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SECTION OF ENGLISH



**Manifestation of French Language Parts of Speech Adapted to the  
Linguistic System of Algerian Arabic Variety: Case Study of Student  
Population at the University of Ibn Khaldoun in Tiaret**

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirement for the Master  
degree in **Linguistics**

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## Dedication

*To my parents,*

*to my siblings and niece,*

*to my best friends,*

*to each and every individual who has ever believed in my  
potential.*

*(Meriem)*

## Dedication

*To my parents, Fatiha and Abd el razek, who were perpetually providing me with care and love,*

*to my husband, Ahmed, whose support I truly appreciate,*

*to all my classmates and friends here in Tiaret and in my hometown Jijel.*

*(Narimane)*

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## **List of Abbreviations and Acronyms**

**AA** Algerian Arabic

**CA** Classical Arabic

**CS** Code-switching

**H** High Variety

**L** Low Variety

**MSA** Modern Standard Arabic

## Phonetic Symbols of CA (Classical Arabic) & AA (Algerian Arabic)

### A) Consonants:

/ b / (ب)	as in / bent / ‘a girl’	(Voiced bilabial plosive)
/ f / (ف)	as in / ftah / ‘he opened’	(Voiceless labio-dental fricative)
/ m / (م)	as in / msaḥ / ‘he cleaned’	(Voiced bilabial nasal)
/ t / (ت)	as in / tefa:h / ‘apple’	(Voiceless alveolar plosive)
/ d / (د)	as in / di:n / ‘religion’	(Voiced alveolar plosive)
/ s / (س)	as in / sri:r / ‘bed’	(Voiceless alveolar fricative)
/ n / (ن)	as in / nsi:m / ‘fresh air’	(Voiced alveolar nasal)
/ z / (ز)	as in / za:wef / ‘bird’	(Voiced alveolar fricative)
/ θ / (ث)	as in / θmania / ‘eight’	(Voiceless dental fricative)
/ ð / (ذ)	as in / ði:b / ‘wolf’	(Voiced dental fricative)
/ ʃ / (ش)	as in / ʃta / ‘winter’	(Voiceless post-alveolar fricative)
/ tʃ / (ت ش)	as in / tʃi:na / ‘Oranges’	(Voiceless post-alveolar affricate)
/ ʒ / (ج)	as in / ʒbel / ‘mountain’	(Voiced post-alveolar fricative)
/ dʒ / (د ج)	as in / dʒuw / ‘weather’	(Voiced post-alveolar affricate)
/ r / (ر)	as in / raaʃ / ‘head’	(Alveolar trill)
/ l / (ل)	as in / la:kin / ‘but’	(Alveolar lateral)
/ k / (ك)	as in / ketba / ‘writing’	(Voiceless velar plosive)
/ g / (ق)	as in / ga:3 / ‘all’	(Voiced velar plosive)
/ χ / (خ)	as in / χa:tem / ‘ring’	(Voiced uvula fricative)
/ x / (ع)	as in / xa:li / ‘expensive’	(Voiceless velar fricative)
/ q / (ق)	as in / qdi:m / ‘old’	(Voiceless uvula plosive)
/ ħ / (ح)	as in / ħulm / ‘dream’	(Voiceless pharyngeal fricative)
/ ʕ / (ع)	as in / ajn / ‘eye’	(Voiced pharyngeal fricative)

/ h / (هـ) as in / hrab / ‘he fled’ (Voiceless glottal fricative)  
/ ʔ / (ء) as in / usra / ‘family’ (Glottal stop)

**B) Semi- vowels / Weak Consonants** حروف الين

/ w / (و) as in / warda / ‘flower’ (Voiced alveolar lateral)  
/ j / (ي) as in / jed / ‘hand’ (Voiced palatal semi-vowel)

**C) True Emphatics**

/ ʃ / (ص) as in / ʃaab / ‘he found’ (Voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative)  
/ t̤ / (ط) as in / t̤aja:ra / ‘plane’ (Voiceless valorized stop)  
/ d̤ / (ض) as in / d̤aw / ‘light’ (Voiced valorized stop)  
/ ð / (ظ) as in / ð olm / ‘injustice’ (Voiced valorized fricative)

**D) Vowels**

/ I / as in / qIʃʃa / ‘a story’ Front high spread  
/ æ / as in / hæ:mi / ‘hot’ Front mid-open unrounded  
/ a / as in / rma / ‘he shoot’ Back low unrounded  
/ α / as in / rα:ħ / ‘he left’ Back mid-open unrounded  
/ o: / as in / no:r / ‘light’ Back mid-open rounded  
/ u / as in / ru: ħ / ‘soul’ Back high rounded

**(Hemaidia, 2016)**

## **Abstract**

The present Master dissertation aims at investigating the adaptation of French language parts of speech to the linguistic system of Algerian Arabic Variety (AA). It seeks to find out the possible reasons behind this phenomenon as well as people's attitudes towards it. It also aims to explore how French parts of speech are adapted into the linguistic patterns of AA by describing the morphological and phonological processes involved in this adaptation. The needed Data for this research is collected through the use of a questionnaire and word list administered to 100 students at the University of Ibn Khaldoun in Tiaret. The main findings of this study show that most of the Algerians borrow French words for the sake of filling in lexical gaps and sometimes for the matter of prestige. The findings also show that Algerians have both positive and negative attitudes towards this sociolinguistic phenomenon.

**Key words:** Borrowing, French Language, Algerian Arabic, Parts of speech, Adaptation, Morphological adaptation, Phonological adaptation

**GENERAL  
INTRODUCTION**



## **Topic**

The diversity of languages within a given place leads to the emergence of language contact: a sociolinguistic phenomenon, which occurs when speakers of different languages interact and their languages influence one another.

Throughout history, Algeria had been the target of several colonizations; the contact with foreign populations played a significant role in making it a multilingual country, where several language varieties exist side by side and are used by speakers in their everyday interactions. Consequently, the contact between the speakers of these language varieties gives rise to sociolinguistic phenomena such as borrowing. This latter refers to the process of importing linguistic items from one language into another.

During the French Colonization of Algeria, French language had had a big influence on Algerian Arabic, and this linguistic impact can be seen in the large number of French words it comprises in its lexical inventory. If one closely observes the daily interactions amongst Algerians, they will notice that most of them frequently integrate French words in their speech, and sometimes they adapt them to sound more Arabic than French.

## **Motivation**

The incentive behind choosing this topic derives from our desire to explore the sociolinguistic phenomenon of French word borrowing in Algeria, and to find out the possible reasons behind it. Because of our interactions with Tiartian people during the five years we have spent as students at the university of Ibn khaldoun, we noticed that, like many Algerians, students very often integrate adapted French words in their speech, this is why we decided to investigate this phenomenon at the university.

## **Research Aim**

The Present research work is devoted to investigating French word borrowing in Algeria. It seeks to find out the possible reasons behind this phenomenon as well as people's attitudes towards it. Furthermore, it aims to explore how French parts of speech are adapted into the linguistic patterns of AA by describing the morphological and phonological processes involved in this adaptation (these descriptions include nouns, verbs, and adjectives only; Hence, other parts of speech such as adverbs are not included).

To set forth in a coherent study of the stated phenomenon, the following research questions are put forward:

## **Research Questions**

1. What are the possible reasons behind Algerians' borrowing of French words?
2. How can French word borrowing be measured in terms of value to the Algerian speech communities?
3. What kind of processes do French parts of speech undergo when being adapted to Algerian Arabic?

The following hypotheses are suggested as tentative answers to the above questions.

## **Hypotheses**

- 1- Algerians borrow French words to fill in lexical gaps and sometimes for the sake of prestige.
- 2- The Algerian speech communities have both positive and negative attitudes towards French word borrowing.
- 3- When being adapted to Algerian Arabic, French parts of speech undergo certain Morphological and Phonological processes.

## **Methodology**

The needed data for this research is collected through the use of two main research tools; a questionnaire, and word list.

The questionnaire is used for the sake of knowing people's attitudes towards the phenomenon of French word borrowing and the possible reasons behind it.

The word list is directed to the participants for the sake of collecting data about how French parts of speech are adapted to Tiartian Arabic variety.

As for the sample population, it consists of students from the University of Ibn Khaldoun in Tiaret. A number of 100 informants, aged between 18-30 are selected randomly from different levels and specialties, so as to get diversified results.

## **PROCESS**

This research work includes a general introduction, four chapters, and a general conclusion. Each chapter starts with an introduction, and ends with a conclusion.

**The general introduction** is devoted to the aims of the research, and to a brief discussion of the subject.

**The first chapter** is the theoretical review, which seeks to introduce some of the linguistic concepts that are directly or indirectly related to our research work. It provides an overall explanation of the sociolinguistic phenomenon of language contact along with some of its outcomes.

**The second chapter** highlights the sociolinguistic situation of post independent Algeria. It describes the language varieties that exist in the country: Arabic (CA, MSA, ADA), Berber, and French, and it sheds light on some of the language contact outcomes that have resulted from the contact between these varieties.

**The third chapter** focuses on the phenomenon of AA-French borrowing. It provides descriptions of the morphological and phonological processes that are involved in the adaptation of French parts of speech into AA.

**The fourth and the last chapter** of this research is the field work, which is devoted to Data analysis and interpretations of the obtained results.

Finally, a general conclusion on the findings is supplied.

# CHAPTER ONE

## **Chapter I: The Phenomenon of Language Contact**

### **Introduction**

#### **I.1. Language Contact**

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###### **I.1.2.3.2. Broad vs. Narrow Diglossia**

###### **I.1.2.4. Borrowing**

###### **I.1.2.4.1. Ways of Borrowing**

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###### **I.1.2.4.2.3.3 Loan-shifts**

###### **I.1.2.4.3. Reasons for Borrowing**

###### **I.1.2.4.4. Borrowing vs Code-switching**

### **Conclusion**

## **Introduction**

This chapter seeks to introduce some linguistic concepts, which are related to our study. It starts by providing definitions for the sociolinguistic phenomenon of language contact, and then it sheds light on some of its types (language maintenance, language shift, and language creation).

Moreover, since contact between different languages results in a wide variety of outcomes, the largest section of this chapter is devoted to discussing the latter. It first introduces bilingualism and code-switching along with their types, and then it defines diglossia with its characteristics, lastly, it takes a closer look at borrowing, as the outcome with the more direct link to our research work.

### **I.1 Language Contact**

Language contact has been a central point of interest ever since historical linguists (philologists) had come to realize that all languages influence one another on different levels and that no language is free of foreign elements. Most languages have been influenced at some point or another by contact, resulting in varying degrees of transfer of features. Therefore, Language contact is a social and linguistic phenomenon, which occurs when speakers of different languages interact and their languages influence one another. In **Weinreich's** view, **"two or more languages are said to be in contact if they are used alternately by the same persons."** (1957: 1)

According to **Diebold (1964:496)** **"Contact and convergence between two different languages or cultures results in a sociological situation wherein the same individual learns elements from a linguistic or cultural system other than his native system."**

What he makes it clear in his definition is that language contact takes place when individuals are exposed to other languages and cultures, and as a result, they end up learning linguistic and cultural features that are foreign to them.

Thomason defines the phenomenon as follows:

**The use of more than one language in the same place at the same time. It isn't hard to imagine a situation in which this definition might be too simple: for instance, if two groups of young travelers are speaking two different languages while cooking their meals in the kitchen of a youth hostel, and if each group speaks only one language, and if there is no verbal interaction between the groups, then this is language contact only in the most trivial sense.**

(2001:1)

She highlights the importance of verbal interaction among individuals whose languages are in contact; this sociolinguistic phenomenon takes place only when speakers of different languages verbally interact with one another.

### **I.1.1 Processes that Take Place during Language Contact**

Three Processes take place when language contact occurs; language maintenance, language shift, and Language creation.

#### **I.1.1.1 Language Maintenance**

The term language maintenance is used to refer to a situation whereby a speaker, a group of speakers, or a community attempt to keep their language continually used in all domains of life, despite the competition with the dominant language (language of the majority). In other words, it denotes the constant use of a language towards a regionally and socially more powerful language. An example on that is



the Peruvians' continuing use of Quechua, their indigenous language, in the face of competition with Spanish.

### **I.1.1.2 Language Shift**

Contact between different linguistic groups can lead to language shift; this latter refers to a situation by which one language replaces another in a given society; therefore, becoming the primary medium of communication and socialization. In other words, it is the partial or total abandonment of a group's native language in favour of another, the case of the shift from Irish to English in Ireland, and the shift from Scottish Gaelic to English in Scotland.

### **I.1.1.3 Language Creation**

In addition to language maintenance and shift, there exist other types of language contact situations, which lead to the creation of new language varieties; that is to say, Pidgins and Creoles, which involve an extensive mixture of features from more than one language. This can be illustrated in the example of Haitian Creole which incorporates features from West African languages and French; Jamaican Patois which is an English based Creole with West African influences.

## **I.1.2 Outcomes of Language Contact**

Contact between people speaking different languages can lead to a wide variety of outcomes. Some of them are discussed in the following subsections.

### **I.1.2.1 Bilingualism**

Bilingualism is a complex linguistic phenomenon that has sparked the attention of many scholars and linguists over time. Many definitions and theories have been offered as explanations for this concept, and they vary from one linguist to another. On the general sense the term Bilingual refers to an individual who can use two different unrelated languages. One of the simplest definitions for this phenomenon was provided by Weinreich he states that

**“The practice of alternately using two languages will be called bilingualism and the person involved, bilingual.”**

**(1953: 1)**

Bonvillian argues that the term bilingualism can be used to refer to individuals as well as communities, she maintains that

**"The term applies both to individual speakers who know two languages, and to communities in which two languages are employed by many, most, or all members."**

**(2003: 406)**

**Bloomfield (1933: 55)** has another view of bilingualism. He sees it in terms of **“Native-like control of two languages.”** He stresses the importance of proficiency; this means that an individual is considered bilingual only if they master the four skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) of the two languages.

In contrast with Bloomfield, **Macnamara (1967:59)** argues that a bilingual is **“Anyone who possesses a minimal competence in one of the four language skills other than his mother tongue.”** His definition implies that if a monolingual speaker possesses a minimal competence in, for example, the speaking skill of a second language, then they are considered bilingual. In other words, if they can read a text in a second language, even without understanding the meaning of words, then this qualifies them as Bilingual. In the same line with Macnamara, **Myers-Scotton** states that **“Being bilingual does not imply complete mastery of two languages.”**  
**(2006:3)**

### **I.1.2.1.1 Societal vs. Individual Bilingualism**

Individual bilingualism refers to the ability of an individual to acquire and use a second language. Discussions about individual bilingualism usually focus on characteristics such as the speaker's age of acquisition, the way each language was acquired (mother tongue learning, second language learning, or foreign language learning), language dominance, and ability (the functions that the speaker can perform in each language; For example, carrying on a casual conversation, giving a lecture, and so on).

Societal bilingualism, on the other hand, refers to the use of more than one language in a given society. Most countries have more than one language that is spoken by a significant portion of the population.

### **I.1.2.1.2 Types of Bilinguals**

According to **Weinreich (1953)**, there are three types of bilinguals namely; compound, coordinate, and subordinate bilinguals.

#### **I.1.2.1.2.1 Compound Bilinguals**

They are those who learn both languages in the same context and situation. For them, words from L1 and L2 have the same meaning.

#### **I.1.2.1.2.2 Coordinate Bilinguals**

It refers to those who learn the two languages in different contexts and situations. They have two systems of meanings for words; one is for words that the speakers know in L1 and the other is for words that they know in L2.

### **I.1.2.1.2.3 Subordinate Bilinguals**

Where linguistic codes of second language bilinguals are assumed to be understood by and interpreted through their first language (L1).

### **I.1.2.2 Code-switching (CS)**

One of the most important aspects for individuals to be bilinguals or multilinguals is their ability to use two or more linguistic varieties within the same discourse. It is undeniable that individuals who speak more than one language can produce an utterance, or express a given idea in one code, and then switch to another one without affecting the meaning or changing it outright. This sociolinguistic phenomenon is known as code-switching. It has been defined differently by different scholars over time. **Grosjean** defines it as being **“the alternate use of two or more languages in the same utterance or conversation.” (1982:145)** In his view, this phenomenon occurs between two or more standard languages. For instance, a group of speakers switch back and forth between English and French in their conversation. As opposed to Grosjean, **Gumperz** argues that code-switching occurs not only between standard languages, but also between dialects; he defines this linguistic phenomenon as

**“The juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or sub-systems.  
(1982: 59)**

Sharing nearly the same view with Gumperz, **Trudgill** Maintains that code switching is **“The process whereby bilingual or bidialectal speakers switch back and forth between one language or dialect and another within the same conversation.” (2003: 23)**

From all of the above definitions, one can say that Code-switching is the speakers’ ability to switch back and forth between two or more language varieties within the same discourse.

### I.1.2.2.1 Types of Code-switching

In their language interactions, in the same discourse, individuals very often switch from a linguistic code to another so as to make their counterparts grasp their own thoughts. This switch occurs at the level of sentence boundaries or within the sentence itself. **Poplack (1980: 613-615)** identifies three distinctive types of code switching; Inter-sentential, Intra-sentential and Tag code-switching.

#### I.1.2.2.1.1 Inter-sentential CS

It refers to the alternation between two languages in a single discourse, where the switching occurs within sentence boundaries. It is considered as the most complex type of code switching; since it requires a strong command of grammar and syntactic rules in order to switch properly. This point is illustrated in the following examples:

- «**I wish I can get 9 hours of uninterrupted sleep. Je suis très fatigué.**»  
(I wish I can get 9 hours of uninterrupted sleep, I am very tired.)  
→ English +French.
- «**I can't wait for this lockdown to be over. [kraht mel gʃad fi dɔdɑr].**»  
(I can't wait for this lockdown to be over. I am tired of staying indoors.)  
→ English + Algerian Arabic (AA).
- «**Cet exercice est très difficile, j'ai pris un long temps pour le résoudre. [ku:n xi neddi ʔaya].** »  
(This homework is so difficult, I spent so much time doing it. I hope I will get a good mark.) → French + AA.

#### I.1.2.2.1.2 Intra-sentential CS

This type involves a shift in language in the middle of a sentence, usually performed without pause, interruption, or hesitation.

**For example:**

- The title of Poplack's (1980) article «**Sometimes I'll Start a Sentence in Spanish y Termino en Español**» (sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish and finish It in Spanish). → English+ Spanish.
- «**Ich habe so Hunger, I can eat a horse.**» (I am so hungry, I can eat a horse) → German + English.

### **I.1.2.2.1.3 Tag Switching**

It takes place when a tag phrase or word is inserted from one language to another. Tags include interjections, fillers, and idiomatic expressions. This type of code switching is simple and does not require a great command of both languages. **For example:**

- «**Heute ist sein Geburtstag, right?**» (Today is his birthday, right?) → German + English.
- «**Oh my god! [χalit lba:b mahhlou:l]**» (Oh my God! I left the door unlocked.) → English + AA.

According to **Bloom and Gumperz (1972:52)** there are two types of Code-switching: Situational and Metaphorical.

Situational CS occurs when the languages used change according to the situations in which the speakers find themselves; they speak one language in one situation and another in a different one. Whereas Metaphorical CS takes place when a change in the topic requires a change in the language used.

### **I.1.2.2.2 Code-switching vs Code-mixing**

Some scholars use these terms interchangeably, while others view the two as distinct. Bokamba defines both concepts as follows:

**Code-switching is the mixing of words, phrases and sentences from two distinct grammatical (sub) systems across sentence boundaries within the same speech event... code-mixing is the embedding of various linguistic units such as affixes (bound morphemes), words (unbound morphemes), phrases and clauses from a co-operative activity where the participants, in order to infer what is intended, must reconcile what they hear with what they understand.**  
(1989:278)

He explains that the difference between the two codes is that Code-switching occurs at the inter-sentential level (Across sentence boundaries); whereas code-mixing occurs at the intra-sentential level (As being part of the sentence; it can be at the level of a word, a phrase or a clause).

### **I.1.2.3 Diglossia**

In sociolinguistics, the term "diglossia" refers to a situation where two distinct varieties of the same language are used side by side for two different sets of functions. It was first introduced into English by the American linguist Ferguson in the late 1950s. He used this concept to describe the sociolinguistic situation of Arabic countries, the German, the Greek, and the Haitian communities. He defines it as follows:

**A relatively stable language situation in which, in addition To the primary dialects of the language (which may include A standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often grammatically more complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by any sector of the community for ordinary conversation.**

**Ferguson (1959: 336)**

### I.1.2.3.1 Broad vs. Narrow Diglossia

The concept of diglossia introduced by **Ferguson** is usually referred to as Narrow or Classical diglossia; this latter concerns two distinct varieties of the same language, which are used side by side in a given community, with one regarded as the high variety (H) and the other as the low variety (L). An example on this would be Modern Standard Arabic (H) and Algerian Arabic (L) in Algeria.

Later on, Ferguson's original concept of diglossia was modified by **Joshua Fishman (1967)**. He generalized the concept to bilingual communities, and expanded its definition (Broad Diglossia). He hypothesized that diglossia could occur in any situation where two language varieties, even unrelated ones, are used in functionally distinct ways. An example on this would be Nigeria, where English is the country's Official language (therefore the H variety), and French the country's National language (therefore the L variety).

### I.1.2.3.2 Characteristics of Diglossia

Ferguson introduced nine characteristics of diglossia to distinguish between (H) and (L) varieties. They are as follows:

**1- Function** The high and the low variety are used in different domains; therefore, each one of them has its own set of functions. Ferguson (1959:329). provides a sample, listing the possible situations in which H and L are normally used:

	H	L
Sermon in church or mosque	x	
Instructions to servants, waiters, workmen, clerks		x
Personal letter	x	
Speech in parliament, political speech	x	
University lecture	x	
Conversation with family, friends, colleagues		x
News broadcast	x	
Radio "soap opera"		x
Newspaper editorial, news story, caption on picture	x	
Caption on political cartoon		x
Poetry	x	
Folk literature		x



**2- Prestige** The high variety is more prestigious than the low variety; speakers' attitudes towards it are more positive.

**3- Literary heritage** All the literature is written in the H variety, except for what is known as folk literature, which is written in L.

**4- Acquisition** The low variety is the mother tongue of speakers; therefore, it is acquired before the high variety. The latter comes after, as it is learned in schools.

**5- Standardization** The H variety is standardized, because its grammars and dictionaries are written by native grammarians, whereas the L variety is not standardized.

**6- Grammar** The grammar of the high variety is more complex than the one of the low variety; grammatical categories of (H) may not be available in (L), and the inflectional system of nouns and verbs of H is often reduced or completely absent in L.

**For instance,** In AA (L) there is an absence of dual personal pronouns; therefore, the inflectional suffix [u] is used as a marker for both plural and duality in the imperfect tense. Consider the following example: [Fatima w Tulipe dakhluu.] /daχlu/ is used instead of /daχalata/. (Fatima and Tulipe entered.)

**7- Lexicon** The bulk of the vocabulary of (H) and (L) is shared, but with differences in form and variations in use and meaning.

**For instance,** in MSA the term قبيح /qabi:h/ is an adjective that means 'ugly'; while in AA the same term (with slight differences) /qbi:h/ can mean 'ill-mannered'.

**8- Phonology** (H) and (L) share the same phonological elements; However, (H) has more complicated morphophonemics.

**For instance,** MSA has diacritics that are not used in AA.

**9- Stability** The diglossic situation in a given country is relatively stable; it can persist for several centuries, and in some cases seems to last for a thousand years.

#### **I.1.2.4 Borrowing**

People sometimes use words from other languages for the sake of explaining, describing, expressing, or even clarifying a given idea. This sociolinguistic phenomenon, which is known as borrowing refers to the process of importing linguistic items from one linguistic system into another. **Thomason & Kaufman** define it as “**The incorporation of foreign elements into the speakers’ native language.**” (1988: 21)

According to **Gumperz**:

**Borrowing can be defined as the introduction of single word or short, frozen, idiomatic phrases from one variety (i.e. language), into the grammatical system of the borrowing language and they are treated as if they are part of lexicon of that language and share the morphological and phonological system of the language.**

(1982: 66)

He explains that borrowed words usually undergo certain morphological and phonological adaptations, so that they can fit the patterns of the recipient language. In the same line with Gumperz, **Hudson** states that

**“... borrowing involves mixing the systems themselves, because an item is ‘borrowed’ from one language to become part of another language.”**

(1996:55)

When the source and the recipient language have different phonological and morphological systems, speakers may need to adapt the borrowed words to make them usable in the recipient language. These adaptations may include phonological

and morphological processes like phoneme substitution, prefix and suffix attachment, verb inflection and so on.

#### **I.1.2.4.1 Ways of Borrowing**

There are several ways in borrowing adaptation. Words can be borrowed either directly or indirectly.

##### **I.1.2.4.1.1 Direct Borrowing**

It occurs when a word is transferred from one language to another without the help of other languages. In this case, the borrowed word does not undergo major phonological or orthographical changes.

##### **I.1.2.4.1.2 Indirect Borrowing**

It occurs when a word is passed on from one language to another through a third language. In this case, it is adjusted phonologically to fit the phonological system of the recipient language. In this respect Katamba states that

**“if a word is directly borrowed, the chances of it undergoing drastic phonological change are considerably less than those of a word that is indirectly borrowed.”**

**(1994:191)**

##### **I.1.2.4.2 Types of Borrowing**

According to different linguistics, there are several types of borrowing

#### **I.1.2.4.2.1 Cultural Borrowing**

According to **Myers-scotton** cultural borrowings are elements, which are borrowed to fill lexical gaps. They refer to concepts that are unfamiliar to the speakers of the recipient language. They are often introduced along with a new concept. She explains:

**“Cultural borrowings are words that fill gaps in the recipient language’s store of words because they stand of objects or concepts new to the language’s culture”**

**(2006: 212)**

**For instance:** the borrowing of English modern and technological terms such as internet, website, software, and selfie.

#### **I.1.2.4.2.2 Core Borrowing**

It refers to borrowed elements that correspond to elements that already exist in the recipient language; in other words, they are adopted despite the fact that a word for the same concept already exists in the recipient language. As stated by Myers-scotton:

**"Core borrowings are words that duplicate elements that the recipient language already has in its word store...Then why are they borrowed? One answer is cultural pressure..."**

**(2006:215)**

**For instance:** Algerians’ borrowing of French words like ‘Chambre’ /ʁorfa/ 'غرفة' ‘Chambra’ ; Poile /midfaʕa/ 'امدفئة' ; Stylo /qalam/ 'قلم' ; Cartable /miħfaɖa/ 'محفظة'

#### **1.1.2.4.2.3 Haugen’s Classification of Borrowing**

**Haugen (1950)** classifies borrowing into three categories; loanword, loan-blends, and loan-shifts.

#### 1.1.2.4.2.3.1 Loanwords

The term refers to words that are borrowed both in form and in meaning. They may undergo a process of phonetic integration into the structures of the recipient language. According to their level of adaptation, loanwords can be described as unassimilated, partly assimilated, and fully assimilated.

For example: ‘**La poste**’ from French to AA; this would result in ‘Bochta’ 'بوشطا' /buʃtɑ/; ‘**Villa**’ from Latin to English; ‘**Algebra**’ from Arabic 'الجبر' /aldʒabr/ to English; the Arabic 'الكحول' /alkuħu:l/ to the English ‘**Alcohol**’

#### 1.1.2.4.2.3.2 Loan-blends (Hybrid Loanwords)

They result from both a morphemic substitution and importation. That is to say, some part of the form of a foreign word is borrowed, while some part is replaced with native material.

For example: the term ‘**monolingual**’ has a Greek prefix and a Latin root.

#### 1.1.2.4.2.3.3 Loan-shifts

They are words which show morphemic substitution without importation, or the ones in which the meaning is imported without the foreign form. They result from the extension of a meaning in the recipient language so as to correspond to that of a word in the source language (semantic loans or semantic extensions), or from the importation of a morpheme arrangement from this language (loan translation or calque).

**For example:** ‘**Langue Maternelle**’ (French) to Mother tongue (English); ‘**Pomme d’Adam**’ (French) to ‘**Adam’s apple**’ (English).

### I.1.2.4.3 Reasons for Borrowing

Speakers may borrow words from other languages for many reasons, but the main ones are need and prestige.

According to Hudson:

**One reason for using a word from such a language is to pretend, just for a moment, to be a native speaker with whatever social characteristics we associated with the stereotype. Another reason, of course, is that there is simply no other available word, in which case the link to the country may be irrelevant, or at least unintended. In some countries all loan-words are frowned upon because of their foreign associations, so steps have to be taken to invent native words with the same meaning.**

(1996: 55)

In linguistically diverse societies, one language may be regarded as more prestigious than the others for some reason; as a result, the speakers of the less prestigious languages try to give the impression that they are competent in the prestigious language by using some of its words and expressions in their speech. For instance, in Algeria, French enjoys more prestige than the other language varieties, for this reason, some speakers tend to integrate a lot of French words in their Speech.

Speakers may sometimes find themselves obliged to use words from other languages, simply because they have no equivalent for them in their language; in other words, they borrow them in order to fill lexical gaps in the recipient language.

### I.1.2.4.4 Borrowing vs Code-switching

Many linguists have attempted to make a clear distinction between code-switching and borrowing.

According to Spolsky:

**The switching of words is the beginning of borrowing, which occurs when the new word is more or less integrated into the second language. One bilingual individual using a word from language A in language B is a case of switching, but when people do, even speakers of B who don't know A are likely to pick it up. At this stage, especially if the pronunciation and morphology have been adapted, we can say the word has been borrowed.**

**(1998:49)**

What he makes clear in the above quotation is that code-switching requires language competency in bilinguals, as opposed to borrowing, which can be done even by monolingual speakers who are unfamiliar with the source language. Moreover, borrowing may involve morphological and phonological adaptations.

In Gumperz' view:

**Borrowing can be defined as the introduction of single words or short, frozen, idiomatic phrases from one variety (i.e., language), into the other. The borrowed items are fully integrated into the grammatical system of the borrowing language and they are treated as if they are part of the lexicon of that language and share the morphological and phonological systems of that language. Code switching by contrast relies on the meaningful juxtaposition of what speakers must process as strings formed according to the internal syntactic rules of two distinct systems.**

**(1982: 66)**

That is to say, borrowing is different from code switching in that the former involves mixing the systems themselves (an item is borrowed from one language to become part of another one through the process of integration); while the latter involves mixing languages while speaking.

In Myers-scotton's view there is no distinction between code switching and borrowing; she considers them as quite related processes, she states that

**“Borrowed forms may be the result of words introduced into a host language through code switching after an indefinite period of time and frequency of use.”**

**(1993:182-183)**

This means that, when speakers code-switch, they introduce new words and expressions into the recipient language, and the frequent use of these words gives birth to borrowing.

### **Conclusion**

This chapter provides an overall explanation of the sociolinguistic phenomenon of language contact. It sheds light on some of its outcomes, which are more or less related to our research work, including bilingualism, code-switching, diglossia, with a special focus on borrowing.

From what has been discussed, one can conclude that language contact situations lead to the emergence of new linguistic practices that pave the way to new areas of investigation for sociolinguists as well as researchers.



CHAPTER

TWO

## **Chapter II : Algeria's Sociolinguistic Profile**

Introduction

### **II.1. Language Situation in post-independent Algeria**

#### **II.1.1. Arabic**

##### **II.1.1.1. Classical Arabic (CA)**

##### **II.1.1.2. Modern Standard Arabic (MSA)**

##### **II.1.1.3. Algerian Arabic (AA)**

#### **II.1.2 French**

#### **II.1.3 Berber**

### **II.2 The Outcomes of Language Contact in Algeria**

#### **II.2.1 AA / French Bilingualism**

#### **II.2.2 Diglossia in Algeria**

#### **II.2.3 AA/ French Code-switching**

#### **II.2.4 AA-French Borrowing**

Conclusion

## **Introduction**

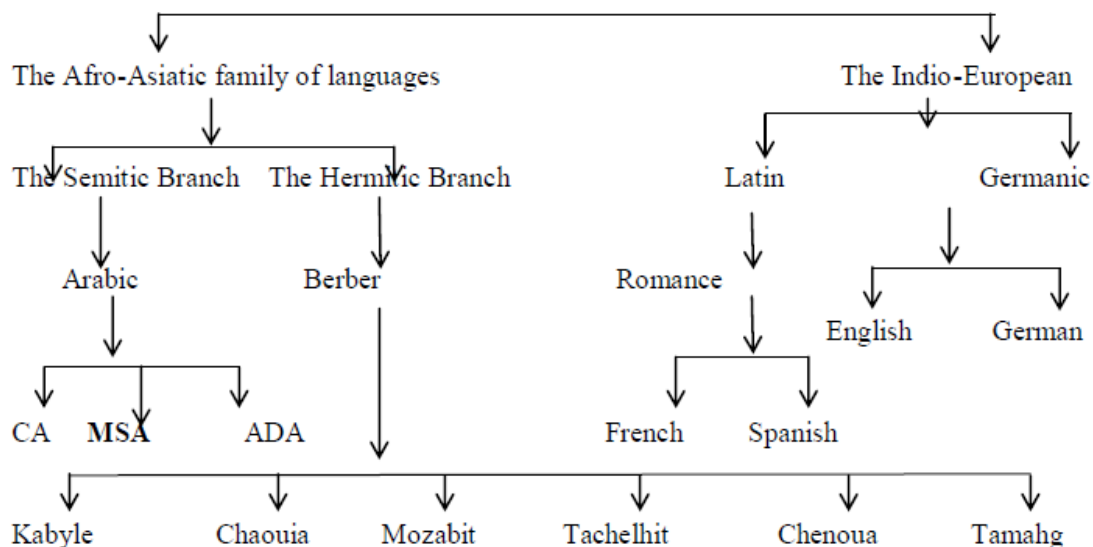
This chapter discusses Algeria's sociolinguistic profile; it is divided into two parts. The first part deals with the language situation in post-independent Algeria; it starts by giving a general overview of the languages and language varieties that have coexisted in the country namely: Arabic (MSA, ADA, CA), Berber, and French, and then it discusses each one of them in much more detail. The second part deals with some of the language contact outcomes that have appeared in the country, as a result of the contact between these language varieties; it first introduces AA-French bilingualism, next it sheds light on diglossia, and then it discusses AA-French code-switching and borrowing, followed by illustrating examples to better understand the phenomena.

### **II.1 Language Situation in Post-independent Algeria**

Due to its strategic continental location, Algeria had been the target of several invasions and conquests throughout different periods in history, starting from the Phoenicians to the French colonization in 1830. This contact with foreign populations resulted in making it a melting pot, that is characterized by the coexistence of a wide range of languages and language varieties that are both genetically related and unrelated.

After the independence in 1962, three languages have coexisted in the Algerian society; Arabic (CA/ MSA/AA), Berber along with its varieties, and French. The three of them belong to different language families, as is shown in (figure1).

Modern Standard Arabic and Berber are specified to be the official languages of Algeria, as mentioned in its constitution of 1963 for the former and 2016 for the latter. Algerian Arabic is the most commonly used language variety in the Algerian speech communities. As for French, it is widely used in different spheres within the Algerian society, but despite this, it lacks official status.



**Figure II. 1 Languages Existing in Algeria (Berrabah, 2014:10)**

Each of the aforementioned varieties of language is discussed in much more detail in the following subsections, starting with Arabic.

### II.1.1 Arabic

Arabic is a member of the West Semitic group of the Semitic subdivision of the Afro-asiatic language family. It is usually ranked among the top six of the world's major languages, comprising more than 400 million speakers. It is an official language in 22 countries. Moreover, as the language of the Qur'an, the holy book of Islam, it is widely used throughout the Muslim world.

The spread and the rapid growth of the Arabic language occurred as a result of the Islamic conquests that took place in the 7th century CE. **Farghaly (2010)** shows that Arabic language evolved from an obscure and non-prestigious language to a major world language after the Islamic conquest. **(qtd in. Al-Huri,2015:29)**

Through these conquests, it made its way to North Africa. In Algeria, Arabic takes three different forms; Classical Arabic (CA), Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), and Algerian Arabic (AA).

### II.1.1.1 Classical Arabic (CA)

Classical Arabic has a certain prestige; it is considered by many to be the perfect form of Arabic, and this is because it is the language in which the Holy Quran was revealed to Prophet Muhammad. At the time the Quran was being written, there were seven dialects of classical Arabic, it was written in all of them, but the Quraishi became the standard upon which the text of today's Quran is based.

Fleish explains why CA is considered as the language of prestige, he writes:

**“Classical Arabic has the prestige, an immense prestige which is multiplied by two because it is twofold: the prestige of a great language of culture... and that of a language of religion.”**

**(1964:3)**

In the 20th century, Regional Academies of Classical Arabic begun a process of language reform; they focused mainly on updating and expanding the language's vocabulary to make it suitable for modern times. These updates resulted in what is known today as Modern Standard Arabic.

In the Algerian society today, the use of Classical Arabic is solely restricted to Islamic practices or to studying old literary works. The former includes practices like reading the Qur'an, performing prayer or studying Sharia and Islamic law; the latter includes studying ancient poetry and prose.

### II.1.1.2 Modern Standard Arabic (MSA)

As previously mentioned, Modern Standard Arabic was derived from Classical Arabic; it is considered a simplified version of it. Its grammar and vocabulary are simple, and this is because it has evolved and dropped some of the archaic words and phrases that are not part of contemporary usage; moreover, it has added new technical and scholarly terms to meet the modern needs. **Kerma** states that **“It is a modern literary form derived from CA to meet social and linguistics needs.”** **(2018:35)**

MSA enjoys the prestige of being an official language in all Arabic speaking countries, not only this, but it also serves as an intelligible means of communication among all Arabic speakers in the world at large. In this respect, Ennaji describes it as being

**“... Standardized and codified to the extent that it can be understood by different Arabic speakers in the Maghreb and in the Arab World at large. It has the characteristics of a modern language serving as the vehicle of a universal culture.”**

(1991:19)

When speakers from different Arabic countries interact, they sometimes find it difficult to understand one another, and this is because their Arabic varieties might not be mutually intelligible, so they turn to Modern Standard Arabic for mutual intelligibility. Furthermore, Said explains that MSA is

**“that variety of Arabic that is found in contemporary books, newspapers, magazines and that is used orally in Formal speech, public lectures and television.”**

(Said 1967: 12)

In Algeria, Modern Standard Arabic has been the official and the first national language since 1962. It is used in public speeches, magazines, books, newspapers, official documents, and business-related materials. However, despite its high status, MSA is not anyone's mother tongue; people only learn it in schools.

### **II.1.1.3 Algerian Arabic (AA)**

AA is the informal variety of Arabic that is spoken by 85% of the Algerian population as their mother tongue; that is to say, it is acquired effortlessly at home, unlike MSA, which requires schooling. Furthermore, it is used in informal settings and casual interactions; it serves as a medium of communication among Algerian speakers. Although AA is not a codified variety of language, its use is not limited

to spoken interactions; people often write it using either the Standard Arabic or the Latin script, and this is, most of the time, the case for internet chatting or mobile texting.

It is worth mentioning that AA is quite different from the other varieties of Arabic that are spoken around the world, and this is, in fact, due to the contact that Algeria had had with other civilizations and cultures throughout history. AA had been influenced by several languages and language varieties; this explains why it comprises a large number of words and expressions from Berber, French, Spanish, Turkish, and so on.

According to Taleb Ibrahim *spoken Arabic in Algeria* [...] is spread over four major geographical areas, each with its own linguistic features:

**(1) Western Algerian Arabic used in an area which extends from the Moroccan border to Tnes. (2) Central Algerian Arabic spoken in the central zone which extends to Bejaia and includes Algiers and its surroundings. (3) Eastern Algerian Arabic spoken in the High Plateaus around Setif, Constantine, Annaba and extends to the Tunisian border. (04) Saharan Algerian Arabic spoken by around 100.000 inhabitants in the Sahara Desert.**

**(qtd in. Kaplan & Baldauf, 2002: 35)**

Some AA varieties are mutually intelligible, while others are not, and this most of the time depends on the distance between the geographical areas in which these varieties are spoken; that is to say, speakers from the far east would find it difficult to understand speakers from the far west, but speakers from the same geographical area would easily understand one another.

## II.1.2 French

Before 1830, Standard Arabic was the only official language in Algeria, but this changed during the period of the French colonization when authorities and decision-makers made French the only official language of the country; thus, lowering the status of Standard Arabic. The latter was perceived as inferior and random, while French was perceived as modern and prestigious. However, after independence, this situation was reversed as Standard Arabic gained back its official status, and French was made a first foreign language.

French had had a great impact on the Algerian speech-repertoire; this explains why even after more than five decades of independence, it is still present in different spheres of the Algerian society.

Concerning the Fields of its application, French is used alongside MSA in official settings, although it has neither an official nor a national status. It is taught as a compulsory subject from the third grade in primary education until university. Moreover, it is used in the health sector, administrations, and media. Concerning the latter, there is a radio station (**Chaîne3**) as well as a national television channel (**Canal Algerie**), which broadcast in French daily. In addition to this, numerous newspapers, books, and magazines are frequently published in French. Eveno writes:

**“In fact, a lot of Algerians have some notions of French, receive French programmes by television, and have relationships with emigrants settling in France. On another hand, a lot of teachers and institutors learnt in French and French universities still accept Algerians”**

**(1994, 103)**

French is part of the Algerians' daily communication; both bilinguals and monolinguals use it alongside their dialects. Some speakers are fluent enough to switch between the two codes within sentence boundaries, while others can only integrate a French word or two within their speech without even being aware of the fact that those words are of French origin.



Algerians' attitudes towards French can be both positive and negative. Some people view it as the language of development, science, technology, and as a proof of civilization; while others have negative attitudes towards it, according to them, it will always be the language of the colonizer.

### **II.1.3 Berber**

Berber belongs to the Hermitic branch of the Afro-Asiatic language family. It comprises a group of closely related dialects spoken by Berbers, who are the indigenous people of North Africa. It is estimated that 20% of the Algerian population speaks it as the first language, as is stated by Oakes:

**" About 20 percent of the Algerian population speaks Berber as the first language, and many of these do not use Arabic at all, preferring French as their second language "**

**(2008:18)**

Berber has recently been given official status in Algeria after it had remained only a national language since **2002**. Its dialects or varieties are spoken in many parts of Algeria, but mostly in Kabylia, in the Aures, and some villages in the Sahara as shown in (figure 2). They are geographically classified as follows:

- **In the North;** "Kabyle" or "Taqvaili" in Algiers, Béjaïa, Tizi Ouzou, Bouïra, Sétif, and Boumerdas.
- **The Aures Region;** "Chaouia" or "Tashawit" in Batna, Khenchela, Souk Ahras, Oum el Bouaghi, and Tebessa.
- **In the Sahara:** "Mozabit" or "Tumzabt" in the M'zab, "Tamashak" used by Touareg of the Hoggar.



**Figure II. 2 Geographical Location of Berber Varieties (Benrabah, 2005)**

## **II.2 The Outcomes of Language Contact in Algeria**

### **II.2.1 AA / French Bilingualism**

Algerian Arabic/ French bilingualism appeared during the period of the French colonization of Algeria. As previously mentioned, French was made an official language at that time. As a result, French education was implemented in the country. Bilingualism started when Algerians came into contact with French people at schools; this contact exposed them to the language as well as the culture. French had strongly influenced the Algerian linguistic system, and this influence remained even after independence.

AA/French bilingualism exists almost everywhere in the Algerian society. One can say that most Algerians are Bilingual, whether active or passive. The former refers to individuals who can produce meaningful utterances in French; whereas the later refers to those who only understand the language without being able to speak it. Mouhadjer explains this idea by saying that

**“Active bilinguals are those persons who really speak French in their life even those who do not know how to read and write. Passive bilinguals are those who understand French but do not have the ability to speak it. “**

**(2002:990-991)**

## **II.2.2 Diglossia in Algeria**

As previously defined in the first chapter, diglossia refers to the coexistence of two varieties of the same language in a given society.

The Arabic language has been considered by many linguists as the most representative example of diglossia. In a study conducted by the French linguist William Marçais (1930), he found out that in Algeria, there exist two language varieties that are simultaneously used by speakers; Modern Standard Arabic (as the H variety) and Algerian Arabic (as the L variety). Speakers use the former and the latter in different contexts. Since MSA is highly codified and has a body of written literature, it is used in schools, the media, administration (for public and official documents), mosques (for sermons), and it is also used by politicians when delivering their speeches. AA, on the other hand, has neither a written form nor a body of literature, it lacks both prestige and official status, and for this reason, people only use it in casual interactions and informal situations.

### II.2.3 AA/ French Code-switching

The phenomenon of AA-French Code-switching has become an integral part of the Algerian speech repertoire, and this is due to the coexistence of Arabic and French in Algeria since the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Most speakers switch back and forth between the two codes, whether consciously or unconsciously, and this switch occurs in both formal and informal situations, starting from casual interactions among friends and family, to politicians delivering their speeches. Bencherfa observes that

**By examining closely the different types of speech such as: Political Speech, the conversations on official scientific subjects, the plays, personal letters from one person to another, courses given at university, at college, or at school, and finally the conversations within family, we notice in the majority of cases the alternation of passages in Algerian Arabic, passages in modern standard Arabic, and in French.**

(1987:137)

Moreover, AA French code-switching differs from one speaker to another. Some speakers are competent enough in French; thus, they can switch between codes across sentence boundaries (Inter-sentential CS). While others have a weak command of French, and as a result, they can only integrate a single French word or two within their speech (intra-sentential CS). Consider the examples below:

**Example 1:** Inter-sentential CS (across sentence boundaries)

*« Pour eviter la contamination du COVID-19, il faut rester a la maison et prends soins de son hygiene. L'hala marahich te3jeb »*

*(To avoid getting contaminated by COVID-19, one should stay indoors and take care of their hygiene. Things do not look promising.)*

**Example 2:** Intra-sentential CS (within the same sentence)

*“roht 3and la coiffeuse,w daretli la teinture.” (I went to the hairdresser, and she dyed my hair).*

It is worth noting, however, that integrating a single French word within one’s speech does not necessarily mean that the speaker has a low command of the French language. Sometimes even active bilingual speakers choose not to code-switch across sentence boundaries, and this, most of the time, depends on the addressee; if the latter has a low command of French, then the bilingual speaker feels obliged to reduce their usage of French sentences, and they only integrate single French words within their conversations.

## **II.2.4 AA-French Borrowing**

As it has been defined in the first chapter, borrowing refers to the process of importing linguistic items from one language into another. Algerian Arabic had extensively borrowed words and expressions from other languages throughout history, especially from French. This is why its lexicon comprises a large number of French words.

Algerian Speakers borrow French words into AA for two reasons. The first reason is to fill in lexical gaps. Sometimes there is simply no equivalent for the borrowed term in AA. For example, the word ‘micro-onde’ has no equivalent in AA, so speakers are left with no choice but to integrate it in their speech. The second reason is for the matter prestige; in the Algerian society, French is more prestigious than AA, and for this reason, some speakers try to give the impression that they are competent in French by using some of its words and expressions in their conversations. What this category of speakers might not be aware of is that an individual’s language competence cannot be shown through integrating single

words in their speech, but rather through using full sentences and switching across sentence boundaries.

Furthermore, most of these loan words sound more Arabic than French, and this is because speakers usually adapt them so that they can fit in the patterns of AA; French and Algerian Arabic have different Morphological and Phonological systems, this is why, the borrowed words need to undergo certain morphological and phonological adaptation to be usable in AA.

The table below shows some of the Adapted loanwords:

<b>French Words</b>	<b>Algerian Arabic Adaptation</b>	<b>Transcription</b>	<b>English</b>
Table	Tabla	/tabla/	Table
Place	Blasa	/blasa/	Place
Ecole	Likoul	/likul/	School
Ticket	Tiki	/tiki/	Ticket
Liste	Lista	/lista/	List
Boite	Bata	/bata/	Box
village	Filej	/fileʒ/	Village

**Table II.1 French Words Adapted into AA**

## **Conclusion**

This chapter highlights Algeria's sociolinguistic situation, which is characterized by complexity, diversity, and richness. It describes the different language varieties that coexist in the country, and it sheds light on some of the linguistic phenomena that appeared as a result of the contact between these varieties.

The following chapter deals with the phenomenon of French-AA borrowing. It explores the processes involved in the adaptation of French parts of speech, and it provides detailed morphological and phonological descriptions.

# CHAPTER THREE



## **Chapter III: AA-French Borrowing: The Adaptation of French Parts of Speech into AA.**

Introduction

**III.1.** The Synchronic and Diachronic Approach to Borrowing

**III.2.** Integration of Borrowing

**III.2.1.** Phonological Integration

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**III.3.** The Adaptation of French Parts of Speech into Algerian Arabic

**III.3.1.** Phonological Adaptation

**III.3.1.1.** Vowel Substitution

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**III.3.2.** Morphological Adaptation

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**III.3.2.2.2.** Number Assignment

**III.3.2.3.** Verb Adaptation

**III.3.2.3.1.** Tense Inflection

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**III.3.2.3.1.2.** Imperfect Tense

Conclusion

## **Introduction**

The previous chapters dedicated some sections and subsections to the sociolinguistic phenomenon of borrowing; the first chapter introduced it along with its various types, different reasons, and ways, and then the second chapter briefly referred to this phenomenon in the Algerian context.

The present chapter discusses borrowing in much more detail, it starts by making a distinction between its diachronic and synchronic approach, it attempts to explain the linguistic process of integration in brief, and then it focuses on AA-French borrowing.

Since this study is synchronic, the largest section of it is devoted to phonological and morphological descriptions, which demonstrate some of the processes involved in the adaptation of French parts of speech into AA: vowel and consonant substitution, gender and number assignment, and verb inflection, followed by several illustrating examples. All these items fall together to provide an answer to the research question about the type of processes that French parts of speech undergo when being adapted to AA.

### **III.1 The Synchronic and Diachronic Approach to Borrowing**

Borrowing has been approached by researchers diachronically as well as synchronically.

The diachronic approach is concerned with how languages develop and evolve over time. Linguists use diachronic methods to study borrowing when they are interested in issues like the origin of loanwords; that is to say, they try to find out the source language of a given loanword, or identify the way through which it was introduced into the source language.

The synchronic approach, on the other hand, deals with languages at particular points in time without taking history into account. In this approach, linguists are not interested in the previous states of loanwords, but are rather interested in making descriptions of the latter; they focus on describing their phonological, syntactic, and morphological integration.

### **III.2 Integration of Borrowing**

Before discussing the integration of borrowing, it is important to first make a distinction between adaption and adaptation; the former refers to when speakers nativize borrowed words so that they can fit into the patterns of the recipient language; whereas the latter refers to borrowing a word in its donor-language form; maintaining features foreign to the recipient language.

When words are imported into a language, they, most of the time, undergo the linguistic process of integration in order to fit into its phonological and morphological patterns.

#### **III.2.1 Phonological Integration**

When the source and the recipient language have different phonetic systems and their phonological interventions do not match, speakers borrowing words from the source language lexicon may substitute one of its phonemes with the nearest they find in the recipient language. Sometimes the changes are so deep that even the source language native speakers may not be able to recognize their own language material. For Example, the adaptation of the French word "Chargeur" into Algerian Arabic sardjer /ʃa:rdʒær/.

Phonological adaptation may involve processes like sound alteration, addition, omission, and shifting; all these depend on the phonological patterns of the source and the recipient language.

### **III.2.2 Morphological Integration**

Sometimes it is necessary for loanwords to undergo morphological adaptation in order to be usable in the recipient language. This adaptation addresses mostly word derivation, number, and gender assignment. Word derivation involves processes like clipping, compounding, remodeling, and inflection. Concerning number and gender assignment, it is commonly agreed among linguists that languages, which have gender and number as core grammatical categories, need to assign each loanword to a gender and number class.

### **III.3 The Adaptation of French Parts of Speech into Algerian Arabic**

As stated by Winford (2003: 46): *“Lexical borrowings tend to be adapted in terms of the phonology and morphology of the recipient language, and become essentially indistinguishable from native forms.”* Similarly, French loan words are adapted into the morphology and phonology of Algerian Arabic.

#### **III.3.1 Phonological Adaptation**

This section shows the differences between the phonetic inventories of French and Algerian Arabic, and it describes the processes of vowel and consonant substitution.

##### **III.3.1.1 Vowel Substitution**

The vowel inventory of Algerian Arabic consists of three short vowels and three long vowels; they are as follows:

**Long vowels:**

[a:] as in bab /ba:b/ (Door).

[i:] as in rih /ri:h/ (Wind).

[u:] as in louh /lu:h/ (Wood).

**Short vowels:**

[a] as in janna /dʒanna/ (Heaven).

[i] as in riyya /rijja/ (Lung).

[u] as in kurssi /kursi/ (Chair).

As opposed to Algerian Arabic, the vowel inventory of French is very rich; it is composed of sixteen vowel sounds, as shown in the table below:

<b>French Vowels</b>	<b>Examples</b>
<b>Open a /a/ (a)</b>	Sac, patte.
<b>Closed a /ɔ/ (a)</b>	Bas.
<b>Nasal a /ɑ̃/ (closed "a" with a tilde) (en, em)</b>	Pente, lent, temps.
<b>Mute e (e muet) /ə/ (e)</b>	Petit.
<b>Closed e /e/ (é)</b>	Nez, été.
<b>Open e /ɛ/ (e)</b>	Mer, père, tête.
<b>Nasal e (the "open e" with a tilde) /ɛ̃/ (ein, ien, ain)</b>	Bain, bien, rein.
<b>Regular i /i/ (i)</b>	Lime, site.
<b>Closed o /o/ (au, eau, ô)</b>	Beau, mot, côte.
<b>Open o /ɔ/ (o)</b>	Pomme, fort.
<b>Nasal o (open o with a tilde) /ɔ̃/ (on)</b>	Pont, long, rond.
<b>Regular u /u/ (ou)</b>	Cou, moule, douze.
<b>/y/ (u)</b>	Lune, pure.
<b>Closed eu /ø/ (an o split by a diagonal bar)</b>	Feu, deux, jeu, pneu.
<b>Open eu /œ/ (oe ligature)</b>	Seul, peur, feuille, heure.
<b>Nasal /œ̃/ (oe ligature with a tilde) (un, um)</b>	Brun, parfum.

**Table III. 1 French Vowels**

Since the vowel inventory of French is very rich in comparison with that of AA, French loan words may undergo vowel substitution to suit the sound patterns of the latter. Consider the examples below:

- 1) **Open o /ɔ/** is substituted with **/u/**. e.g. Brosse /brɔs/ into /bruʃa/; Moteur /motoer/ into /mutur/; Policier /pɔlisje/ into /bulisi/.
- 2) **Open /e/ and /ɛ/** are substituted with **/i/**. e.g. Maire /mɛr/ into /mir/; Notaire /nɔtɛr/ into /nutir/.
- 3) **Closed 'eu' /ø/** is substituted with **/u/**. e.g. Pneu /pnø/ into /pnu/; Creux /krø/ into /kru/.
- 4) **/y/** is substituted with **/u/** or **/i/**. e.g. Numero /numro/ or /nimiro/; Ecurie /ekyri/ into /kuri/; Jupe /jyp/ into /jippa/.

The vowel inventory of Algerian Arabic lacks nasal vowels; therefore, when adapting French loan words into AA, these nasal vowels get denasalized; they are turned into [Vowel+n] as shown in the examples below:

- 1) **Nasal o /ɔ̃/** is turned into **[u+n]**. e.g. Bidon /bidɔ̃/ into /bidun/; Savon /savɔ̃/ into /sabun/; Bomb /bɔ̃b/ into /bunba/; Crayon /kreyɔ̃/ into /kreyun/.
- 2) **Nasal e /ɛ̃/** turned into **[e+n]**. e.g. Americain /amerikɛ̃/ into /ma:rikeni/; Italien /italjɛ̃/ into /ta:lieni/; Coin /kwɛ̃/ into /kwen/.
- 3) **Nasal a /ɑ̃/** is turned into **[a+n]**. i.g. Tranche /trɑ̃ʃ/ into /tranʃ/; Branche /brɑ̃ʃ/ into /branʃ/; France /frɑ̃s/ into /franʃa/.

### III.3.1.2 Consonant Substitution

French and Algerian Arabic have different consonant inventories, and for this reason, some consonants in French loanwords may undergo substitution; this can be either because they are not available in the consonant inventory of AA, or because there is more than one possible phonemic realization for such a sound.

The French consonants that are not available in AA are the labio-dental fricative /v/ and the bilabial /p/; they are substituted with their voiced counterparts /f/ and /b/ respectively. Consider the following examples:

- Policier → /bulisi/.
- Portail → /burtaj/.
- Place → /blasa/.
- Poste → /bosta/.
- Peinture → /bantu:ra/.
- Couverture → /ku:firta/.
- Village → /fi:la:dʒ/.
- Reveuil → /refej/.
- Betrave → /bitraf/.

Moreover, Algerian Arabic is rich in pharyngeal and emphatic consonants, such as the following.

- The voiceless valorized stop / ʔ / (ط), as in /ʔwi:l/ ‘tall’.
- The voiced valorized stop / ɖ / (ض), as in /ɖaw/ ‘light’.
- The voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative / ʕ / (ص), as in /ʕa:meʔ/ ‘boring’.
- The voiceless pharyngeal fricative /ħ/ (ح), as in /ħu:t/ ‘fish’.
- The voiceless uvula plosive /q/ (ق), as in /qmar/ ‘moon’.
- The voiceless velar fricative /x/ as in /xna/ ‘music’.

Some French Consonants may be substituted with one of the AA consonants mentioned above. For instance:

- /t/ is usually substituted with /ṭ/ like in: Table /**ṭ**abla/; Carte /**k**ar**ṭ**a/; Fourchette /**f**ur**ṭ**i**ṭ**a/; Tableau /**ṭ**ablu/; Marmite /**m**er**m**i**ṭ**a/.
- /s/ is sometimes substituted with /ṣ/ like in: Brosse /**b**ro**ṣ**a/; Place /**bl**a**ṣ**a/; Carosse /**k**ar**u**:**ṣ**a/; Tasse /**ṭ**a**ṣ**a/.
- /c/ may be substituted with /ç/ or /q/ like in: Bocal /**bo**qal/; and Carafe /**ç**oraf/.

### **III.3.2 Morphological Adaptation**

This section deals with some of the morphological processes involved in the adaptation of French nouns, adjectives, and verbs, including gender and number assignment, and tense inflection.

#### **III.3.2.1 Noun Adaptation**

Nouns are lexical forms which denote persons, places, animals, things and abstract concepts. In Algerian Arabic French loan nouns are inflected for gender, number (singular vs. plural), and definiteness.

##### **III.3.2.1.1 Gender Assignment**

In Algerian Arabic nouns have a fixed gender and are either feminine or masculine. The suffix [a] is added to the singular form of French loan nouns to denote the feminine gender. Consider the following examples:



<b>French Noun</b>	<b>AA Singular Feminine</b>	<b>Transcription</b>	<b>English</b>
Baguette	Baguitta	/bagiṭa/	Stick
Lampe	Lamba	/la:mba/	Lamp
Place	Blassa	/bla:ša /	Place
Cravate	Krafata	/krafata/	Tie
Cousine	Kouzina	/ku:ʒi:na/	Kitchen
Serviette	Serbita	/særbi:ta/	Towel
Couverture	Koufirta	/ku:firṭa/	Blanket
Infermiere	Ferliya	/fermlija/	Nurse
Chambre	Chambra	/ʃumbra/	Room
Pouppee	Poupiya	/pupija/	Doll
Bobine	Boubina	/bubina/	Reel of thread

**Table III. 2 Gender Assignment of Nouns**

### **III.3.2.1.2 Number Assignment**

In Algerian Arabic there exist two main types of plural forms; the ‘sound plural’ and the ‘broken plural’.

#### **III.3.2.1.2.1 Sound Plural**

Sound plurals have regular forms realized through the process of suffixation. AA has two types of sound plural suffixes, which are added to singular French loan nouns, [-a:t] and [-jja]. Consider the following examples:

French Noun	AA Adaptation (Singular)	AA Adaptation (plural)	Transcription	English
Carton	Kartona	Kartonat	/karʔuna:t/	Boxes
Cabas	Kaba	Kabat	/kaba:t/	Bags
Robe	Robba	Robot	/ruba:t/	Dresses
Poupée	Poupiya	Poupiyat	/pupija:t/	Dolls
Casquette	Kaskita	Kaskitat	/ka:skitʔa:t/	Caps
Canapet	Kanapi	Kanapiyat	/kanapija:t/	Sofas
Tapis	Tapi	Tapiyat	/ta:pija:t/	Carpets
Tabouret	Tabori	Taboriyat	/ʔaborija:t/	Stools
Portail	Bortai	Bortaiyat	/bortaiia:t/	Gates
Policier	Bolisi	Bolisiya	/bu:lisijja/	Policemen
Gandarme	Gadarmi	Gadarmiya	/dzadarmijja/	Gandarmes
Manoeuvre	Manouvri	Manovriya	/mænu:vrijja/	Workers

**Table III. 3 Number Assignment of Nouns (sound plural)**

The noun denoting a female police officer **/bu:lisijja/** and the noun denoting a squad of policemen seem to be the same. However, they are differentiated in the utterance by the use of verb agreement, that is to say; through verb agreement we understand whether the speaker is referring to a female police officer or a squad of policemen. In some cases, when the singular noun base ends with the vowel [i], the plural form is formed by attaching to the suffix [-jja], as shown in the last three examples; whereas in other cases, the plural is formed by attaching [ja:t] like in **/ta:pija:t/** or **/ʔaborija:t/**.

### III.3.2.1.2.2 Broken Plural

The plural has a broken form when changes occur at the level of the singular noun base; in other words, the root letters are presented in a different structure. These changes may include phonemic substitution, addition, or a combination of the two. Consider the following examples:

<b>French Nouns</b>	<b>AA Adaptation (Singular)</b>	<b>AA Adaptation (Plural)</b>	<b>Transcription</b>	<b>English</b>
Million	Melyoun	Mlayin	/mlaji:n/	Millions
Milliard	Melyar	Mlayir	/mlaji:r/	Billions
Cartable	Kartab	Kratib	/krati:b/	School-bags
Place	Blasa	Blayess	/bla:jeʃ/	Places
Gateaux	Gatou	Gatowat	/gatuwa:t/	Cookies
Rideau	Ridou	Ridawat	/ridawa:t/	Curtains
Chauffeur	Chofer	Chwarfa	/ʃwafra/	Drivers
Motard	Motar	Mwatra	/mwaʎra/	Bikers
Infirmier	Fermlı	Framla	/fremla/	Nurses

**Table III. 4 Number Assignment of Nouns (Broken plural)**

### III.3.2.1.3 Definiteness

The definite article [l] is prefixed to French loan nouns to mark the feature of definiteness; its absence is the marker for indefiniteness. Moreover, the form of this definite article is dependent on the nature of the consonants which succeed; this means that if the consonant is lunar [qamariyyah], the definite article would be [l],

and if it is solar [ʃamsiyyah], the [l] is assimilated; therefore the concerned consonant would be doubled. The examples in the table below show how the prefix ‘L’ is attached to the nouns that start with lunar consonants [qamariyyah].

<b>French Noun</b>	<b>AA Noun (Indefinite)</b>	<b>AA Noun (Definite)</b>	<b>Transcription</b>	<b>English</b>
Valise	Valiza	Lvaliza	/lva:liza/	The suitcase
Camion	Kamyou	lkamyou	/lka:mju/	The truck
Classe	Classsa	Lklasa	/lklaʃa/	The classroom
Guerre	Guirra	Lguirra	/lgi:ra/	The war
Machine	Machina	Lmachina	/lma:ʃina/	The machine

**Table III. 5 Definiteness of Nouns Starting with Lunar Consonants**

The examples in the table below show how ‘l’ is assimilated and the solar consonants are doubled to mark the definiteness of the nouns.

<b>French Nouns</b>	<b>AA (Indefinite)</b>	<b>AA (Definite)</b>	<b>Transcription</b>	<b>English</b>
Chambre	Chambra	Cchambra	/ʃʃumbra/	The room
Sandale	Sandala	Ssandala	/ʃʃanda:la/	The sandals
Jacket	Jakita	Jjakita	/ʒʒakita/	The jacket

Trousse	Troussa	Ttroussa	/ttru:sa/	The pencil case
Dinde	Dando	Ddando	/dda:ndu/	The turkey
Jupe	Jipa	Jjipa	/ʒʒipa/	The skirt

**Table III. 6 Definiteness of Nouns Starting with Solar consonants**

### III.3.2.2 Adjectives Adaptation

Adjectives are forms which have their own patterns. They describe nouns, persons, animals, places, and objects. Adjectives in Algerian Arabic agree with the modified nouns in gender, number and definiteness. To form adjectives the prefix [m] is attached to French verbs as well as to adjectives. This can be accompanied with some changes in the stems. The table below demonstrates adjectives that are formed out of French loan verbs:

French verbs	AA adjectives	Transcription	English
Gonfler	Mgonfli	/mgonfli/	Inflated
Afficher	Mafichi	/mafɪʃi/	Displayed
Boucler	Mboukli	/mbu:kli/	Curly
Charger	Mchargi	/mʃarʒi/	Charged
Bloquer	Mbloki	/mbloki/	Blocked

**Table III. 7 Adjective Formation (01)**

The following table shows adjectives that are formed of French loan adjectives:

<b>French Adjectives</b>	<b>AA adjectives</b>	<b>Transcription</b>	<b>English</b>
Courageux	Mkawrj	/mkawrdʒ/	Brave
Peint	Mbentr	/mbentr/	Painted
Fixé	Mfixi	/mfiksi/	Fixed
Branché	Mbronchi	/mbronʃi/	Plugged

**Table III. 8 Adjective Formation (02)**

### III.3.2.2.1 Gender Assignment

Just as is the case with nouns, the suffix [-a] is added to adjectives to denote the feminine gender. The base consists of the masculine singular. The addition of the feminine suffix may or may not cause changes in the base form.

<b>French Adjective</b>	<b>AA Adjectives (Masc Singular)</b>	<b>AA Adjectives (Fem Singular)</b>	<b>Transcription</b>	<b>English</b>
Paint	Mbentr	Mbentra	/mbentra/	Painted
Chômeur	Mchoumr	Mchoumra	/mfu:mra/	Broke
Branchè	Mbronchi	Mbranchia	/mbronʃia/	Plugged
Blond	Blon	Blonda	/blonda/	Blonde

**Table III. 9 Gender Assignment of Adjectives**

### III.3.2.2.2 Number Assignment

The main number suffixes for masculine and feminine adjectives are [-i:n] and [-a:t] as shown below:

<b>French Adjective (Singular)</b>	<b>AA Adjective (Plural)</b>	<b>Transcription</b>	<b>English</b>
Peint	Mbentrin	/mbentri:n/	Painted
Blonde	Blondat	/blonda:t/	Blonde

**Table III. 10 Number Assignment of Adjectives**

### III.3.2.3 Verb Adaptation

The verb in the Arabic language is a word that indicates the happening of an action, associated with time. It has either an active or a passive voice; a past, a present or an imperative tense; a feminine or masculine gender; and a number (singular or plural). In Algerian Arabic, French loan verbs undergo variant insertion of prefixes and/or Suffixes. These changes specify different grammatical functions such as: tense, gender, and number.

#### III.3.2.3.1 Tense Inflection

Algerian Arabic has got its verb inflected for the perfect (past) and imperfect (non-past) tenses. The perfect and imperfect verbs have a set of suffixes and prefixes attached to them. The same affixes are attached when adapting French loan verbs. Consider the following examples:

<b>Perfect (past)</b>	<b>Imperfect (non-past)</b>
[bloka] ‘He blocked’	[ybloki] ‘He blocks, will block, would block’

The personal pronouns which define the three persons in Algerian Arabic are as follows:

<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>
<b>1st person</b> [ana] ‘I’	<b>1st person</b> [ħna] ‘we’
<b>2nd person</b> [nta] ‘you’ (masc.) [nti] ‘you’ (fem.)	<b>2nd person</b> [ntuma] ‘you’ (pl.) [ntuma] ‘you’ (pl.)
<b>3rd person</b> [huwa] ‘he’ [hija] ‘she’	<b>3rd person</b> [huma] ‘they’ [huma] ‘they’

**Table III. 11 AA Personal Pronouns**



### III.3.2.3.1.1 Perfect Tense

The following examples demonstrate the inflectional suffixes (in bold) of the perfect tense in use with the French verb (Décider) ‘to decide’.

Singular	Plural
<p><b>1st person</b> ana [disdit] ( I decided)</p> <p><b>2nd person</b> nta [disdit] ‘masc’ (You decided) nti [disditi] ‘fem’ (You decided)</p> <p><b>3rd person</b> huwa [disida] (He decided) hija [disidat] (She decided)</p>	<p><b>1st person</b> H̄na [disidina] (we decided)</p> <p><b>2nd person</b> ntuma [disiditu] (you decided) ntuma [disiditu] (you decided)</p> <p><b>3rd person</b> huma [disidaw] (They decided) huma [disidaw] (They decided)</p>

**Table III. 12 Conjugation of the verb Décider in the Imperfect Tense**

Therefore, the suffixes of the perfect tense are as follows:

Person	Singular	Plural
<b>1st person</b>	‘I’ [-t]	‘we’ [-na]
<b>2nd person masc.</b>	‘you’ [-t]	‘you’ [-tu]
<b>2nd person fem.</b>	‘you’ [-ti]	‘you’ [-tu]
<b>3rd person masc.</b>	‘he’ [-a]	‘they’ [-w]
<b>3rd person fem.</b>	‘she’ [-t]	‘they’ [-w]

**Table III. 13 Perfect Tense Suffixes**

### III.3.2.3.1.2 Imperfect Tense

The following table shows the inflectional affixes which are attached to verbs to form the imperfect tense.

Person	Singular	Plural
1st person	[n/ne+ i]	[n /ne + u]
2nd person	[t/te +i ] masc/fem.	[t /te+ u]
3rd person	[j+i] masc. [t+i] fem.	[j + u]

**Table III. 14 Imperfect Tense Affixes**

#### **First Person**

The prefix [n-] is attached to the stem of the verb when it starts with a consonant followed by a vowel, as in [nkuriji] ‘I correct’; whereas [ne-] is prefixed to the verb stem when the latter starts with two consonants, as in [netriji] ‘I cheat’ or in [nebloki] ‘I block’. The first person singular and the first person plural take the same prefix, and the suffix [u] is attached as a plural marker.

#### **Second Person**

With the second person masculine and feminine, the prefix [t] is attached to the verb stem when it starts with a consonant followed by a vowel, as in [trati] (fem/ masc) ‘you miss’. However, it takes [te-] when the stem starts with two consonants, as in: [tepripari] (fem / masc) ‘You prepare’.

### Third Person

The third person feminine singular ‘she’ and the second person ‘you’ take the same prefix [t/ te]. **For example:** [tʃaʔaki] ‘She /You attack’. Similarly, the third person masculine singular ‘he’ takes the same prefix as the third person plural ‘they’, and the suffix [u] is attached to the stem to mark the plural (both fem and masc). **For example:** [jʃaʔ aki] ‘He attacks’ and [jaʔaku] ‘They attack’.

As mentioned before, the imperfect tense designates non-past actions. However, AA has particles which are used to designate whether it is a present or future action:

**A- Particle of Actuality:** [ra:h] or [ra:w] for the masculine singular; [ra:hi] for the feminine singular; and [ra:hum] for the plural (both feminine and masculine).

#### Example:

[ra:h jtilifa:rji] [raw jtilifa:rji] (He is downloading).

[ra:hi ttilifa:rji] (She is downloading).

[ra:hum jtilifa:rju] (They are downloading).

**B- Particle of Anticipation:** [raw rajeh] or [ra:h rajeh] for the masculine singular; [ra:hi rajeha] for the feminine singular; and [ra:hum rajehin] for the plural (both feminine and masculine).

#### Example:

[ra:h rajeh jtilifa:rji] [raw rajeh jtilifa:rji] (He will download/ he is going to download).

[ra:hi rajeha ttilifa:rji] (She will download / she is going to download).

[ra:hum rajehin jtilifa:rju] (They will download/ they are going to download).

## **Conclusion**

To recapitulate, in this chapter, we dealt with the sociolinguistic phenomenon of AA-French borrowing. This study follows a synchronic approach; therefore, we provided morphological and phonological descriptions of how French nouns, verbs, and adjectives are adapted into AA.

The next chapter is the fieldwork. It is devoted to Data Analysis and Interpretation. It describes the sample population and the research instruments used in collecting data, and it presents the findings.

CHAPTER

FOUR

## **Chapter IV: Data Collection and Interpretation of the Findings**

Introduction

### **IV.1. Context of Study (Tiaret)**

**IV.1.1. A Geographical Overview of Tiaret**

**IV.1.2. The Sociolinguistic Situation of Tiaret**

### **IV.2. Research Instruments**

**IV.2.1. Questionnaire**

**IV.2.2. Word List**

### **IV.3. Sample Population**

### **IV.4. Questionnaire Analysis and Interpretation**

### **IV.5. Word list Analysis and Interpretation**

Conclusion

## **Introduction**

The present chapter is the practical side of our research. It starts by shedding some light on the context of our study, which is Tiaret Speech community. It then describes the research instruments used in collecting data: questionnaire and word list, along with the sample population. The remaining sections deal with the investigation in terms of Data and Data analysis, which are presented under the form of tables, charts, graphs, and statistic figures. The interpretations of the obtained results attempt to provide an answer to the research question that is about Algerians' attitudes towards the sociolinguistic phenomenon of AA-French borrowing and its possible reasons.

### **IV.1 Context of the Study (Tiaret)**

#### **IV.1.1 A Geographical Overview of Tiaret**

Tiaret is a large agricultural pastoral province that is located in the northwest of Algeria. It lies at the southern end of Ouarsenis Massif (in the Tell Atlas Mountains) on the slopes of Mount Guezoul (4,510 feet [1,375 meters]) at the edge of the High Plateau (Hauts Plateaux). It covers the largest area on the western side of the country with about 20.050 km<sup>2</sup>. It is bordered by the following provinces: Tissemsilet and Relizane to the North; Laghaout and El Bayad to the South; Mascara and Saida to the West; and El Djelfa to the East.

#### **IV.1.2. The Sociolinguistic Situation of Tiaret**

Tiaret is a province whereby the majority of inhabitants are Arabs, and the rest are minority groups like Mozabite and Kabyles. This diversity makes its sociolinguistic situation complex; ADA, MSA, French, and some Berber Varieties exist side by side and are used by speakers in different contexts.

## IV.2 Research Instruments

The needed Data for this research is collected through the use of two research instruments; a questionnaire and word list.

### IV.2.1. Questionnaire

We used this method of investigation for the sake of knowing people's attitudes towards the phenomenon of AA-French borrowing, and the possible reasons behind it. It is administered to 100 students from different departments at the University of Ibn Khaldoun in Tiaret (French, English, Arabic, Law, Political science, and Commercial science). Certain points are taken into account in the construction of this questionnaire so as to be efficient: simplicity, clarity, and length; it is also written in both English and Arabic to make it easily understood by the respondents since not all of them are competent enough in English. It is composed of 16 multiple-choice questions, which are classified under four sections:

**Section 1** attempts to gather personal information about the respondents (Gender, Age, and specialty)

**Section2** seeks to find out the linguistic competencies of the respondents, in addition to their attitudes towards the language varieties that exist in Tiaret Speech community.

**Section 3:** is concerned with the informants' attitudes towards French language.

**Section4:** focuses on the respondents' attitudes towards French AA- Borrowing and its possible reasons.



### **III.2.2. Word list**

This research tool is composed of sets of words directed to 25 participant, for the sake of collecting data about French loan words; it seeks to find out how these words are adapted into Tiartian Arabic Variety. It is composed of two parts:

**Part One:** The participants are provided with a list of French nouns and are asked to give their synonyms or equivalents in AA, both in singular and plural.

**Part Two:** The participants are provided with a list of French verbs and are asked to conjugate them in the imperfect tense with the first person singular pronoun 'I' and the first person plural 'we'.

### **IV.3 Sample population**

The sample population for this research consists of students from the University of Ibn Khaldoun in Tiaret. A number of 100 informant aged between 18 and 30 are selected randomly from different departments at the university (Law, political science, English, French, Arabic, Political science, and Commercial science) so as to get diversified results.

### **IV.4 Questionnaire Analysis and Interpretation**

In this section we shall display the collected data through tables, pie charts, and graphs for the sake of analyzing and interpreting the results.

#### **Section 1: Informant's Personal Information**

The first section of the questionnaire deals with the participants' personal information: their gender, age, and specialty.

**Item 01 and 02: gender and age**

<b>Age</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
[18-22]	16	46	<b>62%</b>
[22-26]	20	14	<b>34%</b>
[26-30]	2	2	<b>4%</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>100%</b>

**Table IV.1 Scores Illustrating Informants' Age and Gender**

In the above table it is noticeable that:

- **62%** of the informants are aged between eighteen (18) and twenty-two (22), among them are sixteen (16) males and forty-six (46) females.
- **34%** of the informants are aged between twenty-two (22) and twenty-six (26), among them are twenty (20) males and fourteen (14) females.
- **4%** of the informants are aged between twenty-six (26) and thirty (30), among them are two (2) males and two (2) females.

**Item 03: Specialty.**

<b>Department</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
English	10	20	<b>30%</b>
French	6	14	<b>20%</b>
Arabic	4	6	<b>10%</b>
Law	8	2	<b>10%</b>
Political science	4	16	<b>20%</b>
Commercial Science	4	6	<b>10%</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>100%</b>

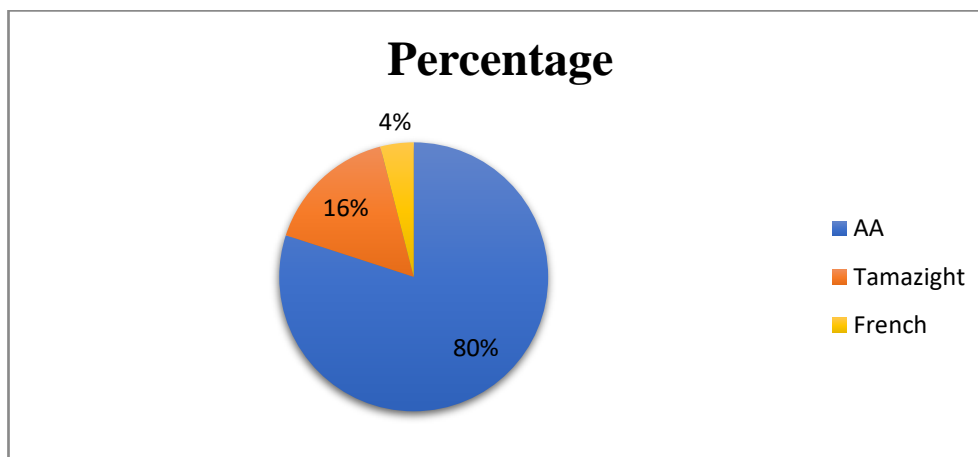
**Table IV.2 Scores Illustrating Informants' Specialty**

The data with regard to the informant's specialty shows that:

- **30%** of the informants are English Language students, among them are (10) males and (20) females.
- **20%** of the informants are French language students, among them are (6) males and (14) females.
- **10%** of the informants are Arabic language students, among them are (4) males and (6) females.
- **10%** of the informants are Law students, among them are (8) males and (2) females.
- **10%** of the informants are Political Science students, among them are (4) males and (16) females.
- **10%** of the informants are Commercial Science students, among them are (4) males and (6) females.

## Section 2: Informants' Linguistic Competence and Language Attitudes

**Item 1:** What is your mother tongue?



**Figure IV.1 Informants' Mother Tongue**

Since Tiaret is a province whereby the majority of inhabitants are Arabs, and the rest are minority groups, it is not surprising to see, in the above pie chart, that Arabic is the mother tongue of the majority of informants (80%); whereas Tamazight is the Mother tongue of (16%), and French is the mother tongue of only (4%).

**Item 2: Which language (s) do you master?**

<b>Language</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
MSA	100	<b>100%</b>
AA	100	<b>100%</b>
French	52	<b>52%</b>
Tamazight	24	<b>24%</b>

**Table IV.3 Scores Illustrating Informants' Mastered Languages**

This question was directed to the participants for the sake of evaluating their language competence. The results show that all of them master AA and MSA, (52%) master French, and only (24%) master Tamazight. From this, we can say that half of the informants are bilingual speakers who master both Arabic and French. It is worth noting, however, that this does not necessarily mean that their ability in the two languages is equal. One may assume that a speaker who has a reasonable conversational ability in French, also has the full basis for academic work in the language, but this is not always the case; sometimes the same individual who can carry on a conversation in French, may not be able to write a coherent paragraph in the language.

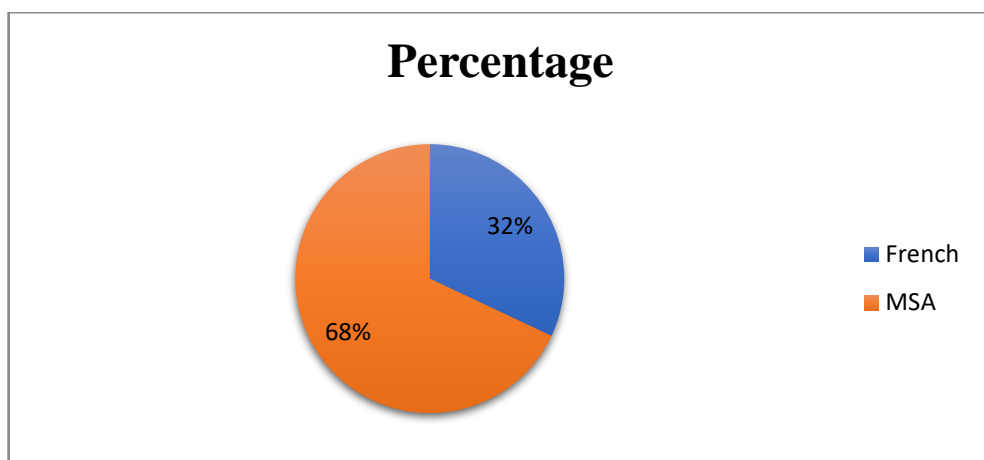
**Item 3: Which language(s) do you use in your daily speech?**

<b>Language</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
MSA	00	<b>00</b>
AA	100	<b>100%</b>
French	42	<b>42%</b>
Tamazight	18	<b>18%</b>

**Table IV.4 Scores Illustrating Languages Used by Informants in Their Daily Speech**

The results in the above table show that none of the informants use MSA in their daily speech; on the contrary to this, it is shown that every one of them uses AA. (42%) use French. As for Tamazight, only (18%) of the informants use it; what explains this low percentage is that sometimes Tamazight people refrain from using their language varieties, and this happens when they find themselves in contexts where all the surrounding speakers are Arabs, who are not familiar with Tamazight varieties

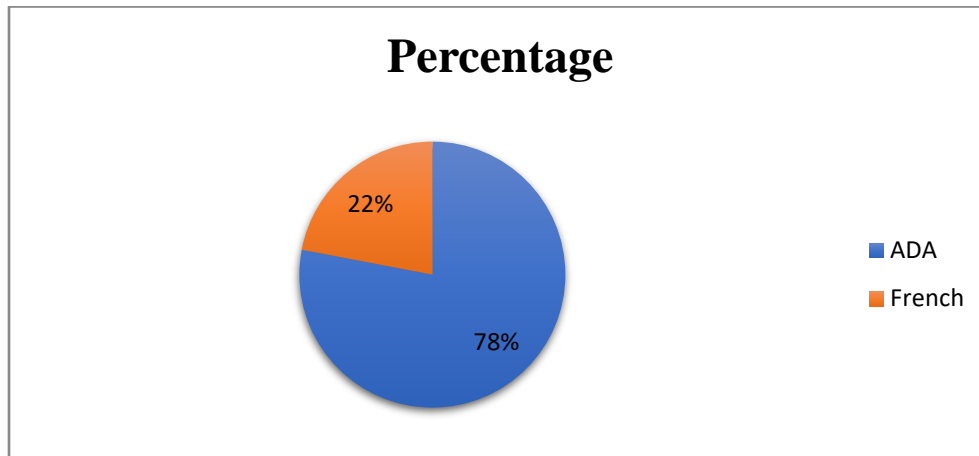
**Item 4:** Which language do you think is the most prestigious?



**Figure IV.2 Informants' Opinions about the Most Prestigious Language**

As shown in the above pie chart, the majority of the informants (68%) consider Modern Standard Arabic as the most prestigious language, and this is due to religious purposes; Arabic is the language of the Qur'an, the holy book of Islam. The rest (32%) regard French as the most Prestigious. What explains the latter point is that when France colonized Algeria, the colonial system imposed a harsh programme of acculturation, which positioned French as a dominant language over the local varieties; hence, Algerians started to see it as more prestigious, and according to what the above scores show, 58 years after Algeria has been granted independence, that idea is still engraved in some people's minds.

**Item 5:** Which language do you think is the most practical?

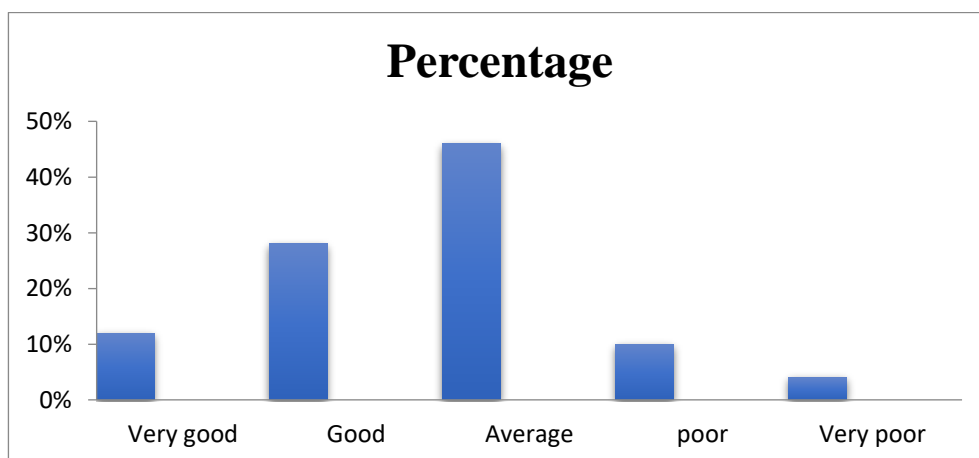


**Figure IV.3 Informants' Opinions about the Most Practical Language**

The results presented in Chart 3 show that (78%) of the participants think that Algerian Arabic is the most practical language; this is because it serves as a lingua franca among Algerians. According to the remaining (22%), French is the most practical; one cannot deny the fact that it can be quite useful, as it is present in different contexts within the Algerian society, such as Universities and administrations, even though it lacks both official and national status, which is contradictory.

### **Section 3: Informants' Attitudes towards French Language.**

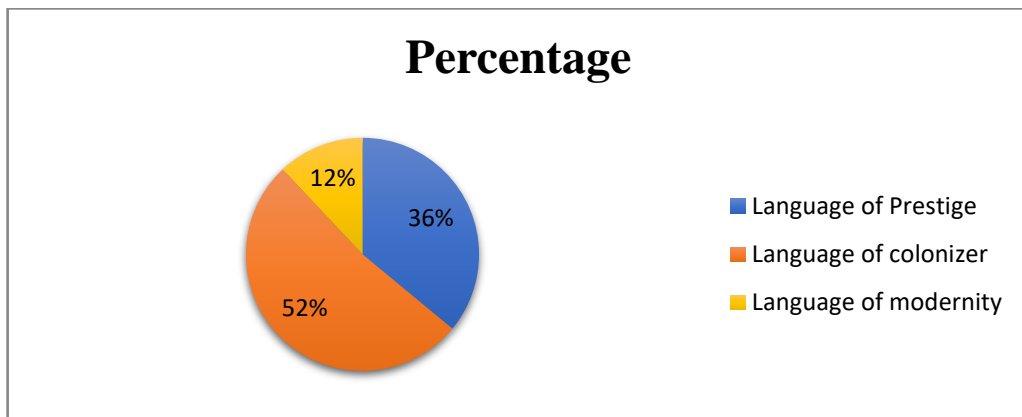
**Item 01:** How do you consider your level in French language?



**Figure IV.4 Informants' Level in French Language**

In this section, nearly half of the informants choose the word ‘Average’ with a percentage of (46%), while (28%) choose ‘Good’, and (12%) say that they have a very good level in French. Only the minority mention ‘Poor’ or ‘Very poor’.

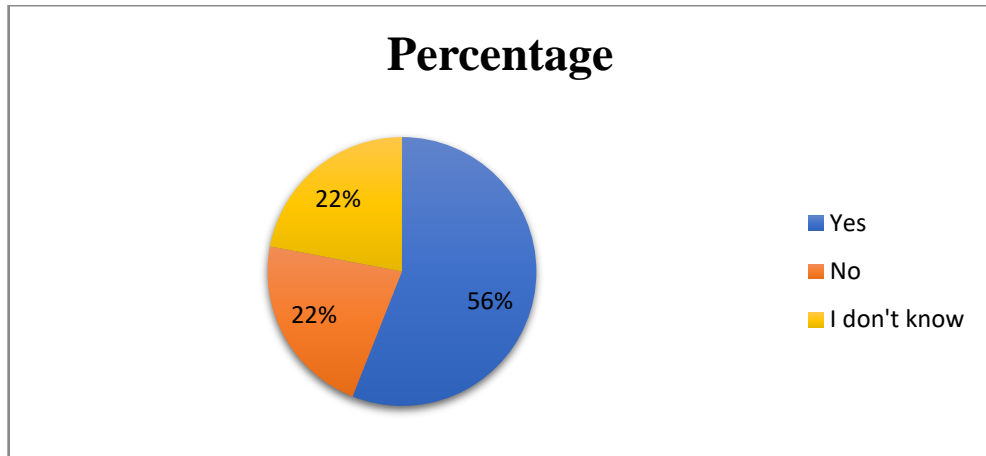
**Item 2:** How do you consider French language?



**Figure IV.5 Informants’ Attitudes towards French Language**

As shown in the above scores, most of the informants (52%) consider French as the language of the colonizer, (36%) think that it is the language of prestige. Only very few (12%) see it as the language of modernity.

**Item 3:** Do you think that it is important for Algerians to have some competence in French language?

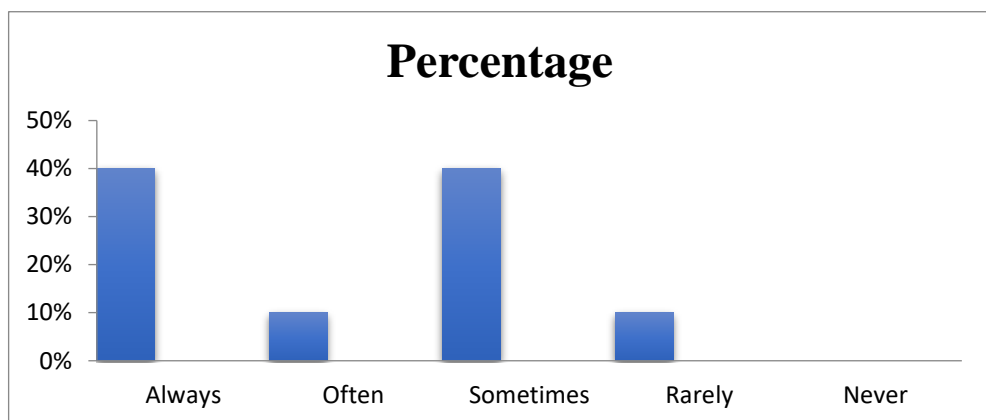


**Figure IV.6 Informants' Opinions about the Importance of French Competence for Algerians**

The results obtained demonstrate that most informants (56%) think that it is important for Algerians to have some competence in French language, (22%) think the opposite, and the other (22%) are neutral.

#### **Section 04: Informants Attitudes towards AA-French Borrowing and Its Possible Reasons**

**Item 01:** Do you use words from French language in your daily speech?

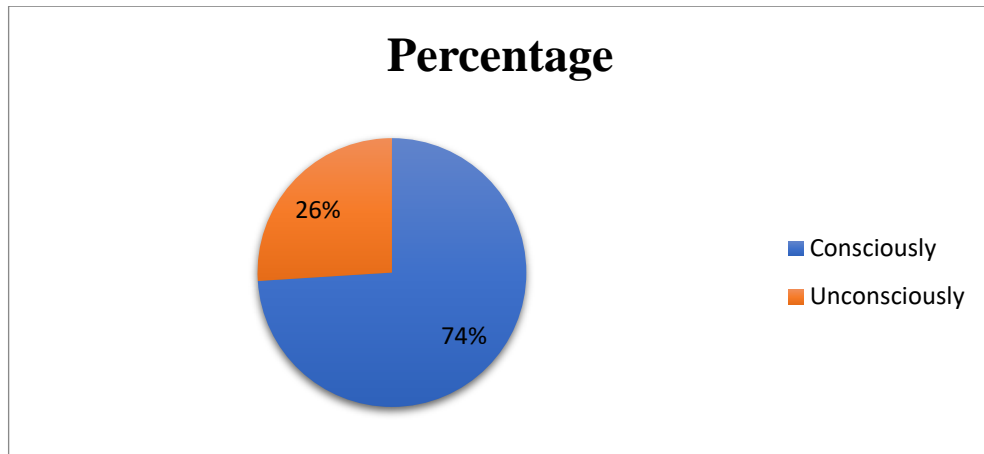


**Figure IV.7 Informants' Use of French Words in their Speech**



By mentioning the notes ‘always, sometimes, and often’ the majority of informants (90%) say that they use French words in their daily speech; compared with the minority (10%) who claim that they rarely do.

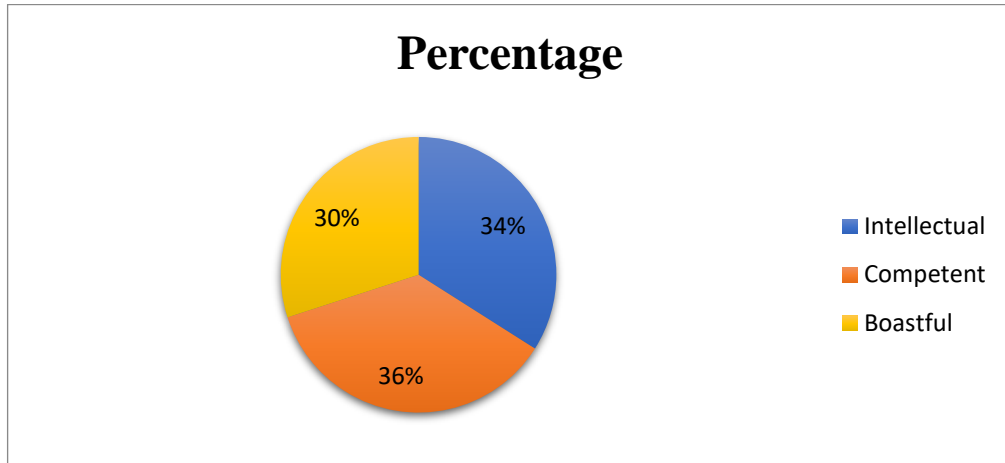
**Item 02:** When you use these words, you do it consciously or unconsciously?



**Figure IV. 8 Informants' Level of Consciousness When Borrowing**

The results show clearly that the majority of informants (74%) unconsciously integrate French words in their speech. It is only the minority (26%) who says that they do it unconsciously.

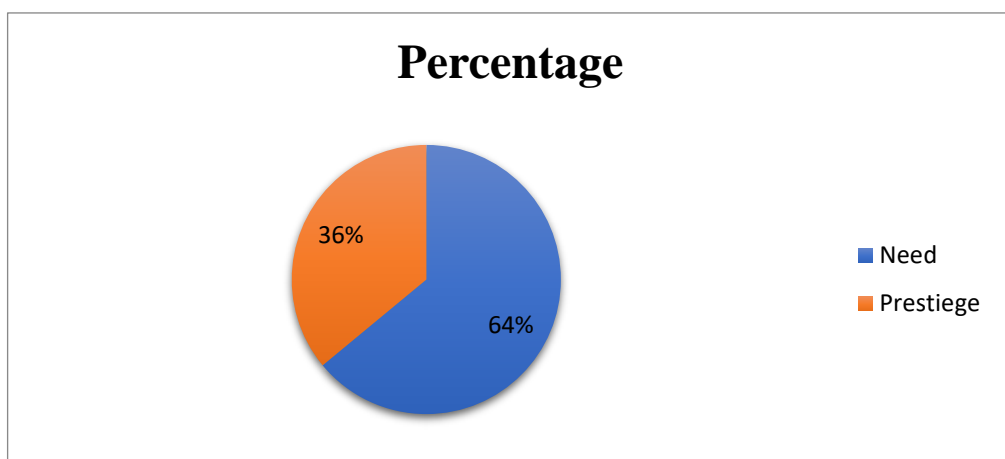
**Item 03:** How do you consider Algerians who often integrate French words in their daily speech?



**Figure IV.9 Informants' Attitudes towards Algerians' Frequent Borrowing of French Words**

(70%) of the obtained results show that the informants have positive attitudes towards Algerians who often integrate French words in their daily speech; they consider them as 'Intellectuals' and 'competent', as compared with the minority (30%) which responded negatively by choosing 'Boastful'

**Item 04:** Why do you think Algerians borrow words from French language?



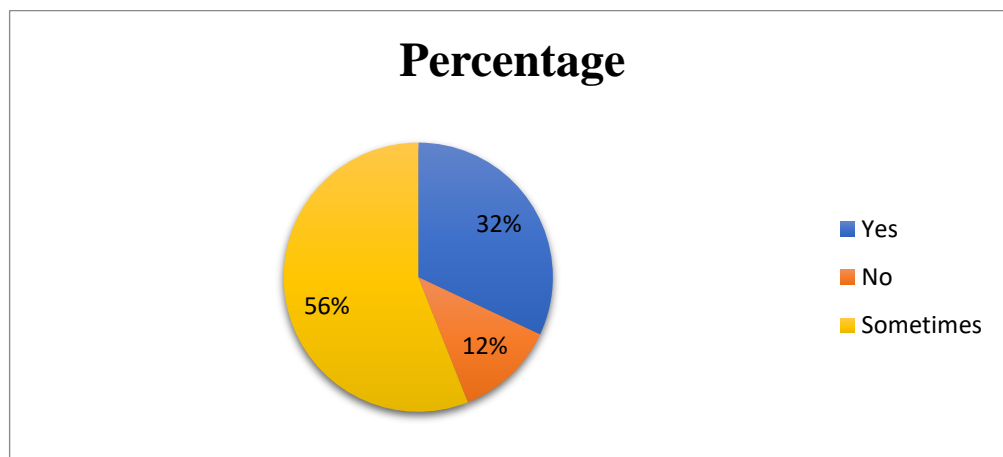
**Figure IV.10 The Reasons behind Algerians' Borrowing of French words**

The results show that the majority of informants (64%) think that Algerians borrow French words in order to fill in speech gaps, and only the minority (36%) say that they do it for the matter of prestige.

The informants were asked to suggest extra reasons for this phenomenon, their answers are as follows:

- Historical reasons: French had had a big influence on Algerian Arabic, because of the long period of colonial ties to France; this explains the large number of French words it comprises.
- Education: the average Algerian person studies French for ten years throughout primary school, middle school, and secondary school; therefore, it is inevitable for them to borrow French words.

**Item 05:** Do you adapt the French words you borrow to match with your Algerian Arabic variety; For Example, saying ‘Machina’ instead of ‘Mache’?



**Figure IV. 11 Informants' Adaptation of French Words**

The results obtained show that the majority of informants (88%) say that they adapt the French words they borrow; while only a few (12%) say that they do not.

#### IV.5 Word List Analysis and Interpretation

In this section, the collected Data is displayed through tables for the sake of Analyzing and interpreting the results.

**Part One:** In order to see how French loan words are adapted, we provided the respondents with a list of French nouns and asked them to give their synonyms (both in singular and plural form) in their Algerian Arabic Variety.

<b>French</b>	<b>English</b>	<b>Synonym in AA (Singular)</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>Synonym in AA (Plural)</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Couverture</b>	<b>Blanket</b>	/kuvirta/	<b>(88%)</b>	/kuvirta:t/	<b>(92%)</b>
		Couverture	<b>(12%)</b>	Couvertures	<b>(08%)</b>
<b>Briquet</b>	<b>Lighter</b>	/brika	<b>(76%)</b>	/brika:t/	<b>(80%)</b>
		Briquet	<b>(24%)</b>	Briquets	<b>(20%)</b>
<b>Lampe</b>	<b>Lamp</b>	/lampa/	<b>(02%)</b>	/lampa:t/	<b>(04%)</b>
		/lamba/	<b>(84%)</b>	/lamba/	<b>(64%)</b>
		Lampe	<b>(08%)</b>	Lampes	<b>(12%)</b>
<b>Tabouret</b>	<b>Stool</b>	/ṭaburi/	<b>(88%)</b>	/ṭaburija:t/	<b>(88%)</b>
		Tabouret	<b>(12%)</b>	Tabourets	<b>(12%)</b>
<b>Tapis</b>	<b>Carpet</b>	Tapis	<b>(100%)</b>	/tapija:t/	<b>(84%)</b>
				Tapis	<b>(04%)</b>

<b>Fourchette</b>	<b>Fork</b>	/furʃita/	<b>(100%)</b>	/furʃita:t/	<b>(36%)</b>
				/fraʃeʔ/	<b>(40%)</b>
				/fraʃit/	<b>(24%)</b>
<b>Canapé</b>	<b>Sofa</b>	/kanapi/	<b>(92%)</b>	/kanapija:t/	<b>(92%)</b>
		Canapé	<b>(08%)</b>	Canapés	<b>(08%)</b>
<b>Classe</b>	<b>Class-room</b>	/klasa/	<b>(88%)</b>	/klayes/	<b>(92%)</b>
		Classe	<b>(03%)</b>	Classes	<b>(08%)</b>
<b>Cabas</b>	<b>Suitcase</b>	Cabas	<b>(100%)</b>	/kaba:t/	<b>(92%)</b>
				Cabas	<b>(08%)</b>

**Table IV.5 Informants' Adaptation of French Nouns into Tiartian Arabic Variety**

What can be noticeable in the above scores is the majority of informants adapt the French nouns to suit the patterns of Tiartian Arabic, and only the minority use them as they are without any adaptation. The first noun in the list 'Couverture' is adapted by the majority (**88%**) as /**kuvirta**/ and only the minority (**12%**) use it in its original form without any modifications; the same is for the plural form where the majority (**92%**) use /**kuvirta:t**/ and only very few (**08%**) use 'Couvertures'. This is the case with all the nouns in the list, and the only exception is for the singular form of 'Tapis' and 'Cabas' which are used in their original French forms by all the informants.

The nouns are adapted morphologically as well as phonologically. The following sections will explain the processes that are involved in their adaptation.

## Phonological Adaptation

### Consonant Substitution

- The consonant /t/ is substituted with the voiceless dental emphatic stop /t̥/ in the following nouns: ‘couverture’ /kuvirt̥a/; ‘tabouret’ /t̥aburi/; and ‘fourchette’ /furʃit̥a/.
- The bilabial consonant /p/ is substituted with its voiced counterpart /b/ in the noun ‘lampe’ /lanba/.

### Vowel Substitution

- The regular /u/ (**ou**) is substituted with /u/ in the following nouns: ‘couverture’ /kuvirt̥a/; ‘tabouret’ /t̥aburi/, and ‘fourchette’ /furʃit̥a/.
- The nasal **a** /ã/ is substituted with [a+n] in ‘Lampe’ /lanba/.
- Closed /e/ (**é**) is substituted with /i/ in ‘canapé’ /kanapi/.

## Morphological Adaptation

### Gender Assignment

- To mark the feminine gender, the suffix [a] is attached to the following nouns: ‘couverture’ /kuvirt̥a/; ‘fourchette’ /furʃit̥a/; and ‘classe’ /klasa/.

### Number Assignment

- The nouns which take the sound plural form by the addition of the suffix [a:t] are: /kuvirt̥a:t/; /brika:t/; /furʃit̥a:t/; /kaba:t/; /t̥aburija:t/; /tapija:t/; and

/kanap**lja:t**/. Note that the singular forms of the last three nouns end with an /i/; therefore, the suffix [**ja:t**] is attached instead of [**a:t**].

- The noun /**lanba**/ takes both the sound and broken plural forms: /lanba**t**/; /lanpa**t**/; and /**lwaneb**/.
- The noun /**furfiṭa**/ takes a sound plural form: /furfiṭa**t**/ and two broken plural forms: /**fraṣeṭ**/ and /**fraṣiṭ**/.
- The noun /**klasa**/ takes only the broken plural form /**klayes**/.

**Part two:** The participants were asked to conjugate French verbs in the imperfect tense with the first person singular pronoun ‘I’ (ana) and the first person plural ‘we’ (Ḥna).

Verbs in French	Verbs in English	Verbs Conjugated in AA with the pronoun ‘I’	Verbs Conjugated in AA with the pronoun ‘we’
Decider	Decide	/ndisidi/	/ndisidu/
Force	Force	/nforsi/	/nforsu/
Déranger	Bother	/nderongi/	/nderongu/
Preparer	Prepare	/neprepari/	/nepreparu/
Charger	Charge	/nfarji/	/nfarju/
Presenter	Present	/nepresenti/	/nepresentu/
Déplacer	Move	/ndeplasi/	/ndeplasu/
Brancher	Plug	/nebronʃi/	/nebronʃu/
Critiquer	Criticise	/nekritiki/	/nekritiku/
Participer	Participate	/npartisipi/	/npartisipu/

**Table IV.6 Informants' Adaptation of French Verbs into Tiartian Arabic Variety**

The results obtained show that all the informants conjugate the French verbs in the imperfect tense by attaching certain AA inflectional Affixes.

-The prefixes [n] / [ne] and the suffix [i] are attached to the verbs to refer to the first person singular pronoun 'I' (ana). Note that the prefix [n] is attached to the verbs which begin with a consonant + vowel: /ndisidi/, /nforsi/, /nderongi/, /ndeplasi/, /npartisipi/; Whereas the suffix [ne] is attached to the verbs which start with two consonants: /neprepari/, /nepresenti/, /nebronji/, and /nekritiki/.

-The prefixes [n]/[ne] and the suffix [u] are attached to mark the plural of the verbs. For example: /nepreparu/ and /ndeplasu/.

### **Conclusion**

Chapter four attempts to investigate people's attitudes towards the phenomenon of AA-French borrowing and the possible reasons behind it. It also seeks to find out how Tiartian people adapt French loan words.

By analyzing and interpreting the results obtained through the two research instruments: questionnaire and word list, we can conclude that:

- 1) The majority of the informants have positive attitudes towards the phenomenon of AA-French borrowing; they consider Algerians who integrate French words in their speech as intellectuals and competent individuals; However, there remain a few who have negative attitudes towards it, and this is because they have negative attitudes towards French language itself.
- 2) Algerians borrow French words in their speech for several reasons: to fill in lexical gaps, for the matter of prestige, because of their education in the language, and also because of the long period of colonial ties to France.
- 3) The majority of our respondents adapt the French loan words morphologically as well as phonologically so that they can fit the linguistic patterns of Tiartian Arabic Variety.



**GENERAL  
CONCLUSION**

## General Conclusion

The present research work is devoted to the investigation of French word borrowing in Algeria, taking student population at the University of Ibn Khaldoun in Tiaret as a Case Study. It seeks to find out the possible reasons behind this phenomenon as well as people's attitudes towards it. Furthermore, it aims to explore how French parts of speech are adapted into the linguistic patterns of AA by describing the morphological and phonological processes involved in this adaptation.

The needed data for this research has been collected through the use of two research instruments: a questionnaire administered to 100 students from different departments at the university, and a word list administered to 25 students for the sake of obtaining data about the adaptation processes.

The findings gathered confirm our hypothesis that Algerians borrow French words for the sake of filling in lexical gaps (since the vocabulary of AA is not rich), and for the matter of prestige (since French is regarded as being more prestigious than AA). In addition to this, the findings show that some informants consider this phenomenon as the outcome of the long period of colonial ties to France; the influence that French has had on Algerian Arabic during/after colonization explains the large number of French borrowed words it comprises in its lexical inventory. Others link this phenomenon to the Algerian educational system. The average Algerian person studies French for ten years throughout primary school, middle school, and secondary school; Hence, being exposed to this language throughout their educational journey makes it inevitable for them to borrow French words.

The findings also show that the majority of our informants have positive attitudes towards this sociolinguistic phenomenon; they consider Algerians who often borrow French words as Intellectuals and competent individuals. As opposed to the minority, who have negative attitudes towards it, they claim that they rarely ever use French borrowed words in their discourse; besides, they consider French as the language of the colonizer and individuals who borrow French words as boastful.

The results obtained through the word list show that the majority of informants adapt the French words they borrow morphologically as well as phonologically so that they can fit the patterns of Tiartian Arabic variety. These adaptations include the processes of consonant and vowel substitution, gender and number assignment for nouns/adjectives, and tense inflection for verbs.

Like most other academic researches, this research has a few limitations. The first one is that the findings of this research are not to be overgeneralized to the Algerian context as a whole, since it is specific to a student population at the University of Ibn Khaldoun in Tiaret. Moreover, the fact that this study was conducted during the COVID-19 pandemic prevented us from relying on triangulation; we only used two research instruments, one of which was administered online, due to the shutting down of universities by the government as a preventive measure, and it was time-consuming.

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# APPENDICES



# Appendix I

## Student's Questionnaire

Dear informant, this questionnaire is part of our on-going MA dissertation that is meant to collect data about the sociolinguistic phenomenon of French word borrowing. We would like you to answer the following questions. Your answers will be kept confidential.

Nb: Please! Tick in ( ✓ ) the right box(es) that fit (s) your view point, or use the provided space.

### **Section 01: Informants' Personal Information.**

1-Gender: male ذكر  female انثى  1- الجنس

2- Age: 18- 22  22- 26  26-30  2- العمر

3- Specialty: 3- التخصص

English لغة انجليزية  French لغة فرنسية  Arabic لغة عربية  Law قانون

Political Science علوم سياسية  Commercial Sciences علوم اقتصادية

### **Section 2: Informants' Linguistic competence and Language Attitudes. الكفاءة اللغوية و موقف الناس من اللغات**

1-What is your mother tongue? ما هي لغتك الام

Algerian Arabic الدارجة  French اللغة الفرنسية  Berber اللغة الامازيغية

2- Which language (s) do you master? ما هي اللغات التي تجيدها

Modern standard Arabic  Algerian Arabic  French  Tamazight

3- Which language(s) do you use in your daily speech? ما هي اللغات التي تستخدمها في حياتك اليومية

Algerian Arabic  الدارجة  French  اللغة الفرنسية  Tamazight  اللغة الامازيغية

4- Which language do you think is the most prestigious? اي لغة تعتبرها الاكثر منزلة

Modern standard Arabic  اللغة العربية الفصحى  Algerian Arabic  الدارجة

French  اللغة الفرنسية  Tamazight  اللغة الامازيغية

5- Which language do you think is the most practical? ماهي اللغة التي تعتبرها الاكثر عملية

Modern standard Arabic  اللغة العربية الفصحى  Algerian Arabic  الدارجة

French  اللغة الفرنسية  Tamazight  اللغة الامازيغية

### Section 03: Informants' Attitudes towards French Language. موقف الناس من اللغة الفرنسية

1-How do you consider your level in French language? كيف تعتبر مستواك في اللغة الفرنسية

Very good  جيد جدا  Good  جيد  average  متوسط  poor  ضعيف  very poor  ضعيف جدا

2- How do you consider French language? كيف تعتبر اللغة الفرنسية

-Language of prestige  لغة ذات منزلة

-Language of modernity/ development  لغة التقدم و التطور

-Language of the colonizer  لغة المستعمر

3- Do you think that it is important for Algerians to have some competence in French language? هل تظن انه من المهم ان تكون لدى الجزائريين بعض الكفاءة في اللغة الفرنسية

Yes  نعم  No  لا  I do not know  لا اعرف

**Section 04: Informants' Attitudes towards Borrowing and its Possible Reasons** موقف

الناس من الاستعارة و اسبابها

**1-Do you use words from French language in your daily speech?** هل تستخدم كلمات من

اللغة الفرنسية في محادثاتك اليومية

Always دائما  Often غالبا  sometimes احيانا  rarely نادرا  Never ايدا

**2- When you use these words, you do it:** عندما تستخدم هذه الكلمات يكون ذلك

Consciously اراديا  Unconsciously لا اراديا

**3- How do you consider Algerians who often integrate French words in their**

speech? كيف تعتبر الجزائريين الذين غالبا ما يدرجون كلمات فرنسية في محادثاتهم

Intellectual مثقفين  Competent ذوي كفاءة  Boastful متباهيين

**5-Why do you think Algerians borrow words from French language?** لماذا نظن ان

الجزائريين يدرجون كلمات من اللغة الفرنسية في محادثاتهم

-To fill in speech gaps. لملا الفراغات.

-For the matter of prestige. من اجل التباهي.

Other

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

**6- Do you adapt the French words you borrow to match with your Algerian Arabic**

variety; For Example: saying ‘Machina’ instead of ‘Machine’? هل تغير الكلمات

الفرنسية لكي تتماشى مع لهجتك الجزائرية

Yes نعم  no لا  sometimes احيانا

# Appendix I

## Word List

**Part One:** the following list contains French nouns. Please, read them and try to provide their synonym in your dialect (give both the singular and plural form).

الجزء الاول : تحتوي القائمة التالية على أسماء باللغة الفرنسية، أعط مرادفاتها بلهجتك في المفرد والجمع.

French Nouns	Synonym in Algerian Arabic (Singular)	Synonym in Algerian Arabic (Plural)
Couverture		
Briquet		
Lampe		
Tabouret		
Tapis		
Fourchette		
Canapé		
Classe		
Cabas		

**Part two:** the following list contains French verbs. Please, conjugate them in the imperfect tense with the first person singular pronoun 'I' (ana) and the first person plural 'We' (Hna). (follow the example).

الجزء الثاني : تحتوي القائمة التالية على أفعال باللغة الفرنسية، صرفها في زمن المضارع بلهجتك مع ضمير المتكلم المفرد (أنا) وضمير الجمع (نحن/ حنا). (انظر الى المثال)

French Verbs	Verbs Conjugated in AA with the pronoun' I'	Verbs Conjugated in AA with the pronoun' we'
Decider	/ndisidi/	/ndisidu/
Forcer		
Déranger		
Preparer		
Presenter		
Déplacer		
Brancher		
Critiquer		
Participer		

## Abstract

The present Master dissertation aims at investigating the adaptation of French Language Parts of Speech to the linguistic system of Algerian Arabic Variety. It seeks to find out the possible reasons behind this phenomenon as well as people's attitudes towards it. It also aims to explore how French parts of speech are adapted into the linguistic patterns of AA by describing the morphological and phonological processes involved in this adaptation. The needed Data for this research is collected through the use of a questionnaire and word list administered to 100 students at the University of Ibn Khaldoun in Tiaret. The main findings of this study show that most of the Algerians borrow French words for the sake of filling in lexical gaps and sometimes for the matter of prestige, and that they have both positive and negative attitudes towards this sociolinguistic phenomenon.

**Key words:** Borrowing - French Language - Algerian Arabic - Parts of speech – Adaptation -Morphological adaptation - Phonological adaptation.

## Résumé

L'objectif de ce mémoire de Master est d'explorer l'adaptation des parties du discours de la langue française à la variété d'Arabe Algérienne. Il cherche à découvrir les raisons possibles de ce phénomène ainsi que les attitudes des gens à son égard. Il vise aussi à explorer comment les parties du discours de la langue française sont adaptées au système linguistique de l'Arabe Algérien, en décrivant les processus morphologiques et phonologiques impliqués dans cette adaptation. Les données de cette étude sont collectées d'après un questionnaire et une liste de mots administrés à 100 étudiants de l'Université d'Ibn Khaldoun à Tiaret. Les résultats obtenus montrent que la plupart des Algériens empruntent des mots français pour combler des lacunes lexicales et parfois pour une question de prestige, et qu'ils ont des attitudes à la fois positives et négatives face à ce phénomène.

**Mots clés :** Emprunts - la langue Française - l'Arabe Algérien - Les parties du discours - Adaptation - Adaptation Morphologique - Adaptation phonologique.

## المخلص

تعالج هذه المذكرة موضوع تعديل المفردات المقترضة من اللغة الفرنسية إلى الدارجة الجزائرية، وتهدف إلى كشف الأسباب الممكنة وراء هذه الظاهرة وكذا آراء الناس حولها. كما أنها تهدف إلى معرفة كيفية تعديل هذه المفردات الفرنسية لتتماشى وطبيعة الدارجة الجزائرية من خلال وصف التعديلات الصرفية (المورفولوجية) والصوتية (الفونولوجية). لتحقيق هذا؛ قمنا بتقديم استبيان ولائحة كلمات موجهة إلى ١٠٠ طالب من جامعة ابن خلدون بتيارت. تشير النتائج الأساسية لهذا البحث إلى أن معظم الجزائريين يقترضون كلماتهم من اللغة الفرنسية من أجل ملئ الفراغات اللغوية وأحيانا من أجل التباهي فقط، كما تشير النتائج أيضا إلى أن لديهم آراء متباينة تتراوح بين الإيجابية والسلبية حول الظاهرة السابقة نفسها

**الكلمات المفتاحية :** الاقتراض- اللغة الفرنسية- الدارجة الجزائرية- المفردات -التعديل -التعديل الصرفي-  
التعديل الصوتي.

