09	3,75	2,13	2,53	3,15	3,81	2,1	3,41	1,95	3,45	2,06	3,86	1,89
Males’ LA Post-test	3,65	1,89	3,31	1,81	1,45	3,05	3,15	1,55	3,27	1,81	3,87	1	3,7	1,17

Table20. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards B.

This might suggest that the diglossic factor is still at work in spite of the recent recognition of B as a national language in the Algerian constitution. On the other hand, being a national language definitely enhances the prestige of a language. This is what may explain the high rating of B positive traits such as 'beautiful', 'elegant' and 'strong' in comparison to F (see tables 20 & 21).

After the exposure to the written discourse favourable to multilingualism, the same trend was obtained with the positive qualities increasing and the negative traits decreasing. Similarly to the other languages, females rating, here too, were higher than that of the males because of the effect of the number factor.

Nevertheless, it was the females LA that shifted this time more than that of the males (table 20). 'Beautiful', for example, went up from 3, 93 to 4, 11. The possible explanation of this new trend might be the same cause mentioned before. Since females tend to prefer prestigious language forms, the increase in positive LA was easier for them.

The 'easy' trait also went up for both genders but not significantly. This is probably due to the limited number of the Berber speaking participants in this experiment as well as the non generalised teaching of B in schools in the research setting. This might also account for the high rating of the 'difficult' trait (table 20).

All the negative traits, however, dropped in the second stage of the experiment. Human beings tend to be consistent in their thinking (Festinger, 1957). Since both genders had already a favourable stance towards B, it was not difficult to move further in that direction.

5.4 Attitudes Towards French

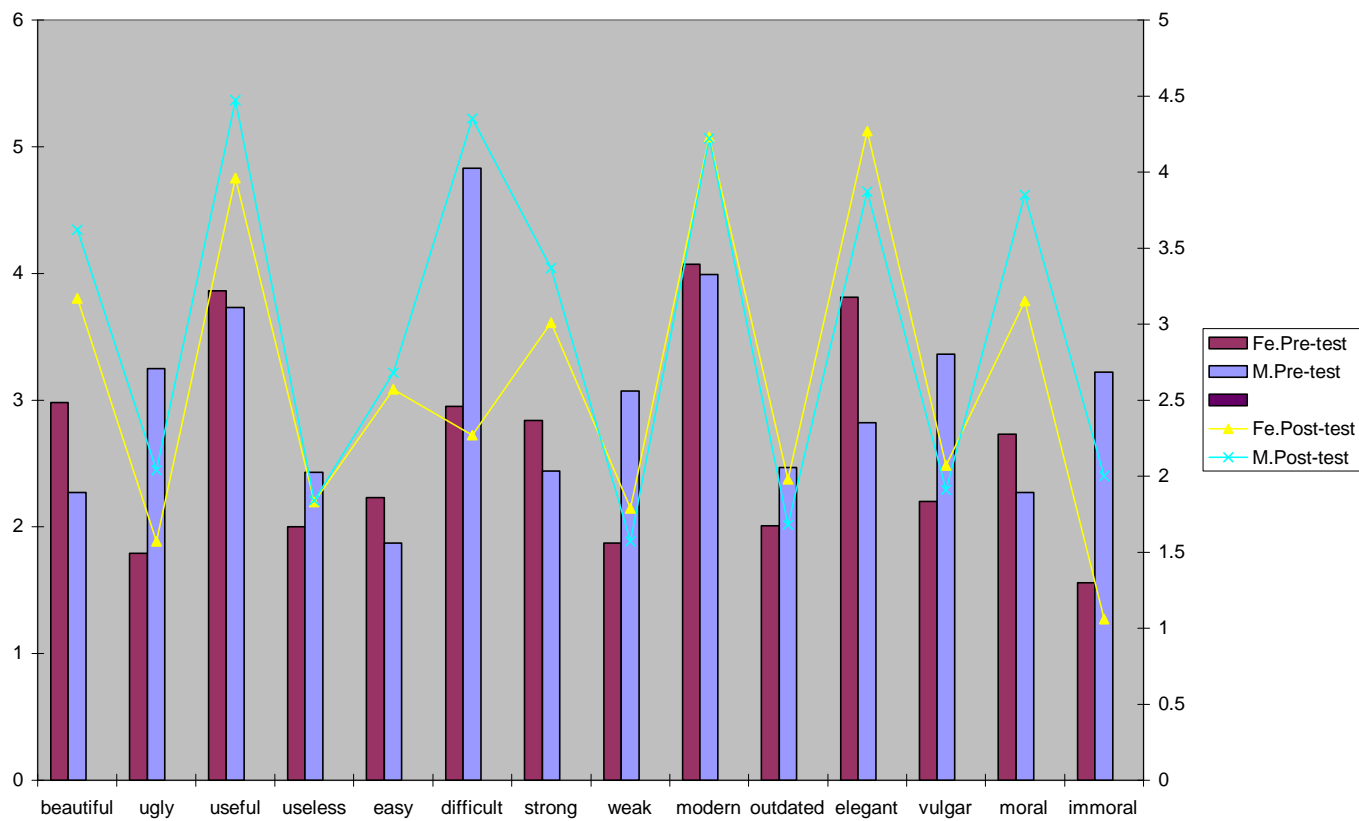


Figure 16. Change of LA towards F. Fe= females' results. M= males' results.

Table 21 depicts that the two categories of participants have a favourable LA towards F both in the pre-test and post-test. Results, however, also reveal some interesting patterns.

Females saw F as 'beautiful' and 'elegant' more than males did (table 21). Besides both participants consider F highly 'useful' and 'modern' in comparison to AA and B (table 19 & 21). On the other hand, negative traits such as 'useless' and 'immoral' are also relatively higher than those of SA, especially for the males (table 18 & 21).

	Beautiful	Ugly	Useful	Useless	Easy	Difficult	Strong	Weak	Modern	Outdated	Elegant	Vulgar	Moral	Immoral
Females' LA Pre-test	2,98	1,79	3,86	2	2,23	2,95	2,84	1,87	4,07	2,01	3,81	2,2	2,73	1,56
Males' LA Pre-test	2,27	3,25	3,73	2,43	1,87	4,83	2,44	3,07	3,99	2,47	2,82	3,36	2,27	3,22
Females' LA Post-test	3,17	1,57	3,96	1,83	2,57	2,27	3,01	1,79	4,23	1,98	4,27	2,07	3,15	1,06
Males' LA Post-test	3,62	2,04	4,47	1,84	2,68	4,35	3,37	1,57	4,22	1,68	3,87	1,91	3,85	2

Table 21. Effect of exposure to written discourse favourable to multilingualism on LA towards F.

These results might corroborate with the already mentioned observation about the ambivalent attitude towards F (chapter 4). This latter seems to be both admired and hated at the same time. The possible cause for this could be the historical conjunctures related to this language in Algeria.

Soon after colonising Algeria in 1830, the French government practised in Algeria the same ruthless language policy used in France to eradicate non-standard 'patois' forms. SA, AA and B were relegated to second ranks while F was endorsed by all means for a century and a half till the independence of Algeria in 1962.

This language policy induced two effects. One was in accord with the power by which that policy was practiced while the other was in proportional contradictory direction and force.

The first effect was that F has made a strong impact on the Algerian society. To varying degrees, F words are still used in daily conversation, administrative matters, academic spheres, and even political arenas.

In spite of the Arabisation policy, some administrations still use F. Technical knowledge and terminology are also still employed through this language. A simple example is the names of the cars' parts which are exclusively in F. Moreover, not knowing F is a real difficulty in university settings, especially in medical sciences. While plenty of medical books and resources are available in F, they barely exist in CA, AA or B. For the media domain, many newspapers are published in F with jobs' ads in F and the like. This is what might explain the high rating of the 'useful' trait for this language (table 21).

With the era of the internet and cell phones, the need for a lingua franca to communicate with the outer world was felt. Many Algerians found F very useful for both knowledge transfer and getting access to the media content. In spite of the fact that English is the actual lingua franca of the world, French is still enjoying an important place, especially in the developed countries such as France , Belgium , Canada as well as in many countries in Africa and Asia . Therefore, the new informational technologies have strengthened the appeal of French as a 'useful' and 'modern' language (table 21).

The other trajectory was the strong affirmation of an authentic Algerian identity different from that of the French colonisers.

After seven years of a revolutionary war, Algeria got its independence and SA was chosen as the official language. Persistent efforts have been made in the Arabisation language policy with varying degrees of success. Yet, the above mentioned facts prove that F influence didn't completely disappear.

Our findings seem to demonstrate that LA towards F is proportional to its ambivalent situation in Algeria. Although , positive traits are rated higher than the negative ones , qualities such as ‘useless’ and ‘immoral’ are also relatively higher than that of SA , especially for males (table 18 & 21) .

The pattern of females’ rating for positive qualities higher than that of males’ was also obtained here (table 21). The explanations of the females’ preference for prestigious language forms might be applicable here too.

We can also note that the decrease of negative traits for the males seem encouraging for the confirmation of the hypothesis postulated in this research.

As a conclusion, we can notice that although the results may confirm the hypothesis postulated in this research, the change in LA was in no way radical or complete. In addition, results suggest that negative LA is changeable, provided that the attitudes needs are cared for (Katz, 1960). Another observation pertains to the population of this research who seem tolerant to language diversity. The evidence is both the initial LA which was more positive than negative and the non- strong resistance of shifting their negative LA to some extent. This language diversity tolerance may also account for the fact that the language conflict in Algeria is not as acute as in other regions of the world.

General Conclusion

Concerned by the role of negative language attitudes in maintaining language conflicts, this study aimed at identifying the changeability of language attitude in multilingual settings as a potential language management solution to language conflict problems.

The research objectives were to:

- Investigate the impact of exposure to ideas favourable to language diversity on LA.
- Assess the extent of change that the treatment of the cognitive component can make on LA.
- Evaluate the effectiveness of such procedure on decreasing negative language attitudes and enhancing positive ones.

A quasi- experiment was carried out to test the hypothesis that exposure to written discourse favourable to language diversity could lead to a positive change in LA.

Our findings support the confirmation of this hypothesis (see chapter four). The general outcome of the experiment showed a clear decrease in the negative attitudes and an increase in the positive ones for all of the four languages.

The post-test results suggest that the four languages were seen as more beautiful , easier , stronger and more elegant as well as less ugly , less difficult , less weak and less vulgar .

A more positive language attitude can also be inferred from the results increase in the 'usefulness', 'modernity' and 'morality' traits and the decrease in the 'useless', 'out-dated' and 'immoral' traits, associated with each of the four languages(chapter four).

All the positive traits went higher while the negative ones went lower after the experiment. The only exception was the 'easiness' trait of Be. It increased, but the raise was statistically insignificant because the difference was above the statistical level 0.05. Yet, we may assume that even this trait changed because Berber was seen as less 'difficult' after the treatment phase.

We may conclude, then, that the hypothesis was confirmed. Exposure to a rational written discourse favourable to language diversity can have a positive impact on LA for languages in contact. Some considerations, however, need to be taken into account.

First, the validity of this research cannot be automatically cancelled because it is a quasi-experiment. Although, it is true that a quasi-experiment is less valid than a true-experiment, no one –to my present knowledge- said that a quasi-experiment is totally invalid. On the contrary, true and quasi-experiments share all the features of experimental design, except one: random assignments of subjects. To counter this methodological flaw, the researcher tried his best to include participants from different social groups. Moreover, the 208 participants were distributed evenly between the experimental groups. This research made us realise that the observation made by Geoffrey et al (2005) is very pertinent. Indeed, random assignment in natural settings is not as easy as in laboratory situations. Therefore, detailed

description of the experiment procedures was given in the methodological chapter so as to ease subsequent replications of this study to test its validity furthermore.

On the other hand, the positive change of LA obtained in this experiment might also confirm Katz's suggestion of matching the LA change procedures to the LA functions (Katz,1960). These functions were taken into consideration in the designing of the text containing ideas favourable to language diversity. However, the results also show that the change of language attitudes in this experiment was neither radical nor spectacular, though still statistically significant. Negative attitudes towards the four languages didn't totally disappear.

This may be explained by the sociolinguistic phenomenon of diglossia that characterises Arab countries (Ferguson, 1971). The existence of a high variety (SA) with more prestige and positive attitude than the low varieties (AA and B) was confirmed by many Algerian sociolinguists such as Bouamrane (1986) and Taleb-Ibrahimi (1995).

On the other hand , adopting the view of an extreme polarization of a high variety with a totally positive attitude and a low variety with a totally negative attitude cannot be supported by this research findings . Our findings showed that the attitudes towards the low varieties , though less positive than the high variety , were all more positive than negative for all the traits being measured. This might mean that Al-Kahtany's suggestion (1997) that there is still much to be done before we can have an exact and complete understanding of the diglossic phenomenon characterising the Arab World might also be valid for the Algerian sociolinguistic situation .

The limited scope of change in the post-test results proves also that the construct of LA attitude is a complex one and is far from being so simple that it can be changed with a text . More consideration for the political and socio-economic factors 'deep structures ' that influence the language attitudes and ideas 'supra structures', as postulated by Nelde (1998), seems to be necessary for any effective LA change .

Finally , the possible change of LA attitude shown by the findings of this research, though of limited scope, can encourage the incorporation of this LA change strategy in language management programmes to lessen the tensions of language conflicts , especially when the change of all conflict 'deep structures' is not possible .

Appendices

[Clicours.COM](https://www.clicours.com)

Questionnaire I – Standard Arabic

استبيان

Age/السن:

Gender/الجنس:

Occupation /المهنة:

Mother Tongue/اللغة الأم:

Q: Describe the image you have about the language below in terms of the following Adjectives: س1:صف الصورة الذهنية التي لديك عن اللغة الآتية من خلال :

الصفات التالية

SA= Strongly Agree اوافق تماما

A= Agree اوافق

N= Neither Agree nor Disagree لا اتفق ولا اختلف

D= Disagree اختلف

SD= Strongly Disagree اختلف تماما

I-Standard Arabic العربية الفصحى

	SA اوافق تماما	A اوافق	N لا اتفق ولا اختلف	D اختلف	SD اختلف تماما
1.Difficult صعبة					
2.Easy سهلة					
3.Beautiful جميلة					
4.ugly قبيحة					
5.useful مفيدة					
6.useless غير مفيدة					
7.weak ضعيفة					
8.strong قوية					
9.elegant انيقة					
10.vulgar منحطة					
11.modern عصرية					
12.oudated غير عصرية					
13.moral اخلاقية					
14.immoral غير اخلاقية					

Questionnaire II- Algerian Arabic

استبيان

Age/السن:

Gender/الجنس:

Occupation /المهنة:

Mother Tongue/اللغة الأم:

Q: Describe the image you have about the language below in terms of the following Adjectives: س1:صف الصورة الذهنية التي لديك عن اللغة الآتية من خلال :

الصفات التالية

SA= Strongly Agree اوافق تماما

A= Agree اوافق

N= Neither Agree nor Disagree لااتفق ولااختلف

D= Disagree اختلف

SD= Strongly Disagree اختلف تماما

العربية الدارجة الجزائرية II-Algerian Arabic

	SA اوافق تماما	A اوافق	N لا اتفق ولا اختلف	D اختلف	SD اختلف تماما
1.Difficult صعبة					
2.Easy سهلة					
3.Beautiful جميلة					
4.ugly قبيحة					
5.useful مفيدة					
6.useless غير مفيدة					
7.weak ضعيفة					
8.strong قوية					
9.elegant أنيقة					
10.vulgar منحطة					
11.modern عصرية					
12.oudated غير عصرية					
13.moral اخلاقية					
14.immoral غير اخلاقية					

Questionnaire III-Berber

استبيان

Age/السن:

Gender/الجنس:

Occupation /المهنة:

Mother Tongue/اللغة الأم:

Q: Describe the image you have about the language below in terms of the following Adjectives: س1:صف الصورة الذهنية التي لديك عن اللغة الآتية من خلال :

الصفات التالية

SA= Strongly Agree اوافق تماما

A= Agree اوافق

N= Neither Agree nor Disagree لا اتفق ولا اختلف

D= Disagree اختلف

SD= Strongly Disagree اختلف تماما

III- Berber تمازيغت

	SA اوافق تماما	A اوافق	N لا اتفق ولا اختلف	D اختلف	SD اختلف تماما
1.Difficult صعبة					
2.Easy سهلة					
3.Beautiful جميلة					
4.ugly قبيحة					
5.useful مفيدة					
6.useless غير مفيدة					
7.weak ضعيفة					
8.strong قوية					
9.elegant انيقة					
10.vulgar منحطة					
11.modern عصرية					
12.oudated غير عصرية					
13.moral اخلاقية					
14.immoral غير اخلاقية					

Questionnaire IV-French

استبيان

Age/السن:

Gender/الجنس:

Occupation /المهنة:

Mother Tongue/اللغة الأم:

Q: Describe the image you have about the language below in terms of the following Adjectives: س1:صف الصورة الذهنية التي لديك عن اللغة الآتية من خلال :

الصفات التالية

SA= Strongly Agree اوافق تماما

A= Agree اوافق

N= Neither Agree nor Disagree لا اتفق ولا اختلف

D= Disagree اختلف

SD= Strongly Disagree اختلف تماما

IV-French الفرنسية

	SA اوافق تماما	A اوافق	N لااتفق ولااختلف	D اختلف	SD اختلف تماما
1.Difficult صعبة					
2.Easy سهلة					
3.Beautiful جميلة					
4.ugly قبيحة					
5.useful مفيدة					
6.useless غير مفيدة					
7.weak ضعيفة					
8.strong قوية					
9.elegant انيقة					
10.vulgar منحطة					
11.modern عصرية					
12.oudated غير عصرية					
13.moral اخلاقية					
14.immoral غير اخلاقية					

Text used in the experimental treatment phase

The Importance of Language Diversity

It is a truism that with every plant or bird species that disappear from nature tragic consequences occur to biological equilibrium. Governments worldwide as well as international organisations, such as Green Peace, take special care to preserve this biological diversity which necessary for the welfare of humanity.

What is less known is that preserving world languages and the awareness of language diversity importance is also essential to humanity welfare.

International programmes such as Rosetta Stone Endangered Language Program¹ who took charge of this issue call the attention of the general public that just a small number of the 6500 world languages is actually used by more than 90 percent of the world population and that hundreds of languages are ‘seriously endangered’.²

The loss of this language diversity entails the loss of all the wealth of knowledge and ways of living and thinking embodied in these languages³.

On the other hand, the Koran tells us clearly that there is absolutely nothing wrong with the fact that there are different and various languages, On the contrary it is an evidence of the Almighty Creator’s greatness⁴.

1. www.rosettastone.com/global/endangered

2. *ibid*

3. *ibid*

4. “And among His Signs is the creation of the heavens and the earth, and the variations in your languages and your colours: verily in that are Signs for those who know.” (Ar-Room: 22) .Holy Koran.

Text used in the experimental treatment phase

أهمية التنوع اللغوي

من المعلوم أن انقراض أي فصيلة نباتية أو انقراض أي فصيلة نباتية أو حيوانية له عواقب وخيمة على التوازن البيئي وبالتالي على حياة الإنسان. لذلك تسعى المنظمات الحكومية وغير الحكومية، مثل السلام الأخضر، للمحافظة على هذا التنوع البيئي من أجل خير الإنسان

ولكن الوعي بأهمية التنوع الثقافي واللغوي لخير الإنسانية يبدو بدرجة أقل لذلك يسعى برنامج منظمة روزيتا ستون للغات المهددة بالانقراض¹ إلى دق ناقوس الخطر. إذ أن عددا قليلا فقط من 6500 لغة في العالم يستعمل من طرف 90% من البشر وان مئات من اللغات مهددة بالانقراض² إن ضياع هذا التنوع اللغوي يعني ضياع كم هائل من المعلومات وطرق التفكير والعيش التي تنطوي عليه هاته اللغات³ ومن جهة أخرى، يخبرنا القراء أن التنوع اللغوي شيء جيد لأنه آية من آيات الله سبحانه وتعالى⁴

¹ www.rosetastone.com

² نفس المصدر

³ نفس المصدر

⁴ [وَمِنْ آيَاتِهِ خَلْقُ السَّمَاوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضِ وَاخْتِلَافُ أَلْسِنَتِكُمْ وَأَلْوَانِكُمْ إِنَّ فِي ذَلِكَ لآيَاتٍ لِّلْعَالَمِينَ]. (الرُّوم: 22)

Bibliography

Bibliography

1. Printed sources

- Agheyisi, R., & Fishman, J. 1970, ‘‘Language attitude studies: a brief survey of methodological approaches’’. In *Anthropological Linguistics* 1(5), pp.137-157.
- Al-Kahtany, Abdallah H. 1997, ‘‘The 'Problem' of Diglossia in the Arab World: An Attitudinal Study of Modern Standard Arabic and the Arabic Dialects’’. In *Al-'arabiyyah* 30,pp. 1-30.
- Bain, R. 1928, ‘‘an attitude on attitude research’’. In *American Journal of Sociology*, 22, pp.940-957.
- Baker, C.1995, *Attitude and languages* . Avon: Clevedon.
- Benali-Mohamed, R.2007, *A Sociolinguistic Investigation on Tamazight in Algeria with Special Reference to the Kabyle Variety* .Unpublished Doctorat d’Etat thesis. University of Oran.
- Benrabah, M.2001, *Langue et pouvoir en Algérie :Histoire d’un traumatisme linguistique*.Paris : Segnier
- Bouamrane, A.1986, *Aspects of the sociolinguistic situation in Algeria*. Unpublished Ph.D. thesis, University of Aberdeen.
- Bouchard, E., H.Giles and S. Richard.1982, ‘‘ *An Integrative Perspective for the Study of Attitudes Towards Language Variation.*’’ Bouchard Ryan, E., Giles. (eds).Edward Arnold Publishers Ltd, London. (1-9).
- Bouhadiba, F. 2004, *La question linguistique en Algérie : quelques réflexions pour un aménagement linguistique* .In Dakhli, J. *Trame de langue : Usages et métissages linguistique* pp. 499-508 .Paris : Maisonneuve & Larose.
- Boukli-Hacen, A.2006, *Language management, language planning and social change in Algeria: a sociolinguistic approach*. (MA dissertation).Oran: Oran university.
- Bourhis, R. and H. Giles, 1976, the language of co-operation in Wales: a field study. *Language Sciences*, 4, pp.3-16.
- Calvet, L., J. 1974, *Linguistique et colonialisme* .Paris : Payot.
- Calvet, L., J.1999, *La guerre des langues* .Paris : Hachette.

- Campbell, D. T., & J.C. Stanley, 1963, *Experimental and quasi-experimental design for research*. Hope-well, NJ: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Chomsky, N.1965. *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge: M.I.T. Press.
- Daoust, D.1998, Language planning and language reform .In Colman Florian (ed.), *The handbook of sociolinguistics*. New York: Blackwell.
- Elimam, A. 1997, *Le Maghribi, langue trois fois millénaire : Explorations en linguistique maghrébine*. Alger: ANEP.
- Geoffrey M., Dematteo, D., and Festinger, D. 2005 . *Essentials of research design and methodology* . Hoboken , New Jersey : John Wiley and Sons .
- Hymes, D. 1972, On communicative competence. In Pride, J. & J. Holmes (eds.), *Sociolinguistics*. London: Penguin.
- Katz, D. 1960, The functional approach to the study of attitudes. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 24, 163–204.
- Labov, W. 1972, *Sociolinguistic patterns*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Labov, W. 1969, *The logic of non-standard English*. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Lambert, W.E.1960, Evaluational reactions to spoken languages. *Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology*, 60, 44-51.
- Muhleisen, S. 1993, *Attitudes toward language varieties in Trinidad*. (MA Thesis), Berlin: Berlin University.
- Nelde, H., P.1998, Language conflict. In Colman Florian (ed.), *The handbook of sociolinguistics*. New York: Blackwell.
- Osgood, C. E. 1964, Semantic Differential Technique in the Comparative Study of Culture. *American Anthropologist* 66, pp.171-200.
- Rosenthal, R., & R.L. Rosnow.1969, *Artefacts in behavioural research*. New York: Academic Press.
- Taleb Ibrahim, K.1995, *Les Algériens et leur(s)Langue(s)*.Alger : Les Edition El Hikma .
- Trask, R.L.1999, *Language and linguistics: Key concepts*. Stockwell (eds.), New York: Rutledge.
- Trochim, W. M. K. 2001, *The research methods knowledge base* (2nd ed.). Cincinnati, OH: Atomic Dog Publishing.

Trudgill, P. 1974, *Sociolinguistics: An introduction*. London: Penguin.

Weinreich, U.1953, *Languages in contact*. New York: Blackwell.

WodakK, Ruth and Gertraud Benke.1998, "Gender as a Sociolinguistic Variable: New Perspectives on Variation Studies." In Colman Florian (ed.), *The handbook of sociolinguistics*. New York: Blackwell.

2. Reference works

Holy Quran. Trans. John Smith. Boston, MA: Harvard Press, 2009. Print.

Crystal,D.1992, *An Encyclopaedic Dictionary of Language and Languages*. Cambridge: Blackwell.

3. Electronic sources

English-only movement .2010 ,Wikipedia (wikipedia.org). Retrieved July 7 , 2010 , from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English-only_movement .

Hyde, K. 2000, Recognising Deductive Processes in Qualitative Research, Qualitative Market Research . *Qualitative Research International Journal*,3(2),82- retrieved,July,07,2010,from <http://slu.edu./organizations/qrc/QRjournals.html>.

Karra,M.2007, *The linguistic conflict in Belgium*. Retrieved July 07,2010 ,from <http://www.proz.com/translation-articles/articles/1250/1/The-Linguistic-Conflict-in-Belgium>

Ladegaard, H. J. 2000 , *Language attitudes and sociolinguistic behavior: exploring attitude-behavior relations in language*. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 4(2), 214-233.Retrieved July 07,2010 from <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/1467-481.00112/full>

Language planning. 2011, wikipedia. Retrieved July 7, 2010 from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Language_planning.

Languages of the world .2011,Wikipedia .Retrieved July 07,2011 from: <http://www.ling.gu.se/projekt/sprakfrageladan/english/sprakfakta/eng-sprak-i-varlden>

Bibliography

- Rickly,R.2011,*An over view of research methods and methodologies*.retrieved:July,07,2010,from:
www.faculty.english.ttu.edu/Rickly/oldresearchintroppt
- Rosetta Stone.2010, *Endangered Languages Program*. Retrieved July 07, 2011 from
<http://rosettastone.com/global/endangered>.
- Sadki,N.2012 , *Le nombre des filles augmente dans les écoles algériennes*. Retrieved :
August,24,21012,from : <http://www.educacionenvalores.org/spip.php?article130>
- Shuttleworth,M. 2008, *Quasi-experiment design*. Retrieved Julyd07,2011 ,from:
<http://www.experiment-resources.com/quasi-experimental-design.html> .

ملخص البحث

باعتباره نتيجة للتعدد اللغوي، يعتبر الصراع اللغوي مشكلة عويصة بإمكانها إحداث نتائج مأساوية. حل مشكل الصراع اللغوي هو من أهم أهداف التخطيط والتسيير اللغويين. هذا البحث يقدم حلاً يمكنه المساعدة في تخفيف حدة الصراع اللغوي: تغيير الاتجاهات الذهنية السلبية نحو اللغات بتغيير المكون الفكري. بما أن الذهنيات السلبية نحو اللغات من أهم أسباب الصراع اللغوي، فقد كانت الفرضية في هذا البحث أنه يمكن إحداث تغيير في الذهنيات السلبية بتعريضها لكتابات عقلانية ذات اتجاه ذهني إيجابي نحو التعدد اللغوي. أقيمت تجربة للتحقق من هذه الفرضية في أحد مناطق غرب الجزائر أين يوجد تعدد لغوي. ودلت النتائج أنه بإمكان هذه الطريقة إحداث تغيير في الاتجاهات الذهنية السلبية نحو اللغات. هذه النتائج تشجع على إعطاء أهمية أكبر لتغيير الاتجاهات الذهنية السلبية نحو اللغات كأحد طرق تسيير الصراعات اللغوية والوقاية من نتائجها المأساوية.

Résumé

Le conflit linguistique est une conséquence de la diversité linguistique qui peut induire des effets tragiques. Trouver des solutions pour les conflits linguistiques est l'un des objectifs du planning et gestion des langues.

Cette recherche essaye de présenter une solution qui peut aider à atténuer les effets néfastes des conflits linguistiques : le changement des attitudes langagières négatives par l'intervention sur l'élément cognitive.

Les attitudes langagières négatives sont à la base du conflit linguistique. L'hypothèse dans cet recherche est que l'exposition à une littérature rationnelle favorable à la diversité langagière peut mener au changement des attitudes langagières négatives.

Les résultats d'une expérience faite dans une région multilingues à l'ouest d'Algérie pour vérifier cet hypothèse montrent qu'on peut changer les attitudes langagières négatives par cette méthode.

Ces résultats peuvent encourager à donner plus de considération au changement des attitudes langagières pour gérer les conflits linguistiques et prévenir leurs conséquences tragiques.

ABSTRACT

A by-product of multilingualism, language conflict is a thorny problem that may induce tragic consequences. Solving it is a major concern in language planning and management. This dissertation attempts to present a potential solution to language conflict problems: alteration of negative language attitude by direct intervention on its cognitive component. Based on the assumption that negative language attitudes are at the core of any language conflict, it was hypothesised that exposure to rational literature favourable to language diversity would lead to a change of language attitude by making it less negative. A quasi-experiment was designed to test that hypothesis in a multilingual setting province in the west of Algeria. The results revealed that the change of negative attitude was possible through that procedure. These findings can encourage giving more consideration to *change of language attitudes* as a feasible means in the management of language conflicts and the prevention of their tragic consequences.

Language conflict is one of the most salient characteristics of multilingualism in the world. The speech communities' negative attitudes and stereotypes regarding other languages and varieties are fundamental factors in language conflicts. Although many researchers have focused on investigating the problem of language attitude, there is a lack of emphasis on the topic of *language attitude change* and its beneficial impact in easing such conflicts. The present research attempts to address such a topic as a contribution in the language management studies and also as an attempt to investigate this topic to find any possibility of changing negative language attitude through challenging the cognitive component of language attitude by exposing it to some input which is favourable to language diversity.

Keywords

Language Management; Language Attitude; Negative Attitude; Cognitive Approach; Language Conflict; Language Diversity; Language Planning; Quasi-Experiment; Language Contact; Sociolinguistics.