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**The Use of Code -Mixing among University Students-**  
**A Case Study Mentouri University**

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Master  
Degree in Applied Language Studies.

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## **Dedication**

I would like to dedicate this work to my lovely mother and for my father and deepest and truthful thanks for them.

I dedicate the work to my sisters Nada and Sihem whom I love too much. I also dedicate this work to my brothers Alladdine and Bassem.

I dedicate it also to my cousins: Wissam, Selma, Hafida, Naziha, Linda, Souhila, Nawal, Hannane, Sana, Amira, Safiya.

I also dedicate this work to my lovely and best friend Imen who is dear to my heart, to my friends at residence: Hayet, Ahlem I wish to them success, to my close friends Asma, Malika, Souhila, Rokia, Rima, Nadia and Lamia.

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## **Abstract**

Language is a human behavior which can be studied from several different points of view: social, cultural, psychological...etc. Sociolinguistics is concerned with the study of language in relation to society. In social studies, language can be studied either for its use or functions. This study aims at exploring some of the sociolinguistic patterns of language use in bilingual or multilingual situations. Some light will be shed on different patterns of language use, including code-mixing, code-switching, bilingualism, diglossia, pidgin and creole, lingua franca...etc. The main aim of this study is the examination of the use of code-mixing among students at Mentuori University-Constantine, in order to know the factors or reasons that lead students to code-mix. This study consists of recorded statements in order to sort out some linguistic features, and to analyze the structures of the statements. This study, aims at showing how students combine two distinct languages which contain two different grammatical systems. It is hypothesized that code-mixing may affect the mother tongue, since students combine Arabic linguistic items with French ones and use them as if they were all part of their language.

## List of Symbols

Arabic sounds	Phonetic Transcriptions	Arabic sounds	Phonetic Transcriptions
	ʔ	ع	ʔ
ب	b	غ	g̣
ت	t	ف	f
ج	j	ق	q
ح	ħ		g
خ	x	ك	k
د	d	ل	l
	ð	م	m
ر	r	ن	n
ز	z		h
س	s	و	w
ش	ʃ	ي	y

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## **General Introduction**

In Algeria, different patterns of language use can be identified: diglossia, borrowing, code-switching, code-mixing...etc. The aim of this research is to analyze the language used among University students who mix two distinct languages notably Arabic and French.

The investigation is going to be carried out from a sociolinguistic point of view which will focus on statements or expressions used by University students when they interact with one another.

### **1. Statement of the Problem**

University students have a great tendency to mix two languages; they speak Arabic, suddenly, they shift to French, and, then, back to Arabic again. Code-mixing is a linguistic phenomenon which is widespread among students and even ordinary people in the Algerian society. The problem investigated in this research is that despite that students are educated, but they have a great tendency to code-mix by combining Arabic linguistic items with French ones. So, the question posed here is, can this kind of code-mixing affect a nation's language negatively?

### **2. Research Questions**

1. Why do students code-mix?
2. How is language structured in code-mixing?
3. Does code-mixing have positive or negative effects on students?
4. Do students ignore the grammar of the French language?

### **3. Hypothesis**

It is hypothesized that if Algerian Arabic goes in this way in mixing two distinct languages, Algerian Arabic will disappear. This is because Algerians shape the French words or expressions onto Arabic and pronounce them on the basis of the Arabic sound system.

### **4. Tools of Research**

The data were collected by recording the speech of some students, who have been recorded when discussing illegal immigration. Students from different faculties have been concerned with recordings.

### **5. Content of Dissertation**

The first chapter is devoted to literature review where different points of view of linguists about code-mixing are stated. Light has been shed on the sociolinguistic patterns of language use in bilingual or multilingual situations. Code-mixing, types of code-mixing are defined, and the factors which influence students and people to code-mixing are stated. Within this scope, it was felt necessary to try to introduce some of the sociolinguistic notions such as: code-switching, bilingualism, diglossia, and the distinction between code-mixing and code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing, pidgin creole, and lingua franca.

The second chapter is devoted to the analysis of some expressions in order to examine the structure of switching used among students. The aim behind this analysis is to sort out their features. This analysis will lead us to know the factors which push students to code-mix, and how this linguistic phenomenon has become that wide spread in the Algerian society

# **Chapter One: Mixtures of Varieties**

## **Introduction**

This chapter aims at exploring some of the sociolinguistic patterns of language use in bilingual or multilingual communities. It also aims at showing the way sociolinguistic patterns work among individuals and state the factors which determine the variability of language use. Within this scope, it is necessary to shed some light on some important notions as: diglossia, code-switching, bilingualism, borrowing, pidgin, creole, lingua franca and code-mixing – the main concern of the present work. Differences between code-mixing and code-switching will be given together with code-switching and borrowing.

## **1. Mixtures varieties**

### **1.1. Code-Mixing**

Hudson (1990) states that in code-switching, the bilingual individual shifts from one language to another according to the change of the situation. In code-mixing, the speaker (who interacts with other bilinguals) changes from one code to another in the same situation. He defines code-mixing as the use of some words from a language, then some words from the other language and coming back to the first language and so on. According to him, the main purpose of this mixing is to cope with an ambiguous situation in which no single code is appropriate. For example, Algerian students, at the French department, often mix French and Arabic when interacting with their class mates.

Shifting from one language to another depends on many factors such as: gender, situation, and style...etc. According to Hudson (1999), language use differs according to the

speaker's sex. Many studies applied to diglossic societies, where the standard and the local varieties are used, have resulted in the emergence of a new pattern that is called "sex or prestige pattern". These studies inferred that a prestigious or standard variety is more widely used by females than males. This variation is not due to the difference in education. For example, two persons of different sexes who have received the same education do not use language equally; women use the standard more than men do. This is because females are more 'conservatives' in speech than men- the nature of women's coping with situations requires femininity preservation, otherwise they will look ridiculous (Trudgill, 1995).

Language also differs according to the situation. In many societies, different styles are used. One is used in informal interactions commonly in everyday life. The other style is used in formal situations commonly in interviews, classes, meetings ... etc. An interviewed person, for example, gives more importance to the style he or she is using. Hence, the interviewer has to take into consideration all aspects of language.

Fosold (1984) claims that code-mixing is a very noticeable phenomenon among different language uses, i.e., it is more used than code-switching. It is an act of mixing sentences, clauses, or words of a particular language in another language that the speaker is using (cited in Bing, 1987:23). Code-mixing has become a wide spread phenomenon in the Algerian society and particularly among university students, where there is a mixing between French and Arabic languages.

Whereas, Muysken (2000) uses the term 'code-mixing' to describe a situation where there is a combination of lexical and grammatical features of distinct languages in one sentence. It should be mentioned that many individuals mix sentences in their daily conversations. There are, of course, psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic factors which affect

code-mixing, some important of which degree of bilingual proficiency, political balance between the languages, topic, setting and participants.

Grosjean (2001) states that, in some cases, the speaker needs to communicate with other bilingual speakers by using two different languages. He explains the phenomenon when bilinguals find themselves in their daily lives in different situations, they produce different language types. On the one hand, they may find themselves in a monolingual medium. In this case, they will interact with each other by the language they know, so that they will use the language of the monolingual persons. On the other hand, bilinguals may find themselves in a situation where two languages may be used. In this case, they communicate with bilinguals who know both languages and thus, mix both languages. So, it depends on the interlocutors, topic, and setting (cited in Namba, 2000:68).

Spolsky (1988) considers code-mixing as a sort of code-switching. He illustrates that by immigrants who often mix many new words with their mother tongue because they know that they have to speak both languages. They use their native language in order to retain it, and then they have to learn a second language in order to cope with the language of the community they live in. Moreover, McClure (1978:7) defines code-mixing as:

The individuals use the opposite language elements which cannot be considered to be borrowed by the community. It occurs when a person is momentarily unable to access a term for a concept in the language which he is using but access in it in another code or when he lacks a term in the code he is using which exactly express the concept he wishes to convey.

That is, code-mixing is the use of language elements or linguistic items as affixes and words. It occurs when the speaker is incapable of expressing his ideas on the language he speaks. So, he shifts to another code in order to convey the message he wants to express.

According to Walte (2006), code-mixing requires a combination of two languages and this leads to the appearance of a new code. Code-mixing happens unconsciously where a speaker will not decide previously which code he will use because both codes exist in mind. He considers code-mixing as a kind of development in the area of code-switching (Maschler, 1998; cited in *ibid*). So, code-mixing is the act of taking a linguistic item from one language and using it in another language. Spanglish and Franglais are a good example of that.

Bakker (1997) defines code-mixing as using items from a particular language and affixes from a different language. In contrast, Muysken (2000) names code-mixing as: 'congruent lexicalization' which means two languages use the same grammatical structure and the use of vocabulary of one language to combine it with elements from the other language.

Code-mixing is forbidden at the level of syntax because it causes conflict in the language system. So, to permit the use of code-mixing and to avoid this conflict, it would be better to mix both languages intrasententially. He states three patterns of code-mixing: insertion, alternation, and congruent lexicalization (*ibid*, 2000).

In insertion, mixing is a kind of combination of a word or element from language A with language B. but, in that situation, the mixed element must be equivalent in both languages in the sense that there will be no conflict in system. In alternation, mixing requires that a phrase in language A substitutes for a phrase in language B of which in its own grammatical system. So, each phrase functions separately. In congruent lexicalization, mixing

occurs when words from both languages are inserted unconsciously or randomly in the utterance. But, in that case, the grammatical structures are violated in the sense that both languages have the same grammatical system. Obviously, when we use two languages, each language has a different grammatical system. As Hoff & Shatz (2009) illustrate, grammatical incompatibilities between two distinct languages could arise; when two languages are used in the same utterance as the case of different word orders. Code-mixing is similar to pidgin in the way of their use and creation of language for the purpose of contact. However, pidgin occurs among people who do not share a common language, while code-mixing occurs in multilingual communities where there must be a common language to use for communication in a bilingual community. In studies of bilingual language acquisition, code-mixing occurs when bilingual children learn how to mix elements of more than one language. Some linguists argue that code-mixing is much used by children because they lack the ability to differentiate between two languages. Others argue that children know a limited number of vocabularies of only one language not of both languages.

Code-mixing can be used as a strategy of neutrality, but speakers may use a language that may lead to the misunderstanding of a message. The case of mixing code with monolingual persons reflects that perfectly. Indeed, the common perception of code-mixing is that it is an ungrammatical form and is a sign of laziness and people who speak it are regarded as incompetent and sloppy as Hornberger & McKay (1996) state. But, recent studies demonstrate that code-mixing is used by speakers who are competent and proficient in all the languages that are mixed. This phenomenon of using code-mixing is used in multilingual societies.

## 1. 2. Code-Switching

In multilingual societies, each language is reserved for a given situation; one is used at home, and another is used with friends and neighbors. According to Fishman (1965), this situational change is referred to as code-switching, and Gumperz (1982) defines it as juxtaposition where there is exchange of passages each of which belong to different languages in its grammatical systems or subsystems (cited in Romaine, 1989:121).

Obviously, code-switching is the result of bilingualism. A speaker switches from one language to another according to circumstances or to given situations. In that situation, bilingual speakers will choose the language that is understandable to the interlocutor. This change is called ‘situational code-switching’ (Hudson, 1999).

But, Holmes (2001) argues that code-switching can occur within speech events or social situations. For instance, when a new person arrives, there may be change in the situation in order to greet the person by means of his language or to show speaker’s ethnic identity, solidarity, and relationship with interlocutors.

There are several attempts in defining code-switching. Hymes (1974) defines code-switching as a term which is used to indicate exchange of two or more languages, varieties of language, and can be also an exchange in style (cited in Ayeomoni, 2006:91). Spolsky (1998) considers code-switching as the beginning of borrowing where there is interference of words or phrases from a second language into sentences. For example, immigrants usually infer new words of the foreign language into their native language.

Crystal (2003) displays that in code-switching, people need to communicate by using two or more languages with each other, and he considers loan words as minimalist sign



of code-switching. Whereas Poplack (1980) states three types of code-switching: tag-switching, inter-sentential, and Intra-sentential. Firstly, tag-switching occurs by inferring a tag of different language into sentence or utterance as: you know, I mean. Secondly, intra-sentential switching is a kind of switching which happens within the sentence, i.e., it can be considered as a sort of mixing two languages without a change in a topic, interlocutor or setting. Thirdly, inter-sentential requires switching between sentences in the sense that each clause or sentence is in a different kind of language. For instance, the beginning of the sentence is in English, and then the rest of the sentence is in Spanish (Romaine, 1984).

Furthermore, Blom & Gumperz (2000) state two patterns of code-switching: situational code-switching and metaphorical code-switching. In the former, the speaker shifts from one language to another according to the situation; whereas, in the latter, the speaker shifts in order to convey a message or to create a communicative effect by repeating the same utterance in the other language (cited in Namba, 2000:67). An Algerian speaker, for instance, may say /saha mersi/ to thank the addressee. Hence, the emphasis is on the message. The speaker may also shift between languages to clarify the message. As an example of this, the teacher of English in the Algerian university may shift from English to Arabic to explain his utterance to his students. Students may not understand the utterance because it contains difficult or technical words. It is uncommon in code-switching to shift from English to French after an adjective and before a noun since, in French, adjectives commonly come after nouns.

### **1. 3. Code-Mixing vs. Code-Switching**

Many scholars hold different points of view about code-switching and code-mixing. Some of them argue that there is no difference between them, while others hold another point of view.

Muysken (2000) uses the term code-mixing to all the situations where there is a combination of lexical items and grammatical features of two distinct languages in one sentence. In contrast, he uses the term code-switching to refer to the occurrence of two languages in a single interaction. Consequently, the speaker shifts from one language to another successfully.

However, Pfaff (1979) has used the term 'mixing' for both code-switching and borrowing. But, Singh (1985) uses the term code-mixing for intra-sentential switching and code-switching to refer to diglossic situations in the sense that only one code is used in a given situation. In other words, each code has distinct situations and functions (cited in Romaine, 1989:124).

In addition, Kachru (1984) distinguishes between code-switching and code-mixing by saying that code-switching does not necessitate that participants should share both languages. In one case, a bilingual speaker may speak with a monolingual one, but in code-mixing it is required that participants should share both languages. So, in this situation, they will normally mix both languages they know (cited in Ahmed Sid, 2008:60).

#### **1. 4. Borrowing**

It is, by definition, the act of taking an item from a given language 'borrowed word' and using it as part of the other language (Hudson, 1999). Haugen (1956) classifies three types of borrowing. One is 'loan words' which are adopted phonologically and morphologically. In other words, they are pronounced and used grammatically as if they were part of the native language. In Algerian Arabic, for example, the words: 'les machines' /meʃinɜ:t/ and 'le tablier' /tabliya/ are considered as ordinary Arabic words. Another example, the French word 'la post' becomes part of the Algerian dialect and is used as /bosta/.The

second type is 'loan blends'. In the Algerian dialectal Arabic, the same noun phrase contains two parts; one is in Arabic and the other is in French. For example, the refrigerator door /beb frijɪdʒ:r/. The third type is 'loan shift' or 'semantic extension'. It refers to the process of taking a word from the native language and extending its meaning into the other. An example of such a type is given by Clyne (1967). English and German bilinguals in Australia use the German term 'magazine' (cited in Romaine, 1989:57). According to him, 'loan shift occurs when there is a greater similarity between two languages at the level of semantics and phonetics. Whereas, Hudson (1999) argues that borrowing necessitate mixing the systems of two languages. He illustrates that most loan words are borrowed from foods, plants, institutions, music and so on. Loan words are due to political and cultural factors. English, for instance, began with Germanic vocabulary, but there are enormous numbers of words which are borrowed according to historical factors (Herbert, 2001). Half of the English vocabulary is borrowed from Latin, Greek and French. For example, words as: money, car, and church are borrowed from these languages, but all people use them as an English words; they do not know that they are borrowed (ibid, 1999).

However, there are many factors that encourage borrowing. For instance, lexical borrowings occur in order to fill gaps of the vocabulary in the recipient language. A speaker may find himself in medium where he/she needs to borrow an item in order to fill the gaps.

Weinreich (1968) believes that borrowing is used for prestigious purposes (cited in Romaine, 1989:52). Herbert (2001) supports this idea saying that the speaker may think of borrowing not because his/her language does not contain these words, but he/she does so because he/she thinks that those words are more prestigious than his/her language words. He illustrates that many languages adopted enormous numbers of loans from prestigious colonial

languages as French and English. Finnish, for example, borrowed from Germanic origins especially in terms of body, kinship as: tooth, neck, mother, sister...etc.

Herbert (2001) exemplifies also cultural borrowing as: English borrowed 'thug' from Hindi, 'sherry' from Spanish, and 'sauna' from Finnish. According to him, the other factors are due to the length and duration of contact between communities. The case of Algeria is a good example of that, in the sense that the French language enormously affected Algerian Arabic. Moreover, borrowing can be the result of socialization in some particular communities. Thus, the speaker may find himself/ herself in medium where the members of the community rely a lot on the act of borrowing. As a result, he/she will borrow a lot of items. Another factor which motivates borrowing is the social value which has a relation with the dominant language in a society. So, the speaker usually will tend to borrow items or words from the dominant language (Romaine, 1989).

According to Herbert (2001), borrowing varies according to word classes. For instance, nouns are more borrowed than the other elements followed by adjectives and verbs. So, the speaker borrows nouns from a foreign language in order to name an object which his/her language lacks.

### **1. 5. Code-Mixing vs. Borrowing**

Borrowing usually involves only restricted single lexical items; whereas, code-mixing requires lexical and syntactic structures such as: words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. Borrowing occurs in monolingual communities, while code-mixing requires that speakers should have a certain amount of competence in both languages (Hornberger & McKay, 1996).

On the other hand, Daller (1993) argues that code-mixing and borrowing should not be regarded as different language patterns because it is difficult to distinguish between them at theoretical and practical levels. From theoretical traditional approaches points of view, code-mixing is defined as the interaction of two languages at grammatical and lexical levels, while borrowing is the interaction between the grammar and the lexicon of language A and only the lexicon of language B. So, the grammatical structure of language A will determine which words or elements from language B can be borrowed. All criteria which were used to distinguish between code-mixing and borrowing did not succeed to give a clear cut between them. So, there are just gradual differences between them. Myers (1991) argues that only the criterion of frequency can make the distinction between them. As a result, borrowing is 'recurrent' and occurs only once, while code-mixing is not (cited in Daller, 1993).

## **1. 6. Code-Switching vs. Borrowing**

Borrowing necessitates mixing to distinct systems together; whereas, code-mixing and code-switching occurs when two languages are mixed together in a conversation. In borrowing, an item is taken to be part of the second, language, not just to alternate words of Arabic by words of French, for instance/bosta/ and '/meʃin^/.

Code-switching is different from other patterns of language use or contact as: borrowing, pidgins, creoles, and interference. For instance, in pidgin, a speaker creates a language when he interacts with speakers who do not share or speak a common language. While, in code-switching, the speaker uses this kind of language with speakers who know both languages he/she speaks. So, borrowing exists in conversations where speakers have monolingual competence, while code-switching exists by depending on the amount of

competence of both languages (Romaine, 1989). Furthermore, Holmes (2001) distinguishes between switching and borrowing, when a speaker talks in a foreign language, he/she may infer a term in his/her mother tongue because he/she ignores the suitable term in the foreign language. So, this kind of switch occurs just to fill the gaps in the language he/she uses. Whereas, in borrowing, a speaker borrows words from a second language because obviously there are no equivalent words in the language he uses. So, in this situation, borrowing is caused by the need of vocabulary or according to 'lexical need'. In addition, the distinction between borrowing and code-switching can be detected from the form. In the case of borrowing, an item is often borrowed to be part of the speaker's mother tongue. Thus, they are taken as they are pronounced and used grammatically as if they belonged to the speaker's mother tongue. So, they are modeled on the shape of native language. For example, the word 'valise' (case) is pronounced /v<sup>^</sup>li:zə/ by Algerians who know French and /f <sup>^</sup>li:zə/ by Algerians who do not know French.

## **1. 7. Bilingualism**

In the Algerian society, we notice that people are influenced by the French language and they have a great tendency to use it in their speech. The reason of such a linguistic phenomenon may be explained by the long period of colonization by France (1930-1962). Most of the Algerian mainly in the urban areas, switch from their native language (Arabic or Amazigh) to French. For instance, someone who got a French education (in 1950's or 1960's); his speech will be noticeably marked by the frequent use of French words. Therefore, French still has an important role in spoken and even written patterns in Algeria. For example, French words are often used in Algeria daily conversations, in media as newspapers, radio channels and television channels, higher education as scientific disciplines like medicine, and also social status (Ahmed Sid, 2008). So, the higher social status, the more

frequent the occurrence of shifting will be. For example, a person who has a high ranked job or who is rich is more likely to shift between Arabic and French and to use French loans than a person who has a modest social status with a poor income. Bilingualism can be considered as language change or language variation. For instance, immigrant populations will find themselves in situations where they have to retain their language and pass it to their children and at the same time they will acquire the language of the community they live in. consequently, they shift to the majority language group. Therefore, their language goes eventually for change and variation (Kaouache, 2008).

On the one hand, there are communities which are officially bilingual; they speak two official languages. For example, Canada and Belgium are good illustrations of the case of bilingualism. On the other hand, there are other countries or communities which are not official bilingual, but they usually use two languages in their daily lives (Lyon, 1984). According to him, if there is a perfect bilingualism, it can be considered when a bilingual speaker has the full range competence in both languages. But, we rarely find individuals competent in two languages. Thus, in the case of bilingualism, there is one language which is dominant and the other is subordinate. The most important thing in bilingual communities is 'functional differentiation' of both languages, in the sense that each language has different functions (ibid, 1984). For example, one language is always used by members of family at home, while the other one is used outside the home.

Obviously, there are many factors that determine the dominance of one language over the other one as: age, order of acquisition, usefulness, the amount of opportunity for communication, social function, and cultural value (Weinreich, 1953; cited in Hornbuy, 1977:4). Bilingualism or multilingualism occurs when individuals need to interact with others for several factors or in order to cope with social situations. Accordingly, they use two

languages to show intimacy or distance of solidarity, prestige or power (Crystal, 1985). Furthermore, individual bilingualism can be a result of political dominance in a group who use different languages. As English signs, for instance, were replaced by scribed Welsh language versions, so that English-Welsh signs became wide spread in Wales.

In addition, bilingualism can be the result of acquiring two distinct languages as when a child has two parents who speak different languages. A child may acquire the French language by his mother and English by his father. Then, the child cannot make the distinction between two languages. However, in this situation, one language will be dominant and the other is subordinate (Yule, 2006).

Bilingualism can be the result of educational systems as the case of Algeria. At the primary school, children learn French and Arabic where they develop their knowledge about the grammar and the system of each language separately (Ahmed Sid, 2008).

According to Hornby (1977), an individual must have the ability to use two different languages in order to be considered as bilingual, while multilingualism is usually a result of individuals who have the ability to use more than two languages. But, there are different points of view about defining the term bilingualism.

Bloomfield (1933) argues that the term bilingualism concerns only individuals who have 'native like' ability to speak both languages. On the other hand, Haugen (1956) argues the opposite. That is, bilingualism applies even to individuals who have minimal qualification of both languages. Weinreich (1953) has neutral opinion or point of view in defining bilingualism as the practice of alternatively using two languages. In other words, bilingualism is to use or speak both languages (cited in Hornby, 1977:3). A community cannot be defined as bilingual only when its members are bilinguals, as Lyons (1984) states.



As Roger's point of view (1974), it would be better to deal with bilingual speaker as an ordinary individual whose repertoire contains codes which would be considered as separate languages, rather than to deal with him as oddity one because he uses two languages. So, he is considered as a strange person.

Weinreich (1968) classifies three types of bilingualism by relying on the manner in which bilinguals store language in their brains. There are: coordinate, compound, and subordinate bilingualism. Firstly, 'coordinate' occurs when the person acquires each language into different contexts and the words are stored separately. Secondly, 'compound' occurs when the person learns both languages in the same context. Thirdly, 'subordinate' occurs when the person has acquired the first language, then the other one is acquired by interpretation by dominant language (cited in Namba, 2000:67).

## **1. 8. Diglossia**

Ferguson (1959) defines diglossia as:

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

(Cited in Hudson, 1999:53)

We notice that Ferguson's definition is restricted; he states that high and low varieties should be within the same language as standard and colloquial Arabic. There is a difference between high and low varieties. The former has a grammatical and more complex system, and is used in formal situations, while the low variety is used in informal situations. However, Fishman (1971) extends his definition of diglossia to include any society, in which there is a use of two or more varieties in different situations (cited in Hudson, 1990). According to Trudgill (2000), diglossia is a special kind of language standardization where there are clear varieties close to each other in every part of speech and where they have two different social functions and he gives examples of language communities which are diglossic:

<b>Language</b>	<b>High</b>	<b>Low</b>
Swiss German	Hoch Deutch	Schwiezerdeutch
Arabic	Classical	Colloquial
Tamil	Literary	Colloquial

Traugott & Pratt (1980) claim that diglossia is the use of different functional languages. It is used by Ferguson to refer to the situation where different varieties of the same language are used with markedly different functions. For example, in the Arab countries, both classical Arabic and modern Arabic are used but with different functions. However, now, this term is extended to situations where different languages are used. In formal situations, the high variety is used, while the low variety is used in informal situations. According to Trudgill (2000), linguistically, there are considerable differences between the high and the low varieties in diglossic situations. The two varieties vary from community to community in the sense that the high variety is used in sermons, formal letters, political speeches, university

lectures, news broadcasts, news editorials high poetry, and used as the language of religion. But, the low variety is used in conversations shared with family and friends, radio serials, and folk literature. The high variety is usually the written language whereas the low variety is the spoken one.

Ferguson (1972) identifies four languages which are suitable to his definition of diglossia: Arabic, Haitian Creole, Greece, and Swiss German. For example, classical Arabic (H) and colloquial Arabic (L) in Egypt, Haitian Creole (L) and French (H) in Haiti, Swiss German (L) and standard High German in Switzerland (cited in Romaine, 1989:33).

In Arabic, people talk about the high variety as being 'pure' Arabic and dialects as being 'corrupt' forms, whereas Lyon (1984) maintains that diglossia is a particular kind of bilingualism. In some bilingual communities, their members tend to use one dialect in formal situations, and the other in informal or colloquial ones. So, the distinction between (H) and (L) is according to their functions. In addition, Ferguson (1972) points nine variables of diglossia in which high and low varieties are used in different situations: function, prestige, literary prestige, acquisition, standardization, stability, grammar, lexicon, and phonology (cited in Romaine, 1984:34).

### **1.8.1. Variables of Diglossia**

Research on diglossia has concentrated on a number of variables which we have mentioned above. We will use capital H for the high variety and capital L for the low one.

#### **1.8.1.1. Function**

H and L varieties perform different functions. H and L varieties are used for different purposes and native speakers of the community would find it odd if any one used H

in L domains or L in H domains. For example, we cannot use the L variety in news broadcasts and we cannot use the H variety in a cafeteria.

#### **1.8.1.2. Prestige**

In diglossia, H has greater prestige than L. The H variety is that of great literature religious texts, ancient poetry, but the L variety is less worthy, rude, broken, and vulgar.

#### **1.8.1.3. Acquisition**

L variety is the variety learnt first; it is the mother tongue and the language of the home. On the other hand, the H variety is acquired through schooling; it is never the mother tongue.

#### **1.8.1.4. Standardization**

H is strictly standardized; grammars, dictionaries exist for it and written by native grammarians. L is rarely standardized, if grammars and dictionaries exist, they are written by outsiders.

#### **1.8.1.5. Literary Heritage**

In most diglossic languages, the literature is all in H variety, and L has no written form except for 'dialect poetry', 'advertising' or low restricted genres. In most diglossic languages, the H variety is thought to be the language, whereas the L variety is sometimes denied to exist or is claimed to be only spoken by lesser mortals, servants, women and children. In some traditions (like Shakespeare's plays), L variety would be used to show certain characters as music, comical, uneducated...etc.

### **1.8.1.6. Stability**

Diglossias are generally stable, persisting for centuries, or even millennia, that is to say, a diglossic community to appear should take thousands of years, and to vanish should also take thousands of years. Occasionally, L varieties can gain domains and displace the H variety as the case of Latin and its varieties in middle ages, French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian.

### **1.8.1.7. Grammar**

The grammars of H variety are more complex than the grammars of L variety. For instance, at grammatical level, differences may involve pronunciation, inflection, or syntax (sentence structure). The H variety is virtually written; whereas low variety is not. The high variety is grammatically different from low variety; hence the high variety is more formalized. This variety is devoted to written communication and formal spoken communication such as, university instruction, sermons and so on.

### **1.8.1.8. Lexicon**

Lexicon is somewhat shared, but generally there is differentiation; H has vocabulary that L lacks and vice versa. As Trudgill (2000:97) writes:

Many pairs of words may occur, referring to common objects or concepts where the meaning is roughly the same, but where the usage of an item rather than another immediately indicates high or low variety.

For example, in Arabic, the form /r<sup>^</sup>a:/ ‘to see’ indicates the high classical variety, where the form /ʃəf/ indicates the low variety. In Egyptian communities, ‘many’ /k<sup>^</sup>θi:r/

indicates the high variety. However, /kti:r/ indicates the low one. Also, if we take the word 'that', in the high variety, the Egyptians say /ha:ð^/, but in the low variety, it is /də/.

## **1.9. Pidgin and Creole**

### **1.9.1. Pidgin**

From linguistic and sociolinguistic points of view, pidgin and creoles languages are considered as kind of lingua franca. Thus, the reason behind the emergence of creoles and pidgin is the same for lingua franca. Pidgins emerge in order to be used as nouns to communicate with people who speak different languages and none of them know the language of the other. So, in pidgin there are no native speakers. Pidgin is noticed when groups of people who have different languages are in a situation of communication, but there is a third language which is considered as dominant. For example, as in sea-coast in multilingual medium, where pidgin emerged as a sort of trade language, and also used among people who speak colonial languages as Portuguese, Spanish or English and the Indians, Africans or American Indian (Holmes,2001).

However, not all pidgin function as trade language and not all the languages which are used for trade are pidgin. There is lot of use of English and French a language trade in many regions in Africa. So, pidgin is a variety which is not used in any community in order to communicate with each other, it is just used to communicate with other people who do not belong to that community. It is used with strange people who come for specific purposes as trade. For example, enormous of pidgin languages which spread in Europe as a pidgin language is created by migrant workers in Germany. So, it emerged to suit the need of its speakers. Another reason for the emergence of pidgin is to create a simple language in order to be easy to learn. Obviously, pidgin vocabulary is taken from the dominant group. For

example, some migrants of traders who come from Turkey, but live in Germany, will not create a pidgin whose vocabulary is emerged or derived from Turkish because it is difficult for German people to learn it. So, they will use the vocabulary of German (Holmes, 2001).

Moreover, pidgin is considered as a language whose speakers try to retain by passing it from one generation to another. So, the most known origin of pidgin is Portuguese which emerged in the Far East and west of Africa during the 16<sup>th</sup> century, where there was an effect of Portuguese sailors. Thus, Portuguese bases pidgin its origin is lingua franca which emerged in Mediterranean (Hudson, 1990).

Pidgins are considered as ‘broken languages’. If they are compared with other languages or with their lexifiers, i.e. the source language of words pidgin, it is found that there are many reducing in their structure (Damas, Mullany & Stockwell, 2006). As Yule (2006) illustrates, if English, for instance, is the source language of words in pidgin, this does not necessitate that they must pronounce them as the same as in the source language. There are numerous examples of English pidgins where there is a noticeable absence of complex grammatical morphology and a presence of a limited number of vocabularies. For instance, the suffixes of ‘s’ which points to the plural in English are absent in pidgin. Besides, the phrase ‘two books’ is diminished to ‘tu buk’. So, pidgin syntax is complex comparing to the other languages in which words were modified as the following examples:

Again → gain                      and                      he alright → i arrait

According to Alder (1977), some people call pidgin colonial dialects, but in fact they are different type of language. On one hand, colonial dialect occurs when a group of people (migrants) are separated from their mother country for long distance and time. In that situation, they will interact with the language of new country. So, they will gradually divide

their mother tongue to the language of the community they live in. for example, we can recognize the origin of English speaker if he/she is from south Africa or Australia from his/her pronunciation since his/her pronunciation is influenced by his/her mother tongue. Hence, colonial dialects have no relation with pidgin and creoles. According to him, UNESCO defines pidgin as follows:

A language which has arisen as the result of contact between people of different languages usually formed a mixing of the languages.

(ibid, 1977:12)

It arises in case of mutually unintelligible languages. Accordingly, Tylor (1971) called this kind of mixing ‘a linguistic compromise’ (cited in ibid, 1977:12). In other words, a speaker tends to use this kind of language as a solution to communicate with other people when they have no common language. Obviously, the vocabulary that is used in pidgin is normally emerged or derived from the language that is spoken by the upper class, in sense that it is borrowed by the lower class according to the grammar and morphology of the source language of the lower class. According to him, pidgins were also newer in written form except for specific occasions like in government officials where it requires publishing decree, or in case of translating the Bible by missionaries; they need to translate it on the language that is understandable for people whom they are translating to.

### **1.9.2. Creole**

Creoles appeared as new vernaculars during the 16<sup>th</sup> and 18<sup>th</sup> centuries. Normally, they were emerged by Europeans who came to settle new homes around the Atlantic, Indian Ocean and in the pacific. They were also spoken by slaves who acquired and spoke the



colonial language, whose language is pronounced as colonial language (Damas, Mullany & Stockwell, 2006).

According to Lyon (1984), once pidgin becomes the first language of children, it is called: creole. The famous examples of creoles are the English-based creole of Jamaica and the French-based creole of Haiti. Moreover, Hawaii creole English is spoken by a great numbers of native speakers (Yule, 2006). According to him, when pidgin develops to creole, it is described as creolization. Creole is a pidgin which is modified and appropriated in its structure and vocabulary (Holmes, 2001).

Once pidgin is spoken by great number of people as for instance slaves, traders and children acquire it as a first language; here pidgin will develop to creole. There are creoles whose vocabulary is derived from French, and have a wide number of speakers in the Caribbean and Southern Louisiana, and islands in the Indian Ocean.

Additionally, there are also creoles that their vocabulary originated from English as in the Caribbean, besides coastal regions of Georgia and South Carolina, West Africa, Hawaii and so on. Creole derived from also Spanish and Portuguese vocabulary as in Asia and Island (McKay & Hornberger, 1996).

Creole can reach the status of standard, as Lyon (1984) states. This process is called decreolization. In that situation, creole is used with standard variety in community where there are no social barriers (which discriminate the social dialect of the group). So, the grammatical features of creole will be changed and modified in order to be standard variety (Holmes, 2001). But, a creole may stay stable as low variety. For instance, the case of Haiti in which creole is L variety and French is H variety (Holmes, 2001). When creole has

developed, it can be used in different domains as in politics, education, and administration and so on. For instance, Tok Pisin is used in the Papua New Guinea Parliament.

### **1.10. Lingua Franca**

Once people from different linguistic groups interact with each other, but no one know the other's language, they will tend to create a language in order to communicate with each other and this is known as lingua franca. It exists in multilingual communities as Holmes (2001) states. The famous language that is used as lingua franca is English. He illustrates some examples concerning that as Tswana which is a lingua franca in Southern Africa. But, in some countries, the useful language which functions as lingua franca is official language or the national language. For example, in Tanzania, they use Swahili to communicate with people who are strange to their community. Whereas, other people, in some countries, use the language of colonial power as lingua franca.

According to Holmes (2001), the reason for the emergence of lingua franca is typically for trade and it functions as 'trade language'. So, economic factors can affect the language change. For example, in West Africa, there were a use of Hausa as second language in market area, but in east Africa, Swahili was more used as the trade language. There are many examples concerning lingua franca.

In multilingual communities, lingua franca can be developed from pidgin and creole, where pidgin and creole have a great number of speakers. Commonly, lingua franca is a second language of a speaker and cannot be a first language to the coming generation (Alder, 1977).

On the other hand, Samarin (1968) notes four types of language. Firstly, trade language as in Hausa in West Africa and Swahili is used in east Africa. Secondly, a contact language as Greek Koine is used in the ancient world. Thirdly, an international language as English is used nowadays all over the world. Fourthly, auxiliary language is as Esperanto or Basic English (cited in Bakker, 1997:24). A mixed language is also considered as *lingua franca*, and Bakker (1997) has dealt with this phenomenon, where he studies a Michif language as mixture of Cree and French in Canada and it is used by a thousand people of Métis. It is considered as code-mixing. It is a kind of mixing Cree verbs and French nouns. In other words, their speakers use the grammar of Cree with French vocabulary. For instance, Sabir was a *lingua franca* of the Mediterranean and in other region of the world were Mandarin, Hindi, and Swahili. Arabic also functions as *lingua franca* because it is tied to the spread of Islam, and English is used for different purposes. Some speakers acquire it as their mother tongue, and others obtain it as second language, and for the others is still a foreign language.

## **Conclusion**

It appears that language differentiation depends on language use in all the communities. We have tried to explain in this chapter some sociolinguistic patterns. The aim behind that is to find out how language varieties are mixed in a given speech community and what motivate code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing. These different notions have been tackled by giving concrete examples from Algerian community where code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing are determined by the speakers' level of education and their level of social status...etc.

## Chapter Two: The Situation Analysis

### Introduction

In this chapter, the data were collected by means of recording the speech of some students, who were recorded when discussing “illegal immigration”. Students from different faculties were concerned with recordings. Some of them were recorded at the university and others in the residence. Some difficulties were found in recording students because not all of them accepted to be recorded. Students who were told that were being recorded did not behave naturally. Only natural and spontaneous interactions were taken into account. The analysis will touch on lexical items and expressions that fall into code-mixing as linguistic phenomenon. All items that fall into code-mixing will be transcribed phonetically, then, translated into English version. The purpose of this analysis is to find out types of factors that influence or encourage students to mix code and to examine the structure properties of the switches.

### 2. Analysis of Utterances of Code-mixing

In the following, some examples of code-mixing transcribed phonetically then translated into English, will be provided.

#### 2.1. Negative

- /je n p pas imajini neroh el marikan w el fransa/

(جونبوا ايماجني نروح لماريكان وفرنسا)

“I cannot imagine myself go to America and France”

In this sort of utterances, speakers were discussing about illegal immigration. The speaker starts in French then he/ she shifts to Arabic. It can be noticed that there is an inclusion of clause as code-mixing. Affixes, words, phrase, clause, or sentences are concerned with code-mixing. It is clear that the speaker, here, is influenced by French. So, a clause is just a kind of juxtaposition. It doesn't violate the grammatical system of the Arabic language. Sometimes students tend to code-mix because they believe that people will have the impression that they are educated.

▪ /godwa ʔndi control w marivizitef/

( غدوة عندي كونترول و مريفيزيتش )

“Tomorrow I have an exam and I haven't revised my lessons”

The informants in this situation were talking about the examination. This utterance starts in Arabic then shift to the French language by inserting the noun “controle”. The second shift occurs in the verb which is stated in the negative form. The negative item "م" is stated before the French verb "réviser", then, shifts to the Arabic item/tef/which indicates negation. Normally, the verb should be conjugated in the French language. But, in this example the verb is a sort of combination between two distinct languages, which have totally different grammatical systems. As Muysken (2000) describes it, a situation of code-mixing when the grammatical features of two distinct languages appears in one sentence. The phrase or sentence of French can be diminished in one word, when the French words or verbs are combined with the Arabic linguistic items. In addition, this linguistic phenomenon is not restricted only to French in the sense that students of English also combine verbs of English with the Arabic linguistic items. This shows to the influence of code-mixing on university students.

- /maprogramitʃ nroħ elyoum/

(مبروقر ميتش نروح اليوم)

“I didn’t plan to go today”

The utterance starts by the Arabic negative element “م” in Arabic, then, followed by French verb ‘programer’ and ended by the suffix /teʃ/ that indicates for negation. It formed as the statement of Arabic /maʃ ndiʃ/. Students applied this clause on all French verbs in order to form negative. As the previous example, a clause is diminished into one word. Hornberger & McKay, (1996) argue that there are some types of code-mixing which are acceptable, but there also types of code-mixing which are unacceptable as, for instance, a code-mixing which is ungrammatical. In that case, students integrate grammatical units from distinct language systems into more complex linguistic structures. Normally, this example, the statement should be formed under the structure of subject+verb+object. But in this example, the subject is negated where the negative element is stated first, then, followed by the verb, then, the suffix /t/ which refers to the speaker.

## 2.2. Verbs and Possessive Pronouns

- / laroħti lla siti rizrvili fe ltrnet/

( لروحت لاسيتي ريزرفيلي في الانترنت )

“If you go to the residence reserve me a place in the Internet”.

This example were recorded in the residence, it can be noticed that there is a switch from French by including of a noun and a verb. First of all, the use of the noun “la cité” originates from the French language. So, the student prefers to use the word “lacité” instead “الاقامة” /elʔqa:ma/ may be because it is now part of Algerian Arabic, and is particularly used among students who live in the residence. They replace the word /elʔqa:ma/ by “la cité” because the former rarely used among Algerians in general and students in particular. It

has become part of the Algerian language. The second shift to French occurs at the level of the verb where there is a combination of two distinct languages. So, the verb “ريزرفيلي” is derived from the French verb “réserver” and the speaker adds to it the possessive pronoun of Arabic “لي”. It begins in French and ends in Arabic, just to model it on the Algerian structure. This kind of mixing shows that students are also influenced by mother tongue. It is known that when there are two languages, normally they have two distinct grammatical systems. But students combine both languages in only one word. This sort of language is considered by the whole population as “a corrupt language”. Then the student comes back to French by inserting the noun “Internet”, which is now, in turn, part of the Algerian language.

- /domondli wahda/

(دومنديلي وحدة)

“Demand for one”

In this example there is the use of suffix “لي” after the verb ‘demander’ which originates from French language. The possessive pronoun “لي” which refers to the speaker is stuck to the verb. It is just modeled on the Algerian structure. This linguistic phenomenon can be explained by the fact that students may have complete competence in both languages, but they developed this kind of mixing or this independent system, just to cope with their daily communication. Since it is overused, it does not sound if they violate the grammatical structure of both languages.

### 2.3. Verbs and Objects

- /enti proposi elaidia lih w howa ygidik/

( انت بروبوزي الايدية عليه هو يقيدك )

“Propose your idea for him and he will guide you”

This utterance was recorded in the department of English of two students of English. The shift in this utterance occurs between three languages: Arabic, French and English. The sentence contains the switch of the verb 'بروزي' which originates from French "proposer". The verb is used in imperative form. Then, there is shift into English by including the noun "idea". In that case, the student is influenced by English because he studies in the English department, and therefore is likely to be influenced by. The utterance ends by a shift to French in using the verb 'يُفديك' (to guide you). The verb starts by the Arabic element /y/ which indicates the future tense marker, then, the stem of the French verb "guider" and, then, back again to object "ك" in Arabic which refers to the addressee (you). From the analysis of that example, it can be deduced that a speaker is incompetent in French. Therefore, he/she tends to use French words despite his own limited knowledge of French.

- /wafihya elhaja litposik bah tqray/

(وشهي الحاجة لي تبوسيك باه تقراي)

"What is the thing that pushes you to study?"

This example illustrates a kind of a question. It is evident that students cannot speak without including French language; it plays a big role in their dialect. The prefix /t/ the future tense marker precedes the French verb 'pousser'. Then, there is use of the suffix /k/ which refers to the addressee and functions as an object in Arabic. Aikhenvald (2002) views this kind of language mixing as "unlawful insertion" because it violates the system of two languages. Obviously, Arabic and French have two distinct grammatical systems. But, in that case they shared the same grammatical features. So, there is use of two distinct languages with one system. The use of the Arabic elements occurs unconsciously.



## 2.4. Adjectives

- /yroh lisonsyal mayqadf hna/

(يروح ليسونسيال مايقعدش هنا)

“What is important for him is to go abroad”

In that example also was recorded when students were talking about illegal immigration. There is use of adjectives which originates from the French language ‘l’essentiel’. There are some adjectives and nouns that overused, so that, the students use them unconsciously, because they get used to speak or to use them. They may take for prestige to use adjectives or nouns from the French language.

- /elharga ?det hja normal mabqat haja graf/

(الحرقة عادت حاجة نورمال مابقاتش حاجة قراف)

“Illegal immigration becomes something normal, it does not stayed as dangerous thing”

This example illustrates opinion of students about illegal immigration. It contains only switches to adjectives. As Hornberger and McKay (1996) states that code-mixing can be inserting words, phrases or clauses. The switches vary from the use of single words to larger sequences of words in single sentence. In that utterance, there is adjective ‘normale’ originates from French. This kind of adjective is overused by students, for that, they include it unconsciously. Then, shift to Arabic, then, back again to a French by inserting the adjective ‘grave’. So, in that utterance there are two adjectives: ‘normale’ and ‘grave’.

- /deprifrens yivti elhayat li ?yafsha w liproblem li ?yefhom balak feli tronji jih xir/

(دوبروفرونس يافيتي الحياة لي عايشها ولي بروبلام لي عايشهم بلاك في ليترونجي جيه خير)

“It is preferable for him to avoid the life and the problems that he lives in, may be abroad will be better for him”

The utterance starts by the French language by inserting the adjective ‘préférence’. The second shift occurs at the prefix/y/ is follows the verb ‘éviter’ and there is also use of noun ‘problem’ and ‘étrangé’. The use of the prefix of Arabic is due to the influence of the mother tongue. The French language also influences the Algerian dialect since people from time to time they insert the French words. For instance, students are more influenced by French and this may be due to the educational system, or maybe they are affected by their parents due to that they have high degree of education. Hence, some parents speak French more than Arabic; in that case, children will be influenced by the French language, since they imitate their parents and acquire it from them.

## 2.5. Preposition

- /malgri ʔlabalo beli kayan sofrons fe elxaraj /

(مالقري علابالو بلي كاين سوفرونس في الخارج)

“In spite that he knows that there is sufferance abroad”

The utterance presents points of view of students about illegal immigration. The switches occur also in preposition. The utterance starts in French by including the preposition ‘malgré’ which corresponds ‘in spite that’ in English. It is well known that students use a lot of preposition. Then, the second shift occurs at level of a noun ‘souffrance’ which becomes a part form Algerian dialect. It has been noticed that in this example there is no violation at level of grammar of both languages. It is just substitution of the Arabic preposition by the preposition of the French language. Again, the same thing applied for the noun ‘souffrance’. It can be taken for prestigious purpose. As Muysken (2000) terms this kind of mixing by inserting. According to him this process of code-mixing viewed as “something akin to borrowing”. As Henrich and Joseph (1996) state that code-mixing is a kind of inserting of numerous words from one language into the grammatical structure of another language.

Therefore it is difficult to differentiate code-mixing from lexical borrowing. Horbonger and McKay (1996) views that this sort of mixing is acceptable, in contrast to the other kind of mixing which violate the grammatical structure of both languages. For example, combining Arabic linguistic elements with stem of the French language violates the grammatical structure.

## 2.6. Nouns and Verbs

- /elʃomaj howa lixeli lijn yroho yʃarfiw ʔla elxadma/

(الشوماج هو ليخلي اليجان يروحو يشارشيو على الخدمة)

“Unemployment pushes the youth to go to search for job”

The utterance was recorded when students were discussing illegal immigration. This utterance begins by the French language in the use of the noun ‘chomage’, then, shift to Arabic, then, back again to French which appeared in the use of the noun ‘ les jeunes’. It has been found that the prefix /y/ that indicates to the future tense marker followed by the French verb ‘chercher’. Then, it ended by the suffix /w/, the plural marker in the Algerian Arabic. The use of the elements of Arabic is has been done unconsciously that it seems to be suitable in speech. This tendency of code-mixing can be explained that Algerian students often produce a mixed-code when interacting with other Algerian students. If they spoke in French, they would be considered as disloyal to their society. If they spoke only in Arabic, they would be considered as not open-minded. In this case, the Algerian students find themselves obliged to use both languages in order to avoid negative clichés. Some cases the students tend to mix-code despite their limited knowledge of French. In the sense that they believe that if they code-mix, it will give people an impression that they are educated people. It is noticeable that students cannot speak in full range of situation. They speak Arabic, then, shift to French and

when they fail to express their ideas, they come back to Arabic and so on. So, the Algerian Arabic will sounds as cocktail.

## 2.7. Nouns, Verbs and Reflexive Pronouns

- /elħarga ħja mfi meliħa lijen llazem yi?vitiwha/

( )

“Illegal immigration is not good thing for the youth, they have to avoid it.”

This utterance presents a point of view of students about illegal immigration. When these examples of utterances are analyzed, it is found that nouns are the most often highly switched syntactic category. So, there is the noun ‘les jeunes’ which becomes part from Algerian Arabic. Then, shifts to Arabic, then, back again to the French verb ‘éviter’. The verb is precedes by the prefix /y/ the future tense marker, then, followed by the plural marker /w/ which originates from Arabic. Afterward, it ends by the Arabic reflexive pronoun /h/ which functions as an object and refers to /ħarga/. So, the French verb is conjugated into grammatical structure of Arabic not of the French language. In that case, there is a violation of French’s grammar. It is sort of combination of two distinct languages that are totally have different grammatical systems. This linguistic phenomenon of combining a stem of French with prefix or suffix or both of them is widespread and overused among Students University and even children since they are also influenced by the members of their society. This may be because students do not master the French language well, but at the same time they like to speak their mother tongue. So, they tend to combine both of them in order to cope with their daily communication, since all Algerian people tend to code-mix. Code-mixing does not restricted only to students who are incompetent in French, but also to those who master French well.

## 2.8. Verbs, Adverbs and Determiner

- /xoya kistyonto plisr fwa dar bak nta<sup>o</sup> ew felafn madaf/

(خويا كيسيتيونيتو بتيزيغ فوا دار الباك نتاعو وفي لافان مداش)

“I have asked my brother many times, he passed his final exam but finally he did not succeed”

This utterance was recorded when student was talking about illegal immigration. It starts in Arabic, then, shifts to French. It has been found that the French word ‘question’ functions as verb in this example. Obviously, the word question is a noun not a verb. It added to it prefix /t/ which refers to addressee (you). Normally, if that utterance translated to French, it would formed as the following ‘j’ai posé une question à mon frère’. So, in French language it is a complete sentence; it formed as subject+ verb+ object. But in that situation it diminished to one word. It is noticeable that students are influenced by combining verbs or nouns with Arabic linguistic elements, it becomes normal thing and it applied for all the French verbs. So, the French words or expressions are shaped and pronounced on the basis of the Arabic sound system. Students use this kind mixing without taking into their consideration that they violate the grammar of the foreign language. Since it becomes linguistic phenomenon, and it does not sound odd. Muysken (1999) terms this kind of situation where two languages share the same grammatical features by ‘congruent lexicalization’, because lexeme can be filled with element of another language. Then, shift to the determiner pronoun ‘plusieurs fois’. Afterwards shift to Arabic, then, back again to the French which noticeable in the use of the adverb ‘1

## 2.9. Auxiliaries and Verbs

- /ħanwikandi haði smana/

(حنويكندي هذي سمانه)

“I will pass a weekend”

That example was recorded in the residence. In analyzing this utterance, it is found that there is inserting of the English noun ‘weekend’, because there is influence by English language. The borrowing of the word ‘weekend’ is not restricted to only to Algerian people , but all Arab people use this word. Obviously, this word is a noun but, here, it functions as verb. It precedes by the future marker or by the auxiliary /ħ/ of Arabic which corresponds ‘will’ in English. Then, the noun weekend ended by the suffix /y/ which refers to the speaker. It can be deduced that students find themselves incapable to express their ideas; they shift to another code in order to convey the message that they want to convey or to express. Again, another shift in this utterance is the word ‘semaine’ originates from the French language. It stated in the feminine by adding the Arabic feminine marker /t/ the French word ‘semaine’ modifies to /smana/ to become part of the Algerian dialect .i.e. phonologically and morphologically assimilated. The word ‘poste’ also modifies to ‘posta’. In this example, the educated person uses the French word ‘la poste’; whereas the layman modifies the word ‘poste’ to ‘posta’. So, there is a difference between the language used by an educated person and the one used by a layman. There are many examples which modify in order to be part of the Algerian dialect and this due to the influence of the mother tongue.

- /ħaytapiw liksposi/

(حيتيبو لأكسبوزي)

“They are going to type their research”

The utterance starts by the Arabic auxiliary /h/ which indicates to the future marker, then, followed by the French verb ‘taper’. Afterward it followed by the suffix /w/ the Arabic plural marker. Again, the second shift occurs in definite article /el/ which stated in Arabic and noun ‘exposé ’in French. From the analysis of this utterance, it is noticeable that only linguistic units are in Arabic and the stems are in French. The influence of the French language is apparent since in this example there is no Arabic words, it contains only French words.

- /kitepratiki lansinmon twli jik normal/

(كي تيراتيكي لانسينمون تولي جيك نورمال)

“When you practice teaching, it will become normal thing”

As the previous analysis of the examples, there is use of the future tense marker /t/ of Arabic, it precedes the French verb ‘pratiquer’, then, shifts to Arabic in using the Arabic element /y/ which refers to the addressee. Again, there is shift to French in inserting the noun ‘enseignement’ which used for prestigious purpose. Then, the utterance finished in the French language in the sense that it ends by the noun ‘normal’. This noun in particular is more used by the Algerian people; it uses unconsciously by them because they get used to include it in their daily conversation.

## 2.10. Auxiliaries, Verbs and Nouns

- /lazem tposi ?lina di kstyon/

(لازم تبوزي خلينا دي كيستيون)

“You have to ask us questions”

In analyzing that utterance, the prefix /t/ indicates to the present tense marker precedes the French verb “poser” and /y/ the third person singular marker used in the Algerian Arabic.

Most switches occur between nouns and verbs. In addition, the speaker uses the noun “question” may be he/she believes that it will be more prestigious to use French words.

- /teprɪpri eksposi/

(تبريري اكسبوزي)

“You prepare a research”

In analyzing this example, it is found that the prefix /t/ indicates to the present tense marker, then, followed by the French verb ‘préparer’. Then, there is including of noun ‘exposer’. The students get used to use this kind of mixing. So, the prefix and suffix /y/ are in Arabic and the rest of words are in the French language. The use of French words are more used, for instance, the speaker in one sentence can insert more than one word. This linguistic phenomenon also affects children, they get used to include and mix-code French language in their speech. So, they combine also the Arabic linguistic elements with French verbs and use them as if they were part of the Algerian dialects. Hence, they cannot distinguish between them; they consider them that they are from Arabic words. In that situation, the influence of French language is apparent and it can be noticed that it affects the Algerian Arabic.

- /galolna lasiri elwla tkmponsi eldzym/

( قالولنا لاسيري الولي تكومونسي الدوزيام )

“They told us, the first semester compensate the second one”

The switches were found between noun and verb. The noun ‘série’ is borrowed from the French language. Then, the French verb ‘compenser’ which precedes by the present marker /t/ and ended by the linguistic items in the Algerian Arabic /y/ that refer to the noun ‘la série’. Again there is shift to the French language by including the noun ‘deuxième’. But the noun precedes by the definite article of Arabic /el/ instead of using the French definite article ‘la’. The reason of linguistic phenomenon of using French language in students’ speech may



be explained by the long period of colonization. It well known that many French words are often used in Algerian daily conversation in media as newspaper, radio channels, and television and there are some fields of education which based on the French language as scientific displines.

### 2.11. Pronouns and Verbs

- /enʃallah nprpariw kima yalzem/

(انشاء الله نبرياريو كما يلزم)

“We will prepare well, God willing.”

In this utterance there is use of the pronoun /n/ of Arabic which refers to the first singular and plural ‘I and ‘we’. The verb ‘preparer’ is preceded by the item ‘ن’ and it finishes by the suffix /w/ the plural marker in Arabic. This kind of mixing does not restricted or used by students or people who do not master the French language well, it also used by students or people who have a complete competence in French. But they just use this kind of mixing in order to cope with their daily conversation.

- /gali netmizr lhih nsakrfi/

(قالي نتميزر لهيه نساكريفي)

“He said ‘he will suffer and scarify there’

In analyzing this utterance, it is noticeable that students have a great tendency to combine the Arabic linguistic elements with the French verbs. Here, the first person singular marker /n/ precedes the verb ‘souffrir’. Then, shift to Arabic, then, back again to the French verb ‘sacrifier’ which begins by the first singular and plural ‘I’and‘we’. The reason behind this linguistic phenomenon is the influence of the mother tongue and students are very bad in French. But not all students are bad in French since there are students who master French

well, but they tend to mix-code especially who are from Constantine and Skikda because they are more influenced by French. Hence, French also used as means of communication may be because it occupies prestigious status in education, administration, media etc. Hornberger and McKay (1996) state that code-mixing is sign of laziness since students tend to mix-code without bother themselves to know how language structured in the French language. They may be influenced by technology, for instance, the mobile language since they have learnt how to use abbreviation in their messages. They tend to speak shorter and faster in their daily life, since they diminished the phrase or clause into one word, by combining the Arabic linguistic items with French verb.

## 2.12. Articles, Verbs and Possessive Pronouns

- /elportapl kodytiholi/

(البورتابل كوديتيهولي)

“You code my mobile”

The switches in this utterance occur in article, verb and possessive pronoun. The definite article of Arabic “ال” is present instead of using ‘le’ in French. So, the definite article is in Arabic and the noun ‘portable’ in French because it seems heavy to use this word in Arabic. The verb ‘coder’ is followed by the element /t/ which refers to addressee and the item /h/ refers to the noun ‘portable’ and ended by the possessive pronoun “لي” which stucked to the verb. So, the clause “tu as codé mon portable” is diminished to one word it seems that the use of this kind of mixing will be easier than to form concrete clause or sentence in the French language.

### 3. Summary of Finding

After the analysis of the expressions of code-mixing, it has been found that the mixing occurs in the following:

**3.1. Use of Pronoun:** the pronoun /n/ is used before the French verb. It is stuck to the verb as for instance/ nsakrif/.

**3.2. Use of Article:** the definite article “ال” of Arabic language is used before the noun of French as /elsiri/, /elportabl/.

**3.3. Use of Possessive Pronoun:** the possessive pronoun “لي” is used as suffix of the French verb as /rizarvili/

**3.4. Use of Nouns:** nouns are the most frequent of switches that are mixed in daily conversation for example /jomaj/, /sofrons/.

**3.5. Use of Adjectives:** adjectives are also used a lot by students in their speech as /prifirens/.

**3.6. Use of Negative Items:** the negative item “م” is used as prefix, it precedes the verb French and finished by the suffix /te/. Both items are affixed to the main verb of French as /maprogpamtʃ/.

**3.7. Use of Present Tense Marker:** the present tense marker /t/ and /y/ stated before the French verb as /tpripari/, /ntmizer/.

**3.8. Use of Object:** the item “ك” in Arabic affixed to the main verb which functions as an object for example /tposik/.

**3.9. Use of the Plural Marker:** the item “و” which indicates the plural marker is stated as suffix as /ytapiw/.

**3.10. Use of Reflexive Pronoun:** the suffix /h/ is affixed to the main verb of French as /y?vtiwha/.

**3.11. Use of Preposition:** there are also switches at preposition as for instance ‘malgré’.

**3.12. Borrowing:** there also borrowing from English as the words “weekend” and “idea”.

#### **4. Discussion**

In this study, it is noticed that code-mixing occurs in mixing nouns, adjectives, verbs preposition, determiners and sometimes there is mixing of phrases. There are verbs which combined with the present tense marker of Arabic, or verbs when affixed with the prefix and suffix of negative elements of Arabic. The findings of this study are demonstrated, on one hand, that the speeches of students contained various switches from French to Arabic. There are considerable numbers of cases of switching, where the grammatical structures of both languages are violated. This kind of mixing is produced with great ease, and it is noticed that students are very affected by this kind of mixing. Intra-sentential code-mixing demonstrates that the speaker lacks a bilingual proficiency because interference. The ideal bilingual is who switches from one language to another according to the interlocutor and the topic...etc.

## **Conclusion**

In conclusion, it can be said that students mix-code French and Arabic because they find themselves obliged to use both of them. If they spoke only in French, they would be considered as disloyal to their society and if they spoke only in Arabic they would be considered as not an open-minded. It can be also deduced that students do not fully master French, since the grammatical structure of both languages are violated at a point of switching. Students seem to be more influenced by code-mixing. Some other students are less competent to speak French in full range of situation. They tend to mix-code Arabic and French. Thus, students developed an independent code in order to cope with their daily communication.

## General Conclusion

It is ranged over two main chapters: diglossic situation and mixture of varieties. The first chapter is concerned with the study of the mixture varieties and diglossic situations. In addition, some well known diglossic speech communities as the Arabic speaking word (Egypt and Algeria) are stated. It is useful to note that there are similarities as well differences in different diglossic communities and in variables that determine language shift of individuals and social groups. Again, exploring the mixture varieties is aimed at finding out how varieties are mixed up in a given speech community and what motivate code-switching, code-mixing and borrowing.

The second chapter is concerned with the analysis of some collected utterances of code-mixing in order to sort out their features. On the basis of what has been said, we come to the conclusion that shifting between languages is represented in three main sociolinguistic concepts- code-mixing, code-switching, and borrowing. This shift depends on many such factors as gender, level of education, and social status.

Hence, each language has its grammatical rules and system, but speakers have a great tendency to mix French and Arabic in one sentence. They mix the grammatical features of two distinct languages. This shift affects the process of learning foreign languages. Students are more interested in transmitting the message, not on the way they use language. Hence, they will learn nothing from this kind of mixing i.e. mixing the Arabic linguistic items with stems of the French language. They will also shape French words or expressions onto Arabic and pronounce them on the basis of the Arabic sound system. Furthermore, this kind of mixing affects seriously a nation's language. If no remedy, Algerian Arabic will disappear.

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## **Appendix**

These are transcription of the expressions which fall into code-mixing.

- /je n p pas imajini neroh el marikan w el fransa/
- /ğodwa ʕndi control w mariviziteʃ/
- /maprogramitʃ nroh elyoum/
- /larohti lla siti rizrvili fe ltrnet/
- /domondli waħda/
- /enti proposi elaidia lih w howa ygidik/
- /yroħ lisonsyal mayqadʃ hna/
- /elħarga ʕdet ħja normal mabqat ħaja graf/
- /deprifrens yivti elħayat li ʕyaʃha w liproblem li ʕyefħom balak feli tronji jih xir/
- /malgri ʕlabalo beli kayan sofrons fe elxaraj /
- /elfomaj howa lixeli lijen yroho yʃarfiw ʕla elxadma/
- /elħarga ħja mʃi meliħa lijen llazem yiʔvitiwha/
- /xoya kistyonto plisr fwa dar bak ntaʕo ew felafn madaʃ/
- /ħanwikandi haði smana/
- /ħaytapiw liksposi/
- kitepratiki lansinmon twli jik normal/
- /lazem tposi ʕlina di kstyon/
- /tepripri eksposi/
- /galolna lasiri elwla tkmponsi eldzym/
- /gali netmizr lhih nsakrfi/
- /elportapl kodytiholi/