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**The Impact of Youth language on
Adults' Speech: Aoulef Speech Community as
a Case Study**

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Dedication

I dedicate this work which I achieved with the help of God:

To my beloved parents who enlightened my life.

Especial thanks

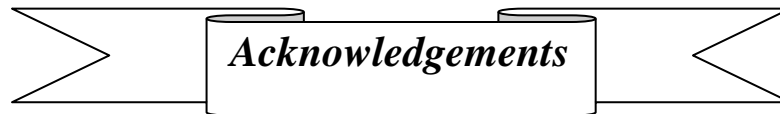
To my husband *Seddik* who gave me support, love, and never
ceased to push me forward.

To my brother *Taher* who encouraged me all times.

To my dearest brothers and sisters.

To all my family members.

To all my friends and my teachers from the primary school to the university



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Abstract

All languages change over time. Therefore, sociolinguistics takes the lead to remove ambiguities that cover motivations of language variation and change in any language. This research is set to study lexical variation in Aoulef speech community (youth versus adults' speech) as a comparative study. This work aims to verify the reasons that motivate the youngsters to introduce innovations in their speech, and to know the influence of youth speech on adults' one. Besides, it aims to examine the role of age and gender in language change. To analyze lexical variation among the youth language, we apply different sociolinguistic methods such as tape recordings, interviews, and questionnaire. We recorded both youth and adults to compare adults' to youth lexical items. Also, we used the questionnaire to find out the impact of youth innovations on adults' speech. This research comes with two main results:

The first one: Aoulefian youth change their speech to simplify their dialect to foreigners.

The second: Adults are highly affected by youth language.

Finally, we proposed some suggestions for a further research.

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List of Acronyms

A.D: Aoulefian Dialect

F: Female

H: High variety

L: Low Variety

M.S.A: Modern Standard Arabic

SpCom: Speech community

M: Males

P: Percentage

N: Number

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List of Symbols

[b]: [bubu] “shirt”	voiced bilabial plosive.
[f]: [fa:ɟn] “where”	voiceless labio-dental fricative.
[ʃ]: [ʃarəf] “older”	voiceless post- alveolar fricative.
[g]: [garg] “shoes”	voiced velar plosive.
[h]: [hani] “fine”	voiceless glottal fricative.
[k]: [kərroʒa] “car”	voiceless velar plosive.
[l]: [lalʊʒa] “ladle”	voiced alveolar lateral.
[m]: [mhaʦaʦ] “cut”	voiced bilabial nasal.
[n]: [na:si] “my family”	alveolar nasal.
[q]: [qaʒʒəb] “cut it”	voiceless uvular fricative.
[r]: [ra:ɟəʒ] “I’m full of”	alveolar trill.
[s]: [sɟi:fa] “shed”	voiceless alveolar fricative.
[t]: [tagəmi] “kitchen”	voiceless alveolar plosive.
[χ]: [χoʒa] “a ring”	voiceless uvular fricative.
[ħ]: [ħraʃ] “brave”	voiceless pharyngeal fricative.
[ʕ]: [ʕatba] “scale”	voiced pharyngeal fricative.
[ʔ]: [ʔar:ɟon] “soup”	glottal stop
[ɣ]: [ɣa:ɟa] “ok”	voiceless velar fricative.
[z]: [zaki] “a lot”	voiced labio dental fricative.
[ʒ]: [ʒuz] “come”	voiceless palato-alveolar fricative

Semi-vowel

[w]: [walo] “nothing”	voiced bilabial approximant.
[j]: [jətmantag] “he run a way”	voiced palatal approximant.

List of Symbols

The Emphatic

- [t̪]: [t̪i:r] “fly” voiceless retroflex plosive.
[d̪]: [d̪arwak] “new” voiceless retroflex plosive.
[ʂ]: [ʂarot] “key” voiceless retroflex fricative.

Vowels

- [i]: [kawri] “yard”
[a]: [markanti] “rich”
[o]: [əɣdo] “going on”
[i:]: [si:r] “go”
[ə]: [əlhanʃi:r] “night”
[o:]: [taqo:ra] (unknown)

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General Introduction

General Introduction

People are different in their behaviours, thoughts, traditions, and languages. Language as a means of communication gives speakers the opportunity to identify themselves in different ways. In any society, there is more than one variety in the same language. The dialect is a sociolinguistic concept that refers to the variety of language.

Sociolinguistics is highly interested to study how people use their languages in a given social context. On the other hand, it is concerned with different factors that influence the use of language such as social class, education, age, and gender. Dialectology as a sub-field of sociolinguistics studies speech variation on various linguistic levels (phonetic, phonological, semantic, grammatical, and lexical level).

Lexical variation occurs when people tend to change their vocabularies from one situation to another. For example, in the south of Algeria and exactly in Aoulef, a small village in Adrar, old people use the word [əzɔdak] whereas the youngsters use the word [za.jn], as a polite request for a kid praising him to do something for them. Sometimes, the elders use words that the youth do not know the meanings. On the other hand, the youth use words and expressions that are completely different from what adults use. The latter use borrowed words from French, Modern Standard Arabic (M.S.A), and other languages than adapt them to their dialect. This fact leads us to seek answers for the following questions:

- To what extent does youth language affect adults' speech?
- What makes young people tend to change their speech? How does their use of innovations affect the language at the lexical level?
- Is lexical variation related to gender? Which gender contributes more to language change?
- What are the causes that lead to lexical variation in the Aoulefian dialect?

In order to answer the preceding questions, our work is divided into three main chapters. Two are devoted to the theoretical part and one is devoted to the practical part. The first chapter includes some definitions of sociolinguistic concepts, whereas the second one consists of different levels of language variation. The last chapter is concerned with collecting data about lexical variation in Aoulefian dialect through two main research instruments which are a questionnaire and an interview.

The main aim of this dissertation is to investigate factors that motivate Aoulefian youth to change their speech, and to know which gender contributes more in this change.

Part One

Theoretical Framework

Chapter One

Sociolinguistic Overviews

1.1.Introduction

Language is a means of communication. People use the language to express their ideas, emotions and feelings. It changes according to the situation of the user. In addition, the language has a social function; it helps the user to create social relationships. Individuals of different social backgrounds, level of education, class, age, and gender use different speeches at the lexical, grammatical and pronunciation levels. Sociolinguists focus on the close relationship between language and society. Sociolinguistic research aims at finding out the social factors which affect language variation.

As we are interested in lexical variation and language change in this chapter we are going to deal with sociolinguistics, dialectology, and other basic concepts in relation to language change.

1.2. Sociolinguistic Discipline

Sociolinguistics as a field of linguistics deals with the study of the interaction between language and society. That field is concerned with language as used for communication within different social groups in different situations. The aim of the sociolinguists is to discover regular relations between linguistics and social structure. The kind of language which the speaker chooses to use is determined by his social background, thus the language reveals information about its speakers. Sociolinguists use different methods for collecting and analyzing data (Miriam Meyerhoff, 2006, p.26).

Holmes (2013) claims:

Sociolinguists study the relationship between language and society. They are interested in explaining why we speak differently in different social contexts, and they are concerned with identifying the social functions of language and the ways it is used to convey social meaning. Examining the way people use language in different social contexts provides a wealth of information about the way language works, as well as about the social relationships in a community, and the way people convey and construct aspects of their social identity through their language. (p.1)

Language as a social phenomenon is closely related to social structure and value systems of the society. Sociolinguistics intends to show how our use of language is influenced by such factors as class, gender, age and race.

The study of language and society is a young discipline. Most of the growth in sociolinguistics took place in the late 1960s and 1970s. At that time, a number of American linguists began to investigate English usage in the United States from a social point of view. (Hickey, p.2) “n.d”

According to Georgieva (2014), there are different relationships between language and society. One is the social structure which may either influence or determine linguistic structure, for example, young people speak differently from adults; varieties of language may reflect regional, social, or ethnic origin. In addition, power may explain much of linguistic behavior. Second possible relationships oppose the first: linguistic structure and behavior may either influence or determine social structure. The third possibility supposes that linguistic structure and social structure are completely separated from each other. In that sense, linguistics is different from sociolinguistics in taking account only of the structure of language to the exclusion of the social contexts. The fourth possible relationships are that language and society influence each other; speech behaviour and social behaviour interact with each other. In fact, there are different ways in which society and language influence each other and make sociolinguistic reference extremely broad.

1.3. Dialectology

Dialectology is a sub-field of sociolinguistics. It studies speech variation on grammatical and phonological levels based upon regional areas. Dialectologists can recognize different features of speech of people from various regions, towns, and even parts of town can be distinguished. The aim of dialectological work is to produce a geographical account of linguistic differences.

Traditional dialectology is based on dialectal dissimilarities and perceptions to classify the dialects. It tries to find out a connection with the history of ethnic groups. The oldest dialectologists have created “isoglosses” or “dialect maps” in which dialect regions are separated. An isogloss is a line on a map dividing areas in which dialects differ in some characteristics. The different dialect areas were coloured differently; the colour distinction makes a visual illustration of the borders between various dialect areas. Winkler (1874), divided the Dutch language areas into Frisian, Saxon and Franconian. The Dutch language is a good example of a lexical isogloss which can be found in the pronunciation of the final syllable word *dopen* ‘to baptize’. This is pronounced as [dopm] in the northeastern part of the Netherlands and in the western part of Flemish-speaking Belgium, but it is pronounced [dopə] in the intervening area and in Frisian. (Dialect, p10) “n.d”

The advantage of an isogloss map is that it illustrates verifiable facts. Goossens (1977), mentions that “*the isogloss method cannot be applied without making subjective choices*”.

Urban dialectology or modern dialectology follows a synchronic research, focusing on the relation of language and social factors such as ethnicity, race, gender, and age. By using observation and questionnaire, the dialectologist can investigate the frequency of occurrence of typical speech forms of a certain social group in a quantitative or qualitative method (cited in Moussadek, 2013)

1.4. Dialects

The dialect is as a sub-division of a particular language. Dialects are regarded as a kind of deviation from the standard form of a certain language. Actually, all Speakers speak at least one dialect.

The researchers faced the problem of distinguishing between language and dialect; and they can not decide what a language is. As a way of looking at this issue, they describe the language as a ‘collection of mutually intelligible dialects’. The advantage of this definition is to characterize dialects as sub-divisions of a language and to provide a condition for differentiating two languages; however, this definition is not correct.

For instance, the Scandinavian languages: Swedish, Danish, Norwegian are usually considered to be different languages, though, speakers of these languages can easily understand and communicate with each other.

According to Chambers and Trudgill (2014):

Dialect is also a term which is often applied to forms of language, particularly those spoken in more isolated parts of the world which have no written form... Standard English, for example, is just as much a dialect as any other form of English and that it does not make any kind of sense to suppose that any one dialect is in any way linguistically superior to any other. (p3)

1.5. Regional and Social Dialect

Variation is a central concept in sociolinguistics. Every language that is spoken over any particular area is different from another within the same country; we always encounter regional or social variation. The different forms of the language that may be spoken by different members of social groups are social dialects or sociolects.

1.5.1. Regional Dialect

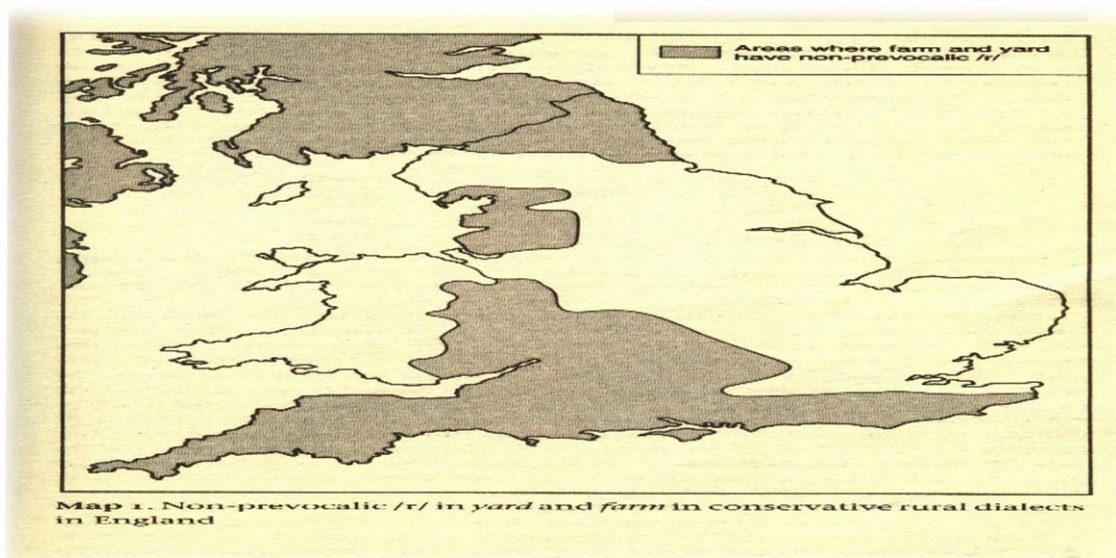
Dialects are different from each other, from one area to another. A regional dialect is spoken throughout a wide geographical area. This dialect has been spoken for hundreds of years with differences in pronunciation, forms of words, and syntax.

According to Wardhaugh (2006), “*The term dialect is sometimes used only if there is a strong tradition of writing in the local variety*” (p44). Dialectologists did many works about the distributions of various linguistic features to demonstrate their geographical background. For example, in looking for determining features of the English dialects, sometimes maps are drawn to illustrate actual boundaries around such features; they are called ‘dialects boundary’.

In Britain, there is a relationship between social dialects and geographical dialects. The regional linguistic differentiation is great at the level of varieties unlike Standard English. Regional differences are clearly the result of language change in different ways, in different places.

When a linguistic innovation, as a new word or new pronunciation, occurs at a particular place, it may spread to other near areas, so long as no serious barriers for communication intervene. If an innovation started in London, it would be expected to find that this innovation began to be used in Cambridge. A good example of linguistic innovation in English is the loss of non -prevocalic /r/ in words like “cart” and “car”.

Map1. Non-prevocalic /r/ in ‘yard’ and ‘farm’ in conservative rural dialects (Trudgill, 2000)



Map1 is based on the survey of Traditional Dialects carried out in 1950s and 1960s in England where the loss of non-prevocalic /r/ in the pronunciation of the word “farm” and “yard” is clearly observed. Additionally, Map1 denotes a considerable explanation dealing with the real state of non-prevocalic /r/in England. Firstly, it is limited to the examination of only two words; other words would reveal more areas, where non-prevocalic /r/ might be pronounced. Secondly, it is socially incomplete. For instance, along the eastern edge of the south-western area, only older speakers from the lowest social groups possibly use a /r/ less strongly and less frequently, rather than people in the south and the west. Thirdly, the map concerns only rural linguistic varieties. For example, in many urban areas, the impression is very inaccurate, unlike the rural area; the utterance of the /r/ is less quickly.

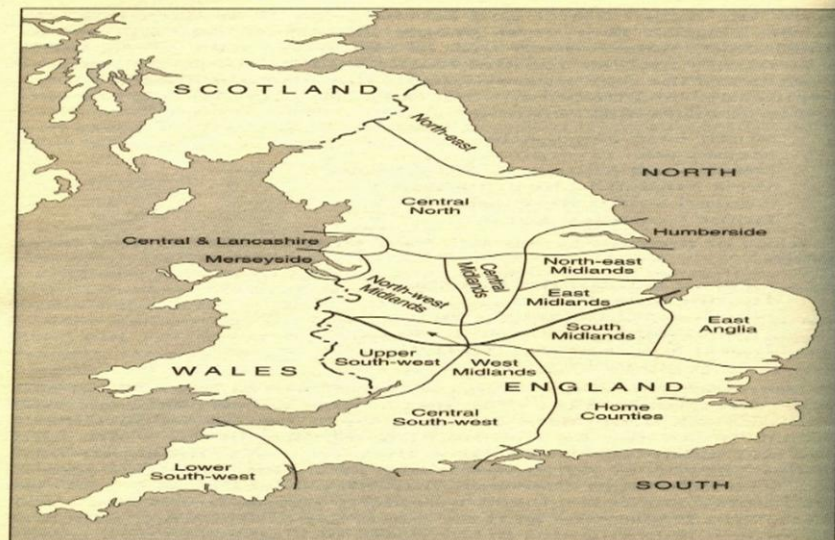
Linguistic innovations spread from one urban area to another, and later spread out into the surrounding countryside. This is because of the structure of communication network.

The spread of linguistic features does not depend only on proximity. An innovation started in London is likely to reach Bristol before it reaches rural Wiltshire, although the latter is the nearest. The speech of Manchester in many ways is more like that of London rather than the rural dialect of a nearby village of Cheshire:

Table1: Examples of words from London, Manchester and Cheshire dialects.

words	London	Manchester	Cheshire
'brush'	[brʌs]	[brʊs]	[brais]
'such'	[sʌʃ]	[sʊʃ]	[sɪʃ]
'put'	[pʌt]	[pʌt]	[pʊt]

(Peter Trudgill, 2000:150)

Map2. Modern English dialect areas**Map 2.** Modern English dialect areas

Linguistic forms may spread through an important method which is traveling over large distances. Map2 shows the main dialect and accent areas of modern English that most people speak as opposed to Traditional Dialect.

The dialect boundaries have appeared in different places and dialect areas. This increased geographical mobility during the course of the twentieth century and led to the disappearance of many dialects.

Today, English is a basis of many European languages. Borrowings to English take place initially through bilingual individuals in English along with their native languages. It became common as the result of the wide spread use of English as a lingua franca, due to former world political, economic, educational, and scientific dominance of Britain and the similar present dominance of USA (Trudgill, P. 2000:148).

1.5.2. Social Dialects

In the 18th century, dialectologists focused on the study of regional dialects. They measured the language variation through the geographical origin of the speaker. Sociolinguists decided that geographical location was not enough to explain linguistic variation. In 1960, sociolinguists started to look for the social factors that influence language variation. Two persons grown in the same geographical area may speak differently at the same time due to social factors.

Social dialects' survey involves the social background of the speakers regarding their education, occupation, age, sex, and other social attitudes. Differences in most societies appear in social status of people. Sociolinguists recognized that there are differences in the speech of people of different social classes.

The educational degree of the speaker influences the language that he uses, the more we learn, the more our language is improved. For example, the teacher talks like a book; because he has an experience in writing and reading.

Occupation has also an effect on the speech of the speaker. For instance, doctors do not speak as architects, or merchants. The use of the /n/ as opposed to /ŋ/ of "ing" in words like *walking*, *drinking*, and *smoking* has been noticed in the pronunciation of the working class. In addition, some differences have been observed in the speech of the same social class due to factors such as gender and age; for example, children's speech is not like the adults'; the language that women use is different from that men use (Yule.G.2006).

Wardaugh (2006) exemplifies the linguistic variable as follows :

A linguistic variable is a linguistic item which has identifiable variants. For example, words like singing and fishing are sometimes pronounced as singin' and 'fishin'. The final sound in these words may be called the linguistic variable (ng) with its two variants [ŋ] in singing and [n] in singin' (p143).

1.6. Speech Community

Sociolinguists debated about the notion of speech community; there is no agreement on a certain definition. Definitions of speech community focus on “shared community membership” and “shared linguistic communication”, therefore, this leads to the understanding of what the SpCom exactly means. The SpCom is an important term in sociolinguistics. Linguistics focuses on language variation as a portion of human communication in different speech communities. Indeed, researchers suggested that people who are living together in isolated places, have homogeneous speech communities, and other heterogeneous SpComs can be found in big urban spots (Patrick, 2013).

Linguists decided to accept the heterogeneity of any SpCom, since there are no two persons who speak in the same way. In 1960, William Labov brought the term ‘SpCom’ to linguistics. He worked on various studies concerning language variation and change.

Gumperz (1982), defines SpCom as

A system of organized diversity held together by common norms and aspirations. Members of such a community typically vary with respect to certain beliefs and other aspects of behaviour. Such variation which seems irregular when observed at the level of the individuals, nonetheless, shows systematic regularities at the statistical levels of social facts. (P.24)

According to William Labov (1972:120-121):

The speech community is not defined by any marked agreement in the use of language elements, so much as by participation in a set of shared norms. These norms may be observed in overt types of evaluative behavior, and by the uniformity of abstract patterns of variation which are invariant in respect to particular levels of usage. (as cited in Patrick, 2013:28)

Sociolinguistics as a branch of linguistics is concerned with representative samples of a population that takes new subjects as typical members of groups. It studies the origin of the notions of the native speaker. Speakers in social space use linguistic systems, acquire change, and manipulate the change for communicative purposes. Thus, linguists prefer to emphasize on varieties and grammar.

The concept SpCom has been used for geographical areas, which bounded urban communities, such as Philadelphia (Labov, 1989), Anniston, Alabama (Feagin, 1996), and other different rural areas. Remarkably, language variation in small villages is less apparent than the large inhabited areas where people of different origins are in daily contact.

Researchers seriously treated the notion SpCom, but without any determination of difficulties. Wardhaugh (1998) improves the idea from idealized similarity to fragmented individualism; it relies on the impulse to identify one person with others in the same community. In addition, he prefers an ambiguous definition, one-size fits-all approach: “*some kind of social group whose speech characteristics are of interest and can be described in a coherent manner*” (p.116). On the other hand, Hudson (1996) compares the main definitions starting from the basis that language is an individual possession, and he takes an essential subjectivist assessment that ends by totally dismissing the function of the concept. Furthermore, Duranti (2003), equally, mentions the abandoning of SpCom as “*an already constituted object of inquiry*”, rather than taking it as a product of a given group of people when they engage in their communicative activities.

1.7. Social variables

Sociolinguists are always interested in the relationship between linguistics and social variation. They try to relate the variants to quantifiable factors in society such as age, gender, ethnicity, occupation, education, and other social status.

1.7.1 Sociological Background

Social class is a central idea in sociolinguistic research. This concept is included as a variable in sociolinguistic studies. Researchers who are interested in linguistic variation face problems of defining “social class” since there is no systematic study of such notion within the field of sociolinguistics.

Social class is a notion that emerged by the coming of the Industrial Revolution. This renovation of economic and social order brought about the system of industrial capitalism. Theories of social class are associated with figures like Marx and Weber.

There are different ways of defining social class. Marx represents a fundamental distinction between those who produce capital and those who control the production of capital which others produce. The former is the working class and the latter is the middle class.

Weber's work class is theorized in terms of social action. Individual's economic situation, life style, and life chances are important factors in defining which class they belong to.

The shift in definition of Marx to Weber has a particular interest in sociolinguistics because Weber's definition of class emphasizes on the participation of individuals in a complex set of associated behaviours and attitudes. The division inherent in Marx's theory of social class was a principle to his ideas about class conflict. The notion conflict or contrast has been influential in shaping how some sociolinguists interpret linguistic variation that is stratified by social class and variability within speech community. Sociolinguistic variables are stratified according to social class or social groupings. This means that one variant appears frequently in the speech of members of a high social class and another variant is found more or less in the speech of members of a lower class. However, these differences are not deterministic because sometimes, all speakers can use both choices regardless of their social class. (Chambers and Trudgill, 2006)

1.7.2. Social Castes

Traditionally, the Touat social structure is based on a caste system hierarchy. The castes contain the Chorfas, the Morabtines, and the Zoui. The Hartanis and the slaves are considered as lower classes, neither rich nor prestigious within the hierarchy. People who belong to the same caste-membership have to share and respect the scheduled mobility within that system. For instance, inter-marriages should be in the same or in the closed caste-membership arrangement. However, all other castes respect the principles of Islam.

The notion 'Chorfas' or (Nobles), (sing. Cherif) is the highest class of the Touat social grading. Most of Chorfas claim that they are the descendants of the Prophet Mohamed (peace be upon him); *"they are the children of El Hassan and El Hussein, sons of Caliph Ali and Fatima, daughter of the Prophet They are referred to as the 'Alids', or as the 'Idrissids', and also as the 'Hassanids' of Morocco"* (Bouhania, 2008:166) "n.d."

The Mrabtines or (the Marabouts) caste is the second highest rank of the noble spheres of the stratification. They are religious people; "Imams" and Koranic teachers. They are descendants of the Almoravids, who ruled the north of Africa and a part of Andalusia for eras.

The Zoui are "Tolbas" (sing. Taleb), they study Islamic sciences for being future preachers. They are called 'Mulattamun' or 'veiled' people because of the veil that covers their faces. They are of Moorich origin. In the past, the Zoui people had to pay communal tributes for the Chorfas to save them from strangers.

The Slaves' fathers and grandfathers were brought as prisoners from Sub-Saharan Africa to Touat then they were sold to rich people and sellers of Touat in substitution for salt and silk. The slaves and their families had to work in their owners' fields. Generally, they were obliged to work in hard tasks like digging and cleaning hundreds of "foggaras". They learned the Koran and the precepts of the prophet Mohammad (pbuh). The slaves could be integrated into their chiefs' families after two or three generations. The Slaves are considered as the lowest social class.

The Hartanis term is used to identify the free born slaves; the second generation of slaves or coloured people. The origin of the word "Hartanis" is a controversial concept. This word is composed of the Arabic stem {harrun} 'free' and adjective {thani} 'second'. Another known definition is that of perfective {harrar-ta} 'you freed' and {ana} 'me', the first personal singular pronoun, it means 'you freed me'. The other widespread definition is the Arabic noun of cultivators {harratin}. Socially, the Hartanis are classified as a middle class between the slaves and noble men. After 1970, they became "landowners". Thus, they got the chance to reach and climb the social ladder based on money but not up the one based on birth.

1.7.3. Age as sociolinguistic variable

Ageing is the development of the individual's experience and achievement of social and physical capacities. It is the participation of a person in the world throughout the history of the community. On the other hand, age is the person's life stage at a given time, place and history. Age and ageing are experienced separately as a group of people who share the same life stage or experience of life. However, the age was presented as a complex variable of the main significance for the study of language use, sociolinguistic study considers age as a simple dimension for describing the speaker's life stage as a number of years, but it neglects the relationship between life stage and history. The first aim of variations paradigm is to explain the processes of language change and to remove the ambiguity upon the relationship between age grading and the existence of language change over time. Furthermore, the studies of apparent time assume stability of language forms, which are used throughout adulthood, reflect the speaker's experience, intuitions, and needs of systematic research.

The analysis of linguistic variable in relation with age can be found in the change that occurs in the speech community as it moves through time (as historical change). On the other hand, by the change that occurs in the speech of an individual's speaker who moves through time which is known as 'age grading'.

The Sociolinguistic survey requires a theory which would take into consideration lifelong development rather than other social facts, and requires age as a flexible socio-psychological dimension. The problematic of ageism must be taken as a benefit for all generations of speakers.

In order to remove the unclear image which describes the relationship between the process of language change and age grading, there are some questions that should be raised: To what extent can a speaker's language change through time? How does age interact with other social variables such as class, gender, and level of education?

In order to answer these questions we must understand the linguistic life course. Although age is a simple dimension among other social variables, no study of variation from the prospect of life course exists. (Eckert, 1998a)

According to Coupland (1998:203) "*Sociolinguistics has assumed that age is mainly of interest as a resource for the study of language change*". (as cited in Brona Murphy)

1.7.4. Gender as a sociolinguistic Variable

The term gender is a grammatical word. It refers to the social role of male and female as a biological classification. The discrimination against women in the past is still observed today. Many female researchers debated the topic of "language and gender" to clarify the relationship between the two. Robin Lakoff was the first linguist who focused on certain themes with language and gender. Her work motivated other researchers to give attention to such subjects and to engage in this study.

Sociolinguists are concerned about the language that men and woman use. Different views, which established on this relationship, focused particularly on two ideas. The first one is the 'difference approach'. This approach determined that males and females are speaking differently despite the nature of the social relationship between men and women. The second is the 'dominance approach'; the language used by men and women reflects the social control of men over women. The simple dichotomy "difference-dominance" was regarded as insufficient and unsatisfactory explanation with the interest that increases noticeably toward the problematic of "language and gender".

In order to discuss the relationship between language and gender, it is important to clarify that statements made in this situation are applied on groups of men and women. These statements are generalizations, applied on the majority of groups, as they are applied in any

field of study. For instance, the generalization which actually everyone would agree on, “*the western men have a competitive style*” of social behaviour.

Language change takes place in women’s speech; however, women tend to use standard forms of language. Language change can be demonstrated in English Dublin pronunciation. It has appeared for fifteen or twenty years. There are two relevant features of this new pronunciation. The first is the diphthongization of the vowel in “GOAT”, the vowel has been developing a central position different from the low initial position for the conservative Dublin English. The second is the retroflex /r/. It can be seen as a movement different from the low rhoticity of traditional Dublin English.

In conditions where language variety is stable and standard, the change appears more on women speakers according to their relative social status. On the other hand, in situations where the language variety is changing, it also confers power on women because the change is associated with a special motivated status.

1.8. Conclusion

Language is a social phenomenon by which people interact with each other in their societies. In this chapter, we have seen some key concepts in sociolinguistics that give a sign of a subject matter. Dialectology is one of those concepts that receives popular interest of many sociolinguists. It studies features of speech variation based on geographical areas. Moreover, we see different factors that affect language change such as gender, age and social class rather than other factors, which could require sections to examine and explain. In the following chapter, we will analyze and illustrate the various types and causes of language variation.

Chapter Two

Language Variation and Change

2.1. Introduction

It is obvious that languages change overtime. People change their speech unconsciously. They involve new pronunciation and borrow words from other languages. In addition, speakers adapt other languages' features into their own speech, particularly in a bilingual society. The rate of change may vary from one region to another according to many factors. This chapter will discuss different factors that lead to language change. The types of change are semantic, morphological, lexical, phonetic and phonological. The study of different types of change is very broad and complex. Therefore, we will mention the main four levels of change.

2.2. Language Variation

Language variation is an essential part in sociolinguistics. It describes features of language and studies the correlation of these features in a given society. It occurs when phonetic, morphological, semantic, and other features of language change over time. Linguists devote two fields to study language change: the historical linguistics and sociolinguistics. The history of linguistics studies how the language was used in the past and how it becomes at present. Sociolinguistics is concerned with the study of the origin of words according to the community and shows the facts that lead to the change. ([http://en.Wikipedia/language change](http://en.Wikipedia/language_change)). In addition, language variation refers to the different usages of the language in any society, i.e. Speakers of a single geographical area do not speak in the same way. Differences reflect the social background of the speakers such as social class, education, and ethnic group. Yule, G. (2006), argues that the variety is an important aspect in the present time either social or regional one. *"We are also aware of the fact that people who live in the same region, but who differ in terms of education and economic status, often speak in quite different ways".*(p205).

Speakers may use varieties implicitly or explicitly due to social context and social attitudes. Differences are considered as indications to membership in different social groups in any society. The sociolinguist Jennifer Coats explains that the linguistic change occurs when people use new forms which are adapted and accepted in the linguistic norm.

As technology changes overtime, it affects people's lifestyle, traditions, attitudes, and language; however, people are not conscious about the changes that occur in their speech. Nowadays language change occurs thanks to technology, mobile phone,

Internet, globalization and immigration. “*No two people speak exactly the same. There are infinite sources of variation in speech*” (Holmes, 2013: 131).

2.3 Accommodation

Speech accommodation occurs when people modify their speech towards the speech of people who are talking to them. This happens because of the influence of different factors, for example, the travel agent wants to gain her customers’ orders, being interested to please them, she accommodates their speech.

Converging to another person’s speech is a polite speech strategy. It entails that the addressee’s speech is worth imitating by using the same pronunciation and the same vocabulary. People downward towards the lesser linguistic proficiency of their addressees when they simplify their vocabulary and grammar in their conversation to foreigners. Accommodation often appears in multilingual countries such as, India, Singapore, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo where there are many varieties.

The speaker may accommodate the most appropriate code or variety that is comfortable for the addressee. For example, in the market, some people use the language of the person who sells goods in order to save goodwill. Contradictorily, in bilingual communities like Canada, in cafes, Canadians speak English with the customers who are classified as English speakers in order to increase their chances of a good sale (kerswill, 2003).

On the other hand, divergence occurs when speakers of the minority ethnic group maintain and display their cultural uniqueness by using their variety, especially in their communication with foreigners in order to differentiate themselves from the majority ethnic groups. Giles and Powesland (1975) definition refers to speakers who “*accommodate their speech to their addressee in order to win their approval*” (as cited in Liams .C, Mullany .L, and Stockwell .P, 2007:96).

2.4. Factors of Language Change

The first division of language change factors is between internal and external variation. Gain or loss of sounds and extension of new items mainly cause an internal variation; whereas, borrowing constructions and words from other languages cause an external variation.

2.4.1. Internal Factors

William Labov promotes the distinction between internal and external factors that motivate language change. He argues that various changes occur in low-contact versus high-contact situation. Trudgill (1989) mentions that the contact in the present time seems to be different from that happened in the past. The study of language change in isolated languages is considered as a good basis to understand the past changes. In addition, Trudgill (1989) proposes that children's learning may make a considerable change within low contact varieties. However, language contact in the present is greater than how it was in the past.

Multilingualism was widespread in some areas such as The Roman Empire and The Ancient New East. This situation does not lead to the lack of communication between people in such societies even if outsiders would observe it. Milroy and Trudgill (1990) note, "*More recent changes are more likely to be accepted as externally influenced simply because more information about different varieties and contact between languages is available*" (p21).

According to Milroy (2003), the role of language change in the past was unknown due to the insufficient historical evidence. Thus, the difference between the internal and the external factors that initiated changes may not exist. The acceptance of innovations in the linguistic system starts when these innovations pass from the innovator to other speakers then they spread spontaneously among different social groups. Therefore, the process of linguistic change is similar to the process of linguistic borrowing.

The contact between different social dialects and between individual idiolects is the first reason of language change. Even though, sociolinguists do not call each individual dialect a language, but they accept the speech communities that exist as consisting of separated individuals. (Crofft, 2000).

Moreover, Mufwene (2001) states that “*any communal language exists because speakers using systems that are not necessarily identical interact with one another. In the process they accommodate each other in their speech habits*” (p32). He says that English language that is brought from the British Isles to North America, as dialectal variation, can be considered as internal or external ecology if the analyst focuses only on the dialect of London meeting the British South Western English in Virginia. Thus, mutual accommodation of the speaker and the hearer is the eventual reason of change.

Actually, the acceptance of innovation within a community, relies on the innovators’ and the adaptors prestige. It can be understood as a kind of readiness of the speaker/hearer to accommodate another speaker/hearer’s speech in his/her communication. The speaker may behave as s/he thinks the other person would behave (Keller, 1994). Noticeably, the adult learners play an important role in contact between varieties. Speakers try to assimilate their own language to a high prestige variety, which is similar to the learner. The degree of the success of change in the target variety may be less than what the learner does in the target language. (Luraghi, p15) “n.d.”

2.3.2. External Factors

Language change usually appears in a society as the result of the contact among people who speak different languages or dialects. Weinreich (1953) pointed that “*the crucial role of bilingual speakers as the locus for language contact. However, high prestige languages may influence other languages without necessarily involve bilingualism*”. (as cited in Luraghi, p11)

In the past, the knowledge of language interaction was limited because these languages had no written documentation. It was hard to evaluate unknown languages. Therefore, the historical research of language change relies on documentation more than the historical study of social variation.

According to Trudgill (1989), language contact brings changes. He notes that “*koineization*” is a typical example of contact situation. Mufwene, (2001:3) says “*Koines are compromise varieties among diverse dialects of the same language*” (as cited in Luraghi. P12). Trudgill observes that the adults acquire a second language in the situation of contact because of simplification. Thomason (2003) also underlines the role of the learners in bilingual position and imperfect learning on the language change.

He observes that the learners introduce phonological and syntactic features into a Target Language (TL) rather than lexical features. The fact that makes the learners fail to learn TL usually is the difficulty to learn some features of that language. This remark agrees with Trudgill's observation about simplification.

Andersen (1988) argues that innovations develop from the center in the normal situation and they describe isolated areas. According to him, such isolated regions present a tendency to high phonological elaboration. Anderson (1988) discusses the boundary of dialectal areas and dialects of the same language which are used in the centre area. However, Nicholas (1988) debates the correlation between lacks of contact that encourage change and increase complexity. (Luraghi) "n.d."

2.4. Types of Change

Language variation has four main levels of variation such as grammatical, phonetic, semantic, and lexical change.

2.4.1. Grammatical Change

Grammatical variation includes two sub-types: morphology and syntax. Morphology refers to the study of the form of words. There are many examples of morphological change in English language for instance, the morphemes {un} "not" and {happy} in unhappy or the morphemes {cat} and {s} "plural" in {cats}. In English dialects, the sound {s} is reserved to make the present tense of the third person singular forms in sentences like "He speaks" and "She studies". On the other hand, the past tense forms of verbs like catch, climb, and draw become hatched, clum, and drewd in variation of the East part of US, but in the western US variation are caught, climbed, and drewd (Atwood,1953).

AlAlwani.N, (2003) defines morphological variation as a change that happens in the sectional structure of words in consideration to change in pronunciation. In her research, she gives examples about changes in morphological structure of some verbs in MSA. For instance, the present form of the verb [iχtəʃama] is [jəχtəʃimun]. The sound [t] is omitted for easier pronunciation and it becomes [jəχəʃimun].

The following table shows the changes that occurs in the present form:

The present tense (plural form)	Changes	Meaning in English
[jaχtaʃimun]	[jaχaʃimun]	“they fight”
[jastaʃiʃun]	[jastʃiʃun]	“they can”
[jataqabbalun]	[jaqabbalun]	“ they accept”
[jaqtasimmun]	[jaqsimmun]	“they share”

Table2.1 Examples of Grammatical change from MSA

Syntax refers to the structure of sentences and phrases, including rules in which words are combined to form sentences. For instance, the rule of yes/no questions in English, the auxiliaries must be in the beginning of sentences like “*Can John go*” unlike the statement, “*John can go*”. In the Midwest of the US, speakers may use “anymore” in meaning of “*nowadays*” in positive sentences like “*He smokes a lot anymore*”, however, in the rest of the country people use “*anymore*” only in the meaning of “*no longer*” and only in negative sentences. Grammatical change is common as an indicator of social and regional dialects. Sometimes, it is associated with the limited education of the language users. (Mantiri) "n.d."

2.4.2. Phonetic and Phonological Change (sound change)

Sound change is a main level of variation. This change includes phonetic and phonological levels. Phonetic variation refers to the change that happens in the pronunciation without affecting the phonemic level; whereas phonological variation represents the change at the phonemic level. Two speakers pronounce the same word differently, or the same speaker has different styles of speech. Geographical and social differences among speakers reflect the sound change. In this case, there is an example from Algerian Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic in which the voiced velar plosive consonant /g/ in AA is used instead of the /q/.

The following words are examples from MSA with the sound /q/:

M.S.A	A.A	Word in English
[qaʃi:r]	[gʃi:r]	“short”
[qali:l]	[gli:l]	“few”
[qa:ʃi]	[ga:ʃi]	“tough”
[qalb]	[galb]	“heart”
[qidr]	[gədra]	“pot”

Table3. Examples of Phonetic Change

There is another example about the use of the [ʔ] /hamza/ in M.S.A and A.A. The sound [ʔ] is released as [a:] in some words like [ʔssama:ʔ] “sky” and [əлма:ʔ] “water” and become [sma:] and [lma:]. Sometimes, it is pronounced as [i:] in words like [bɪʔr] is released [br:r] “well”.

In English pronunciation, phonological changes are constant. Most educated people speak with Received Pronunciation (PR). People’s speech can be gradually modified because of the influence of the surrounding ones over time. For instance, British people learn the American accent in a very short time (Aitcheson, 1991). In some American dialects, there are many examples of phonological variation that are based on period differences. In the early twentieth century, people stopped making distinction in pairs such as *flew* and *floor* and people stopped using a "tapped" r-sound between vowels (*very sorry*). Nevertheless, in the late twentieth century, the vowel sound at the end of words such as *happy*, *coffee*, *valley* is growing tenser to ch- and j- sounds; they are spreading to words such as *Tuesday*, *reduce* (like *chooseday*, *rejuice*) (Wells, 1999) (as cited in Oktavian Mantiri, p 8) “n.d.”. This level of variation is also regarded in southern English in words like *flood*, *but*, and *cup* which are pronounced with [a] sound and words like *full*, *good*, and *put* are pronounced with the sound [u].

([http//en.Wikipedia.Org/wiki/factors_of_language_change](http://en.Wikipedia.Org/wiki/factors_of_language_change)).

2.4.3. Semantic Change

Semantics deals with the study of the meaning of linguistic expressions. Semantic variation refers to the change that occurs in the meaning of words .i.e. the modern usage of a particular word that is different from the original usage according to the situation.

Semantic change is also called “semantic shift”. It describes the evaluation of the word’s use. For example, in English, the word “guy” was used to describe any “*person of grotesque appearance*” or a general reference for a male person. In the 20th century, the word “guy” changes because of the impact of the American popular culture. It is replaced by words like, "bloke", "chap", and "fellow". Now, the word “guys” refers to a mixture of genders (male and female). (Oktavian Mantiri, p 6) “n.d.”

Moreover, there are several examples of semantic variation in M.S.A. The word [ʕɔrf] in M.S.A has more than one meaning, according to the context; sometimes, it means “custom” and other times, it means “cockscorn”. In addition, the word [qafala] can be used in the meaning of [raʒaʕa] “returned”, or in the meaning of [ʕalaqalbab] “he closed the door”. McMahon (1999) summarized factors of language change to linguistic, psychological, sociocultural, and cultural forces. For instance, the word [əddar], in A.A means, “Home”, but married men in Aoulef use it to mean “my wife”.

2.4.4. Lexical Change

Lexical variation is an essential part in language change. The term “lexis” means vocabulary of the language that is examined. The lexical change refers to borrowing or creating new words in a language. Borrowed words may hold different meanings that did not exist in the past. Loss and gain of words are kinds of lexical variation. This change happens from one dialect to another and from one area to another. For Example, in English, “*carbonated soft drink*” is called “*soda*” in the Northeast, “*pop*” in the Northland, “*tonic*” in Eastern New England, and “*cold drink*”, “*drink*”, and “*dope*” in the South (Carver, 1989).

Lexical variation is less important in distinguishing between the speech of social and socio-economic class. Thus, sociolinguistic research focuses on phonological and grammatical change rather than lexical variation.

Sociolinguists note that lexical variation reflects differences among social groups of the same area according to age, mainly, in the language of teenagers and young adults. Teenagers prefer to eliminate old words from their speech and substitute them for new alternatives. They use fashionable words that are much more suitable for the new generation; therefore, old words are lost and disappeared (John R. 2002). For example, Aoulefian adults use the word [labas] “how are you” ;whereas, adolescents replace it by the new word [kirak].

2.5. Borrowing

Borrowing is the most described phenomenon in the situation of language contact. Borrowing is the maintaining of the native language and the integration of any linguistic features from one language to another. However, it is clear that not all features are likely to be borrowed equally. The term integration depends on the borrowed elements that are adapted to the linguistic system of the language that borrows them. On the other hand, linguistic interference is concerned with the kind of adaptation that includes more than one linguistic level (lexical, phonological, grammatical, and semantic level). Weinreich (1953) describes interference as “*those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language.*” (p1).

Arabic Dialects borrowed numerous French items and adapted them phonologically to their systems for sociolinguistic reasons. In Algeria, as a bilingual country, no body speaks Arabic or French independently. The majority of people in the North use French language (Moussadek, 2013). Thus, many words are already adapted to Arabic, for example, the term [tabla] is an adapted form of the French word “*une table*”, also the word “classic” or [klasik].

The following table provided some examples:

French	AA	English
salon	[ʃalɔn]	“living-room”
sac	[sɑk]	“hand- bag”
stylo	[sti:lo]	“pen”
cuisine	[kuzɑjna]	“kitchen”
canapè	[kanapɪ]	“sofa”

Table4. Borrowed Words from French.

Researchers distinguish borrowing from other language contact phenomena, such as transfer, convergence and code- switching. Bloomfield (1993) tries to make classification of lexical borrowing. He says “*dialect borrowing, where the borrowed features come from within the speech of the same area.... and cultural borrowing, where the borrowed features come from a different language.*” (Bloomfield, 1933:444)

Haugen (1950) gives a distinguishing to different types of borrowing, based on introducing of the source of borrowing language elements. For instance, when French-Dutch bilinguals import the French discourse marker *donc* “so” into Brussels Dutch, they keep the French nasal vowel [ɔ̃]. Conversely, bilingual speakers in Brussels use the word *pertang* “however” which has French origin “*pourtant*”. (Treffers Daller,1994).

2.6. Diaglossia

Diaglossia refers to the situation in which two varieties of language are used in a single society. According to Ferguson (1972a), diaglossia is a situation where different dialects are used within the same speech community. In a diaglossic situation, there are two varieties: the high variety (H) and the low variety (L). (H) is an academic language used in formal situation. (L) is the informal language used for daily communication. (H) is learned in schools, but (L) is acquired at home. For example, in Algeria M.S.A is as an official language that is learned in schools. M.S.A, as academic language, is called (H) whereas (L) is called [addār iʒa] or [alʕami ja].

According to Boussafara Omar (2006), diaglossia is relatively a stable phenomenon. Contrary to Ferguson (1972b) who notes that the change and development that happens in the society, lead to the weakness of diaglossia in terms of form and function of (H) and (L). He ensures his idea by selecting examples of situations in which only (H) is appropriate, for instance, in sermon, political speech, personal letters, university lecture, and poetry. (L) is used in family conversation, folk literature, and with friends.

Furthermore, Ferguson(1972c) identifies some examples of the most clear diaglossic situation in four languages: Arabic, Swiss, German, Greek, and Haitian. In a diaglossic situation, it is important to be aware about the function of each variety. For example, in Arabic, there is (H) which is Arabic and (L) which is vernacular (various regional and colloquial varieties). On the other hand, in Haiti, the two varieties are standard. French is (H) and Haitian Creole is (L). (Bassione, R. 2009).

2.7. Conclusion

The study of language variation and change is in the mainstream of sociolinguistics for many decades. People tend to travel and communicate with other nations effectively. They easily communicate with others due to technology and immigration. Therefore, languages need to change more than the past time. In this chapter, we have seen different causes and types of language change with illustrations from English and Arabic.

Part Two

Field Work

Chapter Three

Lexical Variation in Aoulefian Dialect

3.1. Introduction

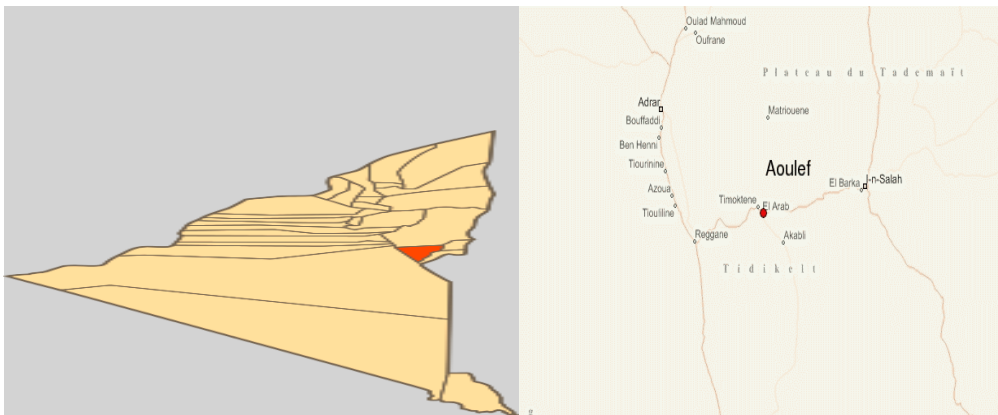
This section is devoted to the practical part of our research. In order to investigate the lexical changes that occur in Aoulefian Dialect, we have selected different instruments to achieve the objectives of this study. This research includes two parts: the first one examines therecordings, while the second one reports the data from the questionnaire.

3.2. Geographical Location of Aoulef

Aoulef is located in the eastern part of Adrar Province. It is 270 km far from the center. It has a population of 76000 inhabitants. Its area covers about 24536km². Aoulef is a part of Tidikelt region that extends from the central eastern part of Adrar Province to the northeast of Tamanrasset Province. It includes four communes: Aoulef, Tit, Timogten, and Akibli. The origin of the name “Aoulef” is the Berber word “Iglef” which means palm tree or middle of palm tree. The second sound [g] is substituted for the sound [w] and it becomes “Aoulef”. Berbers (ethnic group) are the first who settled in Aoulef. (keddi, 2006).

In Aoulef, 1.1% of the population has a tertiary education (the highest rate in the province). The general literacy rate is 84.6% (90.9% among males and 77.1% among females). (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aoulef>).

Map3. Aoulef location.



3.3. Features of Aoulefian People's Speech

Aoulef speech community, as any speech community, focuses on social relationships and linguistic interactions. The SpCom is associated with different social factors that affect Aoulefians' speech such as social class, education, age and gender.

The Social class does not exist in Aoulef. It can be replaced by another sociolinguistic concept that is called "social caste". This factor should be taken into consideration as a social variable that can affect the speech of Aoulefian people effectively. It is easy to identify the social background of the speaker from his speech. People who belong to the same caste-membership, use special terms and expressions that are different from what others use. For example, [la:lɫa], [molati], [sidi], [lɛmrabiɫ], and [lɣarbi]. The speaker uses these terms to inform the addressee about his/her social group (Bouhania, B. 2008: 176-177)

Most of Aoulefians are educated. Thus, their level of education influences their speech. Age and gender also affect the individuals' speech. The youth speech is more changeable and flexible than that of the adults. Therefore, the Aoulefian Dialect is influenced by different social factors, mainly age and gender.

3.3.1. Old vs. Young People's Speech

In Aoulefian society, there is a gap between old and young people, in the way of speaking. This can be observed easily due to the development of technology and the widespread use of social network. Technology influences both young and old people, but the young generations are more affected. Aoulefian speech can be divided into three categories according to age and education. The First category, the old people who passed most of their life in their villages. They possibly have no contact with other people who display variation in their speech. The elders always tend to be conservative, as they preserve their identity through traditions, cultures, and language. The majority of them are illiterate. They spend most of their time talking about farming and narrating old stories. They use some words and expressions which most of the new generation may not understand. For example, the word [taqo:ra], [ɛmazɛr], and [ɛɣlib] are used to indicate tools and places in the farm.

The second category is adults who are educated. They studied in the classical educational system and most of them use Modern Standard Arabic or French in their communication according to their diplomas (as it is observed in the recordings).

Their speech is neither conservative as the elders' nor flexible like the youngsters'. Those people can be considered as a bond between the old and the young generation.

The third group is the young people. Most of them are educated and graduated from the university. They have daily contact with friends from different places, and they tend to accommodate their speech. Generally, the young speakers seem to be more fashionable and acceptable in their social group. Their speech is extremely influenced by technology because they spend most of their time in front of their computer screens. Sometimes, they use expressions that the adults do not use. For example, [ranı nfa:jsboki] "I'm Facebooking", or [ranı ntlıfɑ:rʒı] "I am downloading files".

In addition, the speech of young males has characteristics that are different from the speech of females. Females may use words that are rarely used in males' conversation because they do not share the same interests. For instance, the terms [wansa] and [gaʒra] have the same meaning (sitting together and discussing different topics). Females use the word [wansa], while males use the word [gaʒra] which may be unacceptable in females conversation. Young people try to use their native language or dialect when they interact with the elders.

On the other hand, Aoulefian social structure is built on rules that organize people's relationships. Therefore, speakers have to pay attention to the content and the form of their speech in different situations. Bouhania said:

"The social context affects the choice of the forms of address, which are used between people for communicative purposes, or when the addressor wants to attract the attention of the interlocutor, or when communicators want to establish their personal social position in relation with the addressee" (2008:170)

Socially, the contextual influences are important factors that motivate the increase of linguistic change in any language variety. Therefore, people are restricted within a given speech community.

3.4. Sociolinguistic Methodology

Dialectologists have suggested various methods and techniques to examine language variation in geographical areas. Among these techniques are the questionnaire, the linguistic maps, informants' selection, interviews, and matched guise-test.

3.4.1. The Questionnaire

The questionnaire is an instrument of research used for data collection. Dialectologists seek to provide an experimental basis for linguistic varieties present in a particular area. The questionnaire is uniquely associated with dialect geography rather than other methods and techniques. The questionnaire contains a series of questions prepared by the researcher to be given to a sample population and aimed at gathering information about the fieldwork.

The postal questionnaire is an older technique initiated in Germany by Georg Winker in 1876 and by McIntosh (1952) in Scotland. It has more advantages than other types of survey methodology. It is easy to use and ensures that all the results of data collection can be compared. The questions can be direct or indirect; for example, as a direct question, "what do you call this?", or indirect question like "what is this? These kinds of questions encourage the informants to respond directly.

Furthermore, the questionnaire can be found in two types: open-ended and closed-ended questions. Open-ended questions are asked to get the informants' answers, whereas closed-ended questions are provided with choices of the answers. The informants have to choose one answer from the given choices.

The questionnaire is related to semantics, which is concerned with gathering similar items in groups to get the appropriate information from the rural area. The researcher should be aware of the conditions that exist.

This technique was used only at the beginning of research in dialect geography. It was replaced by trained fieldwork. Edmont Edmont conducted a survey of 639 questions, interviewed people and recorded their speech. Chambers has adapted the postal questionnaire as an instrument for sociolinguistic research in his work "Golder Horse-shoe project in Canada" (Chambers, 1998). The questionnaire is still widely used when a large amount of information should be easily collected.

3.4.2. Linguistic Maps

There are two types of linguistic maps: display maps and interpretative maps. Display maps are used to transfer the results of items into a map in order to reveal a geographical perspective. They give detailed information about the whole study. However, interpretative maps mainly rely on display maps as a primary source. They are based on generalizing data by selecting responses of the very frequent items predominant in various regions. Moreover, they simplify display maps to represent relevant trends and their distribution. (Milroy, L. & Gordon, M. 2003)

3.4.3. The Selection of Informants

It is the most common feature of any typical research in dialect geography. The researcher selects his or her sample according to particular features that fit the study such as non-mobile, older, rural, and male. The non-mobile informants support the researcher to conform characteristics of the native speakers. According to Milroy (2003), the researcher is requested to select as an informant somebody who is not well educated, preferably the middle aged; somebody who has a little contact with other places. In addition, old people reflect the variant within a given area. Men or women who work or live in daily contact with people from other countries should not be used as informants.

3.4.4. The Interview

Labov's work on English in New York City (1966) was based on interview technique. His description of urban speech was composed of 88 individuals as a random sample from the social stratification. They were males and females from three age groups and four social classes. He studies the variation of individuals and their reflection on variation of the social group. Labov illustrated the extreme case of stylistic variation in the use of /r/ by speakers of different social classes (Chambers, 1995). The aim of sociolinguistic is to elicit linguistic data in different speech contexts. Usually, it starts with informal free conversation then it uses formal language tasks that need more attention to the language used by the respondent.

Although the interview techniques is considered as an effective tool for collecting sociolinguistic data, their limitation must be recognized. Some researchers have begun to explore the interviewer effect. Trudgill (1986) found that he was accommodating toward the speech of his interviewees; however, the researchers assessed the role of the interviewer effect (Milroy, L. & Gordon, M. 2003).

3.4.5. The Matched Guises Test

It is an experimental technique used to determine the attitudes and the opinions of an individual or social group towards a specific language, dialect, or accent. Lambert (1960) was the first researcher who introduced this sociolinguistic test to determine the attitudes of bilingual French Canadians towards English and French. In this technique, experimental candidates listen to different speakers apparently representing guises in two or more languages then evaluating those speakers across various characters. The listener or the informant does not know the speaker who is actually bilingual or polyglot. Each linguistic guise is compared as actual speech of an individual.

3.5. Research Instruments

In this research, we have used tape recordings, interview, and questionnaire as techniques for the fieldwork. Aoulefian people gather in special occasions, especially old people. Therefore, it was a good opportunity to recognize the lexical changes in the youth language and its' impact on adults speech.

3.5.1. Recordings

In order to gather a considerable number of words, we have recorded people during occasions such as weddings and Almaouled. We have recorded both young and old people who sit separately most of the time, discussing subjects which are completely different. In some cases, we hid the tape recorder, but in other cases, we informed them that we want to record their speech. We have recorded random conversation and asked the elders about the meanings of some disappearing words. In fact, our informants', especially old people were helpful and happy to be included in our study. Most of the informants who are involved in this study live in Aoulef. The speech of people who are not originally from Aoulef is not considered in this work (there are women from Oran, Touggourt, Bechar...).

3.5.2. Questionnaire

The questionnaire is the second instrument of the fieldwork. There are two groups of 12 questions. They are designed to collect information about the youth language and its impact on the adults' language. The first set of questionnaire is devoted to young people and the second is devoted to old people. The questionnaire includes the same questions except for the first and the third one. The questions are open-ended and closed-ended questions. We organize the questions in a logical order.

We start studying the difference between youth and adults' language in terms of lexical variation then we move to study the influence of youth language on adults' speech. All the informants get the questionnaire written in M.S.A. We have conducted the questionnaire as well as interviews with some adult informants because they are illiterate.

3.5.2.1 The Informants

The involved informants are Aoulefian people (educated and illiterate). Most of the youth participants are pupils at Khich Bay Middle School. Other young and adults are from different districts in Aoulef. (Zaouet Haynoun, Habbadat, and Alnnajat).

3.5.2.2. Sampling and Stratification

In this research, the sample is randomly selected. We have used the questionnaire with a sample population of 150 participants aged between 11 and 70 and distributed in three age groups: [11-18], [19-25], and [40-70]. We have organized the informants by age and gender. Our informants are 25 male and 25 female in each age group as shown in the following table:

Age group	Male	Female	Total
[11-18]	25	25	50
[19-25]	25	25	50
[40-70]	25	25	50
Total	75	75	150

Table3.1 Sampling and Stratification

3.6. Data Analysis and Interpretation

We have analyzed the speech of Aoulefians according to two sociolinguistic variables (age and gender). We have collected the data from old and youth people then we have examined the lexical change in A.D.

3.6.1. Illustrating the Records

We have examined the records to collect data about old and youth speech. We collected some borrowed words, disappearing words, and young lexical items.

➤ **Borrowed Words**

Comparing old to new words may be the best way to observe the process of lexical change. In diglossic situations, forms of the H and L variety are approximately used in the same level. According to the historical background, Aoulefian people borrow words from M.S.A, French, or from other dialects.

In order to discuss the lexical changes that occur in Aoulefian people's speech, we have recorded them in various situations. The following table shows some examples of words that are approximately similar in M.S.A and A.A. Old people use these words:

Word in M.S.A	Word in A.A	Word in English
[ʔuʔdu]	[əʔdo]	“going on”
[baxs]	[ba:xəs]	“cheaper”
[ʃammər]	[ʃammər]	“be ready”
[saqi:fa]	[sgi:fa]	“shed”
[sir]	[si:r]	“go”

Table3.2 vocabularies that are approximately similar in M.S.A and A.A.

Noticeably, Aoulefian people use French words in their daily conversation and these words become part of their dialect. They borrow items from French rather than other languages because of their historical background (French colonization). They do not use these words as they are used in the original language (French). The following table provides some examples of borrowed words:

Loanwords	Word in French	Meaning in English
[kəlwa:r]	Couloir	“corridor”
[lalʊʃa]	Louche	“ladle”
[kaʔkout]	Cocotte	“casserole”
[kawri]	Cour	“yard”
[robajni]	Robinet	“tap”
[grajda]	Jardin	“garden”

Table3.4 Some Borrowed Words from French

Moreover, we notice that Aoulefian youth and predominantly females use borrowed words from other Algerian dialects or Arabic dialects. We have collected some of these words: [ʔaja] “Good”, [kirak] “How are you”, [ʃlonək] “How are you”, [barʃa] “Too much” [ʃafi] “enough”, [ʔad̪i] “it will be”, and [qariʔ] “To wait”.

➤ **Some disappearing words in Aoulefian Dialect**

In the following table, we show some disappearing words that old people use. Some elders still use these words; however, most of the youth do not know their meanings. They need more explanation to understand them. In order to collect these words, we have asked old people find the following:

Word in A.A	Word in M.S.A	Meaning in English
[bobo]	[qami:s]	“shirt”
[tabag]	[ʔʃʔil]	“light”
[skajəlo]		
[jətmantag]	[jahrob]	“He runaway”
[əgbi:ʒ]	[rafaʃ]	“shovel”
[ta:χzana]		
[tagəmi]	[ʔlmaʔbaχ]	“kitchen”
[əlhanʃi:r]	[laʒl]	“night”
[mərvaja]	[milʔaqa]	“spoon”
[əmqannən]	[sahran]	“staying up”
[ʔrjon]	[ħasaʔ]	“a soup”

Table3.5 Some disappearing words in Aoulefian dialect

Most of these examples are Berber words adapted in A.D. For instance, the word [skəjəlo] refers to a place similar to the living room (the space under the stairs). The word [əgbi:ʒ] refers to a piece of wood used for removing dust after cleaning the house. The approximate meaning of this word in M.S.A is [rafəʃ]. On the other hand, words such as [tagəmi], [məɾɣaja], and [ʔrjon] are Berber terms. The word [ʔarjon] refers to a kind of food (made of wheat flour and water mixed with herbs).

On the other hand, words like [əfɾajaz] and [t̪a:χzana] are originally Classical Arabic words. The word [əfɾajaz] or [ifrɪ:z] refers to an outer part of the wall used as a wardrobe. Also, the word [t̪a:χzana] has approximately the same meaning as the word [maχzan] in M.S.A. It is a small storeroom in the house yard used to store dates.

Actually, old people have given us more words that were used by their parents, but they cannot remember what they exactly mean. For example, the word [ta:ʕrif], [ləmnad], [taħbin], [taɣoja], and [tagrit].

➤ Old vs. Young Lexicon Items

In order to see the difference between old people's speech and the youth speech, we collect a list of words that have changed from one generation to another. Usually, these terms have different forms, but they share the same meaning approximately. The table below shows examples of these words:

Words used by old people	Word used by young people	Word in M.S.A	Meaning in English
[garg]	[sabba:t]	[ħiða:ʔ]	“shoes”
[balɗi]	[bla:sti]	[makani]	“my place”
[ʒuz]	[ətʔa:la], [arwaħ]	[taʔa:lə]	“come”
[əzɗak], [əħraʃ]	[qafiz]	[ʃoʒaʔ]	“brave”
[ətɡammaʔ]	[no:ɗ]	[qif]	“standup”
[əswa:rəɗ]	[ədrahəm], [əlmʊfid], [əlmadda]	[alma:l]	“money”
[mħaʔaʔ], [mqadam]	[məstiki], [mqalləʃ]	[aniq]	“he is cute”
[rajəʔ]	[ʃabʔa:n]	[ʃabʔa:n]	“I am full of”
[ahnaʃək]	[fəssaʔ]	[bisurʔa]	“hurry up”
[marka:nti]	[əmdarham], [əmrəffah],	[ʁani j]	“he is rich”
[hani]	[mrajgal]	[mortah]	“he is fine”

Table3.6 Old versus young Lexicon Items

Remarkably, words like [garg], [balɗi], [ʒouz], [ra.jəʔ] are used by very old people (grandmothers and grandfathers). They use these terms in their daily conversation with different ages even if they do not know their meanings. However, words such as [əħraʃ], [mħaɽaɽ], [mqadam] are used by people of different generation, especially those who have daily contact with the elders. On the other hand, the youngsters prefer to use fashionable expressions, which are more acceptable in youth conversation. For instance, [əlmufid], [məstiki], and [mrajgal].

3.6.2. The interviews

➤ Youth Linguistic Innovations

It has been noticed that the young speakers interact with each other in a specific style of language. In order to recognize the new expressions and the innovations among the youth, we have selected the interview method. To obtain a clear result, our interviews include 10 persons (5 male and 5 female). They are educated people aged between 20 and 35. They are students, workers, and housewives. In most cases, the duration of each interview does not exceed ten minutes. The interviews are done in different places, where the interviewee feels comfortable. In order to take notes, we have recorded the interviews. We have asked two questions:

The question	The aim
1-Do you use new words and expressions in your speech?	1- The aim is to recognize if there is a visible difference between the youth people speech and the elders'.
2 -Can you give us some examples of these words and expressions?	2-The aim is to identify the lexical change and to collect new expressions.

Table3.7 Interviews questions

The interviewees	Age group	Sex
1/2/3/4/5	[20-35]	Male
1/2/3/4/5	[20-35]	Female

Table3.8 Youth Innovations

From the recorded interviews, we have gathered the following expressions:

New expressions	Meaning in MSA	Meaning in English
[traqə]	[la ʃajʔ]	“Nothing”
[lumur mrajgla]	[kajafa ħalok]	“How are you?”
[əlħala u:vir]	[insan monfatiħ]	Someone who is “open minded”
[d̪arbat nod̪]		
[əlmitra]	[ʔanti ʔawilaton zidan]	It describes someone who is “very tall”
[anno:ʃa]	[ʒamila]	“you are beautiful”
[ʔssma safja]	[kajfa ħalok]	“How are you?”

Table 3.9 Youth Linguistic Innovations

Males use most of these expressions. For instance, [waʃ əmsatfa bəliʔazir] and [lumur mrajgla] are used among young males in their everyday communication. Sometimes, both of them have the same meaning. On the other hand, the females use [ssma safja] which has a parallel meaning to the previous expressions. Moreover, the term [anoʃa] or [ananiʃ] is mainly used by females. Occasionally, young males use complicated innovations such as [d̪arbat nod̪]. This expression may be understandable for a few number of females and others may have never heard it.

3.6.3. The Questionnaire

The questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first part is designed to find out the difference between youth and adults' speech. It includes (4) questions. The second part is designed to examine causes that lead to the lexical change in A.D and to know who contribute more to this change (males or females). This section consist of (8) questions. We will analyze the results obtained from the questionnaire in the form of tables and graphs. The first part will be analyzed in terms of age differences while the second one will be examined according to the level of gender contribution to lexical variation. Percentages of the findings are calculated from tables that contain scores according to age and gender.

Part 1

Our sample is divided into three categories of age group. The first and the second category indicate the young people, who represent 66.66% of the whole number of informants. The third category is concerned with adults whose percentage is 33.33 % of the whole population. The latter is the smallest category.

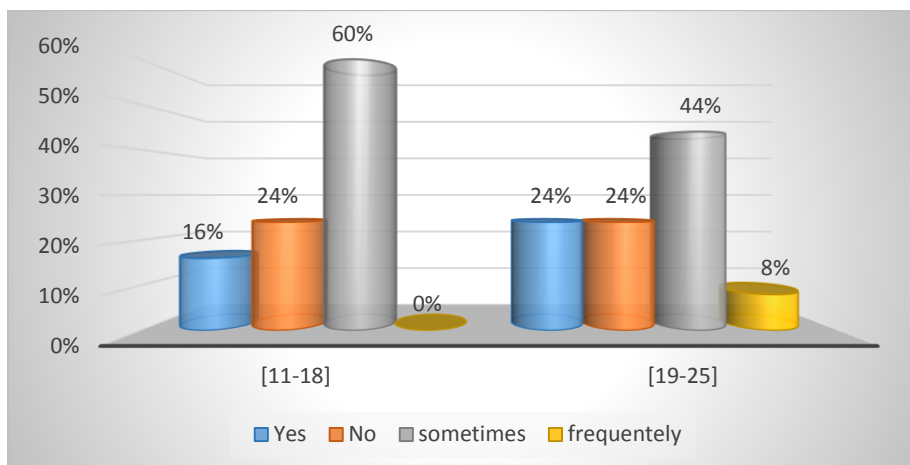
Question1

a) To youth

-Do you speak the same way as your parents or old people in general?

Answers \ Age	[11-18]		[19-25]	
	N	P	N	P
Yes	8	16%	12	24%
No	12	24%	12	24%
Sometimes	30	60%	22	44%
Frequently	0	0%	4	8%
Total	50	100%	50	100%

Table3.10Youth total scores in using adults' language



Graph1.Youth total scores in using adults’ language

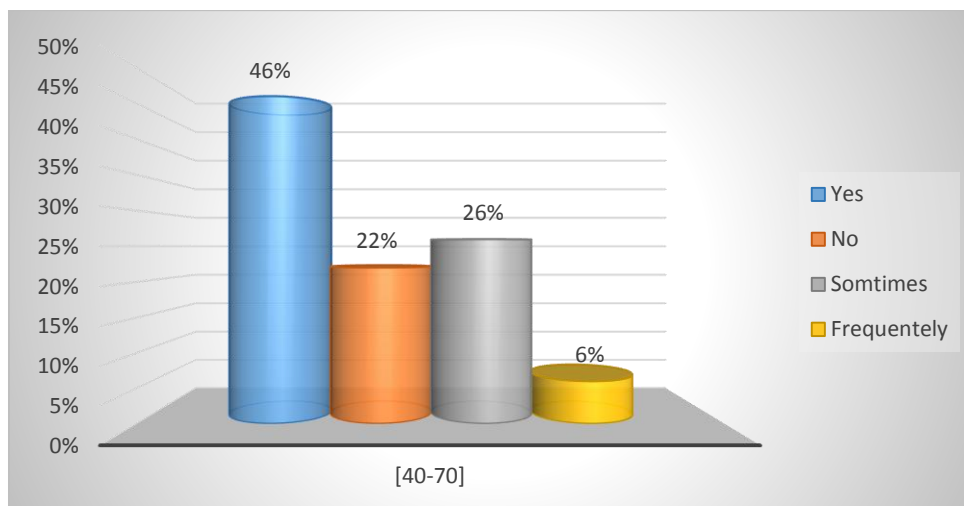
As shown in the graph, the answer ‘sometimes’ highly scores in [11-18] and represents 60%, as well as, in [19-25], it represents 44%. The negative answer in the two categories is equal and represents 24% of the score, 12 in each age group. On the other hand, we notice that the positive answer is the highly scored in [19-25] with 24%, but it is less in [11-18] and represents only 16%. Therefore, the majority of the youth do not use adults’ language, and mainly at the age of adolescence.

To Adults

- Do you speak the same way your children or young people speak in general?

Answers \ Age	[40-70]	
	N	P
Yes	23	46%
No	11	22%
Sometimes	13	26%
Frequently	3	6%
Total	50	100%

Table3.1 Adults total scores in using youth’ language



Graph2. Adults' use of youth language

The above table and graph2 show the answer 'yes' is scored and represents 46% with 23 participants from the whole number of the adults opposed to 11 the negative answer which represents 26%. Thus, the positive answers 'yes' and 'frequently' together represent 52% out of the sample of 50 adults; whereas, the score 'sometimes' represents 26% of 13 informants. So, it is clear that most of the adults are influenced by the youth language. This fact makes us think about the following question: why do old people change their speech?

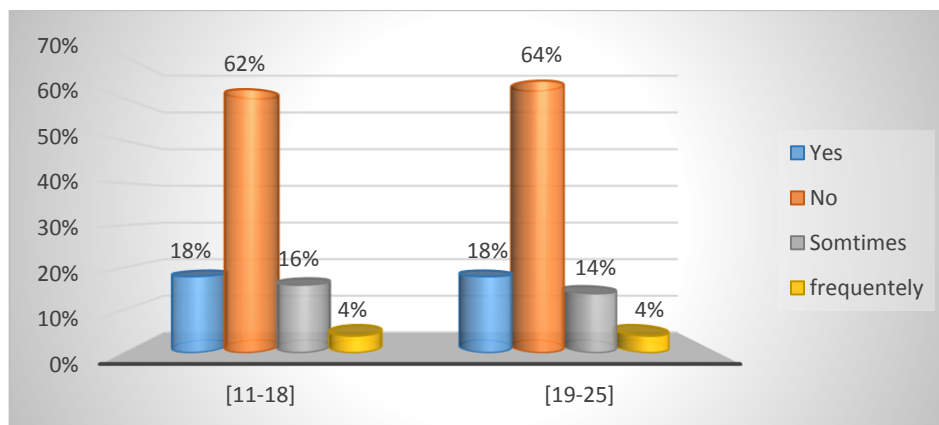
Question 2:

a) To youth

- Do you speak with adults the way you speak with the youth?

Answers \ Age	[11-18]		[19-25]	
	N	P	N	P
Yes	9	18%	9	18%
No	31	62%	32	64%
Sometimes	8	16%	7	14%
Frequently	2	4%	2	4%
Total	50	100%	50	100%

Table3.12 Youth speech to adults total scores



Graph3. Youth speech to adults

In this case, the table and the graph show that the negative answer is highest score in [11-18] and [19-25] age categories; it represents 62% in the adolescent category and represents 64% in the youth category. The positive answers are under the average in the two age categories.

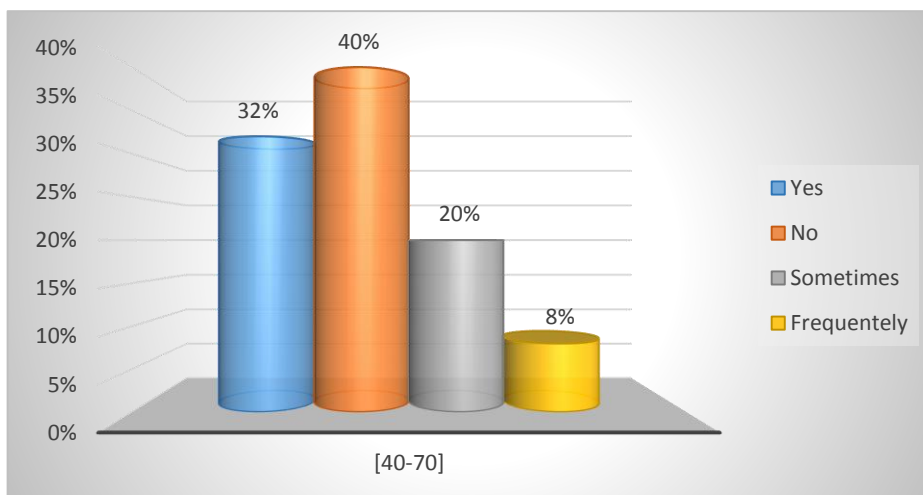
As a result, the speakers use a quit different way of speaking with their friends, and mainly those who belong to the same age group compared to the way they use with adults. Hence, language of the youth changes depending on a significant sociolinguistic variable which is age group.

b) To adults

- Do you speak with young people the way you speak with adults?

Age \ Answers	[40-70]	
	N	P
Yes	16	32%
No	20	40%
Sometimes	10	20%
Frequetely	4	8%
Total	50	100%

Table3.13 Adults speech to youth total scores



Graph4.Adults speech to youth

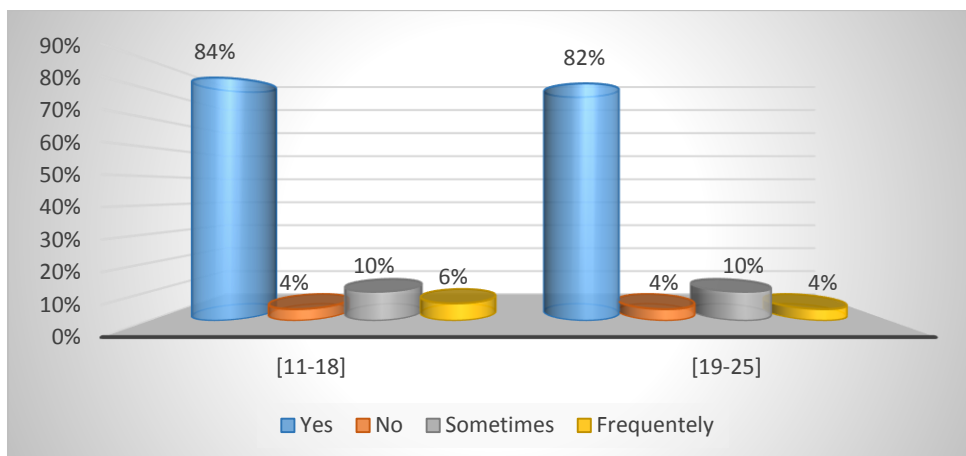
Considering the above scores, we notice that the negative answer is highest score in the adults’ category (40%). However, the positive answers, “yes” (32%) and “frequently” (8%) together, have an equal percentage of the negative answers (40%). Therefore, it is obvious that adult speakers have the tendency to imitate the youth by using different styles of language when addressing the young categories. This result stresses the previous one which ensures the influence of youth language on adults speech.

Question3: Do you use Aoulefian Dialect in your speech?

a) To youth

Answers \ Age	[11-18]		[19-25]	
	N	P	N	P
Yes	42	84%	41	82%
No	2	4%	2	4%
Sometimes	5	10%	5	10%
Frequently	1	2%	2	4%
Total	50	100%	50	100%

Table3.14 Youth total scores in using AD



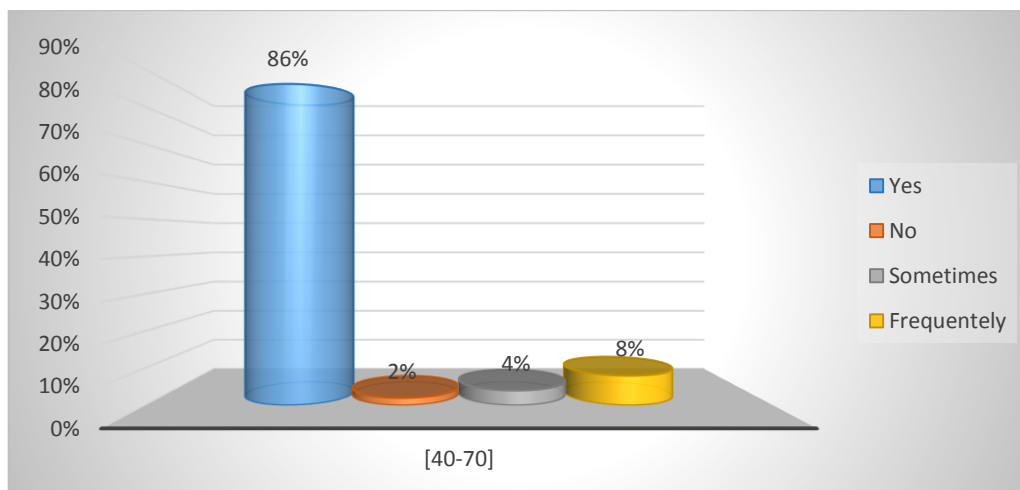
Graph5. Youth use of AD

The above findings show that the number of positive answers is highly scored in both category of the youth. These scores represent 84% in [11-18] and 82% in [19-25] as opposed to negative answers that represent 4% with first group and the second group. Therefore, we notice that the use A.D is widespread among the youth (82%).The objective of such a question is to ensure the fact that young people tend to keep their mother dialect even if they modify their speech in diverse situations. This point will be discussed later. In answering this question, it is worthy to say that females are more conservative than males (47 youth females answered ‘yes’ (94%) while 36 youth males answered ‘yes’ 72%).

b) To adults

Answers \ Age	[40-70]	
	N	P
Yes	43	86%
No	1	2%
Sometimes	2	4%
Frequently	4	8%
Total	50	100%

Table3.15 Adults’ total scores in using AD



Graph6. Adults' use of A.D

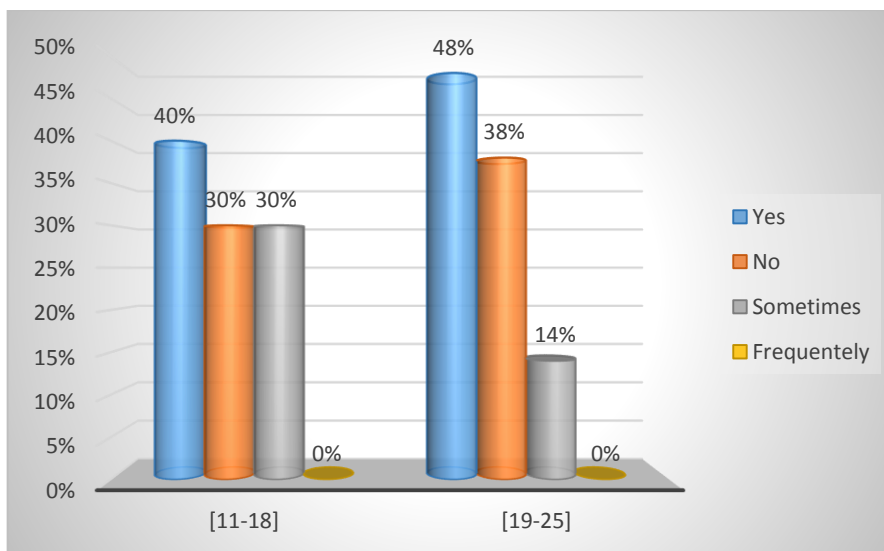
From the data collected, we find that A.D is extensively used during adulthood. The positive scores represent (86%) out of the sample while the score 'sometimes' represents (4%). Adult males and females use their mother dialect at the same level (23 female and 22 male) out of the whole sample. So, Aoulefian adults frequently tend to preserve their own dialect.

Question4: Do you try to show off when speaking?

a) To youth

Answers	Age		[11-18]		[19-25]	
	N	P	N	P	N	P
Yes	20	30%	24	48%		
No	15	30%	19	38%		
Sometimes	15	40%	7	14%		
Frequently	0	0%	0	0%		
Total	50	100%	50	100%		

Table3.16 Youth total scores in showing off when speaking



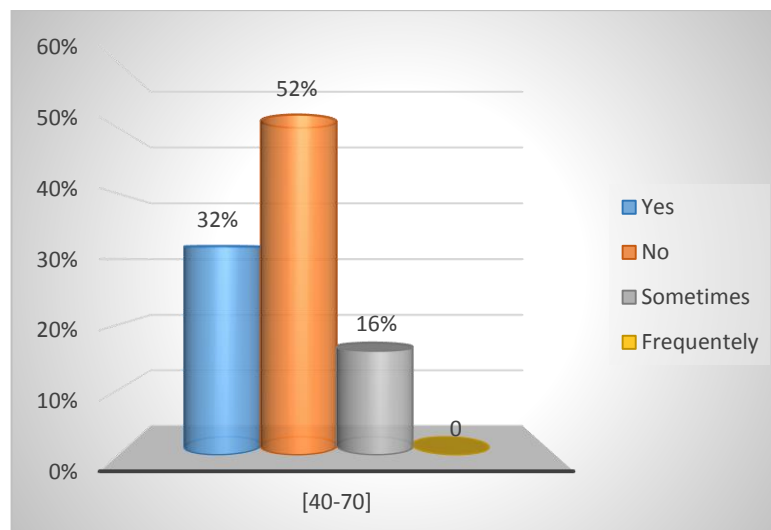
Graph7. Youth in showing off when speaking

The objective of this question is to verify whether the youth have the tendency to show off when they are speaking. According to the above table and graph7, we notice that the score ‘yes’ is dominant in the youth categories. Also, (30%) of adolescents have the same tendency. So, most of the young people like to show off when are speaking and mainly in late adolescence and early adulthood.

b) To adults

Answers \ Age	[40-70]	
	N	P
Yes	16	32%
No	26	52%
Sometimes	8	16%
Frequently	0	0%
Total	50	100%

Table3.17 Adults’ total scores in showing off when speaking



Graph.8 Adults' percentage in showing off when speaking

By contrast, most of adults do not show off when speaking, but it is worth mentioning that they try to show off in some cases. As shown in the table above, 16 participants that represent 32% from the whole number of adults tend to do it.

Actually, we find that men are showing off when they are speaking more than women according to different age groups and mainly old males (12 vs. 4 participants in 40 to 70 and 17 vs. 10 in 19 to 25).

Part 2

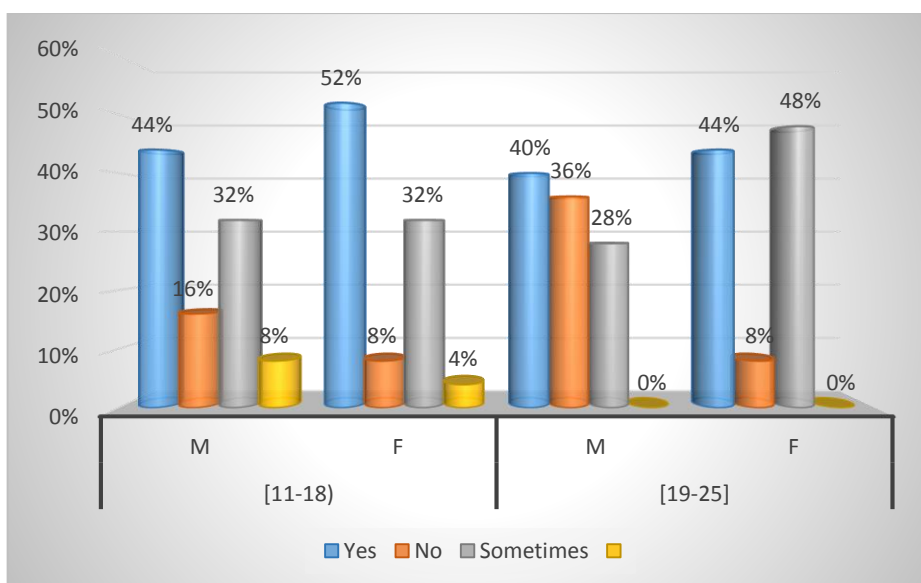
In this section, the sample is divided into three categories of age groups according to gender. The female participants represent 50% of the whole population as well as males (25 males/females represent 16.66% in each age group). Young males and females are the dominant sample. They represent 66.66% of the whole population (33.33% to each sex in the same age group). Adult informants represent 33.33% of the whole population with 16.66% males and 16.66% females.

Question 5: Do you use new words when speaking

a) To youth

Gender Answers	[11-18]				[19-25]			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P
Yes	11	44%	13	52%	10	40%	11	44%
No	4	16%	2	8%	8	32%	2	8%
Sometimes	8	32%	9	36%	7	28%	12	48%
Frequently	2	8%	1	4%	0	0%	0	0%
Total	25		25		25		25	

Table3.18 Youth total scores in using innovations according to gender



Graph9.Youth percentage in using innovations according to gender

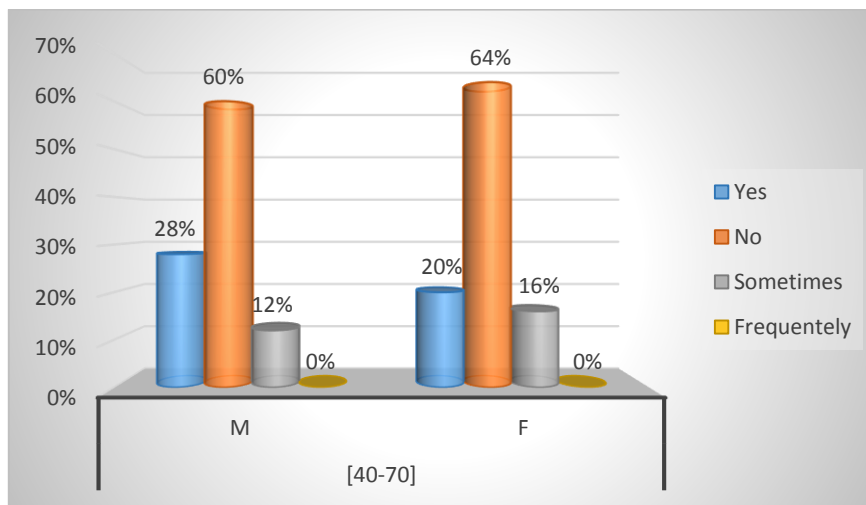
As far as gender is concerned, we notice that the majority of females use innovations predominantly at the age of adolescence. As it is presented above, 52% of females vs. 44% of males in [11-18] and 44% females vs. 40 % males in [19-25] use new words. The use of innovations in [19-25] among males and females is approximately the same.

In fact, adolescence is a transitional step from childhood into adulthood. In this stage, the adolescents want to distinguish themselves from others by using new expressions in their speech.

b) To adults

Answers \ Gender	[40-70]			
	Male		Female	
	N	P	N	P
Yes	7	28%	5	20%
No	15	60%	16	64%
Sometimes	3	12%	4	16%
Frequently	0	0%	0	0%
Total	25	100%	25	100%

Table3. 19 Adults’ scores in using innovations according to gender



Graph10. Adults’ percentage in using innovations according to gender.

The graph above shows that the alternative ‘no’ is the highest score of adult informants with 62% between males and females (60% of M vs. 64% of F). Thus, they are not concerned with the use of new words and expressions. Moreover, it must be taken into consideration that 24% of adults, males and females, use innovations and 14% of them use new words sometimes. These considerable percentages ensure that the youth language affects adults’ speech.

Question 6: From where do you obtain these words?

Gender Answers	[11-18]		[19-25]		[40-70]	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
From media	8	8	6	10	7	8
From friends	12	11	9	13	6	6
From the street	3	5	3	2	1	2

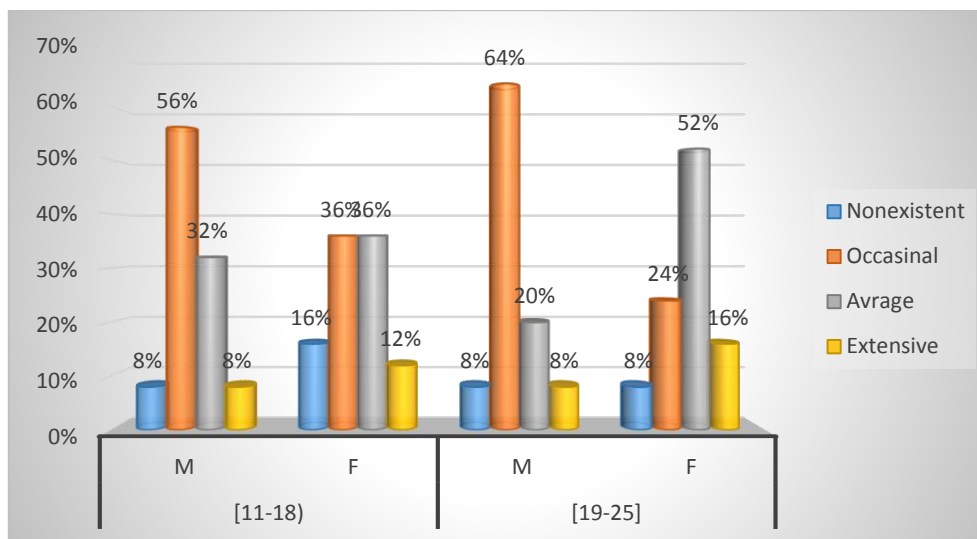
Table3.20 Youth Scores of question 6 according to age and Gender

The objective of this question is to know the source of innovations. In addition, we want to shed light on the impact of the media on the youth language compared to other facts (social facts). The results are mentioned in table.3, shows that young people (both males and females) are firstly influenced by their friends then by media (TV and Internet), but few of them obtain new words from the street. It is valuable to mention that even the adults obtain new expressions mostly from media (the influence of technology and globalization on languages or dialects).

Question 7: How is your use of the French language?

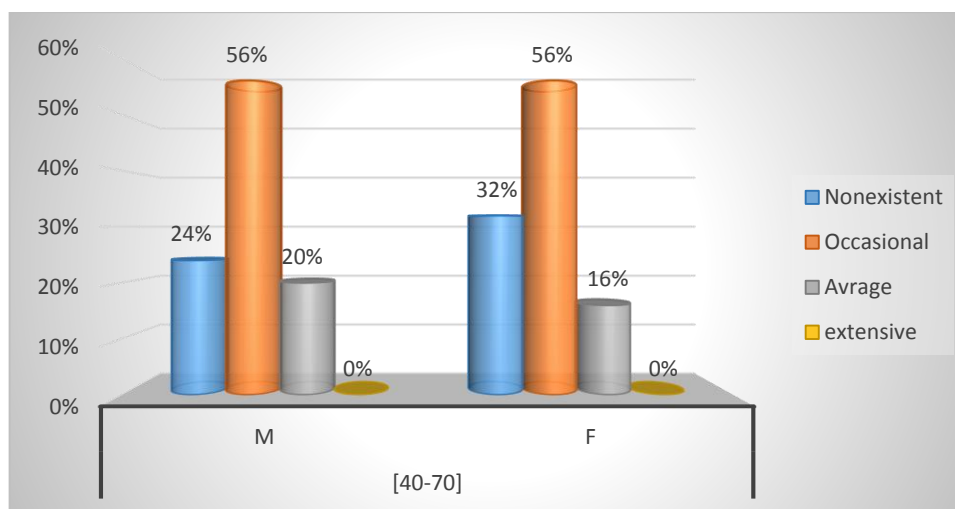
Gender Answers	[11-18]				[19-25]				[40-70]			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P
Nonexistent	2	8%	4	16%	2	8%	2	8%	6	24%	8	32%
Occasional	14	56%	9	36%	16	64%	6	24%	14	56%	13	52%
Average	8	32%	9	36%	5	20%	13	52%	5	20%	4	16%
Extensive	1	4%	3	12%	2	8%	4	16%	0	0%	0	0%
Total	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25		25	100%

Table3. 21Scores of Youth and Adults' use of French according to gender



Graph11. French use among the youth according to gender

graph11 shows that females of (11to 25) use French more than males. ‘Average’ and ‘extensive’ scores are noticeably higher than those of males. It is noticeable that females of [19-25] use French more extensively (52%). On the other hand, males’ highest score is the one of ‘occasional’ (56% and 64%). As a result, French is widely used among the youngsters.



Graph12. French use among the adults according to gender

According to graph12, we notice that the adults use French less than the youngsters, but the majority uses it occasionally. Females’ occasional score represents (56%) as well as that of the males. Generally, most Aoulefian people use French due to their historical background. Actually, French colonialism tried to suppress the Algerian culture, language, and identity. Therefore, we want to know to what extent the French language dominates in

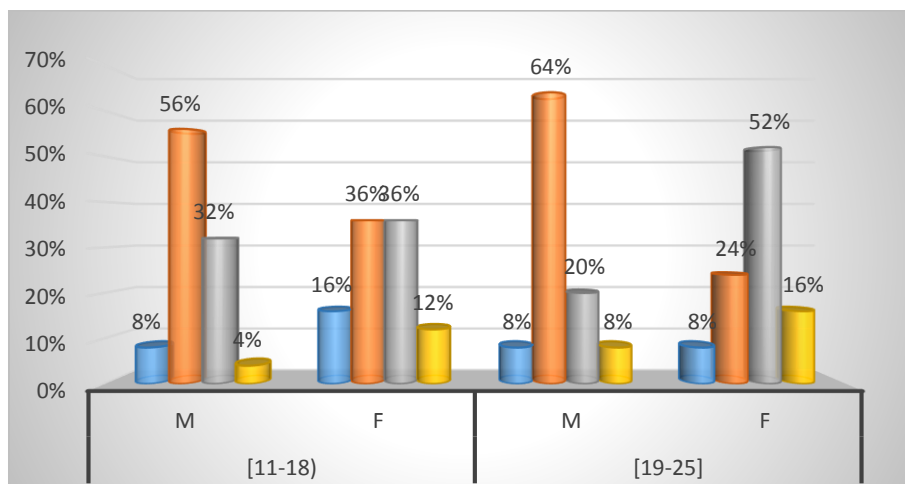
Aoulef speech community comparing to M.S.A. The next question will safeguard our expectations.

Question 8: Do you use words from Modern Standard Arabic when speaking?

-To youth and adults

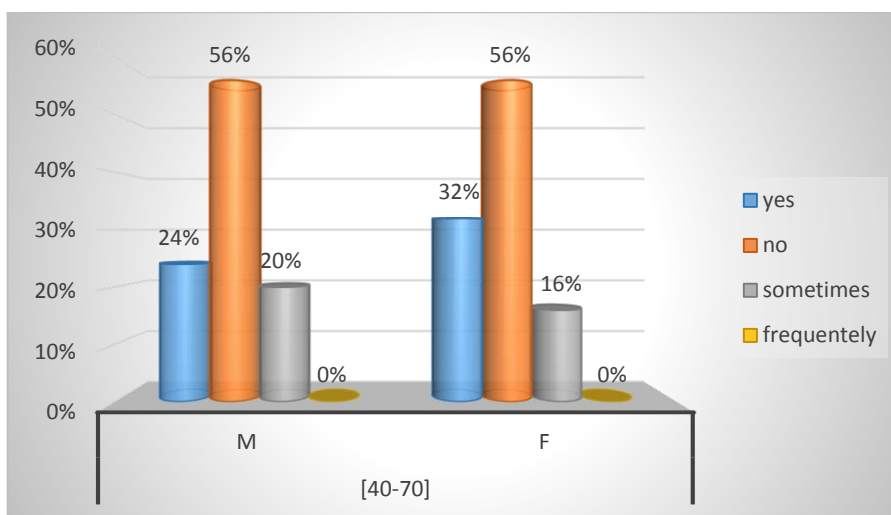
Gender Answers	[11-18]				[19-25]				[40-70]							
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female					
	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P				
Yes	2	8%	4	16%	2	8%	2	8%	6	24%	8	32%				
No	14	56%	9	36%	16	64%	6	24%	14	56%	14	56%				
Sometimes	8		32%		9		36%		5		20%		13		52%	
frequently	1	4%	3	12%	2	8%	4	16%	0	0%	0	0%				
Total	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25		25	100%				

Table3. 22 Total scores of youth and adult’s use of MSA according to gender



Graph13.Youth use of MSA according to gender

The aim of this question is to know to what extent Aoulefians are influenced by M.S.A. In addition, we want to see which gender is most influenced. It is clear from the graph13 that the negative alternative ‘no’ is the highest score especially with males. It represents 56% in [11-18] and 64% in [19-25] out of the sample of youth age group. On the other hand, young females are more likely to use M.S.A compared to males. Females’ score of ‘sometimes’ in [19-25] represents a considerable number which is 52% out of the sample.



Graph14. Adults’ use of M.S.A according to gender

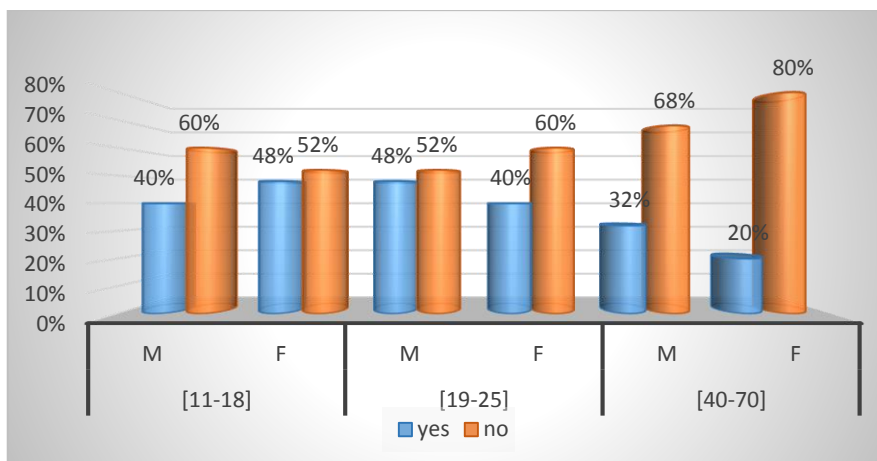
Unlike the youth, it is very clear that old males and females of [40-70] are not influenced by M.S.A. It is worthy to mention that the percentage of positive alternative of adults are considerable (56%) for males/females. The obtained result clarifies that females use M.S.A more extensively than males in some situations. We can conclude that Aoulefians are not highly influenced by M.S.A as they behave towards French. So, are they influenced by other Algerian Dialects? (Mainly in the North where people use French extensively). We suggest the following question to get the answer.

Question 9: Are you influenced by other Algerian dialects?

-To youth and adults

Gender	[11-18]				[19-25]				[40-70]			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P
Answers												
Yes	10	40%	12	48%	12	48%	10	40%	8	32%	5	20%
No	15	60%	13	52%	13	52%	15	60%	17	68%	20	80%
Total	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%

Table3.23: Total Scores and percentages to Question (9) according to gender.



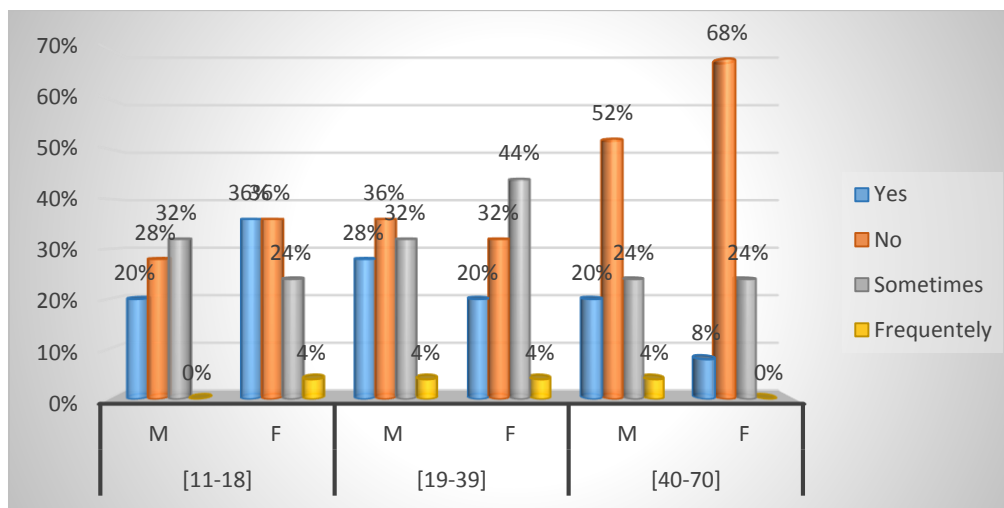
Graph15.percentages to Question (9) according to gender.

The objective of this question is to check whether other Algerian dialects have an effect on Aoulefian males and females’ speech. In the table3.24, the negative alternative is the most dominant score in different age groups and mainly with old females (80%). On the other hand, we notice that most youth males and females are highly influenced by other Algerian dialects with (88%). So, to what extent are they influenced by these dialects?

Question10: Do you introduce words or expressions from these dialects in your own speech?

Gender Answers	[11-18]		[19-25]		[39-70]	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Yes	5	9	7	5	5	2
No	12	9	9	8	13	17
Sometimes	8	6	8	11	6	6
Frequently	0	1	1	1	1	0
Total	25	25	25	25	25	25

Table3.24 Total Scores to Question (10) according to gender



Graph16. Percentage of question (10) according to age and gender

The scores above show that adolescent females' scores tend to imitate other dialects higher than those of the males (36% vs 20%). By contrast, the young males of [19-25] who used to introduce words more than females with (28% vs. 20%). 'Sometimes' females' scores in [19-25] represent a considerable number (44%). Generally, introducing words in youth females' speech decreased from age 11 to 25 compared to youth males who have this tendency in late adolescence. Old Females' negative score is the highest percentage with (68%); whereas, males' positive scores represent (52%). Therefore, the majority of adults responses are negative (62% and 52%) towards imitating other dialects. This result proves that the adults are conservative predominantly the females. So, what are the main reasons that make young people (males and females) introduce words from other Algerian dialects?

Question11: why?

According to the collected data, we find that most Aoulefians introduce those words and expressions in their own dialect for one main reason which is facilitating vocabularies for a successful communication. Sometimes, they need to explain the vocabularies that they use for others, because they cannot understand them. Therefore, they accommodate to the addressee's speech for a comfortable conversation. However, a few number of youth speakersn, aged between 11 and 25 who use these varieties because of their prestige; they feel that their mother dialect is less prestigious than other Algerian dialects.

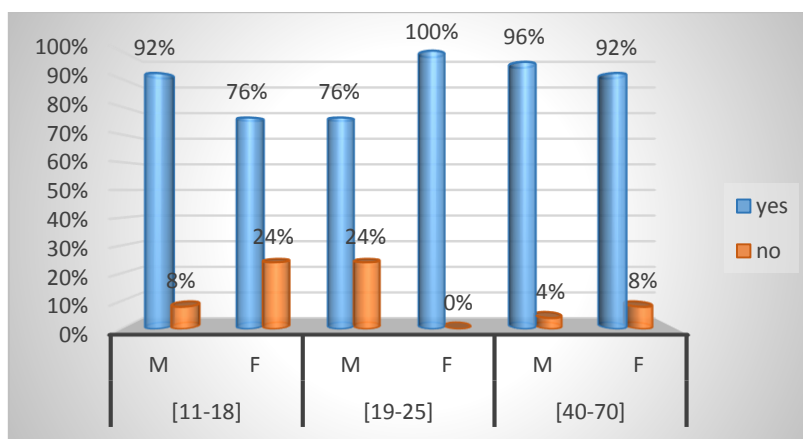
On the other hand, those who do not introduce them in their dialect stress that they prefer to maintain their own dialect in different situations; they display their cultural uniqueness by

using their own linguistic variety. In addition, they do not like to imitate other Algerians since they do not do the same. The following question confirms this result.

Question12: Do you use Aoulefian dialect when being out of the region?

Gender Answers	[11-18]				[19-25]				[40-70]			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P	N	P
Yes	23	92%	19	76%	19	76%	25	100%	24	96%	23	92%
No	2	8%	6	24%	6	24%	0	0%	1	4%	2	8%
Total	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%	25	100%

Table3.25Total scores to question 12 according to age and gender



Graph 17. Percentages to question 12 according to age and gender

The table 3.26 and graph 17 show that the majority of informants who participated in this study are highly conservative. They tend to preserve their own dialect as a part of their culture and identity.

3.7. Interpretations of the Findings

Throughout the data collection, we have attempted to shed light on the reasons that motivate language change among the youth. The results show that the youth tend to be different from adults; therefore, they use a specific style of language. On the other hand, the adults are highly affected by the youth's way of speaking and they tend to imitate them. This fact can be explained differently, i.e. adults as mothers and fathers want to be closer to their children by transferring their speech to them.

Furthermore, the findings show that the youth use innovations and borrow words to show off in front of their friends. Teenagers think that borrowing words from foreign languages or other dialects (Algerian dialects) is a feature of a fashionable way of speaking. These innovations are mainly obtained from the social environment as well as from the media. The social media incite the young people to create linguistic codes to facilitate communication with the users. The adults are also influenced by technology, particularly the males. Old females tend to be more conservative ("age grading" (Eckert, 1998).

On the other hand, the collected data show that both youth and adults acquire new words and expressions from their friends. This fact means that the speakers' social environment affects his/her speech. Social factors such as age, gender, and education are very important elements that motivate language variation (Holmes, 2013).

As we mentioned before, the youth are likely to copy words from French and adapt them in their dialect, and for this reason, some Aoulefians imitate other Algerian dialects. However, the majority Aoulefian imitate to facilitate communication with others. Referring to the result, we notice that Aoulefian people want to maintain their dialect as well as they want to be flexible in some cases.

1.8. Conclusion

The aim of this chapter is to investigate reasons that lead to lexical variation in the speech of young people, and the effect of these changes on adults. From the collected data (records, interviews, and questionnaire), we infer that the youth have the tendency to change their lexical items during adolescence, and it is widely caused by males. However, the females are extremely interested in maintaining the dialect in late adolescence and adulthood. Moreover, the adults' speech is highly affected by the youth language especially the males.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

Language variation is an important feature in sociolinguistics. Dialectology is the field which is devoted to study language variation at different linguistic levels. It occurs when lexical, phonetic, morphological, and semantic features change over times. The aim of this sociolinguistic research is to seek reasons that lead to lexical change in the youth language.

To reach such a goal, we use different methods to collect data. Primarily, we have recorded interviews to compare adults' lexical items with the youth ones. Then we use a questionnaire to find out the causes that lead to lexical change in youth language and the level of contribution for each gender. The following points are the findings of our research:

- The findings show that adults' speech becomes more flexible like the youth one because they are highly affected by the youth.
- Most youngsters create new expressions to show their abilities among their friends. Moreover, they borrow words, mainly from French and formulate them in order to fit their language or dialect structure (they apply their grammatical rules on these words).
- Aoulefians use borrowed words to ease interaction with outsiders. But, some youth borrow lexical items from other Algerian dialects because they feel that these dialects are more prestigious than theirs. However, linguistically speaking there is no superiority between languages or dialects (no variety is better than the other).
- The source of these innovations is mainly from the media, the friends, and other social members.
- The use of social media motivates the youth as well as the adults to use codes and symbols as a specific language between users of internet and technology from different places (as a global language). Particularly, the youth males are more interested in using these kinds of codes in their conversation; whereas, females tend to be more conservative in adulthood.

To conclude, the obtained results explain that adults' speech is more flexible than what we expect. Aoulefian youth change their speech because they want to be more acceptable, prestigious, and fashionable. However, females are more conservative. Lexical change is generally caused by the young people who adapt new lexical items in their dialect. Actually, it was not expected that adults' speech is flexible at this degree. So, what will happen to Aoulefian dialect of the native speakers? And what are the attitudes of the elders towards adults speech?

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- (http://en.wikipedia.org/language_change)
- ([http://ssrn.com/abstract :2560128/Factors Affecting Language Change](http://ssrn.com/abstract :2560128/Factors_Affecting_Language_Change))

Appendix A

Questionnaire 1

This questionnaire aims to study the lexical change, in Aoulef, among the youth, and the influence of their language on adults one.

-To youth

Age :

Gender : Masculine Feminine

Residence:

Level of education: none primary elementary Secondary university

A) Choose only one alternative and put a cross in the right box.

1) Do you speak the same way your parents or old people speak in general?

Yes no sometimes frequently

2) Do you speak with adults the way you speak with the youth?

Yes no sometimes frequently

3) Do you use Aoulefian Dialect in your speech?

Yes no sometimes frequently with males with females

4) Do you try to show off when speaking?

Yes no sometimes frequently

5) Do you use new words when speaking?

Yes no sometimes frequently

6) From where do you obtain these words?

Yes no sometimes frequently

7) How is your use of the French language?

From the street from T.V from the internet

8) Do you use words from Modern Standard Arabic when speaking ?

Yes no sometimes frequently

9) Are you influenced by other Algerian dialects?

Yes no sometimes frequently

10) Do you introduce words or expressions from these dialects in your own dialect ?

Yes no sometimes frequently

11) Why ?

12) Do you use Aoulefean dialect when being out of the region?

Yes no

استبيان _____ ان أ-

هذا الاستبيان يهدف الى جمع البيانات حول تغير المصطلح في الخطاب الاولفي (مقارنة بين لغة الشباب و لغة الكبار)

-أسئلة موجهة للشباب

1-الجنس: ذكر انثى

2-السن:

3- مكان الإقامة:

4- المستوى الدراسي: ابتدائي متوسط ثانوي جامعي بدون مستوى

الأسئلة:

يرجى منك الإجابة على هذه الاسئلة

- اختر(ي) إجابة واحدة فقط من فضلك. ضع علامة x في المكان المناسب

(1)-هل تتحدث كما يتحدث اولياؤك او كبار السن بصفة عامة؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الأحيان

(2)-هل تستعمل(ين) اللهجة الاولفية في كلامك؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الأحيان

(3)هل تتكلم (ين) مع الكبار كما تتكلم (ين) مع الشباب؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الاحيان

(4)-هل تحاول (ين)التمييز حين تتحدث مع الاخرين ؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الاحيان

(5)هل تستعمل (ين) مصطلحات جديدة في كلامك؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الاحيان

(6)-ما هو مصدر هاته المصطلحات؟

من وسائل الاعلام من الاصدقاء من الشارع

(7)- ما مدى استعمالك لمفردات اللغة الفرنسية ؟

منعدم قليل متوسط كثير

(8)-هل تستعمل (ين) مفردات من اللغة العربية الفصحى في كلامك ؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الاحيان

(9)-هل انت متأثر(ة) باللهجات الأخرى؟

نعم لا

10- هل تستعمل (بين) مفردات من هذه اللهجات في كلامك ؟

□ نعم □ لا □ في بعض الأحيان □ في معظم الأحيان

11- لماذا؟

12- هل تستعمل اللهجة الاولفية خارج المنطقة؟

□ نعم □ لا

شكرا على تعاونكم معنا لأجاز هذا العمل

Appendix B

Questionnaire 1

This questionnaire aims to study the lexical change, in Aoulef, among the youth, and the influence of their language on adults one.

-To Adults

Age :

Gender : Masculine Feminine

Residence:

Level of education : none primary elementary Secondary university

Choose only one alternative and put a cross in the right box.

1) Do you speak the same way your children or young people speak in general?

Yes no sometimes frequently

2) You speak with young people the way you speak with adults?

Yes no sometimes frequently

3) Do you use Aoulefian Dialect in your speech?

Yes no sometimes frequently with males with females

4) Do you try to show off when speaking?

Yes no sometimes frequently

5) Do you use new words when speaking?

Yes no sometimes frequently

6) From where do you obtain these words?

Yes no sometimes frequently

7) How is your use of the French language?

From the street from T.V from the internet

8) Do you use words from Modern Standard Arabic when speaking ?

Yes no sometimes frequently

9) Are you influenced by other Algerian dialects?

Yes no

10) Do you introduce words or expressions from these dialects in your own dialect ?

Yes no sometimes frequently

11) Why ?

12) Do you use Aoulefean dialect when being out of the region?

Yes no

استبيان _____ ان ب-

هذا الاستبيان يهدف الى جمع البيانات حول تغير المصطلح في الخطاب الاولفي (مقارنة بين لغة الشباب و لغة الكبار)

-أسئلة موجهة لكبار السن

1-الجنس: ذكر انثى

2-السن:

3- مكان الإقامة:

4- المستوى الدراسي: ابتدائي متوسط ثانوي جامعي بدون مستوى

الأسئلة: .

يرجى منك الإجابة على هذه الاسئلة

- اختر(ي) إجابة واحدة فقط من فضلك. ضع علامة x في المكان المناسب

(1)-هل تتحدث كما يتحدث ابناؤك او الشباب بصفة عامة؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الأحيان

(2)-هل تستعمل(ين) اللهجة الاولفية في كلامك؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الأحيان

(3)هل تتكلم (ين) مع الشباب كما تتكلم (ين)مع الكبار في السن؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الاحيان

(4)-هل تحاول (ين)التمييز حين تتحدث مع الاخرين ؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الاحيان

(5)هل تستعمل (ين) مصطلحات جديدة في كلامك؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الاحيان

(6)-ما هو مصدر هاته المصطلحات؟

من وسائل الاعلام من الاصدقاء من الشارع

(7)- ما مدى استعمالك لمفردات اللغة الفرنسية ؟

منعدم قليل متوسط كثير

(8)-هل تستعمل (ين) مفردات من اللغة العربية الفصحى في كلامك ؟

نعم لا في بعض الأحيان في معظم الاحيان

(9)-هل انت متأثر(ة) باللهجات الأخرى؟

نعم لا

10- هل تستعمل (ين) مفردات من هذه اللهجات في كلامك ؟

□ نعم □ لا □ في بعض الأحيان □ في معظم الأحيان

11- لماذا؟

12- هل تستعمل اللهجة الاولفية خارج المنطقة؟

□ نعم □ لا

شكرا على تعاونكم معنا لأجاز هذا العمل

Part One

Theoretical Framework

Part Two

Field Work

General Introduction

General Conclusion

Chapter One

Sociolinguistic Overviews

Chapter Two

Language Variation and Change

Chapter Three

Lexical Variation in Aoulefian Dialect