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Linguistic Variation in Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic -Lexical Level-

*A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment for the Requirement
of the MASTER Degree in Linguistics and Didactics*

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Academic Year

2014/2015

Dedication

**I dedicate this research work to my parents for their
patience and spiritual support.**

**To all members of my family: brothers, sisters, cousins,
aunts, uncles, and grandparents.**

**Special thanks go to my sister Halima, and her little son
Fares.**

To all my teachers from primary school to university.

To all my friends.

**To all those who helped me to accomplish this research
work.**

Acknowledgements

Thanks God the almighty who provided me with strength and energy to accomplish this work.

Deepest gratitude is due to my supervisor for his guidance, advice, and support.

I am so grateful to prof Borsali, F. and Dr. Bouhania, B. for their pieces of advice and guidance.

I would like to thank all teacher of the department of English.

I also want to acknowledge those who helped me in doing my research.

Abstract

Sociolinguistics is a large scope which studies language with reference to society. Our present research is concerned with the lexical variation that exists within language and even inside dialect. That phenomenon happens due to several reasons among them the social factors which are age, social class or ethnic origin, and gender, in addition to that the geographical origin which influences the way the speaker pronounces sounds, chooses the vocabulary. Lexical variation leads to the change of language in general and dialect in particular. This work is set to describe lexical variation in Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic and seeks the differences in choosing words that exist between its ksours (villages) within the same speech community, our aim is to analyze that sociolinguistic phenomenon in an attempt to show that within this small area which along 25km only is worth to be studied, the second aim of that dissertation is to show the variability between MSA and ZKSA, the third aim is show the influence of other language varieties in Touat dialect in general and ZKSA in particular.

Before we tackle the field work of study, we introduced some linguistic key concepts which will occur along the study: language varieties, speech community, code switching and mixing, borrowing, language change and language variation in all levels of language, and lexical variation and its relation to diglossia, the second part of the research is devoted to the practical side of the study where we described the linguistic situation of Touat dialect, and then we discussed them separately in relation to lexical variation, we also referred to lexical variation between three different zones in Zaouit Kounta district i.e. villages or ksours (Tillouline, Anzegmir, and Zaouit Kounta the centre). In addition to that, we focus on differences between some neighboring ksours where the distance is so short which is limited between 2km and 4km.

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List of Acronyms

AA : Algerian Arabic

CA : Classical Arabic

Egy. A : Egyptian Arabic

H: High variety

L: Low variety

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

NORMs: non mobile, old, rural, males.

TSA: Tillouline Spoken Arabic.

ZK: Zaouit Kounta.

ZKSA: Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic.

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List of phonetic symbols

Consonants :

Plosives

[ʔ] as in [ʔaqrabi] quoranic school

[b] as in [bent] a girl

[d] as in [dib] a wolf

[d̪] as in [d̪rab] he beats

[t] as in [tmar] dates

[t̪] as in [t̪ar] flew

[k] as in [kammel] the whole, all

[g] as in [gæɪ] he said

[q] as in [lɪqal] reason

Nasals

[m] as in [meftaħ] key

[n] as in [nar] fire

Flaps

[r] as in [rgad] slept

fricatives

[f] as in [ftaħ] he opened

[s] as in [sma]

[z] as in [zwaz] the wedding

[ʃ] as in [ʃæref] an old person

[χ] as in [χabz] bread

[h] as in [hawwad] he goes down

[ħ] as in [ħlawā] candy

[ʕ] as in [ʕin] an eye

[ʁ] as in [lmaʁrab] the sunset

[ʒ] as in [ʒdid] new

Laterals

[l] as in [li:l] night

[ɭ] as in [ɭɭah] Allah

Approximants

[w] as in [wald] a boy

[j] as in [jum] a day

Vowels

Short vowels

[a] as in [sawwal] he asked

[i] as in [mistara] ruler

[u] as in [muş] a nife

[ɒ] as in [tɒl] length

[e] as in [meftuħ] opened

Long vowels

[a:] as in [ba:gi] left

[i:] as in [nti:] you (female)

[u:] as in [tu:m] garlic

[ɔ:] as in [tɔ:l] now

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General Introduction

Languages vary from one place to another, from one social group to another, even from one situation to another. Sociolinguistics has contributed a lot to the study of language, and language variation which has become one of the dominant subjects of study in its scope in recent years. William Labov studies of language focused on language variation in speech communities, he stated that “the linguists’ aim in studying language variation is to find out how people talk when they are not observed systematically”(Bassiouney. R2009:95).

The researcher in the field of sociolinguistics is known as dialectologist who study language and all dialects, as Trudgill (1994-2001:02) stated that dialectologists agreed that all dialects are linguistically equal and their interest is to describe different dialects , find differences between them, and explain how these differences happen. The difference that exists between dialects is positive. In our daily interactions we can notice the differences in using language among members of the same speech community, the social background, and the geographical origin play a role in establishing variation between groups.

To describe and investigate the linguistic variation in Touat dialect Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic(ZKSA) and precisely the lexical level, we depended on several questions which are:

Do all speakers of Touat speech community speak the same?

Are there differences between the speeches of Zaouit Kounta ksour?

If there are differences, are there any differences at the level of vocabulary?

What is the relationship between Modern Spoken Arabic MSA or Classical Arabic CA and Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic?

Are there any vocabularies in ZKSA which are no longer used in MSA?

Is Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic influenced by other varieties or not?

What is the most lending language to ZKSA?

In which register, does ZKSA have more borrowings?

Trying to answer these questions, we put forward the following hypotheses:

- People living in different ksour of Zaouit Kounta district speak differently because when two persons from different ksour meet, they sometimes find difficulty in understanding each other especially at the level of lexicon in word choice i.e. in naming or describing things.
- Some vocabularies in MSA have different meaning in ZKSA, for example the verb [hawwada] in MSA, to make someone Judaism believer, is used to mean; go down.

- Some vocabularies in MSA have many variants in KZSA, for example, the verb [faʕala] in MSA, to do, is realized in ZKSA as follows [dæɾ],[ʔmal],[χdam], and [sæwa].
- Some vocabularies in ZKSA do not have equivalents in MSA, thus some equipment and tools are not named in MSA.
- Some vocabularies in ZKSA are from ‘Classical Arabic’; these vocabularies used in ZKSA are from CA but disappeared from MSA.
- There are borrowings from different varieties in ZKSA.
- The agricultural and home registers contain many borrowings from Zenete.

1.1 Introduction

In the past the study of language was in the hands of comparative philologists who studied language historically, they saw language as a historical entity that needs to be studied and investigated chronologically; the linguists' main objective was to find similarities between languages to reach the proto language. Sociolinguists agree that language cannot be studied away from society where it is used. The term dialectology was known as dialect geography, it was concerned with the rural dialects, while sociolinguistics deals with languages as well as rural and urban dialects. The researcher in the field of sociolinguistics may face different terminologies related to linguistics and linguistic variation which is one of its nowadays subjects. The latter describes the variation that exists within language internally, recent sociolinguistic studies focused on, first, the social variation which is the differences in the use of language that exist between different social groups in a given speech community, the second kind is regional variation which is the language variability that occurs between different regions. These regions are separated geographically from each other and belong to the same speech community, and use the same language variety. These variations can be studied in various levels of language.

1.2 Language

Language is defined differently according to its users: the poet defines it as an artistic medium, the philosopher considers it as a means of interpreting human life and experiences, sociologists see it as a way of communication. Language is correlated to the human life such as society, culture, psyche, mind ...etc, each of these elements associated with language generates a branch in linguistics, for example, language with society creates the discipline of sociolinguistics. Edward Sapir (1921:07) sees language as "purely human and non instinctive method of communicating ideas emotion and desires by means of a system of voluntarily produced symbols" Sapir shows that language is mainly a human product, it is used as a way of communicating ideas and expressing feelings. It is a system of symbols used firstly in a spoken form. Thus, language's main role is to preserve the human culture and transmit it from one generation to another.

1.2.1 Language variety

Language variety is defined according to Crystal (1992) “is a system of linguistic expression whose use is governed by situational variable regional, occupational or social class”(76), it is used in a given speech community, and varies from one situation to another according to regions, as the case of Britain where the speakers of each area are identified by their variety. It is the neutral term used by sociolinguists to avoid the misuse of terms and misunderstanding for the reader; whether the term used is meant for ‘a language’ or ‘a dialect’. Trudgill.(1990:05) used the term variety as a neutral term to apply to any kind of language. Therefore, we will use this term throughout our research paper; to mean the spoken language used in the region of Zaouit Kounta, which is the field of our study.

1.2.2 Standard language

Standard language is the variety that is considered as the standard language of a speech community, and the form used in mass media, newspapers, TV news and programs, books, and formal literature; it is also learnt at schools and supported by these institutions. In the case of Standard English; it is the variety which is taught to foreigners - non English speakers- as a second or foreign language. Besides, it is considered, according to some linguists like George Yule, as the correct English that needs to be conserved and kept pure(1985:180). In the case of Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic is considered the standard language of the Arab World.

1.3 Accent

Accent is a variety of language which differs from another one only in the pronunciation (Trudgill.1992: 22). When we listen to the speech of speakers, it is easy for us to identify their geographical background as well as their social background from their accent i.e. the way they pronounce the words. In English language, there are various accents in which some sounds are pronounced differently; in some regions for instance the \ r \ is non-prevocalic in England, it is pronounced in some regions and not pronounced in others.

1.4 Dialect

Dialect is a variety of language which differs in vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar from the language: both dialect and language are mutually intelligible, it has evolved among the users of such variety when communicating with each others; dialect is used by the

speakers who share the same geographical area or social group in communication and exchanging ideas (Fehnestock, J. 2011:81). Dialects of the same language differ from each other simultaneously on at least three levels; pronunciation, grammar or syntax, and vocabulary. In the case of Arabic, there are many varieties of Arabic in the Arab World; each country has its own Arabic, for instance, Syrian Arabic, Egyptian Arabic, Saudian Arabic, Moroccan Arabic, Algerian Arabic ...etc. Thus, British English and American English speakers can be considered as using different dialects of English language.

There are two kinds of dialects; the traditional dialect which is associated with old people in rural area of the country, and is gradually disappearing, it is linguistically different from the second kind, and even from the standard variety. On the other hand, the second kind is the new dialect which is known as mainstream dialect, it is the variety which is used by the majority of people particularly the young speakers of urban areas, and dialects of this kind are linguistically similar to each other and to the standard variety (Trudgill. 1994:23)

A dialect according to Scott Thornbury (2006:64) is a regional or social variety of a language which has some lexicons and grammar features different from those of language, and it is spoken with various accents.

1.4.1. Dialect vs. accent

The accent varies from the dialect at the pronunciation level, when the term accent is used in the most contexts; it is restricted to the description of the pronunciation aspects to identify the speakers' region and social class (Yule. 1985:181). Every speaker of a language uses an accent, and it is impossible to say that some speakers have the accent while others do not. The term accent is distinguished from dialect which deals with grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation as well. The speakers of the two varieties share a common grammar but they may differ in the pronunciation and the lexical level (Crystal. 1996:19). A dialect describes the three features of language: grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation whereas the term accent is restricted to the pronunciation aspect of speech. The dialect is a variety that may have various accents whereas the accent does not have various dialects (Thornbury. 2006:64).

1.4.2. Regional dialect

Regional dialect is the dialect which identifies the person's region i.e. where the person is from (Crystal. 2008:143) or which geographical area he belongs to, there are many researches in sociolinguistics are devoted to investigate the speech of people in a certain geographical area rather than another. Sociolinguists aimed at finding differences in speech among speakers of the same language variety living in different geographical regions, they focus on their researches at people who are non-mobile, older rural, and male speaker (NORM); these speakers were selected as such because it was believed that they were less influenced by the speech of the other regions.

Sociolinguists tried to make surveys and maps to illustrate the variation between different areas. When someone travels throughout a long geographical area he notices the differences in pronunciation, the choice of words and also in syntax. The field of our research is concerned with variation at the lexical level.

1.4.3 Social dialect

Social dialect is a variety of language identified by a social group and defined according to class, education, occupation, age, sex, and a number of other social aspects (Romaine. 2000:190). It is easy to recognize the person's social status from his speech; the person who has been to school, is unlike uneducated one in his way of pronouncing words and also the choice of lexicons, the person with high status speaks differently from those of low status; furthermore, the speakers tend to reveal their ethnicity and social class through their speech, the speech community of India is based on the caste system, there are differences between both categories, upper and lower classes, are clear and easy to recognize. The speech of the upper class is different from the speech of the lower class. The term social dialect can be used to describe differences in speech associated with the social groups or classes (Wardhough. 2006:49). Therefore, it is used to identify the social status of the speaker.

1.5 Dialect Boundary and Isoglosses

The term isogloss was firstly introduced by the Latvian dialectologist Bielenstein in 1892. The meteorological term 'isotherm' is used to mean the line drawn between two locations with the same average temperature. The word isogloss literally means 'equal language' which conveys the fact that the line drawn across a region will show two

areas in it which share some linguistic features, but they will disagree with each other (Chambers and Trudgill, 2004: 92). It is the geographical boundary of a certain linguistic feature: the pronunciation of a certain sound, meaning of a word, or the use of some syntactic features which separate one speech variety from another, or any other linguistic feature. The line drawn to represent a boundary between two regions with regard to a certain linguistic feature is called an *isogloss*.

According to Suzanne Romaine (2000:136) it is the boundary of any linguistic feature or set of features which separate varieties from each other. Most dialects are demarcated by a whole group of isoglosses which are overlapping. When a number of isoglosses bundle within the same geographical region for a different data these lines are 'in bundles' as Kachru, B.B. stated "lines for different data can occur in the same place" (Masthrie, 2001:357). In this case; these isoglosses overlap and draw a solid line to indicate a dialect boundary between dialect A and dialect B; for instance as it is presented in the following figure:

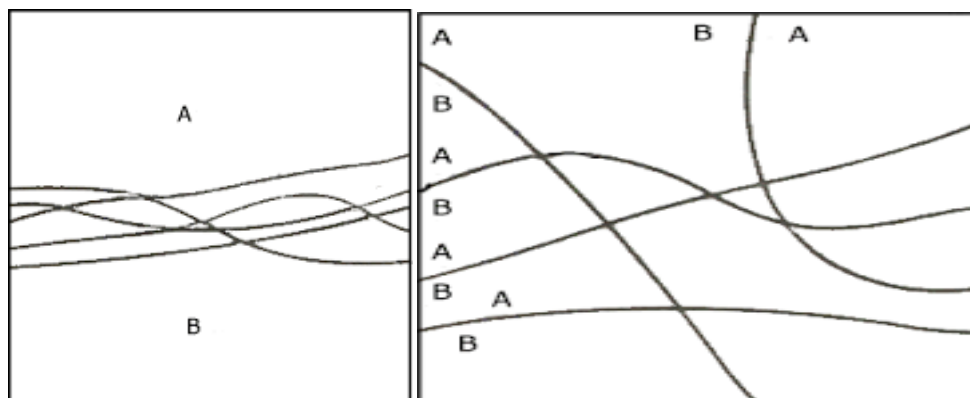


Figure 1 : Isoglosses Overlapping

Dialectologists represented isoglosses graphically in two different ways: the first way is done as follows; if speakers in a given region are found to differ in a particular linguistic features, some of them have the feature x; whereas, others have the feature y. Usually this situation is represented graphically by a single line that is drawn between the locations of any two speakers using different features. The other way used by dialectologists to represent isoglosses: two lines are used; the first line is drawn to link the locations of speakers who share a given feature, and the second line is drawn to link speakers of the other feature; when those speakers are at the interface between the two regions, these two lines are sometimes called heteroglosses (Chambers, and Trudgill, 2004:89).

Poole, S.C.(2000:99)pointed that isoglosses are lines which represent “the point where one form loses its majority to another, where one form ceases to be spoken by as much as 51percent of the people concerned”.For instance; to find differences that exist in the speech of those who live in different areas in the Upper Midwest of the United States, a survey about regional variation resulted in the linguistic Atlas of that area in which it is found that the majority of informants in one area say that;*they take their groceries home in a **paper bag***, whereas the majority in the other area say that;*they take their groceries in a **paper sack***; these two areas are separated by an isogloss (Yule, G. 1985).

1.5.1 Grading of isoglosses

Some isoglosses and bundles are more significant than others in the sense that some mark distinctions to be culturally important while others do not have that importance. Chambers J.K.and Trudgill(2004:98) categorized isoglosses according to the type of linguistic features as follows:

- The lexical isoglosses: describe contrasts in the words which are used by different speakers to identify the same object as illustrated in the following examples; people of the northeastern region of North America use the terms ‘dutch cheese’, whereas, people living in the American midland use the terms ‘cottage cheese’ or ‘brose’ in Scotland, and ‘gruel’, and ‘oatmeal’ in some parts of North England.
- The pronounced isoglosses: describe contrasts in pronunciation of some words such as the case of North America where the word ‘greasy’ is pronounced with [s] in the North and with [z] in the Midland and South.
- In phonology there are two types of isoglosses: the phonetic isoglosses which describe contrasts in the phonetic output of two different regions, the other type is the phonemic isogloss in which some dialects differ in their phonemic inventories.
- The grammatical isoglosses which are divided into two types: morphological isoglosses and syntactic isoglosses, which involve differences between regions in grammatical features and some aspects of sentence formation.

1.5.2 Dialect continuum

Dialect continuum is a chain of dialects of the same language variety, in which the speakers of one dialect understand speakers of the neighboringdialects; these dialects are

mutually intelligible and geographically linked. It can be viewed that regional variation exists along the dialect continuum having no sharp break from a region to the next one (Yule, G. 1985:184). Dialect continuum generally occurs in dialects of the same language that are one next to the other and vary from one region to the other. There is another type of continuum, it exists between related languages of neighboring countries exists in two sides of their political borders; as the case of regions which are at the borders between Holland and Germany where Dutch and German dialects are difficult to be identified (Yule. 1985:184).

1.6 Dialectology

Dialectology is a branch of linguistics known in the past as ‘dialect geography’ or ‘linguistic geography, it studies all forms of dialects. Traditional dialectology emerged in the late of 19 century, it was directed to the form of detailed surveys using questionnaires and recently tape recorded interviews to collect data (Crystal D 2008:143). The traditional dialectologists were interested in studying rural dialects, they can get conservative data depending on the following criterion in collecting the data when studying dialects: non mobile, old, people, rural, and male (NORMs).

Modern dialectology developed with the researches of William Labov and his followers who considered the classical model of community as no longer being studied, especially in the urban societies where diversity results in linguistic variation. Dialectology has moved from studying variations within geographically distributed dialects to the analysis of linguistic features.

1.6.1 Mutual intelligibility

In mutual intelligibility, it is useful to consider some dialects as dialects of a language. Thus, linguists use the criterion of mutual intelligibility to determine whether two dialects are of the same language or not. If speakers of the two dialects can converse fluently with one another, despite the fact that they consider themselves speak different varieties of the same language. Dialects can be considered as parts of a particular language. Therefore, we can say that a dialect of a language such as Parisian dialect of French, the Yorkshire dialect of English, and the Bavarian dialect of German and so on.

The distinction between language and dialect is based on mutual intelligibility where a language is seen as “a speech variety that is spoken by everyone who understands it” whereas

dialect is considered as “a speech variety that is spoken by only some of those who understand it”(Poole. 2000:104). From this quotation we can draw a distinction between language and dialect; furthermore, it helps us to recognize, what is language in relation to the dialect, or are they similar to some extent? Thus, language is considered as a collection of mutually intelligible dialects, according to that definition dialect is a subpart of language and it provides a criterion for distinguishing one language from another (Chambers and Trudgill, 2004:03).

The people, who speak different varieties which are not mutually intelligible, are considered as speakers of different languages, for instance, French, English, and Arabic. This criterion is not sufficient to make the distinction between varieties;as in the case of the Scandinavian languages: Norwegian, Swedish, and Danish which are considered as different languages thoughthey are mutually intelligible. So this characterization of language and dialect is relative, and not entirely successful to differentiate between language and dialect. Speakers of these three languages can normally understand and communicate with one another with less difficulty (Chambers and Trudgill. 2004: 03).

1.7 Diglossia

The term diglossia came with the American linguist Charles A Ferguson (1959) which describes the case where the standard language and its variety function as high and low respectively, for example, Modern Standard Arabic in the Arab countries plays the role of the high variety and Arabic dialects play the role of the low variety, the former is used in the formal situations such as TV and radio news and programs, religious preaches, and lectures (Trudgill.1992:25). Furthermore, High variety is learnt at a formal setting such as school. Whereas the latter is the low varietywhich is used in informal situations such as home, street, dailyconversations,and other contexts.

Extended diglossia came with the sociolinguist Fishman who widened the application of diglossia to societal bilingualism by arguing that diglossia is connected with society that uses two languages or more for internal (intra- society) communication (Mu tong. 2009:11). Where two distinct languages play the role of high and low variety, i.e. one of the languages is considered as a high variety used in formal situations and learnt in school, while the other language is a low variety used in everyday speech and all in informal situations; as in the case of Nigeria where English is considered as a high variety and the language of prestige as

Trudgill pointed out that “English is functioning as a nation –wide prestige language which is learnt in school”(1992: 25). Whereas the local languages which are spoken in Nigeria, are treated as low varieties such as Hausa, this case is described as being a diglossic situation.

1.8 Sociolinguistic Features of Language Interference

1.8.1 Borrowings

Borrowing is a sociolinguistic phenomenon which describes the case when a language takes lexicons from another language or dialect. David Crystal (1992) defined borrowing as “the process or result of adopting a linguistic form from another language or dialect” (p.14). Borrowing is described according to Issa. (2006) as “ collective and systematic transfer in bilingual speech, or inclusion of foreign loan words in a language” (p.85).The borrowed words are often phonologically and morphologically similar to the host language, after adopting the word it is then, adapted to the phonology and the morphology of the structure of the host language. A lexical borrowing is generally named loanword; examples of loans from French to English: *restaurant*, *vis- à- vis*, and loans from English to French: *leweekend*, *le bifteck*. Grammatical features are less borrowed as Crystal, D.(1992:14)stated that the grammatical constructions may also be borrowed.

1.8.2 Code switching

Code switchingis a phenomenon where the speaker uses two codes in his conversation simultaneously, this occurs in the speech of bilingual speakers who have two languages, the switching happens when the situation demands, from one language variety to another(Trudgill. 1990:186). Code switching is also defined as the use of two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation including style changes within the sentence or between sentences. According to Crystal (1992:19) code switching is the situation where the speaker uses more than one language, dialect or variety during his conversation which depends on the nature of the audience, and also the subject matter and the situation in which the conversation takes place.

1.8.3 Code mixing

Code mixing is the transfer of linguistic elements from one language to another; it occurs in the speech of people who have two languages, those speakers mix between the

grammar of two languages; for instance, the speaker begins a sentence in a language and then he introduces words or grammatical features from another language, this occurs in bilingual speech of people in south-west USA where English and Spanish are mixed which result in what is called Spanglish (Crystal 1992:19). Code mixing is also known as the change of one language to another within the same utterance or in the same oral /written text; it is well known in multilingual societies in which two or more than two language varieties are mixed in their speech. Some scholars use both code switching and code mixing interchangeably, especially in studies related to syntax and morphology and other aspects of language, other scholars use more specific definition of code mixing, these definitions can be different in several subfields of linguistics.

1.9 Speech Community

This term is widely used by linguists in order to identify communities in terms of their languages, also sociolinguistics focuses on the speech community in which not all speakers speak the same way, and there is no uniform language variety which characterizes the community (Coulmas, F. 1998), for example English speech community includes American English and British English though its speakers use two different varieties. All users of a language know to which speech community they belong, some speech communities may cross political boundaries (Masthrie 1995: 105); for instance, for the Arabic speech communities where Arabic is spoken in all the countries of the Arab world in Asia and Africa; another example is English speech community which includes many countries from different parts of the world; in addition to British, the USA, and Australia, there are many other countries in which English is the official language as in some south African countries. According to Labov speech community “is a locus in which speakers agree on the social meaning and evaluations of the variants used, and of course it incorporates variability in language use” (Coulmas 1998).

1.10 Language change and language variation

Language change happens to language throughout a long time; it may take centuries, it is a normal process in language history that can happen at any time as Crystal. 1996 stated: “language change is inevitable and rarely predictable” (p. 05) the main reason for language change is the cultural transition in society ; languages do not develop or decay but change as the society changes (Crystal. 1996:05), due to historical, political, and social changes and

scientific development in society new words enter the vocabulary of the language of that society.

The traditional view of language change is the structural consequences i.e. it happens over time. Some sounds in languages change over time; they may split into two sounds or disappear at a given stage; this is known as sound change. Wardhaugh (2006) stated: “a distinction between two sounds may be lost in a language” (191), this type of change happens at the level of sound where two sounds meet and become one sound; this is called phonological change. It happens also at the morphological and syntactic level, these changes are known as the internal changes of language, and the other kind of change is called the external change which comes with borrowings from other dialects and languages. Recent studies about language change are made by historical linguists and sociolinguists, in which all aspects of language are studied and involved but, in practice, pronunciation and vocabulary are the most considerable study because of their frequency (Crystal.1992:216)

Language variation differs from language change in the methods and approaches of study; the latter studies the historical background of the language whereas the former is the concern of dialectologists who have different methods to investigate language variation among: questionnaire, elicitation, recording, and interviewing. It is the difference that exists within a language and its varieties; the variation is either social or geographic, it happens at all the levels of language; the phonological, morphological, the lexical, and the syntactic level.

1.11 Factors of language variation and change

There are many and complex factors which are involved in the differences between varieties of language and within the language itself among are the followings :(Auer, Frans, and Kerswill 2005: 287)

-The physiological constitution of our speech organs; people have the same speech organs, but their speech seems different in terms of pronunciation.

-The mental capacities of our brain are different and variable; people do not have the same mental ability, but differ.

-The structure of the linguistic varieties differs in the structure of their utterances; the speakers do not use the same sentences, but each one uses an utterance for the same meaning, i.e. many possibilities of structures for one meaning.

-The linguistic context of particular variables changes, the use of any variable is due to its context; whenever the context changes the variable changes too.

-The social embedding of variation

-The social evaluation of variants and varieties.

There are objective and subjective factors of language variation: the objective factors find situations where the same objective factor holds in order to see if the same kind of change occurs in language. Researchers tend to look for natural changes to be explained in terms of physiological, auditory or mental factors, but “naturalness cannot explain everything. Hence the researcher can look at similar social development in different speech communities and investigates if the language develops as society does. In Norway and Denmark witness different ways of development in 1900s which resulted in the loss of traditional dialects of Denmark only, though both counties went through similar processes of urbanization and similar patterns of geographical and social mobility. The second type of factors is the subjective one which relates the subjective factors to the linguistic change to test their explanatory power. The reference to subjective factors in sociolinguistics is in terms of identities and attitudes (Auer, Hinskens, and Kerswill. 2005:289).

Linguistic variation can occur as a result of some additional factors such as the historical movement and or people, who settled the area at a given period of time, and also the movement of people from one region to another, these factors lead to linguistic borders between territories as Mauthrie stated “many linguistic divisions reflect historical settlement patterns and population movements” (2001:159)

1.12 Definition of Linguistic variation

Linguistic variation is the different ways of using the same language by different speakers, variation helps to differentiate individuals, groups of society, community, “Edward Sapir remarked that everyone knows that language is variable” (Coulmas.1998:33). Variation in any language starts from the smallest unit which is the sound to the structure of the sentence.

Tagliamonte (2006:10) pointed out that it occurs at every level of grammar in a language; in any variety of language, style, register, dialect, and even in the same discourse. The variation happens at the phonological morphological, syntactic levels. Storch. (2011:203) gave an explanation to the phenomenon in details, she argued that language variation does not occur arbitrarily , it is necessary and has functions in the use of language; the following quotation illustrates the phenomenon:

“Linguistic variation is apprehended, not as consequence of behavior which has undergone change in sociolinguistic functionalization, but rather as a normal manifestation of language on the area of variability which is one of its inherent components, indispensable to its use and constitution....Variation is no longer essentially arbitrary and circumstantially functionalized, but necessary and functional in the use of language.”Storch (2011:203)

The study of language variation is one of the most expanding subfields of linguistics and an important part of sociolinguistics. The recent subjects of dialectology are mainly on language variation and some researchers like Labov, Crystal, Trudgill tackled and discussed that sociolinguistic phenomenon from different aspects and dimensions.

1.12.1 Regional variation

Regional variation is the differences that exists between regions of the same speech community in the use of language variety , it is known as dialect geography in which varieties differentiate as speakers distance themselves from each other over time and space (Wardhaugh 2006:136).There are social barriers which differentiate social groups, similarly, there are also geographical barriers contribute in the spread of some linguistic features. Regional variation is the study of regional dialects and the varieties of languages that are spoken in different areas. The geographical origin can affect our speech to the extent that it may give an answer to the question where are you from? (Crystal. 1996:364), ; as an example,in British and American Englishvarieties time and distance are factors of variation both varieties or dialects are separated by a large geographical distance which is the Atlantic Ocean, and by over two centuries of political independence (Wardhaugh 2006:136), in the case of African American speakers who are known by using double negation in their speech for example: ‘do not nobody want no tea’. Regional variation exists widely in non standard varieties; there are many possibilities in non standard varieties of English:

He’s a man who likes his beer.

He's a man that likes his beer.

He's a man at likes his beer.

He's a man as likes his beer. (Trudgill 1992:29-30)

1.12.2 Social variation

There are social factors such as sex, age, social class, education which influence the variety used by speakers of a speech community, where each social group is identified with his own way of using language variety which is different from that of another in terms of the choice of words, pronunciation, morphology, and even the structure of utterances (sentences). Language varies socially from one speech community to another, from one social class to another. William Labov in his studies investigated New York City speech community, where he proved in this study that the speakers of the highest social class use the standard dialect of English whereas people of the lowest class use the most localized dialect of English (Trudgill 1992:29). It is different from the Standard English in grammar, for instance, the speaker A and speaker B are from different social groups who use different varieties:

A: he is a man who likes his beer.

B: he's a man likes his beer.

From these examples, the speaker A variety is more standard than that of speaker B; their speech reflects their social background. (Trudgill 1992:29)

1.13 Levels of Linguistic variation

Variation exists within language and its varieties at all its levels. It occurs in some linguistic features; it can be “a pronunciation of a consonant or a vowel, a certain lexical choice or the use of some syntactic construction” (Pereltsvaig.2012:06). Thus, linguistic variation happens at the pronunciation level in which some sounds are realized differently among the users of language, or in choosing a certain word rather than another in the speech of people of the same speech community. This variation may happen in different: phonological, lexical, and grammatical levels due to the following factors (Filppula, Klemola, Palander, and Penttila 2005:75):

- The original differences between two different dialects.

- Different results of autochthonous developments in speakers' dialects.
- Dialect mixing and its results in speech.
- The influence of the surrounding dialects and languages varieties

1.13.1 Phonetic variation

Phonetic variation is the variation that happens at the phonetic level; the different pronunciations of the same sound in the words by different speakers of the same language variety, these differences does not accede the pronunciation only, the meaning is the same; as the case of Upper Mid West of the United States of America speech, where there are differences between the Northern dialect areas which includes Minnesota, North Dakota, most of South Dakota and Northern Iowa , and the Midland dialect including the rest of Iowa and Nebraska ; for example , the word *greasy* is pronounced in the Northern dialect as [grisi] with voiceless fricative /s/, whereas the midland dialect it is pronounced as [grizi] with the voiced fricative /z/(Yule, G. 1985:184).The following table illustrates such variation in English:

The word	Northern dialect	Midland dialect
Greasy	[grisi]	[grizi]
Roof	[rʊf]	[ruf]
Taught	[tɔt]	[tat]
Creek	[kɾɪk]	[krik]

Table1.1: Phonetic Variation in Upper Midwest of USA

The same happens between Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and its varieties, for instance there are differences between MSA and Algerian Arabic (AA) as illustrated in the following examples:

MSA	AA	English
[qala]	[gal]	He said
[ʃakala]	[kal]	He ate
[ʃajna]	[win]	Where

Table1.2: phonetic Variation between MSA and AA

Some words have the same form and the same meaning, but differ in pronunciation. As an example for that the word [ddhab] in ZKSA for [ʔaððahab] in MSA ‘gold’, and also the verb [tzawwaz] in ZKSA for [tazawwaʒa] in MSA ‘he got married’ ; we find that [ð], and [ʒ] in MSA are replaced in ZKSA as [d], and [z] respectively this happens in some cases, whereas, we find some cases where [ð] is replaced or substituted by [z] as in the following examples; [ðawq] in MSA for ‘taste’ is pronounced by people of ZK as [zawq], and [ðanb] in MSA for ‘sin’ .

1.13.2 The phonological variation

Phonological variation is the differences that happens at the pronunciation of the phoneme this occurs in the Standard American English where some consonants are considered as weak syllables such as [r] in the word *particular*, whereas in African American English r is pronounced as [ɹ] the [r] phoneme is dropped out in the first syllable. Moreover, Southern American English speakers have tendency to pronounce two part vowels (diphthong) as a single vowel in words like ‘mine’ [main] becomes (mahne), ‘mile’ [mail] becomes (mahl), and ‘bide’ [baid] becomes (bahd). Another phonological feature occurs in SAE such as the *pen* and *pin* merger where both words sound alike (Wolfram. and Ward 2006:20-39)

The same variation happens between Algerian Arabic AA variety and Modern Standard Arabic MSA where some phonemes are substituted by others in some cases in the Algerian speech, as it is shown in the table below:

MSA	AA	English
[baqaratun]	[bagra]	Cow
[ðiʃbun]	[dib]	Wolf
[qatala]	[ktal]	He kills
[qala]	[gal]	He said

Table 1.3: Phonological Variation between MSA and AA

1.13.3 The morphological variation

Morphological variation is the differences that happens at the level of morphemes, it occurs in the grammar of different varieties of the language; in the case of English, in the North of

England and South of Wales, the [s] of the present tense is used with all personal pronouns, while in Standard English [s] occurs in only he, she, and it, as it is illustrated in the following examples:

-I respects him a lot. (North of England and South of Wales dialect)

Whereas in Standard English:

-I respect him a lot.

-He\she respects him a lot.

This also appears in the speech of Scottish and Appalachian who add -s to sentences such as *thedogs walks and the people goes* (Walfram. and Ward.2006:19). In Modern Standard Arabic many morphemes are dropped out or disappear in the use of some varieties of Arabic as the case Algerian Arabic where the morpheme which indicates the plural form disappears :

In MSA [hom jaktubu:na doru:sahom] they write their lessons.

In AA [jekatbu dorushom]

In this example [jaktubu:na] in MSA becomes [jekatbu] in AA i.e. the morpheme[u:na] disappears in AA variety.

1.13.4 The Syntactic Variation

Syntactic variation is the differences which occur between dialects and varieties of a language in the grammatical features, according to George Yule, G. (1985) “dialect variations in the meaning of grammatical constructions are less frequently documented” (p.181) in the case of English language there are differences between its varieties in the use of some syntactic features, as in the South American English which is different from other English varieties in some grammatical features; for instance ‘done’ is used as an auxiliary; for example: he ‘done just leave’, in addition to that ‘you all or y’all’ is recognized as a southern second personal pronoun stands for ‘you’ , another grammatical distinction characterizes the speech Southern American people which is the use of double models or more than one model in a sentence (Walfram and Ward 2006 :13)

-I might could leave work early today (Southern American dialect)

-I might be able to leave work early today (English RP)

There are differences between the syntax of MSA and its dialects and all its varieties like A.A. as it is illustrated in the following examples in the table below:

MSA	AA	English
[lamʔaktub ʔadarsaalyauma]	[ma ktebf ɖars lyaum]	I did not write the lesson
[ʔilaʔeinaʔanti ðæhɪbatun]	[wɪn rakɪ mæʔɪja]	today. Where are you going?

Table1.4: Syntactic Variation between MSA and A.A

1.13.5 Lexical Variation

Lexical variation is the differences that happens at the lexical level; the choice of word. The speakers of a given variety use different lexicons to the same meaning, or different meaning for the only one lexicon, and this varies from one variety to another i.e. the use of word differs from one language variety to another and from one social group to another taking into account, socioeconomic background, the age, gender, and education of the speaker of the language. As an example of English, the Northern dialect in US Upper Midwest speakers prefer to take their groceries home in *paper bag* whereas the Southerners prefer to use the word *paper sack* (Yule. 1985:184), Labov found the following results as shown in the following table:

Northern Dialect	Midland Dialect
Paper bag	Paper sack
Pail	Bucket
Kerosene	Coal oil
Get sick	Take sick
Slippery	Slick

Table1.5: Lexical Variation in US Upper Midwest English

Lexical variation in Arabic occurs between Modern Standard Arabic MSA and its varieties, there are differences in the choice of words in naming objects, selection of verbs, and description of things. Algerian Arabic varies from Modern Standard Arabic in so many

lexicons, as it is shown in the following table where we listed some examples to illustrate the phenomenon:

MSA	AA	English
[ʔalʔa:n]	[darka]	Now
[tawila]	[tʔabla]	a table
[nafiða]	[tʔaqa]	a window
[ʔiʔtaqa]	[twaħħa]	he missed

Table1.6: Lexical Variation between MSA and AA

1.13.5.1 Lexical Variation and Diglossia

Diglossia is an important aspect of language variation in general and lexical variation in particular. It concerns the differences that exist between both the high variety and the low variety in the speech of any diglossic speech community. The element which represents the main feature of diglossia is the function of the High and Low varieties. High variety is used in political speeches, university lectures, formal letters, and news broadcasts. Whereas the Low variety is used between family members, and friends, daily conversation, radio and folk literature. (Trudgill 1995:98)

The differences in language variety are vocabulary ones between both varieties of the same language, there is a considerable pair of words which refer to common objects or concepts, generally the meaning is the same. But only the use of the item can indicate which variety is used in terms of form, use, and meaning (Trudgill 1995:99). On one hand, the vocabulary of (H) is rich in some domains, particularly scientific technical words and formal expressions, which have no equivalents in (L). On the other hand, we may find that (L) has many words and popular expressions, which do not have equivalents in (H), for example in Algerian Arabic:

High	Low	Meaning in English
[saxaxa]	[zagga]	He shouted
[sikkɪn]	[mus]	Knife
[na :fiða]	[tʔaqa]	Window
[kis]	[zgiba]	A bag

Table1.7: H and L in Algerian Arabic

1.13.5.2 Lexical Variation in Dialects

Dialectologists agreed that all dialects are linguistically equal, and their main interest is to describe different dialects, find differences between them, and explain how these differences happen (Trudgill 1994:02). Dialects of the same language differ from each other in pronunciation, phonology, sometimes syntax, and even in the choice of words which is widespread among varieties. Peter Trudgill (1994) discussed the variation between the German dialects in the use of some words: the term ‘*grundbirne*’ for potato; it is literally ‘ground pear’, it is used in an area in between the areas with ‘*erdbirne*’ earth pear, ‘*erdapfel*’, earth apple respectively. Another example is taken from British English where the terms *take away* is used in central and south of Britain, whereas northern speakers say ‘carryout’, whereas, the intermediate speakers of the country say ‘take out’, which is also used in the southern part of northern England (Auer, Hinskens and Kerswill 2005:10). In Arabic, there are many dialects where we notice the differences that exist between them at all level of language; phonological, morphological, lexical, syntactic, and even the semantic level. The lexical variation is more noticeable between varieties of Algerian Arabic and also MSA. Many words in L variety are found in H variety MSA but differ in forms, use, and sometimes meaning between both varieties. The following table illustrates the case in details: (Jafar Jabbari 2012:30)

AA	Egyptian Arabic	English
[rijjaħ]	[galas]	He sits
[dχal]	[χu]	He enters
[zina]	[gamila]	Beautiful
[bazzaf]	[kti:r]	Lot of
[win]	[fin]	Where
[χadwa]	[bukra]	The morning
[waqta]	[ʔimti:]	When
[wi]	[kwajis]	Few

Table 1.8: Examples of Lexical Variation between Algerian and Egyptian Arabic

1.14 Conclusion

Language is not stable; it changes through time and varies in the way it is used from one speaker to another, from one region to another, and from one speech community to another. These elements make linguistic variability between the speeches of people of the same language variety either in pronunciation, the choice of lexicons, or the linguistic structure of sentences. Lexical variation is one of the noticeable variations that can happen to any language. In this chapter we tackled the theoretical part of our research in which the basic terms of the phenomenon are defined such as language varieties, borrowing, code switching / mixing, diglossia, and speech community. In addition to that the clarification of the phenomenon and its different levels, and the relationship between lexical variation and diglossia in dialects are elements tackled in that chapter.

2.1 Introduction

The study of dialect is one of the recent researches in the field of sociolinguistics, since Zaouit Kounta belongs to the Touat region; it is a variety of the Touat dialect which is known as Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic. This region is considered as a diaglossic speech community where the mentioned above variety (ZKSA) functions as a low variety (L) whereas MSA/CA function as a high variety (H) which is used in school, mosque, some radio programs and news.

It is noticeable that the speech and daily conversation of Zaouit Kounta people is full of vocabularies from MSA. Thus, we made a comparison between MSA and ZKSA to show the differences that exist in form, use, and meaning. Lexical variation is a sociolinguistic phenomenon which occurs in speech communities in languages between dialects or even within dialects, the variation may occur according to some social factors such as age, gender ethnicity, and the social belonging, it also occurs according to the geographical origin, from where the speaker is. In this chapter we investigate the distinctions that exist between some ksour of Zaouit Kounta, in the choice of verbs, adjectives, and nouns. We also deal with borrowings which are the results of language contact and influence; the lending languages are Zenete, MSA/CA at the first position, French, and other languages such as Spanish, Turkish.

2.2 Touat Speech Community

Touat speech community is a homogenous society composed of different tribes from different origins; these people come to this land throughout long period of time, since the era before the coming of Islam in AD 666. The historian Mohamed ben Abdelkarim Tmantiti stated that Touat region was settled first by Berber tribes particularly Zenete, therefore, most Touat ksour are named in Zenete (Bakri 2005:17). They built villages and planted palm trees and made foggaras in order to irrigate land (Faradj 2007:45).

People of Touat are from three origins Berber (Zenete), Arabs, and slaves. Islam has contributed a lot to unite its members in a homogenous speech community having the same traditions and customs. Touat is the area from Tabalkouza to Zwa foggara (Bakri, A .2005:16). Zaouit Kounta is situated in the middle of Touat, where Kounta tribe settles first, in the seventh century AH, this tribe is the second Arabs who come to Touat after Arab Elmaaqal (Bakri, A .2005:18). Arabic is the spoken variety in that region.

2.3 Geographical Boundaries of Zaouit Kounta District

Zaouit Kounta district is composed of two municipalities; Zaouit Kounta and Inzegmir. It is bordered from the north by Tamest, and from the south by Sali, Tindouf from the west (Oum Laasal municipality), and Aoulef from the east (Timmegtan municipality).

2.4 Research Instrument and Data Collection

In our research we adapted the corpus study which depended on collecting data from some books by sociolinguists from the region, and those who are interested in studying Touat history and dialect such as Ahmed Djaafri¹, and Fradj Mahmoud Faradj², Bachir Bouhania³, Abdelhamid Bakri⁴ and others. The chief source of collecting data was spoken which is mainly recordings and interviews, it is the basic method we depended on in our research.

In our research we used the qualitative and quantitative methods in collecting data. We recorded conversations of people in public places such as the bus, in weddings, in zyarat (a yearly celebration that happens in Touat villages where many people meet) and street, when they are engaged in speech. Sometimes, we engaged our informants in speaking about their experiences in childhood and early traditions and customs; our aim in that is to get the exact use of language since we know that human beings tend to change their behavior when they are observed; the same happens to language; people tend to modify their speech. The informants we based our research on are about 42 participants from different ages, from both sexes, and from different villages (ksours of ZK).

We selected randomly the participants; they are divided as follows: 10 participants from ZK centre who are males and females, young and old, 06 participants from Inzegmir, 10 participants from Tillouline, 06 participants from Tittawine, 04 participants from Tidmayen, 02 participants from Bouali, 02 participants from Azwa, and 02 participants from Zaglou. We asked friends to carry on the research with us by giving them questions and some vocabularies to ask their families, relatives, friends, and neighbours about the meaning and use; the students were from different villages of ZK. Moreover, we are a native speaker of the dialect variety which facilitates selecting data from our village; we could notice the difference easily. Interviewing is one of the techniques we used in its two types: the formal and the informal one. The formal interview is utilized with old people from the region who helped a

¹Dr. Ahmed Djaafri: researcher and lecturer in Adrar university, interested in Touat literature and its dialect.

²Fradj Mahmoud Faradj: is a researcher interested in Touat history

³Dr. Bachir Bouhania: a sociolinguist, and lecturer in Adrar university in the department of English

⁴Abdelhamid Bakri: a researcher in the history of Touat from the school of Bakri

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lot during the research; especially in the field of agriculture in seeking the terminology related to the field as the Foggara⁵, in this point we interviewed only old males who used to work in foggara, whereas, old women were interviewed to seek knowledge about traditional meals, home instruments, the names of some herbs used to treat some sicknesses. We also used the informal interviews with younger speakers of the region especially students in university, whenever we realized any differences in the choice of words. We recorded the speech of people in public places such as the bus, in [tagsirat] of males when they meet to drink tea, in wedding, and other celebrations which happen occasionally, it helped a lot in doing the research.

2.5 The Linguistic Situation of Touat

Touat dialect as any variety is full of several linguistic concepts, since it is a diglossic speech community and part of the Algerian country which had been under the French colonial for a long period of time, in addition to that Touat was first settled by Zenete tribe and then the coming of Islam to the region in 666 A.D (Abdelhamid, B. 2005:17); these events allowed the existence of Arabic and Zenete varieties in the region and lead to the emergence of some sociolinguistic features, among them we have; diglossia, and both code switching and mixing. People of Touat i.e. those who live in villages, speak in a different way. Each village has terms that are used in a given context.

Accordingly, old people are groups of speakers who have some terms which are less used by younger generation especially the lexicon related to farmers, cooking and home which is different from that of nowadays lexicons. Those people carry different terms, which are totally different from those of the young generation. People from other parts of Algeria can easily recognize speakers who come from Touat. Though the language varieties (that of Touat and that of the other Algerian Arabics) are mutually intelligible, still there are some differences between them; especially at the lexical level where variations are easily noticeable in the speech of Algerian speech community.

Within each *Baladiya* there are small villages called *ksour* (*ksar* or *gsar*). Each ksar has a given or a special way of talking i.e. an accent, and are easily recognized by people of the other ksours though they belong to the same Touat speech community. This indicates the amount of varieties that exist in that society.

In this speech community we find almost three kinds of speakers. The first kind represents old people who are seen as the true speakers of Touat dialect, they use traditional

⁵Foggara : is a traditional system used for irrigation in Touat.

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and old terms in their speech which is full of Zenete and French borrowings. The second kind of people carry new words mainly French loans, and can adopt other Arabic variety with their own way of pronunciations, i.e. when someone gets involved or contacts other places out of his/her living place, he may change the pronunciation of some words and even bring a new item from the new place to his own linguistic repertoire. The third kind is that of the young generation speakers, those who are flexible to adopt new items to their speech. They borrow words from other varieties such as French and English or other languages. The Young generation imitates actor or actress, singer, football player...etc, especially if they were studying or have a background about these foreign languages. Their speech is full of borrowings and mixings of language varieties.

A widening vocabulary depends on the speakers own identification of different terms and also context where they use these words. Sometimes, there is no borrowing or mixing; it is just a different realization of the same term. For example, the phrase 'shut the door' is said, in Z.K, in two ways: [ballaʔ lbab] and [sækkar l bab]; [ballaʔ], [sækkar] are variant realizations of the word 'shut'.

2.6 Touat Dialect

Touat dialect is the dialect used by people of Twat who are a mixture of different origins, and tribes from Arabs, Zenetes, Twareg and others. Touat has different meanings, there are many interpretations for the term, but the most acceptable and frequently used one is that the term Touat is Arabic origin and comes from [wata] and [juwati] 'he suits' and added the prefix [ta] is added to the verb which means in Berber variety 'place' 'the suitable place' But Arabic vocabularies are dominating in Touat dialect than other varieties, thus, it is considered as Arabic variety and both of them are mutually intelligible. Furthermore, some terms from Classical Arabic are used in Touat dialect which disappeared from Modern Standard Arabic (Djaafri A.2013:13.v1).

2.7 Diglossia and Lexical Variation in ZKSA

Modern Standard Arabic (M.S.A) is considered as the official language of some Arabic countries. It is not the only source of linguistic prestige, and virtually in each Arabic speech community but, it is the superposed variety which functions as a high variety whereas the regional dialects function as low varieties (Ferguson 1959:234). There is a dominant H variety which has a noticeable influence on the other variety that has lower-status; it represents an L variety in the diglossic speech community. However, this influence may happen due to an important factor like the socioeconomic dominance of the city over the

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country side, or the influence of a ruling political group. The dialect of these entities becomes a symbol of their power and exercises a certain influence.

Le Page argued that varieties of Arabic: Classical Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic and the national dialects of Arabic such as Tunisian, Moroccan, Egyptian dialects are focused and studied. They are focused though they are variable, but the expense of this variability is predictable and limited (Walters, K. 2003:04). Speakers of some Arabic varieties may accept some items from MSA into their local varieties.

Diglossia results in different linguistic aspects; one of these aspects is lexical variation. It concerns the differences that exist between the two varieties of a speech community (Trudgill 1995: 99). These differences occur in form, use, and meaning. On one hand, the vocabulary of (H) is rich in some domains, particularly scientific technical words and formal expressions, which have no equivalents in (L). On the other hand, we may find that (L) has many words and popular expressions, which do not have equivalents in (H) as Ferguson 1959:242 explained:

“Since the subjects involved are rarely if ever discussed in pure L. Also, it is not surprising that the L varieties should include in their lexicons popular expressions and names of very homely objects and objects of much localized distribution which have no regular H. The bulk of vocabulary in H and L is shared of course with variation in form and with differences in use and form. It is highly surprising, however, that H should include in its total lexicon technical terms and learned expressions which have no regular L equivalents, since the subjects involved are rarely if ever discussed in pure H”.

In Zaouit Kounta spoken Arabic, there are many words which are different from MSA vocabularies in terms of the form and also sometimes the meaning ; the table below shows that linguistic phenomenon:

ZKSA	MSA	English
[ngad]	[ʔastaʔi:ʔ]	I can
[rfæd]	[ʔaxaða]	He took
[ktæb]	[kataba]	He wrote
[ʒameʔ]	[ʔalmasdʒid]	The mosque
[ballaʔ]	[ʔaxlaqa]	He closed
[ktal]	[qatala]	He killed
[jaser]	[kaθi:ran]	a lot

Table 2.1: The variation of High and Low Varieties in ZKSA

2.8 Lexical Variation in Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic

All languages change over time and vary according to place and social surrounding. Once society starts changing, language changes too. These changes could be in terms of, form, use, and meaning this makes variation between the surrounding areas. In Zaouit Kounta district, the distance between its villages (ksour) is not so far, even though, the speech of people differs from one ksar to another. Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic is a variety of Arabic which is mutually intelligible with MSA, as compared to MSA and CA; there are noticeable differences between the two. The lexical level is flexible and accepting new words easily from other languages (Bouhania 2007:191), as in the case of ZKSA which is full of many items from several varieties that are now considered as Touat vocabularies.

2.8.1 Lexical Variation between MSA and ZKSA in Form

Lexical variation between MSA and ZKSA in the form refers to words in ZKSA which have the same meaning in MSA, but different forms in the two different varieties. The following table shows the difference that exists between Modern Standard Arabic (M.S.A) and Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic (Z.K.S.A).

ZKSA	MSA	English
[ʔajjat]	[ʃaraχa]	he shouted
[zraʕ]	[ʔalqamħ]	wheat
[lʕiʃ]	[ʔalkuskus]	a kind of food made from flour
[gdaħ]	[ʔanija]	a big palate
[mʕarfa]	[milʕaqa]	a spoon
[ħasi]	[biʔrun]	a well
[ʃajet]	[ʔiɖa:fi]	an extra
[luħ]	[ɖaʕ]	Put

Table 2.2: Lexical Variation between MSA and ZKSA in Form

Chapter two: Lexical variation in Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic

From this table, we notice that there are words in ZaouitKounta Spoken Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic which has the same meaning but different forms. In addition to that, some words in M.S.A and ZKSA differ in terms of replacing some phonemes by others as in Z.K.S.A [dib]for the word[ðiʔbun] in M.S.A ‘ wolf ’

2.8.2 Lexical Variation between MSA and ZKSA in Use and Meaning

It means words which may have the same form but different meaning in both the high variety (M.S.A) and the low one (Z.K.S.A) as it is shown in the table below:

Meaning in English	ZKSA	MSA	Meaning in English
Fill in	[χʃa]	[χaʃija]	Fear
An occasion	[fdɪla]	[faɖila]	Good morality
Go down	[hawwad]	[hawada]	To become a jewish
A window	[ʔaqa]	[ʔaqa]	Energy
Died	[ʒaf]	[ʒaf]	Dry
To run	[jħarrek]	[juħarik]	To move something
Keep something elsewhere; to hide	[traħ]	[ʔaraħa]	To minimize
He brings	[jʒib]	[juʒib]	he answers
The tea pot	[bærrad]	[bærrad]	The refrigerator
To walk quickly	[sajjar]	[sajjara]	To manage
To repair	[jsawi]	[jusawi]	Equal
A crazy person	[maχrut]	[maχrut]	A cone in math

Table2.3: Lexical Variation in use and meaning between MSA and ZKSA

From this table we see that there are many words in ZKSA which have the same form of MSA, but the meaning is different. For example the word [sawa] in ZKSA means ‘he repaired something’ whereas this word [sawa] in MSA means ‘to make things equal’; so, the meaning is different in both varieties.

2.8.3 Polysemy in ZKSA

There are some words in ZKSA which have more than one meaning, these words are known as polysemy, and we treat them as follows: the first meaning we consider it as the

Chapter two: Lexical variation in Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic

original meaning, and the second meaning which we consider as a secondary meaning. The following table illustrates the fact of having two meanings in the same variety:

The first meaning	ZKSA	The second meaning
The cock	[dik]	That (for feminine singular)
The bus	[kar]	A mug
a yard in the house	[raħba]	Toilet
The good deed	[χir]	Salutation
The pocket	[ʒib]	Bring
Send away	[ʃΛg]	To drive
He was born	[χlag]	Happend
Not cooked	[nija]	Naive
Blue	[zreg]	He throws

Table2.4: Polysemy in ZKSA

We notice that in addition to the forms which have two meanings in ZKSA, there are other forms can have more than two meanings as the case of [dar], it is used to mean ‘house’, ‘wife of someone’, ‘turn around’, and ‘harmful’ in ZKSA. People of that speech community can understand each other from the context since there are more than two meanings for one form.

2.9 Lexical Variation between ZK Ksour

The distance between the villages of Zaouit Kounta resulted in the differences between the speech of one area and another. When someone moves from one ksar to another Zaouit Kounta district, he recognizes the dissimilarities in the speech of each ksar, the accent is different, this is observed easily by people of the whole region (district), for example when a speaker from Tillouline, [tilluli:n] speaks with a person from Azwa, [ʔazwa], they recognize each other’s geographical origin from the pronunciation, and even the choice of words, they sometimes mock each other’s speech. These variations can be found at all levels of language among which are the differences that happen at the level of the lexicon, the latter can be tackled in all parts of speech: nouns, verbs, and adjectives. We have selected three ksour from Zaouit Kounta district, and based the study on the following zones: Tillouline, Inzegmir, and Zaouit Kounta

2.9.1 Lexical Variation in Verbs

We found that the use of verbs in the three zones is not the same; it differs from one place to another as it is demonstrated in the appendices for example the speakers of Zaouit Kounta the centre say [ħja] for ‘to fill in’ whereas speakers of Tillouline and Inzegmir say [xja], and the verb [ħana] ‘to wait’ is used by Tillouline speakers only, but disappeared from the speech of Inzegmir and Zaouit Kounta people as they informed us. The verb [raʔʔan] ‘to wet’ is used in TSA. while people of Zaouit Kounta use the verb [ballal]. In the preparation of couscous; Tillouline people say [nraʔnu lʔajʃ], ‘we wet the couscous’, whereas Zaouit Kounta people say [nʔaslu & nbalu lʔajʃ], and they say [nʔawdu], ‘to wet again the couscous’ whereas Tillouline speakers say [nʔallu] for ‘to wet again couscous’. People of Tillouline use the indicator [wala] for the negative form ; while Inzegmir and Zaouit kounta people say [walu] for negation, besides that, people of Zaouit Kounta use the term [walawala] to mean ‘it is not good, it is not in this way’ .

1.9.2 Lexical Variation in Adjectives

We find that there are differences in the speech of the three zones (Tillouline, Inzegmir, and Zaouit Kounta the centre) in describing someone or something, for example the adjective [ldid] for ‘delicious food’ is used by Tillouline speakers only, whereas Inzegmir and Zaouit Kounta speakers say [bnin] for ‘a delicious food’ And when the speakers of Zaouit Kounta want to say that ‘this person is calm’, they say [had bnadm ʔa:qel], while people of Tillouline and Inzegmir say [had bnadem ʔaqar raʔi], moreover, we notice that people of Zaouit Kounta use the term [ʔaʔga] to mean ‘ it is preferable to do...’ or ‘it is better to do...’.

1.9.3 Lexical Variation in Nouns

People of the three zones Tillouline, Inzegmir, and Zaouit Kounta have some differences in naming things; they name some tools, instruments, and some things with distinctive terms. For example Tillouline and Inzegmir people call the big pot which is used in cooking large amount of food [ʔaka]; whereas Zaouit Kounta people call it [lbarba:r] , but, the word [ʔaka] for them is used to mean ‘the truck, lorry’. Tillouline and Inzegmir people call a kind of bread which is traditional food [merddaf] or [merduf]; whereas, Zaouit Kounta people call it [lmbaʔtan]. In addition to that Zaouit Kounta speakers call the tool which is

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used to clean [sarraħa] while Tillouline people call it [Imassaħa]. Thus, we have noticed that people of the different ksour use different expressions in order to express the same meaning for instance when they are surprised; Tillouline people say [ʔabuhnija] or [ʔabuh], while, people of Zaouit Kounta say [si:rʔabuk]. Inzegmir and Tillouline speakers use the expression [xirlik] instead. Furthermore, Zaouit Kounta people in greeting use the expression [bxirgbalagbala], whereas Tillouline people in greetings use the following expression [labasbxi:r], but, both of them use the expression [gbalagbala] to mean ‘a lot’.

We notice other differences between these three other ksour of Zaouit Kounta (Bouali, Azwa, and Zaglou) are presented in the table below:

MSA	Bouali	Azwa	Zaglou	Meaning in English
[tafʕal]	[twasi],[tʕaddl]	[ddir],[tʕaddal]	[dir]	You do
[jarħam ʔalwalidi:n]	[ħawwalidin]	[ħammaldin]	[jarħammalidin]	Praise for the parents
[qidrkabi:r]	[zaka]	[lbarbar]	[lbarbar]	The big pot
[man]	[ʔakun]	[ʃku:n]	[ʔaʃkun]	Who
[ðahaba]	[gadɖ]	[gadɖ]	[hawwad]	He went down
[ɣurfa]	[laʕli]	[leʕli]	[lmanzeh]	The room up stairs

2.5: Lexical Variation between Bouali, Azwa, and Zaglou

2.10 Spatial lexical variation in ZKSA

We notice that even between two neighboring ksour, there are lexical differences in their speech as the case of Tillouline and Tittawine, and Inzegmir and Tidmajen where the distance between them is only about 3km; this is shown in the following two tables:

Chapter two: Lexical variation in Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic

Tillouline	Tittawine	Meaning in English
[hawwad]	[ʔaddalla]	hewent down
[lχijjaʔa]	[lʃamja]	The needle
[zenzæna]	[lgdira]	A small pot for keeping broth
[ssagja]	[lmarga]	The broth which is served with couscous
[lebbaʔa]	[nulijsa]	A container made up of plastic
[lmarmiʔa]	[lgamila]	The pot with two handles
[rradfa]	[ʃafija]	A stone used for making bread
[lmraddaf]	[lmbaʔtan]	A traditional kind of bread
[lmaʔrag]	[lgarda]	Lot
[butrazza]	[ʃiʃʃir]	A kind of couscous made of barley
[ttanna]	[tanija]	The second
[sgifa]	[ʃabaʔ]	the corridor
[lħaʔtaʔi]	[ʔabsizzawja]	The big plate
[lbasan]	[lbasima]	The washing dish
[ʔaʃa]	[lqarfija]	A small plate
[ʃħan]	[zarf]	A plate
[lħʃajeʃ]	[ʃanud]	A collection of herbs used as a medicament
[ħazrat lʃlaf]	[lmaʔrad]	A stone used to crush animal food
[ʃal]	[ʃar]	The scarf
[tarktannaʃza]	[lmriʔaʃ]	The newly born goat or sheep, small sheep or goat

Table2.6: Spatial Variation in ZKSA between Tillouline and Tittawine

The following two ksour Tidmayen and Anzegmir are near to each other, but there are differences in the speech of their people. The table below shows the data:

Tidmayen	Inzegmir	Meaning in English
[lħammal],[dallal]	[ssawwaq]	The shop keeper
[tabut]	[lfaliza]	The suitcase
[lmaχla]	[ʃaʃija]	The basket
[ssadarijja]	[laħsira]	The carpet
[lmharras]	[ʃʃini]	A tool made up with brass used for crushing things

Table2.7:Spatial Variation in ZKSA between Anzegmir and Tidmayen

In order to collect data about the regions (ksour) mentioned above, we asked our informants to name some items and things. The number of participants is reported in the following table:

Ksours	Bouali	Tittawine	Tidmayen	Anzegmir	Azwa	Zagloul	Total
Number of informants	02	06	04	06	02	02	22

2.11 CA and MSA Lexicons in ZKSA

The influence of CA and MSA in the speech of Zaouit Kounta is noticeable in many words and expressions, some vocabularies are used in ZKSA, we do not find them in MSA i.e. they disappeared from MSA. They existed in Classical Arabic, and now these vocabularies have become Touat words and are considered as not belonging to MSA, because people think that these words are wrong and non standard(Djaafri, A. 2013:38). These indicate that Touat dialect -in general and ZKSA in particular -is nearer to the standard varieties of Arabic such as CA and MSA than other regional varieties. The table below shows the existence ofCA/MSA vocabularies in ZKSA.

Chapter two: Lexical variation in Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic

CA/ MSA	English	ZKSA	English
[nahara]	To scold	[nhar]	He shouted in a loud voice
[nnaʕir]	Scream	[nnaʕra]	To ask for help from people
[ʔalmusa]	It has been derived from the verb[wasa] i.e. to shave which is a metal tool used to shave	[lmuʂ]	The knife
[ʔalmaʕarra]	The sin	[lmaʕarra]	The mistake
[ʔalqadaħ]	a dish	[lgdaħ]	A plate used for eating
[qasiħ]	Rigid and solidEx a solid sword	[qaʂaħ]	Solid
[fajaʒa]	He is proud of himself.	[tfajaʒ]	He boasted without having anything
[ʔalfadaʕ]	Curvature and turn in the bones of hand and leg.	[lfdiʕ]	Curvature of the bones in the hand or leg
[fara]	He cuts something	[fra]	He repaired what was not settled
[ʔalʕaram]	Lot of wheat, extended to mean lots of soldiers in the army	[ʕarram]	A lot of
[ʔalʕaraʂ]	At all woodentoolputon the house to make the ceiling and then pieces of wood are put over it	[lʕarʂa]	A wooden, or metal and cement used in the middle of the house as a support
[ʔalʕaʒaʒ]	It is dust that the wind movesfrom one place to another.	[lʕaʒaʒ]	Dust
[zawwaqa]	He speaks in a good manner using nice expressions	[zawwaq]	He decorated
[ʔarraħla]	The female of the sheep	[raħla]	Female of sheep
[barraqa]	He referred to something that is not true	[barraq]	He denied
[ʔazzqqaj]	The shouting of the cock	[zaggaj]	The person who shouts
[ʔalmuzn]	The cloud	[lamzan]	The cloud
[ʂaraʔa]	Swallowed	[ʂraʔ]	Swallow
[ʔaħara]	He produces a deep breathing	[ʔaħħar]	He breathes and produces high sound
[ʔaʔʔarmas]	A dark night	[mʔarmaʂ]	A dark night

Table 2.8: CA Vocabularies in ZKSA

We notice that most of CA lexicons have kept their meanings in ZKSA, whereas other CA words changed to another approximate meaning is used in ZKSA.

2.12 Lexical Variation in ZKSA between Old and New Generation

Old people	Young people	Meaning in English
[lħaffad], [lbuɥwil]	[ssarwal]	Trousers
[rraħba], [lkanif]	[lfisi],[ɥwalit]	Toilet
[ɥalikan],[fibuɥ]	[lbidun]	Jug
[lħawli]	[lizar]	A long piece of cloth wrapped around the body worn by women, similar to the sari to some extent.
[lgark]	[nɥajal]	Shoes
[ɥazowwa]	[ɥabɥi]	A big plate
[lbubu]	[triku]	The shirt
[lmanzeh]	[laɥli]	The room which is up stairs
[taɣarbit]	[lgaɥɥa]	A plate made of wood
[lfarɥada]	[lkufirta]	The cover
[lmiɥar]	[lmaxzen]	The store room
[lkar]	[ɥas]	Mug

Table2.9: Old and Young Speakers of ZKSA

The informants we depended on were students in university and secondary school. We gave them a list of words from our choice to give their meanings, and asked them to add words that they think are related to their generation, and are different from what old people use, and they ask their elders for additional words. We notice that old people use some vocabularies which are not used by young people; these vocabularies are disappearing from ZKSA. The following table reports the number of informants:

	Tillouline	Tittawine	Inzegmir	Zaouit konta	Total
Male	04	03	03	04	14
Female	06	03	03	06	18
Total	10	06	06	10	32

2.13 Lexical Borrowings in ZKSA

Zaouit Kounta Spoken Arabic is full of lexical borrowings from different varieties. Since Zaouit Kounta is situated in the middle of Touat, many tribes from different parts of Africa settled in the land, others came as traders to buy the local products like dates, henna. In addition to that Touat as any part of Algeria was influenced by the French colonization; the French troops arrived to Touat in 1920. The existence of French Troops in Reggane resulted in lots of French and expressions in the speech of Touat people. As a result, Touat dialect has received several borrowings from variable languages such as French, Zenete, Spanish and some African varieties.

2.13.1 Zenete Borrowings in ZKSA

The influence of Zenete variety is well observed in some particular fields such as agriculture, home and cooking terminology. In the following table we listed some vocabularies from the target variety:

Zenete borrowings	MSA	Meaning in English
[ʔafkar]	[qafɫ]	A traditional lock of the door
[laχʔir]	[mahd]	A cover made up of iron used to protect babies in their early months of birth.
[lɣrara]	[ħawija]	A container which carries things on the back of the donkey
[ʔamaqqus]	[duχχan kaθif]	It is a deep smoke
[ʔaqarbiʃ]	[madrasaqrʕa:nija]	Quoranic school
[ʔafagraʃ]	[ʃa:bbun]	the single man
[trajak]	[ʔaʔfa:l]	Children
[timmagzen]	[luʃbatunqadima]	A traditional game
[tissufra]	No equivalent	It is the container of water made up of leather to keep water cold
[ʔazgan]	[miqja:s]	A kind of measurement
[tabsut]	[ðura]	A grain with a long stem
[ʔasaklu]	[saqi:fa]	A small yard in front of the house
[ʔaqasri]	[ʔanijatunkabiratun]	It is a big palate used in making couscous
[tbarki:ʃ]	[ʃunʃulkuskus]	The making of couscous

Table 2.10: Zenete Borrowings in ZKSA

2.12.2 French Borrowings in ZKSA

Since Algeria had been colonized by France for 132 years which is a long period, French language influenced the Algerian language a lot, we find that also ZKSA has some French borrowings; the following table shows some of these loans in that variety:

ZKSA	French meaning	English meaning
[deʔaj]	Detail	Detail
[lapoʂt]	La poste	The post office
[lɪkɪn]	L'école	The school
[lakɔr]	La cour	The yard
[lɪbɪru]	Le bureau	The office
[lkarnɪ]	Le carnet	The copy book
[stɪlu]	Le stylo	The pen
[lkabbanɪja]	La compagnie	The company
[lkustɪm]	Costume	The suit
[trɪku]	Le tricot	The coat
[rubba]	La robe	The dress
[lfunara]	Le foulard	The scarf
[ʃapu]	Le chapeau	The hat

Table 2.11: French Borrowings in ZKSA

2.13.3 Borrowings from other languages

2.13.3.1 Borrowings from Spanish

Touat dialect has been influenced by Spanish vocabularies as all Algerian varieties. The influence happened due to the linguistic contact that happened in the past with Spain in the north of Algeria during the periods of wars and colonization at that time (Djaafri, A. 2013:591). Touat dialect in general and ZKSA in particular had adapted some Spanish lexicons from Algerian people from the north; these borrowings have become Touat vocabularies. The following table contains some of Spanish loans in ZKSA:

MSA	ZKSA	Spanish	English
[ba:χira]	[babur]	Babor	Ship
[bajt plastiki]	[barraka]	Barraca	The green home
[maka:n]	[blaša]	Plaza	The place
[naqdʔispa:ni]	[doro]	Duro	Spanish money
[ʔusbuʃ]	[smæna]	Semana	A week
[χurfa]	[sala]	Sala	A room
[hiða:ʔ]	[šabbaʔ]	Zapato	A shoe

Table 2.12: Spanish Borrowings in ZKSA

2.13.3.2 Persian Borrowings in ZKSA

ZKSA	MSA	Meaning in English
[ba:ʃ]	[qabl]	Before
[ʔaʒi:n]	[miqla:t]	Frying pot
[ʔʔaqa]	[na:fiða]	Window
[ʔasa]	[wiʕa:ʔ]	Vessel

Table2.13: Persian Borrowings inZKSA

2.13.3.3 Turkish borrowings

Since Algeria was under the rule of Othomane at a given period, and there were economic, and cultural exchange, these factors lead to a linguistic contact between two language varieties Arabic and Turkish. It resulted in some borrowings in Algerian Arabic from Turkish. These lexicons have become from the Algerian linguistic repertoire. The following table tackles some aspects.

ZKSA	MSA	Meaning in English
[ʔqɑ:ʃir]	[ʒawa:rib]	Socks
[ʔawa]	[miqla:t]	A frying pot
[quʔi]	No equivalent	A container made up of steel
[lamba]	[miʒba:ħ]	The lamp
[ʃal]	[ħima:r]	The scarf

Table2.14: Turkish Borrowings in ZKSA

2.14 The Names of Zaouit Kounta District ksour

Zaouit Kounta belongs to the region of Touat el Wosta (Middle Touat); it is divided into many ksour where it is noticeable that some are named in Arabic whereas, there are some ksour named in non Arabic. The existence of Zenete in Touat resulted in the names of some ksour and places which indicate that they were in that region with Arabs. Zenete tribes were the first who came and settled in Touat, they built villages, planted palm trees, and made foggaras to bring water from under the ground. (Faradj Mahmoud Faradj 2007:45).The following chart shows the various names of ksours:

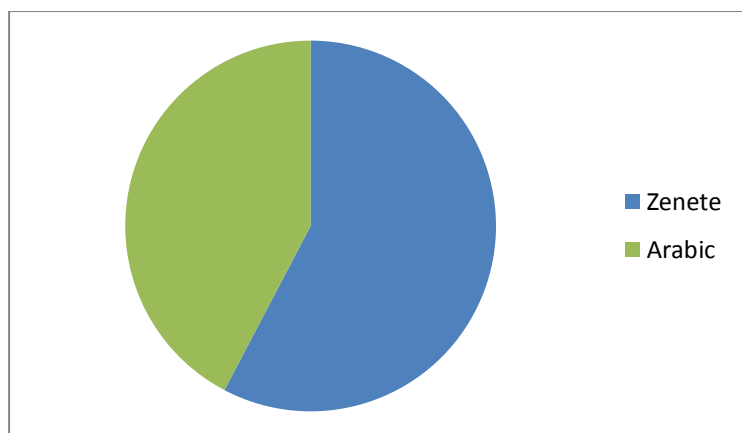


Figure 1 : Arabic and Zenete Zaouit Kounta ksour

We notice that Zenete influences Zaouit Kounta spoken Arabic to the extent that 58% of ZK ksour are named in Zenete, whereas 42% ksour are in Arabic, which proves that these ksour were inhabited by the Zenete in the past.

2.15 Agricultural Register

In the field of agriculture, there are many aspects related to the field, we shed light on them in separated entries. Zaouit Kounta is one of the Adrar regions; it depends on its economy on agriculture as a fundamental factor in all villages of Zaouit Kounta district. People at this geographical area tend to use lexical forms different from standard Arabic, they are known by their traditional way of cultivating land, using primitive tools and equipments. They used to harvest different crops, dates, vegetables...etc. Foggaras are the only way for having water from the inside of the earth which is exclusive to Touat, it is man made with primitive tools.

2.15.1 Foggara terminology

The origin and the system itself of foggara are debatable; who are the first people made and use this system of water irrigation which is traced to centuries; Arab and Zenete people settled the area, so it is not sure that only Arabs nor Zenete construction. The foggara's system is based on a group of wells related to each other by channels. There are Zenete and Arabic terminologies in naming places, tools for measuring water and even the names of foggaras (Bouhania B 2007:197). The total number of Zaouit kounta foggaras is 234, they are delivered according to the ksour in different numbers, and we notice that most names of foggaras in Zaouit Kounta districts are in Arabic. There are 144 foggaras named in Arabic; the names or nicknames of their owners mainly, whereas there are only 90 foggaras named in Zenete (Djaafri A. part2 2013:310-319).

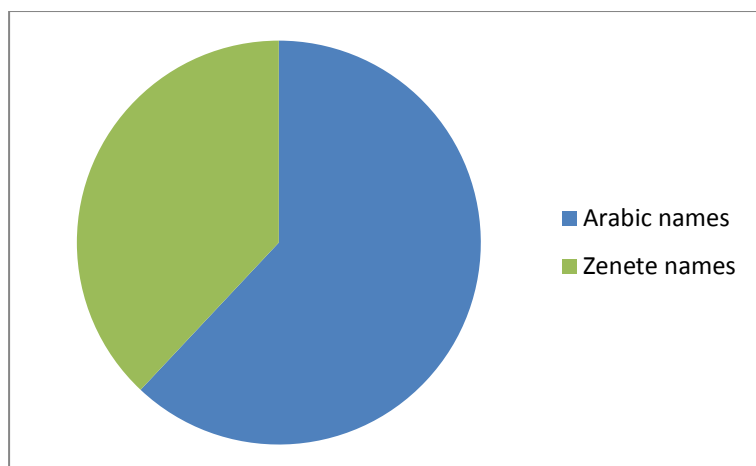


Figure 2 : Arabic and Zenete Foggara Names.

We found that the foggaras are named either in Arabic or Zenete, the Arabic ones represent 62% from the total number of foggaras in Zaouit Kounta, however, only 38% which represent the Zenete names of Foggaras.

The terminologies of foggara are also Arabic and Zenete, The following table shows the amount of Arabic and Zenete vocabularies in foggara:

ZKSA	The origin of name	Meaning in English
[faggara]	Arabic	A collection of wells related to each other in an organized system.
[ʔaxusu]	Zenete	A group of wells which are near to the surface of the ground.
[ʔanfad]	Zenete	It is the path which separates between two wells.
[lħasi]		It is the well.
[ʒʒab]	Arabic	It is called for a group of wells
[ssagija]	Arabic	It is the ditch which carries water to majen
[ʃʃaqfa],[lħallafa]	Arabic	It is a tool used for measurement i.e. to measure water
[lqat[taʃ]	Arabic	It is the stone which is hewn out, it is found in lqasrijathat separates the stream of water into several parts.
[lkajjal]	Arabic	The person who does the measurement
[lqiraʃ]	Arabic	Measure unit
[lħabba]	Arabic	Measure unit
[mazɛn]	Zenete	Reservoir
[ʔaqadus]	Zenete	It is a stream of water which is built by cement to keep water flows to majen
[ʔamazzar]	Zenete	Is the flow of water from a high place
[zzammam]	Zenete	The register which contains the names of owner and the amount of water they possess
[lkra:ʔ]	Arabic	The foot of foggara .

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Table 2.15: Foggara Terminology in ZKSA

In looking for foggara terminologies, we depended on interviews; in which we asked some questions in the localized dialect to old farmers who used to work in foggara in the past. Most of the time; they narrated for us their experiences and the way they get water for their land.

2.15.2 Agricultural Instruments and Places

The tools and instruments used in agriculture in ZK district are primitive and simple are mainly in Zenete and Arabic as reported in the following table:

ZKSA	The origin of the name	The meaning in English
[maʒen]	Zenete	A basin find in the garden to gather water
[ʔanfif]	Zenete	It is a stone has a hole in the reservoir from where the water goes out.
[ʒmama]	Arabic	It is made of a collection of pieces of cloth used to prevent water outflow from the majen
[ʔamazzar]	Zenete	It is a high place from where water flows
[ʔabadu]	Zenete	It is the distance between two lots in the stream of water
[tabut]	Arabic	The stream of water which starts from majen to the land or the lot.
[lmaʒrag]	Arabic	It is the place in where seeds are sown, with rectangular form which is called lot
[tagammun]	Zenete	A synonym of lmatrag but it is smaller
[lqasjan]	Zenete	The dried date which is without nucleus
[lablaħ]	Arabic	The date before it fruits
[lmasħa]	Arabic	A tool used to cultivate land
[raʔɒ]	French	A tool used to mend land
[laʔrara]	Zenete	A container of thing put on the back of the donkey
[miʒel]	Arabic	A metal wood tool used to cut grass and other plants
[gaʔɒr]	Arabic	A column of many palm trees in one side
[tiʔiʔa]	Zenete	A land without plants
[tgazza]	Zenete	A place from where clay is retrieved
[ʔaʔarif]	Zenete	A large salty territory below gardens which does not fit cultivating
[ʒʒlib]	Arabic	A cross path between each two gardens
[taʒelʒim]	Zenete	A tool used for digging in the ground for instance to take out clay from inside
[ʔaʒdel]	Zenete	It is a small garden near to the house
[laħdeb]	Arabic	It is a place which is slightly higher than other parts around.

Table 2.16: Agricultural Instruments and Places in ZKSA

2.15.3 Terminology of Dates

We notice the influence of Zenete on ZKSA from the names given to the types of dates. We listed about 23 kinds, there are 14 names are in Zenete and only 7 kinds in Arabic:

The Name of Date	The Origin of the Name
[ʃiχmħammed]	Arabic
[tillimsu]	Zenete
[tinaqur]	Zenete
[taqarbuʃ]	Zenete
[tinnaʃar]	Zenete
[tazerzaj]	Zenete
[tgazza]	Zenete
[timmalqajed]	Zenete
[banχluf]	Zenete
[ʔagallu]	Zenete
[ʔadakli]	Zenete
[Imasʔudija]	Arabic
[ʔanfal]	Zenete
[lfarrana]	Arabic
[ʔaħarʔan]	Zenete
[lbɣal]	Arabic
[dagli]	Arabic
[ħmedwħammu]	Arabic
[tindaffu]	Zenete
[bbakħel]	Arabic
[ʔaɣammu]	Zenete

Table2.17:Zenete and Arabic Names of Dates.

2.15.4 Vegetables and Crops in ZKSA

Zaouit Kounta is famous for its fertile land, where people harvest many crops among which: tomato, wheat, barley, onion, beans, carrot...etc, and many others as shown in the

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following table and at the same time we highlight some lexical and pronunciation differences between three different zones (Tillouline, Inzegmir, and Zaouit Kounta the centre in ZK district.

MSA	Tillouline	Inzegmir	ZaouitKounta	English meaning
[ʔalʒazar]	[zrudi], [lχizzu]	[zrudi]	[zrudi]	Carrot
[ʔaʔtamaʔim]	[maʔiʃa]	[tamaʔiʃ]	[ʔamaʔiʃ]	Tomato
[ʔalful]	[lful]	[lful]	[lful]	A kind of beans
[ʔalqamḥ]	[zzraʃ], [lgamḥ]	[zzraʃ]	[zzraʃ]	Wheat
[ʔaʃufan]	[lχartɔn]	[lχartʌn]	[lχartʌl]	A kind of crops used as a food for animals
[ʔassabaniχ]	[sslaq]	[ssalχ]	[ssalq]	A green plant with large leaves which are used in cooking
[ʔalku:sa]	[lkurʒit]	[lkurʒit]	[lkurʒat]	The gourd
[quzbur]	[lmaʒbur]	[lmaʒbur]	[lqaʒbar]	A green plant with good smelling used in soup
[ʔaḏurra]	[lkbel]	[lkba:l]	[lkba:l]	Corn
[ʔalʒalbana]	[damʃi]	[damʃi]	[damʃi]	A kind of beans
[ʔalbaʔtiχ]	[lbatix]	[lbatix]	[lbatix]	Melon
[ʔaʃʃamandar]	[lbiʔraf]	[lbiʔraf]	[lbiʔraf]	Beet
[tadallaχ]	[taqʌllaχ]	[tadallaχ]	[tadellaχ]	A kind of small green beans.
[ʔaḏura]	[lbaʃna]	[lbaʃna]	[lbaʃna]	Sorghum

Table 2.18:Lexical Variation in Vegetables and Crops in ZKSA.

2.15.5 Some Herbs and Grass Terminology

Tillouline	Inzegmir	ZaouitKounta	Meaning in English
[nʒam]	[nʒam]	[nʒam]	A kind of grass with long stem
[mawarʒa]	[mawarʒa]	[malbina]	A kind of grass with small leaves.
[lbasba:s]	[lbasba:s]	[lbasba:s]	A herb used as a medicament and a spice in food
[tuga]	[tuga]	[tuga]	A kind of grass
[tabsut]	[tafsut]	[tafsut]	A kind small grains with long stem
[ʔarrada]	[lχabbiz]	[lχabbi:za]	A kind of herb with wide leafs
[χabbiznmal]	[χabbiznemal]	[fraʃnema]	A kind of grass with a very small and lots of leafs
[kammunalfatʃa]	[kammun]	[lgarʔofa]	A kind of herbs used as a a medicament to treat stomachs sickness.
[ʔambu]	[ʔambu]	[lʔtaʃa]	A grass usually grows next to water (majen and sagiya)
[lʔarram]	[lʔarram]	[lʔarrim]	A kind of grass
[taʔjul]	[laħmara]	[taʔlilu]	A kind of grass with long green leaf, it looks like wheat plant.
[χazzlmaʒen]	[lχazz]	[lχizzu]	Carrot
[bunafeʃ],[lħabba suda]	[bunafeʃ]	[ʃanuʒ]	A black seed used as a medicament.
[ʃammir]	[sammir]	[ʃbat]	a yellow plant with long thin leaf, it a food for animals.

Table 2.19: Lexical Variation in Grass and Herbs between Tillouline, Inzegmir, and ZaouitKounta

2.16 Conclusion

We can conclude that Zaouit Kounta district is like any region in Touat, the speech of its people is a mixture of several varieties, though, it is considered as an Arabic variety. **People** of that speech community insist that they speak only Arabic and all vocabularies in their speech are of Arabic origin, but, during our research, we have found many vocabularies belong to Touat repertoire are neither from MSA nor CA. Most of these vocabularies are French or Zenete. Zenete borrowings exist more in the agricultural register and home things. MSA in Zaouit Kounta speech community functions as the high variety which is used in mosque, school, lectures in university, news and some radio programs in Adrar Radio, whereas, ZKSA functions as the low variety which is used in daily conversations in home, street, and all public places i.e. in informal settings.

General conclusion

In the present research, we shed light on the diversity of varieties in ZK speech community, and because the lexical variation has a great impact on language and importance in sociolinguistics, we aimed at formulating a study on that sociolinguistic phenomenon and the aspects related to it. The lexical variation which most of our research is based on is the variation that exists between MSA and ZKSA. The former represents the high variety, and the latter represents the low variety of ZK considered as a diglossic speech community.

The dissertation includes the theoretical part which tackles the clarification and definition for the different sociolinguistic aspects and language varieties that are related to lexical variation. We defined the phenomenon, and then we shed light on lexical variation at different levels. And in the practical part, this chapter describes the lexical variation in ZK speech community; we find that people of different ksour of Zaouit Kounta district speak differently especially naming, and describing a person or any things.

We also found that some MSA vocabularies are different from ZKSA vocabularies in, the form, the use, and the meaning. In addition to that we notice that ZK people use in their speech some vocabularies from CA, which means that their dialect contains vocabularies from Classical Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic, though we have found some borrowings from French, Zenete, and other varieties.

All what attracted our attention in addition to Arabic vocabularies is the existence of Zenete terminology in the agricultural register, home requirements and also in the names of ksour (villages) in ZKSA. In addition to these two varieties French vocabularies are also used in the speech of Zaouit Kounta. Despite the short distance between Zaouit Kounta ksour, we find many differences at the lexical level for example, we notice variation in the speech of Tillouline people themselves; those who live in Tillouline Mrabetine speak differently from those who live in Tillouline Chorfa in the matter of selecting words, though both areas are part of only one ksar (Tillouline); there are other examples of the same case where two neighboring areas vary in their speech.

We have noticed that there is variation at other levels in ZKSA such as the phonological level in which the speakers of different villages are recognized by the way they pronounce words, and intonation in their speech. There is also the syntactic variation in ZKSA between its ksour; where some grammar features and the construction of sentences are used differently. These can be cases of studies for further researches in ZKSA.

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Appendix

Appendices

Lexical Variation in Verbs in ZKSA

MSA	ZKSA	Tillouline	Inzegmir	Zaouit Kounta
[baʕaθa] to send	[bʕat]	–	–	×
	[rsal]	–	–	×
	[sifaʔ]	×	×	×
[ʒalasa] to sit down	[gʕad]	×	×	×
	[rijaħ]	×	×	×
	[ʒmmaʕ]	×	×	×
	[tgannan]	×	–	–
[ʔistalqa] he lies down	[tmaddad]	×	×	×
	[nmadd]	–	–	×
	[tsaʔ[ʔaħ]	–	–	×
	[tsannad]	–	–	×
[ʔaxfa] to hide	[darrag]	×	–	–
	[labbad]	×	×	×
	[ʔraħ]	×	×	×
	[dass]	–	–	×
	[ħabba]	–	–	×
[ʕasala] to clean	[ʕsal]	×	×	×
	[ʃallal]	×	×	×
	[ʃamʃam]	×	–	–
[baħaθa] to search, to look for	[ħawwaʔ]	×	×	–
	[ħawwaʃ]	–	–	×
	[dawwar]	–	×	×
	[nebbaʃ]	×	–	–
[ʔintaʒara] to wait	[ħana]	×	–	–
	[stanna]	×	×	×
[ʃaraħa] to shout	[ʕajjaʔ]	×	×	×
	[ʒagga]	–	×	×
	[bærbæer]	–	–	×
	[harr]	×	–	–
[naʒara] to see	[ħammar]	×	–	–
	[raʕa]	×	×	–

	[ʃæf]	×	×	×
	[ʔal]	–	–	×
[ʔiseiqaẓa]	[nad]	×	×	×
to wake up	[wʃa]	×	×	×
	[faq]	–	–	×
[rafaʔa]	[hazz]	×	–	–
to take	[gammaʔ]	×	×	×
	[qammal]	×	–	–
	[rfaʃ]	–	×	×
	[rfad]	×	×	×
	[ʔallaʃ]	×	–	×
[kallama]	[kallam]	×	×	×
to call	[ẓagga]	×	×	×
	[ʃajjaʔ]	–	–	×
[daraba]	[ḍrab]	×	×	×
to beat	[baʔ]	×	×	×
	[mallaχ]	×	–	–
[rama]	[ʔajaʃ]	×	×	–
to throw	[zreg]	×	×	×
	[gæes]	×	×	×
	[qas]	–	–	×
[ʔaʃʃala]	[ʃaʃʃal]	×	×	×
to light	[kʃaħ]	×	–	×
	[ʔtæħ]	×	–	–
[hadaʔa] to	[hda]	–	–	×
quiet, to calm	[rʃa]	×	×	×
down	[hna]	×	×	×
	[rajjaħ]	×	–	–
[zaħafa]	[kħaz]	×	×	–
to crawl	[lazz]	–	–	×
	[zħaf]	×	×	×
[taðawwaqa]	[ḍag]	×	×	×
to taste	[raẓ]	×	–	–
	[ʒarrab]	–	–	×

[ʔiħtawa]	[χ]a]	×	×	—
To contain and to include	[ħ]a]	—	—	×
	[daχχal]	×	×	×
[ʔaqdiru][ʔast aʔiʕ]	[ngad]	×	×	×
	[nʔig]	×	×	×
	[nnaʒam]	×	—	—
	[naqdar]	—	×	×
[ʕada] to return	[walla]	×	×	×
	[rʒaʕ]	×	×	×
[ʔasraʕa] to speed	[sajjar]	×	—	—
	[qfaz]	×	×	×
	[sraʕ]	×	×	×
[ʔaʔfaʔa] to put out	[ʔfa]	×	×	×
	[ʕlag]	×	—	—
	[ktal]	×	—	—
[ʒara] to run	[ħarrak]	×	×	×
	[ʒra]	×	×	×
	[darbaz]	×	—	—
[dafaʕa] to move	[dħa]	×	×	×
	[dfaʕ]	—	—	×
[taʔaχχara] to be late	[bʔa]	×	×	×
	[truʔal]	×	—	×
	[twaχχar]	×	—	×
[ðahaba] to go	[m]a]	×	×	×
	[raħ]	—	—	×
[ʔara] to fly	[ʔar]	×	×	×
	[ferfer]	×	—	—
[qafaza] to jump	[tarrak]	×	×	×
	[tarraz]	×	—	×
	[naggaz]	×	×	×
[jakfi] to enough	[jkfa]	—	—	×
	[jazza]	×	×	×
	[jgad]	×	×	—

Lexical Variation in Adjectives in ZKSA

MSA	ZKSA	Tillouline	Anzegmir	Zaouit Kounta
[ʒamil] beautiful	[zin]	×	×	×
	[ɖrijaf]	×	×	×
	[ʃabab]	–	–	×
	[ħadeg]	×	–	–
[kaθir] lot of	[jaser]	×	×	×
	[geddakka]	×	×	–
	[lʃarram]	×	–	–
[qalil] few	[ʃwi]	×	×	×
	[ɖfar]	×	×	–
[hadiʔ] calm	[raʃi]	×	×	–
	[ʃaqaɾ]	×	×	×
	[rateb],[tabet]	–	–	×
	[mhanni]	×	–	–
	[ʃaqaɫ]	–	–	×
[θarθa:r] talkative	[mqazqaz]	×	–	–
	[mwazwaz]	×	–	–
	[mtartar]	×	×	×
[munaðam] an organized	[mendam]	×	×	×
	[msattaf]	×	×	×
	[mrattab]	–	×	×
	[mqaddam]	–	–	–
	[mrigal]	×	×	×
	[msawi]	×	×	–
	[msagam]	×	–	–
[ʁabijun] stupid	[ʁʃim]	×	×	–
	[mʔannaħ]	×	×	×
	[msakkar]	×	–	–
	[mballaʃ]	×	–	×
[mubaʃθarun] Disordered	[mzarbaʃ]	×	×	×
	[mχarbaʔ]	×	×	×
	[mgallab]	–	–	×
	[mfartag]	×	–	–
	[mqarbaʔ]	×	–	–

[muttasiχun] dirty	[mussaχ]	×	—	×
	[mwassaχ]	—	×	×
	[mzabbal]	×	—	—
	[maʃfun]	×	—	—
[mumazzaq] Teared	[mʃarrag]	×	×	×
	[mʃarʃag]	×	—	—
	[mgaʃaʃ]	×	×	×
	[mʃarmat]	×	—	—
[hazli:] funny	[χtit]	×	—	—
	[basel]	×	—	×
	[mageʃ]	×	×	×
	[ʃamaʃ]	—	×	×
[χadʒib] angry	[za:ʃaf]	×	×	×
	[mχaddad]	×	×	×
[laðið] delicious	[bnin]	×	×	×
	[ldid]	×	—	—

Lexical Variation in Nouns in ZKSA

MSA	ZKSA	Tillouline	Anzegmir	Zaouit Konta
[ʔalħarara] temperature	[sχana]	×	×	×
	[lħamman]	×	×	×
	[ʃʃahd]	×	—	—
[dunn] jug	[ʔalbidun]	×	×	×
	[ʒalikan]	×	—	×
	[ʃibot]	×	—	—
[qarura] bottle	[qalla]	×	—	—
	[qarʃa]	×	×	×
[ʔalħanafija] faucet	[sabala]	×	×	×
	[roboni]	×	—	—
[χiʔaʔ] cover	[kufirta]	—	×	×

	[farʂada]	×	×	×
	[zawra]	×	×	—
	[farʔazʌa]	×	—	—
	[dʀa]	×	×	×
	[gnaɸ]	×	—	—
[ʔaʔfal] children	[ʃajjal]	×	×	×
	[trajek]	×	—	×
	[bzʌzʌ]	—	—	×
	[lwlad]	—	—	×
[bint] girl	[bant]	×	×	×
	[ʃazba]	×	×	×
[walad] boy	[wald]	×	×	×
	[ʔafagra]	×	—	—
[walima] banquet	[lhazz]	×	—	—
	[lwalima]	—	×	×
	[lhul]	×	×	×
	[salka]	×	×	—
	[tʔanzija]	—	—	×
No equivalent Aa kind of clay which is red	[ʔwdiɖ]	×	—	×
	[lħammira]	—	×	—
[ɣurfa] room	[ʃambra]	—	—	×
	[ʂala]	×	×	×
	[qus]	—	—	×
	[lmasrija]	—	—	×
[bab] door	[bab]	×	×	×
	[mnar]	×	—	—
	[fammdɖar]	×	—	—

[ʃaxs] person	[raqba]	×	×	×
	[tarras]	×	×	—
	[bnadem]	×	×	×
	[nafs]	×	—	—
[ʔasawir] bracelets, armlets	[dbaleʒ]	×	×	—
	[ʃanqɔʒat]	—	×	×
	[lamsajas]	—	—	×
[ʔalxatam] ring	[lmaħbas]	×	—	—
	[lχatem]	—	×	×
[ʔalqilada] necklace	[lglada]	—	—	×
	[salsla]	×	×	×
	[lamχanga]	×	×	—
[ʔalqirt] earring	[laχraʃ]	×	×	×
	[lmnagʃ]	—	—	×
[ʔalfustan] large veiled dress	[laʃbaja]	×	×	×
	[rubba]	×	—	—
	[lbadʃija]	×	—	—
[ʔalqamiʃ] shirt	[ttrikku]	×	×	×
	[lbubu]	×	—	—
[ʔassirwal] trousers	[sarwal]	×	×	×
	[lbuʃwil]	×	—	—
[ʔalχimar] scarf	[lχimar]	×	×	×
	[lmħarma]	×	×	×
	[ʃilal]	×	—	—
	[lfunara]	×	×	×
	[lfurana]	×	—	—
[ʃulbatu ssukkar]	[sakkarija]	×	—	×

	[sekkurija]	–	×	–
	[rbiʕija]	×	–	–
[ʒallaba] dress	[ʒallaba]	×	×	×
	[qamiʕa]	×	–	–
	[ħiʒaba]	×	–	–
	[ʒallabija]	×	–	–
[ʕamama] gauze that man put on his head	[ʕa]	×	×	×
	[ɫafa]	×	–	×
	[ʕmama]	–	–	×
[ʔalʔum] mother	[mmi]	×	×	×
	[mma]	–	–	×
	[ɫalla]	×	–	–
[ʔalʔab] father	[buja]	×	×	×
	[bba]	×	–	×
	[baba]	–	×	–
[ʔalʒadda] grand mother	[maħanna]	×	×	–
	[ħanna]	–	–	×
	[ħannti]	–	×	×
[ʔalʒadd] grand father	[baħnini]	×	×	–
	[ħnini]	×	–	×
[kull] all	[gaʔ]	×	×	×
	[kamel]	×	×	–
	[gba:la]	×	–	×
	[kul]	×	–	×
[qaʔratu maʔ]	[gaʔra]	×	×	×
	[raʒfa]	×	–	–
	[ʒaʕma]	×	×	–

[χurfatuʕaθa:θ] store room	[laʕli]	×	×	×
	[lmanzeh]	×	×	–
	[lmaχzen]	×	–	×
	[lχarfa]	×	–	–
	[tfa:la]	–	–	×
[qidar kabi:r] a big cocking pot	[ʒaka]	×	×	–
	[lbarbara]	–	–	×
[ʔaʒin ʕaʒari] a solid stone used for preparing bread	[radʕfa]	×	×	–
	[ʕafja]	–	–	×
[kuskus ʕʕi:r] Couscous made up of barley	[butrezza]	×	×	–
	[ʕiʕ ʕʕi:r]	–	–	×
[kasratu ʕʕaʕir] a traditional kind of bread made of barley	[tungal]	×	×	–
	[ksartʕʕir]	–	–	×
[χubz] a traditional kind of bread	[lmarddaf]	×	×	–
	[lmbatʔan]	–	–	×
[ʒi:b] pocket	[qabb]	×	×	×
	[ʒib]	–	–	×
[lquffa] a container	[lgaffa]	–	–	×
	[ʔarrabija]	×	–	–
	[tasgat]	–	×	×
[ʔukla ʕaʕbija] a traditional food made of a crashed wheat and cocked	[ʕarʕam]	×	–	–
	[farfaʕ]	–	×	–
	[dʕiʕa]	–	–	×