

MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH  
UNIVERSITY OF ALGIERS 2 ABOU EL KACEM SAADALLAH



FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES  
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

**THE STATUS OF ENGLISH AMID LARGE-SCALE  
ENTERPRISES IN THE ALGERIAN ECONOMY  
*THE CASE OF THREE MULTINATIONAL COMPANIES***

Thesis Submitted to the Department of English in Fulfilment of the Requirements for  
the Degree of 'Doctorat es-Sciences' in Linguistics and Didactics.

**Presented by:**

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**2022**

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## DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the substance of this dissertation is entirely the result of my investigation and that reference or acknowledgement is made, whenever necessary, to the work of other researchers.

I am duly informed that any person practicing plagiarism will be subject to disciplinary sanctions issued by University Authorities under the rules and regulations in force.

Date: March, 2021

Signed: 

## **Dedication**

*To my dear parents*

*To my dear wife*

*To my family members*

*I dedicate this work with love to all of you.*

## **Acknowledgements**

I would like to address my extreme and hearty gratitude to my research supervisor, Professor Zoulikha BENSAFI, for her incessant moral support and continuous encouragement; all the scientific aid she kept providing throughout; her guidance and patience during my conduct of the research, her expertise, meticulous observations and accuracy of remarks about issues that easily escaped my notice. Thank you, Professor, especially for your incomparable courtesy.

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## Abstract

The present thesis is an investigation about the status of English within the large-scale business settings in the Algerian economic context, particularly multinational companies. Little research has targeted English in multinationals, and none has addressed the issue of English status amid large-scale globalized business enterprises in Algeria. One of the fundamental presumptions directing this research is the axiomatic acknowledgement of English spread worldwide, and the roles it plays as a global linguistic phenomenon for communication even among non-native speakers. At industry level, English is perceived to be a *Business English as Lingua Franca* (BELF). In the present research, the English language status has been gauged in three petroleum multinationals operating in Algeria, which are Entreprise Nationale des Travaux aux Puits (ENTP), China Petrochemical Corporation Group (SINOPEC) and Greatwall Drilling Company (GWDC). Applying a comparative-based approach, a descriptive research design was adopted. Using a questionnaire and an observation checklist of language behavior at the workplace, the research data was collected from 123 participant workers subsuming three sub-samples from the companies in question. The comparison has basically formed the basis of juxtaposing the position of English to Arabic, French and a few other languages. The English language situation assessment has been conducted at two main levels of measurement: within and across companies. At inter-company level, the results demonstrate that there is more usage of English than other languages in foreign multinationals as compared with the Algerian national ones which tend to use more Arabic and French. At intra-company level, two specific findings emerge: on the one hand, English is especially in competition with Arabic and

French within the Algerian national companies, and on the other hand, with a semi-total absence of French, English is rather in functional complementarity with Arabic in foreign multinationals along a few more peripheral languages, such as Chinese and Berber varieties. Further, in the different communication processes within the workplace settings, the English language register is context-specific and is characterized as a business jargon that is different from formal general English of native speakers. The last finding relates to the language policy. There are no clear-cut organizational strategies regarding when to use which languages at which particular situations; language practices are primarily informed by the organizations' hierarchical positions and contextual factors.

***Keywords:*** *Algeria, English, Business English as Lingua Franca (BELF), Language and Economy, Multinational Companies, Status*

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## **List of Abbreviations & Acronyms**

BELF: Business English as Lingua Franca

BLF: Business Lingua Franca

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EBE: English for Business and Economics

EGP: English for General Purposes

ELF: English as Lingua Franca

ENTP: Entreprise Nationale des Travaux aux Puits

ESS: English for Social Sciences EOP: English for Occupational Purposes

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

EST: English for Science and Technology

GWDC: Greatwall Drilling Company

SINOPEC: China Petroleum and Chemical Corporation Group

SONATRACH: Société Nationale pour la Recherche, la Production, le Transport, la Transformation, et la Commercialisation des Hydrocarbures

**GENERAL**

**INTRODUCTION**

## **GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

### **Background of the Study**

The present thesis endeavors to explore the situation of language use in multinational companies. More particularly, the main focus of this study is to examine the position of English in multinationals that are operating in Algeria. The branch of research that is interested in looking at the statuses of languages in business contexts composes one of the largest areas of an interdisciplinary research field that is known as “economics of language” (Chiswick & Miller, 2007; Grin, 1994; Marschak, 1965). The idea of status of language in business organizations stems from the very fact that because such organizations seek to achieve optimum profits, decisions about the language choices used for communication are primarily informed in recourse to their contribution to value creation (Grin, Sfreddo, & Vaillancourt, 2010). Therefore, certain languages are selected by a multinational rather than other languages for they are seen as assets in an economic sense (Coulmas, 1992; Dhir & Gòkè-Paríolá, 2002). A status of a given language in a given business community is usually examined in terms of its value and utility with comparison to other languages. The rationale for the present research theme, as part of the field referred to above, and the research key concepts are presented in Chapter 3.

Of the major business sites where languages are assessed from the viewpoint of ‘having an economic value and importance’ are large-scale enterprises such as multinational companies. A multinational company, according to Dunning and Lundan (2008, p. 3), is a transnational enterprise that has invested interests beyond its native nation, and which may engage in establishing subsidiary units in more than one country.

On that basis, the Algerian SONATRACH corporation is a multinational that is headquartered in Algeria and has working subsidiary units outside the nation. According to SONATRACH's website, the company is ranked as the 12<sup>th</sup> largest oil consortium in the world, and the largest African multinational that operates internationally with 154 subsidiary divisions (<https://sonatrach.com/>). As SONATRACH has investing interests outside the national borders, Algeria has also been an attracting environment that was open to foreign corporations' investments. A number of foreign-based firms were conducting business in Algeria. Most of them specialize in petroleum-based operations. The co-existence of such foreign investing multinationals with other counterparts, including the Algerian ones, creates a need for facilitating external communication among partners, as well as finding ways to make internal communication flows smooth and fluent within each organization.

It is intuitive that transnational corporations form environments where their composing staff of individuals differ in many respects, including geographical origins, linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Ehrenreich, 2010; Pullin, 2010). Forming subsidiary units outside the national borders will make the multinational encounter various challenges, of which communication problems emerge immediately as the basic feature to be accounted for. It was found that one of the strategies that contribute to alleviate communication problems is partially through hiring local people where the subsidiary organization operates (Charles & Marschan-Piekkari, 2002). Yet, while this may solve a number of problems, it can essentially yield a further complication. The hired staff of local inhabitants will tend to speak in their native language, and who will at the same time mingle with foreigners originating from the country of the

multinational headquarter. This will form a critical issue if those locals do not have any basic knowledge of the native language from where the company emerged. On the other hand, the employee workforce that is hired by the headquarters tends to be speakers of the headquarters' native language (Harzing & Feely, 2008).

Very naturally, recruited members of the same origin as the headquarters are an advantage to the multinational companies, but the barrier that is encountered, again, is one of communication between chief company offices and their respective foreign-based units. This is getting more serious especially in the situations where the targeted contexts for subsidiary divisions are completely divergent from the original environment out of which they emerge, notably linguistic and cultural. For example, a Chinese company that is interested in exporting business subsidiaries in Algeria will face more communicative struggles than an Egyptian investor with the same aims. Guaranteeing mutual communication between different parties usually involves a shared language. Very commonly, that language occurs to be English.

It is argued that the English status as a lingua franca (ELF) is quite indisputable worldwide (Crystal, 1987). In recent times, it is also widely accepted that in the corporate business communication, English is increasingly taking on the position of a business lingua franca (BLF) (Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010). One of the strategic solutions available for cross-border corporations, in anticipation of the probable communication difficulties, would be a corporate language that will intermediate communication with subsidiary units (Charles, 2007; Mauranen, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2001). A corporate language is usually defined as the intermediary contact language of communication in corporations whose main function is to ensure wider mutual

understanding among employees of linguacultural differences (Ehrenreich, 2010); it is commonly used as synonymous to the business lingua franca. Very often, because English is the most used language beyond its native perimeters, it is very often assigned the position of the corporate language, which recently has come to be known as Business English as Lingua Franca (BELF) (Gerritsen & Nickerson, 2009; Louhiala-Salminen, Charles, & Kankaanranta, 2005). While English is usually acknowledged as the most useful tool for corporate communication, it may however be an impediment, because its introduction for shared communication does not necessarily lead to a sudden and complete disappearance of interactional handicaps in multinationals (Fredriksson, Barner-Rasmussen, & Piekkari, 2006). A number of studies examined language differences in multinationals with units operating outside their native context. It was reported by researchers that in the presence of English as a corporate language, local languages do not automatically disappear among the workers (Fredriksson et al., 2006; Lønsmann, 2011).

The language choice among multinational workforce employees has been extensively researched in recent times. A major part of the studies in this direction has examined the choices made between the language that is assigned a corporate status and the local languages of the workers (Ehrenreich, 2010; Fredriksson et al., 2006; Goodall & Roberts, 2003; Piekkari, 2006). In situations where English is selected as the corporate language of the company, speakers are found to fall into one of three possible categories: locals of the country where the multinational headquarter is established, foreign expatriates, and speakers of English as a native language (Harzing, Köster, & Magner, 2011).

Previous research has also placed significant emphasis on language choices and behaviors by individuals in business organizations by comparing between written and spoken forms of communication, where English is examined in relation to other languages. It was noted that English is largely used for written forms of communication even by local workers, and this was influenced more by the levels of communication depending on whether it is internal or external to the organization (Louhiala-Salminen, Charles, & Kankaanranta, 2005). What is more important is that, in written communication rather than spoken, local workers tended to use the corporate language rather than their mother tongue even among themselves (Lønsmann, 2011). However, it was reported that this situation differs when it comes to spoken communication. For example, the findings of Ehrenreich (2010) reported that non-German locals switch to speaking German, in their oral communications, just a while after they realize no non-German-speaking expatriate members are present in the scene.

Apart from native English-speaking countries, English is used as the official second language in many parts of the world. It is sometimes recognized as the language of academic instruction at schools, a language of daily informal communication outside educational systems, and an imperative tool for global business. In Algeria, English represents a foreign language next to Arabic, Berber and French. While the former two languages are acknowledged by the government as national languages, French is considered the second language, which is still widely used in official institutional and administrative communication, notably official documents more particularly. English is still remote from being practically considered as a requisite language for getting more globalized in the various national levels, including the business sites with international

interests. It is yet unclear whether multinational companies in the Algerian context have a clearly defined language policy which takes account of keeping pace with the world, via operationalizing English as one official language that would encourage business contexts to global integration.

The current study is conducted in companies that operate in southern Algeria, at Hassi Messaoud which is located in the wilaya of Ouargla. In this study, the examination of the English language status is primarily assessed in comparison to Arabic and French and a few other languages. The languages present in each of the sites examined are highly dependent on the origin of the multinationals. In the Algerian business context, the status of English in multinational organizations has not been examined in terms of its position among the other languages. With very few studies which attempted to investigate English in business contexts, none of them have actually explored the position and importance of English in multinational companies from the perspective of language choice strategies, specifically in relation to other languages. This forms the central topic of the research which is presented in the section about the research problem statement that follows.

### **Statement of the Research Problem**

Nowadays, it is widely acknowledged that English is the universal language of communication. Its usage dominates in the different domains and is becoming more and more indispensable. Therefore, it is often perceived as the language which functions as the "*lingua franca*" that brings culturally dispersed people together. Indeed, in a globalized world with increasingly demanding needs for communication at an international level, knowledge of English is usually taken for granted. In business

settings in particular, the recognition of the economic importance of English cannot be ignored. In that respect, it is now established that English is specifically the “*Business Lingua Franca*” language in global business. Global business means going international and opening to foreignness, which entails engaging in extensively continuous processes of communication with expatriates. It in turn involves having to take ventures of business exchange with partners who are likely not sharing the same language, and whose mother tongue is equally not mutually understood.

When it comes to partnership between two or more dealers of different linguistic backgrounds, the easiest way to ensure reciprocal understanding is by using the language they both can understand, regardless if it is native or non-native. Of specific interest would be companies of large size whether local or international to a nation. In the Algerian context, for instance, it seems that there is preference to utilize a variety of languages within multinationals, and in the light of that, it is interesting to explore the value of English in the Algerian business community. In other words, it is worth to survey the status of English in multinational companies that operate in Algeria and examine its state, by assessing its relative position among other languages.

Without due allowances to language management strategies, multinational companies who seek to go international and widen their shares all over the world will encounter serious linguistic barriers. For them, easy progress and smooth functionality are primarily achieved via mitigating communication problems within the global environment of their business. Talking of communicative hurdles caused by differences in cultural aspects in the first place will implicitly denote linguistic variables as a major

part of a wider range of obstacles. It is highly important that operating internationally involves considerations of appropriate language decisions.

Though scantily researched, the English language situation in the Algerian business contexts has generally been addressed by previous research from the perspective of the language genre and discoursal patterns which are context-specific; an approach pertaining to *English for Specific Purposes* (ESP). This approach, however, neglects an essential aspect which is its importance in organizational communication. The present work attempts to examine the situation of English in multinational business from a different perspective. More specifically, the stance adopted in this study is dealing with the *status* of English (in terms of frequency of use and importance) in corporations. This is another recent emerging research area that contributes to Applied Linguistics with insights from an economics perspective. The approach adopted is an attempt to investigate the weight of English in business in order to evaluate workplace linguistic behavior. By linguistic behavior is particularly meant communication processes in relation to work performances and tasks accomplishment. It touches upon the weight of English at the globalized workplace. The starting point for such an approach will be relative to examining English use as opposed to other languages. With a widely accepted notion that English as the universal language of communication, and the increasingly acknowledgement of its use as the language of business, it is intriguing to assess its situation in the multinational companies functioning in Algeria. This will prompt a set of essential queries in regard to what extent English is operationally the language of business in such contexts that are

engaged in conducting business in Algeria. Accordingly, a set of questions will be raised in order to delve into examining the status of English in such economic sectors.

### **Research Questions and Hypotheses**

Presuming that English is currently agreed upon as the language of trade worldwide, and in the light of the pervasive notion of its hegemony as the shared language to universal communication, the present research aims to assess the situation of English more specifically at the working organizations. The following research questions form the basis of the study at hand:

- 1- What position does English have within companies in the Algerian context compared to other languages?

Because the study is concerned with examining the status of English in the companies that specialize in petroleum-based operation, the first research question would be narrowed down, leading to formulate a more specific question:

- 2- Is English really the practically utmost used language within multinationals functioning at petroleum-production sectors in Algeria?

On the other hand, while this research has as a basic objective finding answers to the above-raised questions, it is imperative to that the status of English is assessed with comparison to the other languages that are used in the contexts examined. This brings us to pose two more questions that will not only give direction to the research, but sets clear the way the research object is approached; hence, answering the first

and second research questions are correlated with answering the following questions:

- 3- Does English gain more status as per use within multinationals than other languages in Algeria?
- 4- Does English excel over other competitive languages and enjoy more valorized status irrespective of the company origin whether Algerian or alien?

With an aim to find answers to the above-raised questions, two hypotheses will offer guidance and give directionality to the present work. The hypotheses pertain to the questions of the study and mainly emerge in direct response. Thus, it is hypothesized that,

- 1- English language has higher economic status amid multinational companies in the Algerian business contexts than any other language.
- 2- English language is more valorized than other languages made use of within both national and foreign multinationals operating in Algeria alike.

### **Purpose of the Study**

This research is an attempt to examine the English language situation within particularly petroleum-production business multinational companies operating in Algeria. To do so, the focus will be an exploration of the status given to English inside the corporations. Overall, the findings of the research definitely benefit an array of disciplines with interest in language sciences; none the less economics of language be to the fore. Business contexts, of which multinational companies are the main part, are pertinently concerned with the findings stemming out of the study. The issues covered

are not restrictively oriented to appraise the English language situation in firms, but will also draw on insights regarding the position of English relative to the other languages in the Algerian economic context as well. Companies will benefit from the research findings and may have the chance to reconsider their language decisions. Further, for multinationals operating in Algeria in general, and for the multinationals considered for study in particular, this study offers them a practical examination to the English language situation that enterprises may find inspirational for possible changes of their linguistic policies.

The research findings are not, however, restricted to interest global working organizations, but also are advantageous to the academic institutions. It provides an analysis of the foreign language spectrum within the multinational organizations in the Algerian context. In fact, academic formations and trainings offered to individuals presumes to produce effectively functioning persons in the market labor, so that the link between academia and business settings should be strong. Based on findings of the working sites, it is possible for academic institutions to assess the workforce needed at such internationalized business environments. For that reason, insights emerging from investigating workplace settings are liable to enable see the whole picture of work potential competencies along the language demands for the best strategic functioning of needed worker staff. This is to say, matching academic circles to business multinational organizations is imperative in order to link what is theoretically taught to what is practically in demand, and research of the type that is carried out in this study will have a large contribution towards bridging the gaps between academic and workplace settings.

## **Structure of the Thesis**

This thesis consists of six Chapters. It proceeds from an initiation to how language and economy interact, the English language in multinational companies, a methodological framework, presentation and analysis of data, to findings discussion.

Chapter 1 deals with the interrelationships of language and economy in the light of previous literature. It sets on introducing the field of economics of language by defining and showing the importance of economy in the study of language, establishing a brief historical overview to the beginnings of the language-economy studies, the main factors which contributed to shaping this field of research, along its phases of development, with an account of its relevant concerns such as language as a form of human capital, the economic value foreign language education and its contribution to future employment, as well as the ensuing monetary revenues of language proficiency in business contexts.

Chapter 2 is specifically devoted to the importance of English in multinational companies, by surveying the different aspects of its usage at the workplace. The chapter looks at the specifics of English as a worldwide language of business along its functional role as a corporate language (a term used to refer to a shared in business settings) in companies, English as a business lingua franca (BELF), English as part of global communicative competence and professional competence facilitating global business for organizations both internally and externally. Coverage is also designed to give a clear distinction between the registers of general English knowledge and knowledge of English for economic purposes.

Chapter 3 presents the research methodology used in this project. It first provides the rationale for the research, then proceeds to identify the different aspects of the approach followed and its design. It also introduces the research tools used to examine the subject matter of the study, how data was collected and should be analyzed accordingly.

Chapter 4 is concerned with data analysis, by presenting the comparative data obtained through a double-questionnaire strategy to solicit language difference in terms of usage and frequency in two multinational companies: Entreprise Nationale des Travaux aux Puits (ENTP) and China Petrochemical Corporation Group (SINOPEC). further, this chapter also deals with the analysis of the data elicited by means of an observation grid with a third company, namely Greatwall Drilling Company (GWDC), as a complementary research instrument. The main purpose of this Chapter is to exhibit the relative position of English in the three companies investigated. English importance is thus examined particularly in association to other languages.

Chapter 5 is devoted to the discussion of the research results. It categorizes various levels of English in corporations with comparison to other languages. In the light of previous studies, this chapter casts attention on the importance of English in the companies under investigation by demonstrating its status based on data analysis. Overall, the chapter will show the English language usage differences by comparing the levels of its position in the three companies in order to deduce its status at two levels: as per company origin and relative to other languages present at the various workplace contexts studied.

# **CHAPTER 1: THE INTERRELATION- SHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND ECONOMICS**

## **Introduction**

The present chapter attempts at exploring the ways in which language and economy interact. It is a reflection that stems from a wider model presuming that language is deeply interrelated with other disciplines. Indeed, language has been a concern of a variety of disciplinary fields of interest most of which are encompassed under the umbrella term ‘linguistics’. There is definitely a wide range of approaches to language by other research fields such as cultural studies, anthropology, sociology, psychology, literature and arts, politics, and neuroscience to list only a few. Surprisingly, however, the economically-oriented paradigms to language are extremely overlooked, and if indicated they seem to never go beyond the mere superficial reference. This chapter provides an overview of the different perspectives that form the basis for an economic reasoning about language. The main issues covered are especially the informing conditions behind the economic appeal for language and the interplay between language and economy in terms of reciprocal influences, by developing an account of the previous literature. The overview deals with defining this research strand, by tracking down its historical background along the stages it went through, presenting its main objectives, and showing how foreign language acquisition is important and valuable in business settings. Briefly put, this chapter is an overall argumentative appraisal to the pertinence of the economic relevance to theorize about language. The mutual correlations of language and economics are discussed.

## **1.1. Defining Economics of Language**

Research suggests that the study of the relationship between language and economics has been developing along more than five decades. Economics of language is a growing research field based on the presumptions that “economics” and “human language” interact in various different ways. This field has received considerable and extensive attention mainly by the 1990s (Zhang & Grenier, 2013). The core of study in this line of research has mainly been language as regards its outcomes in terms of socioeconomic status for individuals (Grin, 1994, 2003). For example, linguistic skills constituted the starting points of the majority of studies carried out in this direction. This is usually done by addressing linguistic variables which are assumed to have effects on returns accruing to individuals.

Yet, it is important to note that the economics of language capitalizes on the interrelationships of both linguistics and economics, and therefore considers at the first place examining the different associations in a bidirectional way. That is, it seeks to uncover the aspects of how linguistic thought may invoke economic process and vice versa. The reciprocal influences of each of the language-related variables and economic variables are enormously deep and numerous. Also, it should be conceived that the study of economics-language relationships allows for a wide perspective of the various statuses. Language economics is not merely concerned with the ways of achieving profits; it also addresses many different issues such as language dominance and power in business contexts, and attempts to find economic explanations to such phenomena. However, this research field also takes account of minority languages that can be

additional tools used at workplace settings. This makes up one of the main underpinnings of economic theory about language in respect utilizing economic reasoning for preserving threatened minority languages (Grin, 2003). Reversely, because of its interdisciplinary orientation, economics of language examines the overlaps that language and economics exert on each other. Grin points out to such correlation, and assumes undeniable connections bringing together economic and linguistic factors. For that matter, he goes on questioning the nature of the mutual effects between economy and language, manifesting some of the inherent links between economy and small languages in particular, and thus,

as regards the ‘economy→language’ category of issues, one might ask how economic processes contribute to the demise of small languages, and whether economic forces are intrinsically responsible for this state of affairs, or whether these forces are merely a conduit through which independent language dynamics operate. As to the reciprocal type of relationships (‘language→economy’), some contend, for example, that minority language preservation makes a net contribution to economic welfare—is this indeed the case? Finally, as regards policy matters, should scarce resources be devoted to minority language protection and promotion, and if so, how much (Grin, 2003, p. 4)?

Obviously, the most satisfactory accounts for the economics of language, in terms of specialization and related issues of interest are at best found in several publications by Grin (1994, 2003, 2006), Grin, Sfreddo, & Vaillancourt, (2010) and Pym, Grin, Sfreddo, and Chan (2013). These works, among others, have adequately covered interesting topics such as, language economics in relation to other fields; its paradigms, modelling and definitions. However, with slightly different alterations to the definition sometimes, as more and more findings are obtained in the field, they are definitely variants in consistency with the overall version.

## **1.2. Economy versus Economics**

One point that must be clarified so that the economic approach to language is set in perspective is one which Grin et al. (2010) emphasize to take into consideration when approaching the possible language-economic causations, noting that some terminological constructs should not be mistakenly confused with each other. Before assessing the ways how economy and language interact, the terms “economy” and “economics” are usually approached differently and not interchangeably. According to Grin et al. (2010, p. 28), *economics* is the discipline whose first objective is attempting to use scientific modelling as to the human practices of utilizing and directing their scarce resources in order to achieve profits with fewer costs possible. In contrast, *economy* is meant with the set of the processes used in producing some sort of goods, the consumption activities, as well as the processes relating to the exchange of materialistic stuff (such as cargo and money). The economic approach to language is basically concerned not only with the “economy” activities, but also with encompassing the strategic uses of one’s resources in order to produce more advantage in the presence of human languages as determinants. By human language it is indicated that interconnectedness to economic explanation draws on the natural codes devised by mankind, which are notably distinct from artificially designed systems of intelligent computer-based talk.

## **1.3. Towards an Economic Approach to Language**

Economics of language, as such, is not to imply that interest is for a certain given language or so; the approach, though entitled ‘economics of language’, may well extend

to considering more than one linguistic system (that is more formally, bilingualism or multilingualism) in relation to economic factors at a time. Examples of these are given by Breton and Mieszkowski (1977), Breton (1998), Grin and Vaillancourt (1997), Grin et al. (2010).

Language has for so long been of implication to economy. Therefore, it could be acknowledged that the first threads to the economic bond with language is relatively inherent back in history to Adam Smith's contributions and specifically to his interest in the issue of the formation of human language, which was a topical subject of query at that time (Grin, 2016).

It's also significant to allude to the links acknowledged by specialists in linguists (e.g., Bourdieu, 1982; Coulmas, 1992; Crystal, 1987), that language and economy have great roles into shaping statuses of individuals. Nonetheless, except of the reasoning found in the work of the sociolinguist Coulmas (1992) the contributions stemming from such works are fairly mere ventures of vantage points that appear like economic reasoning about language. Rather, their approach falls under a pure linguistic orientation (or some of its sub-divisions).

#### **1.4. The Beginnings of Language and Economics Studies**

Yet, the beginnings of the first explicit appeal for an economic approach to language are often conceived of to date back to the starts of the 1960s. Of particular importance, Marschak is unarguably credited to be the pioneer who came to note to the apparent link between language and economics, and thus Marschak's (1965) inaugural

article entitled “The Economics of Language” is frequently considered the virtual systematic beginning to the establishment of this interdisciplinary field. Despite the fact that some language economists tried to offer comprehensive stratified accounts for the chronological development of the field, resorting to a categorical classification, the claims and thoughts along the illustrations backed up in Marschak’s article are, however, believed to be unique and distinguishable in their nature (Grin, 2003).

Marshack’s work is regularly called into literature from a standpoint of examining the ideational frameworks it brought by looking at the reasons why certain human language traits may or may not be maintained (Vaillancourt, 1983). i.e., which possible factors may bear on informing some attributes of a language that it is retained or dismissed? This goes a long way to such determinants as socio-economic agents which, inferably, may lead to optimize communication between users of language with least possible costs. Marschack raised this essential question and at the same time attempted to answer it in general economic terms (Grin,1990); an approach which is believed to provide a rational explication of what leads to an evolution of a language, its change, or even shift from it. The evolutionary approach implies even a broader sense of linguistic change towards originating further variants including dialects (Chiswick & Miller, 2014). This conceptualization may well invoke the issue of which linguistic aspects should policy makers take into account when they make decisions about designating one language for communication, aiming to facilitate information access and delivery among users in less costly ways and shortest possible time (Chen, 2013), be it for academic or professional incentives.

To this end, Marschak's work demonstrates that such views are highly dependent on a goals-oriented trend, to the extent that "in the simple case when the value scale has only two points" where there lie at opposite extremes "goal-attained" and "goal-failed" drives (Marschak, 1965, p. 136). In this approach, the objectives become end-directed. In fact, this is axiomatic as a rule of utility. The survival or extinction of a language owes primarily to its efficiency. In this context, "efficiency of language" would be defined as "the ability to transmit a certain amount of information in relatively less time than another language" (Grin, 1990, p. 154). Further, Marschak adds clarity to his conceptualization about the language developmental tenet with an exemplary instance of how languages as systematic codes may save an individual's other resources such as time in particular. Giving an illustration of a crew of a plane that must be enabled to go about their communication effectively (among themselves and outside), their craft should be attentively equipped, anticipating the most contingent incidents that the crew may occur to undergo.

Accordingly, it follows that a language is sometimes quite analogous to money where it appears to display characteristics embodied in the need of a plane's crew as it is "worth", to use Marschak's words, "a couple of pounds" to spend that can open up a channel of successful correspondence for them under worst circumstances to assure their relief (1965, p. 135; emphasis mine). Put simple, language can play a role of an economic resource that currency can, while language moreover eliminates expenses and trade costs rather often (Reksulak, Shughart, William, & Tollison, 2004). However, this analogy reminiscing language to currency seems to be challenged and prone to

break down easily. On this, Grin (1994, p. 31) comments “just like a common currency, a single language eliminates some trading costs.” whereas “in the two-language case, the members of the smaller language community, rather than the larger one, will tend to become bilingual”.

This is, therefore, why Marschak’s ideas about the evolutionary model of language features seem “somewhat simplistic and remote from the actual processes of language change” (Grin, 1996, p. 27; 1994, p. 30). This is by no means evicting the genuine load of the insights of the work all at once at all. It continues to carry admitted originality and stays a cornerstone in the field of language economics overall. The criticisms subsequent writers assigned to Marschak’s work as regard language change, or rearrangement of some of its patterns, tend to spot it from a broader inclusive view than just economics.

Apart from the breakthrough in terms of the conceptual establishment of the field inaugurated by Marschak, other pertinent works followed. Not far from the first notions crediting the role of language in the economic activities, these research projects pointed to the significance of language choice in regard goods to be produced and delivered, or exported, where wise decisions of the (foreign) consumers’ linguistic background should not be overtaken (Breton, 1978; Hocevar, 1975).

In 1980, a controversial essay by Pierre Bourdieu, entitled “The Economics of Linguistic Exchange”, was published. Bourdieu made reference to various economic issues in relation to language, and most interestingly brought attention to such terms as

‘market’ and ‘price’. These are at best shown in connection to linguistic variables in regard its usefulness to assess these alleged relationships. However, the claims raised were never to reach out in-depth analysis, and thus such assumed interrelatedness of linguistic and economic factors, indicated by Bourdieu, remains largely theoretical and by far unlikely to be accommodated as economic approach to language (Grin, 1992; Grin et al., 2010). Rather, they appropriately fall in the range of an excellent sociological analysis to language, drawing on borrowed economic terminology (Grin, 2003).

### **1.5. Establishment of Language Economics**

Much of the works that soon followed have brought what might be considered an upsurge in the theory of language economics. Several rationales appeared in the vein of explanatory models to the interface of economic processes and language use. Screening Theory (Arrow, 1973; Stiglitz, 1975), Game Theory (Church & King, 1993; Glazer & Rubinstein, 2006; Selten & Pool, 1991) and screening discrimination or signaling (Cornell & Welch, 1996; Spence, 1974) are instances of explanatory models circulated much of the research traditions during the second and third generations of the economic analytical frame to linguistic attributes (Grin, 2003). The three generations characterizing language economics during the phases of its rise and progress are discussed under the heading ‘Three Generations in Language Economics’ below.

It should be noted, at this level, that literature, hitherto, refers to the ensuing thoughts connecting these two distinct poles –embodied in the ‘economics discipline’

and the “language property”—as yet under the attributive ‘interdisciplinary’. In spite of the large bulk of research projects during the 1990s, with all methodological perspectives in terms of the theoretical rich background and empirical foundations, were considerably quite unprecedented, economics-and-language studies have been reluctant enough to announce a departure of a separate new disciplinary research area with self-dependent pursuits. Conversely, far from it, language economics was still viewed of early infancy for the fact that this research area “displays a strong interdisciplinary orientation, which places it on the fringes of mainstream economics” (Grin, 2003, p. 1). Thus, references were usually being pointed to an interface province rather than a “a field of research” in that actually “the economics of language is not a discipline” and therefore would be better, to the views of scholars, regarded “to be tolerated as an intriguing fringe interest” (Grin, 1994, p. 26).

However, because of unclear borders for this research area, it took researchers some time to establish its borders clear in order for them to announce a systematic beginning of the economics of language. By then, an extensive corresponding body of research was just flourishing, in terms of possible theoretical links of linguistic coefficients and economically relevant factors (e.g., Coulmas, 1992). It ultimately resulted in considerable practical outcomes (e.g., Dustmann, 1999; Grin, 1990). Hence, the robust foundations for a discipline yet to come were only taking shape. It was only by the turn of the century that the label “language economics”(or economics of language) was designated to indicate a discipline (Grin, 2016); it gained somewhat clear-cut recognized frontiers of its own, in adjacency to the scientific research strands

out of which it emerged and on whose merits it has been drawing. For this reason, the methodological perspectives applied by researchers active in this area capitalize on those deployed in the economics profession (Chiswick, 2007). It is very similar to the ways in which sociology and psychology disciplines intervene to explain some linguistic phenomena.

As noted above, economics and language seem to overlap in many ways. Even if it is rather viewed as a ‘tolerated’ benefit in the spheres of research, economics of language would not be a separate discipline of investigation nonetheless a field where linguistic and economically relevant variables interplay (Grin, 1994). However, now that investigations in this field came of age with enriching insights and abundant findings, scholars attest that a half century passed since the beginnings of the first theorizations about language out of an economic perspective, which renders it reliably adequate to maintain that economics of language “fully comes into its own” especially that “it throws bridges between disciplines” (Grin, 2016, p. 3).

## **1.6. Factors Which Led to the Shaping of Language Economics**

During the Second World War (WW2), the world witnessed drastic changes in nearly all respects. New world competitive economic powers emerged --and even pre-existing economies developed more, international political relations grew different, intellectual pursuits and academia became more involved to serve governmental purposes and support them logistically. These are but major instances of a vast range of aspects. In the United States for example, academic institutions were encouraged to look for bridging gaps between scientific research and educational attainments to link

to nation's issues, notably military service. Troops were sought to be trained not only tactically, but matters of cultivated mental maturity was of paramount concern. As a consequence, methodical findings obtained from formal educational practices, with all their ingrained merits, were found necessary to educate soldiers for more disciplined comportment. However, by 'disciplined' here is meant the scientification of human resources that maximise energies in expectation of reducing loss and optimizing gains.

The end of WW2 left behind dramatic aftermaths, and research laboratories brought interesting discoveries about human behaviour of which language is a medium. Language was recognized as an important ethnic ingredient. Urged by the obligations of oneself identity revitalization, nations should resurrect out of anarchic bequest from under the ruins. Not so late that those humane movements denounced the destructions of war; the search for rebuilding became launched worldwide. Many nations after brought to the ground demonstrated their potential for recovery from the devastation caused and took on their shoulders the task of restoring what some years ago existed. Language, religious affiliations, identities and traditions and customs constituted a deal of restoration in a form of globally spread trends, commonly in a shape of 'nationalism'.

### **1.7. Phases of Emergence and Development**

Research suggests that the rise of an economic perspective to language owes to a number of occurrences. First, in the last five decades that followed the WW2, Eastern Europe has especially witnessed a process of reshaping of different political borders, and at best, the fall of Berlin Wall in 1989 is an excellent representative case of the geographical reformations at that time (e.g., Grin, 2003). Such processes of reformation

attracted research attention during that period and impelled devising models in order to provide theoretical explanations of the originating setting. Therefore, theories about issues like language shift or language death found a justifiable thread towards rationales within the heydays of ‘nationalism’ (Breton, 1964; Breton & Mieszkowski, 1977) The main economic modelling about language during these times was figuring languages and cultures as some sort of an ethnic attribute. The recompositions of national borders permitted a scope for many constrained identities and several minority languages to manifest themselves after having for long been suppressed during the 60s: the times where the first approaches to language depicting it as a form of human capital (see e.g., Becker, 1957; 1964) or a force of an economic essence was just to set out with Marschak’s (1965) seminal article which explicitly founded the basement of language economics as already mentioned.

Second, migration fluxes over the globe were comparatively unexpected during the late of the 20<sup>th</sup> and the beginnings of the 21<sup>st</sup> centuries than precedent times. As a result, diversity in respect ethnic, cultural, and consequently linguistic traits, was more apparently at highest degrees, particularly in urban settings (Grin, 2003 p. 58).

Thirdly, the emergence of the spirit of reunion and unification among nations, mainly in Europe, gave birth to further contextual settings for linguistic practices other than just a homeland frame for languages; thus, intuitively offering a platform for their coexistence anchoring competitiveness by means of their diversity.

Last but not least, ‘globalization’ cast a wide net for worldwide practices, from communicative means progress to all sorts of dealings that involved all spheres of the globe to take part in the process. Implicitly, the resurgence of e-communication in

information exchange via the airwaves of technology inevitably hinges on language use to a large extent, which often results in less costly prices for especially institutional organizations of an international trait. Equally, in multinational business, wandering for commercial profits, for example, was thereby boiled down to extreme shorthand pathways with fewer fees at much pace of speed. The outcome was an encouragement of the up-bringing of extensive utilization of linguistic means within a widened expanse of far-stretched perimeters.

### **1.8. Three Generations in Language Economics**

Theoretical literature distinguishes three generations regarding ‘language economics’ development since the 1960s (Grin, 2002; Vaillancourt, 1983). The first generation of studies tended to picture language as an ethnic attribute (Migué, 1970; Raynauld & Marion, 1972). This tradition was mainly practical in that it was built on field work data collection, categorization and statistical analysis. It was found that a language of a given community is what discriminates its individuals as belonging to some class of groups, and hence language has socioeconomic implications. This coincided with the starts of the 60s of the past century, and could be traced back to the Beckerian theory (1957) about human capital model, which sees abstract knowledge gained through education as a form of rewarding capital.

The second generation belongs to the 70s, where a more apparent economic depiction of language sets clear, and looked at it as a form of human capital. This perspective assumes human skills and knowledge (language is but one) as resources that, if utilized properly, would yield profitable returns to its users. The third generation

did not bring as much an invention in the field as the reconciliation of the two precedent approaches. i.e., it allows for both characteristics of language as being an ethnic attribute and a form of human capital. This generation is believed to come with the works of Vaillancourt (1980) and Lacroix and Vaillancourt (1980) where both of these dimensions were explicitly incorporated simultaneously.

### **1.9. The Concept of Human Capital**

In recent times, the term capital has developed into a new vogue to encompass a broader significance than just the traditional meaning of material references. In fact, it is important to take account of the processes that capitals can be accumulated over time. Human factors are the principle elements in the game of forming capital gains. Studies confirm that there is much more potential part of business in economics which primarily relates not to monetary resources as it actually does to human resources. It is now more acknowledged that skills of individual workers are a way more significant than the sums of wages paid to them as compared to their beneficiary collection of resources, especially those of cognitive nature that yield profits based on qualifications. It is a form of 'human capital' (Becker, 1957). In addition to the fact that language represents a trait of ethnicity distinguishing communities, Grin et al. (2010) confirm that it also functions as an attribute of the overall human capital assets. Based on such notions, the linguistic competences possessed by members of a business community seem to play an extreme importance out of which emerge efficiency and productivity at work (Becker, 1957).

The term 'human capital' is commonly used in education economics to denote the sum of knowledge as represented in its cognitive being, and one from which individuals draw while performing their assigned tasks. Needless to say, the word 'capital' would unarguably be discerned as a form of resource that individuals or communities possess so that they may pursue their needs, where usually an image of exchange is involved. This typically amounts to no more than a minimal process of substituting given resources by others assumed to be reciprocally equal at the theoretical level.

Economic analysis to language tends to approach linguistic skills, in a language other than one's mother tongue, as a resource in a form of human capital. Becker (1964) is recognized to be the one coined the term 'human capital' to mean such skills, mainly intellectual, as literacy and proficiency to act some process properly that it requires returns to its agents.

Accordingly, for a learned language to be part of human capital, it should offer to its users a number of certain features (Chiswick & Miller, 2007). The first of these is productivity. At the workplace, it is more conceived of foreign language skills as a filter for obtaining certain work positions. Therefore, employees with more language proficiency are considered as more efficient in performing better if assigned tasks requiring language skills as key aspects in communicating with partners. Secondly, it is better to nominate tasks to the workers based on the work and language skills than only work skills alone, because for example, having two individuals one of whom has high qualification at work but have poor or none of foreign language proficiency, and another with high language proficiency but poor or none of work qualification will

certainly result in more costs on the part of the employer as compared to profits. A third feature also justifying approaching language as the main feature of human capital at work is that it is specific to its speaker. That is, it cannot be assumed that knowledge of a foreign language displayed by one individual can be detached and assigned to another; that makes it a scarce resource for its acquirers distinguishing them from their peers for being selected at work. Grin et al. (2010) argue that language skills can sometimes be the only crucial agent rewarding to its speakers. It is a mental property raising the likelihood of gaining extra benefits besides being a more qualified workers, because wages are counted in relation to efficiency of which proper communication is a significant part; hence, enjoying more revenues and earnings.

Henceforth, the concept was found useful to describe mental qualifications such as second language knowledge that it enables people to profit from it when functioned in the labor market. Studies that followed this vein of research include Dustmann (1994), Dustmann (1999), Chiswick (2008), Chiswick & Miller (2007), Grenier (1982), to name just a few. Applied to language, therefore, this rationale singles out individuals who are to be considered more proficient and thus are very likely to earn more than whom are less proficient (Dustmann, 1999; Dustmann & Fabbri, 2003; Dustmann & Van Soest, 2001). Research in this direction prevails especially in context where more than one language is in use, and more particularly in the settings functioning with more than one linguistic code as national languages. Canada and Switzerland are at best practical exemplary settings of language varieties and diversification, where two or more languages are institutionally official. Further, a parallel interest of this type of

inquiry concerned itself with wage differentials among immigrants to destination countries with a given dominant language. Case studies of this nature have especially explored the effects of English as a second language for individuals (Chiswick, 1991; Chiswick & Miller, 2003; Grenier, 1984; McManus, Gould, & Welch, 1983). In other words, proficiency in a language is deemed crucial that it is a value creation trait. Tacitly, it measures up to an equivocal resource from a human capital standpoint, because it backs up other work qualifications insomuch as that short of a minimum skill in a language of the workplace setting, the economic activity is vulnerable to slow down.

The quality of the work performance is extravagantly dependent on smooth communication among workforce members. In addition, researchers focused particularly on how immigrants, while at arrival to a host country, made decisions of which language to adopt as both a second language skill and a chance towards a more resourceful opportunity for income (Chiswick, 1991; Chiswick & Miller 1995; Dustmann, 1994; Grenier, 1984; McManus, 1985). Sometimes, a certain set of skills of the language in demand for work is found to be an incentive to select individuals (Christofides & Swidinsky, 1998; 2010). Likewise, specific proficiency to some aspect of the language at use in the labor context has a significant add-off to speakers.

In a few subsequent years from its initial formations, a slight and interesting shift was made in the field of language economics, while keeping focus on such welcoming cradles to immigration (Breton, 1998; Breton & Mieszkowski, 1977; Carr, 1985). This line of investigation attempts to find out the relationship between bilingualism and

economic activity (Henley & Jones, 2005). Consistently, the results often showed that not only a mastery of two languages brings on profits but also is considered as an advantageous payoff (Church & King, 1993).

More recently however, a bulk of research projects exploited the coexistence of multiple languages in their corresponding settings –some of which are mentioned above– and modeled different theoretical as well as empirical measurement of the influence of multilingualism on socio-economic status and vice versa (Grin et al., 2010). Mastery of a second language is essentially maintained to contribute to value creation and the effect is reversed as wage premium rewards to its users. This research stream can be an intriguing initiation of a new avenue for the field holistically, and might benefit not only studies made from an economic point of view to language, but equally a significant gain to other adjacent fields; more particularly those with a predilection for theorization about multilingualism, namely sociolinguistics.

#### **1.10. The Drawback of ‘Language as Currency’ Analogy**

It was referred above to the comparative metaphor between languages and money. It was indicated also how this analogous situation fails at the theoretical level that it becomes evident as useless. It is because language in its being an abstract entity puts it asymmetrical to monetary objects.

Outside the field of language economics, it is well conceived that language can fairly be reminiscent to money. This approach is more relevant in sociolinguistics and usually taken for it. Ironically, the reason of welcoming such view to language often ascribes to the doctrine that approaches language as detached from economic contexts.

Confronting this line of argument, one type of reasoning looks at it as deficient for it is clearly very restrictive. In fact, language as a complete abstract system may not easily be amenable to be modelled as a material object. A slightly different point of view is one lending language to a socioeconomic perspective that sets it as of marketable value (Fry & Lowell, 2003), beyond the paradigmatic insight that was established by structural linguists, stemming out of what Saussurian philosophy figures of language, where communicative tools are regarded as systems uniting communities.

If drawing on the fact that language and currency are to be akin, it is largely bound to the epistemology adhering to their roles in societies. True, both are most commonly circulating systems, and the functional values they display outnumber other human used tools with excellence. Coins and notes are above all used to exchange services, be it cargos or otherwise. In other words, money has value because it can cater for buying given things which equate them in essence. In the same way, a language is exigent for allocating the reciprocal wants of members in communities appropriately in less demanding ways possible. This suggests that the processes of linguistic exchange must start from an attested level appealing to an asset of the same (or at least some variety of a) given linguistic code to be shared among individuals. This latter note concomitantly constitutes one strongly weak point against the analogy where language functions overcome monetary functions: whatever currency-based exchanges held between two or more partners, the linguistic exchange run between two or more parties resorts to a storage that is attained for free (at least in the case of mother tongue), and most of all one that is *inexhaustible*. This argument is in line with that of Coulmas

(1992) when he argues that native language in one's repertoire is available and permanently subject to access by users any time with least effort.

Let us now turn to an economically-based critical view of the parallel that tried to posit language and currency as equal. The first mention of the notion suggesting similarity of linguistic traits to currency was by Rossi-Landi (1968; cited in Grin et al., 2010) when he likened the processes of speech (and its attendant tools) circulation within a given community to what happens in the market level by the exchange of goods in the relative processes. As a matter of fact, since currency could be exchanged with some delivered goods, it is itself a type of the latter in a way. Critics attacked the Rossi-Landi's similes and brought them down to rejection. By comparing something abstract to concrete objects, the analogy fails in that mental assets would evolve in quite different ways and in distinct probable unexpected processes. Furthermore, there is no way of equalizing a concept that implies a source for exchange with one-to-one benefit (in contrast a commodity that is believed as its equivalent) to a market which suggests a whole scenario of multiple functions. This view is explained by some language economics theorist:

A market in the economic sense emerges from the existence of supply and demand functions. Supply is defined as the willingness by producers to offer a certain quantity of a certain good or service at a certain unit price over a certain period. Demand is defined as the willingness by consumers to buy a certain quantity of that good or service at a certain unit price over a certain period. Normally, supply is an increasing function of price, while demand is a decreasing function of price. Hence, the supply curve and the demand curve will intersect in a two-dimensional [...] space, determining an *equilibrium* level both for quantity [...] and price [...] (Grin, 2003, p. 26, emphasis in the original).

Apparently, a sum of money can cater for a need of some service in a given period of time but will become worthless against the very service at some other time as the prices change. Likewise, some goods can act very expensive in exchange with money but may deteriorate to valueless if too much supply comes up; it is also true that these same goods (scarce or abundant) will be devalued or reckoned as without benefit for there is an alternative compensating it in terms of quality and quantity. It might be easily argued against the former notion that language also or some of its aspects (whether lexicon or grammaticality) grows obsolete and thus will count useless. That is admittedly true. However, the point at issue is slightly different from such standpoint. A widely accepted fact would be that human languages may go old fashioned not in a brief time span; it is longer than to be discernible, and even when some linguistic shift at the level of structure or so, the process is near to very finely changes over a few items of language in proportion to a relatively low period. What is then at stake is not the very chronological alterations that occur, but it is about circumstantial factors within which language and currency can compare in the presence of some common agents while regardless of their undeniable obsolescence along a stretched period of time.

One more symmetrical point should be made as regards currency in this direction. In the same way as supply and demand of goods deteriorate over time, currency lose value. Intuitively, this might appear rather supportive to the language-as-currency case than a refutation in that languages also are subject to chronological decline, shift and change. In fact, this is true to the extent that language items may

undergo decay and may completely be outdated so that substituted. In whatever case, however, if a certain language is under evolutionary force, it still keeps its characteristics of services in regard human activities. For example, in warfare, supplies of materials are keenly needed and may be maximized as the patterns of proceedings might dictate. Such needs are well or badly satisfied depending on sufficiency or insufficiency of monetary sources respectively. On the other hand, logistics of wars are not just of a materialistic nature. There is much more about tactics and technical organization of the plans and management. For the latter language can save much with less costs. Additionally, currency is apt to come exhausted on the long run. Language, whether developing or stable, will always be useful in such environments providing its existence among individuals in possession of mutual comprehension of that language.

The notion of likening language to currency is also found in the work of Bourdieu (1980). While Bourdieu adds some market concepts more explicitly, it is still admitted that this approach does not go anywhere from that of Rossi-Landi whose core themes are found in the work of the former without due professional scientific acknowledgement (Grin, 1994).

In addition, in the setting where two communities use two different languages, one dominant language often overrides the other, leading to minimum use of the dominated language that it loses its functional value temporarily except within its community. At the same time, individuals of the smaller community will tend to acquire the language of the dominant group's language (Grin, 1996). Out of this approach there might be one possible case of comparing language to currency. Grin (2003) cites Carr

(1985) for illustrating this instance which he finds somewhat reasonable, but at the same time keeps some caution that this is still impractical until a wealth of empirical work advocates it. The justification for this is that

the parallel to be drawn is not between language on the one hand and currency on the other hand, but between the fact that there exist different languages and the fact that there exist different currencies. In the same way as the use of a common currency facilitates exchange by reducing trading costs, so does the use of a common language. The actual extent of cost reduction, incidentally, is an empirical question that crucially depends on the trading partners' reliance on linguistic communication. (Grin, 2003, p. 27).

### **1.11. Language Educational Attainment and Work Opportunities**

Research on the correlational effects between language and earnings abounds. It is commonplace practice for researchers to build upon a tradition that views language as a form of human capital. In fact, education and schooling in general (Blaug, 1972; Carliner, 1976) and foreign language training especially are established to grant access to more rewarding work positions, and hence create monetary differentials across workers (Chiswick & Miller, 2007). In theory, it follows that the more prolonged a cycle of language acquisition, the more individuals are expected to earn in their future professional life. There is no way to claim that human capital model would imply that language at workplace would be independent from other factors making up the total of intellectual knowledge. Rather, any attained assets in a foreign language add to the gross outcome and must be considered as complementary with other obtained gains

(Chiswick & Miller, 1995). Rivera-Batiz (1990) confirmed this when he investigated whether purely language proficiency effects determine the wage differentials. The surveyed sample comprises Hispanics and non-Hispanics in the United States. One conclusion was that workforce is selected primarily depending on language qualifications, but other skills also count much. Therefore, individuals with language skill and, say, well equipped mathematics backup are more desired.

When addressing the issue of the mutual influence between language knowledge and economic activity, it has at least two interdependent implications; that of the returns ensuing from linguistic skill towards proliferated economic productivity, and the economic incentives towards mastery of languages. The dimensional scope informed by the overlap of these variables yields not only a psycho-economic well-off but also transcends it to an aggregate socio-economic advantage.

Moreover, the rewards of educational background to individuals come at a later stage. In the process of formation, the built-up of educational background tends to accumulate over years and, in a constructive way, scaffolds its own via an extended time span. At this point, this is not truly advantageous in terms of materialistic returns. In the case of foreign language learning, the only instantaneous benefits of this investment are purely intellectual with an expectedly positive adjourned effect on the economic status of the relative individuals. It involves a wide range of considerations from authentic materials of the essence to be taught, the overall pedagogic tactics, to tutors to be charged the task of training. A variety of other peripheral aspects can be demanding as well. On the other hand, there is a consequent outcome to this. Foreign

language skill being acquired is awaited to extend its utility outside the educational settings. It permits individuals to have the chance towards access to market labour contexts. This is assumed to be profitable based on the educationally-attained proficiency. But how much of an opportunity that language acquirers would seize upon in front of economic possibilities depends largely on one's gained arsenal. The extended effect of language training echoes time-persistent returns (when operated at the workplace) to its users. The immediate outcome ensuing from investing in the learning of language is termed internal efficiency, while delayed outcome is known as external efficiency (Grin, 2008).

## **1.12. Labour Market Revenues to Foreign Language Proficiency**

### **1.12.1. Determinant Factors in Foreign Language Acquisition**

Research suggests that three key factors affect individuals' second language proficiency (Chiswick & Miller, 2007). First, the length of time in which a person is exposed to the language in order to acquire the necessary knowledge needed for communication. Therefore, Stevens (1992) assumes that the longer that an individual is in friction with the language, the better they will achieve in it as competency. Second, efficiency in language. It relates to the qualities that language learners afford regarding their readiness and acceptance to learn a language. More aptitude towards acquiring a given foreign language leads to faster achievement. Some people may have higher language acquisition abilities than others but may not learn it as efficient as their peers in that they have affect backgrounds which embed the process. Such affect obstacles may primarily relate to hatred towards the language and its origins in that it could have

once been the language of a colonizer for instance. In fact, language acquisition is not only a process of incorporating a linguistic system to one's own mother tongue, but is likely to be affected by such aspects as cultural tolerance or dismissal. The third factor determining language skill relates to economic incentives. According to Chiswick & Miller (2001), acquiring language demands of individuals' scarce resources that takes from time and expenditure.

Foreign languages are learned especially for their future economic rewards. English colloquial is nowadays the language that is going global, and its prevalence relates specifically to worldwide economic exchanges and business undertaking. Thus, investing one's resources into learning a given language is necessarily bound to its outcomes for better financial chances as a recompensation. Because language and economic factors here interplay, this issue is one essential area for justification where language and economy meet and have common effects on one another (Grin et al., 2010)

### **1.12.2. The Relationship Between Former Language Education and Work Earnings**

One research area in Economics of Language is dealing with the correlations between educational attainment and subsequent occupation. It is found that foreign language attained through past education has deep roles on individuals' future prospects at work. For example, Chiswick & Miller (2002) argued that the level of achieved proficiency in a language that is demanded at business settings is decisive in the incomes of individuals. Not only this, but among the individuals applying for work

positions, the ones exhibiting higher language proficiency are apt to be selected for better work positions and higher incomes. In addition, it is found that more years of education, and language education in particular, grants greater opportunities in work obtainment (Friedberg, 2000).

Furthermore, Grin (2008) draws a model that there are two mutually interrelated aspects of educational attainment. On one part, it is suggested that the years during which language skills are formed are not rewarding immediately, and instead necessitates that individuals will have to provide their money and considerable time expenditures to achieve that; sometimes such resources are spent with uncertainty of whether qualification will be reached or not, which hints some risky decisions made by a person acquiring the language. On the other hand, taking it for granted that the individual will achieve high language proficiency, its rewarding gains will be attained only after years ahead. Overall, being educationally well equipped regarding a dominating foreign language definitely informs decisions made by work managers about their aspired workforce, in that it augments the individual's human capital besides its different components. The research findings about the complementarity of language academic achievement with other skills have especially been an outcome of extensive research carried out within countries receiving immigrant workforce, during the 1990s as the decade witnessing drastic changes in world economy policies due to several reforms ensuing of political considerations mainly. Europe, Canada and other immigration destinations have been in keen need of manpower, and civil wars launched in many parts of the world forced thousands of people to leave their home countries in

search of security and work opportunities. These incidents have well contributed to establish an appropriate platform for research in this direction (Chiswick & Miller, 2007). Some research suggests that even a dominant language within one country and whose speakers acquired it because besides their mother tongue tend to earn more payment than those who speak only one indigenous language (Chiswick et al., 2000). This is usually the case resulting from the post-colonial enduring perceptions of maintaining the colonial language as the dominant in conjunction with the original languages of the nation.

Many of the early studies on language and wage tended to offer statistical results based on two potential dimensions: the first, measurements of language skill and its ascribed outcomes in the market labor (Dustmann & Van Soest, 2003; Rivera-Batiz, 1991). This one relates to the second, however, where these measurements may go in pitfalls because of some unnoticed heterogeneity of the linguistic proficiency assessed. By inference, researching into the actual incentives of the linguistic skills in relation to economic gains may be overly subject to the methodological perspectives applied (say, randomization sampling process). As a result, validity can be affected leading to wronged and biased estimates about both language skill harmony within individuals (or participants) along inadequate diagnosis to the so-called measured proficiency (Dustmann, & Van Soest, 2002). One line of researching the relationships between language and economic activity focused mostly on immigrants' linguistic skill and its anticipated labor benefits. By skill or proficiency here is meant the usual implication of the degree achieved in a language on the basis of which an individual may be deemed

linguistically qualified. It indicates fluency and literacy at the first place. Empirical evidence shows that language knowledge and earnings are proportionately interrelated. For example, studies conducted by Vaillancourt (1980), Boulet (1980), Carliner (1981), Dustmann (1994), Grenier (1982, 1987), Grenier & Vaillancourt (1983), Kossoudji (1988) conclude that how much immigrants would earn is highly dependent on their linguistic skill in the language of the immigration context.

### **1.12.3. Earnings Based on Language Proficiency**

In surveying previous studies carried out within immigrants receiving contexts, it is noted that men are more involved and focused on than women. Dustmann and Van Soest (2002, p. 474) believe that this is ascribed to a variety of factors many of which mainly correspond with the individual gender differences: language learning differences and motives to entering a receiving country. Some research, however, examined both males and females and the findings show that, as might be expected, there is a convergent male-female disparity in the wage premium differentials, leaning the investigation on sex-based variables on the function of language of employment (see e.g., Bloom & Grenier, 1996; Dustmann, 1994).

The great majority of research projects in this direction found a fertile arena in cosmopolitan settings all over the world. Therefore, much of the insights came from environments of formerly linguistic conflicts among the different ethnic groups, such as Canada (Chiswick & Miller, 2003; Grin et al., 2010). Other international analyses have emerged also from studies held about the United States (Grenier, 1984; McManus et al., 1983), Australia (Chiswick & Miller, 1995, 2007), Belgium, Germany (Dustmann

& Van Soest, 2002) and Switzerland (Grin, 1995; Grin & Sfreddo, 1998). More through accounts for these settings can also be found in Chiswick and Miller (1995, 2002, 2007), Grin et al. (2010), and others.

Using cross-section data, mainly governmental censuses, research revealed that foreign-born adult immigrants who are considered more fluent in English earn more than those less in language fluency (Chiswick & Miller, 2001). This is especially true when individuals from non-English speaking countries live in areas where English is used as the common language.

Some early studies have arrived at almost same results. It was found that even ethnic ascription differences have a peripheral effect on labour market returns to male immigrants than does host country language knowledge (McManus et al., 1983; Grenier, 1984). However, ethnic backgrounds and linguistic concentrations were found to affect wage premiums as well for they are so prone to enclose immigrant language users from achieving greater skill (Bloom & Grenier, 1992a; Chiswick & Miller, 2007). Also, group affiliations may signal applicants for work as either desired or undesired if alternative workforce is available, be it understood that language skill is assumed equivalent across individuals. Ethnic attributes along other cultural aspects and work experience can practice seemingly a deep impact. But these indeed are of underpinning snowball effects relative to language requirements. Dealing with these latter issues are however beyond the scope of interest here (see e.g. Bloom & Grenier, 1996; Carliner, 1976; Poston, 1976).

While economists concerned themselves extensively with modelling the interplay between a destination country's dominant language and payment, it is quite surprising that the language of origin or mother tongue of immigrants is poorly considered. An exclusively total absence (albeit mere marginal references) of exploring indigenous people's languages with possible economic payoff (Chiswick et al., 2000) can be easily detected through research papers.

Not all immigrant receiving countries are at equal terms regarding the volume of comers' waves. Some nations witness more intense inflows than others. Other destinations are however less immigrant receivers in that they seem to not satisfy the conditional impetus which is mainly employment. As a consequence, these latter practically suffer from inadequate research exploration. Except for a number of studies undertaken in these contexts, there might be inspiring facts than could not be obtained elsewhere. In an attempt for covering such surroundings with their economic bearings on language issues, one study is found in this direction carried out by Chiswick et al. (2000). To draw a paradigm for eliciting contextual evidence, the researchers matched patterns from developed countries to their less developed counterparts (developing countries). Unlike what might be expected into a context where immigration is immensely substantial, a language of poorly destined settings brings a totally different set of findings. Individuals with proficiency in the dominant language are mostly favored than those whom are with a profile of bilingual repertoires even if they have certain mastery of the dominant language along the common homeland language (Chiswick, Patrinos, & Hurst, 2000). Noteworthy to point out, exclusively in such

contexts, a dominant language is not necessarily the official language acknowledged by the government. It could be anything from language of trade or even an adopted system under the effect of some antecedent form of colonialism (see e.g. Ricento, 2009).

### **1.13. The Economic Force in Second Language Acquisition**

In assessing the determinants of foreign language acquisition among immigrants, research refers to the fact that, not only economic reasons are what motivate persons to move, but there are equally other factors. It is believed that the cultural aspects and educational background (either possessed in the pre-immigration stage or otherwise) contribute also to individual's language fluency (Espenshade & Fu, 1997). In addition, expertise in language acquisition, in conjunction with life experiences of several types, has an impact as well. Chiswick and Miller (1998, 2007) found that, regardless of other incentives, exposure to English among immigrants dramatically affects language learnability. Exposure to foreign language by immigrants is firmly related to variables such as place of birth, duration of residence in the destination countries, and most importantly the age and gender. It is unarguably true that by prolonging one's stay, language mastery is well expected to be reinforced. The negative effect resulting from poor or lack of friction with the use of English by immigrants is apparent when a comparison is drawn between individuals whom are being enclosed in social group enclaves, and those favouring to mingle with native English language speakers (Bloom & Grenier, 1992b; Chiswick & Miller, 2007). Replications of the influence of economically-pertinent variables, along other measured social factors in different

contexts, while using cross-sectional data (induced from self-reported surveys in the main) tend to validate previously obtained results (Espinosa & Massey, 1997).

A further finding that relates to language proficiency also points to the individual's country of origin. Carliner (2000) for example attempted to investigate this issue in regard past background of the sending setting. He reports that over time, skill in English was steadily deteriorating among emigrant persons. Further, the author attributes this to the gap created as a result of the factors leading immigrants to head at some destination country under the facilities offered to them. Therefore, former countries of source migration may have changed language policies for citizens, and consequently, resulting in changes over individuals' perceptions in respect future prospects. Thus, adapting one's human capital is apt to undergo drastic shifts of interest that it should match to employability in the destination countries.

Linguistic distance (Carliner, 2000; Chiswick & Miller, 2001, 2007) between the immigrant's native language and the foreign country dominant language is of potential consideration than is geographical distance between the origin and receiving countries (Carliner, 2000). This latter implies that for language fluency to augment, it is firmly bound to structural closeness between the linguistic systems.

While these insights represent instances of evidence coming uniquely either from country of origin or country of destination, another fashion of research launched recently and attempts to take both of the settings along. It combines between natal birthplace to individuals as well as respective immigration nations and how they

coordinated into determining individuals' language adequacy in reference to economic mobility. Following the line of argument proposed by Portes, Guarnizo, and Landolt (1999), in which it was observed that little attention is paid to host communities, some researchers make allowances for language proficiency determinants for migrants from a transnational perspective. Besides, this orientation not only focuses on single cases of environments neither to be in one direction; rather multivariate origin and receiving contexts are counted for (Van Tubergen & Kalmijn, 2005). Findings point out that when controlling for micro-level differences among immigrants (age, marital status, gender, educational attainment, etc.), the macro-level dimensions (i.e., external factors) also practice substantive effects on language efficiency in that certain ethnic groups excel over others (Dustmann, 1994; Dustmann & Van Soest, 2002). However, socio-economic factors in the sending countries are observed to cause some differences between groups (Carliner, 2000). Thus, these facts should be taken with some caution before they are packed for generalizability to other context.

## **Conclusion**

Throughout the review introduced in this chapter, different issues relating language to economic activities were elaborated. The main objective of the chapter was to establish a rationale for the significance of the economic thought to language modelling in business settings. A brief preview of the background attesting to the emergence and development of the field was drawn, substantiated by the basic conceptual frameworks supporting the claims of an exigent need for reciprocity between language and economically-related variables. It is shown that language and

economics interact in a myriad of ways. Though excessively ignored an approach for explicating many of the language issues that other fields would admittedly fail to account for, economic viewpoints further substantiate and contribute to the existing body of knowledge about language. Indeed, previous research in economics of language suggests that linguistic assets acquired by individuals, notably certain foreign language skills, dramatically affect the socioeconomic status of the speakers and render them as efficient workforce. The methodical orientation on which that paradigm is leaned subscribes to the view that the language attained skills are a form of a human capital that contributes to the other cognitive achievements needed at work. The human capital model is one of the benchmarks of language economics that explicates and justifies the relevance of economic perspectives about statuses of languages in business environments. The human capital model sometimes led to derive strong versions of adherence that extend the claims to a further extreme of postulating about the roles played by language in the labour market. In that sense, economically speaking, language is reminiscent currency in the various market exchange processes. It was also shown how knowledge of given languages renders speakers liable to be signaled out for recruitment by employees. Economic revenues accruing to individuals at work appear to be highly affected by foreign language competencies. Scholars establish that depending on workplace contexts demanding some notable foreign language skills, earnings differentials among workers are language-based in many occasions. This chapter constituted the baseline for the next chapter, in that it mainly prepares the platform to specifically devote considerable space for the importance of English at the workplace settings. It also will help easily grasp the ideal of the economic relevance to

planning language and the making of policies along the traditional approaches that used to involve sociolinguistic factors at the expense of other research brands.

**CHAPTER 2:  
ENGLISH IN  
MULTINATIONAL  
COMPANIES**

## **Introduction**

English has for so long been an interest to researchers among the various disciplines, due to its phenomenal dominance worldwide. In business research, the language management, policy and planning float to the surface as the starting point of proper communication for any multinational. In what follows is a brief overview of the research about language in business settings in which the focus is English. At the workplace environments, English is viewed as a compulsive linguistic system that intermediates communication processes. In that manner, the '*Business English as Lingua Franca*' is taking over a cliché familiarity. By drawing on research findings about corporate language management, the passages in the next pages are basically capitalizing on these presumptions and attempt to examine the English language reality which sets it as the shared linguistic system of business nowadays.

### **2.1. Corporate Language**

Kachru (1995) has considered an analysis of the English language situation where it is used as a second language, and accordingly classified three instances of its usage; individuals speaking English as their first language (L1) working in a foreign context from their native country, English as a second language (SL) used speakers who acquired it next to their native language, and those who would use it as a foreign language (FL) beyond both the first language and second language.

Research into communication problems at the workplace suggests that a whole range of issues become enduring challenges facing multinationals. Cultural-based barriers can cause severe divides among individuals which may ultimately lead

companies' human capital structures be under threats of loss (Pullin, 2010). Therefore, as international corporations grow, their awareness of the need for setting internal harmonious work environments is also increasingly acknowledged. Alleviating communication problems necessitates an evaluation of language differences (as part of the overall cultural loads) in attempt to draw an effectively rapprochement among co-workers to gain trustworthiness (Charles, 2007). Literature declares that an abundant body of texts has exhaustively dealt with the importance of considering employees' needs, and has certainly padded in the issues of miscommunication at rich detail. The coverage is yet so far very formal, while at the same time casual practices which seem to construct the basis of the whole communications occurring at workplace settings are literally largely overlooked (Pullin, 2010). Matters such as informal discussions, intimate chit-chats between co-worker colleagues and so on are found to be of potential importance in creating less-tension work atmospheres. A shared ground of well tied rapport of teamwork spirit contributes to the augmentation of companies' productivity (Crosling & Ward, 2002).

Based on similar accounts of what is just mentioned, scholars have directed special attention towards examining the effects of sharing a common language on individuals interpersonal communication and its role in promoting effectiveness at the workplace. A common language is one designated linguistic system that may gain speakers' empathy, which in turn leads to surpassing internal communicative problems within companies. To applied linguists, it is known as 'corporate language' (Kankaanranta, Salminen, & Karhunen, 2015, p. 127). This is particularly significant in relation to what

Pullin (2010) terms as “small talk” in that it is “a prime means of nurturing relations between workers” (p. 456). Accordingly, as informal small talk constitutes a major type that houses considerable room of communicative recurrences, it is understandably worthwhile to envisage it into the larger system of analytical paradigms of the language situation at business environments. The for-granted reality of acknowledging English as an internationally accepted language is no longer to be argued for whereas is readily recognized by default Nickerson (2005). Doubtless, the effect of that axiomatic postulate manifests itself in the ways English brings together different people of various origins and diverse cultural backgrounds. That state of affairs is a general case in most communities sharing common interests; needless to say, business settings and grand-entrepreneurship milieus are but no exception. Talking of English in business will prompt literature approaching especially *English as business lingua franca* (e.g., Ehrenreich, 2010; Pullin, 2010) which, in the main, is an explicit extension of the originated applied linguistics ‘*English as a lingua franca*’ (e.g. Mauranen,2006; Seidlhofer, 2001).

## **2.2. Situating English for Business and Economics Purposes**

Obviously, the English that is used in industry sectors of an international dimension deeply differs from the English we learn at school. The English as a Foreign language taught in education is usually General English used for daily communication, and thus its pertinent courses are designed to cater for the learner’s needs to use it for general purposes that is considered common knowledge (Hutchinson & Waters,1987). In specific contexts such as business entrepreneurship, English can be a foreign language

to not only non-native speakers but surprisingly even to native speakers, because it is specific and field-based knowledge type of English. In applied linguistics terms, the English courses specifically tailored to meet functional roles specific to the domain of usage is termed English for Specific Purposes (ESP). As a research field, ESP is a subbranch of applied linguistics that is situation-related in content; it is hard to be defined as a sub-type variety of English (García Mayo, 2000). Educationally speaking, ESP is significantly “an approach to language teaching which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner’s reason for learning” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 16). Accordingly, ESP cannot be defined simply as fixed genres of knowledge that are fit to be taught at any situation and time, but rather a dynamic feature of language that is contextually bound.

To distinguish English for Specific purposes (ESP) from English for General Purposes (EGP) on one hand, and on the other hand to contextualize it with its sub-classifications, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) offer a classical model of an arborescence diagram as an illustration. In the tree model introduced, there is an encompassing language that is inclusive of both EGP and ESP. Then, EGP and ESP function as two fundamental branches of the tree out of which sub-varieties further emerge.

Based on that classification, ESP has three major subdivisions which are: English for sciences, English for social sciences (ESS), and English for business and economics (EBE). The latter further comprises two sub-categories, so that it can be for academic purposes or for occupational purposes (*Figure 1*). In the model of Hutchinson and

Waters, consequently, EOP could be of various types depending on the contextual and situational usages.

However, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), consider EOP as a direct emergent of ESP; it is considered as a particular variety of English that has as a prime concern the provision of courses for professional and vocational purposes. They note that English for business purposes, as a derivation from English for occupational purposes, can sometimes override with English for Academic purposes. Furthermore, because the main objective in ESP courses in broad terms is to equip the learners to handle the know-how of the business communication in principle, it is usually recommended that general knowledge of English is introduced.

According to Ellis and Johnson (2002), Business English is different from other sub-types of ESP in that it consists of a mixture of specific content that often relates to a specific job or area, compared to general content which primarily relates to general ability of communicating more adequately. Therefore, Business English is a language variety with characterizing lexical domain that is particularly field-dependent, and which requires knowledge of special patterns relating to the business community. In fact, it is that such special vocabulary characteristics that make Business English distinguishable from General English (Zhu, 2008). In addition, as pointed out beforehand, the English that is used in business communication is simple in style and content, with domain-specific vocabulary, and free of cultural loads that may confuse addressees of other origins.

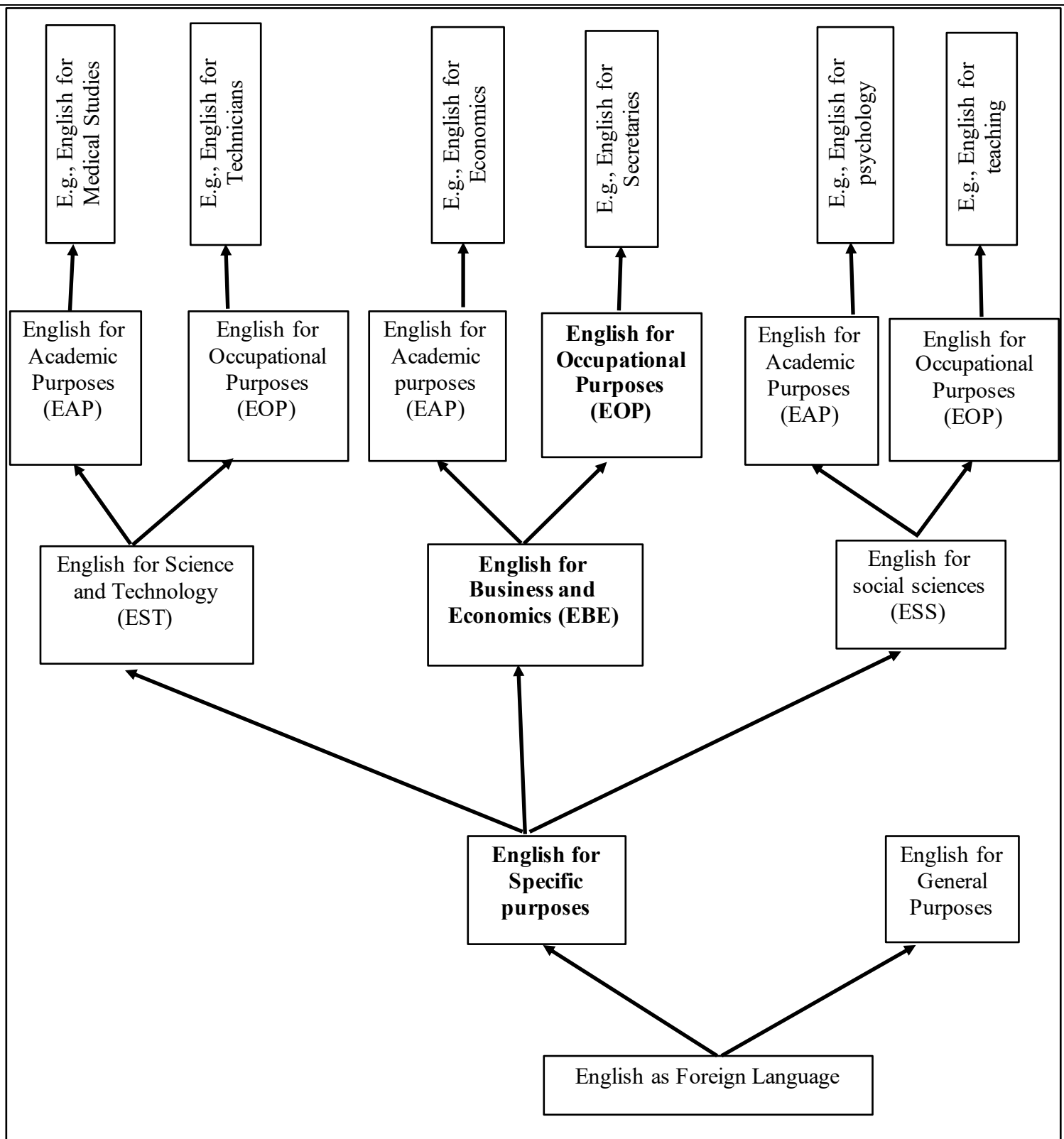


Figure 1 Classification of English for Business and Economics within English for Specific purposes (adapted from Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 17)

### **2.3. “English as Business Lingua Franca” (BELF)**

Most of language research at the workplace stems from or is informed by applied linguistic thought. Language variety, multilingualism, pluralism are tenets of the subject matter of ongoing linguistic research over years. To what extent may language diversity be an advantage or disadvantage much hinges on the contextual dictations. As advanced beforehand, very often, cultural and language differences lead to inefficiency of communication fluency within multinational companies, which in its own right presumes the need for a shared language (Kankaanranta et al., 2015).

English at the workplace environments is conceived of as an international contact language (Ehrenreich, 2010). In introducing English as a corporate language, it may actually create problems itself in that not all individual employees will have proficiency in it (Charles, 2007). Yet, it is equally found that a well-considered language planning may result in a very productive setting of language use by rather focusing on the effectiveness of communication as opposed to language proficiency (Ehrenreich, 2010).

Studies show that successful communication directly owes to the categories of the stereotyped inherent perceptions towards English first by language policy makers and second by employees, based on the context where BELF is operated; the starter is by recognizing the individual differences and the different uses of language (Pullin, 2010). Linguistic imbalances resulting from presence of English-native speakers shall absolutely bring with them miscommunication in different ways, in that non-natives may experience the feel of language level inferiority that may prohibit them to exhibit

their English, leading ultimately to the danger of suppressing ideas and not sharing information. Likewise, the presences of natives will very likely cause problems of misunderstanding considering the language competences compared to their counterpart non-natives (Ehrenreich, 2010). For that matter users of shared corporate English at the workplace “may appear to have the odds stacked against them. They are intrinsically ‘different others,’ sharing little in terms of common origins and working in a language that is not their own. Their level of language proficiency may be weak or there may be considerable differences in linguistic proficiency in any one group.” (Pullin, 2010, p. 457). In order for the concerned entities in charge of language policy making to discern and implement practically strategic BELF use, there is an impelling exigency of grasping a full understanding of that BELF nature.

For that reason, Ehrenreich (2010, p. 409) quite importantly asks “what is the nature, structure, and global scope of individual business contexts and who are the people in these contexts using English as a communicative tool?”. An initial response to that type of question, one may suggest that the rationale on the basis of which multinationals may opt for English choice, in the different processes of communication, must be problem-solving-oriented rather than based on language correctness. By that it is meant that even workers will have to be made aware of the fact that information sharing is of priority by encouraging them to commit mistakes while they speak if that is what it takes. As Kankaanranta and Salminen (2013, p. 17) put it “that for BELF speakers, grammatical correctness is not nearly as important as the general knowledge of their own specific field of expertise, involving a shared understanding of what, why,

how and when to communicate”. It, thus, ought to be put obvious before them that their linguistic competence, while undoubtedly appreciated, should be considered yet at the secondary location relative to work responsibility spirit that is grounded on proper communication at all its stages. Because employees’ relationships are what matter most at workplace business settings, a commonly shared language, usually BELF, facilitates the various interpersonal commitments of achieving productivity in work performance (Charles, 2007).

In the same direction, Ehrenreich (2010) argues that the English used for international communication at a liberal use of the term (as searched by applied linguistics) and that specifically used in business are characterized by the fact that they are different from *Englishes* (Seidlhofer, 2009, p. 238) of their native speakers. In other words, BELF is widely accepted as one type of English that belongs to none but shared by all, and which is specifically existent in the business settings.

#### **2.4. The Position of English in Multinationals**

Having established a brief context for English as lingua franca in business, let us examine that fact under the implications of the English language worldwide dominance in relation to business-contextual levels. At first sight, English predominance is liberally approached in related literature with little attention to the implicit bearings of the term. It is important to reflect on the issue of dominance as not of more negative connotations in being a literally ‘smashing’ abstraction. Regardless of how different people may perceive English based on their historical bound to it –notably decolonized

from it or else, the meanings inherent within the term must be understood in function of a detached impersonal view of a particularly business-laden orientation.

Overall, the increasing widespread of English is fundamentally upgraded by the expanding invasive ambitions of ancient colonial seizure exerted by the British empire over centuries, the recent American political world hegemony and economic influence, the technological upsurge in the field of speed of information sharing, and corporate mergers (House, 2002), in addition to the overwhelming English-based produced texts and material that is originated in The United States especially (Tietze, 2004). As mentioned earlier, multinationals are put on the ladder of placing considerable intent upon safely ongoing communications than even work itself.

A proper functioning unit –be it a departmental division, human resources institution or others-- of a company is well reflected in how far rapport among its individuals is smooth. The latter however is only an antecedent of wise choices made about the corporate language(s). Supposing that because English is gaining momentum by means the fact of the respective prominence is liable to render it as an absolute delegate for multinationals worldwide is but a pitfall fallacy. Indeed, as Fredriksson et al. (2006, p. 407) note “the mere introduction of English as the corporate language does not automatically lead to its adoption, nor does it make it ‘shared’ throughout the organization”. It is known that English as lingua franca denotes a form of language that is different from the general structures of the native nations’ proper language. It is a shared language that may be talked by people possessing different linguistic assets. It follows that even natives may mark their presence at the setting but may have to take

degenerate forms of non-native speakers' English talk only for it. If English is promoted to a corporate language within a given organization, it does not presuppose an underlying prohibition of using other languages or their automated disappearance from the scene (Ehrenreich, 2010).

Given that in multinationals the settings incorporate individuals from all walks of life of a whole spectrum of differences, it is oftentimes the case that speeches take on unexpectedly various kinds depending on factors such as preferences, cultural persuasions, linguistic attitudes and efficiency to list only a few. Case in point is linguistically-related variables of which proficiencies add to the personal convictions of workers as regards English in the presence of their mother tongue or otherwise. In the absence of an officially articulated language policy declaring preventative measures of using other than English, something definitely unfavorably critical to companies' status, a discourse in BELF may concord with usage of other languages (Fredriksson, et al., 2006).

A conceptualized framework of a chosen corporate language which is usually English does not lend itself to the mere fact of its acceptance among workers, but may have to encounter hindrances of the contextual business-related linguistic discourse factors. Ehrenreich (2010) found that in a German-based multinational whose crew of workers is/are basically Germans, employees tend not to communicate in English even though it is squarely declared that English is officialized as the common working language. Rather, employees surveyed announce that the use of English among 'German-only groups' is irrational. As a result, it can be inferred that the findings of

(and/or similar to) the Ehrenreich's (2010) study will raise the essential question of what is it then for language brokers in the firms to take account of in respect designating a common language. Early on, Fredriksson et al. (2006) argued that in anticipating such situations, whereby multinationals are multilingual by deduction, it is a precautionary measure of first turning an alert eye to the myriad of the different intertwined associations among the languages at play.

## **2.5. The Language of Internal Communication in Multinationals**

Corporate companies are continuously engaged into two main types of communication: internal and external. External communication is primarily decided upon in the language policy based on mutual cooperation and partnership between multinationals; in general terms, English is designated as corporate language by default most likely. However, internal communication within the multinational could raise problems, taking into account the staff of employees coming from different origins, resulting in an internal communication that goes global across cultures only within the same organization. Therefore, if taking it for granted that English is used for external communication, then in the case of internal communication would it be standard English or some variant version of international Englishes (Louhiala-Salminen & Kankaanranta, 2012). In fact, the English language used in business variably differs from that of native speakers. On the other hand, what about the local language of the companies?

Some researchers assert that the general aspects of communication processes occurring inside multinationals are surprisingly erroneously conceived (Fredriksson et

al., 2006). For most people the communicative competence is a shortcut of conveying ideas and thoughts and making the other part comprehend the messages simply by means of a shared language. In fact, it is found that using the language that is understood by two parties in order to pass a given thought is but one aspect of the overall communicative action. Full-fledged interaction among members of a business organization involves more than competence in a foreign language, to include knowledge of multicultural aspects out of which impart different values, perceptions and attitudes (Marschan-Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 1999).

It is aforementioned that the usual approach that multinational companies use to facilitate communication among its employee staff is designation of a corporate language. In fact, the corporate language is unarguably a good decision with a number of advantages, but at the same time can be disadvantageous, and its limitations vary according to the contexts it is operated in. The corporate language, which is often English, is a language that is not the mother tongue of anyone in the work community (Charles & Marschan-Piekkari, 2002). The problems emerging from using English occur among workers no matter whether English is a native or non-native language. It is found that non-native speakers do not have equal language abilities, which adds to the complexities of the other factors of communication difficulties. Knowledge of standard English does not automatically mean managing communication with the others. Research suggests that for non-natives of a subsidiary company whom were trained in English in order to facilitate merging with other non-natives, has no much effect in mitigating interaction barriers, especially if the non-native English speakers' subsidiary is coming from a nation that has wide intercultural differences with the other

non-natives of the destination in which the company is localized. Piekkari (2006) found that in the subsidiaries operating in countries where locals do not promote to proficient corporate language speakers, there is noted an inhibition of fluent communication both internally and with sister subsidiary units.

Goodall and Roberts (2003) discussed the problem of team work communication in the case of mixtures of international personnel hired for work. They particularly focussed on the conflicts caused by geographical distances of individuals of which cultural differences float to the surface as in any similar community of this type. In the study, it was argued that the challenge for the corporations is insurance of coordination while faced with the dilemma of language challenges among the employees to communicate effectively among themselves. The foreignness inside the work environment is due to expatriate staff that is invited from international boundaries, simply because considering choosing from local individuals is hindered with their lack of work qualifications and limited abilities to occupy certain high-quality positions. The writers concluded that in firms operating internationally, local staff suffer from several communication problems with foreign staff in their organization, especially because foreigners are hired for managerial posts, granting them more hierarchical power, so that they sometimes use English or some corporate language by default, resulting in misunderstandings on the part of local staff who understands none or only little of the languages used. Henderson (2005, p. 66) commented that the “major challenge for teams composed of speakers of different languages is the building of trust and relationships that are language dependent.” By consequence, because local staff faces

the obstacle of languages used, they will end up having a very limited strategic and intercultural awareness for them to be more efficient members in their teamwork.

Vaara, Tienari, Piekkari, and Säntti (2005, p. 595) reported similar findings to those of Goodall and Roberts (2003). Vaara et al.'s notional framework of their study is basically leaned on the model drawn by researchers who examined the cultural influences resulting from the colonization, which often predictably assumes power and dominance issues. Their investigation of language knowledge as a source of power in international merging firms has concluded several interesting implications. It was found that corporate languages designated for communication by policymakers can be either “empowering or disempowering resources” for individuals in the organization. The language differences competencies create gaps in the communication process among the members, resulting in the formation of social networks. Such differences also contribute to foster international confrontations, and lead to an emergence of several rank classifications of superiority and inferiority.

Additionally, what makes it more challenging in this case is that the control implicitly assigned to managers lead them to communicate vaguely to their respective sub-divisions forming their relevant teamwork; this leads to serious problems of unclarity of information, which in turn results in frustration and discomfort that affect building trust and rapport within the community (Goodall & Roberts, 2003). Ultimately, local staff will have concerns of communication and feel sensitive because their personal interest is disregarded and that the language they speak feels worthless, which in fact threatens to shake the organization's internal structure by affecting

teamwork coordination in the absence of intimate relationships based on mutual deep understanding. In contrary, showing empathy of considering the other's language in teamwork reduces negative feelings, and furthers teamwork spirit which is a safer strategy to augment work efficiency and rapidity in achievement.

In fact, business settings of multilingual teams where the local language is neglected in the processes of communication, and English is used instead, poses a number of encounters to both its native and non-native speakers (Kassis Henderson, 2005). Therefore, research findings obtained of international multilingual contexts have potential implications for organizations. Evidence on the issue of English operationalization as a Business Lingua Franca, as causing a number of communicative challenges, is a call for multinational companies to take serious accounts of the specifics relating especially to the local languages.

Thomas (2008) proposes that communication taking place between staff hired locally in the expatriate subsidiary and its headquarters is in the selected corporate language; but within the subsidiary the best strategy is that managers use the local language(s) to address the local employees, and if among locally hired personnel are speakers of a corporate language, the choice is free for communication between the expatriates and the local personnel, providing that both parts feel comfortable about the language of interaction used. Van den Born, Floor, and Peltokorpi (2010) claim that using the local languages inside the foreign subsidiary can have a powerful benefit to establish relations with customers and help in the recruitment regulation when seeking work proficiency and skill.

## **2.6. English, Parent Company Language, or Subsidiary Local Language**

Multinational companies conducting business internationally are generally faced with a range of issues among which the nature of the receiving environment is the most crucial. In the foreign context where a subsidiary operates, the parent company faces the obstacle of the language choice. Should the subsidiary use the native language of its headquarter? or should it use a language that is context-determined? These problematic questions to which organizations ought to find answers must be addressed before business is placed in action.

Luo and Shenkar (2006) put forward three possible scenarios for subsidiaries to consider. The first scenario is that the subsidiary may capitalize on its parent headquarter's language. Luo and Shenkar give an example of a Japanese subsidiary operating in the United States where Japanese is the functional language rather than English. The second scenario is that a subsidiary adopts the local language of the destination context as its official means of communication. The exemplary situation for illustration here is a German-based subsidiary in the United states which uses English rather than German. The third scenario is allocating a language that is neither a parent corporation's official language nor is it a local language of the host country. It is a third language (often English as *Lingua Franca*) which is encourages cohesiveness within the subsidiary, such as a Mexican subsidiary of which origin is a French-based parent.

On the other hand, Luo and Shenkar (2006) discuss the issue at the parent corporate level. In this case, the functional language may or may not be the native language of the headquarter, such as in the case of the Finnish Nokia and the Dutch

Philips companies which officially use English as their functional language. English is selected simply because it is the guarantee of internationalization of the large-scale enterprises enjoying a worldwide reputation. Subunit subsidiaries are sometimes forced to use a corporate language which is different from both the home and local languages to ensure a two-folded purpose, to facilitate intra-communication (among themselves and with the parent) as well as communication with global partners.

It is possible also that multinationals may opt for using more than one language in their internal communication and keep one functional language for external communication (Fredriksson et al., 2006; Thomas, 2008). Fredriksson et al. give an example of one company which makes use of both German and English for internal communication among personnel.

## **2.7. Multilingualism as a Barrier to Multinational Companies**

For workforce recruitment, very usually, firms tend to screen out proficient workers regarding their professional competence and academic achievements. It is also the case that in the overall company structure language skill is especially required in certain ways for specific positions than others. Individuals whom are chosen to occupy positions of where language use is more demanded are known as “language workers” (Tange, 2009, p. 131). In some cases, cultural diversity and language varieties are viewed as enrichment to the business communities. It is believed to offer a supportive landscape for the companies and reinforces their competitiveness in the labour market. In the same way, the presence of several linguistic competences embodied in the personnel may represent an accessible wealth at the disposal of the corporations not

available to counterparts (Dhir & Gòkè-Paríolá, 2002). In this instance, diversity is approached as a blessing and becomes a scarce resource of the global human capital.

Communicating externally with partners requires multinationals to devise ways of smooth rapport building and maintenance. However, the challenge is a multifaceted prism. There is more than market exchange and dealing contracts that corporations should consider. Negotiations with customers and suppliers, and settling issues of monetary exchange that may have incomparable returns to the companies necessitate not only proficient eloquence and methodical persuasive language, but at times foreign language skills are extravagantly key functional tools than mere speeches. It is this characteristic of communication with the outside that companies are entailed to develop strategic language management policies for. Of course, in situations such those involving intruding labour market demands, language diversity will certainly constitute a spill-over profile to corporations. On the contrary, however, there could hardly be an application of language policy meeting external needs without a starter from an internal stipulation. From within, language diversity sets up a departure that goes at odds with international aspirations of a firm.

The implementation of a language policy is dependent not only on the degree of a language's status and prominence to its users, but to a spectrum of different agents specific to the multinationals. In some cases, the choice of a design that is inclusive to a number of language systems for internal communication may become compulsory. Nevertheless, oftentimes, one language predominates others based on particular strategic orientations of the business environment. For multilingual corporations, Luo

and Shenkar (2006, p. 321) argue, this language is viewed as a '*parent functional language*' (in reference to headquarter parent company) while other subordinate languages of the second position in terms of occasions of use will be '*subunit functional languages*' (as reference to subsidiaries). The authors further suggest that the determination of which to use is primarily associated with the strategic management underlined in the multinationals policies. Thus, the corporate dominant language of headquarters is usually a product of the organizational structures, transnational operations and agreements, and the breadth of international aspirations. In contrast, subsidiary functional languages are determined by their roles within the subunits, the overall institutional form, and the expatriate contexts.

With all the usefulness of a multilingual background, "a multinational organization that operates in diverse locations and cultures, the challenges of deriving synergy from a set of activities performed by individuals who speak different languages can be daunting" (Dhir and Gòkè-Paríolá, 2002, p. 241). In effect, that scenario adds to a complex situation more tension; an amalgam of merging forces –such those as the gaps of interculturality and geographical cross-borders, as well as the technologically-caused inconstant changes by virtue of an accelerated pace of a globalizing world, is found to be very determinant in the ways of how multinationals undertake business (Dhir & Gòkè-Paríolá, 2002; Luo & Shenkar, 2006). Factorial configurations distinguishing people working for the same company are drastically influential. They lead to creation of the differing features of the business context. Multilingualism as a policy choice is made an embedding profile for the firms.

Corporate language planning makers will have their produced policies directly practiced and fostered by language workers as first-hand (Dhir & Gòkè-Paríolá, 2002). In a research study by Vaara et al. (2005) regarding the influence of a corporate language as a component of the whole organizational structure, a merger of two banks –one Finnish and the other Swedish, was investigated. It was found that language skills are in a direct interplay with the power of communication, in terms of their inextricable association with professional knowledge and the role such language skills have in extending and solidifying social network relationships. Put inversely, the usage of different languages among participant workers widens the chances of creating cleavages, which consequently result in making language diversification feature as a disempowering resource to actors.

Although language diversification in social settings may be considered a wealth of advantages with its implicational aspects, it is however disadvantageous in multinationals in many ways. At face value, multilingualism at whichever level of conceptualization may be a luring alternative of richness. Yet, it should be arguably manifest that for considerations of the contextual and background differences referred to earlier, the multilingual policy as a choice for the internationally-based enterprises will have risky outcomes. Alignment of company strategic orientations with both structural dimensions and language policy outcomes by taking account of “ethnocentricity, polycentricity, or egocentricity” may turn out “beneficial”, while “what is good in theory is often more difficult in practice” (Van den Born & Peltokorpi, 2010, p. 97).

Let us note that the word diversification employed in the context of the present passages is an umbrella term that disregarding the sociolinguistic implications is apparently deliberate. That is to say, no specific focus is made for the variously different connotative meanings of distinguishable multilingualism, plurilingualism, or even semi-plurilingualism. Rather, a recurrence of any two or more existent languages is viewed as a linguistic diversification, totally leaving out the competence levels and skills. For that matter, the use of any such terminology is dealt with as synonymy for the purposive discussion of the language issue at companies in this regard.

Bearing on the ontological conceptualization of contextualizing different language systems based on equivalency principle, the procedure tends to fall short when attempting to draw linguistic equilibria; it makes only a blind alley. In the well-renowned theological story of the babel tower, it is widely pervasive that people were used to communicate in one common language, leading a comfortable life, sharing burden at ease, partaking responsibilities, and doing all that it takes to be of mutuality. May we remind that at the time people dared God and started to defy divine power, they decided to go against nature and build a tower to reach out to heavens. As a punishment from their Lord, their wrong deeds incurred that their tongues were gone dispersed and that the people were ultimately scattered over the planet.

## **2.8. Lingua Franca Business English vs. English as Official**

It is generally accepted that English is a corporate language of internal communication in multinational companies. Bearing in mind that different cultural profiles coexist at the workplace, Kankaanranta et al. (2015) remind us that it is not

possible to conceptualize English as simply a shared language for use, because the majority of the personnel staff are non-natives, and thus English for them is a foreign language. For employees in multinational companies, what is required to learn accordingly “is not English as a native language but communicative effectiveness in English as a business lingua franca, which—as an international contact language—brings together nonnative as well as native Englishes from various linguacultural backgrounds spoken with varying degrees of proficiency” (Ehrenreich, 2010, p. 408).

Addressing the issue of corporate language in multinationals tends to lend English as the tacit shared tool. In an absence of a practical model supporting the for granted maxim of aligning English for exploitation in business communication, it makes it hard sometimes to draw the line of what type of English it is. Indeed, even though researchers tend to conceptualize it as a discrete linguistic system (Kankaanranta et al., 2015, p. 138), it is important to be aware of the practical differentiations deriving from contextual language uses and situation-specific communications. Of course, at the workplace communicative skills are not solely determined by English language competence, but also by the knowhow of business proceedings (Louhiala-Salminen & Kankaanranta, p. 2011).

Although BELF competence presumes having an attained level of general English, research shows that according to the employees’ perceptions, there are three factors of BELF competence at the workplace that distinguish it from general or official English: a business domain that is common to the individuals, field-specific expertise shared, and the depth of the relationships between the communicators (Kankaanranta &

Planken, 2010). In addition, Kankaanranta et al. (2015, p. 140) argue that “official corporate language” may be a constraint for workers because they perform better in recourse the business-related knowledge that is part of BELF competence.

Kankaanranta and Louhiala-Salminen (2013) developed a paradigm which distinguishes business English as lingua franca (BELF) from English as a foreign language (EFL), based on several criteria relating to their users. To be a successful interactant, speakers of EFL must reach native-like proficiency, while speakers of business English as lingua franca should primarily be equipped with proper business communication skills (such as directness and brevity in style), as well as strategic skills (the way of conveying certain orders for someone to perform a task). Second, the aim of the EFL user is to attempt the correct imitation of the language to speak it as its native speakers. Their utmost focus is pronunciation and mannerisms of speech characterizing the language accent and fluency, as opposed to the BELF user whose main objective is to perform properly and build efficient rapport with the working community members. For the latter, language correctness in terms of grammaticality is not so much important as business know-how. The non-native speakers of EFL are perceived as a problem-source learner to the advisor due to their linguistic inadequacy, while for BELF non-natives are regarded as communicators without interest into their language proficiency level, because their weak point is in the communication process and not on the linguistic dimension. In addition, EFL learners are supposed to be acquiring the language as immersed in its original culture of the natives as compared to BELF learners who are concerned with developing an intercultural aspect of the business workplace. Last and

most important, EFL represents the language that is a property of native speakers who would make judgements on its learners if they acquire it inadequately or misuse it in their communication. However, the BELF language is ideally owned by “nobody” (including natives) and at best is everyone’s in the work community.

Recently, in a more comprehensive model, Kankaanranta et al. (2015) have suggested that in relation to international business, two types of English should specifically be distinguished: English as “official” that is opposed to English as “working language” (BELF). Therefore, they proposed a significant continuum setting basic frameworks of the contextual distinctions between them (*Figure 2*). In the drawn paradigm, Kankaanranta et al. (2015) argue that researchers have tacitly taken English as corporate language for granted, but never explicitly addressed it nor its roles in companies. They, thus, propose that specification of that English as “official English”. They argue that such official English is not open to negotiation or be specific to the situations of its use, neither is it dependent on the context as may BELF. For example, at the individual level, the BELF used in communicating through emails or reports is directly pertinent to work, but official English (if taken as corporate language) can be used to talk of an event in one’s own life apart from work-related issues. Further, the type of communicative competences differs between English at corporate level and English of business at an individual level. It is also important to note that using BELF seems easier for workers than is “official English”, because BELF competence is characterized by simplicity, directness, politeness and most of all seeking to transfer work-dependent knowhow than focusing on correct form of language. Lastly, “official English” implies that epistemic authority belongs to company organization when, for

example, managers are present in the communication process; i.e., the language genre and form are tacitly imposed by the superior professionals. According to Kankaanranta et al. (2015), it is argued that such official English is not open to negotiation or be specific to the situations of its use, neither is it dependent on the context as may BELF.

## **2.9. The English Language and Workforce Selection Procedures**

Several studies regarding the relevance of English to immigrants' work positions were made mainly in the United States. Especially, whether English proficiency among non-English speakers results into earnings differentials is extensively researched (Chiswick, 1977, 1978; Chiswick and Miller, 1995; Poston, Alvarez , & Tienda, 1976). It was found that migrant's good host country language proficiency functions not only as signaling them to be productive upon their employment, but acts as a medium of work qualification transfer (Friedberg, 2000) in the pre-selection process (Chiswick & Miller, 1995, 1998; Duleep & Regets, 2002). In fact, without a given minimum threshold knowledge of language, access to key work positions is hampered regardless of work skill and experience brought up in one's origin homeland (Chiswick, 1978; Friedberg, 2000; Portes & Bach, 1985). Further, Immigrants with good English language background are certainly to diminish the cost-effects of professional training for employers the same way it saves employees' times expenditures. However, as to the latter, the savings of time costs in their present positions is very likely to have been spent early on during their respective training process to learn language.

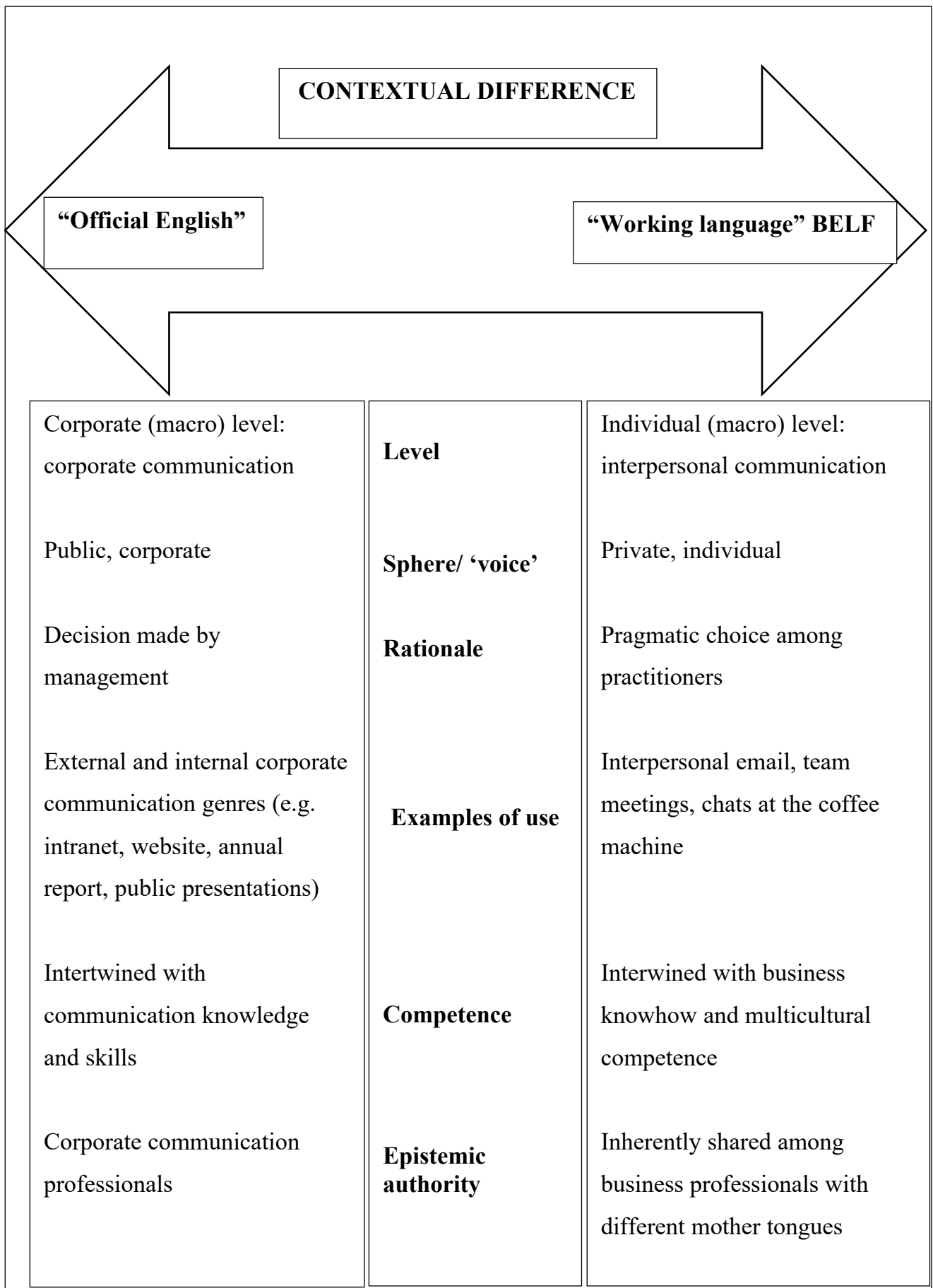


Figure 2 English as a shared language in multinational companies: “official English” versus ‘working language’ BELF (Kankaanranta et al., 2015. P. 139)

Increasing evidence suggests that language skill is undeniable for winning over an employment by immigrants. For example, Borjas (1990) and Espenshade and Fu (1997) affirm that English language is necessary for non-English immigrants to be assimilated into work groups. The importance of English language for immigrants in the pre-employment phase also counts while chosen for a nominated work. Therefore, well-equipped persons in business language will find it easier to cope with communicative incidents with colleagues than whose language abilities are less adequate (Tainer, 1988). In addition, this facility grants them a chance to earn more or be paid premiums as encouragement for their effort to keep their language skill continually upgrading. This in turn reflects to employers an expected add-on in the labor efficiency. Additionally, at workplaces where two languages may co-exist, and among which one is English, it seems that no matter how skillful in another language than English, workers are more assured to hold their positions if they possess more proficiency in English. For this reason, unilinguals of English and bilinguals of both English and another language are put on the same wavelength for work positions, provided that English pervades as the dominant language in context (Grenier, 1987).

## **2.10. Other Competences Needed at the Multinational Workplace**

### **2.10.1. Global Communicative Competence**

Early on as Second Language Acquisition has been in formation as a research field, the term *Communicative Competence* was one of the core terms at that time. It is generally accepted that the concept was initiated by one of the most influential linguists, called Dell Hymes, in the post-chomskyan revolutionary thoughts. When Chomsky first

talked about language, he backed up most of his claims based on rational theory. One tenet of his overarching model to approach language was the dichotomous unity of *competence* and *performance*. Defining linguistic competence, the Chomsky School identifies it as the sum of abstract knowledge every individual has as a mental image to the language of their respective community. Chomsky claimed that possessing such an abstraction of language embodied in linguistic competence, the individual can easily communicate with his peers with whom they share the same linguistic system.

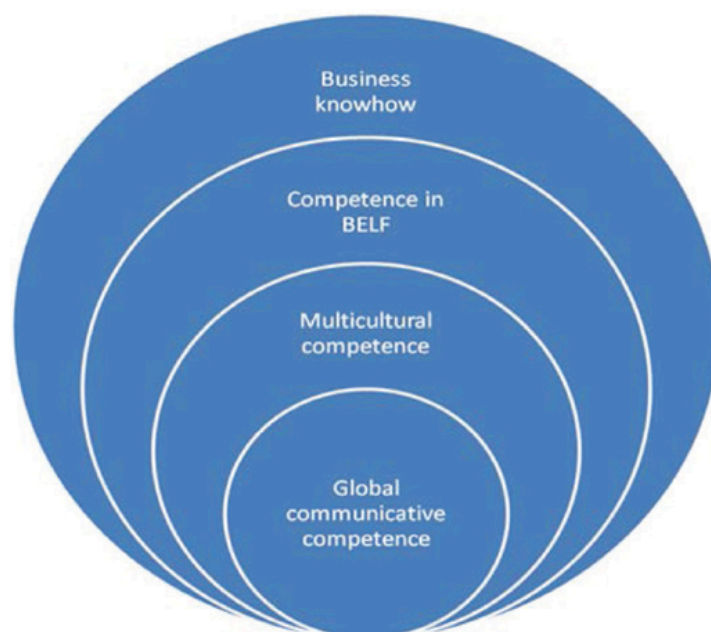
It was only a few years that the Chomsky explications of linguistic syntactic structures have taken shape and went universal that Hymes (1972) raised a theoretical argument questioning the very nature of linguistic competence. In fact, according to Hymes, having the mental competence of language is not sufficient for proper communication. He posits a wider view in that social factors affect the individuals capacities to be an efficient communicator; so that competences can be of different layers transcending the mere narrow speculation of language as only a cognitive entity to include the external social factors enabling individuals to be having a communicative competence which is basically leaned on the linguistic competence model. In the communicative competence perspective, language has operational functions in the society which has pertinence in accordance to contexts, beyond it being only a system that is defined by grammaticality. In that sense, language is both a passive abstract of a mental image and an active property when used by speakers in the different occasions of communication (Louhiala-Salminen & Kankaanranta, 2011). Because individuals' ability to communicate effectively in their social community firmly relates to their

ability to properly fit in their society, they should by consequence achieve a threshold of competence in both aspects of linguistic and non-linguistic behaviors in order to achieve proper communication (Wiemann & Backlund, 1980). By definition, and according to Wiemann (1977, p. 198), communicative competence is “the ability of an interactant to choose among available communicative behaviors in order that he (she) may successfully accomplish his (her) own interpersonal goals during an encounter while maintaining the face and line of his (her) fellow interactants within the constraints of the situation.”

Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta (2011) undertook an online survey research at five international companies. Their objective was to assess global communicative competence at work, with English approached as a business lingua franca (EBLF). They concluded three main findings of their study. Global communicative competence comprises three dimensions. The first one is multicultural competence, ensuing from the various backgrounds of the participant workers. The second finding is basic competence in English as a Business Lingua Franca (BELF), which is a requirement for interactants to possess mutual understanding of each other, which of course presumes some knowledge of the others’ cultural competence to avoid communication conflicts. The third finding is the business know-how, which refers to work skill requirements, on the basis of which individuals have been selected for employment. The authors concluded that there is more to competence than just knowledge of English. It is pointed out that some issues relating to the concept of business communication are at best placed in an interdisciplinary interest of research,

and that English of business dramatically differs from merely a language of native speakers to acquire and use. There are aspects of the language of business that even native speakers should learn, because some genres are context-specific. Based on such notions, it is deduced that the communicative competence, thus, includes a sum of knowledges which interplay: linguistic, intercultural, business-knowhow, and socialization aspects such as rapport building, interactional skills as well.

Related to contextualizing the ‘global communicative competence’ model, Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta (2011) further clarify that it is like a circle that fits in a wider model of the overall competence which includes linguistic and work know-how aspects. They also maintain that global communicative competence is but part of a multicultural competence (*Figure 3*).



*Figure 3* The “global communicative competence” model in business contexts (Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta 2011, p. 258)

Cultural knowledge primarily indicates the shared sum of knowledge prevailing within the organization system and which could be informed by the different individual workers' homeland backgrounds, as well as organizational policies and systems of which regulations can result in a specific normative culture characterising the institution (Thomas, 2008), and which is considered an integral construct of workplace practices.

It is important to refer to the BELF competence (i.e., Business English as Lingua Franca) used in Louhiala-Salminen and Kankaanranta' model as not indicating high English proficiency to communicate in business contexts. It refers to adequate knowledge allowing speakers to understand each other using strategic techniques of asking questions and requesting clarifications when communication seems vague to one party. As a result, their findings report that language correctness in terms of grammar structures does not seem important in comparison to knowledge of fieldwork related vocabulary accuracy. In other words, added to clarity and directness in the speech of the communicators, English competence of the workplace, as part of global competence, requires being well-equipped with field-specific genre rather than linguistic features of correct pronunciation and grammar rules. In addition, the Business English as lingua franca demands a threshold knowledge of the language accompanied with knowledge of professional culture and communication skills.

### **2.10.2. Professional Competence**

Three principal aspects to a successful communication in globally-based business of multinationals: cultural, linguistic and professional. While the former two aspects were addressed before, the purpose in this discussion lends its self to the know-how of

work performance or what Kankaanranta, & Salminen (2013, p. 17) term as “professional competence”. Knowingly, English as business lingua franca is generally taken for granted by organizations and individuals, so that in accounting for the different types of competences of which proper communication consist, English knowledge of workplace contexts is taken as postulate. However, by linguistic knowledge is not native-like levels of language achievement that is meant. In fact, English of business is a hybrid language that is characterized as a very simplified jargon of communication and which is flexible to the environmental work demands, so that can be in a continuous mode of structure changes (Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010).

Research maintains that using English as a business lingua franca does not require of its speakers’ full control of language aspects and fluency; rather, grammatical correctness is at the second position next to work experience and proficient task management (Kankaanranta, & Salminen, 2013). The important requirement in such language is in its clarity in conveying the message by its content genre characteristic to work rather than form (Kankaanranta & Planken, 2010). Indeed, as put by Kankaanranta & Louhiala-Salminen (2010, p. 204), English in today’s global business environment is “simply work”.

## **Conclusion**

Research about English in business contexts focusses on the role of English as rather a lingua franca. In multinational companies, language management is recently becoming an interest of extensive research flowing from diverse disciplines. The present chapter was mainly concerned with providing a background of the importance

of English in the internationally-based firms. Principally, the thrust of the chapter was to place special emphasis on English in business environments. It was suggested that the English language that is often used at workplace settings radically differs from the formal native language system both in structure and content. It goes without saying that the cultural differences at the workplace have an undeniable impact on the language practices occurring. In most of the cases when English is used, it eases up the tensions of such differences and represents a shortcut very commonly implicitly taken for it by individuals of different linguistic origins. From a corporate language perspective, the English as a business lingua franca is in the axis of the rotation in that any other language takes position in the trajectory. This is ideally the case in multinationals. Further, literature emphasizes the importance of workplace language competence as quite distinct from competence of general language. In globalized work environments, knowledge of English does not denote native-like proficiency, but necessitates basic knowledge coupled with competences in intercultural communication and business know-how.

**CHAPTER 3:  
RATIONALE &  
RESEARCH  
METHODOLOGY**

## **Introduction**

This chapter is a functional text of the operational methodology of the research under consideration. It covers the main issues relating to the rationale of the study and the contextualization of the concepts used in this study, as well as a detailed account of the methodological framework of the research. The main aim is to introduce the research design in terms of the approach adopted, the research settings and sample, the data-collection instruments employed along the rationale behind their selection, description of the research data and the analysis procedure. The type of data needed and that was ultimately collected was also described. The data collection procedures are discussed in some detail. The questionnaire is presented according to the underlying objectives and how it serves them based on given strategic and contextual needs. The questionnaire was also detailed in terms of its thematic categorization through administration to participants. Observation as a complementary tool enriching the research with relevant data was also accounted for. The nature and type of the observation, its choice and procedure, parametric considerations were explained, in addition to a parallel description of the setting where it was conducted in order to draw a clearer picture of the different contextual drives of the observation act in regard language use and patterns. There is also a description of the procedure used in data analysis and discussion of the results, succeeded by a statement about the validity and reliability of the comparative multiple case study research that forms the basis of this project. At the end of this chapter is a statement of the essential limitations of the

research which addresses some of the confronted problems along the research process, as well as the level of generalizability of the findings obtained.

### **3.1. Rationale for the Research**

As pointed out in the General Introduction, the research topic under investigation is subsumed within a broader interdisciplinary research brand that looks at the interfaces between languages and industrial behavior. This research orientation is often referred to as the economic study of language. It encompasses a wide range of research interests, with an attempt to demonstrate the importance of approaching language from a perspective that is different from the pervasive approaches such as those dealing with language from a sociological or psychological point of view. Likewise, in business contexts a language could be studied according to certain viewpoints depending on the purposes and aims of the approach adopted.

Based on that notional framework, one of the recently developing research areas interested in language within such contexts, is an outlook which ascribes to an economically-oriented inclination. This research interest encompasses further underpinning views to language, such as examining the status of languages in the business communities. In our case, English in enterprises is what constitutes the language to be evaluated in accordance to its status and importance in business milieus. The research philosophies underlying such an approach to language, however, are convergent with other perspectives such as those taken up by *English for Specific purposes* (ESP). From a corpus-analysis viewpoint, ESP is mainly concerned with issues such as the registers and genres within both academic and occupational settings

(e.g.; Bhatia, 1991, 2008; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Swales, 1980). The interest of the research at hand, nevertheless, is embedded within a paradigm that tries to verify the value or status of languages inside workplace environments, with an aim of appraising their importance and the influences they exert in such environments (Grin, 2003, 2006, 2016). It is based on the characteristics of the market forces, and the occupational demands for skills in the language needed at work (Chiswick & Miller, 2007). According to Grin et al. (2010), the approach of evaluating the value of a given language in the labor market may easily be erroneously wronged with other research lines, leading to confusions among readers.

The point is that the study of English in this research belongs to a subbranch of an economic view to language management in business contexts, notably large-scale companies, which has as a main objective examining the status and position of one or more language/s in contrast to one or more other language/s. This will bring us to the need of differentiating between what makes certain languages more used, for instance, than their competitive counterparts with which they co-exist in that particular workplace setting on the one hand, and on the other hand between what features characterize a certain language, a business community jargon, or even what is available/missing in terms of linguistic skills for an individual. In fact, while the research tradition in which the research theme of this project is implanted may enquire about the levels of language proficiencies in the language, it does not, however, have as interest knowing what is lacked and needed to make up for the deficiencies regarding individual repertoires in respect that language.

In their bibliographic paper which attempted to classify and categorize the overall different themes of such an interdisciplinary field of study, Gazzola, Grin, and Wickström (2016) devoted a long section under the heading “Economics of Language Status”, in which they provided the works contributing to issues arising in workplaces due to the presence of different languages. More importantly, coexistence and competition among the languages in business contexts “raise the question of their position with respect to each other, which can be subsumed under the notion of *status*. This makes up the lion’s share of language economics” (Gazzola et al., 2016, p. 13). In other words, examining the status of languages in settings of business focuses on finding out what linguistic systems dominate or be dominated, and what reasons would have led to such dominations, instead of attempting to uncover the linguistic needs or necessities of their users.

With such drawn conceptual frame, the researched issue in this project is, to the researcher’s knowledge, the first of its kind in Algeria. Previous studies that were carried out in enterprises at the Algerian context, and which tried to examine the English situation in companies, tended to focus on assessing the teaching tailored-courses introduced to staff (Khaldi, 1995), deal with the language from a needs analysis point of view (Rouaghe, 2010), or on the linguistic features and registers characteristics of written English, such as the types of the genres used in emails (Makfouf, 2013). Other research has drawn particular attention to the English language situation in petroleum multinationals, by examining it from a *lingua franca* point of view (Gouabi, 2013); however, it was with specific interest of assessing the linguistic needs between

academic teaching and actual English uses at the workplace, rather than the real roles English plays in the industrial sectors investigated.

Our research differs from these perspectives in both paradigmatic orientation and the core subject. The fundamental concern of the present work is to examine the status of English in multinational companies in comparison mainly with Arabic and French. The English language position within multinationals operating in Algeria has never been investigated, notably as regards its relative status in terms of its usage in the presence of other competitive language. At this point, it is imperative to provide an operational definition to the terms “status”, “position” and “situation” as used in the context of the present research.

### **3.2. Defining the Key Research Concepts**

Three constructs are central in this project: status, position and situation.

According to Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2010, p. 1459), the word ‘status’ signifies four principal meanings:

- The legal position of a person, group or country;
- The social or professional position of somebody or something in relation to others;
- The level of importance that is given to something; or
- The situation at a particular time during a process.

It is clearly noted that Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary deals with the terms ‘status’, ‘position’ and ‘importance’ as synonymous. In addition, the word ‘situation’ is also used as closely related in meaning with the three concepts. In this study, we specifically focus on taking the items ‘status’ and ‘position’ as interchangeably

signifying the same thing, which refer to the situation of English in terms of use and frequency in the multinational companies in comparison to other languages. In that sense, we are employing ‘status’ and ‘position’ as concepts representing the linguistic situations in our given contexts, and more particularly the situation of English, basically in the same way they were respectively used by Randall and Samimi (2010) and Steyaert, Ostendorp, and Gaibrois (2011) in their works. The word ‘importance’ when used in this study to indicate status or position, it is subsumed in the general generic significations of the two terms. All in all, status in this study is defined as the relative position and importance that English has in relation to pervasive language systems in the Algerian (as a global business) context, embodied strictly speaking in French and English. Still, this does not exclude the other languages out of account whenever relevant.

### **3.3. Research Design and Methodology**

The epistemological mindset of doing research often sets the pool of guidelines to conducting scientific enquiry. Traditionally, scholars in the field of social and human sciences research have come to recognize two broad research approaches: *qualitative* and *quantitative*. Following the recommendation of Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007), it should be remembered that “quantitative data analysis has no greater or lesser importance than qualitative analysis. Its use is entirely dependent on **fitness** for purpose. Arbitrary dismissal of numerical analysis is mere ideology or prejudice (p. 501, emphasis in the original)”.

Our research design pertains to the quantitative approach, so that our discussion will restrictively be lent to introduce the logic behind its choice, by demonstrating the stance of its adoption and how it suits the present project for several reasons. Of course, what determines which of these to employ while deploying one's tactics to researching is much dependent on factors such as the nature of the topic researched, the researcher's philosophical predilections, the purposes underlying the research, the contextual settings of the study and so forth (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). This research is of a quantitative design mode.

Quantitative research is traditionally situated within a wider paradigm that is known as positivism (Ary, Jacobs, Sorensen, and Razavieh, 2010; Cohen et al., 2007; Collin, 2002). Quantitative research designs are generally characterized by their pre-determined nature (Ary et al., 2010; Collin, 2002). Decisions about the methodological perspectives such as type of data, procedure and tools of collecting it, its analysis and others must be taken into account right at the beginning. However, the present research has actually been compulsory altered at different points in time, chiefly due to considerable contextual restrictions. For example, at initial stages of fieldwork research, an interview was planned to be among the fundamental research tools, but unfortunately was dropped out of consideration.

Multinational workplace settings are enclosed entities with specific orientations and modes of practice which immensely differ from other environments that are open spaces for scientific investigation. A researcher taking enquiry ventures in business settings will immediately be encountered by a number of challenges and determinants that shape his/her views and methods of approaching the search quest. Our researched

settings are definitely no exception. The bulk of research projects that are carried out in multinational business environments applies a quantitative design procedure (Marschan-Piekkari & Reis, 2004). Guided by a quantitative-based paradigm, the design followed in this project is comparative case studies research which is characteristic of work organizations (Fitzgerald & Dopson, 2009). The section that follows provides an introduction of this design and the justification of its adoption in the present work.

### **3.3.1. The Research Method: Choice and Rationale**

The present research can be characterized as exploratory and descriptive since we did not measure any particular phenomenon but rather wanted to learn more about English usage and its role in multinational companies, based on data collected from three sub-samples of participants of three internationally operating companies. According to Cohen et al. (2007) scientific descriptions and explanations of phenomena systematically involve quantitative data, qualitative data, or both in order to offer a detailed report that uses statistical values and descriptive procedures. This research followed a multiple case study design which is advocated as one of the most useful designs in global business organizations (Piekkari, Welch, & Paavilainen, 2009). A common stereotype towards case study research is its narrowness in the mere restricted inclusion of context-based phenomena and which do not go beyond descriptions of the situations investigated (Welch, Piekkari, Plakoyiannaki, & Paavilainen-Mäntymäki, 2011). For example, a review of 135 case study-based articles on international business research found that most of it is interview-based multiple case studies (Piekkari et al.,

2009), which apparently tended to be of an interpretivist tradition rather than including positivistic paradigms.

The theoretical paradigms and the philosophical justifications on the basis of which the various research designs are categorized are disposed to create misconceptions and confusions, resulting in firm conceptual boundaries among methodologies, that if one design is opted for in research it may then be conceived as violation to benefit from another research approach or method. Social scientists are often misled by those conceptual boundaries, and erroneously conceive of research designs as rigorously be one of three purposes: exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory (Yin, 2003). Case studies are typically viewed as an inseparable feature of qualitative research which follows a mainstream tendency of inductive reasoning, and which thoughtfully endeavor to offer descriptive and interpretative findings that are specific and not generalizable (Flyvbjerg, 2006). In fact, it is a wrong idea that “case studies are only appropriate for the exploratory phase of an investigation” but rather a “more appropriate view may be an inclusive and pluralistic one: Every research method can be used for all three purposes—exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory. There may be exploratory case studies, descriptive case studies, or explanatory case studies.” (Yin, 2003, p. 3). In addition, a case study can be purely quantitative, purely qualitative, or a combination of both (Eisenhardt, 1989; Ghauri, 2004).

Additionally, one of the dangers surrounding case study research is that it is understood to be primarily useful in generating hypotheses and not in testing them or building theories (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Based on such perspectives, the current research project is based on the comparative case study tradition, that basically aims not only to

describe and explore the situation and position of English in business milieus in comparison to other languages, but is also attempting to test the hypothesis that international business generally lends more importance to English usage, regardless of the nationality of the enterprise nor of where it is localized to operate in cross-border contexts. Through comparing the frequencies of language usages, this research examines the overarching hypothesis that English has a higher status as opposed to other languages in business organizations in Algeria, irrespective whether the enterprise it used in is an Algerian organization or alien.

The research at hand belongs to a comparative multiple case-study design, which uses quantitative data. It is both descriptive and exploratory in perspective. It is descriptive in that it attempts to assess the English language situation descriptively of available observed language behaviors, and is exploratory in that it provides an account of an unresearched aspect of language use in petroleum-based business organizations in the Algerian context. Our research design is of the pattern suggested by Welch et al. (2011), in that case study enquiry in international business settings should encompass a wider view of using more than qualitative-based data interpretations. Such a view to research stipulates a greater methodological pluralism in conducting case studies and finding alternatives to widen the scope of the case study tradition (Piekkari et al., 2009).

Enclosed spaces such as working institutions are quite restrictive in terms of the methodological options, among others, that are available for the researcher, including the size of the sample and the sampling procedure. Fitzgerald and Dopson (2009) noted that organizational research uses empirical data to explore a specific unit of analysis, be it an organization, a subgroup or part of an organization, or a division, combined

with considering contextual characteristics that help account for the theme researched. They further emphasize that, contrary to open research areas, case studies that are performed within business organizations “lend themselves well to the relatively uncontrolled and dynamic conditions of organizations” (p. 470). In the present research, three case multinationals were investigated and compared in regard the English language status. The data is mainly quantitative, which is collected by means of questionnaires and observation. As Eisenhardt (1989), contrary to common belief, case studies may typically use multiple data gathering tools, and which may include those that are looking for qualitative evidence together with those seeking to collect quantitative evidence; accordingly, an interview can be used with a questionnaire and a highly structured observation. Both of the observational tool and the questionnaire that were utilized in the present work correspond to quantitative data that is used for the objective of comparing linguistic practices in the different settings investigated. In fact, this type of data fits well into the overall objective of this research because the aim is to assess the status and position of English in multinational workplace organizations in comparison to other languages. By employing the comparative case study method, the strategy used in eliciting data is one which permits categorizing them in sub-thematic sections (questionnaire data in particular), and recording the types of linguistic conversation strings (through an observation checklist). Made this way, this strategy brings data that is quantitatively amenable in a form of frequencies. As mentioned earlier, the most popular type of research conducted in companies with an international characteristic is marked as quantitatively-oriented. Beyond the justifications of case study enquiry that is used in open social settings that may—rightly or wrongly- be seen

as qualitative in temper, organizational case study-based research, as Welch et al., (2011) argued, is generally quantitative-laden.

### **3.3.2. The Research Settings, Sampling and Participants**

As the research theme is a pursuit of evaluating the status of English in large-scale business settings in the Algerian context, three case companies are taken up for survey, one is Algerian and two Chinese-based multinational subsidiaries which are respectively named *Entreprise Nationale des Travaux aux Puits (ENTP)*, *China Petrochemical Corporation Group (or SINOPEC Group)*, and *Greatwall Drilling Company (GWDC)*. Before turning to a description of characteristics of the participant workers and their respective workplace settings, it is important to provide a general account of each of the companies based on the information obtained of their official websites.

*Entreprise Nationale des Travaux aux Puits (ENTP)*: Initially incepted in 1968, the Algerian ENTP is a SONATRACH's drilling subsidiary that was reconstructed in 1981 with its current label. In 1993, ENTP became a member of the International Association of Drilling Contractors (IADC). It has now acquired and international recognition in the field of hydrocarbon drilling business. At present, the company has ongoing operations with 67 drilling and workover rigs in the Algerian soil. According to the ENTP website (<https://www.entp.dz/en/Pages/about.aspx>), the company's overall workforce has reached eight thousand six hundred seven employees in Algeria by late

December of 2020. With an average age of 38 years of ENTP's overall workers, three thirds of the operational team staff have an average age of 36 years.

Of the core business interests in which ENTP has dominant pursuit are drilling of hydrocarbon wells, maintenance of hydrocarbon wells, drilling of deep-water wells, transport services to Rig down, move and up operations of drilling equipment, oil and gas equipment maintenance, and catering services for partners and foreign-based business multinationals operating in Algeria. The general macrostructure of the company makes up a four-branch configuration, formed of the "General Direction", the "Branch Operations", the "Logistics Branch", and the "Administration and Finances Branch". The sample who took part in the present research belongs to the "Branch of Operations" who specialize in fieldwork operations with its successive teams consisting of some 40 workers.

*China Petrochemical Corporation (SINOPEC)*: this company is a Chinese national enterprise that is owned by the government. It was initially established in 1998 as an extension to its former organization, headquartered in Beijing. Of the chief businesses interests by the company are industrial and management investments, petroleum and gas exploration, extraction, refinement and production, as well as storage and transportation services both nationally and internationally. In addition, the corporation is also pioneering in coal chemical products and design pipeline structures and production. Ranked as the second largest oil and gas producer in China, it is also the global largest refining corporation, and the second largest in the world in total number of gas stations.

In 2020, SINOPEC had more than 40 overseas subsidiary petroleum-based projects in more than 20 countries based on partner joint ventures. In the African labor market, SINOPEC conducts businesses, such as oil and gas investments, in countries including Algeria, Egypt, Nigeria, Ghana and many others. According to the corporation's official website (<http://www.sinopecgroup.com/group/en/social/xshb1.shtml>), the workforce of the company outnumbered ten thousand (10.000) employees in the local working organization in China and ten thousand (10.000) overseas employees across its functioning international subsidiary units, with a total proportion of 68.7% natives.

*Greatwall Drilling Company (GWDC)*: it is a subsidiary multinational of China National Petroleum Corporation (CNPC). It is an internationally active company which primarily specialize in petroleum engineering and technical services. Providing services for more than 100 companies worldwide, it has operating units working in 28 countries, including Algeria, Canada, Venezuela, Cuba, Ecuador, and the United States. Its working staff exceeds thirty thousand (30.000) employees both inside and outside China. GWDC owns a large spectrum of rigs in accordance with the required demands of its clientele conforming to international up-to-date standards. The operating rigs are of two categories: electrical and mechanical with necessary equipment of well-drilling services for up to nine kilometers depth, and catering for all soil and geological characteristics of the well areas.

Its business scope covers services of well engineering from start to end, from underground mud and strata testing to final cementing operations and secured framing, as well as prompt interventions for unexpectedly emerging hazards of well uncontrollable accidents. In the well-drilling operations, the services that GWDC provides include horizontal well-drilling services, workover services, and drilling fluid services (<http://www.gwdc.com.cn/Service.Asp>).

Due to the strict terms of having access to multinationals in order to conduct research, we were only given a chance to deal with a small number of participants from each company. Research designs, that use a comparative mode by concluding findings from case study-based research, rely on small numbers of naturally formed groups. This is known as non-probabilistic or convenient sampling. The sampling procedure has been that from each company a representative subgroup of the working teams in a ‘rig’ was taken. Rigs are sub-units of operating group workers with certain hierarchical positions. Basically, the rigs are conducting the same work operations in different locations, which are controlled by a responsible subsidiary administration. After all, in case study designs at organizations research, more attention is placed on what data to obtain and how to obtain it in order to account for the problem investigated with most adequacy possible, rather than being reluctant of the sample size. This is well explained by Mintzberg (1979, p. 585) when he noted that “no matter how small our sample or what our interest, we have always tried to go into organizations with a well-defined focus-to collect specific kinds of data systematically.”

The multinationals ENTP and SINOPEC have been comparatively approached in order to weigh the status of English in both of them, in a fashion of deducing the differences. The sample to which the questionnaire was administered consists of 78 respondents, from two multinational subsidiary facilities, one Algerian (with 41 participants) and another foreign (with 37 participants). Of the characteristics on the basis of which participants can be categorized are age, current work positions and past positions occupied, origin/nationality, years of work experience, and languages spoken including the mother tongue.

For the Algerian representative subsidiary ENTP, the age class of the workers ranged between 19 and 62 years. The main languages used in the context are Arabic and French along with some English. A few more Berber varieties are also present but essentially restrictive in use to their native sub-group of workers. Similarly, in the Chinese SINOPEC group company, the main working languages are Chinese and English, along Arabic. French and other languages are quite minimally ever used formally.

In both of the Chinese companies, different work positions are occupied or have once been occupied by certain participant workers: roustabout, floorman, assistant-driller, driller, derrickman, assistant tool-pusher, night-pusher, engineering staff, technician-assistant, safetyman, management are among the main work positions occupied by the employees surveyed. Except for the floorman, each of the work positions occupied required minimum skill of the assigned work with a proof certificate for the occupation from a recognized institution in the well-control services. A number

of individuals happened to be promoting in the scale of the work hierarchy based on years of experience and work skill. There are a few cases, still, where some individuals are squarely granted a higher position based on their qualified trainings received academically through years of study at University. These positions are generally for engineers and technicians in mud operations and electricity/mechanics domains respectively.

In the three investigated settings, it was not possible to freely choose among the data gathering tools that may meet the research objectives at the best required conduct. While an interview or some documentary approach was not permitted, this research was based on data that was gathered through a questionnaire and an observation grid. Both of the tools used were designed on a quantitative-based tradition, since the data sought after is for eliciting what is relevant to account for frequencies and recurrent language patterns that are amenable to quantitative categorization and analysis. In the section that follows is a more elaborated account of each of the instruments deployed in the contexts of study at the present research.

### **3.3.3. Research Data-Gathering Tools**

#### **3.3.3.1. Questionnaire Data**

Survey questionnaires have a rich background in the field of social sciences in general, while in fact have insufficiently been represented in Applied Language research (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009). The issue concerns not only the phase of designing the questionnaire, but also the post-data collection procedures as a whole, including data processing and its analysis, notably statistical methods. Each research

method has its merits. Questionnaires are very common research tools as compared to their counterparts. They are primarily advantageous in respect they are not time-consuming and are effort savers, as well as being characterized as cost-effective in that they allow the researcher to maintain much human and financial resources than if an alternative is used. For that matter, Dörnyei and Taguchi (2009, p. 9), go so far as arguing that “administering a questionnaire to a group of people, one can collect a huge amount of information in less than an hour, and the personal investment required will be a fraction of what would have been needed for, say, interviewing the same number of people.” Additionally, this advantage yields another positive quality in that, compared to other tools, a questionnaire excels in offering the chance to elicit much data in a relatively short amount of time, with practically large and various types of respondents. In what follows we provide a description of the questionnaire used as one of the data-collection instruments, by covering the data collection procedure and the categorization of the questionnaire sections as falling under a set of thematic classifications with relation to the relevant research object.

#### **3.3.3.1.1. Data Collection Procedure**

Before data was collected, a pilot study was carried out leading to several changes. For example, it was strongly argued by the piloted participants that the questionnaire should, first and foremost, assure confidentiality of the company at both levels, privacy of personal individual workers and of overall company. Basically, the initial structured survey form addressed the issue of background information explicitly. The pilot helped reconsider that decision. Management of one of the companies demanded that several item questions should be either changed or omitted, affecting in

some way a number of targeted issues by this questionnaire. After taking their point of view into account, when they were affirmed to have their personal comments kept private, the respondents seemed to be willing to take part in the research. Moreover, the original versions of the questionnaires were in both English and Arabic, because in response to some piloted respondents' suggestions, it was noted that it is better to offer a version in Arabic. Ultimately, English and Arabic versions were designed and distributed.

The questionnaire was administered into two section units of two multinational companies. The data collection procedure was carried out with the help of intermediary persons in both companies, who made it possible to cover all of the participant cases in the groups. Most of the respondents from SINOPEC preferred to answer the questionnaire that was written in English, but the majority of ENTP participants preferred to use the Arabic version form.

#### **3.3.3.1.2. Thematic Categorizations**

The questionnaire consists of 26 items. These items are falling under four main themes. Each examines the use of English from a specific narrowed perspective, which collectively fit to give a clear picture of the linguistic patterns that help in portraying the situation of English use and frequencies. Each set of questions addresses a limited issue, which all together belong to the notion of seeking to know the position of English in the multinationals working in Algeria, national and foreign companies alike. They are classified in one of the following categories: importance of English in the workplace, the relative position of English in relation to the other languages in the

researched scenes, the personal and attitudinal perspectives of the participants about the English language situation in their respective workplace, and the determinants of English usage at the workplace. Each of these categorized clusters is further discussed in some length in accordance with their relevant item questions composing the different themes of the questionnaire.

- ***Importance of English in the Multinational Workplace Settings***

The first sub-theme attempted to deal with the importance of English by getting insight on its usage in both of the companies in which the survey was administered. These include questions Q1, Q15, Q18, Q20, Q23, and Q25. The item Q1 deals with the importance of English in specific terms by evaluating the degree of recognition by the local- and foreign-based companies to the English language. Q15 targeted the views of the participants regarding having skill in English and getting a work position, in which it was enquired whether English is a predisposition, an optional or a preferable asset. Q20 elaborates on this issue in more detail by asking participants to choose between what is considered more contributive to being recruited in their respective companies. A few options were offered including the level of importance of English proficiency on one hand, and work qualification on the other hand, as well as the two factors together, or whether English is not relevant and if other languages are more required. Q25 enquires about English importance but more specifically in terms of the proficiency level and how far the latter is deterministic in hiring individuals in regard their language skills. Also important, in order to obtain their perspective towards what exists as real practice of language usage in their companies, participants were asked to

give an estimate of the English language use in their company by approximate percentage scopes (Q18).

- ***The Relative Position of English in Relation to Other Languages***

In this category are questions which extend the enquiry about the English situation to assess its importance by examining its relative position in relation to the other languages, more particularly Arabic and French, by evaluating the frequency of language use. This collection includes Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q7, Q11, Q12. In this category also, the examination of language frequencies is based on classifying them as ‘English’, ‘Arabic’, ‘French’, and ‘others’. The item Q3 examines the frequency of using each language by one’s company while dealing with outside partners (‘Algerian’ and ‘non-Algerian’ companies). Language frequency was also studied from within each company in regard linguistic practices of two main communicative patterns: spoken and written (Q4 and Q5). A further dimension that adds to scrutinize the frequencies of using each language was to look at the technical utilization of language in company machinery, such as computer software, controlling screen, naming equipment (Q6 and Q7). It was also important to ask participants about the utility of translation and the role of English among the languages present, if it is used and to what extent (Q11 and Q12).

- ***Workers’ Personal Attitudes about Language Usage, Frequency and Company Policy***

While the basic focus of the previous sections was devoted to appraise the status of English in companies by researching the importance of English and its position from a practical perspective, this section tried to give scope for participants to provide their own attitudinal standpoints in regard English language usage at their work settings. Q8

made an imaginary linguistic poll for participants to choose from, in which the four language categories were classified, and participants are given freedom to rank them according to their personal preference. In more restrictive ways, participants were also asked to report on how they acquired the language skill they needed at work (Q2). They were also asked about their own personal usages of the languages while at their workplace and the extent to which each language is practically used by themselves (Q9 and Q10). Such questions allow for evaluating the position of language from the private level of the respondents in order to probe their language preferences in comparison to the impositions of the context. Moreover, this is broadened more by asking the workers of how far they are willing to use English (as compared to other languages), and how often they practically make use of it on an everyday basis (Q13, Q14). In this category also is an exploration of the employees' views of what would be the best language policy to use and boost English usage (Q21 and Q24), and their reaction if their company sets English as the only language of communication (Q22).

- ***Determinants of English Usage at the Workplace***

In this section is the set of questions which endeavor to shed light on whether English is also in function of certain factors and situations to be specifically used in and by companies, such as meetings, talking to certain individuals inside and outside one's company and so on (Q16). It was also significant to know why English may be used in those particular instances (e.g., company policy or to practice language) in terms it is a free choice or some requirements such as company policy impositions or otherwise, and in what specific operations (finance, marketing, etc.) may English be seen at more frequency (Q17 and Q19).

At the end of the questionnaire was an open question with a four-line space for the respondents to express their comments and give their own suggestions which they may think would enrich this study. Thereupon, a few statements were recorded in the raw questionnaire data, and were used in this research to support the relevant patterns of the different sub-themes discussed in the data analysis section.

### **3.3.3.2. The Observational Survey Used in The Present Research**

#### **3.3.3.2.1. The Research Observation Survey: Nature, Choice and Procedure**

The observational method employed in fieldwork data collection is of a structured nature. A structured observation is argued to be of more use in eliciting quantitative data which ensures more objectivity of the research (Sissons, 1981; cited in Sapsford & Jupp, 2006). More-structured observations are in the positivist tradition in social sciences, where the aim has been to emulate the approaches and procedures of the natural sciences (Ghauri, 2004).

We are choosing to observe workers particularly in meetings for multiple reasons. First, individuals within meetings take notes. Therefore, being observed by a researcher will be less conspicuous as they assume the researcher is taking notes in relation to fieldwork subjects as themselves. Secondly, language use in the settings of meetings is the context where more language occurrence marks more of presence than others. In addition, in such spaces, there is more formal language manifestation. Thirdly, workers from all walks of the company sections assemble in the regularly scheduled meetings, which also makes it that the number of observed participants' language frequencies is large enough compared to when they are scattered on performing their tasks. One last important reason for the choice to observe more in the

meeting time, than in the other somewhat open spaces, is that it is the time where conversations go in a regular way so that no confusing interventions between conversations happen, in contrary to informal fieldwork discussions. This gives the chance of varying the instances of the language conversations recorded for analysis.

An observation survey is a strong research data collection procedure. Its primary strength is felt into two aspects: it allows cross-sectional and longitudinal dimensions for eliciting data. The researcher is enabled not only to examine an ongoing phenomenon or situation at closer approach, but rather a scrutinized evaluation of that situation or phenomenon, with the advantage of subjects' availability using a repeated measure for authentication. Observation is becoming a well-reputed research tool in diagnosing language situations and/or use in public as well as closed spaces such as work environments. For that reason, Altuna and Basurto (2013) argue that it is a method suitably used by "researchers who want to quantify spoken language use in order to analyse linguistically diverse situations." (p. 19). In fact, multinationals offer a rich background if any such practice shall take place. In the context of the present research, the advantage of using the observation survey manifests itself clearly in that it contributes to the investigation of English use in the company under consideration.

#### **3.3.3.2.2. The Unit of Observation in the Conversation**

Based on the guidelines offered by Altuna and Basurto (2013), the parameters of the observation carried out at the workplace are based on two main linguistically-related factors: First, what makes out a component for observation in the conversations,

and second, the length of the recorded conversations is immaterial regarding the objectives of the research.

In the different occasions where language use was pursued during the observational act, conversations are put down only once. The conversation units are defined by a linguistic change or in the number of the participants. Therefore, if the same group is conversing in a certain language and then suddenly switches to a different language, even though by a single individual, that is considered as marking a beginning to a new conversation to record on the checklist. Conversely, given that there is no language shift, in case the number of individuals in the session of observation changes, such as a person leaving or coming up, it is equally an instance of starting a registration of a new conversation. In the same way, providing that the language of discussion remains the same, there is no way for recording as new conversations those of other participants initiating speaking in the session. In each conversation session, only a single speaker is focused on even if the speech is held between two members or more, while importantly the number of the present individuals in the conversation recorded should be put down as participating in that conversation. However, an individual speaker should be observed more than once at the level of the same conversation unit unless there is a change in the number of the participants. In the case of semi-code-switching of using two languages such as, for instance, a participant uses English and a colleague responds by Arabic, the conversational unit becomes dual, and in the checklist will appear as two distinctly observed conversations one of which is in English and the other in Arabic.

### **3.3.3.2.3. Length of the Conversation is not Relevant**

No matter how long a conversation held lasts, it should be noted as one unit of speech. In fact, the main purpose of the observation is to track language use and frequency and not to measure the length of time of language pattern behaviors. As mentioned in the last section, because conversations of individual speakers are only registered once, the observer is not obliged to tackle all speech occurrences for each participant speaker. When one participant member starts conversing with the others, the conversation is counted as though all the members took part in it, and the number of the conversing persons equals the number of present members. Therefore, a check mark is made for each.

### **3.3.3.2.4. Description of the Company and the Sample Under Observation**

The company is a worldwide Chinese organization in charge of large-scale business of petroleum, and specialized in engineering and technical services. The parent corporation has investing subsidiary units all over the globe, one of which is currently functioning in Algeria. The setup of the subsidiary firm is, however, established under the terms of an agreement with SONATRACH, the Algerian multinational company. Above all, of the requirements for a foreign company to run business in Algeria, the accommodated multinational institution should recognize its strict conformity to the internal governing laws set up by SONATRACH, the latter of which are applied for locally-based enterprises as well as foreign firms (or their respective subsidiaries).

The multinational subdivisions work under the policy terms underlined by the Algerian national counterpart. In a way, the Algerian multinational acts as a semi-

headquarter in that the superior positions of company men are completely taken stock of by a SONATRACH selective procedure. In the case of the Chinese subsidiary under investigation, two managers are designated for the organization supervision considering one main decisive factor that owes to mastery of English above all. Thus, for managers to be recruited the exigency of English annuls considerations of being work skilled, experienced, educationally qualified or any other form of business-related proficiencies all together; and if considered, they are of secondary significance. Having established under the aegis of SONATRACH's policy system, the subsidiary will in turn be subdivided into smaller chunk units, usually known as 'rigs', functioning on a cooperative basis within and without.

Overall, the Chinese company incorporates around thirty rigs operating in Algeria. The current survey has taken place in Rig 4. The rig often comprises some forty individual workers clustering at smaller services each with a specific type of assigned tasks, but ultimately of reciprocally supplementary roles among themselves. Worthy to point out, in each rig also there is an additional symmetrical group of workers which successively alternate with their peer crew each 12 hours' work for 28 days at stretch, known as four-to-four work system. In such a system, the different separate staff groups go into a break of four weeks and are replaced by other staff that accordingly will have their nominated break vacation come to end.

For the Chinese company, there are two staff groups of 36 members (at the time span of the survey conduct) successively iterate. Employees belong to a given layer of service work based on certain criteria including work skill, past experience,

academic qualification and language proficiency among others. Admittedly, English seems to be a mutually shared language between the foreign company and SONATRACH which is obvious in the signed agreement that English language is one, but not solely, official medium for communication stated within the larger system of the business policy. Driven as an anecdote in the present context is an incident of misunderstandings between Algerian and Chinese employees, Algerians complained to the work inspection administration. After investigating the issue, and having obtained evidence of the violations against work ethics on the part of the Chinese, the inspection administration involved them to sign a form of agreement on ethics stipulating a statement on work regulations, where the form was in Arabic. The Chinese refused to sign it and requested it in English. The administration had indeed to provide the form in English where it was ultimately signed.

At the workplace where the observation was carried out, employees belong to a pool with different characteristics. Origin, nationality, linguistic and cultural background, age, position, role, and experience are among the fundamental features distinguishing the community involved in this research, and ones on the basis of which the analysis of the data is undertaken. In observation surveys of closed spaces, description of traits surrounding the setting is of high significance. Along the analysis stage, such characteristics are reported in relation to the data pertinent in order that comparative conclusions are drawn with more clarity.

The company is an organizational set constituted upon different units functioning in complementarity in a form of separate divisions which ultimately are

incorporated within ruling norms and regulations set by the company. Thus, employees belong to one of a number of departments: human resources, management staff, technicians, field workers, office operations staff and so forth.

The hierarchy of work positions in the company is a composite of Chinese and Algerian workers. With superior positions held by Chinese in principle, Algerians occupy lower positions with differing entitled tasks altogether. Within the rig of the survey, Chinese are in command and represent the company leaders. However, the community at issue comprises one of a few others, which collectively work under the terms of the Algerian national company SONATRACH.

In regard to the procedure of appointing administrative heads, and as above-mentioned, the company men –regardless of origin or nationality, should first of all show an excellent command of English. In fact, two company men at the head of the subsidiary Chinese company are appointed by SONATRACH, one is for daylight company management and the other for night time. However, the day time company man is superior to night time company man in hierarchical position. Company men are regularly holding meetings with the different working teams.

As part of the whole subsidiary unit, Rig 4 is a subdivision that is directly governed by the chief administration of the company. There are three main categories of the cooperating work teams in the Rig. First, the management division is the ruling unit, which is administered by two managers with their executive members down the hierarchy. The first manager, who is superior to the second manager in the scope of control and decisions, has as the main task the control of the working Rig by ensuring

that it is operating successfully and in accordance to the set of terms underlined. The second manager has more of involvement in fieldwork with the different operational teams at rig interventions. In this category are also two safety men (one is Algerian and the other is Chinese) and two tool-pushers whose main job is supervising drilling operations. Each of the safety men and tool-pushers work successively day and night in order to ensure work continuity. Second, there are also fieldworkers and they are of two types: the drilling staff and maintenance staff. The former consists of drillers, assistant-drillers, derrickmen, floormen, roustabouts, and crane operators along with the fork lift agent. The latter relates to the maintenance team which comprises electricians, mechanics and welders. Third, office staff, consisting of engineering members, administrative members and physicians. The various sub-grouped individuals are coordinating work units in the Rig.

### **3.4. Data Analysis Procedure**

As referred to in the different sections above, the research data of the study was collected using questionnaires and observation. The questionnaire was distributed to participants from ENTP and SINOPEC, and the observation was conducted in GWDC. The main purpose from using these two strategies is to map out the language practices within the studied environments in order to categorize them for analytic purposes that fit into the wholistic objective of the work. Both of the tools employed were targeted to produce data that could be used comparatively. The questionnaire has specifically aimed to provide information on the importance and position of English in the contexts examined in association to other languages, mostly in a form that will allow to extract

frequencies for the comparisons intended. Such frequencies permit intra- and inter-organizational classifications to linguistic usages, on the basis of assessing the position of English among other languages present in the researched settings. Likewise, the observation data which stem from a separate multinational will add more details about language usages to enrich the comparative report.

The procedure of analysis used in this study follows the general framework of deducing findings from separate cases and comparing them, by crossing results which form similar insightful patterns in language usage. As Ghauri (2004) suggests, comparative multiple case studies seek to investigate the same questions in a number of business enterprises which will ultimately be compared to one another to draw conclusions. Case study research is limited in terms of generalizability, but may borrow principles of the positivistic paradigm in a narrowed down fashion by their application specifically to the context cases examined (Fitzgerald & Dopson, 2009). Made this way, multiple case study comparisons will find relationships and establish general patterns basically by mimicking the hypothesis-testing procedure employed in quantitative research (Eisenhardt, 1989), while using comparisons between and among them.

The analysis procedure applied in the present research is by offering frequency values about English in comparison to other languages in chunk reports, which will allow to build wider theoretical units about the status of English. The analysis dealt with questionnaire data and observation data separately at first. Questionnaire data as it stems from two different settings was classified in terms of frequency rates (calculated by means of the SPSS software), and at the same time used a micro-comparative approach as the same data category was obtained from the two contexts by using the

same questionnaire form. This procedure made it possible to assess the position of English in ENTP and SINOPEC to form a small conclusive finding that will be ready to compare and fit into the broader report of general linguistic trends. Likewise, replicated measures of the observation give the chance to make an account of a different organization company (GWDC), and data was analyzed separately.

In the discussion of the results section, such general trends and patterns of English usage were used to serve the objective of this research. A broader comparative mode of the results was exposed in the light of the three case studies. Moving from a heuristic analysis of organization units to a more inclusive analysis that took account of the three companies together, the comparison has mainly been performed, by inductively moving from case to multiple cases. By looking to the English position from within each company, a general view could be formed of what status English has in each of the organizations as compared to the other languages. Such separate remarked conclusions will be combined to draw conclusions of the status of English at both intra-company and intercompany levels.

### **3.5. The Levels of Validity and Reliability of the Research**

Validity in research refers to worthiness of its outcomes and findings. According to Collin (2002, p. 93), research validity “is concerned with whether the findings are ‘really’ about what they appear to be about.” This starts from including the pertinence of data collected and the extent to which the data gathering instruments have met the objectives of the research. However, this view of validity is a shrunken form of a set of sub-categories to research validity. Cohen et al. (2007) list about eighteen (18) validity

items of research, including, for example, content validity, criterion-related validity, construct validity, face validity, descriptive validity, interpretative validity, external validity and internal validity, among others. With that in mind, the term validity in research can be perceived and interpreted differently by researchers. In addition, given the numerous types of validity, this also suggests that scientific validity cannot be fully achieved in social and human sciences research that is carried out to explicate interrelated behaviors and patterns or exploring naturally occurring phenomena. Oftentimes, researchers tend to discuss validity and reliability as interrelated aspects. Reliability indicates the extent to which the results may be the same if the research procedure is repeated and the level of maintaining stability by the measures used (Collin, 2002).

Traditionally, the most commonly addressed validity types by research, however, are internal and external ones (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Assuring systematic validity is a typical characteristic of research designs that exert optimal control of the studies situation, including the variables and the manipulation of the settings into which a study takes place, and this is very specific in experimental research (Ary et al., 2010). Researchers view external validity as basically the same as generalizability of the research findings to different settings, the latter of which fundamentally have the same or highly similar characteristics to the original setting from which they are obtained (Collin, 2002). Internal validity, on the other hand, is meant with the consistency of the explanations provided by a set of data, and should be sustained in conformity with the research aims throughout, by demonstrating that its findings are pertinently explicative of the specific subject researched (Cohen et al.,

2007). It is, therefore, internal validity that is primarily taken caution of by a researcher, and which, if alertly allowed for, consequently leads to an automatically ensuing external validity, or generalizability.

With such a delimiting scope and defining statement to validity and reliability in research, it is important to remember that it is a necessary integrative feature of controllable designs, such as correlational and experimental research. In scientific research which mitigates limited of manipulation on the settings on one hand, and research that it is itself subject to contextual influences on the other hand, validity and reliability may be approached differently. This is particularly true when it relates to case study-based research within organizational settings (Fitzgerald & Dopson, 2009), such is the current research topic. One issue that forms a principal conviction in the findings of the research in question are characterized by restrictedness and uniqueness. Claiming generalizations to other research settings from this research would be an irrational conclusion, which would imply an absolute overestimation of the findings and a detriment misunderstanding of the nature of enquiry undertaken in institutional bodies. Such claims do not spring out of a vacuum.

Yin (1999) points out that the usefulness and richness of case studies is also met with inconveniencies. He argues that inconveniencies do not indicate flaws in the research design adopted and the findings obtained, but on the level of external validity. Alternatively, Yin proposed that case study findings should not be approached as generalizable outcomes, but are at best instances for replicable work. This is well justifiable in the sampling procedures, because organizations are not approached by the sampling options available in other settings of real research practice.

Following that argument, Fitzgerald and Dopson (2009) suggest that in business units research, there is no need to imitate contexts where more freedom is given to the enquirer in choosing from among the available methodological alternatives, and in determining the directionality of the research quest through mastery of the surroundings characteristics. Rather than striving for generalizations, the researcher in the restrictive setting is more concerned with replications. Such replications may not result into identical outcomes, because each working organization or unit is a unique instance. Changes in the conceptualization of validity as discussed here definitely drags with it changes in how reliability is approached within researched places of confined methodological borders. It is generally accepted that reliability is the criterion of achieving repeatedly same recurring results (Yin, 1999). For case study research, and more particularly comparative multiple case study designs that are conducted in companies, this definition of reliability fails to be accounted for. According to Fitzgerald and Dopson (2009) while rigor, systematic and transparent criteria are cautionary measures of scientific replication, it is not predictive of obtaining the same results. It is only possible to predict similar findings, simply because no two company organizations will be identical in terms of their structural characteristics, including the human factor; rather they are dynamically changing from within, that not even one company will be the same after a period of time. The authors put it that for achieving ‘same results’ ( which are an indirect outcome of firmly achieved validity and reliability) in these settings, it is imperative that a researcher has to “conduct the research in the same organizations, with the same people and at the same time” (Fitzgerald & Dopson, 2009, p. 471). The settings in which our research was conducted

are quite representative of the characteristics offered by the models discussed by Yin (1999) and Fitzgerald and Dopson (2009). Our objective is not seeking to arrive at conclusive results assuring a ready-tailored theory for generalization to other settings, not even those sharing the very similar attributes with our researched contexts. We argue that the results of this research are based on scientific rigor that is especially referred to by Fitzgerald and Dopson (2009), but represent an overall trend of the language-situation assessment that may not hold the same in other companies.

### **3.6. Limitations of the Study**

Unlike other contexts such as academic settings, access to business environments and acquisition of a full recognition as a researcher is severely challenging, let alone obtaining the data relevant required. A researcher would simply be viewed as a ‘stranger’ who seeks to know of the organization’s information, while he/she has nothing potentially important to offer to the company in exchange. Enclosed by strict privacy terms, multinationals are sites of an incomparably delimiting characteristic to go about one’s scientific enquiry and achieve the research objectives. Given the nature of the research contexts, it was determined for us to deal with a small number of participants from each company. Having access to those participants was made possible by intermediary persons who helped in eliciting data for this research.

Upon writing the theoretical part of the study, the practical part was envisaged to be largely different from what it looks in its current being. At first, an interview has been being prepared to gain more insights on the language situation at the companies examined, but unfortunately this research was banned from conducting any sort of

recordings and detailed inquiries, because it was seen that information that is shared through an interrogative-based approach may lead to leakage of exclusively confidential particulars of a company. Even more, one of the multinational's management required to reshape and disregard some items from the questionnaire forms, for they were thought to touch upon what is considered the company-specific knowledge and secrets.

With a high level of restriction in the ways and the nature of what is researched, the present work suffers from a number of limitations. At the contextual level, closed spaces where participants are not easily available for free to be surveyed becomes an absolutely enduring concern above all enquiry allowances. Business environments represent the area that any act of researching may look conspicuous and intrusive regardless of the scientific value. Therefore, the primary logistic limitations of the study are the very limited number of subjects and restrictions imposed on the scientific practitioner; particularly seen by business owners as having an intruder in their private area. A study undertaken with such limitations calls for replications in other similar settings to offer a more comprehensively authentic picture to draw on more reliable facts for generalizability.

In addition, while evaluating language practices at the workplace, focus was given to English with meticulous examination, while other languages usages were recorded especially for comparison objectives. For that matter, while striving for obtaining data about the functional role of English language in the different companies examined, other factors beyond linguistic dimensions were overlooked. In fact, cultural

aspects and personal differences may have happened to influence certain language usages, based on factors such as age, ethnicity, as well as personal aptitude and preferences. Therefore, generalization of the findings obtained in this study are very limited, and uniquely apply to the Algerian situation regarding global business sectors.

## **Conclusion**

This chapter provided a framework of the research methodology used in this research. It set out a rationale for this study, by clarifying its paradigmatic orientation and how it differs from other studies carried out at corporations in the Algerian context. Basically, it was by explicating that the disciplinary ascription of the research should not be confused with other traditions interested in investigating English within business workplaces such as companies. Along that, key concepts were and were shown how they operationally fit into the context of this research. Then the chapter introduced the methodology used in this project, by examining the research design and its procedure. Under this section, the research approach was accounted for, along the data collection tools and their procedure, a description to the settings and the sample of participants studied. Two research tools have been undertaken: questionnaire for two companies and observation for a third company. It was also made clear how such an approach to data presentation is convenient for showing differences especially in the case of two samples of two separate workplace environments. The underpinning procedure presumes a consistent series of parallel comparisons of the available languages use at different levels and situations. Such a paradigm is laid on the aim of drawing conclusions from the shown differences that ultimately lead to deducing the value of

English in interaction with other languages at the workplace as compared particularly to Arabic and French. The issues of exhibiting the status of English in this respect is analytically addressed in the next chapter.

**CHAPTER 4:  
DATA ANALYSIS  
& RESULTS**

## **Introduction**

This chapter is exclusively meant for the analysis of the data. It starts first by considering the data obtained through the questionnaire administered into two different companies, a national subsidiary and a foreign one, and then proceeds to the data elicited by an observational checklist conducted in a third foreign company. Let us, however, remember that the data is collected from two multinational companies in order to analyze the situation of English from a comparative point of view. The analysis via comparison allows precision in showing differences between languages in terms of frequencies of their usage at the workplace contexts in question. The status of English is, then, examined in the light of such concluded differences of its usage within and across multinationals on the one hand, and in juxtaposition mainly with Arabic and French, as its attendant competitive languages, by assumption, in the Algerian labour market on the other hand. Chapter 4 stands out as the benchmark of the practical work for the dissertation that is clearly reflected in the extensiveness of the data searched and the approach made application of in the analysis process.

### **4.1. Data Presentation and Analysis**

#### **4.1.1. Questionnaire Data Analysis**

*1. What is the importance of having knowledge of English language at the workplace?*

Four options have been offered in order for the participants to select from, ranked from ‘major importance’ to ‘no importance’. There was one missing case of the participants (therefore 77 participants as total instead of 78 in the summary table that follows). The analysis is based on a comparative approach of the respondents’ views

about language use in both companies: the Algerian multinational *Entreprise Nationale des Travaux aux Puits* (ENTP) and the Chinese multinational named *Petrochemical Corporation*, also known as *Sinopec Group* (SINOPEC).

Table 1

*Importance of English skill at the workplace in each company*

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage %	Cases	Percentage %
Major	12	29,3%	21	58,3%
Secondary	22	53,7%	15	41,7%
Minor	5	12,2%	0	0,0%
No import.	2	4,9%	0	0,0%
Total	41	100%	36	100%

By comparing the statistics in Table 1 along the bar graphs in *Figure 4*, it is shown that the majority of participants (53,7%) from ENTP company consider English as secondary in importance at their workplace and the rest (29,3%) report that English is of major importance. However, only 12,2% of the workers think that English is of minor importance while a very slight number reflects no importance (2%). On the other hand, in the foreign company, two answers were restrictively opted for by the workers, and each of which reports the apparent importance of English in their work environment. Therefore, a whopping majority of 58,3% of the latter believe that English is of major importance, whereas the remaining portion of 41,7% of the workers say that English is

secondary in importance. For workers in the foreign company, again, English could not be considered as either minor nor of no importance all together.

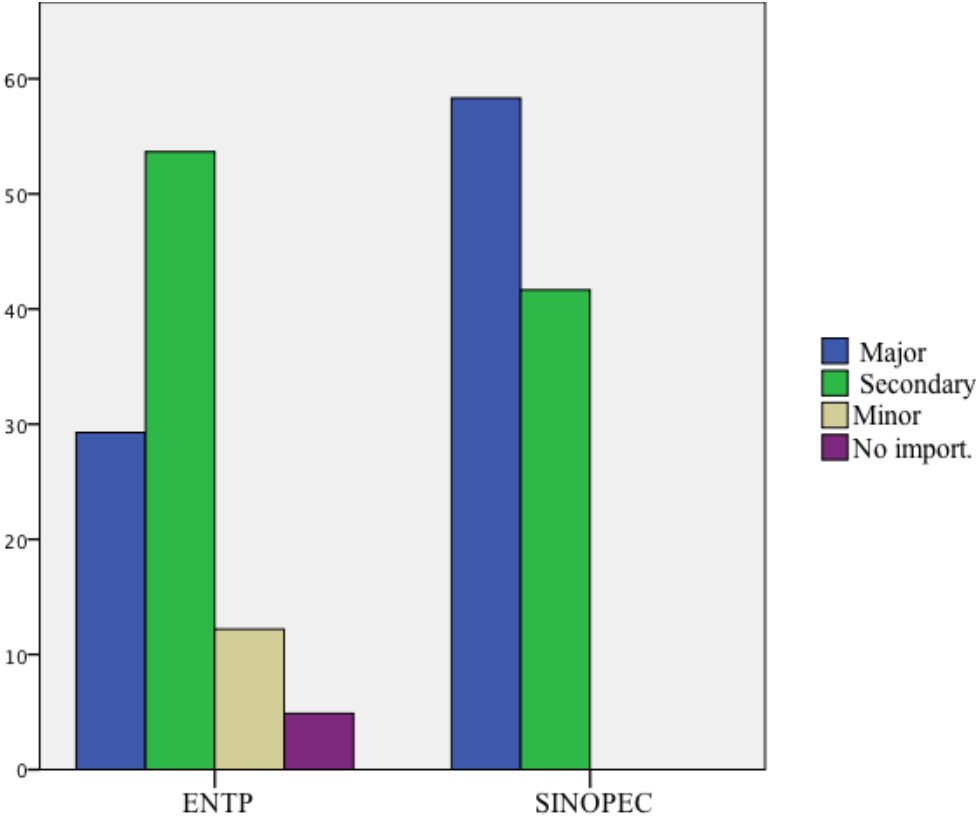


Figure 4 The importance of English language skill at work

2. How have you developed your English language skills that you need at work?

Because this is a multiple-choice question, subdivisions were made between the different options so that each is treated as though a separate item. The process is a necessary step in approaching this type of questions, notably for coding procedures when entering data into SPSS. The set of options for this question range as follows: *'Formal academic tuition'*

- *'Language training offered by company'*

- *'Self-study (self-taught books, internet material, etc.)'*
- *'Private language school'*
- *'Working experience abroad'*
- *'I do not have proficiency in English language'*

This question examines the respondents' opinions about how they came to develop their English skills, in order to steadily probe on the extent to which companies take account of training the workers to acquire better language competence. As above mentioned, because it is a multiple-choice question, the respondents may opt for whichever item they consider applicable from the choices offered.

For the Algerian Multinational (ENTP), it is clear that of the total number, a majority of respondents (around 88%) agree that they have enhanced their English language through the trainings offered by the company. However, some of these respondents also considered other factors as part of their language improvement by means of self-initiative efforts (29,3%) such as using self-taught material, internet and so on. In the same way, formal academic tuition, courses taken in private language schools, as well as working experience have a secondary role in the workers' English knowledge. Yet, a very limited portion (24,4%) reported that they do not think of themselves as having any proficiency in English.

Table 2

*Rates regarding how participants from each company developed their English skills need at work*

		Company				
		ENTP		GDWC		
		Cases	Percentage%	Cases	Percentage%	
<i>Formal Academic tuition</i>	Negative	35	85,4 %	18	48,6%	
	Positive	6	14,6%	19	51,4%	
	Total	41	100%	37	100%	
<i>Language training offered by the company</i>	Negative	5	12,2%	25	67,6%	
	Positive	36	87,8%	12	32,4%	
	Total	41	100%	37	100%	
<i>Self-study</i>	Negative	29	70,7%	28	75,7%	
	Positive	12	29,3%	9	24,3%	
	Total	41	100%	37	100%	
<i>Private language school</i>	Negative	30	73,2%	22	59,5%	
	Positive	11	26,8%	15	40,5%	
	Total	41	100%	37	100%	
<i>Working experience abroad</i>	Negative	39	95,1%	27	73%	
	Positive	2	4,9%	10	27%	
	Total	41	100%	37	100%	
		Negative	31	75,6%	33	89,2%

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<i>Have no proficiency in English</i>	Positive	10	24,4%	3	8,1%
	Total	41	100%	36	97,3%

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For the foreign company, it seems that half of the number of respondents (51,4%) agree that their English skill is a result of their past academic career, meaning that they may have learned English specifically as a specialization at college. In the second degree is the set of responses that express the workers' view of having developed their language in recourse to private courses (40,5%). Nonetheless, it is also important to note that the foreign company offers its employees the chance to develop their English by training (32,4%).

The 'Others' option, which is a non-open-ended item, is in anticipating whether a respondent may communicate a different sort of response. It may have one of two possibilities, either being ticked or not ticked by any of the participants of both companies. When not ticked, the 'Others' item is coded in the same way of the related items in the range. However, if chosen by any participant, the coding procedure changes to indicate a string than numeral codes. Thus, it is coded differently.

In this case, for Item 7, of all participants of the foreign Multinational there is no single case to have opted for it, while one participant from the Algerian company reported that, besides training received from one or more resources of the options given (formal education, offered by company, obtained from self-taught material), TV shows such as movies are one more useful way for them. It is remarkable that the latter may be an add-on to the list of self-taught resources.

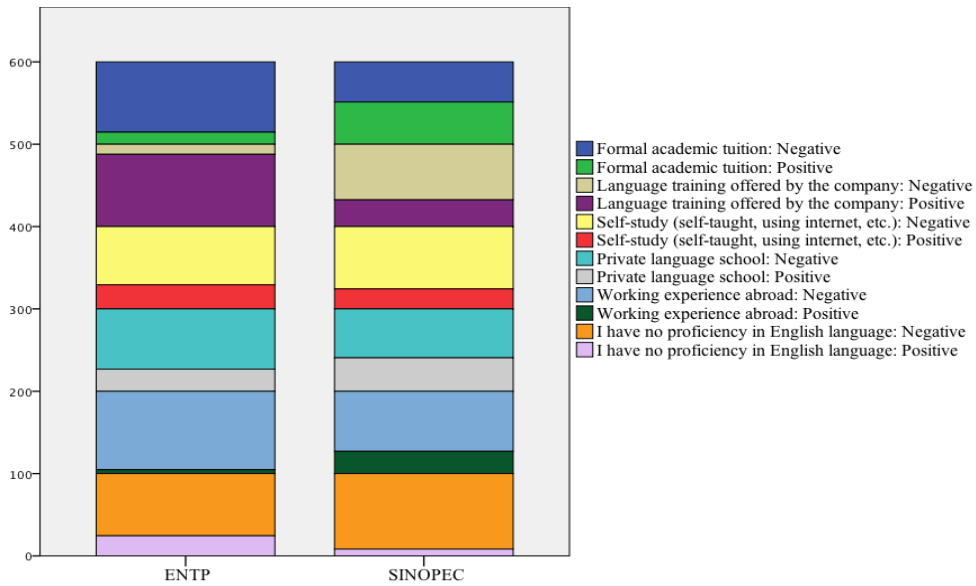


Figure 5 Ways by which respondents developed their English skill needed at work in Each company

3. How often is each of the following languages used by your company to communicate with other companies?

With Algerian companies						With non-Algerian companies					
		Never	Rarely	Frequently	Always			Never	Rarely	Frequently	Always
Arabic		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Arabic		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	English		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
French		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	French		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other(s)		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other(s)		<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

The status of English within the multinationals at issue is examined by means of drawing comparisons with Arabic and French, with an open option of the ‘Other(s)’ for the respondents to be comprehensive in case other various languages may take share. Worthy to point out, the four options (of which English is one) are roughly the same through the oncoming questions up to 12, with slight differing degrees of formulations in accordance to the aspects targeted by the question for measuring given dimensions. To begin with, question 3 is further subdivided into surveying English language use by each of the companies while communicating with their partner companies of different origins. Tables 3 and 4 below are the summary results of each language frequency usage.

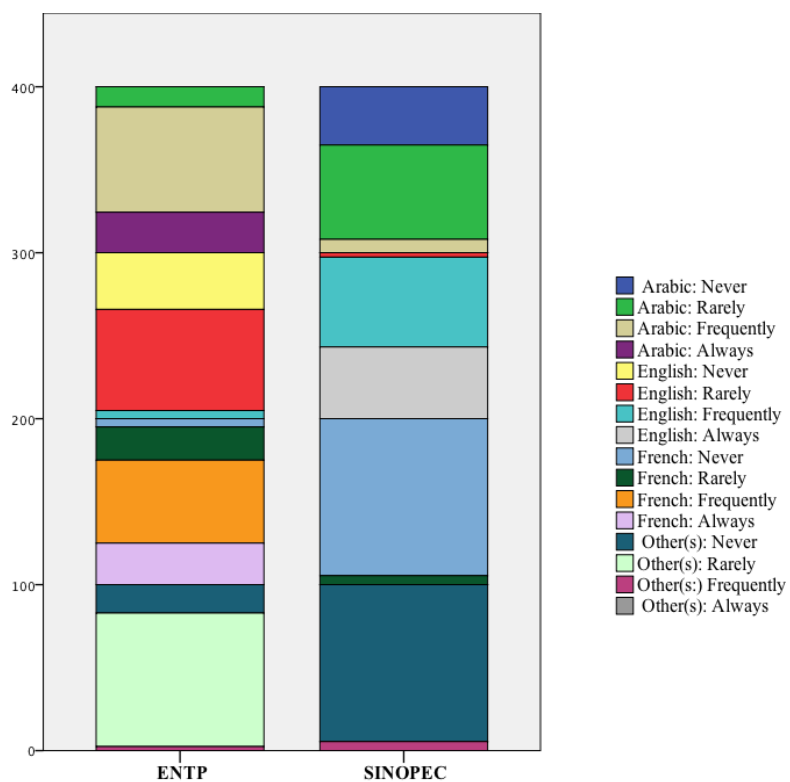
- *With Algerian companies:*

Table 3

*Frequency of using each language with Algerian partners by each company*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Never	0	0%	13	35,1%
	Rarely	5	12,2%	21	56,8%
	Frequently	26	63,4%	3	8,1%
	Always	10	24,4%	0	0%
English	Never	14	34,1%	0	0%
	Rarely	25	61%	1	2,7%
	Frequently	2	4,9%	20	54,1%
	Always	0	0%	16	43,2%

French	Never	2	5%	35	94,6%
	Rarely	8	20%	2	5,4%
	Frequently	20	50%	0	0%
	Always	10	25%	0	0,0%
Other(s)	Never	7	17,1%	35	94,6%
	Rarely	33	80,5%	0	0%
	Frequently	1	2,4%	2	5,4%
	Always	0	0%	0	0%



*Figure 6* frequency of using each language to communicate with Algerian partner companies

*For Arabic:* referring to Table 3, 63.4% of the participants from the Algerian multinational (ENTP) acknowledge that the most frequently used language for communicating with peer Algerian companies is Arabic; in contrast, only 8.1% participants from the Foreign multinational (SINOPEC) point out that Arabic is frequently used in communication with Algerian companies.

*For English:* from Table 3, one can read 4.9% of those who believe that English is used by their Algerian ENTP multinational represent 'Frequently' together with 'Always', while in contrary for the SINOPEC multinational, it is seen by 97.03% of the participant workers that English is the mostly common language used when communicating with the Algerian companies.

*For French:* from Table 3, French is by far more used by ENTP into communicating with its peer Algerian companies (75% said French is always used) than used for communicating with foreign companies for the same purpose (94.6% said that their company never uses French with foreign multinationals).

*For other languages:* looking up Table 3, the statistics indicate that other languages (than either Arabic, English or French) are reported to be as far 80.5% rarely used by the Algerian multinational, while 94.6% of the Foreign multinational employees refer that none of other languages seem to have ever been used.

- ***With non-Algerian companies***

By comparing the percentages in Table 4, it is noted that the participants from both ENTP and SINOPEC expressively view that Arabic is decently used for communication to foreign partners by their companies, ranging between rarity to total absence ('Rarely=82.5%' and 'Never=91.9%' respectively). By contrast, English

enjoys a high frequency of usage by ENTP and SINOPEC with non-Algerian partners at a rate of approximately 62.5% (by combining ‘Frequently’ to ‘Always’) for the former, and around 92% for the latter. It is to say that, in the Algerian context business, English is implicitly more in function when Algerian companies are engaged in communication with foreign partners as well as when foreign companies communicate to foreign non-Algerian counterparts. Yet, for French, the percentages express high unlikelihood of its usage in this respect. For that matter, from the workers’ standpoint, most often French is never used or rarely used (26.8% and 41.5%) by the Algerian company with foreign partners, and seems totally neglected among foreign partners (100% never used). Regarding other languages, it is clear from the results that they are not considered in this respect while English is an alternative for both Algerian-to-foreign and foreign-to-foreign communications.

Table 4

*Frequency of using each of the languages with non-Algerian partners by each company*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Never	2	5%	34	91,9%
	Rarely	33	82,5%	3	8,1%
	Frequently	5	12,5%	0	0,0%
	Always	0	0%	0	0%
English	Never	6	15%	2	5,4%
	Rarely	9	22,5%	1	2,7%

	Frequently	20	50%	7	18,9%
	Always	5	12,5%	27	73%
French	Never	11	26,8%	37	100%
	Rarely	17	41,5%	0	0%
	Frequently	8	19,5%	0	0%
	Always	5	12,2%	0	0%
	Other(s)	Never	17	41,5%	36
	Rarely	20	48,8%	1	2,7%
	Frequently	4	9,8%	0	0%
	Always	0	0%	0	0%

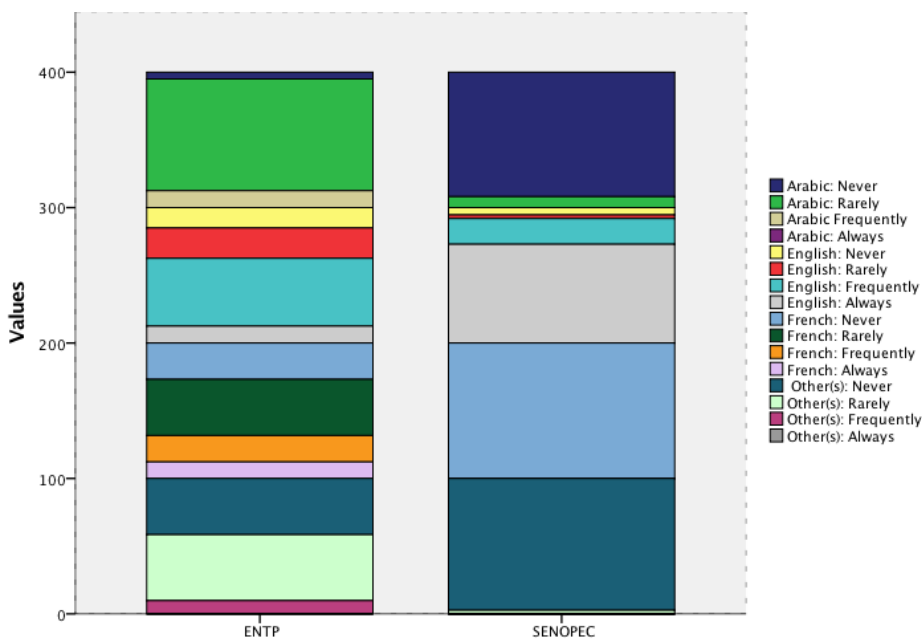


Figure 7 Frequency of using each language to communicate with non-Algerian partner companies

4. How often do you notice people use each of the following languages for spoken communication in your company?

	Never	Rarely	Frequently	Always
Arabic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
French	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

When workers from both companies were asked of the frequency of each of the languages usage to communicate within via spoken language, different answers were offered. Using the percentages in Table 5 and the bar charts in *Figure 8* for each language usage in this regard, there are marked differences in the rate of using Arabic for spoken communication between ENTP and SINOPEC in quite a reverse way, in that the ENTP makes very much use of Arabic which is reflected in the percentages 45%.and 20% together for ‘frequently’ and ‘always’; while in the SINOPEC Arabic is quite ‘rarely’ (27%) used or ‘never’ (73%). Yet, while English is expressed as more ‘rarely’ (36.6% as compared to 34.1% for ‘frequently’) in ENTP than in SINOPEC. In fact, in the foreign company, there is a very large proportion of English usage in spoken communication (54.1% of respondents said ‘frequently’ plus a percentage of 35.1 who think English is ‘always’ used.). For French, all participant workers from SINOPEC

company negate usage of French in speaking with a majority of 73% for ‘never’ and a remaining rate of 23% saying if used it is rare. By comparison, French is largely used in spoken communication by workers from the Algerian company ENTP according to 45% of the respondents who said it is frequently used than other languages. For the other languages, almost all of the workers in ENTP believe that there are no other languages at usage while at spoken communication than either Arabic, English or French, the latter of which excels in this situation. In the SINOPEC multinational however, results show that the majority of workers seem to use other languages (45,9% along with 29,7%) more than either of Arabic, English or French.

Table 5

*Frequency of each language in spoken communication*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Never	1	2,5%	5	13,5%
	Rarely	1	2,5%	4	10,8%
	Frequently	17	42,5%	23	62,2%
	Always	21	52,5%	5	13,5%
English	Never	8	19,5%	2	5,4%
	Rarely	15	36,6%	2	5,4%
	Frequently	14	34,1%	20	54,1%
	Always	4	9,8%	13	35,1%
French	Never	6	15%	27	73%

	Rarely	8	20%	10	27%
	Frequently	18	45%	0	0%
	Always	8	20%	0	0%
Other languaes	Never	19	46,3%	3	8,1%
	Rarely	21	51,2%	6	16,2%
	Frequently	1	2,4%	17	45,9%
	Always	0	0%	11	29,7%

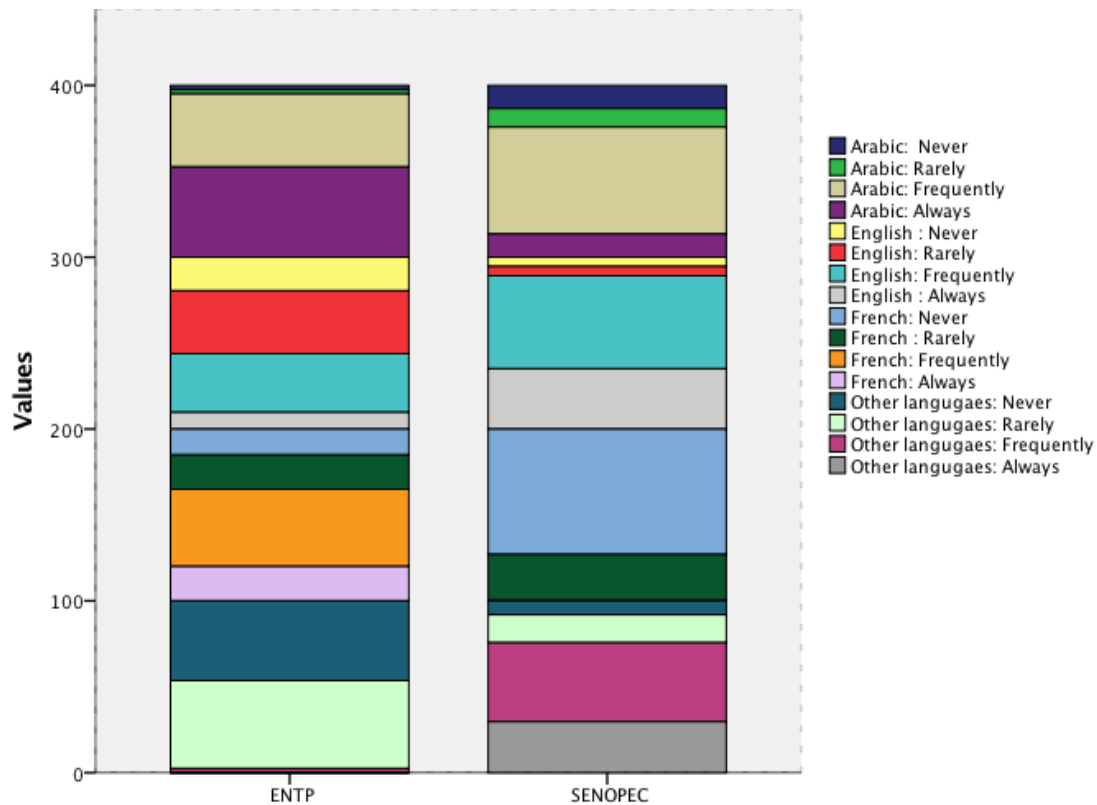


Figure 8 Frequency of using each language in spoken communication in each company

5. In your company, how often is each of the following languages used for reading/writing (reports, mails, documents, contracts, CVs, etc.)?

	Never	Rarely	Frequently	Always
Arabic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
French	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Participants were asked to choose between the three main languages according to their own views of how much frequent each language is used for written communication. One more option was given in case other languages are at use. As in questions 3 and 4, frequency scales were introduced in order to measure not only whether there is an employment of a given language, but also how much a language is being made use of relative to the languages existent along. Table 6 represents the summary cases of the initial output data crosstabulations in both companies.

Table 6

*Frequency of each language in written communication*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Never	5	12,2%	35	94,6%

	Rarely	22	53,7%	2	5,4%
	Frequently	10	24,4%	0	0%
	Always	4	9,8%	0	0%
English	Never	0	0%	0	0%
	Rarely	2	5%	0	0%
	Frequently	8	20%	35	94,6%
	Always	30	75%	2	5,4%
French	Never	14	34,1%	36	97,3%
	Rarely	14	34,1%	1	2,7%
	Frequently	10	24,4%	0	0%
	Always	3	7,3%	0	0%
Other languages	Never	33	80,5%	6	16,2%
	Rarely	8	19,5%	23	62,2%
	Frequently	0	0,0%	6	16,2%
	Always	0	0,0%	2	5,4%

Using the results in Table 6 along the graphs in *Figure 9*, it is noted that Arabic is not the language used in written communication of official forms, documents, reports and so on, in both multinationals. In the Chinese SINOPEC, respondents completely agree that Arabic is not used at all in communication of written forms (94,6% for ‘never’ and the remaining percentage 5,4 for ‘rarely’ if ever used). Though not so much

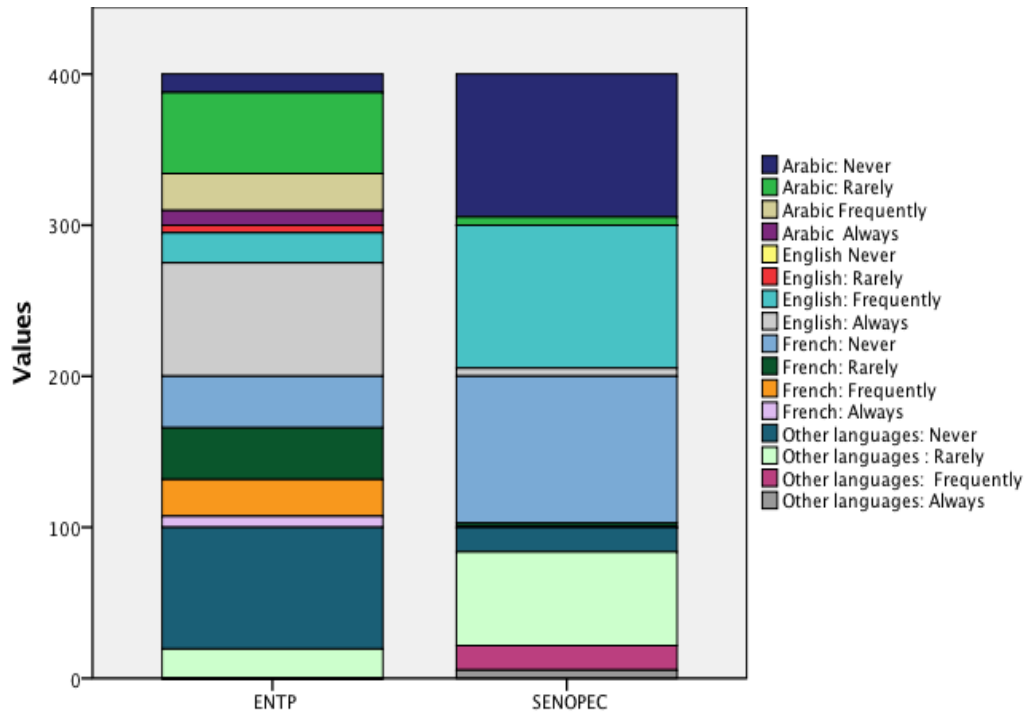


Figure 9 Frequency of using each language in written communication in each company

considered in written communication, Arabic is not neglected at once according to worker participants in the Algerian ENTP company, in that half of the whole number declared that it is quite ‘rarely’ used (53,7%). In contrast, the results show that there is a high predilection to using English at most in both companies for written forms (with rates of 75% and 96,6% respectively for the frequency ‘always’). Conversely, French is expressed by participants from both companies as of less importance to none in that regard. While some workers in ENTP view that although French is normally not used for written communication, it is sometimes the case to be found in certain ways at a percentage of 24,4% in its frequency usage. In the SINOPEC, however, French is completely disregarded for writing (97,3% said ‘never’ and the remaining said ‘rarely’). Regarding other languages, it seems that they are not of much account for written communication in both companies as the results display, for the majority of cases in

ENTP (80,5%) totally negated its usage, as compared to majority of cases (62,2%) reporting its rare use for that purpose.

6. *In which language(s) is the software (of computers, controlling screens, etc.) used in the company? (you may tick more than one)*

- Arabic
- English
- French
- Other(s)

Table 7

*Language frequency usage for software in each company*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Negative	41	100%	37	100%
	Positive	0	0%	0	0%
English	Negative	4	9,8%	0	0%
	Positive	37	90,2%	37	100%
French	Negative	16	39%	37	100%
	Positive	25	61%	0	0%
Other(s)	Negative	41	100%	37	100%
	Positive	0	0%	0	0%

According to participants' views, there is an absolute absence of both Arabic and 'other languages', with a rather clear usage of both English and French, in the software available at both companies. In addition to the total absence of Arabic and other languages, except for French, it is noted from Table 7 that English is used at a great majority level in the Algerian ENTP company (90%), while even an absolute 100% of software are run in English in regard the foreign GDWC multinational. In this direction, it is also important to note that French marks a complete absence within the foreign company as a language for computer and controlling screens software whereas the very language is present at a level of 61% in the Algerian company.

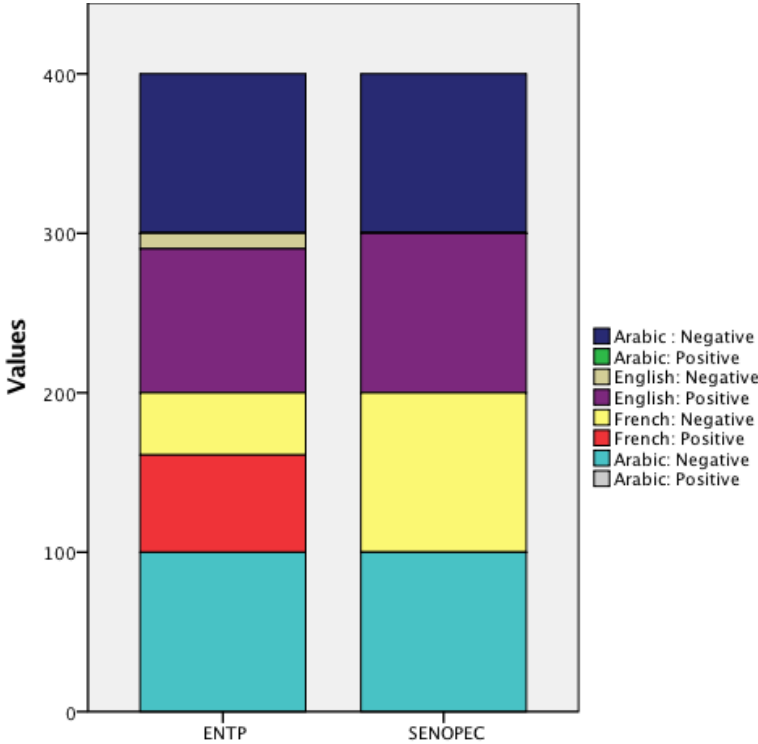


Figure 10 The rates of using each language for software in each company

7. In which language(s) are the names of equipment (of drilling, electricity, mechanic engineering, etc.) used at the workplace? (you may tick more than one)

- Arabic
- English
- French
- Other(s)

Participants can choose more than one option from the list consisting of ‘Arabic’, ‘English’, ‘French’, and ‘Other (s)’. Both English and French have a statistically significant association with the company status regarding the labels of workplace equipment items.

Table 8

*Languages used for workplace equipment labels*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Negative	41	100%	37	100%
	Positive	0	0%	0	0%
English	Negative	8	19,5%	0	0%
	Positive	33	80,5%	37	100%
French	Negative	20	48,8%	37	100%
	Positive	21	51,2%	0	0%
Other(s)	Negative	41	100%	37	100%
	Positive	0	0%	0	0%

The statistics in Table 8 indicate that 80% of the whole number of the participants in the Algerian company note that English is used rather than other languages; however, French is checked by around half of the participants that it is used for equipment naming in the ENTP multinational. It is deduced that both English and French are used for the labelling the workplace equipment with higher portions in English. Contrastively, in the foreign multinational, English is the only language delegated for labelling the equipment rather than all other languages under survey, including Arabic and French.

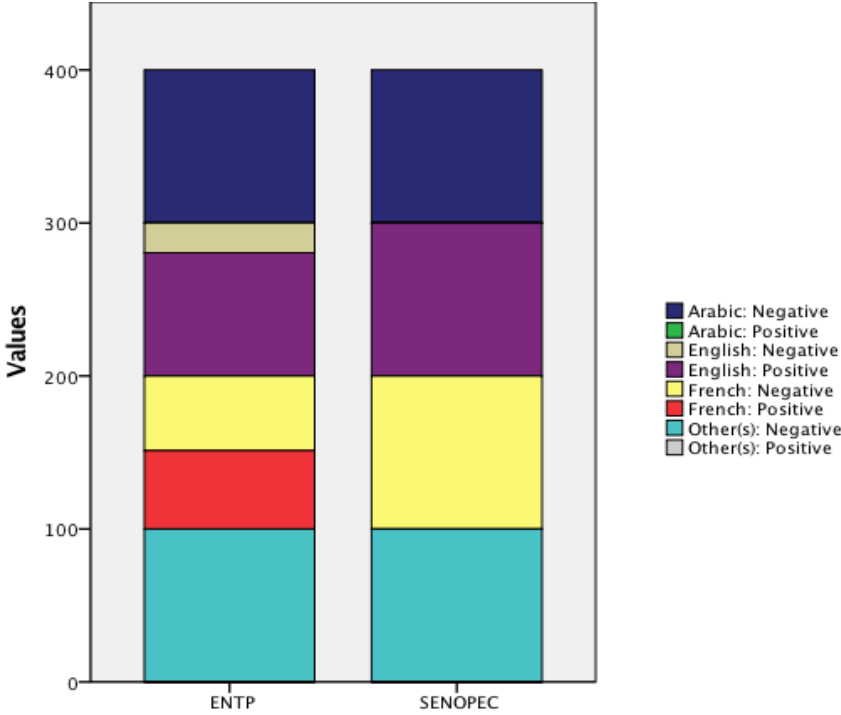


Figure 11 Rates of using each language for workplace equipment labels

8. *Imagine you are in a situation in which the following languages are chosen for use in the company, what ranking should be given to each language? Please order them from 1 to 4.*

- Arabic
- English
- French
- Other(s)

Table 9

*Frequency of ranking each of the languages according to participants*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentages	Cases	Percentages
Arabic	1 <sup>st</sup> rank	15	36,6%	3	8,1%
	2 <sup>nd</sup> rank	21	51,2%	25	67,6%
	3 <sup>rd</sup> rank	5	12,2%	5	13,5%
	4 <sup>th</sup> rank	0	0%	1	2,7%
English	1 <sup>st</sup> rank	22	53,7%	29	78,4%
	2 <sup>nd</sup> rank	11	26,8%	5	13,5%
	3 <sup>rd</sup> rank	8	19,5%	1	2,7%
	4 <sup>th</sup> rank	0	0%	0	0%
French	1 <sup>st</sup> rank	3	7,3%	1	2,7%
	2 <sup>nd</sup> rank	10	24,4%	2	5,4%
	3 <sup>rd</sup> rank	28	68,3%	29	78,4%
	4 <sup>th</sup> rank	0	0%	2	5,4%
Other (s)	1 <sup>st</sup> rank	0	0%	1	2,7%
	2 <sup>nd</sup> rank	0	0%	1	2,7%

3 <sup>rd</sup> rank	0	0%	1	2,7%
4 <sup>th</sup> rank	41	100%	32	86,5%

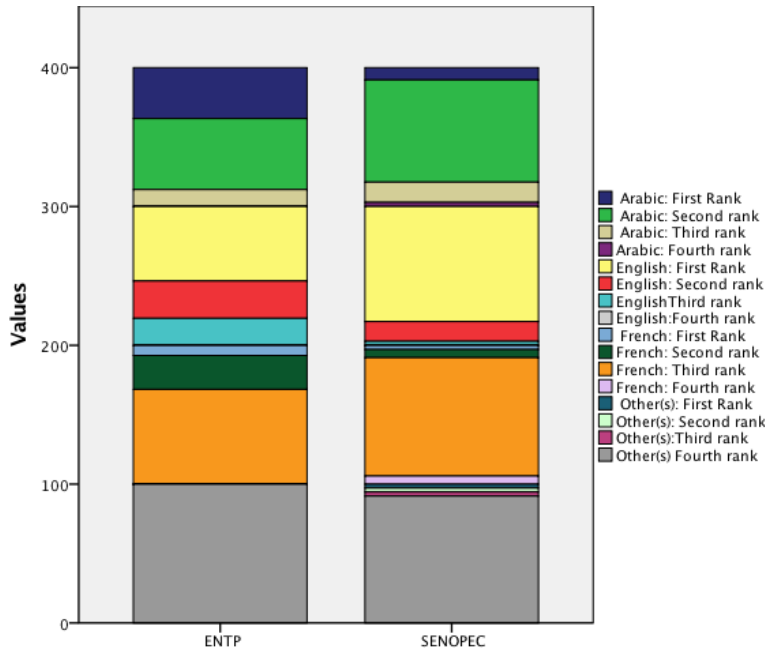


Figure 12 Frequency of ranking each of the languages according to participants

Table 9 shows that the statistical significance of the association between each of the languages' rank within the multinationals is reflected at percentages representing differing degrees portions of that association. In both companies, while French is at best viewed to serve the third position (with 68% of responses in the Algerian company and 85% in the foreign), Arabic (51% and 73%) is believed to be in the second rank after English (at approximately 54% and 83%). For the other languages, it appears that the ENTP workers do not have tendencies to rank other languages beyond the three options offered for them. Likewise, in SINOPEC, the great majority of respondents (86,5%) do not show willingness that other languages would be ranked, except a very few numbers for each rank from first to third, with a percentage of 2,7% for each category.

9. Which language(s) do you personally tend to use at the workplace? (*you may tick more than one*)

- Arabic
- English
- French
- Other(s)

Table 10

*Frequency of using each language at the workplace as per person*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Negative	9	22%	21	56,8%
	Positive	32	78%	16	43,2%
English	Negative	32	78%	2	5,4%
	Positive	9	22%	35	94,6%
French	Negative	25	61%	37	100%
	Positive	16	39%	0	0%
Other(s)	Negative	40	97,6%	20	54,1%
	Positive	1	2,4%	17	45,9%

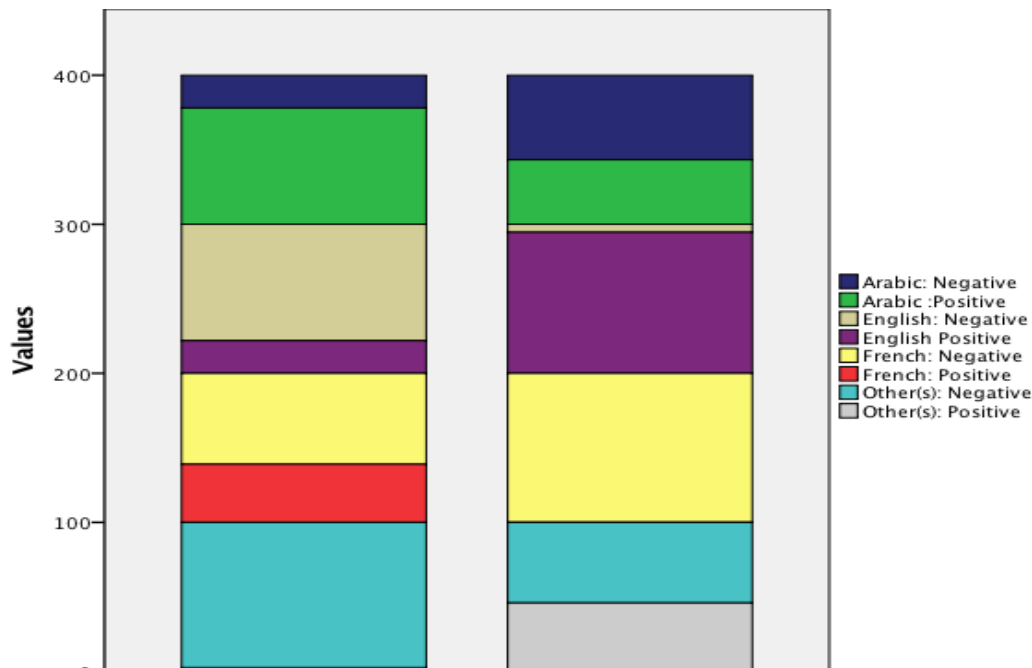


Figure 13 Languages used at the workplace as per person

This question seeks to examine the informal usages of languages among workers in casual communications of subgroups at work settings. Respondents are allowed to choose from the four options as may apply to their personal language speaking situations.

By consulting Table 10, it is found that the differences between both multinationals workers' inclination to use which language vary considerably. In fact, there are big differences among workers of each company on one hand, and on the other hand differences between workers of both companies. In the ENTP multinational, it is noted that a great majority tends to use Arabic (78%) against a minority of 43,2% of participants from SINOPEC multinational. However, it is quite the reverse when considering English: 78% of the respondents from ENTP tend not to use English as compared to a whopping majority of 94,6% of respondents mostly using English. French is often used among the majority of employees in ENTP (61%) in their interaction at the workplace, with a total absence of the French language at the Chinese company.

Regarding other languages, almost all workers in the ENTP agree to not be using any other language (97,6%) than Arabic and a few of French. In the SINOPEC, workers use other languages in this case at a respectable level of 46%.

It is noticeable that in the casual usages of languages, the workers of ENTP tend towards speaking Arabic while workers of SINOPEC use more English. This is much in dependence to the community’s structure in that the former usually employs Algerians for long contracts while the latter is a hetrogenous group of both Algerians and foreigners, notably Chinese in principle.

	Never	Rarely	Frequently	Always
Arabic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
French	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**10. How often?**

Table 11

*Frequency of each language use per person in each company*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Never	0	0,0%	19	51,4%
	Rarely	2	4,9%	3	8,1%

	Frequently	10	24,4%	5	13,5%
	Always	29	70,7%	10	27,0%
English	Never	22	53,7%	2	5,4%
	Rarely	10	24,4%	7	18,9%
	Frequently	6	14,6%	17	45,9%
	Always	3	7,3%	11	29,7%
French	Never	7	17,1%	37	100,0%
	Rarely	16	39,0%	0	0,0%
	Frequently	13	31,7%	0	0,0%
	Always	5	12,2%	0	0,0%
Other(s)	Never	35	85,4%	20	54,1%
	Rarely	6	14,6%	8	21,6%
	Frequently	0	0,0%	7	18,9%
	Always	0	0,0%	2	5,4%

It is apparent that the frequency of tending towards using English by individuals is quite highly dependent on their respective company. A quick examination of the results shows distinct differences between languages frequencies usage per individual in each company. Notably, there is more of a tendency for Arabic and French in the Algerian Multinational over English, but in the Foreign multinational English is strongly favoured with larger frequencies than Arabic; a total absence of French in the two measures of high frequency (Frequently/Always) is remarkable in the Foreign multinational, lagging far behind the other languages, let alone Arabic.

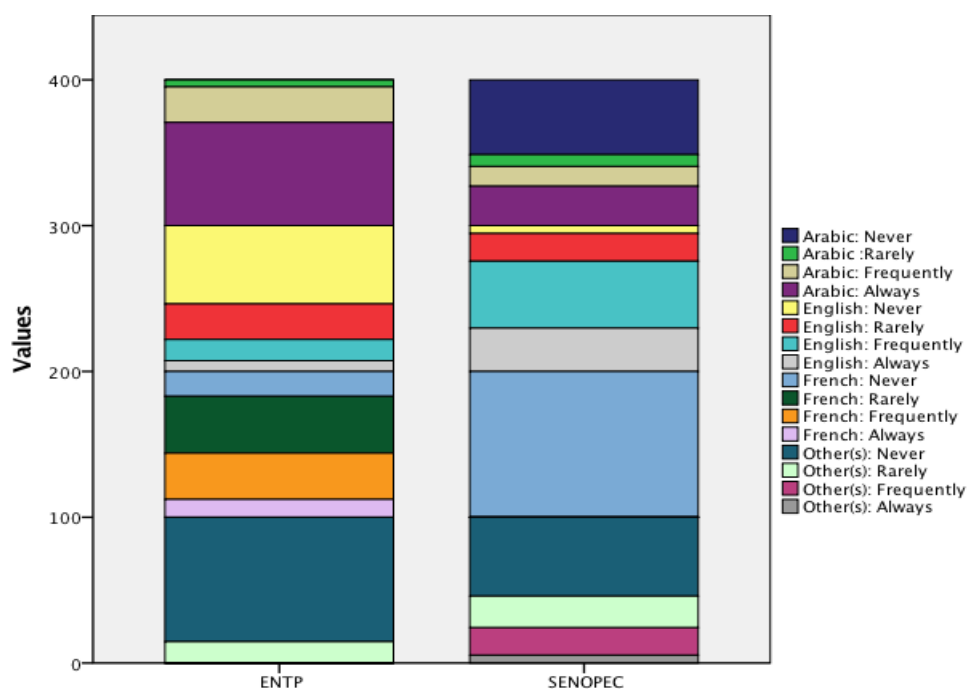


Figure 14 Frequency of using each language per person at each company

11. Is translation from one language to another used at the workplace?

Yes

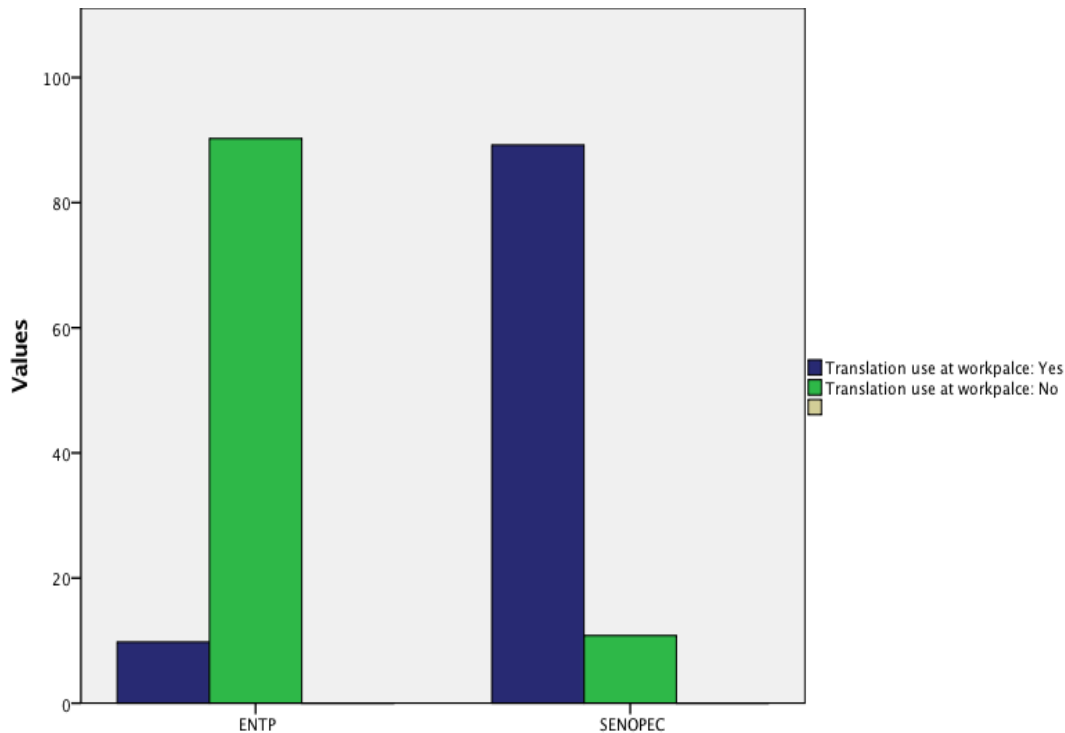
No (☛if your answer is 'No', move on to 13.)

Table 12

Participants' responses whether translation is used at their workplace

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Yes	4	9,8%	33	89,2%
No	37	90,2%	4	10,8%
Total	41	100%	37	100%

It is a 'Yes' or 'No' question. This question directly relates to the next following it. i.e., participants who tick 'No' are directed to skip question 12.



*Figure 15* Participants' responses regarding whether translation is used at their workplace at each company

Table 12 shows distinguishable value differences of whether translation is common in each company. It appears that the majority (90%) of the respondents in the Algerian ENTP company indicate that translation is marginally used. In contrast, almost 90% of respondents in the foreign company report that translation is highly a common trait within their workplace.

*12. If yes,*

*A. Which language(s) is/are commonly translated from? (you may tick more than one)*

The results in Table 13 demonstrate two important facts: First, that translation is said to be used in the Algerian company with only 4 respondents out of the total of 41 versus 33 respondents out of 37 from the foreign company; and second, there is a complete agreement among the respondents of the two companies that the number one language out of which translation mostly occurs is English. For the other languages, there seems to be no statistically significant association between the company status and translating from the other languages.

What is interesting here is that English is believed to be the one-hundred-percent language from which translation typically occurs according to the employees who said that translation is used in their company.

Table 13

*Languages translated from at the workplace*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Negative	0	0%	18	54,6%
	Positive	4	100%	15	45,4%
English	Negative	0	0%	0	0%
	Positive	4	100%	33	100%
French	Negative	2	50%	33	100%
	Positive	2	50%	0	0%
Other(s)	Negative	3	75%	16	48,5%
	Positive	1	25%	17	51,5%

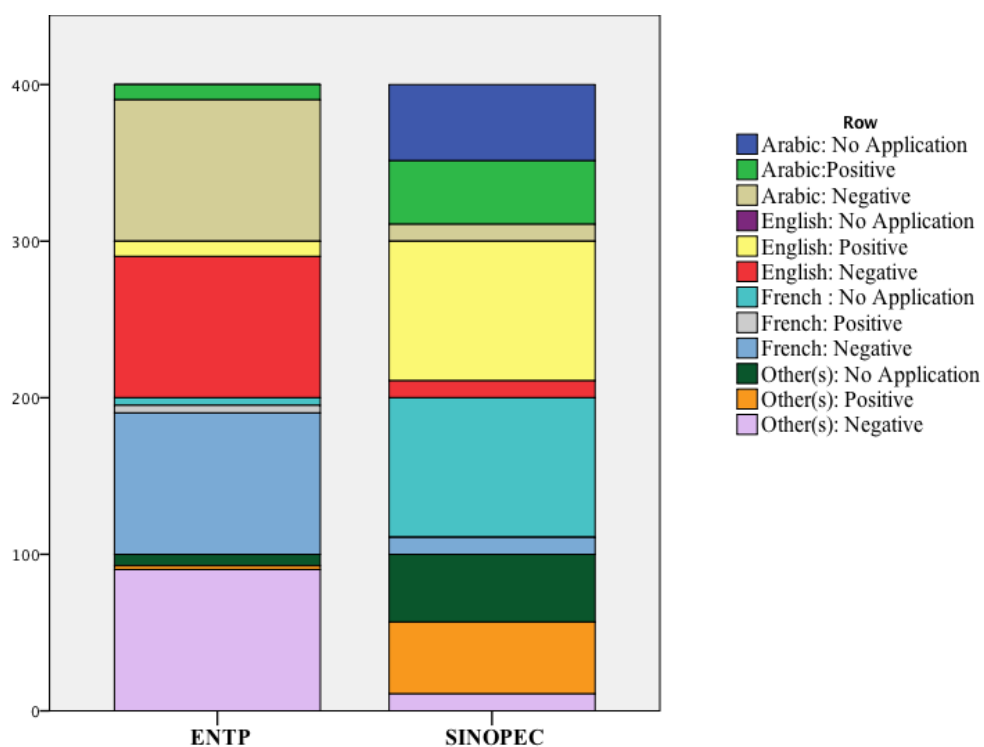


Figure 16 Languages translated from at the workplace

B. Which language(s) is/are commonly translated into? (you may tick more than one)

Table 14

Languages into which translation occurs at the workplace

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Arabic	Negative	2	50%	16	48,5%
	Positive	2	50%	17	51,5%
English	Negative	0	0%	0	0%
	Positive	4	100%	33	100%

French	Negative	3	75%	33	100%
	Positive	1	25%	0	0%
Other(s)	Negative	0	0%	26	78,8%
	Positive	0	0%	7	21,2%

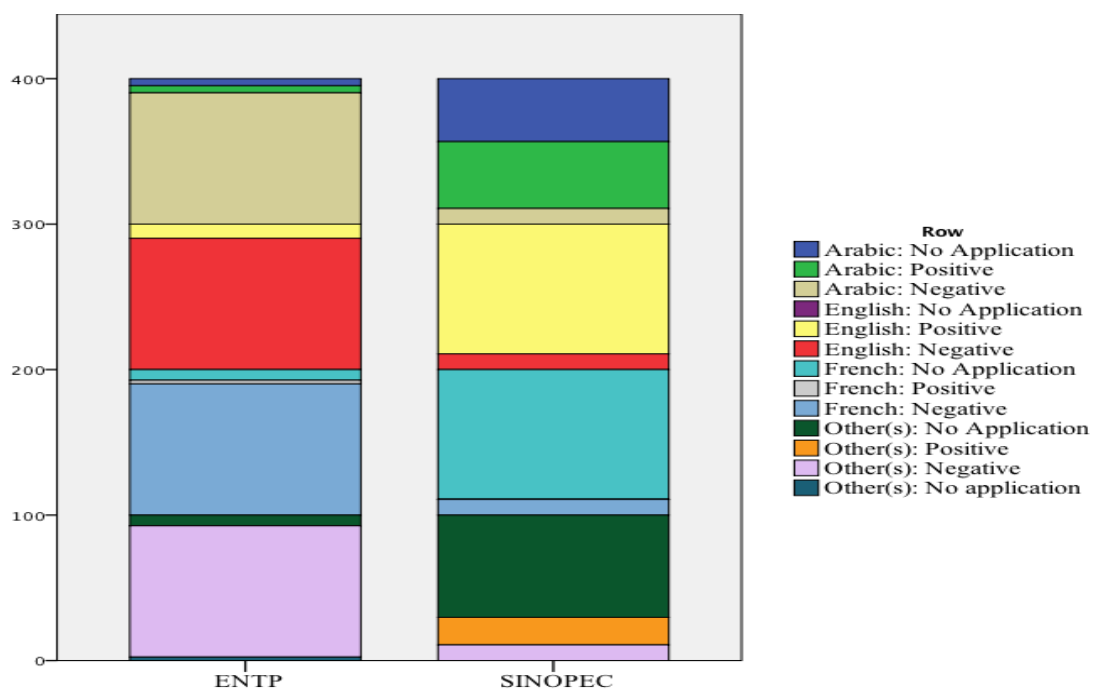


Figure 17 Languages into which translation occurs at the workplace

Applying the same procedure of analysis as in the item question (12. A) yields the same conclusions about the fact that English is the mostly used language that is translated *into* likewise. Conclusively, English plays a pivotal role in the different levels of communication in both companies alike, notable if miscommunication issues occur due to mutual misunderstandings among workers.

13. Are you willing to use English at your workplace?

Four options were offered ranging as ‘Yes, I am very willing to use English’, ‘Yes, I am a little willing to use English’, ‘I prefer not to, but I have to use English’, and ‘No, I do not want to use English’ out of which respondent would tick one.

In fact, as may be expected, all respondents without exception from both companies seem to be willing to use English. No single case expressed not wishing to use English in some way.

Additionally, though it sounds apparent that in both companies, participants have inclination towards using English at the workplace, but more tendency is demonstrated by workers of the ENTP than SINOPEC.

Table 15

*Rates of the respondents’ willingness to use English at the workplace*

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Yes, very willing	41	100%	27	73,0
Yes, a little willing	0	00%	9	24,3
I prefer not, but I have to	0	00%	0	00%
No, i do not want	0	00%	0	0%%
Total	41	100%	36	97,3%

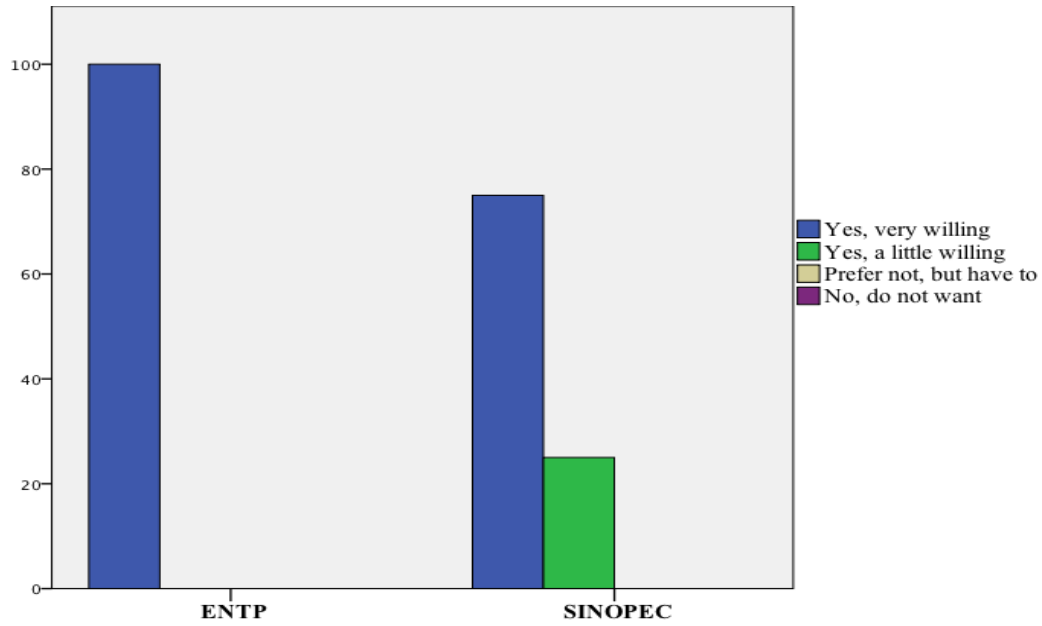


Figure 18 Rates of the respondents' willingness to use English at the workplace

14. How often in an average day do you make use of English while at work?

- Always (100%)
- Frequently (about 50% to 80%)
- Usually (about 20% to 45 %)
- Occasionally (about 5% to 15%)
- Rarely (less than 5%)
- Never (0%)
- It depends on the situation I'm in

Table 16

Approximate personal daily averages of English use by the respondents at the workplace

Company	
ENTP	SINOPEC

	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Always	0	0	15	40,5
Frequently	2	4,9%	11	29,7%
Usually	3	7,3%	2	5,4%
Occasionally	6	14,6%	4	10,8%
Rarely	14	34,1%	0	0%
Never	12	29,3%	0	0%
It depends	4	9,8%	5	13,5%
Total	41	100%	37	100%

In an attempt to go slightly deeper in examining this willingness of employees in respect the effective use of English as opposed to their desires, a set of approximation estimates are offered to them in order to communicate their personal view about how far they assume to be using English on an average day. This is assessed via six frequency measures of approximate rates, gradually ranging from highest (Always 100%) to the lowest (Never 0%). Along that a seventh option expressing indecision is also given.

Turning to percentage rates (Table 16), it is found that the highest value of frequency degree is marked with 'Rarely' (34%) in the Algerian company as compared to 40.5% for 'Always' in the foreign company. It is concluded that whatever high the desire expressed by the workers from the two multinationals alike, it is obvious that more frequency of effective English language use is in the foreign company rather than the Algerian.

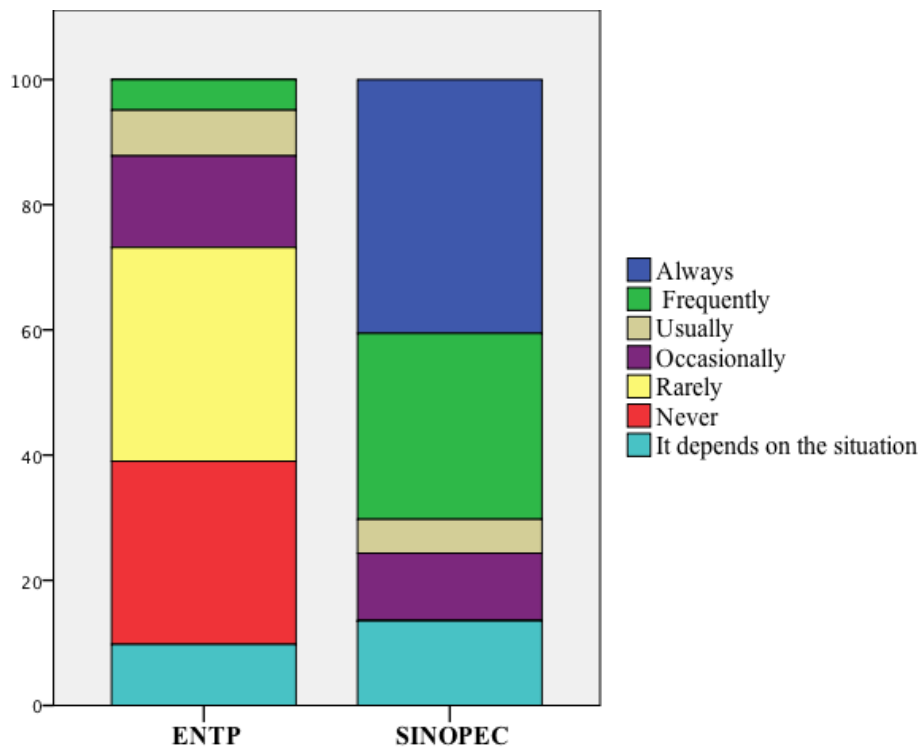


Figure 19 Approximate personal daily averages of English use by the respondents at the workplace.

15. Does English language skill have any role into obtaining a work position in your company?

Table 17

Respondents' views regarding the role of English in work obtainment

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Yes, necessary	0	0	8	21,6
Yes, but restricted	20	48,8	18	48,6
No, but preferable	13	31,7	8	21,6

No, have nothing to do	4	9,8	3	8,1
Total	40	97,6	37	100

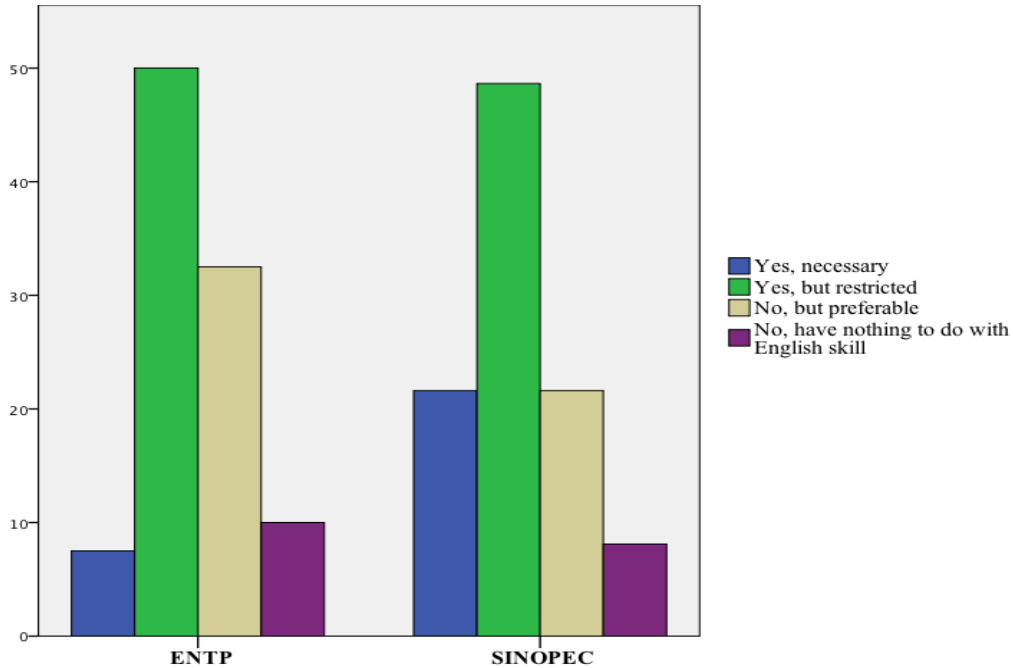


Figure 20 Respondents' views regarding the role of English in work obtainment

Results denote that there is much tendency (almost a half of workers in each company) reporting on the restriction of the role of English in attaining a post according to the responses in both multinationals (48% each), while at the same time respondents from ENTP report that it is absolutely not necessary for individuals to have any skill in English for them to obtain a work position; nonetheless, a number of workers from SINOPEC (21,6%) say that English is exigent. It is also noted that more than 31,7 % of ENTP workers think that though skill in English is not obligatory to attain posts, it is, however a preferable option. In GDWC, only 21,6% participant workers believe English is not a must to have but preferable. Taken together for both multinationals, it can be

presumed that English is not necessary for obtaining a job but preferable at the same time.

16. Which of the following situations contributes more to use English? (*you may tick more than one*)

- Meetings with company man
- Meetings with people from another company
- Talking to co-workers in my company
- Face-to-face communication with foreigners
- Online communication with foreigners (phone, email, Facebook chats, etc.)
- Delegation for overseas business trips
- Writing up periodical business reports
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

Table 18

*Situations in which English is used more*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Meetings with company man	Negative	41	100%	0	0%
	Positive	0	0%	37	100%
Meetings with people from another company	Negative	20	48,8%	3	8,1%
	Positive	21	51,2%	34	91,9%
	Negative	38	92,7%	2	5,4%

Talking to co-workers in my company	Positive	3	7,3%	35	94,6%
Face-to-face communication with foreigners	Negative	10	24,4%	1	2,7%
	Positive	31	75,6%	36	97,3%
Online communication with foreigners	Negative	5	12,2%	2	5,4%
	Positive	36	87,8%	35	94,6%
Delegation for overseas business trips	Negative	4	9,8%	1	2,7%
	Positive	37	90,2%	36	97,3%
Writing up periodical business reports	Negative	2	4,9%	4	10,8%
	Positive	39	95,1%	32	86,5%

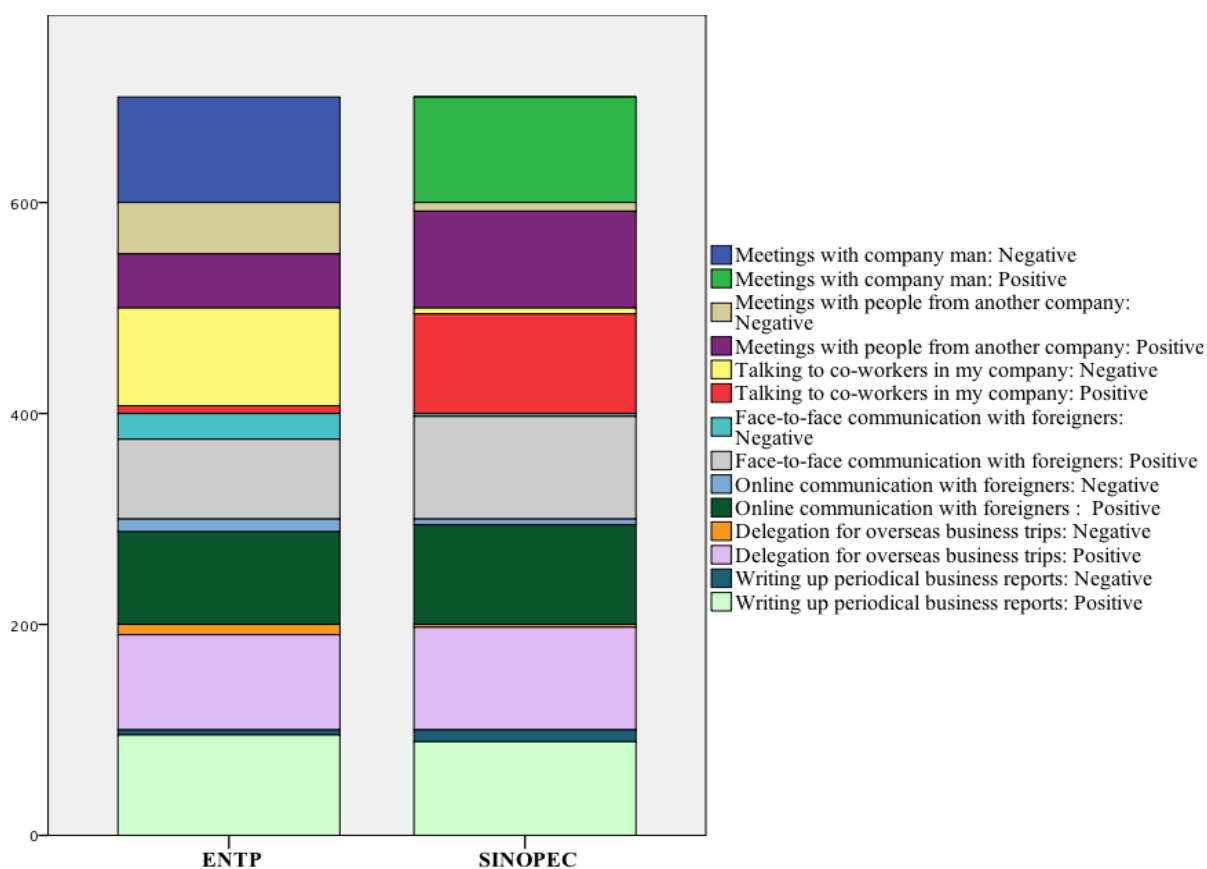


Figure 21 Situations in which English is more used

The statistics (Table 18) demonstrate that all employees (100%) in the foreign multinational use English with their company man for meetings which is quite the reverse in the Algerian company (0%). That is also almost the case for meetings held with foreign staff to both companies as advanced. It is very remarkable also that in worker-to-coworker communication, participants from both companies reported opposite views: in ENTP, English is not so much of utility (only 7,3%) while SINOPEC employees make extreme usage of English in their interaction with each other within their company (94,6%). Contrastively, according to the majority of workers' responses, there is a confluence of making essential use of English in both companies regarding *'face-to-face communication with foreigners'*, *'online communication with foreigners (phone, email, Facebook chats, etc.)'*, *'delegation for overseas business trips'* and *'Writing up periodical business reports'*. The seventh item 'Other(s)' is completely unticked by any case of the whole number of worker participants.

Overall, there is a clear distinction of English use for the purposes examined in the present question. The values in tables show that the dependence of English use in relation to each case on the company status is justifiably strong. In other words, further that there is largely distinguishable difference in that the foreign company employees make much more use of English than the employees in the Algerian company.

*17. Why using specifically English in such situations? ( you may tick more than one )*

- Company policy requires using English
- Because people we talk to use English
- Feel comfortable to use English

- English is the language of business in Algeria
- To practice English more in order to improve my language skill
- Because I can communicate my ideas more effectively in English
- English facilitates communication with people of different origins
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

What determines particular uses of English at the different situations is apt to change and vary according to a set of options. By comparing the statistics across companies, an explicit company policy requirement to use English seems imposed by the foreign multinational compared to the Algerian (67,6 % vs. 5%). Though talking to people whom are using English by default, it does not seem to be a decisive factor of tendency to opt for speaking it by the respondents, which is translated into the values that the largest portion of respondents from ENTP company (66%) are not using English for they are not really dealing with people who use English in their company. In contrary, half of participant workers in the Chinese company (51,4%) think that they use English due to the fact that speakers tend to communicate English. The majority of the workers from both companies expressed their feel of confort when using English as using English in the respective situations within their workplace settings.

Table 19

*Respondents' views about reasons of using specifically English in such situations*

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Negative	39	95,1%	12	32,4%

Company policy requires using English	Positive	2	4,9%	25	67,6%
Because people we talk to use English	Negative	27	65,9%	18	48,6%
	Positive	14	34,1%	19	51,4%
Feel comfortable to use English	Negative	38	92,7%	26	70,3%
	Positive	3	7,3%	11	29,7%
English is the language of business in Algeria	Negative	39	95,1%	6	16,2%
	Positive	2	4,9%	31	83,8%
To practice English to improve my language	Negative	10	24,4%	14	37,8%
	Positive	31	75,6%	23	62,2%
Because I can communicate my ideas more effectively in English	Negative	39	95,1%	34	91,9%
	Positive	2	4,9%	3	8,1%
English facilitates communication with people of different origins	Negative	0	0%	0	0%
	Positive	41	100%	37	100%

Nevertheless, there is a large difference between the views of respondents from both companies regarding whether English is practically the language of business in Algeria. Algerian multinational individuals preserve from claiming English as the effective business language which is in full opposition to individuals of the foreign to a large extent. Though the largest rate of the participants in the multinationals do not consider themselves as being more efficient in communicating their ideas in English, they tend

to use English rather for practicing their language skills or due to the fact that English is the facilitative means of communication with people of foreign origins.

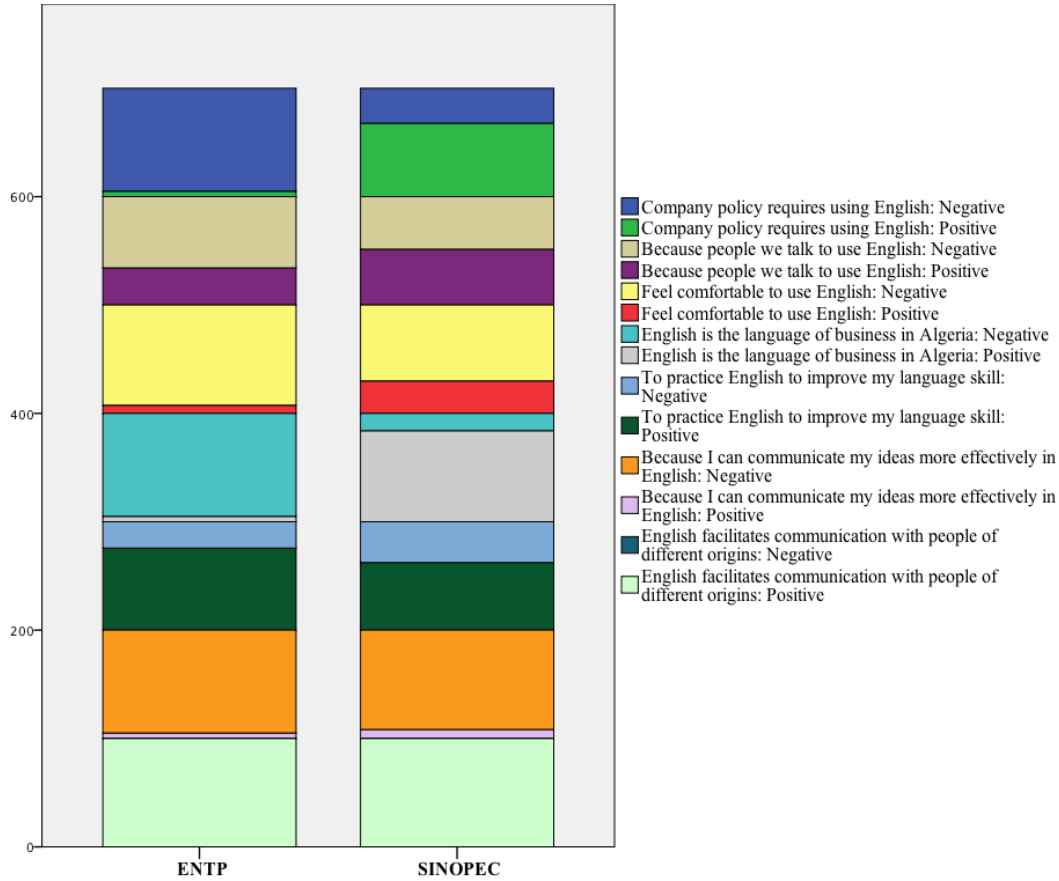


Figure 22 Respondents' views about reasons of using specifically English in such situations

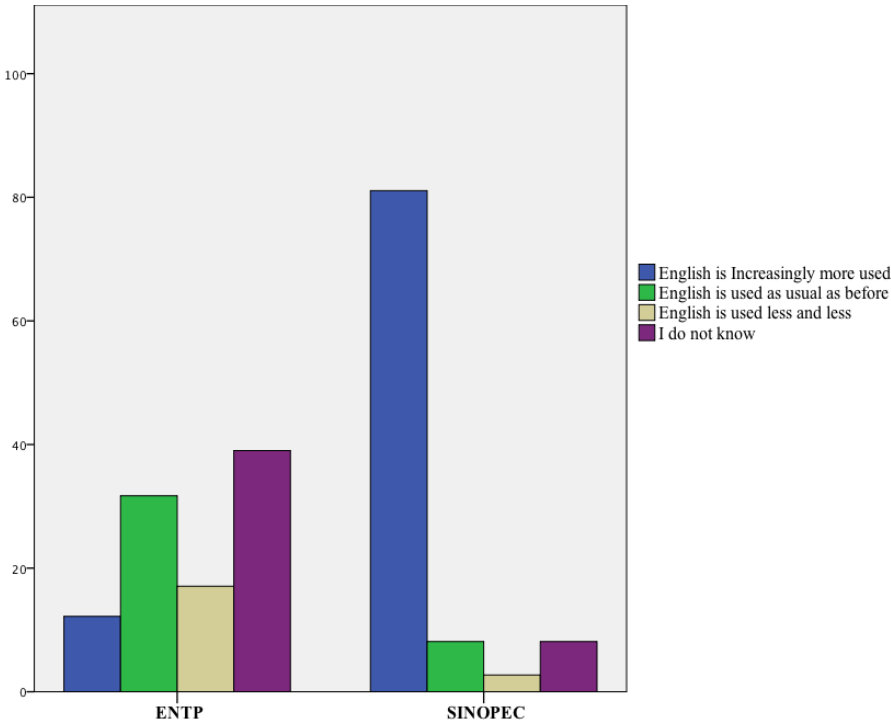
18. According to your experience in the company, how do you estimate English language use in your company?

- English is increasingly used more and more
- English is used as usual as before
- English is becoming used less and less
- I do not know

Table 20

*Participants’ personal estimation of English status at company*

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
English is increasingly used more	5	12,2%	30	81,1%
English is used as usual as before	13	31,7%	3	8,1%
English is used less and less	7	17,1%	1	2,7%
I do not know	16	39%	3	8,1%
Total	41	100%	37	100%



*Figure 23* Participants’ personal estimates of English status at the workplace at each company

Interestingly, English is said to be increasingly gaining more status within the foreign multinational (81.1%) than in the Algerian one (12.2%). Put differently, the results show that there is expected less of English status in the Algerian company (17.1%) as compared to the foreign (2.7%). Further, the Algerian ENTP company workers also expect the stability of English use amid their company as it were previously, when a lesser number of participant employees of the foreign SINOPEC company expressed this kind of view.

19. *In what company departments is English being more used? (you may tick more than one)*

- Marketing (e.g., sales engineering, advertising)
- Finance (Money management)
- Operation management (production, business operations)
- Human resources
- Subsidiaries
- Headquarters
- Other departments
- I do not know

The results displayed in Table 21 below can be analytically summarized as follows:

- *Marketing*: there is a great deal of making use of English in both multinationals (Algerian: 70.7%; foreign: 83.8%) for marketing processes.
- *Finance* : there is dependence of using English on the companies origin, which is demonstrated by the percent values. A fundamentally small size of employees from

ENTP confirm that the language used in the section of financing operations of the multinational is English (4.9%), while a huge portion of responses in the foreign company (86.5%) communicates a largely usage of English for this purpose.

- *Operation management*: there is substantially much more use of English for management operations by the foreign company (97.3%) than the Algerian (4.9%).
- *Human resources* : Apparently, only a very limited room of using English in the human resources of the Algerian company (7.3%) as compared to the foreign (56.8%).

Table 21

*Company sections in which English is more used*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Marketing (e.g., sales engineering, advertising)	Negative	12	29,3%	6	16,2%
	Positive	29	70,7%	31	83,8%
Finance (Money management)	Negative	39	95,1%	5	13,5%
	Positive	2	4,9%	32	86,5%
Operation management (production, business operations)	Negative	39	95,1%	1	2,7%
	Positive	2	4,9%	36	97,3%
Human resources	Negative	38	92,7%	16	43,2%
	Positive	3	7,3%	21	56,8%
Subsidiaries	Negative	39	95,1%	11	29,7%

	Positive	2	4,9%	26	70,3%
Headquarters	Negative	38	92,7%	8	21,6%
	Positive	3	7,3%	29	78,4%
Other departments	Negative	41	100,0%	30	81,1%
	Positive	0	0%	7	18,9%
I do not know	Negative	35	85,4%	36	97,3%
	Positive	6	14,6%	1	2,7%

- *Subsidiaries*: According to the percentage rates, English is quite marginally used in the subsidiary departments of Algerian multinationals (4.9%) which is considerably equal to none, in comparison with the foreign (70.3%).
- *Headquarters*: there is a large dependence of using English in the headquarters and the relevant company. More use of English is noted in the statistics about the foreign company (78.4%) than its Algerian counterpart (7.3%).
- *Other departments*: obviously, there is much less view of the respondents whether English would be of more use on other departmental sections in each company. It is reflected by null votes for this option by any member from the Algerian multinational along with a 18.9% for the foreign.
- *I do not know*: only a small number of respondents from both companies made it clear of their indecision in respect the evaluations of which departments are involving more English use in their various business operations. It communicates a significant level of the awareness shown on the part of the workers about the language practices across the many different divisions of their companies.

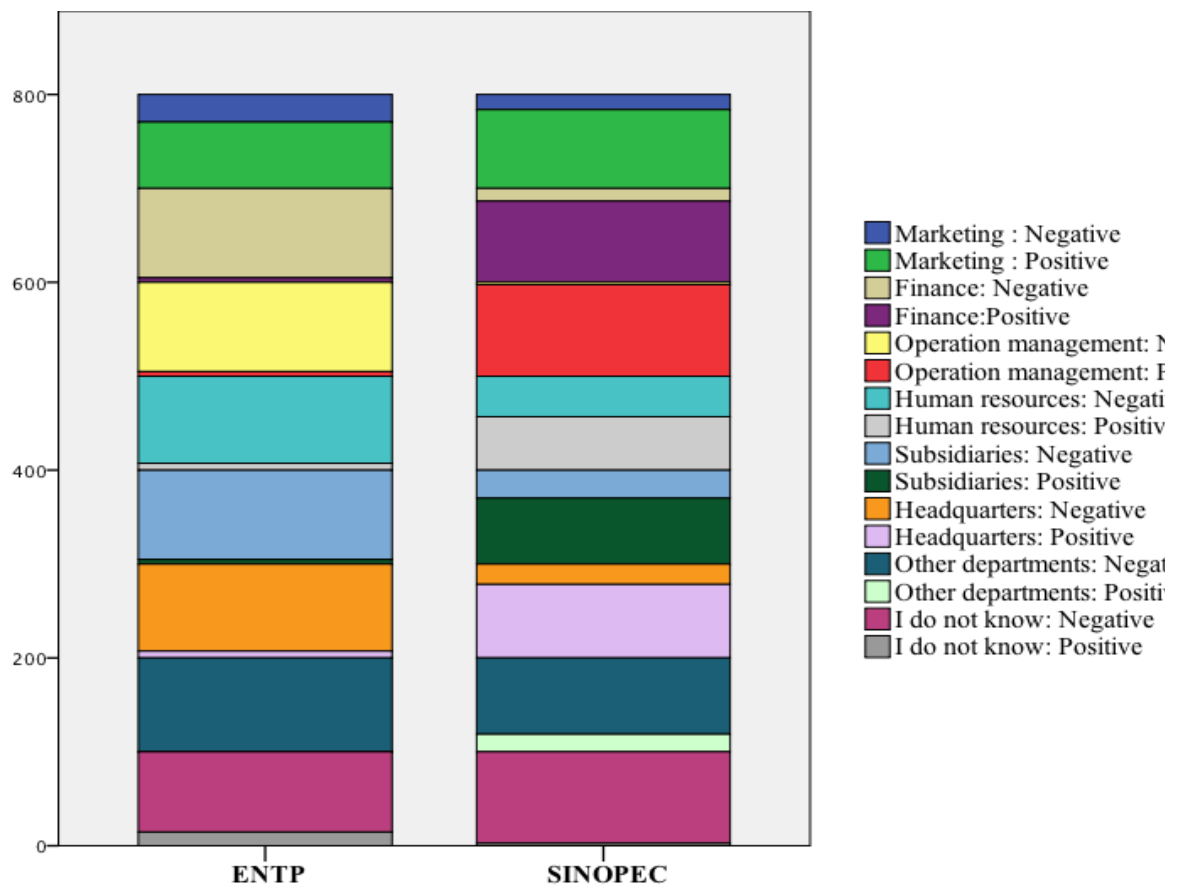


Figure 24 Company sections in which English is more used

20. Which factor contributes more to workforce recruitment in the company?

- Individuals with English language qualification only
- Individuals with qualification in a language other than English
- Individuals with qualification in English and work experience
- Individuals with qualification in a language other than English along with work experience.
- Individuals with work experience regardless of language qualification

Other: \_\_\_\_\_

Table 22

*Factors contributing to workforce recruitment in each company according to respondents*

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
English language qualification only	0	0%	0	0%
Qualification in a language other than English	0	0%	0	0%
Qualification in English and work experience	32	78%	34	91,9%
Qualification in another language along work experience	9	22%	0	0%
Work experience regardless of language qualification	0	0%	3	8,1%
Total	41	100%	37	100%

By observing the summary results in Table 22, two main remarks should be made; first, that there is no role of any other language than English (even though accompanied with or without experience) or some further suggested factors in the recruitment procedure by both companies. Secondly, though English is shown to be more of importance than all the other languages and the work experience alone alike, it is also outstanding that English in both multinationals is much appreciated with work experience in the field corresponding to the workforce than either alone. Of the respondents 78% in the Algerian company along with 91.9% in the foreign back up the

point. It goes without saying, the latter is quite high a percentage in this regard. Taken as a whole, all respondents surveyed testify the fact that English and experience interplay as determinants of work position attainment.

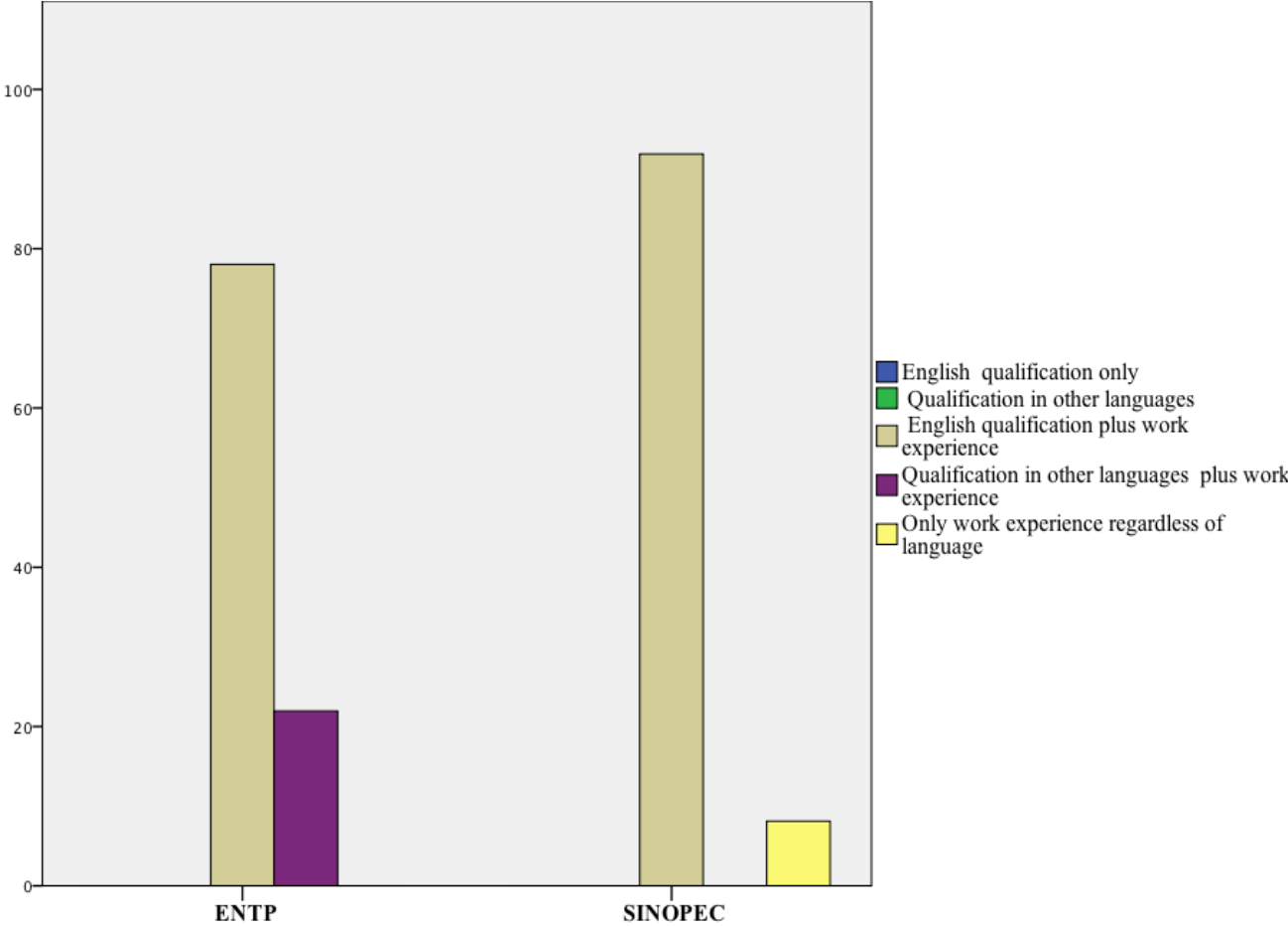


Figure 25 Factors contributing to workforce recruitment

21. What do you think is the best policy for your company to use English?

- English as the only official language of the company
- English as one of the official languages of the company (for example English and Arabic)
- English as the *only* official language of some departments

English as *one* of the official languages of some departments

Other: \_\_\_\_\_

According to the results displayed in Table 23, there is significant strong relationship between the individual employees in each company and what they conceive of, at best, as a language policy for their companies.

Table 23

*Employees' opinions of company strategy to promote English use*

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
English as the <i>only</i> official of all company	8	19,5%	30	81,1%
English as <i>one</i> of the official languages of all company	29	70,7%	5	13,5%
English as the <i>only</i> official of some depts.	1	2,4%	2	5,4%
English as <i>one</i> of the official of some depts.	3	7,3%	0	0%
Total	41	100%	37	100%

Rather than sufficing with English as either '*the only official language of some departments*' or '*one of the official languages of some departments*', all employees from both companies equally tend to encourage the view that companies would be better off adopting English as an official language across all the departments without exception (Item 2). Thus, overall, there is more tendency of having English as the *only* official (rather than '*one of*') language on the part of workers in the foreign company (81.1%)

which compares to merely 19.5% of the Algerian multinational' workers. it seems that the majority of the participants from the ENTP wish to have at least one more language along English as official languages (70.7% in contrast to 13.5% in the SINOPEC). One respondent from the Algerian company reported a different view. They claimed that *'The best way' for the company to use English 'is to give importance to English as work. English is [dominant] language in all companies as we know it and in all the world. So, our company must make special classes to teach it with teachers from USA and UK.'* (spelling errors in the original comment).

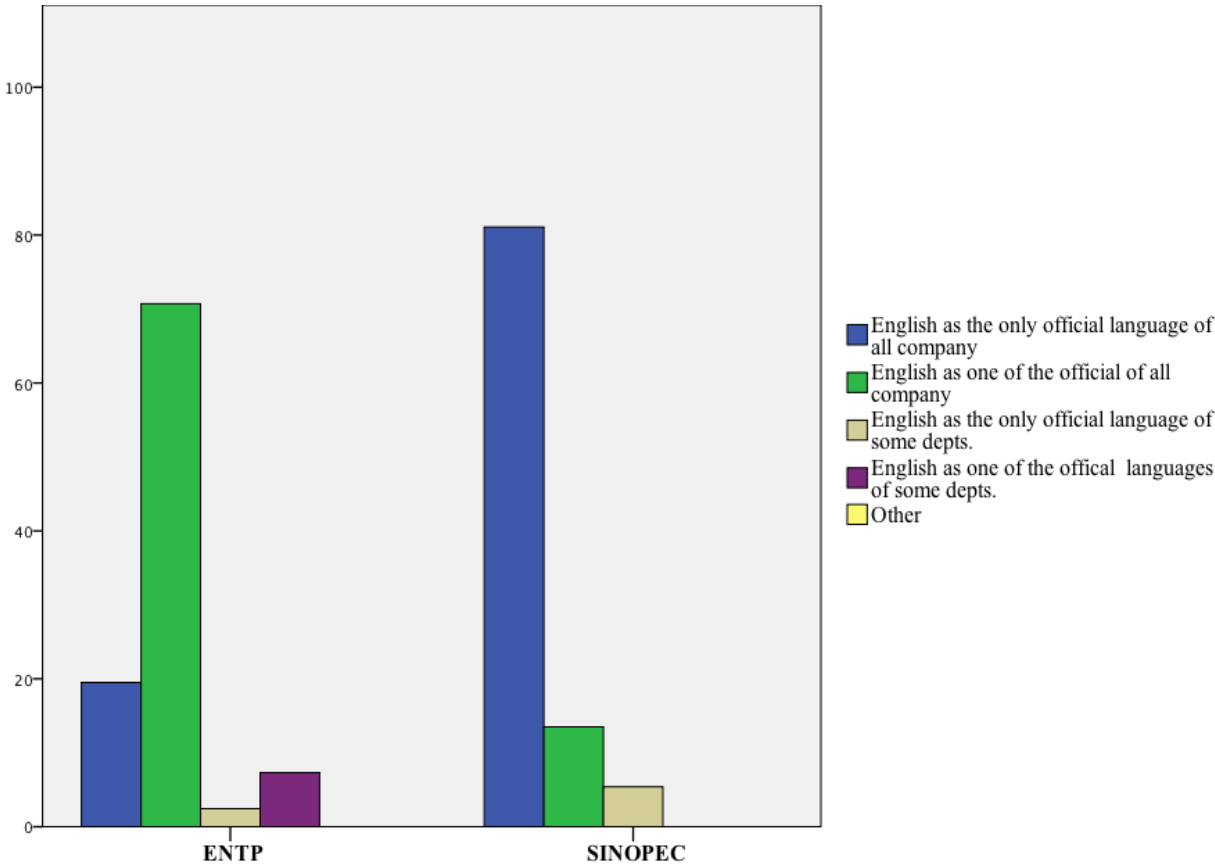


Figure 26 Employees' opinion of company strategy to promote English use

22. *If the company policy sets English as the only language of communication at the workplace, what would be your attitude?*

- Be positive because it is a language I like to use
- Feel uncomfortable
- Feel neutral
- Be grateful for this opportunity to improve my English proficiency
- Feel it is a necessary requirement for work
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

Table 24

*Employees' attitudes if company sets only English for communication*

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Be positive	6	14,6%	24	64,9%
Feel uncomfortable	1	2,4%	2	5,4%
Feel neutral	2	4,9%	1	2,7%
Be grateful for the opportunity	20	48,8%	6	16,2%
It is a necessary requirement for work	12	29,3%	4	10,8%
Total	41	100%	37	100%

The results in Table 24 demonstrate strong interrelationships between the company status and the situation in which English would be chosen as the only language of

communication at the workplace. Accordingly, the great majority of the respondents from the two companies together ascribe to being appreciative if English is set as the only official language for communication. That scenario largely seems a wise decision by the foreign company in that it would render the majority of its workers feel positive if English is set as the only language of communication at work (65%). Also, of the whole sample of employees of each multinational, 29.3% (ENTP) and 10.8% (SINOPEC) see that English is rather a necessary work requirement that serves as a minimum asset for workers apart any company policy. More room was given for the respondents as done with most of items using the ‘Others’ provided with open pace for any additions. None of the participants has given further suggestions.

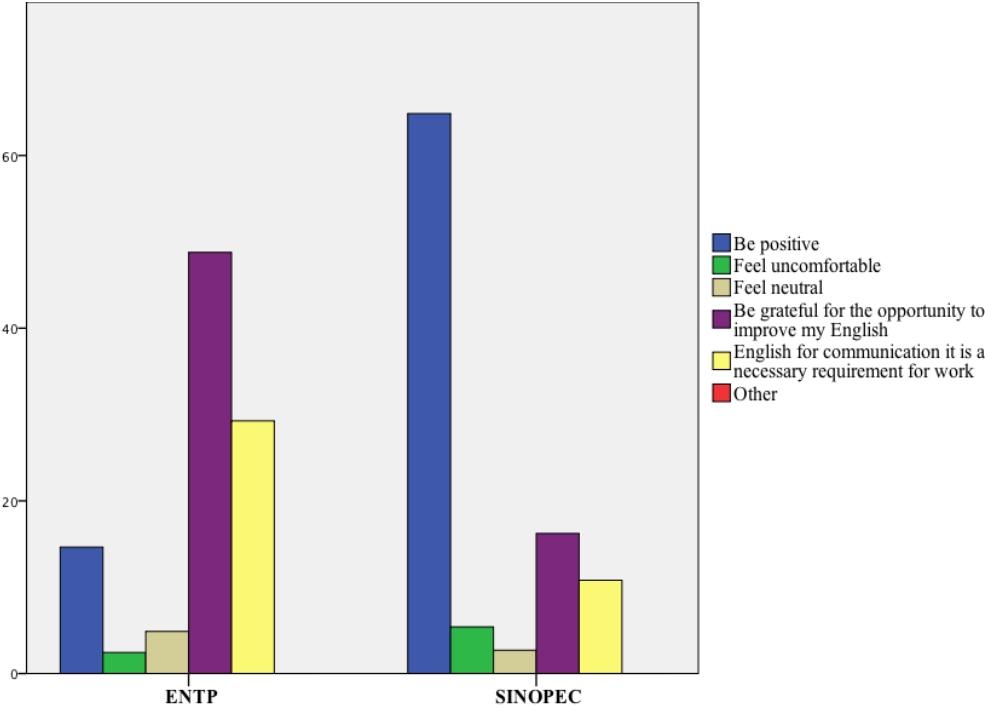


Figure 27 Employees’ attitude if company sets only English for communication

23. *What kinds of advantage does English language mastery offer to its speakers in the company? (you may tick more than one)*

- Opportunities to be involved in overseas business trips by the company
- English is a key means to acquire work skill because company regulations require English use while performing work tasks
- Better English proficiency leads to better work positions and/or promotion
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

This question is asked to the respondents so as to assess for further factors possible that multinationals may or may not encourage regarding English promotion, and check for more comprehensiveness of the role of having competence in English at work, particularly spotted from a comparative standpoint of the language planning and policy in business contexts in Algeria among multinational companies.

Table 25

*Employees' opinions of the advantages obtained from English mastery at the workplace*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Opportunities to be involved in overseas business trips by the company	Negative	14	34,1%	16	43,2%
	Positive	27	65,9%	21	56,8%
English is a key means to acquire work skill ...	Negative	33	80,5%	32	86,5%
	Positive	8	19,5%	5	13,5%
	Negative	7	17,1%	7	18,9%

Better English proficiency				
leads to better work positions and/or promotion	Positive	34	82,9%	30 81,1%

---

Regarding how much of opportunity to go for overseas business trips funded by the company, workers from both ENTP (66%) and SINOPEC (57%) have shown positive feedback in that English language skills is of much advantage in that respect. It follows that the two multinationals favor having at disposal workers exhibiting better English proficiency than peers with less English proficiency when it relates to select a delegate for overseas tasks that interest the company. Still, there is a by far bigger rate regarding the advantage that employees would gain with higher English qualification in that 'better English proficiency lead to better work positions and/or promotion' in both of the multinationals (ENTP: 83% ; SINOPEC: 81%). Far from it, however, it seems that English could not be considered a 'key means to acquire work skill' in that company regulations do not necessarily require English use in undertaking tasks assigned to collar handworkers in.

As to the fourth item for the 'Other(s)' option, two responses were offered by two respondent workers from the Chinese multinational. One of them commented that "English gives the chance for people who know it to be rewarded. I mean when you can understand this language you can write a reward card about hasards or good idea. When you do not know this language people steal your ideas and those ideas can give more money to you".

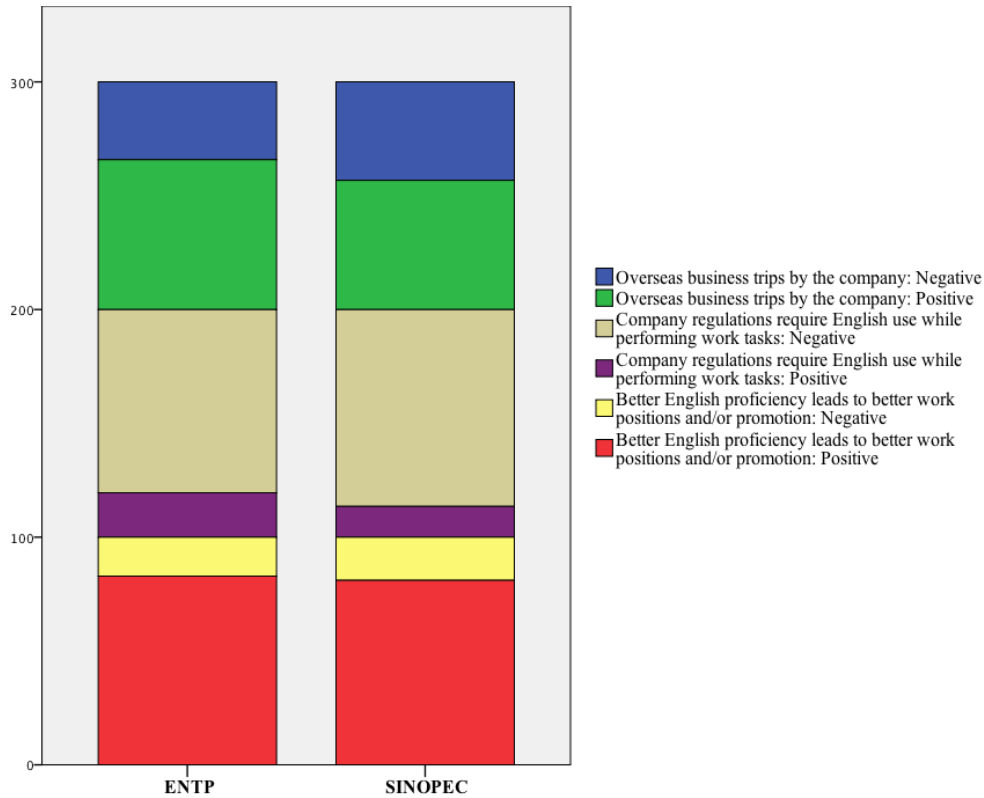


Figure 28 Employees' responses regarding advantages obtained from English mastery at the workplace

24. In order for the company to boost English language usage, what kinds of things would be important? (you may tick more than one)

- Language training offered by the company
- Hiring people with language training certificate.
- Hiring more foreign staff who speak English
- Having English as one of the official languages of the company
- Creating an atmosphere that supports people to use English
- Setting a minimum requirement of English through a language test for new employees entering the company

Other: \_\_\_\_\_

Table 26

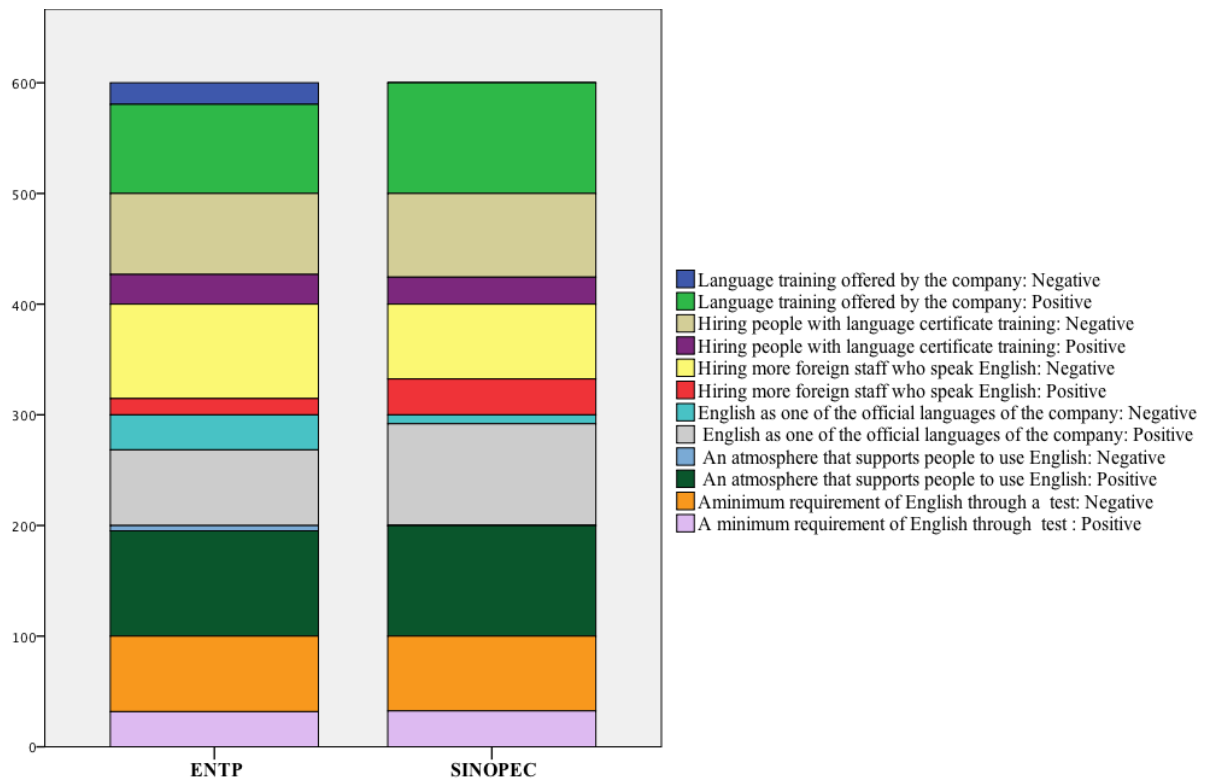
*Factors possible to boost English use by companies according to participants' responses*

		Company			
		ENTP		SINOPEC	
		Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Language training offered by the company	Negative	8	19,5%	0	0%
	Positive	33	80,5%	37	100%
Hiring people with language certificate training	Negative	30	73,2%	28	75,7%
	Positive	11	26,8%	9	24,3%
Hiring more foreign staff who speak English	Negative	35	85,4%	25	67,6%
	Positive	6	14,6%	12	32,4%
Having English as one of the official languages of the company	Negative	13	31,7%	3	8,1%
	Positive	28	68,3%	34	91,9%
Creating an atmosphere that supports people to use English	Negative	2	4,9%	0	0%
	Positive	39	95,1%	37	100%
Setting a minimum requirement of English through a language test	Negative	28	68,3%	25	67,6%
	Positive	13	31,7%	12	32,4%

for new employees  
entering the company

Using the percentages in Table 26 and the pie graphs in *Figure 29*, the results could analytically be summarized in what follows:

- There is a higher acquiescence among participants in the foreign company, who stressed that their company would have to consider offering English training (100%) along appointing it as one official language (91.9%), than participants from the Algerian (80.5% and 68.3%).



*Figure 29* Factors possible to boost English use in companies

- Almost all workers of both multinationals entirely agree on that their companies (Foreign: 100%; Algerian 95%) may also have to consider creating an atmosphere that supports people to use English at the workplace.
- Hiring people with language training certificate, hiring more foreign staff who speak English or setting a minimum requirement of English through a language test for new employees entering the company, do not seem so much attractive options. Despite respectable votes for such considerations in both companies, according to the employees' responses, report that this will not work out the situation. That is, boosting more English use in the companies will best be achieved by language training for workers and English officialization within each of the companies' sectors.

Furthermore, a few more other suggested views by the workers from the Algerian company were highlighted. One participant goes as far as confirming that *'Company training not enough with Algerian teachers, teachers must be native.'* Another believes that *'Preventing the use of other languages'* is one way to boost more English use. 'Training' would include more than just teaching and what the implications term may bear. In this regard, a worker expressed their personal view in that they *'used to work in company where they encourage English learning so much. They send us to other countries; they reward us when we speak in English.'* Frankly a might it be, one employee regretted the fact of English situation in the Algerian multination. They put it as *'Sorry but the company does not encourage English.'*

25. *What is the importance of English for individuals working in companies operating in the Algerian context?*

- Everyone should speak good English
- Everyone should speak at least some English
- English is necessary for people occupying certain positions
- Only people who communicate with foreigners should speak English
- No one needs to speak English

Table 27

*Importance of English for individuals in companies operating in Algeria*

	Company			
	ENTP		SINOPEC	
	Cases	Percentage	Cases	Percentage
Everyone should speak English	7	17,1%	14	37,8%
At least some English	17	41,5%	17	45,9%
English is necessary for certain positions	11	26,8%	4	10,8%
Only for individuals communicating with foreigners	6	14,6%	2	5,4%
No one needs to speak English	0	0%	0	0%

By examining the results obtained through the comparison among options, it enables us to single out which linguistic profile(s) appear(s) of more importance to workers. One first remark is that the item ‘*No one needs to speak English*’ is completely absent from the cross-tabulation output, reflecting that all workers without exception conceive at least basic knowledge of English is a requisite. The latter case takes on majority portions (41.5% for ENTP and 46% for SINOPEC) against the remaining

sliced rates. A rate of almost 38% of the participants from SINOPEC (along a minority of 17% from ENTP) believe that everyone should speak English. Opposite to that, a bigger ratio of ENTP workers (27% in contrast to about 11% from SINOPEC) view that knowing English is a prerequisite skill exclusively for the certain persons in the company; namely those occupying certain work positions such as individuals entitled for communicating with foreigners.

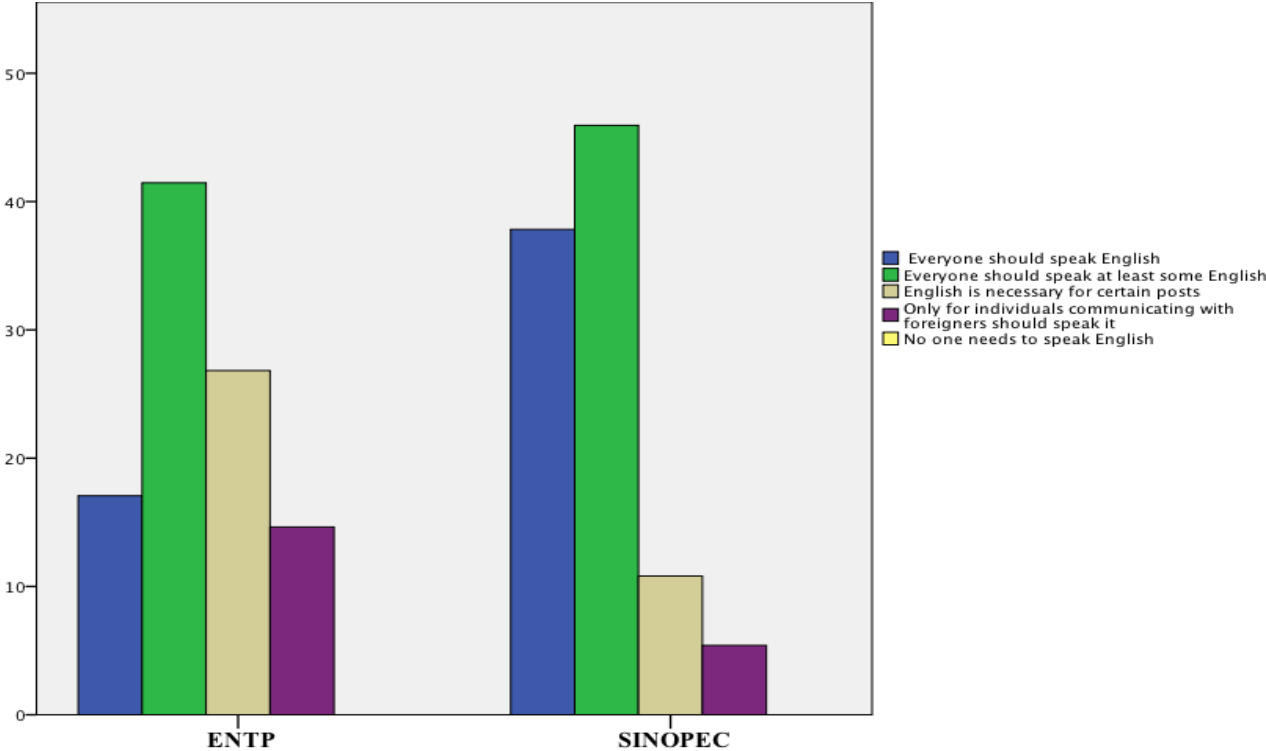


Figure 30 Importance of English for individuals in companies operating in Algeria

26. If you have anything else in mind that you feel is important to this survey, please feel free to write it down here.

Basically, the responses introduced by the participant workers from both companies are categorized in the following notes for each company separately:

## ENTP

- Algerian companies must use English like in others like schlum (meaning 'Schlumberger': a French worldwide multinational), people here speak English so much and practice it all time.
- I have studied English in the University before, but I noted that business in companies does not use English much such as the other languages like French. I mean our nation must move to make the university and its companies together to cooperate. I know other people suffered from the same think as me.

- نحن نرغب في تعميم استعمال الإنجليزية بدلا من الفرنسية - في الحقيقة لا أتقنها ولكن الواقع يفرض علينا انها هي اللغة العالمية وليست هي لغة المستعمر

## SINOPEC

- We suggest that companies support us learn English and use it because the world language is this language in everything in life which you want to do; to travel outside and speak with English people and also for work, etc.
- We see that our company says that the English is its language but in fact we are not practicing it. I hope this company use the English for understanding the people to each other better than everyone use the language which all of us cant understand with that.

(Translation: We hope. الفرنسي  
that English is the common  
language instead of French. To  
be honest, I do not master  
English but it is a fact that it is  
the universal language rather  
than French which is the  
language of former  
colonization)

• لقد عملت مع شركات الخارج لكنني  
ألاحظ أن هناك فوضى في اللغات حيث  
تجد في كل شركة استعمال الإنجليزية  
ولكن بلا نظام ولكنه في نفس الوقت هو  
افضل بكثير من الشركات الوطنية. نحن  
نطالب بإدماج الإنجليزية كلغة أساسية في  
العمل لكي نوسع الفهم مع كل الأشخاص.

(Translation: I used to work for  
different foreign companies,  
but what is interestingly  
noticeable is that the use of  
languages is chaotic. There is  
usage of English in all  
companies, but much better

than its use in the national companies. We really strongly encourage for integrating English as the main language for communication in order to facilitate mutual understanding of individuals from different origins ).

#### **4.1.2. Observation Data Analysis**

##### **4.1.2.1. Categorising the Data**

Data has been collected using a highly structured observation checklist. Relegating the different variables of study at the workplace, the procedure followed a systematic design of cross-tabulated variables of language use by the different subgroups of the sample. Hence, observations were taken at different occasions and locations in order to ensure comprehensive allowances and reduce bias.

As the main concern of the research focuses on the status of how much English language is used at the workplace, it was necessary for adopting a comparative fashion, which is directed by the research objectives and the approach adopted throughout. It follows that English is first and foremost an axiomatic medium for communication especially in the business settings as is the case in the multinational under consideration. Theoretically, that fact at least stems from the internal policy of the company. However, not because a certain language is being allotted to some

communicative practices will definitely render it come into use by all staff members. Language use at work is actually more of a culturally-laden component encompassing a set of aspects, so that the language used is more than a mere communication tool. These aspects embedded in language practices are not detached from personal past experiences. In this way, a conceptual model for a down-to-earth implementation is an impractical fallacy. The core issue of argument here becomes that the choice and decisions of the multinational into putting English language in effect is faced with the challenge of how far that would be met by impersonal linguistic back-up of individual workers. In the Chinese firm under survey, that's just the case. Individual employees, as advanced early on, belong to a variety of different walks of life: there are Chinese who have no basic knowledge of English just as there are Algerian workers whose English also varies considerably from null to very good.

A setting of that nature will impose different practical issues which are worth being under examination. With a postulate assumption that Algerians belong to a culture of mixing colloquial Arabic with French, it was considered important to take on the semi-comparative mode of the study in order to show the real value of English among the different language choices by individuals regardless of the official language policy adapted by the responsible governing polity in the multinational. On the other hand, considerations of the totally different Chinese cultural background on both levels linguistic and sociological is so liable to dictate further complications; communication is not solely about a given language use and ideas exchange by means of that language.

Building upon that principle, four language category instances were surveyed: Arabic, English, French and 'others'. The 'others' category will include any

different linguistic system that can be used by individuals in the different spaces of the workplace. Mainly, these will account for Chinese language as well as Berber varieties which are notably extra options at certain occasions of communication.

#### **4.1.2.2. A General Description to the Observed Language Patterns**

The language use of individuals has been observed in diverse locations and different times with the purpose of ensuring representativeness. However, there were more observation sessions in the meetings area than others, as that represents the scene of presence of all individual workers at the workplace. Overall, workers' language behavior is being under observation especially in four main spaces: meetings room, cafeteria, workplace, and bus while commuting.

There are several periodical meetings in the company. Yet, they can be categorized into two main types: informal and formal. As to the former, they are daily-basis practice, and they may sometimes be held twice a day, as the case maybe. In this type of meeting, not all rig staff is present. The meeting is rather informal that it takes place first thing in the morning casually a few minutes before workers engage in their respective tasks. Individuals addressed by the meeting are mainly from the runabouts up to the driller who chairs and allocates the different tasks. Routinely, the meeting is more of a reminder of issues relating to safety, organization, confirmation of collective work, collective responsibility spirit and so on. Of importance also is that, in rare occasions, swift meetings can occur especially in situations a danger looms or incertitude of bluffing events that may bring about hazards. Workers are equipped with an English-Arabic brief *Toolbox Talk Risk Identification Card* form bearing snapshots of instructions and summary risk signs including a few of the most essential matters to be

brought to workers' attention orally every day for each individual set to work. That implicitly suggests that this GWDC company has Arabic and English as tacit corporate languages for intra-level communication.

As regards formal meetings, which are of our concern, they take place almost once to twice a week. Chaired by the company manager, it is a whole lot of various core issues that the meeting addresses. Individuals were observed in respect how they engage for which language and to whom they use it. At first notice, the manager would initiate the speech indicating the main issue points to be covered along the meeting. Different aspects of communication appear there. Safety measures seem to be a recurrent aspect for the importance they play at the workplace. For individuals belonging to the different cooperative teams, it is remarkable of their usage of languages in that while Arabic and Chinese are recurrently heard languages, English nonetheless seems by far the common communicative tool. English is of minor use among Chinese, especially those whose English-competency is deficient where they have to introduce their ideas either for a restricted use for themselves or to be translated for everyone to get acquainted with the shared concerns.

For one reason that meetings are partly a formal setting of more language use, and partly because people are particularly brought together, the great majority of observation sessions are taken up for meetings. Of the whole number of observation sessions 7 were for the meetings, one for bus commuting, one for cafeteria space, and one for occasional open workplace language use. It should be noted also that added to the fact that language use becomes lesser especially in such latter areas for the aforementioned reasons; observation in open spaces seems a great challenge and a threat

to the study validity. Contrary to the formal meetings where individuals are seated around the table and have their notebook and pen in front of them to record notes, questions or otherwise, in places such as a cafeteria, and observer with a pen and paper would go quite conspicuous. That alone would render the observation procedure a threat to the observer before it is to the data reliability of pretentious behaviours by the observed. Confidentiality of the business settings is probably number one before even work practices. Still, with a lot of cautious act, those spaces were also observed to guarantee an inclusive vision to the fieldwork survey.

Workers are allowed occasionally to have a brief break in the cafeteria; at the time preceding real work start, all employees are permitted to have some snacks, drink, and coffee otherwise known as '*casse-croute*' time. However, at the heart of work operations, cafeteria is allowed for only a number of people at a time providing that for each category of the sub-teams at least one substitutive worker shall take charge until co-mates are back. Also, a go beyond a quarter of an hour is a line of warning that may exhibit members to the sentence of work contract violation and would issue strict questioning on the part of the managerial staff.

#### 4.1.2.3. **Data Analysis and Results**

Seven observation sessions had been undertaken in the period extending between 18/01/2019 and 03/05/2019. It is important to mention that the survey process had to be periodically fragmentary for several reasons, major two of which are (1) the limited allotted period for individual workers which is cut up to four weeks for both work and break at equal terms, and (2) being a *covert participant observer* (Collin, 2002; Ary et al., 2008; Cohen et al. 2007). Being so renders it a big challenge to freely record

data. Multinationals have high privacy measures policies and individuals should not utilize, exhibit, reveal or any specifics about the multinational in anyway and that all is reserved by the work contract's terms agreement the employee is entailed to carefully understand and sign for them to become a hired part in the working teams.

With its usefulness as a research tool, observation compared to other data-gathering tools, it "is superior to self-report for some research purposes, it is more time-consuming. Individuals must be observed over a period of time to obtain reliable data, whereas tests, questionnaires, and interviews usually can yield reliable data even when data are collected only at one point in time" (Ary et al., 2010, p. 647).

Doing participant observation or interviewing one's peers raises ethical problems that are directly related to the nature of the research technique employed. The degree of openness or closure of the nature of the research and its aims is one that directly faces the researcher (Hitchcock & Hughes 1989; cited in Cohen et al., 2007, p.69).

As a first step, analysis will be performed taking account of the whole sample of conversations noted relative to the population of the workplace. Immediately upon that is a follow-up of separate conversation sessions cases examination in order to give a zoom of single shots so that language trends are captured at a heuristic approach, demonstrating the several aspects of language behaviors at the workplace. The procedure of focusing on single cases analysis option is, in one hand, well justified in recourse to guard for the general aim of the study that seeks to explore the value of English in the context in question. Further, from a methodological point of view, because a number of observations have been conducted at the level of different

occasions and scenes, it will be reasonably more appropriate to adopt a componential examination lest biasing the results towards an unfavorable extreme, or take over significant simplified core units.

**Session 1:** setting: meeting; date and time: 18/01/2019 at 9h20-10h05; number of observed conversations: 28.

Table 28

*The first observation session to language use*

Language	Frequency	Rate
Arabic	11/28	39.29%
English	15/28	53.57%
French	null	00%
Other(s)	4/28	14.29%

Out of 28 observed conversations, 11 were in Arabic (39,39%), 15 in English measuring up to a bit more than a half of the gross (53.57%), whereas 4 cases are in Chinese (representing other languages) as regards the present survey within meeting sessions in particular. There is no use of French at all and that is the case for all the different observed situations, albeit if only the rare code mixing by the Algerians when conversing to one another.

**Session 2:** setting: meeting; date and time: 25/01/2019 at 7h30-8h10; number of observed conversations: 24.

Table 29

*The second observation session to language use*

Language	Frequency	Rate
Arabic	8/24	33.33%
English	12/24	50%
French	Null	00%
Other(s)	7/24	29.17%

The second observation session is also during a meeting. As in the preceding analysis, results equally show that English excels for the same justifications offered above. It is noted that French continues to be disregarded all at once, and none of the surveyed sample used it. In formal meeting, and most of language use situations, there is either dominance English use, and some of Arabic and Chinese.

**Session 3:** setting: Bus Commuting; date and time: 23/03/2019 at 6h30-6h50; number of observed conversations: 15.

Table 30

*The third observation session to language use*

Language	Frequency	Rate
Arabic	13/15	86.66%
English	Null	Null
French	Null	Null
Other(s)	2/15	13.34%

To vary the observation locations in order for it to permit more reliable and representative data, the procedure lent itself to the different possible language use situations. Using the values displayed in the table and the field work additional notes, it is crystal clear that in the case where workers are at separate ‘ghettos’ tend to use their most shared language. Workplace and dormitory campus are around 20-minute distant from each other, and individuals must commute every day. The results display that only Arabic and other languages are used, and English is completely absent. Commuting is for Algerian workers among which are a few members having English efficiency such as driller, and one derrick man. Among themselves, Algerians overtly overuse Arabic spontaneously, with a slight use of Berber language between some individuals belonging to an Amazigh ethnic community. However, even berbers when conversing to their peer Arab-ethnic peers, Arabic is absolutely used. The ratios 86.66% and 13.34 respectively reflect the Arabic and Berber used frequency.

**Session 4:** setting: fieldwork drilling operation; date and time: 24/03/2019 at 14h00-15h40; number of observed conversations: 36.

Table 31

*The fourth observation session to language use*

Language	frequency	rate
Arabic	12/36	33.33%
English	17/36	47.22%
French	Null	Null
Other(s)	7/36	19.44%

Session 4 of the observation survey focused on fieldwork teams engaged in the actual drilling operations at workplace. The teams are a composite of Chinese and Algerian individuals in the main. Results show that there is a great majority use of English (47.22%) than either of the other languages at issue. In an extended scenario to where there may exist only Algerian employees commuting, at the workplace Chinese are in interaction with them. Arabic is used when Algerians are especially communicating to one another, and when they have to speak to the Chinese employees, they may either use degenerate English (sometimes mixed with vocabulary from Arabic and difficult to assign to whether it is a code-switching instance), or one of the members translates into English in order for the Chinese to learn what is there. The reverse holds true for the Chinese if they wish to communicate among themselves (Chinese language is used) or to the Algerian co-workers (either deficient mixtures of English with Chinese or an English qualified Chinese worker must take responsibility for translating).

**Session 5:** setting: meeting; date and time: 26/03/2019 at 8h20-9h05; number of observed conversations: 34.

Table 32

*The fifth observation session to language use*

Language	Frequency	Rate
Arabic	9/34	26.5%
English	18/34	52.95%
French	Null	Null
Other(s)	7/34	20.6%

As a typical instance, it seems that the meetings represent a routinely recurrent language use situation. There is a whopping majority of English language frequency of the total made up of the conversation cases recorded (18 out of 34). That outweighs to more than slightly a half of the overall proportion. Arabic is again at the second position (26.5%) and Chinese (representing other(s)) is spoken at the meeting at a little more than 20% proportionate to the number of the conversations noted. There is no French language employment at all.

**Session 6:** setting: Cafeteria; date and time: 29/04/2019 at 11h00-11h15; number of observed conversations: 13.

Table 33

*The sixth observation session to language use*

Language	Frequency	Rate
Arabic	5/13	38.46%
English	6/13	46.15%
French	Null	Null
Other(s)	2/13	15.4%

At another workplace setting where employees are given some time to have a few minutes break, in the cafeteria one observation shot was made. In one best occasion the different sub-group team workers were captured and surveyed at their language act in such an informally open and business talk-free space. There was a good representation

of all individuals of both Chinese and Algerians, while interaction among them occurred to an optimal level. Because of the brevity of the time period where observation was held, and with the difficulty related to data recording without going unnoticed, only a fifteen-minute set of conversations were noted down marking as much of the conversations as possible. Out of 13 cases, 5 were in Arabic, 6 in English, and 2 in other languages (uncertain if Chinese or Berber), respectively in accordance with 38.46%, 46.15%, and 15.4% for each. Obviously, French has no inclusion all at once.

**Session 7:** Setting: Meeting; date and time: 03/05/2019 at 9h00-10h15; number of observed conversations: 65.

Table 34

*The seventh observation session to language use*

Language	Frequency	Rate
Arabic	15/65	23.07%
English	41/65	63.07%
French	Null	Null
Other(s)	11/65	16.92%

The last session of the observation survey was for the meeting setting again. Different, however, from previous formal meetings conversational units written down, this instance is one in which an external work team was involved. A subsidiary of SONATRACH delegated some engineering staff specialized in well mud operations for cooperation with the Chinese multinational. That even balanced the language use scenario a bit differently and more towards English. The results show that a great deal

of English use is obvious for the majority of the recorded conversations of the meeting at a level of around 63% (41 out of 65 aggregate). About 23% are conversations held in Arabic followed by some 16.9% in other languages (apparently Chinese). No French was used during the meeting.

The observational survey had brought a closely different look at the language use at the workplace setting as a whole, and English in specific terms. Being a foreign subsidiary multinational, the company manifests an environment that encourages more use of English. In fact, the workplace implications set a very suitable context for posing an intermediate language of communication, realizing that two distinct cultural backgrounds mingle. It is quite normal that the Chinese and Algerian workers resort to a default usage of English regardless of any officially announced language policy favoring English. In addition, given the fact that the mother tongues of individuals are taken for granted when communicating with members sharing the same native language (and ethnic affiliation in general), it is quite remarkable that French in the context of study is of absolute negligence. In this case, the code-mixing occurrences among Algerian staff reflect more of an embedded intrusive linguistic practice than a conscious tendency of actual French use. Conclusively, with occasional usages of basically either Chinese or Arabic and rarely Berber depending on who are conversing to whom, English in the setting of observation enjoys a significant position.

## **Conclusion**

The main interest of this chapter was the analysis of the data obtained by two research tools: a questionnaire and an observation checklist. As a reminder, the questionnaire was

a thoroughly made survey that endeavors to elicit detailed information in order to measure the amount of English uses at the workplace contexts, a thematic inclination that lies in the core of the study. Covering a number of issues about the reality of language use in the Algerian economic context, the fundamental focus of the data-gathering method employed in this respect is to obtain data that is directly pertinent to English language use more specifically. A comparative research approach was followed in order not only to pursue language use and frequency in multinationals, but more deeply to deploy the methodology of what position that English has in the presence of Arabic and French. Further, the analysis is carried out on two main contrastive dimensions: within single companies each separately and across companies all together. Indeed, two conclusive results followed. There are distinguishable differences setting the frequency of English language use apart per company. In fact, in regards the two multinationals of which data was gathered by means of a questionnaire, there appears to be more of English language use and a more deliberately announced language policy promoting English by the foreign multinational than the Algerian. The other conclusion is that while participants expressed their keen desire towards encouraging English language use irrespective of the company status, English in both companies is more valorized than French and Arabic in the foreign multinational. This may be liable to a variety of incentives that are to be discussed in the discussion of the results chapter.

**CHAPETR 5:  
DISCUSSION  
OF THE  
RESULTS**

## **Introduction**

The study examines the situation and use of English language in large-scale enterprises in the Algerian context, namely petroleum-based multinationals. It is drawing on probing the importance of English in corporations. The overall objective is attempting to assess the status of English in entrepreneurship milieus, notably companies of oil production and reproduction. One specifically pertinent procedure for approaching the status of English is by means of assessing its relative position against a number of languages. The latter form the basis of comparison in the present study. With the purpose of categorizing the various determinants of language use and practices at the different workplace contexts examined, thus, English status was evaluated comparatively with a number of languages including mainly Arabic and French, as well as other peripherally used languages such as Chinese and Berber varieties. The discussion section is mainly devoted to find answers to the research questions formulated at the outset of this project. Each of the questions will be discussed under the light of the findings obtained from the analysis of the data elicited by the research tools being made use of in the present study. The research questions will be examined in connection to the relevant sections of each of the research instruments, which is specifically designed to assess certain themes of the English language usages at the workplace contexts investigated. After a discussion of the results is presented, a synthetic statement is provided accordingly.

## 5.1. Position and Importance of English in the Multinationals Examined

In order to deal with the first two research questions, the answer will basically rely on observational data obtained in regard language conversational practices recorded (GWDC), as well as how workers (from ENTP and SINOPEC) who participated in the questionnaire perceive the importance of English. Our first question is “*What position does English have within companies in the Algerian context compared to other languages?*”. The second research question is a more restrictive version of the first as it puts more directionality and focus, by shedding light on the specific category of the researched settings. Thus, along attempting to provide an answer to the first research question, we put emphasis on discussing more specifically the position of English in the petroleum-based companies, as guided by the second research question which is formulated as “*Is English really the practically utmost used language within multinationals functioning at petroleum-production sectors in Algeria?*”.

Overall, of the results obtained, it is found that there are clear lines setting the English language status distinctly apart among the other languages. The findings from the comparative analysis to the questionnaire data (Q1, Q15, Q18, Q20, Q23, and Q25) gathered from SINOPEC and ENTP companies reveal interesting facts about the English language usage rates and the degree of its importance in the workplace. Though clear differences exist between the participants’ responses from both SINOPEC and ENTP, it is noticeable, however, that English has specific importance in the workplace according to the workers’ views.

The surveyed participants from ENTP and SINOPEC exhibit interesting views towards English language use. Skill in English is not simply approached from a narrow perspective as potential equipment for holding work positions and work performance. In fact, in nowadays global business, as Piekkari (2009) suggested, English in the internationalized workplace is deemed as a minimum required asset in the work obtainment and successful workplace negotiations with the others. In the present research, English is found to be valued differently in both of the contexts compared.

Indeed, it is unarguably acceptable that better English proficiency leads to better work positions. The perceptual mindset most workers have is the extra benefits such skill in English offers. As a form of ‘human capital’ needed for proper communication at work, it also forms an invaluable strategic force for better opportunities such as business trips outside the country which are duly funded by the companies. At a personal level, knowledge of English is liable to render personal bonuses, and by that token, the mental asset of language as a form of human capital may bring material capital. It seems that companies have awareness of how strategic encouragement of their workers tends to give positive outcomes, least of which is fostering their performance by rewards of innovative ideas. As some informant from SINOPEC put it that “English gives the chance for people who know it to be rewarded. I mean when you can understand this language you can write a reward card about hasards or good idea. When you do not know this language people steal your ideas and those ideas can give more money to you.” The significant point to note here is the important role of knowledge in the English language.

No single case of the participants seems to deny the value of English competence at the workplace, to the extent that a large number of them postulate that English is a requisite regardless of its significance in an economic sense.

Our findings suggest that having at least some English skills is an undeniable requirement by aggregate consensus of all participant workers regardless of the company where they belong. Not only do they agree that a minimal level of English is required for applicants wishing to work for companies operating in Algeria, but a number of them believe that some work positions should be assigned in accordance with possessing a required level of skill in English. For example, a post involving communication with foreigners is seen to be assigned to the employee with a prerequisite advanced level of English knowledge. Previous research found that although English is not declared as an officially corporate language at a local multinational, its interviewed staff agreed that English is a “must” for not only managers but for all individuals hired for office locations (Ehrenreich, 2010, p. 416). Of our obtained results, it was mainly reported that English is more considered for use in the Chinese SINOPEC company than in the Algerian national ENTP.

The fact that English is more or less being used in the ENTP and SINOPEC workplace contexts is assessed in terms of what the real English language-situation is and what workers from both companies hope it to be. In confluence with the finding about the perception of the majority of our participants regarding the importance of English, Clement and Murugavel (2018) undertook an internationally-based analysis to survey data about language in multinationals operating in non-native settings. Their

findings indicate that English language skills are of major importance for over than 95% of the surveyed participants.

Regarding particularly the internal communication in ENTP company, workers perceive their context to use more Arabic and to a lesser degree French. It seems that individuals basically belong to the same cultural and linguistic backgrounds, so that usage of a foreign language will be unjustifiable. For that matter, it could be that ENTP is speculating no need for promulgating English among its employees as long as smooth communication is achieved. Furthermore, such a finding confirms the assumption by Marschan-Piekkari et al. (1999) that, for a locally-based subsidiary, using English as the company language rather than the parent-country language may result in creating either remoteness and disconnectedness or closeness to the headquarters. In our case the ENTP is a headquarter of SONATRACH multinational. By noting the implicit Arabic usage internally, the ENTP appears to move towards achieving closeness to its parent multinational. An unanswered issue, however, remains that of if not encouraging using a foreign language that is widely recognized as the business lingua franca (i.e., English), what incentives lead to the intrusion of French, that is mainly imposed in a top-down fashion in the company's structural hierarchy. This will be discussed shortly in regard a few considerations that are very reasonably standing beyond making an informal recognition to French in ENTP particularly, rather than in neither of the Chinese SINOPEC nor GWDC.

In respect the personal viewpoint of the workers from ENTP and SINOPEC, all of the participants show their high willingness to use English, which supports the

conclusions by Clement and Murugavel (2018), who investigated the views of the workers regarding English for working at Indian companies operating locally at their homeland, that nearly all respondents appreciate using English rather than other languages. The problem, then, is between what is theoretically wished by individual workers and what is practically going in regard language use, and particularly English language. Ehrenreich (2010) found that English is very much appreciated by employees so that they develop their skills in accordance with the workplace needs. Conversely, however, while the Ehrenreich's findings suggest that a German homeland company encourages English promotion in practical terms, it is opposite to the present research findings, in which it is noted that the Algerian homeland ENTP multinational seems to be far from operating English as the business lingua franca.

However, for a foreign company (Chinese SINOPEC) working at an international context (Algeria), English is at best the workplace lingua franca intermediating communication between workers of diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds, most of whom are either Chinese or Algerians. Considering both of the Chinese companies in this study, our findings are, to a far extent, in harmony with those of Kubota (2013), who questioned the assumption that English is a universal lingua franca and that English proficiency is requisite for internationally- and transculturally-oriented business. His work examined Japanese manufacturing companies with subsidiary units in China, focusing on the language use by Japanese expatriates along their Chinese coworkers. It was revealed that although Japanese and Mandarin languages are used (where in most

cases communication occurs between expatriate Japanese and local Chinese), English is significant for all interlocutors.

The observational survey data analysis of a separate foreign multinational (GWDC) clearly further articulated a large difference of utilizing English in most of the internal communication processes at different levels. Like in merger corporates, an international company with a subsidiary operating outside its native context, essential shifts from the customary communicative patterns will certainly take place, because the workers (both locals and expatriates) will find themselves suddenly operating in a totally novel setting, which in a way pushes them to encounter a set of problematic instances in the communicative acts (Santti, 2001).

For the GWDC multinational, it was noted that English dominates for the aggregate sum of the conversations involving the attending members. Indeed, not all people have proficiency in English; rather, many do have only basic English language knowledge or none, including both Algerians and Chinese. Because Algerian employees outnumber the Chinese, though inferior in professional status, there is a frequent Arabic usage. Algerian employees are hired especially for blue-collar work posts.

It is also important to note that even if the English conversations observed do not promote to high proficiency and full mastery of the language, knowledge of English is characterized by specific ability to communicate effectively insuring clarity of ideas and transmitting messages rather than emphasizing well-formed language. Low English proficiency on the part of a linguistically heterogenous working team is conceived as a

predictor to ineffective communication, misinterpretation, and may lead to mistrust and poor rapport building among workers (Crosling & Ward, 2002; Ojanperä Miina, 2014). Chinese and Algerian coworkers are regularly obliged to engage in continuous processes of communication. The types of interaction between them differ according to various situational needs and determinants. For example, in fieldwork operations, the interactants are involved in extensive small-talk, which constitutes a basic type of conversations in cooperating to achieve a certain task that necessities simultaneous proactive complementarity between the participating workers. Such conversations may occur in an arbitrary direction among the employees, such as: an expatriate with an expatriate, local with local, one expatriate with one or two locals, and so on. Depending on the situation and the participant workers, language decisions are also altered accordingly. In an instance where two cooperative members with no skill in English, one Chinese and one Arab, but at the same time none of whom speaks the language of one another, it will be quite difficult to communicate if compared to a pair of a Chinese and an Arab with no intelligibility of each other's mother tongue, but both with a good level of English.

At the present time, English is reckoned as the corporate language in the transnational work settings encompassing divergent employee nationalities (Kankaanranta, Louhiala-Salminen & Karhunen, 2015; Nickerson, 2005), where it is sometimes informally adopted as the default language by its users even when it is not institutionally officialized, notably as mutual communications are not possible to be mediated by one of the mother languages spoken by the involved members. Piekkari

(2006) concluded that when locals of the host country (in which the multinational subsidiary manages business) have poor skill in a corporate language, extensive communication problems occur. It was therefore suggested that the first measure to take, upon hiring locals, is considering members who have knowledge in the corporate language if possible. When an alien multinational delegates a subsidiary to operate in a globalized context, fears would be that its managerial group faces challenges with the locals in various regards.

In fact, the language challenges facing multinationals are numerous, and as the above situation illustrates, for Chinese and Algerians team workers without an intermediary person in communication, work performance will be highly affected. This in turn demonstrates the high importance of having knowledge in English and how it might upgrade or downgrade production in companies. It is observed that if the multinational has formulated an internationally-based policy of management, including a corporate language, chances are that in the destination settings, hired members of the local manpower will in some way form a double-edged source: as they make up a scarce resource of available working employees, they may also be a cause of communication problems. This is especially when the locals have little to share linguistically and culturally with the foreigners from the alien company (Feely & Harzing, 2003; Pullin, 2010). In order to overcome the language challenges emerging from diversity in the employees' backgrounds at the workplace, large-scale companies that are operating beyond their own national borders are reported to designate a corporate language as part of the language policy strategy (Feely & Harzing 2003).

At the lower levels of the GDWC company structure where some Chinese workers have similar roles to those of the Algerians, although there is only little for Algerians to share both linguistically and culturally with Chinese coworkers, they are generally noted to be able to communicate successfully through their own strategic ways which were developed through years of work and experience. Much of the communication events occur in a poorly used English in terms of correctness regarding grammaticality, pronunciation, precision and accuracy, mingled with body language and sometimes exclamations which may be characteristic of each party's language origin, and nevertheless, they prove to be fruitful in conveying the intended meanings. It is previously pinpointed by researchers that what matters in business communication where English is used is getting things done rather than focusing on correct language and its conformity with standard English norms, because that will only turn to be looking for prestige by the forms of the language used (Louhiala-Salminen, Charles, & Kankaanranta, 2005; Seidlhofer, Breiteneder, & Pitzl, 2006). Similar to the notions and findings under discussion, a study investigating Japanese expatriates working in China (Kubota, 2013, p. 1) confirms that despite the fact that proficiency in English is deemed useful, its major importance lies in the "ability to communicate", which is "supported by communicative and foundational dispositions along with cultural knowledge". In fact, in the situation of GDWC it might be the case that the global organization culture (Thomas, 2008) is minimizing problems of social background cultures where people are raised and do belong.

Overall, it seems that English has an important status at work with differing degrees depending on the company origins and policies through which an organization approaches the linguistic dimensions; an issue we shall now turn to examine for positioning English in a more contextualized approach in regard its practical usage at each of the companies, and more importantly its importance with relation to other languages, more particularly Arabic and French. This will be made useful by discussing the frequency of English usage in parallel to frequency of using the other languages in the different settings being investigated in this research. It is by considering comparative data analysis from the questionnaire items in the ENTP and SINOPEC, in addition to the findings obtained from the checklist observation data analysis gathered from the GWDC multinational context.

## **5.2. English Status among the Other Competitive Languages**

This section is mainly a discussion for the last two research questions: “*Does English gain more status as per use within multinationals than other languages in Algeria?*” and “*Does English excel over other competitive languages and enjoy more valorized status irrespective of the company origin whether Algerian or alien?*”. We focus on discussing the position of English in companies in relation to other languages. We start by examining the relevant results from the questionnaire data (Q2, Q3, Q4, Q5, Q6, Q7, Q8, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q12, Q13, Q14, Q21, Q22, Q24) and simultaneously make references to findings from the results of the observation data analysis.

### 5.2.1. Perceived English Status Differences According to Multinational's Origin

One of the discrepancies noted at the level of the Algerian ENTP is that a very large number of the participants acknowledged the importance provided by their company to the English language, but at the same time there seems to be little real English implementation. This is well announced by a number of the participants when they said that their company had formerly trained its employee personnel in the language skill needed at work.

The presence of French on par with English for a local multinational (ENTP) is to a large extent informed by the Algerian complex language situation resulting from the historical background, notably colonial aftermaths in specific terms. Additionally, apart from former struggles of indigenous languages in Algeria (of which Arabic and Berber are now officially acknowledged as two national languages), in the economic settings the conflict adds on a more critical linguistic dimension.

In the SINOPEC company, additional to the total absence of French, Arabic is occasionally opted for, while the great majority of individual workers, irrespective of their positions, appear to stick more to English language use in the different types of communication be it internal or external. *'External communication refers to relationships with persons outside of the company; examples include investors, suppliers, and customers. Internal communication refers to communicating with employees; communication within an organization'* (Moreau, 2013, p. 4). Based on such a definition, by juxtaposing the ENTP and SINOPEC multinationals in terms of

language practices, it is found that there are extremely distinguishable differences. There is noted considerably less English frequency by the Algerian company for communicating internally (among the different layers of the employed teams) from within, as well as externally with peer Algerian counterparts, while relatively more English use is noted while communicating with companies of foreign origins. In the same way of deduction, there is a nearly complete concurrence of the respondents from the SINOPEC company that English is predominant at almost all external communication levels. In the Algerian ENTP multinational, English language use for communicating internally dramatically demarcates from communicating externally with less frequency from within (more Arabic) as well as with outside (i.e., with peer Algerian counterparts). By using observation data results, it is noteworthy at this level to indicate that in GWDC, there was observed some usages of other languages than neither English nor French, by particularly talking in Chinese (among Chinese themselves), Berber (among people of Berber origin), and Arabic which is mainly used among Algerian employees (among Arabs, or among Arabs and Berbers because the Arabs do not have knowledge in the Berber languages).

Moreover, from the comparative analysis between the two multinationals, there is even a more illustrated linguistic demarcation of two essentially language manifestations, which are written and spoken communications. For both companies ENTP and SINOPEC alike, an orientation towards using English rather than either French or Arabic nor other languages altogether, is obvious for written material than in

spoken communication, with an exception made of a slightly higher use of other languages at the oral level within the foreign company if opposed to French.

In the Algerian petroleum business context, the dilemma in internationally-based large-scale business areas is that of a formerly ingrained French from colonial times and the need for responding to the urgent market demands exposing English worldwide. All over the globe, different research works admitted the fact that past experience and the historical backgrounds of nations deeply contribute to the language policies in the economic spheres. For example, scholars emphasize that implications of hegemony and dependence are firmly influenced and formed by the effects of colonialism (Ricento, 2009). Oftentimes, post-colonial contexts operating past-colonial languages as part of their language policy will presume prestige to those languages, which ultimately lead to creating a sense of socio-economic superiority and inferiority between individuals.

### **5.2.2. Language as Choice and Power: English vs. Other Languages**

Language choices are not always informed by the dominance of a given language and its universal hegemonic power; neither would a well-defined language planning assure using one language rather than another. In business organizations, it could be that the key positions held by certain persons will add to the equations of linguistic games. At the multinational company level, as Marschan, Welch, & Welch (1997) observed, what connects company strategy and language is people, and therefore the organization does not have languages but its people do. This is to say that even with a linguistic strategy recognized by the company policy for being adopted, it may still not be put into

effect, and that the people will be the primary factor influencing the language practices and behaviors.

Results from the ENTP data analysis show that French is contesting with English in casting a larger impact of its usage, due to the fact that persons holding power are often influencing the flow and type of communication patterns and the language used, even though a company's policy dictates an otherwise practice. Research that examined power implications of language policies in multinationals, and the options taken along the uses made of given languages by key persons, confirmed that interaction is featured by domination on the part of the gatekeepers of key decision roles in the respective companies. For example, findings from past research concluded that such choices by the leading persons in the company render the "language skills become empowering or disempowering resources in organizational communication" (Vaara, et al., 2005, p. 595). This is well confirmed in the present research. French dominates in higher positions in ENTP internally within the company and externally with the Algerian partners. Arabic is dominant in ENTP at the lower levels of the hierarchy. External communication involving ENTP with foreign partners stipulates more English than the other languages.

Obviously, in business contexts, language choices are to a far extent affected by managerial roles of the persons at the decision-making panel. An appropriate or inappropriate language practice may happen to be a result of the higher hierarchical positions enabling individuals to have indirect privileges of power and authority, and hence decision-making (Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999). It is apparent that in the

Algerian national company persons assigned superior positions (e.g., company men and managers) tend to be those who are often with highly proficient French levels. For individuals having propensity to use a certain foreign language in which they have competence (French in the present case), the language will implicitly be used as an “informal source of expert power in multinationals” (Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999, p. 421), even if the language is unsuitably situated for communication at the expense of the global language that is actually demanded in business.

Vaara et al. (2005) analyzed the effects of corporate language policies and their significance in power implications from a post-colonial perspective within globalized workplaces. They studied how the choice of Swedish as a corporate language in Finland for a Swedish-Finish merger firm affects language practices and induce linguistic authoritative exertions. One of their findings was that language skills of the host locations used at companies operating in their post-colonial settings lead to reshaping institutional structures and inherit linguistic dominations on the part of the language systems of the former colonizers. Very probable, the scenario will basically be reminiscent to this situation for businesses conducted by companies functioning locally in their own homeland nation, in which one of their institutional languages is of an ex-colonial legacy. This is in a sense true because nations are not detached from geopolitical decisions and their historical events. Colonialism practices drastic changes on the various layers of the whole national composite in the country, touching mainly the spheres of cultural, political, social, and economic structures. Language aspects as part of culture will certainly be deeply affected, including the structural features to

characteristics of its componential core essence. As a result, a language may acquire a sense of an abstract form of superiority over other languages.

It is in this way that languages existent in the business contexts may lead to forms and structures of power in favor of their speakers at the expense of those who do not speak them. This is found to result in unfavorable disintegration between workers (Vaara et al., 2005). Using a language that handicaps proper communication, for example, would cause a linguistically incompetent employee to be alienated of a meeting or briefing in which essential decisions are made on the basis of shared insights among the attending members of the working team (Louhiala-Salminen et al., 2005). In our particular case study of the ENTP company, several responses obtained of the participant workers imply a level of dissatisfaction towards the frustrating linguistic practices imposed by the empowered leading figures in the principal executive posts. Vaara et al. (2005, p. 341) found that such situations escalate into serious undesirable outcomes, because disintegration draws linguistic territories of 'us' and 'them', out of which broader effects of uncertainty and suspicion feelings emerge. Equally, it ultimately contributes to putting the overall performance of the organization at edges of risk, such as, for example, causing competent-working members exit the company and/or move to other companies, in which they feel appreciated and they perceive as more comfortable work environments (Kay & Shelton, 2000). By consequence, on the Algerian labor market, the institutional influence of French continues to inform industrial sectors even when recognizing the need for considering English as the

optimally effective option for going ‘multinational’, where language preferences of worker employees are largely disregarded in practical terms.

In the case of the foreign SINOPEC company, the language situation is quite different. Though most superior positions are held by a Chinese staff, it is clear that there is more functioning of English than other languages, including Chinese. In fact, cross-border corporation workplaces often underlie implicit parametric rules that are imposed by a myriad of factors, including personality, background, work position and so on (Kankaanranta & Louhiala-Salminen, 2010). Despite the disparity of the English language use between ENTP and SINOPEC, findings from the latter setting reveal that such conception of workplace context parameters is well illustrated by the language communications practices

Similarly, in relation to the ‘language as a source of power’ presumption in multinationals, it was found by other researchers that possession of skill in the relevant dominant language grants more power to individuals than their assumed work positions, such as acting as a language intermediary for superiors, allowing access to information that is basically sensitive and that normally pertains restrictively to persons in the top hierarchy of company management (Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999). It is also verified by research that this is also true for English used as lingua franca of business communication, or as a corporate language, when the context has only a limited number of individuals with linguistic ability in that specific language (Louhiala-Salminen & Kankaanranta, 2012). It is claimed that in this particular instance, English can lead to creation of inequality and imbalance of power, and by consequence obstacles the overall

working teams' structures, in terms of information circulation and knowledge sharing. The implications of linguistic choices and power inclinations are specifically determinant of the communication types and patterns within and outside an organization. For example, spoken interactions that are occurring in a company due to implicit imposed languages usages by chief members may not be the same when two executives from two companies converse.

### **5.2.3. Internal and External Communication as a Filter in Linguistic Choice**

Apparently, two significant factors contribute to usage of given languages rather than others: the nationality (Algerian and foreign) of the multinational and the communicational categories (internal and external). This section examines the role of these two main factors in determining the place of English among the languages present in each of the contexts.

At the intracompany level of language use, Arabic is competitive with English as being the dominantly used among workers for spoken communication inside the ENTP company, but the situation is the reverse in regard the SINOPEC, where English is at a higher rate than all of the languages. On the other hand, while English is found to be predominant in the written form of communication (such as writing reports, CVs, and contracts agreements) within ENTP and SINOPEC, and even with greater consideration in the latter, Arabic is only marginally used in ENTP, but totally absent in SINOPEC. In both types of spoken and written communications inside the foreign-based companies, French appears to be disregarded in SINOPEC. This is further fostered by the evidence found in respect that labeling equipment (such as of drilling and welding),

computers software and controlling screens, as well as warning signs and reward cards are written in English in both of the companies. At the same time, for ENTP, a small number of participants reported that French is also being used rather than Arabic. Overall, with regard presence of a national language along English in business settings, such findings largely echo those introduced by a study undertaken in Hong Kong context for an international firm, when Cantonese and English were compared, it was shown that while the former is informally used within discussions and meetings, English is ultimately the language of formal reports and official documentations (Evans, 2010).

A number of studies particularly targeting language uses with particular reference to its written form in globally-oriented multinationals come from the Scandinavian context of alliance companies (e.g., Vaara et al., 2005; Louhiala-Salminen et al., 2005). For example, Louhiala-Salminen et al. (2005) investigated the patterns of English as the Business Lingua Franca used for written and spoken communications into two Swedish and Finnish multinationals – each of which was formed by combining two companies from both nationalities. Their results showed that, on average, in both companies, 80% of internal communication in the written language occurred in English. It was also noted that the parent headquarter languages of both companies are marginal. Similarly, using an exploratory ethnographic-based study relying on interview data, Rönnlöf (2014) investigated the employees' perceptions in regard how language is used and managed in two Swedish companies, operating locally. In the both of the companies, English is one of the official languages. It was concluded by the study that English dominated in all written communication, while both Swedish and English are regarded as tools in the

spoken interaction in the companies. In a large-scale project targeting the respondents' views of language use in 70 companies operating in Denmark, across which English is employed as a functional corporate tool of communication, Sørensen (2005) obtained evidence that for the majority of written documents and correspondences by organizations, English is the central and dominating language used for these purposes. Put together, the findings from the three latter studies unanimously concur to our conclusions, in that English (as a corporate language) dominates in this particular type of written communication within the multinationals rather than Arabic or Chinese (as parent company languages), whereas Arabic and Chinese are largely used for spoken communication in the respective parent multinationals.

In fact, the findings ensuing from the analysis of the observation grid data obtained of the GWDC multinational, remarkably confirm that conclusion especially of observed language patterns at meetings. Within the company, the internal communication marks one of three main scenarios between the participant workers depending basically on whether an individual is Algerian or Chinese. The conversations occur as Chinese-to-Chinese, Algerian-to-Algerian, or Chinese-to-Algerian (noting, however, that the description does not imply any conditional directionality of conversation initiation). First, in a Chinese-to-Chinese type of communication, there was noted either pure usage of the Chinese language or a code-mixing between Chinese and English at times. The latter situation is more pervasive if one or more Algerian members are involved in the process. Second, for an Algerian-to-Algerian situation, one of three further language cases may occur: Arabic, Berber, along a rare code-switching

between Arabic and French. This is very akin to the findings of Lønsmann (2011), Poncini (2003) and Louhiala-Salminen (2002) in which code-switching was found to be a very common feature of communication among local employees and expatriates. Still, which language is being used largely relies on the participants' personal ethnicity and intimacy, while Arabic is absolutely the denominator over all. In a similar study carried out in a German-based company, Ehrenreich (2010) found that though English is officially acknowledged as the lingua franca of the context, where Germans work with foreigners, there is no practical usage of English within German-only groups, even if it sometimes takes a while to shift to the pure German language usage as a non-German-speaking individual has left the conversation.

Third, an Algerian-Chinese communication process may involve one (or both) of two cases: either purely English language use which is customary, or an involvement of gestural language especially on the part of Chinese when communicating in English is difficult.

It is important to refer to the fact that such language practices occur even in the ideal recognition that knowledge of English is exigent for a foreign company built under partnership terms with the Algerian multinational. In occasions of holding formal meetings by the Chinese subsidiary (GWDC) in the presence of SONATRACH delegates, translation is commonly used. One last outstanding remark is that the French language is of a literally semi-total absence in the observed Chinese SINOPEC setting, and its absence appears to go unnoticed with no effect on work performance whatsoever. In fact, crystal clear as it may be, foreign companies functioning in Algeria completely

disregard French even if that the Algerian multinational tacitly cherishes French, immaterial of the language policies underlined by politics.

In theory, there is a highly valued attitude to using English as expressed by the respondents of the Algerian multinational (ENTP) when compared to what practice really yields. In fact, in oral interactions within the workplace Arabic is practically used more, let alone a frequently recurring French particularly by the persons holding higher positions as indicated previously. For the top management individuals in the company, French could be an advantageous internal communication tool. This is well illustrated by evidence obtained regarding the benefits of speaking a language by a minority group in a multinational merger, as it gave them more credible roles in the company than their colleagues who lacked skill in it (Vaara et al., 2005). The corporate language-speaking worker minority enjoyed a unique position in internal communication within the alliance corporation, enabling them to become essential liaisons of communication and possessors of one of the key privileges to be participative decision-makers that the others do not have as a result of deficiency in the language. The study also referred to the fact that if English was used, internal interaction strategies would completely be reverted into an area of equal chances of participation in communication, and as a result it leads to settling imbalances of differential opportunities in decision making.

At the intercompany level, similar to the expected internal interaction patterns in the Chinese companies between locals and foreigners, three communicative situations emerge in regard interaction between companies: an Algerian-to-Algerian partner, Algerian-to-foreign, and Foreign-to-Foreign. In each of the situations, divergent

language patterns and usages are marked. As aforementioned, the results indicate that ENTP managerial personnel tend to use considerable French than either English or Arabic, but team workers in lower positions tend to use Arabic. Regarding the managerial personnel, it appears that foreign language use is contextualized more through communications with partner companies. Such partnership plays a prominent role as a determinant of which language is being used, when to be used and why to use it. When it comes to interact with other cooperative originations, it is argued that international companies recognizes the delicacy of intercompany relationships, leading them to designate charges of mutual interest exchange to persons with good communicative and linguistic abilities, and these are usually executives on the head of the organization who serve as gatekeepers (Vaara et al., 2005).

External communications occurring among Algerian-to-Algerian companies usually involved stakeholders who are superior persons with posts of institutional management and decision-making authority. Research suggests that gatekeepers play a central role in interorganizational business communication. A study comparing a set of entrepreneur projects with and without gatekeepers and reported that gatekeepers play a role of a mediating bridge of information in proper ways between business partner organizations, facilitating external communication (Tushman & Katz,1980).

It is likely that international businesses will need to function gatekeepers for outside connections with partners more urgently when the institutions are emerging from different linguistic contexts. Foreign language skill, notably in the common language of communication, is an undeniable feature of these persons. Indeed, in this

type of intercompany communication, those who are appointed for this task of an intermediary role, and who are characterized by proficiency in the needed language have an advantage over their non-proficient counterpart employees, because they specifically operate as “natural liaisons and gatekeepers of information” (Vaara et al., 2005, p. 610). It is observed that, in ENTP, individuals appointed in key posts of decision-making tend to be those with a Francophone background. For that matter, staff who is on the head of the company central positions tend to use French with their Algerian counterpart partners quite tacitly. In this case, neither English nor Arabic would be favored to be used for one reason or another, especially that those in charge of such tasks have to be efficient communicators in matters of intercompany issues, and proper communication for them is well achieved by using the common language (French) in which they share better proficiency as opposed to others. Even in the case of sharing a good communicative skill of colloquial Arabic, Algerian managers and their correspondent representatives tend to use French in communicating externally with other Algerian companies. For the justifications just introduced above in favor nationally-based intercompany communication between twin Algerian multinationals and subsidiaries, the situation is reversed in the case of external communication with foreign partners on the part of the Algerian ENTP company. English is predominantly utilized in this case.

Results from the SINOPEC indicate a dominance of using English with their partners, whether being Algerians or other foreigners. This further confirms that language policy decisions are more practically considered in the cases of ‘foreign-Algerian’ or ‘foreign-foreign’ scenarios, in which English is being acknowledged to be

the intermediating language of communication of partnership. Conclusively, external communication between the companies of our study and their cooperative parts originate in having two cases: either the partner is an Algerian organization or a foreign organization with subsidiary units. In each of these cases, three possible situations accordingly come about. First, that an Algerian corporation communicates to another Algerian sister company. It is noted that in this instance of cooperation the common language tends to be French and to a certain degree Arabic. Second, an Algerian company communicating with a foreign company, and the shared language of correspondence is English. Third, a foreign multinational dealing with another foreign counterpart, and this is akin to the second category, in which intercompany interaction is through English.

By taking account of English usage as per company origin, at the general level, it can be said that there is much more use of English in the Chinese companies (GWDC and SINOPEC) examined than there is in the Algerian multinational (ENTP). Though participants from ENTP showed their excitement to learn and use English, they also reported their frustration that there is less actual use of English and less encouragement to use it than is expected.

#### **5.2.4. Translation within the Multinationals**

##### **5.2.4.1. Translation as Chanel of Communication in the Companies**

Findings from questionnaire data show that there are significant dispersions between the two contrasted companies (ENTP vs. SINOPEC) in relation to translation

utility. For the fact that the Algerian ENTP multinational hires mostly Algerians, translation seems to be out of option, and if used it may be for external communication. Conversely, in SINOPEC, because staff are a mixture of Chinese and Algerian workers, miscommunication may occur if translation is not made use of. One major point to bring about once more is when translation is used, it is interesting that English is the node language (Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999). Even for an Algerian multinational, it was previously asserted that communication with especially foreign counterparts tends to be in English, immaterial of the fact that a cooperation is established on the Algerian soil.

In regard the Chinese multinationals, the usefulness of English usage proves that it does not stop at the stage when employed for being translated *into*; instead, it is a two-way means of communication by virtue of its use as the language translated *from* as well. Sørensen (2005) investigated multinational companies in Denmark, and which use English as the corporate language. His finding was that across the settings English has more inherited significance than just the common shared language used by the employees in their workplace, but is also the language from and into which translation often takes place. This phenomenon in which language has multiple roles in the internal communication of the global worksites was termed “transit language”, meaning that it is the trajectory around which other parallel languages revolve as it is positioned as “conversion linkage between various parallel local languages within an organisation” (Sørensen, 2005, p.1).

Conclusively, English has the role of a key linguistic code involved at the various situations of communication in both SINOPEC and GWDC. It is important to note that

miscommunication troubles float to the surface and misunderstandings take place at the workplace among the employees of different national origins.

Noticeably, in the SINOPEC multinational, English has a high status, encouraged partly by the informing internal language policy and in part by the fact that knowledge of Arabic and/ or French would not do any better for communicating between Chinese and Algerian workers regardless of their relative knowledge of any language other than English or Chinese. Tacitly away from logistic choices of partnership invoking language planning decisions, English is a postulate agreed upon *prima facie lingua franca* shortcut of mutually intelligible communication of cost-effectiveness.

#### **5.2.4.2. Translation and Centrality of English in the Chinese Multinationals**

In the Chinese-based companies, it is noted that there are some specific work occupations (notably safety men, drillers and assistant-drillers) assigned to the Algerian employees based on work proficiency, often by proving it with past experience or an acknowledged certificate matching the necessary work demand, but more importantly a certain level of skill in English is necessary, because these members have an efficient role in the communication process between Chinese and Algerian workers who are non-proficient in English. A manager, who should by default be Chinese, is having full English language speaking mastery. When present at the work site, and due to their assigned work positions, the manager and his assistants (who are adequate English speakers) may often be the resort of the personnel in asking communication help or, sometimes, asking them to request an intermediate person at the workplace to help them.

For example, one Algerian worker operating as an assistant-driller since years in the company, and who was very competent in English, was noted to have a central role in the communications occurring at certain occasions of fieldwork operations and meetings. At the work site, when an operating Chinese tool-pusher needed the Algerian blue-collar workers (either floormen or roustabouts) to perform a certain task, he usually speaks to the Algerian assistant-driller (or sometimes to the safetyman) in English and then the assistant-driller translates to the Algerian workers in Arabic, making of the assistant-driller be a connecting ‘language node’ (Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999) and a crucial ‘interface of communication’ (Piekkari et al., 2005) between Chinese bosses and the Algerian blue-collar employees in the fieldwork.

In a study about the roles of expatriates in company’s internal communication, it was found that a German who seeks aid from a workmate in a Finnish-based company prefers to ask his Finnish manager to call another Finnish to provide help rather than asking them in a direct way (Nurmi, 1995). This situation manifests how the manager who is an expatriate is acting as an intermediary man, transcending his chief roles as the company’s leader, its management responsible, and the caretaker of its well-being concerns. Additionally, it was claimed that if English is designated the role of the shared language of communication among the employees of diverse nationalities in multinationals, it is, however, without subsidiary effects. Even if it is a logical substitutive solution to a set of translation requirements in companies, it is also generative of an array of new translation demands which emerge from the necessity to have English as a source and target, because it does not completely solve the problem

of communication between employees (Piekkari, Welch, & Welch, 2014). In other words, when used in translation, English will function as the tool moving into and out of the many of other languages as the number of the different nationalities in the work scene.

In the case of our observed GWDC multinational, there are specific instances of speech in which mutual communication among especially Algerians and Chinese are challenging. There are also situations in which the company requires the employees to bear responsibility if a work accident or an unfavorable incident occurs due to miscommunication of the parties belonging to diverse nationalities. Therefore, the company insists on ensuring reciprocal communicative comprehensibility, and if necessary, by requesting translation from the language they do not understand into the language they understand, be it the corporate English or somebody's native language. Adequacy of the into-English translation by the Chinese manager, the Algerian safetyman and drillers' (each from their own mother tongue) makes of them a resource for their mates belonging to the different worksite operative teams. A Chinese manager would translate something to his Chinese nationals, whom have no Arabic ability, by passing through asking the driller (or safetyman) to explain what is needed to be said from Arabic into English. In the case of Algerians using Arabic, they take advantage of being translated into English often by the driller –in which the driller is receiving a translation from the manager from Chinese into English– when they wish to talk to the Chinese employees. The driller, who is Algerian, had initially been hired to work for his English proficiency. Apparently, in both cases, English is the working node language

(Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999), and the manager and drillers or their assistants represented the interface communication actors (Piekkari et al., 2005).

Though the instances of language translations in this case pertain to the spoken forms, the translating acts taking place in the settings in question partly support the described written patterns of language use illustratively introduced in the work of Piekkari et al. (2014). They examined the complex procedure of translations *out of* and *into* English and the relevant parallel operating languages, and put it that for “non-English-speaking firms, such as those headquartered in Denmark, a document being sent from foreign subsidiaries to headquarters has to be first translated into the [common corporate language], and recipients may then translate the document into Danish. In reverse situations, communications from headquarters may first involve a translation from Danish into English before being forwarded on to subsidiaries, where a further round of translation takes place” (p. 16).

Although proficiency in English is necessary for the drillers and assistant-drillers to be appointed in the respective well-paying occupations, it seems to turn into a burden for them to be involved in being tasked the extra roles of transmitting information between the two diverse linguistic parts. With the work obligations assigned by means of signing the contractual agreement terms for taking responsibility of the workloads, the translation missions do not appear to have been included in the initial agreement for them. In fact, besides their key functionality at work performance, they play an important intermediary role as translators who can express the needed messages a way better than if another translator without work experience and qualification may do.

Likewise, the Chinese of lower work positions whose qualification in English is so low, tend to speak in their mother tongue; noticeably code-mixed with mispronounced English, with strenuous efforts of gestural communication to get their interests conveyed when they converse with Algerians. However, at meetings periodicals and fieldwork operations (two spaces where all workers are brought together), in most occurrences a translator is required to intermediate ideas and concerns for assuring clarity and mutual understanding among workers. Some research suggests that subsidiaries may need to have an intermediary person whose function will be mediating difficulties of communication for the parts belonging to different linguistic backgrounds. This person should have fluency in the corporate language to take on a translator's position, and therefore may be a linking intersection in the work community (Marschan et al., 1997).

### **5.3. English Proficiency Between Theory and Practice: Towards a Paradigm of Best Language Policy**

In this section, we present findings which pertain to language practices, choices and policies from a theoretical perspective as seem to be favored by employees, and a practical regard as seem to be operationally put in effect by companies (questionnaire data concerning Q16, Q17 and Q19, in addition to the frequency of each language usage as recorded by the observation checklist).

So far, it was established that English language appears to have an incomparable status from the part of the individual informants in a general sense. To them, no matter

how qualified or disqualified linguistically, enthusiasm to speak and use English is unarguable. At the multinational level, it was also found that occasionally marked deficient pervasiveness of English in the Algerian company is primarily due to some kind of the unclear language policy pertinent to the organization itself. The foreign multinationals, contrastively, appear to take stock of the worker's expectations along the exigency of English not merely for the sake of responding to market demands, but that there is also more to alleviate regarding enduring encounters of miscommunication with Algerian partners. Also, their mature perception of the need for lingua-franca English as a minimum requirement to go global upgrades the willingness of embracing its delegacy. If all factors taken inconsiderately in language choice and designation, English ought, perhaps, to be an immediate assigned language as of a more profitable profile taken for it only without least indecision. That alone could bluntly translate the whopping gap between the perceptual aspirations of individuals and effective English use by company policy, though again foreign-based companies show far fewer sharp dispersions in juxtaposition to more practical exacerbated imbalances within the locals.

Inconsistencies between what the informant workers really wish and what is really at play regarding communication processes are recurring once and again. The impractical mismatch of institutional regulations is well reflected in the frequently convergent quantitative summations. For example, it is found that by comparing the ENTP and SINOPEC in terms of English frequency among workers of each, the foreign SINOPEC shows more English usage. It critically communicates the strong correlations of English language use in function of company origin in practical terms.

Indeed, the examination of the results showed the significance of the association between each of the languages' rank and the multinationals status at different occasions, even if with differing degrees of association portions in some cases. In both companies explored by the questionnaire, there is no clear-cut language policy, so that Arabic is more used in both companies in addition to considerable use of Chinese in SINOPEC among Chinese staff. In examining the employees' wants in regard their view towards using English, evidence was found that it is actually the language that most informants reported to be willing to speak. In the case of the other present languages in both scenes of the study, Arabic in ENTP is sometimes at competition with French, particularly owing to the nature of demographic factors such as age. The manager who is Algerian has a full mastery of French of which he extravagantly makes use most often, and that is natural in that as part of the SONATRACH's policy in recruitment to higher management, individuals are screened basically in relation to experience. Age and experience factors definitely interrelate with each other, so that the latter is usually antecedent to the former. Of course, experience usually applies to certain categorical age groups, who necessarily fall in the pattern of persons with high French qualification.

In the lower positions, however, worker participants belong to the class of age that are educationally different from the manager's past education type. Individuals may include members who have some levels in French but generally limited. Regarding ENTP, it is this justification that Arabic is more practically used in informal intragroup work communication process, though the majority displays enthusiasm to learn and use English. In the Chinese SINOPEC, it is also notable that with more English prevalence,

Chinese and Arabic are so much used at an average that makes French seem to be the language, if used (on the part of Algerians), it is at best to borrow vocabulary from, but not tacitly employed in speech as a language of communication. Overall, the ranks to be assigned to the different examined languages according to the respondents in both companies is that English is first ranked, then Arabic, followed by other languages (apparently Chinese in the case of SINOPEC), while French is viewed at the last rank. It can be concluded that French is not the language to do business in Algeria and is well displaced by English.

Additionally, because the foreign multinationals functioning in Algeria will find themselves more involved in an extensive process of communication (internally and externally), a wise language policy by stockholders is implemented by especially drawing a wide circle for using English at the different sub-institutional divisions. So far, for such polities to engage in the inextricable need of information exchange between and among themselves there is an unprecedented English use for executing the whole range of tasks. In effect, from processes of marketing and financing, along with managerial operations, as well as keeping track of feedback from departmental subsidiary sections, there is an unsurpassed ratio of English use compared to all other coexisting languages grouped together. In a nutshell, both a literally recognized and tacitly respected language policy within foreign multinational indicates the high likelihood of it resulting from a formally formulated set of rules territorial linguistic borders.

Nonetheless, such underpinning practices obviously stand out far from being the case in the Algerian multinational. Regardless of the company status and their relative linguistic knowledge, however, participants of both multinationals (examined by comparative questionnaire data), together share the welcoming view of considering English as '*one official*' language in overall language policy or even the '*only official*' tool for communication. Put otherwise, it is practically interpreted as them deprived of taking part in decision-making of language choice, or having the opportunity for providing personal perspectives of what they may or may not like in relation to company language planning. To this end, a respondent expressed his clear intentions of the dissatisfaction with the language situation in the Algerian multinational, suggesting that the necessity for operating English is undeniable and it is on the part of their company that the personnel should rather be encouraged to use more English. For them, the best option their multinational should adopt is deflecting the position of English and its promotion policy. To do that the company '*must make special classes to teach it with teachers from USA and UK*' (quoting the respondent). Interestingly, it is very surprising to note that irrespective of how less multinationals are Anglicized, it is inconsistent with their policies of an implicit consideration to assign key work positions to workers with notable good English. That is particularly valid in relation to company spokesmen for mutual partnerships with overseas multinational organizations.

In the foreign SINOPEC multinational, it is noted that English is specifically of paramount importance in the recruitment process of manpower. That trend of English-based requirement clearly excels over all other languages, including the native language of the multinational. In addition, workers are signaled in recourse to two main

indicators: work experience plus qualification and, qualification in English plus the level of skill. Indeed, foreign multinationals appear to appreciate both of these profiles, but it is unclear which is prior to the other. However, it is presumed that skillful workers will have been distinguishably filtered for their English proficiency. Notwithstanding, it does not follow that two workers supposedly with the same work experience who equally exhibit the same English proficiency levels will have equal chances of being screened for work no matter of the assets in other languages. In effect, the latter should not be overlooked. In such situations, the nature of decisions taken in the procedures of workforce selection is by far specific to a few considerations, such those inherent to the multinationals' backgrounds as a whole, in regard their views to linguistic determinants apart from English.

#### **5.4. Enduring Employees' Concerns**

This section deals particularly speaking with the set of statements provided by the participants when they were asked to communicate their concerns in an open question (Q26). The dissatisfaction of informants in the present study was one of the issues that is felt on various ways through the spectrum of the responses provided. In national companies established in Algeria, workers could have had a previous career with some foreign company. One specific respondent case raised attention to the importance for reconsidering languages at work, as they expressively put it clear that their company is far from English-language-ideal situation as compared to other multinationals working on the same grounds. Schlumberger, a French-based company, was an illustrative case invoked by the respondent to convey their concern that even

French themselves who are doing business in Algeria seem to encourage English to boost their organization's profits in the same way Algerian institutions adhere to a non-profitable French-policy. Similarly, a worker of former experience in some alien companies emphasized that despite a chaotic mode of English usage, the situation is actually the worst of all in the Algerian milieu, for the absence of minimal regulative norms of language categorizations for different usages by the companies. It was demanded that functioning English as a corporate language in the Algerian companies will have a number of advantages, in front of which is guaranteeing reciprocal understanding among communicators. Even though some employees have openly admitted their lack of English adequacy, they insist that French is becoming old-fashioned for business and appreciation of English is optimal. Training in English is a desired feature in the multinationals in order to encourage and increase its users, resulting in reducing cultural gaps and communication barriers among locals and expatriates. Part of closing the linguacultural gaps is through devising a wise policy of practicality that really controls English-policy application as suggested in the overall work protocols.

Further, it was also reported that the irrational choice of a French-oriented policy defects is not restricted to business sectors in Algeria. Academic education at tertiary levels is to a far extent made through French-language instruction. In addition, there are witnessed mismatches between education and economic sectors that the language situation is almost completely neglected. For that reason, a respondent found it urgent

to link business to University in order to assess present needs and bridge the gap to future professional demands.

### **5.5. Putting it All Together: A Statement of Synthesis**

Very basically, the theme of the research is guided with an objective to assess and gauge the ‘status’ that the English language has inside the circles of voluminous workplace environments. It presupposes seeking answers for the ever-encompassing question “What status does English possess within entrepreneurial business corporations operating in Algeria?”. For starters, in general terms, it is remarkably important that English appears to have an overly appreciated level of significance in business contexts of the multinationals under survey –though with differing degrees— in contrast to other languages, where mainly speaking Arabic and French are brought under examination in this regard. That should be taken for it to establish a grounded argument of discussing the differences in representativeness of English among the multinationals as a separate topical core issue of the research project at hand.

Of the several findings obtained in the study, one particular finding stands out: the quality of position that English has within the multinationals in an Algerian context is not only unique and beyond controversy, but surprisingly of an imbalanced type, and particularly regarding the origin to which the company belongs. It was noted that English has an explicitly lower status at the Algerian-based multinational if one takes account of how far theory and practice converge.

With a globalization-driven worldwide business, English seems inefficiently reflecting any of the aspired value within the overall evaluated perspectives of the samples. Besides, discrepancies manifest themselves more particularly in regard English from the cross-spatial outlook putting multinationals on par of reflection regardless of their nationality. The immediate outcome announces the marked dispersion in that English is highly appreciated in foreign-based firms.

The dominance of English in the different communication processes in foreign companies more than in local owes to two aspects in particular: (1) to the background from which foreign companies emerge and, (2) in part to the globalization spillover effects. That is, regardless of their ambitions in Algeria, foreign multinationals would have a foregone doctrine towards using English. Running business in an overly different setting, than the mother origin of a company, will offer no choice than considering a lingua franca. Consequently, for an economic instinct it is not unusual practice to justifiably adopt English. The internal language policies relative to the corporations of an international trait will immediately acknowledge English as a cost-effective substitute that may reconcile the big vacuum set up by the differences of two contexts: the nationality of company versus the new exogenous setting where it will manage business. As Charles and Marschan-Piekkari (2002) affirm, the corporate language in nowadays global business is English by default in most cases. But the challenge is that English will often be a non-native language to such business communities. It follows that, for a foreigner operating business in destinations whose indigenous people are not sharing the same background, there will be side effects of imbalances not only at

linguistic adequacy levels, but on the cultural aspects (Ehrenreich, 2010). The problems escalate if locals themselves have ethnic issues and struggles over identity as direct outcomes of past-colonialism (Vaara et al., 2005). In such cases even formal English that is officially set as a communication means inside sectors of companies may not solve the problem. Knowledge of Standard English can be a way far different from knowledge of work-related English. Indeed, these two varieties are regarded as two different language registers, so that a native speaker of English is found to encounter communication problems and difficulties of mutual understanding with non-natives at the workplace, even when English is the commonly used language (Piekkari, 2006). These effects extend to external communication situations likewise.

On the light of insights above, two remarkable notes relate to the degree of importance inferred from the analytical perspective: Firstly, the English language is expressively important for employees in both of ENTP and SINOPEC companies, and secondly its importance is highly appreciated by consensus in regard the employees of the foreign company (58,3% of participants from SINOPEC considered English of ‘major importance’ as opposed to 29,3% from ENTP who reported English as of ‘secondary importance’ at their workplaces). Among the different languages in a multinational company, Ehrenreich (2010, p. 408) examined the level of importance that English plays in a German context and came to conclude that staff members recognize communicating in English as ‘indispensable’ as an intermediate *lingua franca* language between people of different linguacultural backgrounds and which may not be natives of English *per se*. In that respect, this finding corresponds especially with the

outcome of our research in regard the foreign-based multinationals (SINOPEC) and (GWDC). Additionally, also akin to the present study findings in regard ENTP, it was established that English is in serious competition with other languages. Although the majority of internal written communication within ENTP highly hinges on English, Arabic and French are not disappearing completely and are used in the spoken form of internal communication. It is to say, at an optimal level that an effort is exerted to assign English the position of corporate language, it cannot be presumed that other languages are cut off the scene, notably the parent multinational's language.

It is easily conceivable for a foreign company in Algeria that Arabic would be an attractive choice to alleviate the intercultural and linguistic variable differences, but at the same time is a challenge of substantial demands, both strategic and monetary. Added to this is the big gap of the linguistic distances (Chiswick & miller, 2001, 2007, Carliner, 2000) between say, a Chinese company and an Arab one. For companies, the utmost priority is aspiring for optimal profit and minimal costs, utilizing less scarce resources. Drawing conclusions of which less-costly a language that guarantees proper communication and ensures smooth business performance ends up to introducing English as a shorthand.

However, in relation to Arabic as surpassing English at frequency of use in a few cases as regards the Algerian multinational, in terms of instances of internal and external communication, it is interpretatively explained by two main reasons. First, English between 'parent', 'sister', 'daughter' companies (or their subordinate divisions) will be irrational practice in the availability of Arabic (or even French in some ways). For that

matter, using such reasoning, the premise of 'English as a lingua franca for business', with all the bearings it underlines, only makes it a foreign language while communicating to counterparts sharing the same national background (Marschan-Piekkari et al., 1999), or at least the same linguistic system, albeit taking account of language varieties in whichever situation. The second reason, which in turn further supports the argument, is that it is typically the case that subsidiary Algerian multinationals operating in Algeria tend to recruit Algerians at an approximately full level; something requiring individuals to resort to more use of Arabic, French if ever, or some other minority language among individual workers of given ethnic sub-groups. Of fundamental significance is reference to be made especially to pervasive French existence the Algerian-based multinational, which in principle accords with more of its use as one moves upper in the hierarchy of work positions. Inevitably, the majority of higher work positions are usually designated to individuals with not only professional adequacy but also who are of an accumulative pile of years' experience. Aging tacitly implies more French proficiency than either Arabic or English for managerial staff in the Algerian context, for the fact that previously attained educational trainings are not so unlikely to mark a Francophone asset. They are often of the generations born just next to the post-colonial period by France. Even if it is recognized that one of the requirements of being on the head panel of management is knowledge of basic English, it is apparent that the French cultural background (in which they are generally born and educated) deeply affected their language knowledge and preferences, so that it is very likely that they master French better than the national language which is Arabic and other languages.

At a professional dimension, English has a certain level of significance in respect workforce selection, with interesting dispersions among companies depending on their origin. For an Algerian-based company, English does not amount to a filter language for which workers are primarily chosen. In fact, with an implicit orientation of national companies to consider local staff employees, work proficiency would count more, simply because this will reduce communication problems inside the organizations (Thomas, 2008), taking into consideration the fact that group homogeneity achieved through basically individuals of the same background settings. However, for foreign-based firms, work proficiency is an important factor, but basic English is generally a preferable component, at least as a shared corporate system for effectively assured communication among individuals of the various cultural affiliations. Nonetheless, one finding is that in case work qualification is taken as obligatory, being accompanied with English is very much contributive for the individuals to raise their opportunities for work obtainment.

## **Conclusion**

In the discussion of the results, the approach adopted was mainly one of putting together the main findings emerging from the practical fieldwork of the three researched company settings. The English language position was examined in the three multinationals on the light of its comparability to other languages such as French, Arabic. With a critical analytic orientation based on drawing from previous research to contextualize the ultimate findings, it is apparent that English has a relatively high status in the contexts examined. However, more appreciation of English is clearly felt at the

level of the multinationals of a foreign origin. Consistent with corporate research conclusions in the different disciplinary studies of English in business contexts, the present project's outcomes concur with the notion that English language is an optimally lingua franca whether implicitly or explicitly. That is to say, regardless of any official recognition of institutionalized English usage by virtue of a language policy, employees of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds seem to readily admit the fact that English language is taken for it at workplace communication.

# **GENERAL CONCLUSION**

## GENERAL CONCLUSION

The present research thesis is an investigation about the status of English within the business settings of large-scale multinational companies which are operating in Algeria. It is an examination of the reality of the English language usage from an economic sense, with special interest in its usage in multinational companies. The study has followed a systematic progress from drawing a conceptual framework through its practical orientation of collecting the data, categorizing and analyzing it.

As to the conceptual framework, a literature review of the significant underpinnings was introduced. In the first chapter, an identification of the economic sciences relevance in language analysis was presented by demonstrating how language and economy are in interaction. Therefore, a definition to this infant research field known as *Language Economics* or *Economics of Language* was necessary, and then followed tracking its historical background of emergence and its phases of development. Further, reference was made to the importance of language in the business community in that it is sometimes treated as a form of capital equivalent to currency, showing at the same time the weaknesses of such analogy which further testified that language is an invaluable source which transcends monetary resources in its value. It was accordingly proceeded towards arguing how a foreign language such as English forms a rewarding tool to its users at the workplace and which functions as a significant filter in work attainment, promotion, and wage differentials. It is established that languages play a critical role in production processes and value creation on the labor market.

Based on the pertinence of languages in economic and industrial sectors, English was examined in companies regarding its usage frequency and its association to work performance. In that respect, a review of English as a necessary tool for workplace communication in the multinational companies was due. In the settings of globalized business, English is often the corporate language by default. The English registers and genres made use of by the firms are not necessarily native-like. Instead, even English natives may be stuck in communicating with their counterparts. The English that is employed at the workplace contexts is characterized more by its content-based significance than forms. It is highly simple but work-oriented, because it is a business English lingua franca rather than the universally global general English. It is also important to note that the cultural aspects or what Thomas (2008) terms “organization culture” deeply contribute to the understanding of the community members when conversing to each other. Workplace proficiencies are not only demanding English skill, but proved to be encompassing a wider scope of competences such as global communication competence and professional competences. Global competence bears on three principal sub-competences which are multicultural, English as business lingua franca and business know-how. English is apparently the language that companies and their subsidiaries cannot ignore even if functioning in their homeland, simply because mutual partnership with expatriate entities is necessary and should accommodate a compromise language which is often English.

After a methodological framework was identified in regards the research design of the present project, along the procedures underlying its paradigms for the research type suitable, the data collection instruments used, a thorough analysis of the data and

the ensuing findings were presented. The main research data representing the basis for the study was gathered using a questionnaire distributed to participant workers from two different subsidiary companies, with a third subsidiary company investigated using an observation checklist. The language corpus of interest was English patterns and frequencies at the workplace, at the different levels of communication, mainly as compared to the other languages present in the various surveyed settings.

The data analysis and the results obtained have helped to build a critical reading and interpretations in chapter 4. The discussion of the results has uncovered interesting findings in respect overall language practices in multinational companies working in Algeria, and more particularly the English language as a resource at the workplace which showed a set of differences of strategic usage and capitalization by companies depending on their origins and nationality.

One of the basic presumptions on which the study hinges is the usually taken for granted acknowledgment that the English language stands as a global linguistic phenomenon for communication even among non-natives. In that regard, English is taking over a hegemonic position relative to all other languages. In fact, the dominance of English in business circles is already established that it became a necessary integral aspect of communication between transnational partners worldwide. Hence, a slightly narrowed down and more specified focus on the value of English in the business sectors involved in Algerian economy is made as the central objective. It was hypothesized that the English language enjoys a high status in the Algerian labor market of multinationals irrespective of their origins and nationalities. Even more, English is hypothesized to

have higher a status within large-scale business contexts in the Algerian economy more than other languages. These two hypotheses formed the premises of the study.

In the light of that framework, the English language status has been gauged in three petroleum multinationals operating in Algeria, one of which is an Algerian subsidiary and two are of foreign nationality doing business in Algeria. To do that, using comparative-based mode of using multiple case studies, a quantitative research design was adopted. The comparison has basically formed the basis of juxtaposing the position of English in relevance to Arabic, French and a few other languages. Moreover, with the aim of evaluating its status in the contexts chosen, English was contrasted against the other present languages per its use both within each company separately and across companies through a questionnaire and an observational survey. Based on that paradigmatic ascription consequently, the status of English assessment has been conducted through two principal levels of measurement in recourse to intra-company and intercompany dimensions. The Intra-company aspects are considered by weighing the respective position of English in relation to other languages coexistent within the three companies each separately. The intercompany aspect attempted to allow for a horizontal linguistic audit that is cross-multinational in perspective in order to go beyond the mere measures of frequency and occurrence of language patterns to an appraisal of the English language status per the company's origin.

The research findings revealed two main interesting facts as regards the hypotheses set forth at the outset: first, that English language has more of an economic status amid the multinational companies than any other language is relatively established; and second, given that English enjoys higher status compared to other

competitive languages –strictly speaking Arabic and French, it is more appropriately substantiated with evidence from the ensuing results relating to the alien firms. Put otherwise, there is no discrepancy between the hypotheses suggested which stimulates that English is of more value in the business contexts functioning in Algeria, whereas there are marked differences in the frequency of its usage depending on the company nationality. Conclusively, English is more valorized economically than other languages within foreign multinationals.

As to foreign multinationals, it is also inferred that English excel over Arabic, French and all other languages. Rather surprisingly though, French seems quite demure in status secondary to Arabic and even some other languages such as Chinese at times. One rational argument for the case of the differences regarding the usage of French in terms of its semi-total absence at the foreign workplaces studied as compared to its notable presence in the Algerian multinational settings owes to the nature of the implications dictated by the very contexts. Tacitly, administrators at the head of the national organizations are very likely saturated with a francophone linguistic ideology that entails them to choose between either Arabic or French, and keeping the English option out of the game by exigency. Indeed, the lack of knowledge that may truly amount to none in English for a generation aging above 50s years old in most cases on one hand, and on the other hand due to the so-called formerly prestigious French as favored to Arabic had well informed the decisions of the polities in the management positions. The feel of exhibiting the French competency is well justified by the post-colonial imprint which used to serve as an indicator of literacy. That alone would adequately explicate indicative determinants of prompting French at the expense of

Arabic as a nationally homeland language and English as a foreign language layers down the strata composing the hierarchy of the workforce.

For the Algerian company, nevertheless, the presence of French in the communication is restrictively encouraged by the managerial individual's inclination through especially instances of code-switching that is more proportionately oriented to a francophone talk. Taken altogether, in comparison with the reality of language use in the foreign corporations investigated, it is obvious that foreign multinationals encourage more use of English as a lingua franca, and that seems well considered and planned. That is well articulated by the findings in respect language practices at the level of the supreme held positions up in the hierarchy. The situation is inversely swayed at the advantage of a substantially stronger use of English for management operations by the foreign company than the Algerian. It suggests that a self-aware language planning is widely considered on the part of the overseas multinationals operating in Algeria even if in tacit ways in principle.

Findings also show that there are significant dispersions between the two contrasted companies (ENTP vs. SINOPEC) in relation to translation utility. For the fact that the Algerian ENTP multinational hires mostly Algerians, translation seems to be out of option, and if used it may be for external communication. Conversely, In SINOPEC, because staff are a mixture of Chinese and Algerian workers, miscommunication may occur if translation is not made use of. One major point to bring about once more is when translation used, it is interesting to note that English is the 'node' language in that even for an Algerian multinational, communication with

especially foreign counterparts tends to be in English immaterial of the fact that cooperation is established on the Algerian soil.

The findings obtained from ENTP indicate important significations regarding the poor usage of English, despite the fact that individual participants show high willingness to learn and use it. In fact, in spoken language used especially by the professionals holding higher positions, French is recurrent. This is critically displaying the effects of the colonial legacy of French even if it is not officially recognized as important as English. Though external communication with partners generally takes place using English, subsidiary talk with the parent headquarter is often held in French as a habitual practice of institutional routine. Although a number of participants are more excited to use English, in that some of them have already obtained a bachelor in English, the company appears to ignore such considerations to encourage more usage of English for better globalization from within. There is actually a sharp mismatch between the former educational attainments obtained, especially linguistic, and the practices of communication at the workplace along work procedures, which resulted in a gap between what well-equipped worker participants have as work potential and what they practically encounter in the work environment upon recruitment. To the researcher's belief, the link between work needs and past education is so poor and does not promote to reflect global business demands; this is more especially valid in regard the foreign language capacities needed at work. While in the internationalized business English is widely acknowledged to be a necessary integral tool of communication, the Algerian case seems afar from taking this measure seriously.

## Implications, Applications, and Prospects for Future Research

In fact, a non-scientifically grounded language practice is witnessed in relation to a semi-anarchic inclusion and irrelevant use of languages such as French at the detriment of English on various occasions. Superficially, as pointed out in different locations at the results discussion section, that type of violation is nurtured by a spectrum of variably inconsistent factors. First, the colonial inheritance of a francophone temper has fairly exercised its influence quite unjustly via a blind practice at institutional levels even in the absence of a minimally regulatory textual back-up. Second, the phenomenally large mismatches of the different spheres from educational settings towards professional contexts, notably business-oriented, contribute to the increasingly widening scope of convergence. Actually, bridging what workplace market demands to what training centers produce shall render revenues of less expenditure to both parties. The harmonization of academic educational products to professional life requirements is inevitable. Moreover, for Algerian multinationals, a promoted *openness-to-the-other* must be balanced over a self-centered approach by means of involving a rational language policy which goes hand in hand with the increasingly globalizing world; a perspective which undeniably calls for some sort of '*Anglicization*' drawing on a business lingua franca fashion at the first place.

For future research, it is recommended that the adoption of a purely qualitative approach for reinvestigating the issue of English in multinationals operating in Algeria will serve as enrichment to this avenue of study, by specifically delving deep into the patterns of language issues. To do that, it is suggested that using more elaborate

descriptive data (such as interview-based information) will definitely give productive insights. Capitalizing on different types of data using different perspectives is bound to yield essential contributions. With that in mind, the thrust of the research will prompt further inquiries as a follow-up output. It seems that prospective investigation will find ground for deeply diving into the issue of jumping from the what-discovery to the why-reasoning view of English in the business settings nationally. Of the queries coming up would be such those as “Why the status of English at the level of multinationals in Algeria relegates to disparity per company origins?” “What incentives stipulate non-conformity of English-situation among the different large-scale (petroleum) enterprises in accordance to the respective nationality of multinationals?”

For companies, it is suggested that the need of considering the views of their client personnel in regard language policies should be a priority. The analysis of the different individual standpoints, based on questionnaire and observation data, has demonstrated tacit dissatisfaction on the part of respondent workers. They suggest that the language practices imposed by the stockholders create a rather heterogeneous work environment due to the impractical reasons of not promoting English more than French in the case of Algerian multinational. Further, it should be well understood that employees do not wish to have English as their common language at workplace for going prestigious more than it is their willingness to develop their career. For them, English is a gain enriching their curriculum vitae. In fact, having English language profile permits an absolute context of market competition for the companies. Participants of the companies put it clear that regardless of how much English efficiency

they command, they wish their companies account for establishing a linguistic atmosphere promoting more English use. Coming from an appreciative firm environment that had taken its respective workers views in integrating more English use is a high-value asset. The workers are to acquire a feel of confident trained individuals who would definitely jump out of the language-deficiency zone when representing their company at the external affairs assigned to them. In this regard, in order for English to be promoted in business enterprises, language policy makers should allow for the different views held by workers.

At this level, it is significant to provide some recommendations for academic institutions. In assessing the market demands, academic institutions should take stock of the prospective orientations of trained individuals. In specific terms, candidates produced for professional life need a further dimension than mere field-based proficient. The linguistic medium of instruction must match workplace market requirements. Recently, the ministry of higher education polities begun to stimulate and promote English language in academic settings. The decision was more of an exigent outcome of the speedy worldwide changes led by globalization dictations in particular. However, there is needed more effective initiative on the part of the political system to call into question the different conceptual orientations, by responding to such demands via more practical decisions. Perhaps, legislating a shared concern that involves educators and researchers for an official appraisal of the language practices and use seems necessary. Performing summative evaluations of the language-in-business situation in order to gain insightful authentic outcomes, of course, could have pragmatic diagnosis only if

considering professional settings at profound levels. Besides, the conduct of the paradigm may require a thoroughly tailored process comprising a potential mechanism, based on cyclical repeated-measures employed by means of regular linguistic audits series. The result will immediately give birth to several tenets, the least of which is setting a concrete database for practical research.

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## Appendix A: Questionnaire Form in English

This questionnaire is part of a research project conducted by **Abdelghafour BEDDIAF**, a PhD research student from Algiers 2 University. The aim of the study is to examine the status of English in large-scale business settings in Algeria. Your participation by filling out this questionnaire will absolutely help us better understand the weight of English language in companies and the significance of its usage at workplace environments in the Algerian context.

We want to assure you that your responses are completely anonymous. We shall keep completely confidential all the data collected.

In responding to the questions, put a **tick (✓)** in the corresponding box. Please note that in some cases it is possible that several different answers can apply. In the questionnaire, when a question is of this type, it is referred to with the statement '*you may tick more than one*' in between parentheses.

***N.B. please, we suggest that you read through all the options of each item question before ticking as this will insure a comprehensive understanding.***

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1. *What is the importance of having knowledge of English language at the workplace?*

- Major importance
- Secondary importance
- Minor importance
- Have no importance

2. *How have you developed your English language skills that you need at work? ( you may tick more than one )*

- Formal academic tuition
- Language training offered by the company
- Self-study (self-taught books, using internet material, etc.)
- Private language school
- Working experience abroad
- I do not have proficiency in English language
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

3. *How often is each of the following languages used by your company to communicate with other companies?*

	<b>With Algerian companies</b>				<b>With non-Algerian companies</b>				
	Never	Rarely	Frequently	Always		Never	Rarely	Frequently	Always
Arabic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Arabic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
French	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	French	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4. *How often do you notice people use each of the following languages for spoken communication in the company?*

	Never	Rarely	Frequentl	Always
Arabic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
French	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

*communication in the company?*

5. In your company, how often is each of the following languages used for **reading/writing** (reports, mails, documents, contracts, CVs, etc.)?

	Never	Rarely	Frequently	Always
Arabic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
French	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. In which language(s) is the software (of computers, controlling screens, etc.) used in the company? (**you may tick more than one**)

- Arabic
- English
- French
- Other(s)

7. In which language(s) are the names of equipment (of drilling, electricity, mechanic engineering, etc.) used at the workplace? (**you may tick more than one**)

- Arabic
- English
- French
- Other(s)

8. *Imagine you are in a situation in which the following languages are chosen for use in the company, what ranking should be given to each language? Please order them from 1 to 4.*

- Arabic
- English
- French
- Other(s)

9. *Which language(s) do you personally tend to use at the workplace? ( you may tick more than one )*

- Arabic
- English
- French
- Other(s)

10. *How often?*

	Never	Rarely	Frequentl	Always
Arabic	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
English	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
French	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other(s)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

11. *Is translation from one language into another used at the workplace?*

- Yes
- No      (☛if your answer is ‘No’, move on to 13.)

12. *If yes,*

A. Which language(s) is/are commonly translated from? (you may tick more than one)

Arabic

English

French

Others

B. Which language(s) is/are commonly translated into? (you may tick more than one)

Arabic

English

French

Others

13. Are you willing to use English at your workplace?

Yes, I am very willing to use English

Yes, I am a little willing to use English

I prefer not to, but I have to use English

No, I do not want to use English

14. How often in an average day do you make use of English while at work?

Always (100%)

Frequently (about 50% to 80%)

- Usually (about 20% to 45 % )
- Occasionally (about 5% to 15%)
- Rarely (less than 5%)
- Never (0%)
- It depends on the situation I'm in

15. *Does English language skill have any role into obtaining a work position in your company?*

- Yes, it is necessary for all work positions
- Yes, but restricted to very specific work positions
- No, but preferable
- No, work positions have nothing to do with skill in English

16. *Which of the following situations contributes more to use English? (you may tick more than one)*

- Meetings with company man
- Meetings with people from another company
- Talking to co-workers in my company
- Face-to-face communication with foreigners
- Online communication with foreigners (phone, email, Facebook chats, etc.)
- Delegation for overseas business trips
- Writing up periodical business reports
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

17. *Why using specifically English in such situations? ( you may tick more than one )*

- Company policy requires using English
- Because people we talk to use English
- Feel comfortable to use English
- English is the language of business in Algeria
- To practice English more in order to improve my language skill
- Because I can communicate my ideas more effectively in English
- English facilitates communication with people of different origins
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

18. *According to your experience in the company, how do you estimate English language use in your company?*

- English is increasingly used more and more
- English is used as usual as before
- English is becoming used less and less
- I do not know

19. *In what company departments is English being more used? (you may tick more than one )*

- Marketing (e.g., sales engineering, advertising)
- Finance (Money management)
- Operation management (production, business operations)
- Human resources

- Subsidiaries
- Headquarters
- Other departments
- I do not know

20. *Which factor contributes more to workforce recruitment in the company?*

- Individuals with English language qualification only
- Individuals with qualification in a language other than English
- Individuals with qualification in English and work experience
- Individuals with qualification in a language other than English along with work experience.
- Individuals with work experience regardless of language qualification
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

21. *What do you think is the best policy for your company to use English?*

- English as the only official language of the company
- English as one of the official languages of the company (for example English and Arabic)
- English as the **only** official language of some departments
- English as **one** of the official languages of some departments
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

22. *If the company policy sets English as the only language of communication at the workplace, what would be your attitude?*

- Be positive because it is a language I like to use
- Feel uncomfortable
- Feel neutral
- Be grateful for this opportunity to improve my English proficiency
- Feel it is a necessary requirement for work
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

23. *What kinds of advantage does English language mastery offer to its speakers in the company? ( you may tick more than one )*

- Opportunities to be involved in overseas business trips by the company
- English is a key means to acquire work skill because company regulations require English use while performing work tasks
- Better English proficiency leads to better work positions and/or promotion
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

24. *In order for the company to boost English language usage, what kinds of things would be important? ( you may tick more than one )*

- Language training offered by the company
- Hiring people with language certificate training.
- Hiring more foreign staff who speak English
- Having English as one of the official languages of the company

- Creating an atmosphere that supports people to use English
- Setting a minimum requirement of English through a language test for new employees entering the company
- Other: \_\_\_\_\_

25. *What is the importance of English for individuals working in companies operating in the Algerian context?*

- Everyone should speak good English
- Everyone should speak at least some English
- English is necessary for people occupying certain posts
- Only people who communicate with foreigners should speak English
- No one needs to speak English

26. *If you have anything else in mind that you feel is important or relevant to this survey, please feel free to write it down here.*

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR RESPONSE!

## Appendix B: Questionnaire Form in Arabic

هذا الاستبيان هو جزء من مشروع بحث في اطار الدكتوراه، من طرف عبد الغفور بضيف ، جامعة الجزائر 2. الهدف من هذا البحث يتمحور حول دراسة مكانة اللغة الإنجليزية في أوساط الشغل الكبيرة الحجم في الجزائر. ستساعدنا مشاركتك عن طريق ملء هذا الاستبيان في فهم أفضل لقيمة اللغة الإنجليزية في الشركات، وكذا أهمية استخدام الأخيرة في بيئات الشغل بالجزائر.

نؤكد لكم بأن أي إجابة تدلون بها تبقى بخصوصية مجهولة، وكل المعلومات التي تساهمون بها لن تلمح إلى أي من الأمور الشخصية.

ضع علامة (✓) في المربع امام الاجابة/الاجابات المناسبة لك. يرجى ملاحظة أنه في بعض الحالات من الممكن اختيار العديد من الإجابات للسؤال الواحد. لقد تمت الإشارة الى هذا النوع من الاسئلة بعبارة "يمكنك اختيار عدة اجابات" بين قوسين في نهايتها.

تنبيه: قبل الشروع في وضع الاختيار المناسب لكل سؤال بالنسبة لك، يستحسن قراءة كل عناصر السؤال أولاً، حيث ان ذلك يضمن فهم شامل لمحتواها.

1. ما أهمية معرفة اللغة الانجليزية في مكان عملكم؟

أهمية رئيسية

أهمية ثانوية

أهمية ادنى/دنيا

من دون أي أهمية

2. كيف قمت بتطوير مهاراتك في اللغة الأنجليزية التي تحتاجها في العمل؟ (يمكنك اختيار عدة اجابات)

عن طريق تعلم اكايمي (المدرسة، الجامعة، الخ).

عن طريق تكوين لغوي من طرف الشركة

عن طريق الدراسة الذاتية (الكتب التي يتم تدريسها ذاتياً ، استخدام مواد الإنترنت ، وما إلى ذلك)

عن طريق مدرسة خاصة لتعليم اللغات

عن طريق خبرة العمل في الخارج

لا امتلاك معارف في اللغة الانجليزية

طرق اخرى:

3. ما معدل استخدام كل من اللغات التالية من طرف شركتك للتواصل مع نظيراتها من الشركات؟

مع الشركات غير جزائرية

اطلاقا/ابدا	نادرا	غالبا	دائما	
				الانجليزية
				العربية
				الفرنسية
				لغة/لغات اخرى

مع الشركات الجزائرية

اطلاقا/ابدا	نادرا	غالبا	دائما	
				الانجليزية
				العربية
				الفرنسية
				لغة/لغات اخرى

4. استنادا الى ملاحظتك للتواصل الشفهي بين الاشخاص العاملين بالشركة ، ما معدل استخدام كل من اللغات

الاتية؟

اطلاقا/ابدا	نادرا	غالبا	دائما	
				الانجليزية
				العربية
				الفرنسية
				لغة/لغات اخرى

5. ما معدل استخدام كل من اللغات التالية للقراءة / للكتابة في الشركة (التقارير ، البريد الالكتروني ، المستندات

، العقود ، السير الذاتية ، إلخ.)؟

اطلاقا/ابدا	نادرا	غالبا	دائما	
				الانجليزية
				العربية
				الفرنسية
				لغة/لغات اخرى

6. بأي لغة هي البرمجيات المعتمدة من طرف شركتكم (اجهزة الكمبيوتر، شاشات المراقبة، الخ) ؟ (يمكنك

اختيار عدة اجابات)

العربية

الانجليزية

الفرنسية

لغة/لغات اخرى

7. بأي لغة هي أسماء الأجهزة والأدوات المستخدمة في مكان العمل (وسائل الحفر ، الكهرباء ، الهندسة الميكانيكية

، إلخ.) ؟ (يمكنك اختيار عدة اجابات)

العربية

الانجليزية

الفرنسية

لغة/لغات اخرى

8. تخيل أنك في وضع تم فيه اختيار اللغات التالية لاستخدامها في الشركة ، ما ترتيب كل لغة بالنسبة لك؟ يرجى

ترتيبها من 1 إلى 4.

العربية

الانجليزية

الفرنسية

لغة/لغات اخرى

9. أي لغة (لغات) تميل شخصياً إلى استخدامها في مكان العمل؟ (يمكنك اختيار عدة اجابات)

العربية

الانجليزية

الفرنسية

لغة/لغات اخرى

10. الى اي مدى؟

اطلاقا/ابدا	نادرا	غالبا	دائما	
				الانجليزية
				العربية
				الفرنسية
				لغة/لغات اخرى

11. هل يتم استخدام الترجمة من لغة الى اخرى في مكان العمل؟

نعم

لا (اذا كانت الاجابة "لا"، فعليك المرور الى السؤال 13)

12. اذا كانت اجابتك بـ "نعم"،

أ. من اي لغة/لغات غالبا تتم الترجمة؟

العربية

الانجليزية

الفرنسية

لغة/لغات اخرى

ب. الى اي لغة/لغات غالبا تتم الترجمة؟

العربية

الانجليزية

الفرنسية

لغة/لغات اخرى

13. هل ترغب في التحدث باللغة الانجليزية في مكان عملك؟

- نعم، لدي رغبة شديدة في التحدث بالانجليزية
- نعم، أرغب بالتحدث بالانجليزية الى حد ما
- كلا، لا ارغب في التحدث بالانجليزية ولكني مرغ على التحدث بها
- كلا، لا ارغب في التحدث بها اطلاقا

14. مامعدل استخدامك للغة الانجليزية في حديثك اليومي في مكان العمل؟

- دائما (100%)
- في غالب الاحيان (حوالي 50% الى 80%)
- عادة (حوالي 20% الى 50%)
- احيانا (حوالي 10% الى 20%)
- نادرا (أقل من 10%)
- ابدا (0%)
- ذلك يتوقف على الوضع الذي انا فيه

15. هل تلعب مهارة اللغة الإنجليزية أي دور في الحصول على وظيفة في شركتك؟

- نعم، هي عامل ضروري في كل المناصب
- نعم، لكن في مناصب معينة فقط
- كلا، مناصب العمل لي لها اي علاقة بالتحكم في اللغة الانجليزية

16. أي من الحالات التالية تساهم في استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية أكثر؟ (يمكنك اختيار عدة اجابات)

- أثناء الاجتماع مع مدير الشركة
- أثناء الاجتماع مع موظفي ادارة الشركة
- أثناء الاجتماع مع أشخاص من شركة أخرى
- أثناء التحدث مع زملائي في الشركة

- أثناء التواصل وجهاً لوجه مع الأجانب
- أثناء التواصل عن بعد عبر الخط مع الأجانب (الهاتف ، البريد الإلكتروني ، دردشات فيسبوك ،

إلخ.)

عند التكليف بمهمات تجارية نحو بلدان اجنبية

أثناء تحرير التقارير الدورية الخاصة بالشغل

حالات اخرى: \_\_\_\_\_

17. مالداعي وراء استعمال اللغة الانجليزية على وجه التحديد في مثل هذه الحالات؟ (يمكنك اختيار عدة اجابات)

سياسة الشركة تتطلب استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية

لأن الأشخاص الذين نتحدث معهم يستخدمون اللغة الإنجليزية

الشعور بالراحة عند التحدث بالانجليزية

اللغة الإنجليزية هي لغة الشغل في الشركات بالجزائر

لممارسة اللغة الإنجليزية أكثر من أجل تحسين مهاراتي اللغوية

لأنني قادر على نقل أفكارى بشكل أكثر فعالية من خلال الحديث بالإنجليزية

اللغة الإنجليزية تسهل التواصل مع أشخاص من أصول مختلفة

اسباب اخرى: \_\_\_\_\_

18. وفقاً لخبرتك في الشركة ، ماهو تقديرك العام تجاه استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في شركتك؟

ان استخدام اللغة الانجليزية في تزايد مستمر

ان استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية كالمعتاد كما كان من قبل

ان استخدام اللغة الانجليزية في تناقص مستمر

لا اعلم

19. في أي أقسام الشركة يتم استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية أكثر؟

- التسويق (على سبيل المثال ، هندسة المبيعات ، الإعلان)
- التمويل (إدارة الأموال)
- إدارة العمليات (الإنتاج ، العمليات التجارية)
- الموارد البشرية
- الشركات التابعة للشركة الام
- مقر الشركة الام
- اقسام اخرى
- لا اعلم

20. ما العامل المساهم بشكل أكبر في توظيف اليد العاملة في الشركة؟

- الافراد ذوي المؤهلات في اللغة الانجليزية
- الافراد ذوي المؤهلات في لغة اخرى غير الانجليزية
- الأفراد المؤهلين في اللغة الإنجليزية والخبرة في العمل
- الأفراد المؤهلون بلغة غير الإنجليزية إلى جانب الخبرة العملية.
- الأفراد الذين لديهم خبرة في العمل بغض النظر عن مؤهلات اللغة.
- عوامل اخرى :

21. ما هي في رأيك أفضل سياسة لشركتك لاستخدام اللغة الإنجليزية؟

- اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة رسمية وحيدة للشركة
- اللغة الإنجليزية كأحد اللغات الرسمية للشركة (على سبيل المثال الإنجليزية والعربية)
- اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة رسمية وحيدة لبعض الاقسام في الشركة
- اللغة الإنجليزية كأحد اللغات الرسمية لبعض الاقسام في الشركة
- اقتراح اخر:

22. ما هو موقفك لو قامت الشركة بفرض الإنجليزية كلغة وحيدة للتواصل في مكان العمل؟

ذلك يشعرني بالاجابية لانها اللغة التي افضل استعمالها

ذلك يجعلني أحس بعدم الارتياح

يكون لي شعورا حياديا

أكون ممتنا لهذا القرار لأنه يتيح لي فرصة تحسين مستواي اللغوي

هذا أقل ما يجب فعله، فهي من ضمن متطلبات العمل

ميزات اخرى: \_\_\_\_\_

23. ما هي الميزات الايجابية التي تتيحها الكفاءة في اللغة الإنجليزية للمتحدثين بها في الشركة؟ (يمكنك اختيار عدة

اجابات)

فرص المشاركة في بعثات الشغل الممنوحة من قبل الشركة نحو الخارج

اللغة الإنجليزية هي وسيلة أساسية للحصول على مهارة العمل لأن قوانين الشركة تتطلب استخدام

اللغة الإنجليزية أثناء أداء مهام العمل.

تؤدي الكفاءة الأفضل في اللغة الإنجليزية إلى السماح بتقلد مناصب عمل افضل و الترقية فيها

ميزات اخرى: \_\_\_\_\_

24. مالذي يجب فعله من طرف الشركة لتعزيز مستوى استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية؟ (يمكنك اختيار عدة اجابات)

تكوين في اللغة تحت رعاية الشركة

على الشركة توظيف الافراد المتحصلين على شهادة تثبت تكوينهم في اللغة الانجليزية

توظيف المزيد من الموظفين الأجانب الذين يتحدثون الإنجليزية

تعيين اللغة الانجليزية كواحدة من اللغات الرسمية في الشركة

خلق جو يشجع الموظفين على استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية

تعيين حد أدنى لمتطلبات اللغة الإنجليزية من خلال اختبار المهارة للغة للموظفين الجدد

□ اقتراحات اخرى:

25. ما هي أهمية اللغة الإنجليزية للأفراد العاملين في الشركات التي تشتغل في الجزائر؟

□ اتقان اللغة الإنجليزية ضروري

□ اكتساب بعض المهارة في الإنجليزية على الأقل

□ اللغة الإنجليزية ضرورية للأشخاص الذين يشغلون وظائف معينة

□ اللغة الانجليزية ضرورية للأشخاص الذين يتواصلون بالاجانب فقط

□ اللغة الانجليزية ليست ضرورية

26. اذا كان لديك اي تعليق مهم او اي شيء يخص موضوع هذا الاستبيان، يكمنك اضافته هنا من فضلك؟

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شكرا جزيلا على اجابتك!

# Appendix C: Observation Checklist

WORKPLACE: RIG4, GWDC

LOCATION: HASSI MESAUD

DATE: \_\_\_\_\_

TIME \_\_\_\_\_

	Arabic	English	French	Others	Companyman	Management	Office staff	Fieldwork team
1	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
3	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
4	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
5	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
6	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
7	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
8	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
9	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
10	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
11	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
12	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
13	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
14	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
15	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
16	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
17	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
18	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
19	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
20	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
21	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
22	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
23	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
24	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				
25	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>				

NOTES: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
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## ملخص

هذه الأطروحة تتناول وضع اللغة الإنجليزية في بيئات الأعمال واسعة النطاق في السياق الاقتصادي الجزائري، لا سيما الشركات متعددة الجنسيات. مع توافر بعض الدراسات التي تناولت اللغة الإنجليزية في الشركات متعددة الجنسيات، إلا أنه لم يعالج أي منها قضية مكانة اللغة الإنجليزية وسط مؤسسات الشغل العالمية واسعة النطاق في الجزائر. إن أحد الأسس الداعمة لهذا البحث هو الأخذ البيهيمي بانتشار اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة المعمورة، وكذا الأدوار التي تلعبها كظاهرة لغوية عالمية للتواصل حتى بين متحدثيها الذين ليست لغتهم الأم. تعد اللغة الإنجليزية في المجال الصناعي على أنها إنجليزية التواصل المشترك للأعمال. في البحث الحالي، تم قياس وضع اللغة الإنجليزية في ثلاث شركات نفطية متعددة الجنسيات تعمل في الجزائر، إحداها شركة فرعية جزائرية (ENTP) واثنان من الجنسية الصينية (SINOPEC وGWDC). بتطبيق منهج قائم على المقارنة، تم اعتماد تصميم بحث وصفي، عن طريق اللجوء إلى استبيان وقائمة لملاحظة السلوك اللغوي في مكان العمل، تم جمع بيانات البحث من عينة مكونة من 123 عاملاً مشاركاً، والتي بدورها تضم ثلاث عينات فرعية من الشركات المعنية. تعتبر المقارنة أساساً هذه الدراسة عن طريق مقاربات بين وضع اللغة الإنجليزية والعربية والفرنسية وبعض اللغات الأخرى. تم إجراء تقييم حالة اللغة الإنجليزية على مستويين رئيسيين من القياس: داخل الشركات وعبرها. على المستوى المشترك بين الشركات، أظهرت النتائج أن هناك تقديراً واستخداماً للغة الإنجليزية أكثر من اللغات الأخرى في الشركات متعددة الجنسيات الأجنبية مقارنة باستخدامها ضمن الشركات الوطنية الجزائرية. على المستوى الداخلي للشركة، تظهر نتيجتان محددتان: من ناحية، تتنافس اللغة الإنجليزية بشكل خاص مع العربية والفرنسية داخل الشركات الوطنية الجزائرية، ومن ناحية أخرى، فإنه مع غياب شبه تام للفرنسية، فإن اللغة الإنجليزية في تكامل وظيفي مع اللغة العربية في الشركات الأجنبية متعددة الجنسيات مع عدد قليل من اللغات الأخرى ذات الدور الثانوي في التواصل. علاوة على ذلك، خلال عمليات التواصل المختلفة داخل بيئة مكان العمل، يكون مستوى اللغة الإنجليزية محددًا بالسياق ويندرج ضمن لغة مخصصة لمجتمع العمل، والتي هي مختلفة عن اللغة الإنجليزية العامة الرسمية. النتيجة الأخيرة تتعلق بسياسة اللغة. من خلال النتائج تبين أنه ليس هناك استراتيجيات تنظيمية واضحة فيما يتعلق متى يتم استخدام لغة معينة وفي أي مجال وموقف؛ وعليه يبدو أنه يتم بلورة الممارسات اللغوية بشكل أساسي من خلال السلم الهرمي للمناصب داخل الشركات وكذا العوامل السياقية.

**الكلمات المفتاحية:** الجزائر، اللغة الإنجليزية، إنجليزية التواصل المشترك للأعمال (BELF)، اللغة والاقتصاد،

الشركات متعددة الجنسيات، قيمة

## **Resumé**

La présente thèse est une enquête sur le statut de l'anglais dans le contexte des grandes entreprises dans les milieux économiques en Algérie, en particulier les entreprises multinationales. Peu de recherches ont ciblé l'anglais dans les multinationales, et aucune n'a abordé la question du statut de l'anglais au sein des grandes entreprises mondialisées en Algérie. L'une des présomptions fondamentales de cette recherche est la reconnaissance axiomatique de l'anglais répandu dans le monde entier et le rôle qu'elle joue en tant que phénomène linguistique mondial pour la communication, même parmi les non-autochtones. Au niveau de l'industrie, l'anglais est perçu comme un anglais des affaires en tant que Lingua Franca (BELF). Dans la présente recherche, le statut de la langue anglaise a été évalué dans trois multinationales pétrolières opérant en Algérie, dont l'une est une filiale algérienne (ENTP) et deux sont de nationalité chinoise (SINOPEC et GWDC). En appliquant une approche comparative, un modèle de recherche descriptive a été adopté. À l'aide d'un questionnaire et d'une liste de d'observation du comportement langagier sur le lieu de travail, les données de la recherche ont été collectées auprès de 123 travailleurs participants, regroupant trois sous-échantillons des entreprises concernées. La comparaison a essentiellement servi de base à la juxtaposition de la position de l'anglais à l'arabe, au français et à quelques autres langues. L'évaluation du statut de l'anglais a été menée à deux niveaux principaux de mesure: au sein et entre les entreprises. Au niveau inter-entreprises, les résultats démontrent qu'il y a plus d'appréciation et d'utilisation de l'anglais que les autres langues dans les multinationales étrangères par rapport aux nationales algériennes. Au niveau intra-entreprise, deux constats spécifiques se dégagent : d'une part, l'anglais est surtout

en concurrence avec l'arabe et le français au sein des entreprises nationales algériennes, et d'autre part, avec une absence semi-totale de français, l'anglais est plutôt en complémentarité avec l'arabe dans les multinationales étrangères le long de quelques langues plus périphériques. En outre, dans les différents processus de communication au sein des milieux de travail, le registre de langue anglaise est spécifique au contexte et se caractérise comme un jargon commercial différent de l'anglais général formel des locuteurs natifs. Le dernier constat concerne la politique linguistique. Il n'existe pas de stratégie organisationnelle claire concernant le moment d'utiliser quelles langues et quelles situations particulières; les pratiques linguistiques sont principalement éclairées par les positions hiérarchiques et les facteurs contextuels des organisations.

***Mots clés:** Algérie, Anglais, Anglais des Affaires en tant que Lingua Franca (AALF), Langue et Économie, Entreprises Multinationales, Statut*