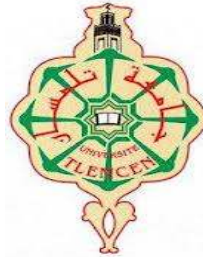


MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

UNIVERSITY OF TLEMCEM

FACULTY OF LETTERS AND LANGUAGES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH



**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ARGUMENTATIVE UTTERANCES
THE FEMININE TEENAGED CONVERSATIONAL EXCHANGE
IN AIN-TEMOUCHENT AND NEW-YORK**

*Thesis Submitted to the Department of English in Candidacy for the Degree of Doctorate in Sociolinguistics
and Discourse Analysis*

Presented by:

Ms. Amel BENCHAREF

Supervised by:

Prof. Amine BELMEKKI

Board of Examiners

Prof. Ilhem SERIR	Prof.	Chairwoman	University of Tlemcen
Prof. Amine BELMEKKI	Prof.	Supervisor	University of Tlemcen
Dr. Omar AZZOUG	MCA.	Internal Examiner	University of Tlemcen
Prof. Samira ABID	Prof.	External Examiner	University of SidiBelAbbès
Dr. Lotfi BENCHATTAB	MCA.	External Examiner	University of Oran
Dr. Belabbes NEDDAR	MCA.	External Examiner	University of Mostaganem

Academic Year: 2016

Statement of Originality

I hereby confirm that this thesis is entirely my own work and that I have written it in my own words. I also declare that the present work contains no plagiarism and that any information taken from published or unpublished sources has been acknowledged in accordance with the standard referencing rules.

Date: The 21st June, 2016

Ms. Amel BENCHAREF

DEDICATION

To my beloved parents

To my brothers and sister

To my Fiancé and Love Ibrahim Musbah Hameed

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank all those individuals who helped me to bring this project to its present state of completion. I received a number of forms of support, including moral, financial, administrative, intellectual and motivational.

*** **

It is my great honour and privilege to express my very profound acknowledgments to my highly esteemed supervisor Prof. Amine BELMEKKI for his precious help, valuable feedback and exemplary guidance. His constant support, throughout the duration of this project, has been a source of stimulation and motivation,

I owe an immense debt of gratitude to the jury members, Pr. Ilhem SRIR, Dr. Omar AZZOUG, Pr. Samira ABID, Pr. Lotfi BENHATTAB and Pr. Belabbes NEDDAR For their time, valuable comments and precious remarks.

Very special thanks go out to Mr. Ibrahim MUSBAH HAMEED for his wise instructions, embracing motivation and financial support “It is done, I am truly grateful!”

I am immensely grateful to Mr. Sheikhi BENYAHIA, Mrs. Saadia MAJDOUBI, Mr. Abdelhak BENCHAREF, Dr. Mohamed HAMDAN, Dr. Lotfi HUSSEIN, Mr. Ismain KHALKI, Dr. Yahya ZEGHOUDI, Dr. Abdelkader BENSABA, Mr. Abdelnacer CHRIJ, Dr. Noureddine MOUHADJER, and Dr. Amaria DERNI for their support and precious advice.

To the spirit of my teacher and uncle Mr. Ibrahim BENCHAREF who helped me with his advice, unfailing support and valuable words.

To my students: Imane BOUFELDJA, Abdenour CHEIKH, Assia SAADI, Mebarqa TOUMI, Nour-El Houda BENYAKOUB for their motivation, encouragements and kindness.

I must acknowledge the subjects who accepted to participate in this case study Mohamed DAOUDI High School and Soheib BELHADJ University students in Ain-Temouchent for their kindness and help,

To the students of Oyster Bay High School, The New York City College of Technology (City Tech) and Long Island University (LIU) in New York City and all those who helped me collecting my data in the United States of America, without their passionate participation and input, the survey could not have been successfully conducted.

My gratitude further extends to all the employees in East Norwich Inn in New York City, for their services and assistance.

Amel BENCHAREF

Abstract

The current study epitomizes a critical endeavour to scrutinize and explore the phenomenon of argumentation within feminine youngsters' conversational exchange in divergent contexts to testify the argumentation process and measure the validity of arguments, moreover, figure out the obstacles and challenges that feminine youngsters confront during an argumentative exchange. This research work is carried out through analytic and comparative approaches, shedding much light on interdisciplinary areas of some sub-fields of research involving sociolinguistics and cognitive psychology. It strives to explore such issues as thoughts disorder, premises, and argumentation structures. It provides interested readers and critical thinking students with an overview of the literature that can serve as a point of departure for further study. This thesis is split into four chapters. The former two parts represent a literature review of the argumentation theory and a sociolinguistic situation of Temouchent Arabic (TAD) and New-York English (NYE). The following two chapters are devoted to the practical phase of the study wherein the problematics is empirically discussed through applicable methodologies and methods employed to examine feminine youngsters' arguments; furthermore, the last chapter attempts to analyze and interpret the results obtained from the data collection. The study, in its conclusive passages, reveals that arguing complexity is encountered by both New York and Temouchent feminine youngsters; however, it is distinguishing as it varies in percentages and frequency between the two selected samplings. All in all, this piece of work attempts to be ideal in the sense that it tends to serve in removing argumentation incompetence seeking for a comprehensive exchange and an effective communication.

Key words: argumentation theory, arguments, feminine youngsters, obstacles, TAD and NYE.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

(A) :	Activating Event
AA :	Algerian Arabic
AD :	Anno Domini
ALAP :	American Linguistic Atlas Project
AmE :	American English
(B) :	Belief
BBC :	British Broad Coporation
BC :	Before Christ
BGHE :	Balding House
BrE :	British English
(C) :	Consequence
CA :	Classical Arabic
CBT :	Cognitive Behavioural Therapy
CT :	Cognitive Therapy
CT :	Critical Thinking
Dare :	Dictionary of American Regional English
EDHL :	Educational Hall
GA :	General American
MSA :	Modern Standard Arabic
NY :	New York
NYCOM	New York College of Osteopathic

SAC :	Student Activity Center
P, R, Q :	Premises of an Argument
REBT :	Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy
RP :	Received Pronunciation
S :	Sentence
SA :	Standard Arabic
SE :	Standard English
SPCX :	Sports Complex
TAD :	Temouchent Arabic Dialect
TD :	Thouhgt Disorder
UK :	United Kingdom
UKSE :	United Kingdom Standard English
US :	United States
WC :	Water Closet
WSLB :	Wisser Memorial Library

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

A process such as shaping perspectives, rationalising beliefs and securing conclusions with the objective of persuading, altering and influencing viewpoints and behaviours of people, is broadly perceived as “*arguing*”. Argumentation is a fascinating interdisciplinary domain of scrutiny and a pivotal interest of researchers. It stands purportedly upon an assortment of divergent involvements from plenteous studious backgrounds and erudite approaches to communication, logic, persuasion, discourse analysis, pragmatics, psychology and cognitive psychology, critical thinking and so on and so forth.

Arguing is the art of an effective communication, and the aptitude to mindfully argue is essentially the immense skill of that art. Nevertheless, people endure to fight while arguing until they turn their discussion into a full-on fight; others, alternatively, miss the point and misinterpret others’ arguments; the puzzle is that they often argue with each other believing that they are both right; however, they continue to finish off as right and wrong. Another category feels ambiguously unable to argue at all and still ignore the cause behind their debility.

Arguments and argumentation were genuinely investigated and hotly disputed by many researchers such as Frans Van Eemeren, Grootendorst (2001) and others who go for pertinent arguments by contributing to the theory of argumentation divulging its issues and problems. According to many of them, the scope of argumentation revolves around two vital divergent interests inaugurating from philosophical and theoretical phases to empirical or practical fields of work. The scope of this research work balance between sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic subfields, it is, in fact, a hybrid discipline. The researcher, in this study, applies quantitative and qualitative measurements to obtain empirical evidence. It is the undertaking of this dissertation to inspect both of the argumentation theory and argumentation

praxis; furthermore, it directs special emphasis to certain notable issues in arguing. The problematic of this dissertation is jointly concerned with the mysterious obstacles that block feminine teenagers from expressing themselves accurately which may affect appallingly their production, analysis and evaluation of arguments. The present research work also persists to determine the soundness criteria that should be incorporated with arguments to be labeled reasonable. The dissertation inquiries are structured as follows:

- ✚ How can the process of argumentation be established to successfully attain validity and rationality?
- ✚ How can feminine youngsters argue considerately and make their communication more effective?
- ✚ On which basis do Feminine youngsters shape their standpoint?
- ✚ Do they, in both conversational argumentative exchanges, reveal valid arguments and attain a successful exchange?

Four testable hypotheses are, correspondingly propounded:

- ✚ The process of argumentation might be established through logic and reasonable critical thinking to successfully attain validity and rationality.
- ✚ Feminine youngsters could argue considerately and make their communication more effective if they stop arguing with emotions but instead apply logic.
- ✚ Feminine youngsters might ground on feelings and emotions, religion, traditions and personal experiences in shaping their arguments.

✚ They seem not, as they belong to two different contexts.

The sampling of this research work was opted on the basis of observation during task-based English conversations performed in an intercultural exchange between Algerian girls and American ones. It was obviously remarked that Algerian girls, within those conversations, were inactive and incapable to express their point of views; whereas, some of the American teenagers were able to do so appropriately. One may propose “language” as a reason for such incapacity of arguing; however, it was not, since even arguing in Arabic was, for them, a challenging task. The pollster attempts to scrutinize this phenomenon under an analytic and comparative study to fathom out the reasons of this inability that may lead to a futile ineffectiveness in communication; where does this inability of arguing come from? How shall we treat the argumentation incompetence with feminine youngsters? To reply to these and previous inquiries, this dissertation is, accordingly, split into four chapters.

The former part has a historical slant. It opens with a literary overview of the previous beliefs and theories held in argumentation. It typically deals with the nature of arguments and endeavors to explore such issues as opinions, premises, argumentation structures, argument interpretation and reconstruction. The principal purpose of this chapter is to cultivate one’s ability to construct, evaluate arguments and figure out how valid conclusions can be reached.

The second part emphasizes predominantly the sociolinguistic situation of Algerian Arabic (AA) precisely Ain-Témouchent Arabic Dialect and American English (AmE) specifically New-York English. This chapter targets language as the prominent device of arguing. It sheds much light on two different varieties of distinct languages on which the argumentation theory will be applied and examined.

The third phase is the basic pillar of this research. It discusses the methodology used for data collection and analysis. It initially brings a background about the design of the current study. It essentially analyzes the methodology which was regarded critical prior to carrying out this

study. This chapter seeks to study experimentally arguments shaping ground work of this investigation. It is, in effect, the practical aspect of the theoretical framework resulting from the literature review presented in chapter one.

The eventual chapter is devoted mainly to the analysis of the collected data designed in chapter three; it intends to interpret the results drawn from the feminine youngsters' case study and temporarily search for the adequate and significant methods and strategies to structure reasonable arguments. Grounded on the outcomes of the case study some scholarly suggestions are proposed to eradicate any obstacles in arguing and improve rational reasoning within feminine youngsters.

CHAPTER ONE
LITERATURE REVIEW: AN INTRODUCTION TO
ARGUMENTATION

1.1. INTRODUCTION

1.2. LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

1.2.1. Communication and Speech Situation

1.2.1.1. Speech Acts: Austin's and Searle's Theory

1.3. CONVERSATION AND INTERACTION

1.3.1. Interaction

1.3.1.1. Interactional Sociolinguistics Method

1.4. LANGUAGE AND LOGIC

1.5. COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

1.5.1. Critical Thinking

1.5.1.1. Language Handicapped: Thought Disorder

1.6. ARGUMENTATION AND ARGUMENTS

1.6.1. Arguments and their Structure

1.7. DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO POINTS OF VIEW

1.7.1. The Pragma-Dialectical Approach

1.7.2. Socio-Psychological Research of Persuasion

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1.9. UTTERANCE (énoncé)

1.9.1. Bakhtin's Theory of Utterance

1.9.2. Characteristics of Argumentative Utterances

1.10. CONCLUSION

1.1. Introduction

How can philosophers, linguists, rhetoricians, and people in general improve a climate of discussion to successfully achieve inclusive communication? It is argued that argumentation and arguments may be the key pivot of any discussion. If so, what is then the subject matter of the study of argumentation? How exactly is the object of argumentation to be comprehended? And why all the fuss about arguments? Reflecting on what is issue in this context, and what is being disputed or supported, should guide us to the answer. Unlike descriptions, short stories, novels, exclamations, questions, and explanations, arguments are efforts to justify claims and statements.

Our first step in this introductory chapter has to be figuring out what is exactly meant by arguments and argumentation theory. It predominantly deals with the nature of arguments, what an argument signifies, its distinct structures and how it is evaluated whether strong or weak, good or bad. This chapter sheds much light on an interdisciplinary areas of some sub-fields of reserach involving sociolinguistics, psychology and cognitive psychology under the umbrella of discourse analysis. It endeavours to explore such issues as thoughts disorder, premises, and argumentation structures. It provides interested readers and critical thinking students with an overview of the literature that can serve as a point of departure for further study. In addition, it attempts to analyze arguments, assess them and construct similar or dissimilar arguments. It is generally agreed that arguments are originated from people's daily social talk where there are some controversy and disputes about given topics to resolve the disputes and disagreements reasonably. Arguing and evaluating arguments are indispensable components of critical thinking of cautiously scrutinizing our beliefs and view points and the evidence one may have for them. They are significant apparatuses individuals use to prudently persuade others of their

beliefs and opinions. The foremost purpose of this chapter is to cultivate one's ability to construct, evaluate arguments, which produce debates and negotiation and how their conclusions can be reached.

1.2. LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

Discourse analysis is the domain where language can be analyzed. It studies language distinctively and investigates the way language fits into the social world. Jones (2012:4) believes that

...discourse analysis is not just the use of language. It is a way of looking at language that focuses on how people use it in real life to do things such as joke and argue and persuade and flirt, and to show that they are certain kinds of people or belong to certain groups

That is to say, in one sense, discourse analysis which is a sub-field of linguistics basically studies how language functions, from another sense, it deals with the way sentences and utterances are arranged together to form texts, conversations and interactions and how those texts, conversations and interactions play a part in our daily personal and social life, Widdowson (1996:3) confirms that **“language certainly figures centrally in our lives”**. It is only through language, which is a reflection of human cognition and consciousness, that human beings prove their existence. Language functions as a means of cognition and communication (Piaget, 1972) (Semin, 1995, 1996) (Fussell & Kreuz, 1998), it permits individuals to cogitate, sense, assume, imagine, judge, believe, argue, agree, doubt, reflect who they are, what they possess and how they express themselves exposing their potentials and aptitudes (Widdowson, 1996). Language is a purely human and unconscious method of communicating thoughts and emotions (Cenoz & Valencia,

1994). According to Widdowson (1996) language appears to be one key aspect of our vital humanity which allows us to transcend the state of mere brutish beings.

It is can be true that all creatures communicate in a specific way, birds sign to each other by singing, bees network by dancing. These songs and dances are a way to communicate but are they language? One can argue that these are merely routines, restricted repertoires which are constructed as mechanical responses and hasty reactive actions. This means to say that these reactions, which may be considered as language in animal communication, seem to be characterized by the lack of flexibility of human language which enables individuals to be proactive and to coin new meanings in interaction. To turn, then, to the major subject, which is the main concern of the current study, widdowson (1975) maintains that the cardinal nature of language is cognitive. Language is seen as a psychological phenomenon as it refers to the human mind.

The study of language in discourse analysis describes language as a kind of cognitive construct, and a means of communication and social control (Halliday, 1978), this is proven by both of the cognitive and social approaches (Grice, 1975) (Wilson & Sperber, 1986) (Blackmore, 1992).

As a matter of fact, it is internalized in human mind as abstract knowledge; however, for this to occur, it ought to be experienced in the external world as a current conduct. What is particularly striking about language from this point of view is its mutli-level nature and the way it is fashioned as a system of signs to meet the elaborate cultural and communal needs of human societies. According to Halliday (1970) language is seen as a social semiotic. Language dertmines one's entire way of life involving thinking and all other forms of mental activity. To use language is to restrict oneself to modes of perception already inherent in that language. People do not always say what they mean, and they do not mean what they say (Austin, 1962). It is one of the ironic points of view in discourse analysis. If this is said to mean

something, then it may only reveal language ambiguity and complexity (Pinker, 1994). Language is essentially mysterious as what it expresses can never be clear.

Communication is, in its essence, based on the interpretation of what other people mean or try to do, rather than what they truly say (Yule, 1996). The context, where language is used, has a great deal of importance in identifying the exact meaning of what has been said (Hymes, 1972). Language, consequently, cannot exist out of the confines of the world i.e., where and when it is used and what it is used to do. In this vein, Hymes (1972: 277) holds “**there are rules of use without which the rule of grammar be useless**”. Moreover, language is a mechanism that displays distinct types of personal and social identities of people which indicate that they belong to different groups, for instance, Crystal (1992: 212) treats language as an expressive system given ‘**for communication and self-expression**’. The way language is used is inseparable from who people are. Language is not unique, it cannot stand by its own, it always requires the assistance of some autosegmental features, such as: intonation, facial expressions, body language in spoken communication and the fronts, layout, graphics in written one and so on.

All types of communication convey various meanings, the elements of those meanings are expressed either directly or indirectly. At the first glance, people seem to express themselves clearly, directly and appropriately, which may not be true. Consider the following examples:

Example One: Two ladies in bus

A: What time is it?

B: It is ten o'clock.

A: Where are you from?

B: I am from Ain-Témouchent

Example Two: A student passes a mathematics exam

A: Sir! What time is it?

B: It is eleven thirty. Hurry-up

Example Three: Adam, in his way to office, met a friend of him and they start talking to each other, then suddenly, he interrupts his friend:

A: What time is it?

B: Ah! Sorry, I took your time.

Strictly speaking, in the above statements, not all of them truthfully communicate that the interlocutor needs to know about time. Language by its nature is imperfect and ambiguous since expressing oneself appropriately all the time would be quite unachievable. Poets, lovers, writers and lawyers assert that language is an insufficient instrument for a particular expression of numerous things people may think of, feel about, moreover, whenever they communicate they address more than one target object and subject. For instance, if someone asks his/her friend to borrow him a pen, the expression “*Do you have a pen*” may not have only one realization, that person may be a bit shy to ask for a pen, or not wishing to impose on his/her friend his request, even if he has already known that he has one.

A statement meaning is vividly changeable in respect of who speaks or writes, when, where and to whom it is said i.e., it is a matter of language that is in some way situated. Kasper and rose (2002) believe that meaning is coined in the interaction between the speaker and the hearer. Language is permanently situated in the material world. Second, it is situated with relationships, since it is mainly used for the sake of communication.

Nowadays, discourse analysts increasingly concentrate on the various ways that do not include language, but by which people communicate. It is most entirely how to use language to mean something instead of what language is. The way language

functions and interacts with other communicative modes may reveal a new connotation of its reality.

1.2.1. Communication and Speech Situation

“Do words mean or do people mean?”, (Nelson, 1985:9). Pragmatics as a subfield of linguistics deals with the way meanings are conveyed and interpreted in communication. It focuses predominantly on speech situation or speech event which is the central unit of spoken interaction. Speech events are performed to be comprehended as: **“activities that are directly governed by rules or norms for the use of speech”** (Hymes, 1972 : 56). Crystal (1997 : 301) defines Pragmatics as

The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make , the constraints they encounter in using language in socialinteraction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.

Pragmatics contains communicative acts which take a great area in this research. A communicative act, is actually an utterance or a set of utterances that speakers use to perform a sort of linguistic actions/ functions in communication. There are widely termed as *“Speech Acts”*.

1.2.1.1. Speech Acts: Searl’s and Austin Theory

There is a common sense argument among philosophers and linguists that : Constructing a statement can be the paradigmatic use of language, but there are all sorts of other things people can do with words. This view reveals that all linguistic communication involves linguistic acts (Searle: 1969) i.e., any utterance encompasses performative functions in language and communication; for example,

the way a spoken language is used. These functions are termed ‘*Speech Acts*’ (Austin¹:1962). According to Smith (1991:2) **“Speech acts theory is concerned with the ways in which language can be used”**. Searls (1969 : 16) **“Considers that speech act is the basic or minimal unit of linguistic communication”**. Austin (1962) ; on the other hand, cogitates that the function of speech act is a way of carrying out actions with words i.e., a speaker practises a communicative action using an utterance. Largely, speech acts are communication’s acts, that are applied to communicate and express particular attitudes such as: *a request, an apology, a promise, a regret, a disagreement, an approval* and so on. Searle (1964 : 2) asserts that : **“Austin claimed that there were over thousand such expressions in English”**.

Yule (1996); alternatively, describes speech acts as an act performed by the use of utterances for the sake of communication. Cohen (1995) defines it as a functional unit of communication that is conditioned by rules of production and interpretation. In fact, all these definitions affirm that speech acts are deemed to be the performance of various acts at once, differentiated by distinct characteristics of the interlocutor’s intention (Bach: 1979,). The variety that speech acts are characterized embodied in one major typical question *“What are the different types of speech acts speakers perform when they utter expressions?”*.

Recently, there have been noteworthy progress in the investigation of language use which seems to be quite massive and very fascinating, Crystal (1995: 286) argues **“When we begin to investigate the way English is used: we are faced immediately with bewildering array of situations, in which the features of spoken and written language appear in an apparently unlimited number of combinations and variations”**. The talk of language use or speech acts begins when speech was put in a problematic situation vis- à – vis its meaning which led to the emergence of some diagnostic inquiries that seek for an appropriate respond to what occurs with

¹ **John Langshaw Austin (1911-1960)** a British philosopher of language who is considered as the pioneer of the theory of ‘*Speech Acts*’.

sentences/utterances and their meaning: One of the prominent question is “*How meaning is described in relation to among the linguistic conventions correlated with words/sentences, in which the speaker says something to the hearer with particular intention?*” It is commonly noticed that people contribute more information than just what is said, this was introduced by Grice (1968) under the view of conversational implicatures which prepares a good ground for settling the idea of a principled account of additional meanings. Yet, speakers seem not to respect Grice’s maxims! As various utterances are expressed to communicate so many things in an indirect manner without a discernable additional meaning. This notable observation breaks down Gricean Maxims, consider the following utterances :

1- “*Something eat*” become a question marker

What would you like to eat?

2- “*Do you have a watch?*”

These utterances perform other actions than what they essentially appear to do. From this sort of examples the theory of speech act was born. Speech act, as a theory derived from the philosophy of language, Austin declares (Austin, 1962 : 1)

It was for too long the assumption of philosophers that the business of a ‘statement’ can only be to ‘describe’ some state of affairs, or to ‘state some fact’, which it must do either truly or falsely. (...) But now in recent years, many things, which would once have been accepted without question as ‘statements’ by both philosophers and grammarians have been scrutinized with new care.

It originated with J. L. Austin who published a book entitled “*How to do Things with Words*”², in which he appraises the correspondence between utterances and their actions. His outmost belief was that speakers do not use language merely to say things (make statements); nevertheless, to do things (perform actions), he (1962 : 12)

² <http://www.dwrl.utexas.edu/~davis/crs/rhe321/Austin-How-To-Do-Things.pdf>

states “ **To say something is to *do* something; in which by saying or in saying something we are doing something**”. Austin found out a group of utterances that he named ‘performatives’ wherein the production of words/ utterances constitutes the performance of actions. He indicates that the function of language is not restricted to informing or describing states of affairs as in constative utterances; language is a mode of action, too. He sustains that any speech act frequently involves three independent but interrelated acts: *Locutionary, illocutionary and Perlocutionary acts*

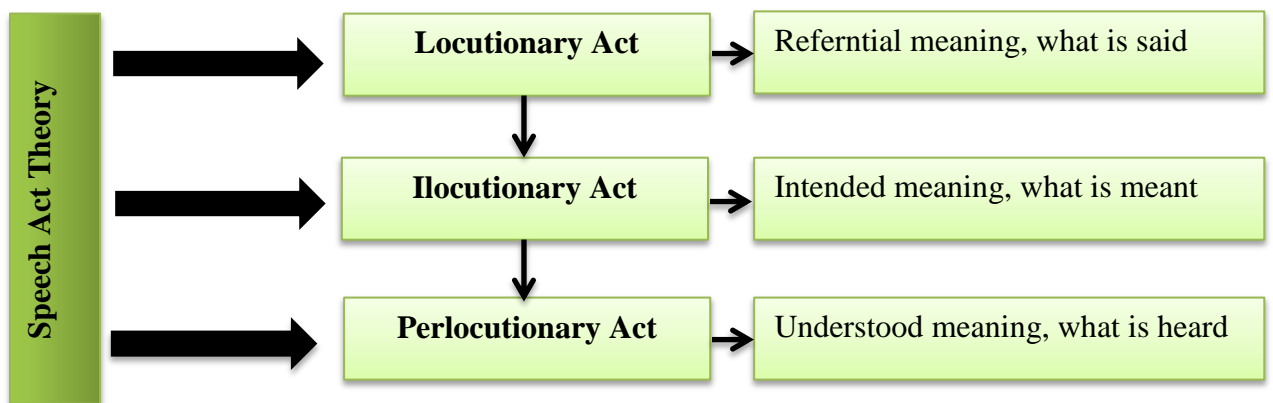


Diagram 1.1. A Demonstration of Speech Acts

As an attempt to respond to the foregoing quest “*What are the different types of speech acts speakers perform when they utter expressions?*”, it is crucial to distinguish three key layers or types of speech acts; in which the meaning of an utterance is analytically examined.

1. Locutionary Act:

It is the predominant act in the utterance, the propositional and the literal meaning of what is said. Yule (1996 : 48) defines it as “**The production of a meaningful linguistic expression**”. Austin (1962 : 101) provides the subsequent example:

Act (A) or Locution

He said to me ' Shoot her!' meaning by 'shoot' shoot and referring by 'her ' to ‘her’

2. Illocutionary Act: It is performing an utterance to do a function i.e., the social function of what is said.

Act (B) or Illocution (ibid)

He urged (or advised, ordered, & c.) me to shoot her.

3. Perlocutionary Force: It is the outcome or effect that is produced by means of saying something.

Act (C. a) or perlocution (ibid)

He persuaded me to shoot her.

Act (C. b)

He got me to (or made me, & c) shoot her.

It is concluded that seeking for an effective communication is not based only on the mastery of the grammatical rules, but also the pragmatic competence so that the speech act can appropriately be used in an adequate situations, taking into account both of the linguistic form and the context.

1.3. CONVERSATION AND INTERACTION

The current research focuses primarily on the analysis of spoken discourse i.e., utterances. Unlike written discourse, spoken discourse has its own special characteristics. One of them is that it is based on speech. Speech is distinct from texts. In this respect Grice (1985: 45) claims **“our talk exchanges do not normally consist of a succession of disconnected remarks, and would not be rational if they did. They are characteristically, to some degree at least, cooperative effort”**. Speakers produce different kinds of speech as they interact with each other,

for instance, casual conversations, debates, lectures..etc; moreover, they make sense of various types of registers or social languages and sometimes they may raise specific versions of reality or ideologies.

Speech is described as interactive, spontaneous, transient and speedy, the reason is that people do oral communication in ‘real time’; thus, conversation is, first of all, **“one of the most salient and significant modes of discourse”** (Brown, 2000: 255); conversations are exceptional examples of the interactive and interpersonal nature of communication. Hatch & Long (1980: 4) believe that **“conversations are cooperative ventures”**. According to Brown (2000: 42) a conversation is **“a universal human activity performed routinely in the course of daily living”**. Eggins & Slade (2004) state that it is through conversation that people form and refine their social reality. It encompasses distinct communicative situations or speech exchange systems (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson, 1974). Conversation, involving utterances, turn-taking, pauses, gaps and overlaps, may vary with the type and parameters of different interactions (Goffman, 1974, 1981). In an oral conversation the interlocutor may be interrupted, hesitate (e.g. *Umm*) or using expressions such as: ‘*you know*’, ‘*then*’...etc. It is co-constructed between the various parties involving in it. From one hand, because of the implicity of speech, listening is regarded as more challenging than reading. On the other hand, speech implicity leads to ambiguity which relies much more on the body language (gestures), facial expressions, stress, and intonation.

Conversation is basically characterized by its spoken interaction (Dunbar, 2003) with different types of speech (Bakhtin, 1986). The spoken interaction itself can be distinguished from one to another taking into account its distinct features. These numerous methods and perspectives are conceived as the ground of comprehensive understanding of what people do with words and their meanings when they are involved in conversations. A typical question may turn out in one’s mind about the rules that govern our conversations, *how do speakers get someone’s attention? How do people initiate topics? How do they terminate them? How does a person interrupt,*

correct, or seek clarification? There are three main rules that govern a spoken conversation (Brown: 2000):

- a- Attention Getting*
- b- Topic Development*
- c- Topic Termination*

No one can deny that these steps or rules that govern a conversation are so efficient for the accomplishment of the intended purpose, but no one cannot disagree on the fact that the speaker may not be effective in a conversation that is what H. P Grice (1975) held. Grice, later, coined what is known as : Grice’s Maxims which improve one’s power (Conversation Competence). These maxims are:

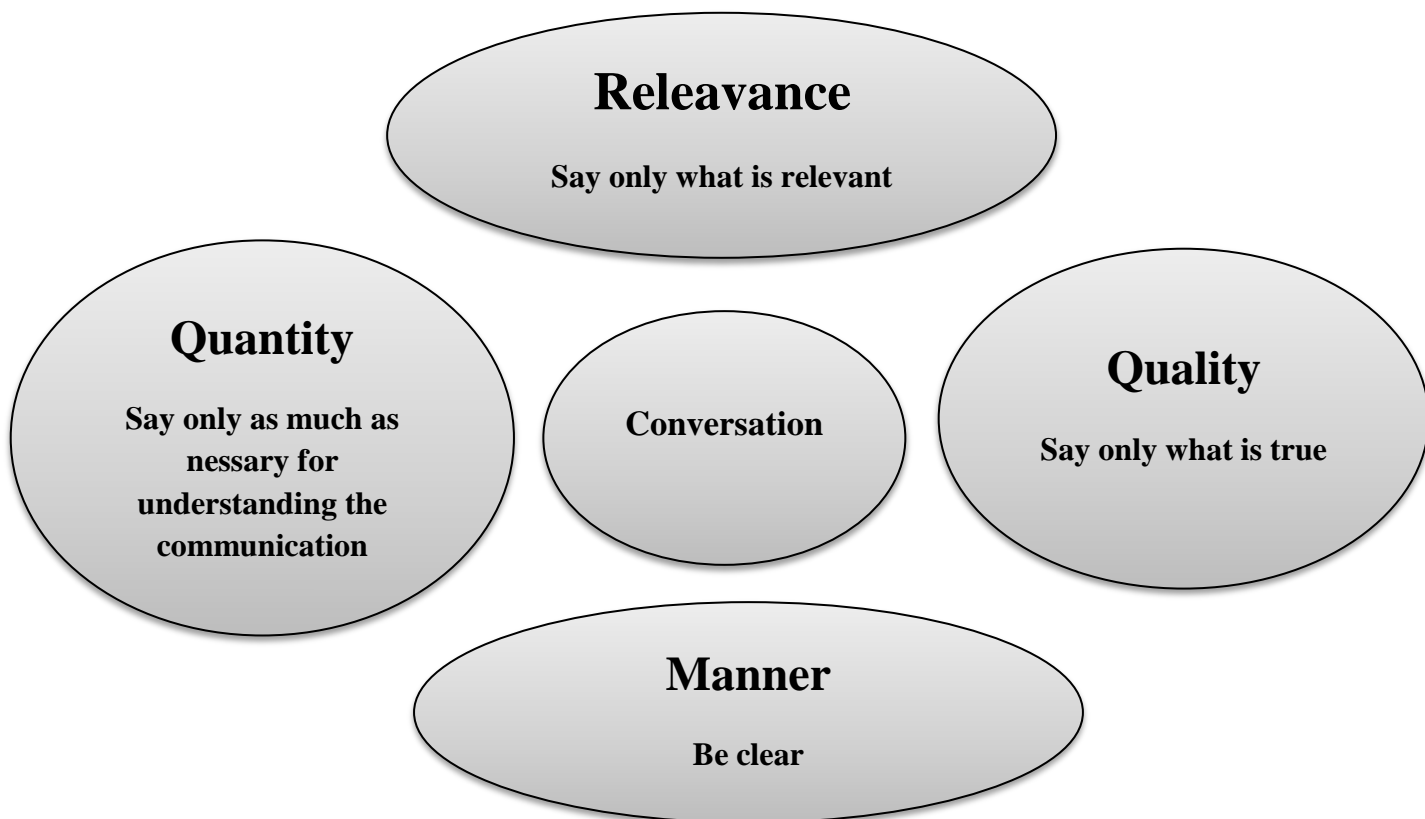


Diagram 1.2. Grice’s Maxims for an Effective Conversation

1.3.1. Interaction

Language is used for interaction and communication. Interaction is a sort of a spoken activity that people perform in which they may argue, flirt, commiserate, gossip within conversations. In this vein, Brown (2000: 29) states that **“Language is used for interactive communication”**. Interaction, as a process categorized by cohesive utterances, is largely restricted by Thornbury and Slade, 2006: 113) in the roles and positions the interlocutors perform:

“what roles speakers take on, how they position other interactants into particular roles, how turn taking and topic change occurs in contexts where one person is not in control (as for example in an interview) and the different kinds of feedback strategies that participants use”

Negotiation, in this respect, uncovers, of one exchange into another, the interrelated communicative and interactive stages between the interlocutor and the perceiver (Crystal, 1997); the fundamental interpretation of that interaction is identified by the distinct moves and exchanges that take-place in everyday conversations (Slade, 1996). The strategies used to negotiate are called conversational strategies. The conversational strategies can be divided into two major types: face strategies and framing strategies. Initially, face strategies demonstrate who people are and what kind of relationships they constitute with each other during an interaction. Framing strategies, on the other hand, displays people’s acts i.e., *arguing, teasing, flirting or gossiping*. These conversational strategies attempt to analyze and scrutinize everyday conversations with their roots in interactional sociolinguistics.

1.3.1.1. Interactional Sociolinguistics Method

It is considered as a subdiscipline of linguistics and one of the approaches to discourse analysis. It explores the way language users construct meanings through social interaction. It deals with the manner people use and interpret what they believe in and how they use words to reflect what they mean and which identity they represent in social interaction. It was the linguistic anthropologist Gumperz (1982a, 1982b) who drew on insights from anthropology, linguistics to confront some debatable subjects of interest which comprise: *cross-cultural miscommunication, politeness, and framing*. In this point, Jones (2012: 19) maintains:

One of the most important insights Gumperz had was that people belonging to different groups have different ways of signalling and Interpreting cues about conversational identity and conversational activities, and this can sometimes result in misunderstanding and even conflict. Not suprisingly, interactional sociolinguistics has been used widely in studies of intercultural communication between Anglo-British and South Asian immigrants to the UK.

As a research method, interactional sociolinguistics examines how speakers signal and interpret meaning in social interaction. Thus, an interactional linguist concentrate mainly on spoken language segmental tier such as: *words, register, utterances and language supra-segmental levels, prosody, body language* that signal contextual presupposition and the contextualization cues which are culturally and particularly distinct. Participants, involving in a certain conversation, may not uncounsciously recognize those cues especially if they belong to unsimilar cultural backgrounds. This eventually leads to a misunderstanding.

As a matter of fact, interactional sociolinguists don't merely study language in its social context, but rather it analyzes the use of interaction within language by closely

viewing a “*speech events*” in a specific community. In their works of ethnography and communication, Gumperz (1982) and Hymes (1972) arrived at defining speech communities to be various interms of their way of interacting. Methodologically, interactional sociolinguistics attempts to bridge the gulf between empirical communication forms and what the conversation’s participants take themselves to be doing with these forms. It relies on some audio-video recorded interaction which evolves an anthropological context of cross-cultural comparison, distinction and the seminal work that stresses the intercultural and intergroup miscommunication where uncouscious cultural expectations and practices are not shared.

It was the American sociolinguist Erving Goffman who introduces to discourse analysis the concept of face and frames. He (1967: 41) identifies the term “face” as **“the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken”**. According to Goffman people’s ‘face’ is concerned mainly with how successfully they can influence others to consent their ‘line’. The meaning of framing is defined by Goffman as the definitions of a situation which are tied up with principles of organization that rule events.

a- Face Strategies: (*showing who people are*)

Interlocuters can exploit spoken language as a means to realize their desires. Every human being was created with a face. That face consists of a set of goals that he wants to achieve and intends people to respect, however, the term face cannot be defined in the view of many researchers such as Yutang who proclaims that face cannot be translated or defined. There are still some assumed defintions and common attempts to figure out the notion of ‘*face*’. Face is the self reflection, the public self image through which people portray their emotions, moods or facial expressions. This was widely held by Huang (1987:71) who confirms that **“Face is a sense of worth that comes from knowing one's status and reflecting concern with the congruency between one's performance or appearance and one's real worth.”**

The differences on people's faces are related to the different cultures they belong to. In this respect, Brown and Levinson (1978:66) state:

Face is something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction. In general, people cooperate (and assume each other's cooperation) in maintaining face in interaction, such cooperation being based on the mutual vulnerability of face.

Face can be either positive or negative. In their definition of positive Brown and Levinson (1978: 61) claim that positive face may be recognized as either **“The positive consistent self-image or personality”** i.e., gaining the appreciation and approval of the conversation's participants or interactants of self-image. They (1978: 62) add that the positive face is also seem to be **“The want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others executors”** which means to say that the positive face expresses the desire to be acceptable. Brown and Levinson (ibid) also drew the attention to another type of face that is negative face, they mention that it is **“The want of every competent adult member that his actions be impeded by others”** or **“The basic claim to territorialize personal preserves, rights to non-distraction i.e., the freedom from imposition.”** Later on, studies have clarified the notion of both concepts; for instance, positive face is described as the desire to optimistically be loved, admired; however, negative face is characterized by ignorance or the want to be preserve and not to impose the self upon others. The two features of face are the principle desires that are universally existant in people's culture in any social interaction displayed through a social identity. Social identity is an antricate topic to deal with.

Knowing that the face is the mirror that reveals one's identity which depends on the persons with whom people interact. In particular, some people represent our members of family, others are friends, and some others are extremely strangers.

There are specific strategies and techniques that people use to illustrate how close or distant from others whom they interact with. These strategies are labelled ‘face strategies’. Going back to the definition of face, it is important to distinguish between face as true self and face which is one’s public image that reflect a social image. This denotes that face cannot be static, it is rather dynamic and changeable in every interation people perform.

People change their faces in relation to whom they talk to. If the interlocutor misuses the adequate face, he may eventually lose his face. In this respect, the casual saying of ‘giving face’ and ‘losing face’ have valuable sense in these technical definitions. Yutang (1935 : 199-200) elucidates:

Interesting as the Chinese physiological face is, the psychological face makes a still more fascinating study. It is not a face that can be washed or shaved, but a face that can be "granted" and "lost" and "fought for" and "presented as a gift". Here we arrive at the most curious point of Chinese social psychology.

So as to express those identities and negotiate them, there are two major kinds of strategies. The primary one is called ‘*involvement strategy*’, in which people communicate to transmit or establish intimacy with whom they interact to convey to them a sense of friendship; such as: calling them by their first names, nicknames, using informal language, asking personal questions. Nonetheless, the second strategy which is ‘*independence strategy*’. It is used to demonstrate friendliness, distant from others in an interactive contex. It includes the use of surnames, formal language, being indirect, apologising, and depersonalise the conversation.

Involvement Strategies	Independence Strategies
Unsing first names, nicknames (hello! Zahra)	Using titles (Good afternoon, Doctor Hameed)
Expressing interest(What have you been doing?)	Apologising (I'm terribly sorry for being late)
Claiming a common point of view(I totally agree with you)	Admitting differences(Of course, you know much more about it than I do.)
Making assumption (I guess you like chocolate cake)	Not making assumptions(How would you like your coffee today?)
Using informal language (Gonna go)	Using formal language (Excuse me, I have to go)
Being direct (let's go out)	Being Indirect and hedging (I wonder if you might go out with me)
Being optimistic (I am sure you'll find it easier)	Being pessimistic (I'm afraid you'll find it a bit difficult)
Being voluble (talkative)	Being taciturn (not talking too much)
Talking about 'us'	Talking about things other than 'us'

Table 1.1. Face Strategies

B. Framing Strategies (*Showing what people are doing*)

Communication is grounded on comprehension. Thus, to understand each other, it is necessary to examine how people interpret what others say. In this respect, context has crucial role to play in interpreting the meaning of particular utterances. Some utterances are characterized by changeable meaning which is based on what people are doing when they express them. For instance, the meaning of utterance by a taxi driver “*Where are you going?*”, it is completely distinct if uttered when the taxi driver is out of work. Accordingly, there are various expectations that might be interpreted in relation to the context where are said. Those expectations are named ‘frames’. In social sciences mainly social theory ‘framing’ is a schema of interpretation, it can also be a collection of anecdotes and stereotypes that persons depend on to recognize what is said and respond to events. Framing is a fundamental element in sociology and key aspect of social interaction which serves in conveying

and perceiving data. It reduces the ambiguity of intangible subjects by contextualizing what people say.

Goffman (1983), who was inspired by the anthropologist Gregory Bateson, has named the set of anticipations people make about the the interactive activities they are engaged in “*primary framework*’. The primary framework is defined as the prior expectations people hold about certain activity in particular context, such as attending a religious class, people expect the lecturer to deliver his spiritual lesson being serious, strict and so on, nevertheless, there might be some changes that are called ‘*frame changes*’ that break the primary framework and introduce new meaning and different context. These frame changes are called ‘*interactive frameworks*’, for example, one may observe two people talking to each other aggressively, as a primary framework, he will interpret that activity to be an invitation to fight, relying this activity on the context, they show hostile gestures seemingly as they are engaging in a fight, they start slapping each other, trying to bite one another, then suddenly, it seemed obviously that they were playing instead of fighting i.e., frame changes occur to demonstrate that the activity should not be interpreted as aggression or a call to fight but rather an invitation to play.

The new concept of ‘*playing*’, which was in the above example a way of communication between the two individuals, instead of ‘*fighting*’ embodies the real meaning of interactive framework.

1.4. LANGUAGE AND LOGIC

Language, being the tool of science and knowledge, is used differently to convey the formal patterns of exact reasoning. However, it is sometimes misused or its ways which provide reasons for particular beliefs are irrelevant. A very interesting inquiry was raised by Barwise and Etchemendy (1999:1) about the subject matter and what is carried by language and shared in common in the distinctive fields of

research. They quest “ **What do the fields of astronomy, economics, finance law, mathematics, medicin, physics and sociology have in common?**”. Regardless of the subject matter or methodology that may display a huge distinction between the above fields, what connects them is their reliance and dependence on specific standard of rationality. In each of these sciences; it is presumed that speakers or writers apply argumentation. Participants involved in discussion or conversations may use language to express rational arguments grounded on assumed principals that represent evidence and reason, or they may speculate wildly and provide arguments which do not originate from logic. As it is widely recognized that language is the means by which people interact verbally and non-verbally in many different ways for many different purposes, it is then worthy before going further to analyse the correlation between language and logic in argumentation, to identify the three fundamental uses of language that occur in communcation:

1- Informative use of language: It comprises declarative sentences to inform, or to emphasize the information. The informative use of language implied an effort to communicate. This type of the use of language supports that what is being said, is considered as valid as it is based on correct reasoning. Actually, the informative use of language has many uses, nonetheless, in the present investigation, the researcher will concentrate primarily on the one with arguments. For instance: “ *The fifth of July is the the Algerian independence day*”. In this utterance one may detect that language is used informatively.

2- An expressive use of language: The foremost function of an expression use of language is to expel some emotions (Crystal, 1992). For instance: “*Sunday mornings are tedious*” or the expression “*Oh! My God*”. In this way, language is used expressively.

3- Directive uses of language: It is targeted to command some actions, such as: “*Come here, now!*”. Or “*Don’t listen to them*”. In this case, there is an authoritative demand to make a person performs certain actions. Although, this kind of use has a

substantial linguistic function, but it is not attached rationally to the truth nor related to some beliefs or values.

Sometimes one utterance may involve two or all the types of uses, as in “*I am hungry*”. This utterance can be used to state a physiological condition, or to express a feeling, or it may represent an implicit request to be fed. This mixed variety of the functions of language within one utterance is widely formed and used unconsciously. The utterance “*Do not blame it on me*” seems to carry both expressive and directive functions mutually. However, it is suggested that those types of functions of language may have one primarily single use of language that is most intended.

The use of words and phrases may exhibit the difference between solely informative partly expressive uses which comprise two basic meanings that refer to the nature and the way things are arranged, the second meaning is described as an emotive meaning which expresses feelings. *But how can one distinguish or separate the two functions if they are interrelated?* It is obvious that people often transmit some portion of feelings along with the information through language. The complexity behind what is done with language relies on logic.

Logic is initially described as the science of reasoning, classified as a non-empirical science unlike the other experimental and observational sciences such as: biology and chemistry. These empirical disciplines are considerably based on reasoning. However, it is not their task to distinguish, or even identify how logic functions, nor whether they are reasoning appropriately or inappropriately. Logic, is the only field that draws a distinction between correct reasoning from incorrect reasoning. To understand the conception of logic, it is imperative to explain what it is meant by reasoning.

Reasoning, as a matter of fact, is a unique mental movement labeled “inferering”. It is also recognized as the human ability for deliberately providing sense of things in respect to logic, it establishes facts, serves in justifying or altering beliefs, attitudes,

traditions, and religions. Reasoning exhibits definitively the humans nature as they are exclusively the one of creatures who possess the innate capacity for thinking. Cognition which is a set of mental processes that are associated with knowledge, attention, judgement and evaluation, awareness and so forth, is the essence of thinking that is the heart of reasoning.

To reason is alteratively to conceptualize or infer. Inferring, on the other hand, is a mental activity of performing inferences. In the current study, one's sharper focus is to link reasoning and logic to particular context. From an argumentative view point, the reasoning process deals with input as premises and the production of output as conclusions. In similar vein, to infer denotes to draw conclusions from statements (premises) or data which state facts In every special case of inferring a conclusion 'C' from P_1, P_2, P_3 ...etc. In this respect, logic stands for the inference of 'C' on the basis of P_1, P_2, P_3 and indicate whether they are warranted. So as to simplify the analysis of reasoning, it is vital to consider logic as the device that treats all the inferences which are made on the basis of numerous sorts of data, facts, information as a one single sort of thing '*statements*'. Logic consistently tackles inferences interms of collections of statements, those statements represent arguments.

It is universally believed that individuals use language to reason and it is this function of language with which logic is involved. The primary purpose of logic is to progress humans' critical thinking, to recognize, to construct, analyze and evaluate arguments. To achieve these degrees of critical thinking, one should be able to split the argumentative uses of language from any other uses. From a logician's perspective, arguments are not conflicts nor confrontations, but rather a linguistic entity, an object that includes specific properties.

1.5. COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY

Cognitive psychology is comparatively a modern subfield of psychology which encompasses all the human mental activities such as: *decision-making, problem-solving, language acquisition, language use, memory, attention* and so on. The core focus of cognitive psychology is the way people think, perceive and comprehend and above all how they acquire and accumulate the information. The term cognitive psychology was formerly proclaimed by the American psychologist Ulric Neisser in his book “*Cognitive Psychology*”. Neisser (1967) presumes that cognition comprises all the mental processes by which the sensory input is covered, decreased, stored, recovered and used. There are three significant contributing theories within cognitive psychology.

- **Rational Emotive Behaviour Therapy (REBT):** To begin with, rational emotive behavior therapy (REBT) was previously named as “rational therapy” or “Emotive therapy”. The REBT is regarded as the foremost cognitive therapies. It was held by Albert Ellis. It is based on the hypothesis that human beings are involved within their own psychological problems by means of their understanding and interpretation. Its core of focus is to expose the illogical beliefs that may produce unhealthy destructive. REBT suggests a ‘biosychosocial model’, known as ‘ABC model’. It attempts to uncover the irrational beliefs and change them to rational ones. ABC model is divided into:

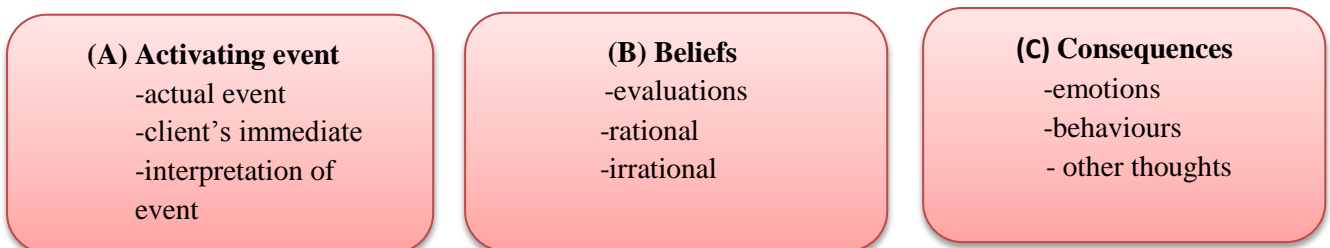


Diagram 1.3. A, B, C Framework of REBT

- **Cognitive Therapy (CT):** is the second theory is the result of the researches of Aron T. Beck who observed that the majority of depressed people possess a negative interpretation of life events. It is labeled as “ Cognitive theory”which states that any psychological distress is caused by distorted thoughts about stimuli and emotions.

- **Cognitive Behaviour Therapy (CBT):** it is carried out by Donald Meichebaum who was famous for his contributions in cognitive psychology. He created a technique named ‘CBM’ i.e., cognitive behaviour modification which emphasizes the negative self-talk so as to change the undesirable behaviours.

1.5.1. Critical Thinking

We, as human beings, think, this is our nature. However, why a great deal of that thinking is biased, uninformed, unreasonable and sometimes opinionated? The probable answer is because it is non-critical thinking rather than critical thinking. In the diagram below an illustration of a comparison between non-critical thinking and critical thinking:

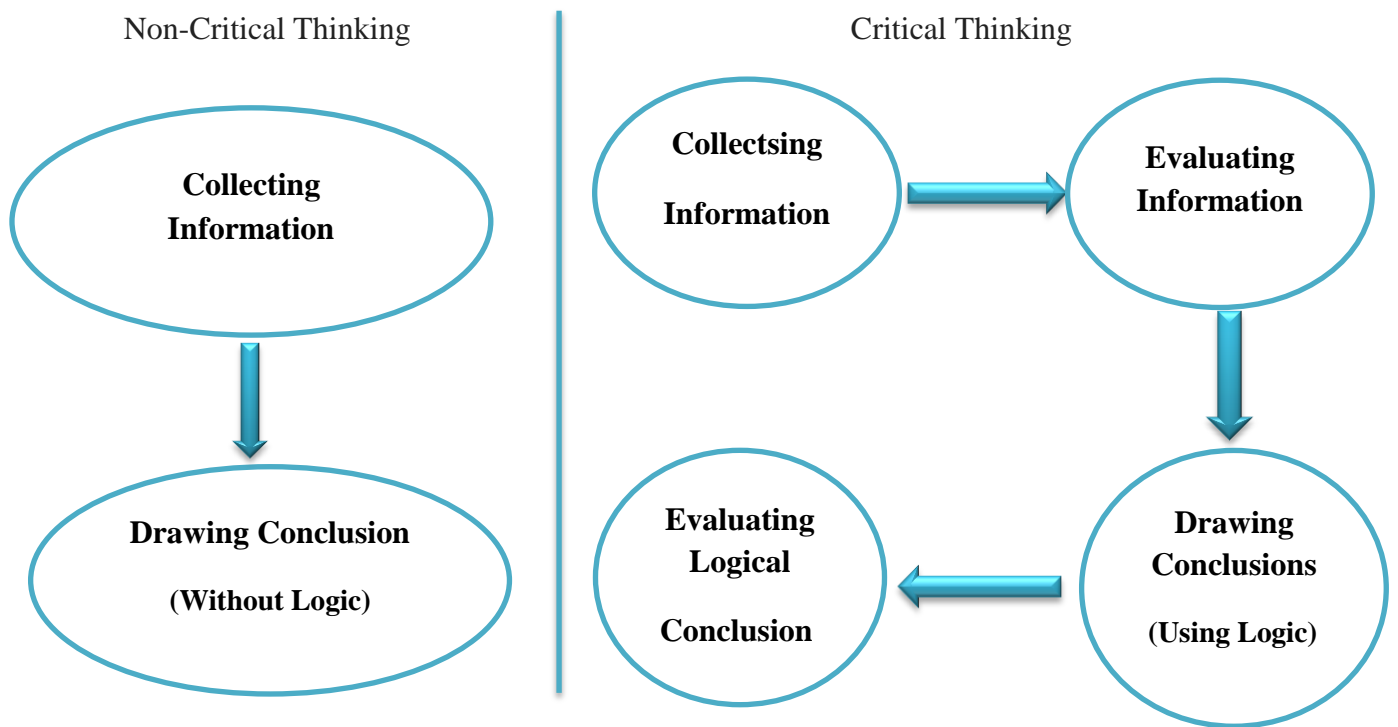


Diagram 1.4. A Comparison between Non-Critical Thinking and Critical Thinking

To limit the scope of this investigation, critical thinking is used as a medium in argumentation by which conversation participants attempt at **“analyzing arguments, making inferences using inductive and deductive reasoning, judging or evaluating, and making decision or solving problems”** (Lai, 2011: 2). McPeck (1981: 8) identifies critical thinking as **“the propensity and skill to engage in an activity with reflective skepticism”**. It is also defined as the capacity to think evidently and rationally, in this vein, Facione (1990: 3) states that it is **“purposeful, self-regulatory judgement which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation, and conceptual, methodological, criteriological, or conceptual considerations upon which that judgement is based”**. It is described as the ability to comprehend the logical connections between ideas.

Critical thinking is based on two major disciplines: Philosophy and psychology (Lewis & Smith, 1993). Other scholars such as Sternberg (1986) has perceived

another stand in the field of education. These distinct strands have introduced different perspectives to delineating critical thinking. Those perspectives are embedded in three approaches which are: The philosophical approach, the cognitive psychological approach and the educational approach.

The first approach concentrates mainly on the hypothetical critical thinker, highlighting the features of this thinker instead of the behaviors or actions he/she can perform (Lewis & Smith 1993; Thayer-Bacon, 2000). An ideal critical thinker as it is noted by Facione (1990) is someone who is inquisitive in nature, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded, has desire to be well-informed, and accepts diverse viewpoints. The cognitive psychologists of the second approach focuses basically on how people actually think versus how they could or should think under ideal circumstances (Sternberg, 1986).

The third approach hold by educational practitioners like Benjamin Bloom who believe that there are three highest tiers within the critical thinking which are: analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Kennedy et al., 1991). This approach is grounded on classroom experience and observations of students learning.

Although the distinctions among these schools in identifying the conception of critical thinking, they share some common thoughts which lead them to areas for agreement. For instance, all critical thinking researchers agree on particular abilities such as: “analyzing arguments, claims, or evidence” (Ennis, 1985, Facione, 1990; Halpern, 1998; paul, 1992), “making inferences, using inductive or deductive reasoning” (Ennis, 1985; Facione, 1990; paul, 1992; Willingham, 2007), “judging or evaluating” (Case, 2005; Ennis, 1985; Facione, 1990; Lipman, 1988).

As early as 1985, researchers in the field of critical thinking distinguish between the ability to think critically and the disposition to do so (Ennis, 1985) i.e., the notion of critical thinking abilities and dispositions is not the same, in effect, they are discrete entities (Facione, 2000). Dipositions have been defined as attitudes or habits of mind,

in this respect, Facione (2000: 6) asserts that they are “**consistent internal motivations to act towards or respond to persons, events or circumstances in habitual, yet potentially malleable ways**”. According to many researchers, these critical thinking dispositions can be precised in the ensuing criteria:

- ✚ **Open-mindedness** (Bailin et al., 1999; Ennis, 1985; Facione 1990, 2000; Halpern, 1998)
- ✚ **Fair-mindedness** (Bailin et al., Facione, 1990)
- ✚ **The propensity to seek-reason** (Bailin et al., 1999; Ennis, 1985; Paul, 1992)
- ✚ **inquisitiveness** (Bailin et al., 1999; Facione, 1990, 2000)
- ✚ **the desire to be well-informed** (Ennis, 1985; Facione, 1990)
- ✚ **Flexibility** (Ennis, 1985; Facione, 1990)
- ✚ **respect for, and willingness to entertain, others’ viewpoints** (Facione, 1990; Halpern, 1998), Quoted in (Lai, 2011: 10-11)

1.5.1.1. Language Handicapped : Thought Disorder

Thought disorder (TD) is an umbrella term of language handicapped. It has long been regarded as disorganized and chaotic thinking that is clearly appeared in disordered speech. It encompasses: *poverty of speech, illogicality, thought blocking, tangentiality, derailment and neologism* (Yudofsky & Hales, 2002) incoordination..etc. It is also described as a hallmark of schizophrenia which is considered as “*detailements*” (Kraepelin, 1919). Bleuler (1911/1950, 1924) maintains that the main characteristics of disordered or schizophrenic thinking is “*Loosing of associations*” as in incoherent speech and condensations of ideas. Other researchers state that disorders of thinking refer to organic brain diseases

(Andereasen & Powers, 1974; Cameron, 1944; Carlson & Goodwin, 1973; Clayton, Pitts & Winokur, 1965; Edell, 1987; Gershon, Benson & Frazier, 1974; Goldstein, 1944; Harrow & Quinhan, 1985; Johnston & Holzman, 1979; O’Connell, Cooper, Peer, & Hoke, 1989; Shenton, & Holzman, 1987).

- a- **poverty of speech:** or Alogia is a Greek term which denotes ‘*with speech*’. It was named by the American Psychiatric Association (2000) as ‘*poverty of Speech*’. Alogia is often described as a lack of speech as an outcome of disruption in the thinking process.

- b- **Incoordination:** The incapacity to link rationally and harmoniously thoughts and ideas.

- c- **Illogicality:** It is a type of thought disorder that implies the construction of illogical arguments due to illogical reasoning.

- d- **Tangentiality:** It refers to a deviation from a relevant topic to an inappropriate subject. It is often happened when the person suffers from high anxiety.

- e- **Derailment:** or loosing association is a kind of thought disorder which involves discourse containing disassociated of ideas (a syndetic) or (incoherence) (Sims, 2003) (Mckenna, 1997). Entgleisen or derailment was formerly introduced by Carl Schneider in 1930 (sims, 2003), however, it was termed ‘asyndesis’ by N. Cameron in 1938. On the other hand, it was called “loosing of association” by A. Blender in 1950 (Thompson, Mathias and Lyttle, 2000).

- f- **Neologism:** is a Greek word which denotes “*Speech utterance*”. The term signifies a person’s distinctive and unique use of vocabulary, grammar and

pronunciation i.e., language. In psychiatry, it is identified as the use of words that make sense only to an individual who uses them.

In the context of a conversation or discussion, participants whilst speaking, arguing or debating a particular topic, they may encounter this phenomenon which may be the central reason behind their mental disability and consequently speech disaffection.

1.6. ARGUMENTATION THEORY AND ARGUMENTS

Argumentation theory or argumentation is a verbal activity which happens by means of language usage and social activity of reason which is a rule targeted to other people aimed at increasing or decreasing the acceptability of a controversial perspective for the listener or reader, by setting onward a collection of propositions intended to justify the standpoint before a rational judge and rational activity that is commonly based on logical and analytical contemplation. Van Eemeren et and Grootendorst (1:2004) confirm:

Argumentation is a verbal, social, and rational activity aimed at convincing a reasonable critic of the acceptability of a standpoint by putting forward a constellation of propositions justifying or refuting the proposition expressed in the standpoint

Argumentation is most often occurred in an ordinary language. Contrary to what some scholars in the field of argumentation theory seem to imply, many theorists inversely hold that the term “*argumentation*” is generally defined differently according to the use of some technical jargon.

The word argumentation has two foremost definitions relying in their meaning on, from one angle, the ordinary usage of the word “*argumentation*” and the way in which it would be described in everyday language, and from another angle, it is based on a conceptual analysis of the theoretical notion of the term “*argumentation*”. The meaning of the technical term of “*argumentation*” tends to be more precise in comparison to the ordinary one. It presents the “process-product”³ an identifiable and new contract of language use contrived to allow researchers of argumentation to deal with this concept sufficiently.

In argumentation, people use words and sentences to argue, to agree or disagree to interrupt or to deny. Nonverbal communication is accompanied with verbal communication in argumentation which said to be critical. Furthermore, argumentation is a communal action, which in principle, is directed to other people. It is also an activity of reason, when people put forward their arguments where they place their considerations within the monarchy of logic. Argumentation is always related to a standpoint. An opinion itself is not enough; arguments are needed when people differ on a standpoint. Eventually, the goal of argumentation is to justify one’s viewpoint or to refute someone else’s. Argumentation is an interdisciplinary review of how people express their arguments through logical reasoning. It comprises civil debates, dialogues, conversations and negotiation...etc.

Historically speaking, argumentation has subsisted since the 19th century which indicates that it had a significant role to play in dialogues and conversations. Argumentation; thenceforth, became a dynamic issue among the populace and extensively spread in society. For instance, in the United States of America, argumentation and debating were expanded to be a foremost subject on universities and colleges. The early 1960’s and 1970’s witnessed the immergence of the so-called “New Rhetoric” which was founded by Perelman and Toulmin who were the pioneer and the most prominent reviewer on argumentation.

³ “process-product” means the process of arguing. For example: I am approximately going to conclude my argumentation. Product indicates; for instance, that this argumentation is not sound.

The research was primarily begun with Perelman's attempt to bring to light an account of potential methods and techniques of argumentation expended by people to retrieve the approbation of others for their viewpoints. The term 'New Rhetoric' was coined by Perelm and Tyteca; however, an idea was already appeared at the beginning of 1950's then it took the shape of a theory. Toulmin tried to elucidate the way argumentation befalls in the natural process of daily conversations. He termed his theory 'The uses of argument'.

Argumentation in its definitions could merely subsist in debates and negotiations which are involved with accomplishing mutually satisfactory reasoning. Many sociolinguists assert that argumentation could be no more than an art. This art is frequently the means by which people safeguard their beliefs or self-interests in logical dialogues, in familiar vernacular and during the process of debating (arguing). Argumentation was studied as a means of determining the difference of opinions seeking for persuasion and conversion. It stands on four major values:

- 1) **Externalization:** Argumentation necessitates an opinion and a rivalry to that opinion. Thus, argumentation research focuses on the externalizable commitments rather than the psychological elements of people.
- 2) **Socialization:** arguments are considered as an expression of people's processes. It is quite critical to authenticate the arguer's position by arguments in a particular way; for instance: Two people attempt to get an arrangement in argumentation; accordingly argumentation is a part of a social context rather than a singular context.
- 3) **Functionalization:** Argumentation possesses are the overall meaning of managing the resolution of disagreement. Investigating the essence of argumentation should be grounded on the function of argumentation in the verbal management of disagreement.
- 4) **Dialectification:** Argumentation is

satisfactory simply if a speaker is able to exploit arguments that can help him/her arguing against another person.

1.6.1. ARGUMENTS AND THEIR STRUCTURE

Deriving from communication, social debates, argumentation theory, an argument is described as an attempt to persuade someone of something. However, this may not be true. An argument is made to address a specific problem, by offering a position and providing reasons for that position. It is an exertion to justify a specific situation. The term '*Argument*' is derived from the verb '*to argue*'. Arguing may purely denote '*to debate*', '*to discuss*' customarily between people of diverse opinions which may lead to disagreement; consequently, most argumentative people become annoyed. Disagreements can escalate and turn to be disputes and the latter one into conflicts and eventually be violent. Arguments should be grounded on negotiation, discussion, mediation listening, learning and accepting the other point of view. Arguments are largely found where there is a debate or dispute about a certain subject wherein people attempt to settle the controversy.

Linguistically, an argument is a phrase that assists and complete the meaning of a predicate, incidentally, Predicates can take more than one arguments, the combination of the predicate and its arguments form a *predivate-argument structure*. The structure of an argument in a natural language consists of the premises that strengthen the claim and is offered as a justification for believing the truth and then draw a conclusion. The premises are specific statements that provide the reasons or evidence supporting one's conclusion, an argument may carry one premise or more.

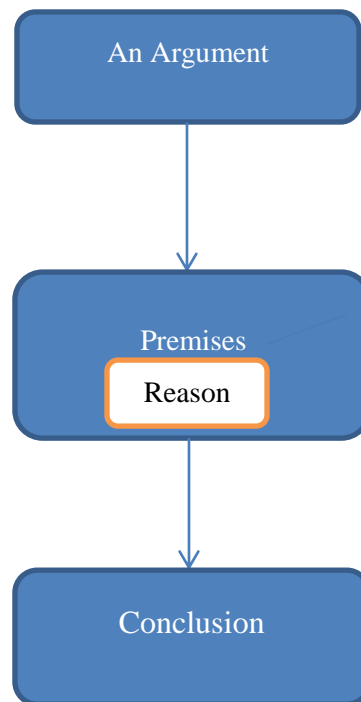


Diagram 1.5. The Structure of an Argument

The conclusion is; of course, the position that the interlocutor is arguing for, in this vein, Govier (2009:1) maintains: “**an argument is a set of claims in which one or more of the premises are put forward so as to offer reasons for another claim, the conclusion. An argument may have several premises, or it may have only one**”. An argument can occur within an opinion to provide a reason that validates it. For example:

- a- *Dogs howl*
- b- *Boby is a dog*
- c- *Boby howls*

In the above example the primary two sentences are the premises that indicate reasons for why the conclusion “*boby howls*” is cited; consequently, it is concluded that on account of the assertions put in the premises, the conclusion is accepted. A

typical argument might have two major figures, one is “strong argument” and the second is “weak argument”. Strong arguments are generally identified as “convincing arguments” that are based upon facts and credible reasons; on the other hand, arguments that are meant to be frail are unconvincing and may appear unreasonable, deceptive or erroneous. An argument usually arises from disagreements among people in conversations.

In argumentation analysis, argumentation is broadly regarded to comprise a set of statements put forward to reinforce or rebut, justify or refute some other statements. These statements are provisionally referred to as “*point of view*” or “*arguments*”. The potency of an argumentation is frequently assessed by its quality which can merely founded if it is evident what standpoints argumentation is assumed to support or disprove. When arguing, it often sounds problematic to determine which point of view is at issue, and it correspondingly becomes impossible to state whether the argumentation is relevant. In this perplexing state, it will be difficult to place the standpoints adequately as either a support or refute. However, this might not be the only salient problem that social psychologists, informal logicians, dialecticians, advocates, rhetoricians, and argumentative discourse analysts encounter while analyzing and evaluating viewpoints.

Eemeren and Houtlosser (1996) was among the scholars who hold that it is arduous to discover the point of view that is at issue in specific case. Amongst the pivotal issues in the analysis of argumentation is how discourse psycho-analysts effectively identify arguments in written or spoken argumentative product. For this current issue to be settled and resolved it should primarily be obvious which conception of a point of view or argument must be adopted. In this respect, one may inquire about the way the object argumentation be comprehended. There is no definite answer for such question, since it relays mostly on the theoretical perspectives from which argumentation is approached. It is quite intricate to agree on one common notion of the term “*standpoint*” or “*point of view*”.

Distinct perspectives are essentially motivated by different interests and affairs. The interests and affairs have some results for the way in which the object of argumentation is perceived. Unlike logicians, social psychologists; for example, are concerned with the degree to which persuasive outlooks influence people's stances, from one hand, informal logicians are interested precisely in the conditions under which conclusions can be derived from premises in normal arguments.

Discourse analysts, on the other hand, are attracted by the way people propose and state their viewpoints in discussions. Nevertheless, dialecticians care much about the extent to which opinions are up to critical inquiry. It is mentioned earlier in the introduction that this chapter is an overview of the argumentation theory and the various ways in which the object of argumentation is portrayed by numerous approaches and methods.

1.7. DIFFERENT APPROACHES TO VIEWPOINTS

Among the famous approaches to argumentation that characterize the notion of "argument" is the pragma-dialectical approach (Amsterdam School), the classical and formal dialectic approach, these two approaches differ from corresponding conceptions of a "*standpoints*" or "*arguments*" used in contemporary argumentation researches. The notion of "standpoints" is different in comparison to the notions applied in socio-psychological research on persuasion, cognitive research on reasoning , argumentative discourse analysis; structuralist and procedural, informal logic; advocacy as well as debate and the communication action approach to argumentation.

1.7.1. The Pragma-Dialectical Approach

The pragma-dialectical argumentation theory is based principally on the critical evaluation of the argumentative discourse. There is an assumption that indicates that argumentation belongs to critical discussion meant to resolve a distinction of viewpoints. A proposed model has been established which implied the stages of the resolution process and the several varieties of speech acts that are influential in each of these stages. The model of a critical discussion serves as an empirical instrument in the process of analytic reconstruction and as an evaluative tool in the process of critical assessment. The object of argumentation denotes in a pragma-dialectical approach “*standpoint*”. The notion of the pragma-dialectical standpoint corresponds to the metatheoretical maxims of externalization, functionalization, socialization, and dialectification. In concurrence with the maxim of externalization, a standpoint is not referred to as a psychological attitude, or rational and mental states, instead it is a verbal conversed position transmitting particular warrants and commitments.

In agreement with the principle of functionalization, what is taken into account, is not merely the proposal that displays a standpoint to be the subject to the analysis, however, the communicative speech acts proceeding a standpoint are also esteemed. In accord with the maxim of socialization, a viewpoint is viewed as not an individual or personal argument that expresses a someone’s subjective outlook, but as a community statement set forth for approval or disapproval by a target listener or reader who is supposed not to hold the speaker or author’s opinion. The principle of dialectification considers justification of an accepted standpoint only if that standpoint appears to be resistant to the criticisms of an antagonist in an argumentative discussion. Frans Van Eemeren and Rob Grootendorst(1995:5), in pragma-dialectical perspective on argumentative discourse, describe a standpoint as

an externalized position a speaker or writer in regard to a formulated viewpoint. This perspective can be clearly shown with the assistance of a typical paraphrase:

“My point of view in respect to[the opinion] O is that O is/ is not the case”

Any standpoint is characterized by being either positive or negative. Starting with positive standpoints, the speaker or the writer externalizes a positive state in a verbalized opinion. For instance:

O₁: “I think that violence against women is a universal issue”

If the standpoint is negative, the interlocutor or writer externalizes a negative position. For example:

O₂: “I don’t think that violence against women is a universal issue”

The negative or positive position always pertains to an opinion which can also be negative or positive. Such as:

*O₃: [(I don’t) think that] violence against women is a universal issue. Or
[(I don’t) think that] violence against women (is not) a universal issue.*

In advancing a position with regard to an opinion, the interlocutor or writer has the intention to defend that position when requested to do so. In externalization the speaker or writer assumes to justify the opinion in respect of the position whether it is positive or negative for the audience. Advancing a standpoint in speech activity, is defined as a speech act with its felicity conditions . In this vien, two central questions are relevant: *1) what type of speech act is used in advancing a standpoint?*

1) What are the conditions under which this speech act is performed successfully?

Van Fan Eemeren and Grootendorst (1984: 96) maintain that there are various types of speech acts among which: *assertive, commissive, directive, expressive or declarative*. They state that advancing a standpoint is synonymous to performing an assertive speech act, since only speech acts that pertain to the category of

assertives include a commitment to the correctness of the proposed content of speech acts used. Pragmatically, it is not true that every stand point is absolutely progressed as an assertive. Yet with other speech acts types, the felicity conditions of advancing a standpoint can be split into two main gatherings: 1) *Identity conditions* implying what makes a statement a performance of a given speech act. 2) *Correctness conditions* which indicates an entire truthful performance of speech acts⁴. Both of the identity conditions and the correctness conditions construct a definition of the speech act of advancing a standpoint. According to Houtlosser (1996,75:83) the felicity conditions are explicitly classified as follows:

Identity Conditions

Propositional Content Condition

- 1- The propositional content of the standpoint consists of an expressed opinion O.
- 2- O consists of one or more utterances.

Essential Condition

Advancing a standpoint counts as taking responsibility for a positive position in respect to O, i.e., as assuming an obligation to defend a positive position in respect to O, if requested to do so.

Correctness Conditions

Preparatory Condition

- 1- Speaker S believes that listener L does not (already, at face value, completely) Accept O.
- 2- S believes that he can justify O for L with the help of arguments.

Sincerity Condition

- 1 -S believes that O is the case.⁴

⁴ Ibid

2 -S has the intention to justify 0 for L with the help of arguments if requested to do so.

An utterance can also serve as a standpoint without having been represented as such. This perspective is held by the pragma-dialectical approach on argumentative discourse. An instructive assertive; for example, may begin to behave about what is provided in the assertive speech act. The speaker, in this case, must not perform speech acts that are unacceptable to the receiver. In case the performs a speech act that seems not satisfactory to the listener, thenceforth, he ought to try to make it acceptable or he should remove it. That is to say, the assertive speech act, which is explicitly or implicitly incorrect or not sound and it is not accepted by the listener and yet has not been retracted the speaker, must be justified by to convince the listener. Another type of speech acts which non-assertive can also motivate a speaker to endorse a standpoint. For instance, a request may turn to a stand point where a speaker is obliged to defend his opinion or retract it. If the speaker requests the listener to help him to do something and the listener is not predisposed to comply with that request, the speaker, then, must either proof his request or withdraw, otherwise, he impedes the natural process of communication. This can clearly be shown in the subsequent conversation:

S: "Would you hold the door for me, please?" —————> *request*

L: "Why" —————> *an inquiry about the information*

S: " I've got these boxes to carry" —————> *standpoint's justification*

S: " Ok! Leave it!" —————> *speaker's retraction*

If the request is justified by the speaker, this means to say that he essentially defends the opinion that his request is acceptable. He consequently implies that he takes a positive standpoint with regard to the opinion at issue.

1.7.2. Socio-Psychological Research of Persuasion

At the heart of socio-psychological research of persuasion is the conception of the term “attitude”. For social psychologists, the term “attitude” denotes a person’s inner, positive or negative assessment of an object, another person’s evaluation, an institution, an event, a product, a policy in respect of particular beliefs about the assumed possessions and properties of that object (Daniel O’keefe: 1990). Attitudes are widely described as not being inherently innate but they are a “residue of experience”⁵. They are persisting and including a nature to function in a specific way. To really understand the notion of an attitude, one may refer to the argumentative utterances. For instance, holding a negative attitude towards Islamic world and muslims on account of some prejudices, may not be altered because of few positive reports. An arguer, in this case, will endure to squeeze out negatively.

The notion of “attitude” can obviously be elucidated in comparison to the pragma-dialectical delineation of a standpoint. This comparison may seem to be a rather small distinction, but it is actually a crucial one, since it prevents the assumption that an attitude and a standpoint share the same meaning. However, when comparing an attitude with a standpoint, some noticeable divergences emerge. While characterizing the nature of an attitude, it is affirmed that it is an inner mental state of mind; however, a standpoint is described as an externalized position. The empirical notion of the two terms reveals truly their nature. This is shown in the second distinction between the two concepts.

Only standpoints involve a commitment to argue. Nevertheless, standpoints cannot exist beyond the confines of mind, that is to say, a standpoint is based on an attitude and it is coherently inspired by it. Another difference is that attitudes have a disposition to cope with a specific situation, and this is what standpoints lack. Moreover, the speaker’s standpoint is not committed to be embodied on his behavior,

⁵ Ibid

it is only to be reliable to the other externalized positions proposed by the same interlocutor in the same discussion. The last difference is that standpoints do not endure, unlike attitudes since their existence subsist until the end of the critical conversation. Then, they have ultimately either been accepted where they are objected to the truth and no longer subjected to doubt neither they carry the status of a standpoint; otherwise, they are retracted and consequently vanished.

1.7.3. Cognitive Research on Reasoning

In cognitive research on reasoning, the conception of “belief” is the pivot object of argumentation. The term “belief” has actually a crucial role to play, this is clearly displayed in some researches. In his works, *‘thought’* (1973) and *‘Change in View’* (1986) Gilbert Harman states that beliefs are mental attitudes that do not belong to any object, but rather to a relation between an object and a particular characteristic or state. For example:

“Adam is in the school”

The above statement holds the belief that the feature *“being in school”* is attached to the object *“Adam”*. One more example in *“It is hot”*, this statement expresses the belief that the current state of the world is such it is hot. According to Harman (1986), the possession of certain belief is committed to totally accept it regardless whether what he believes is truly factual. The conception of attitude in the socio-psychological research was compared with that of standpoints in the pragma-dialectical approach to drive a clear vision and cut division between the two terms.

A question may be raised in the area of cognitive research on reasoning to characterize the central features of a belief. To what extent are beliefs distinct from standpoints? It is acknowledged that a belief is an inner mental state of mind whereas

a standpoint is a position which is externalized within a statement. Firstly, the commitments engaged in adopting a belief are not the same as the commitment involved in advancing a standpoint. They differ from each other in two respects. The first respect indicates that a person who adopts a particular belief supposes certain commitments towards himself, while someone who advances a standpoint propounds commitments towards others. It is only in the case of advancing a standpoint that those responsibilities produce obligations that the interlocutor ought to carry on the discussion. If someone, for instance, regard the Islamic world and muslims to be terrorists, even if he lives peacefully with them and he seriously advances the standpoint that muslims are terrorists, then he should not assert in the same discussion that live peacefully with them. By advancing his standpoint, he has assumed an obligation to support that standpoint, that is to say, he is tied to proof that standpoint instead of stating facts that contradict that standpoint.

In the adoption of a belief, one is not committed to create reasons for having a belief, on the other hand, a standpoint cannot stand without reasons, it may all the time require to produce arguments that serve as a support and this is another difference to be noticed. A distinction between beliefs and standpoints occur in certain context. Beliefs appear in a context of inquiry while standpoints function in a context of justification. The latter one depends on previously debated standpoints and which are already defended. Here is two views, the first one implies that the argument, in practice, advance the standpoints. The second view supports the perspective that the standpoint already precedes the arguments otherwise there is nothing to defend.

1.7.4. Argumentative Discourse Analysis

The notion of “opinion” in the argumentative discourse analysis seems to be the major concept in characterizing what an argument is. According to Deborah Schiffrin (1985,1987,1990) an opinion is an inherently debatable statement. In her analysis of

daily discourse, she observed that an individual subjective and evaluative position is expressed in respect to a probable or desirable state of affairs. One prominent aspect of opinions is that they are “*internally verifiable*”. Schiffrin (1987 : 236) (1990 : 244) defines the term “opinion” as a mental state reachable only to the speaker. The truthfulness of words is principally required while expressing an opinion, since the speaker is not committed to the sincerity of this opinion even if he rejects to defend it. This feature of an opinion protects it from being criticized. Despite the similarity between opinions and standpoints, crucial distinctions exist. While scrutinizing opinions and standpoints, they appear to share some features in common. For instance, both opinions and standpoints belong to a genre of statements. They express a kind of a disputed position which is meant to be subjective and personal. Schiffrin distinguishes between the two conceptions, stating that an opinion doesn’t involve a burden of justification as a standpoint does, since it has to be defended against criticism.

1.8. TOULMIN’S ANALYSIS MODEL OF ARGUMENTS

When evaluating an argument, it is often helpful to observe how people argue effectively or ineffectively. In the Argumentation theory, Toulmin⁶ who is regarded as one of the prominent researchers who investigates the conception of arguments. Toulmin’s model or system is used as a device for analyzing, categorizing and evaluating an argument (Ronald: 2006). In an attempt to find out a persuasive answer

⁶ **Stephen Edelston Toulmin** (March 22nd, 1922- December 4th, 2009) was originally a Modern British philosopher, logician, author and instructor who was influenced by the Australian philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein (Ronald, 2006). His works were dedicated to the study of moral reasoning and rhetorics which were one of the utmost powerful discoveries especially in the arena of communication, rhetoric, argumentation, and computer science. Toulmin was mostly famous for his model of argumentation in which he affords a clear description of the components of an argument. Among his familiar books: *An examination of the place of reason in ethics* (1950), *The philosophy of science: An introduction* (1953), *The uses of arguments* (1958), *Human understanding: The collective use and evolution of concepts* (1972)..etc.

to the questions “*What is it that makes arguments function?*” and “*What makes one argument effective and other ineffective?*”.

The British philosopher provided substantial answers to the aforementioned queries and other similar ones. Stephan Toulmin developed a new theory and model of practical reasoning or argument (*also named substantial argument*) after being unsatisfied with the incapacity of formal logic⁷ to explain daily arguments that people read or hear in newspapers, on television, at work, in classrooms, conversations and so on. Logic⁸ is the science of evaluating inferences i.e., argument evaluation. Toulmin concentrated on logic in identifying the six vital components of arguments (Wood: 2001).

The system of Toulmin represents a practical argument that is based on the justificatory function of argumentation in contrast to the absolutists’ inferential function of theoretical arguments. The distinction between the prior model emerged from absolutism which requires a practical value is clearly displayed in the inferences of theoretical arguments which are based on a set of principles to arrive at a claim, practical arguments, on the other hand, find a claim of interest, and then provide justification for it. Toulmin maintains that reasoning is not a mere act of inference or process of evaluation, but rather an achievable act of the process of justification, he asserts that for the success of a good argument, there should be good justifications for its claim which can defend its validity and stand up to criticism and earns an auspicious verdict (Toulmin, 1969). This is well embodied in his book *The uses of an arguments (1958)* in which he propound a layout involving six harmonious components for scrutinizing arguments. Toulmin’s model is apparently displayed in the following diagram:

⁷ **Formal Logic:** is the study of inference or logical inference with purely formal content.

⁸ **Logic:** It is a sub-field of philosophy, mathematics, and computer science which is based on the study of valid reasoning. It was established as a formal discipline by El-Farabi in the East and Aristotale in the West.

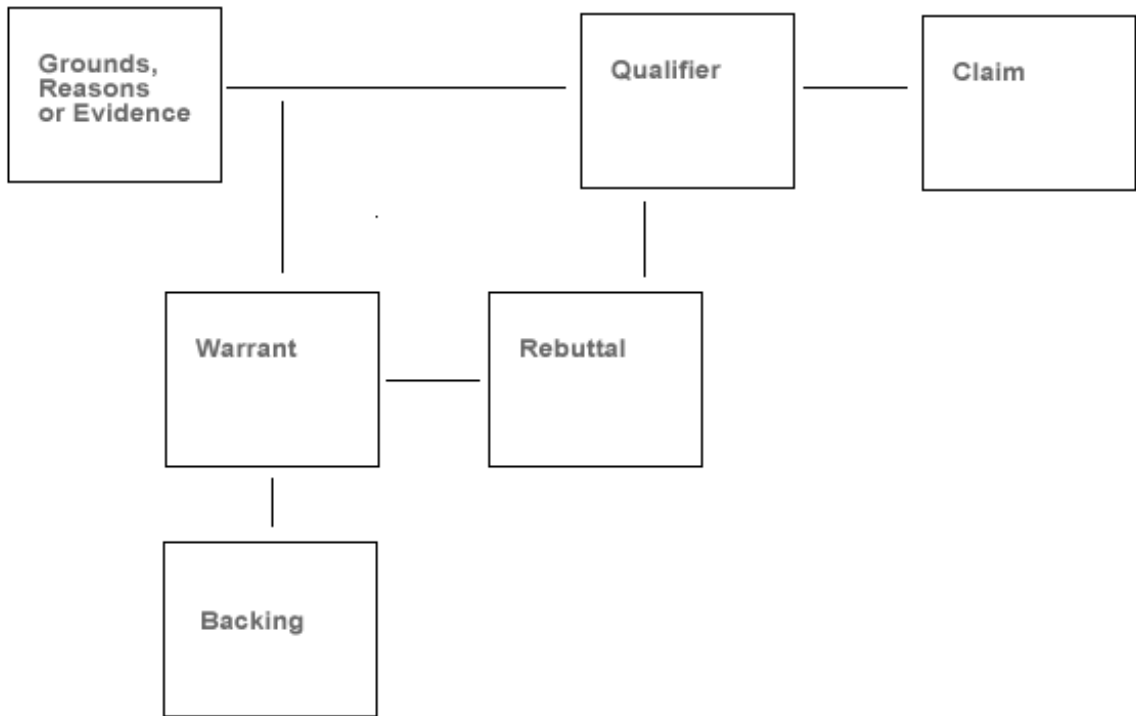


Diagram 1.6. Toulmin's Model of Arguments

The above illustration demonstrates the foremost six constituents of an argument. It characterizes its strengths and restrictions. These components are typically interconnected and work in combination (ibid). The Toulmin model breaks arguments down into six essential part, which all interact, function and depend on each other to build a complete argument. To comprehend this model as a system of argumentation, it is necessary to have a valid understanding of each component part on its own. The Toulmin model consists of the first triad (also called primary components) which involves three main components: *the claim, the ground, and the warrant*:

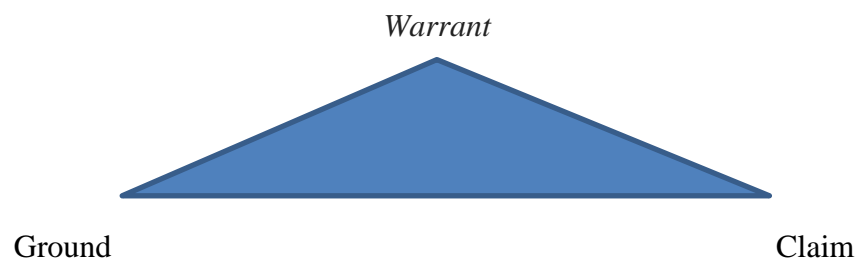


Diagram 1.7. The First Triad of Toulmin Model

First, the claim is the final conclusion of the argument and the main point that people want to prove and to put forth in their argument. It is ultimately the vision that the arguer is attempting to clarify. It is also a proposal or a declaration which an arguer intends to convince the listener /reader to accept. The general statement provided by the claim is frequently an attempt to answer the quest “So what is your point?”, “What is your opinion?”. For instance: “You should stop smoking, because it is so dangerous”. The claim is composed of three principale categories:

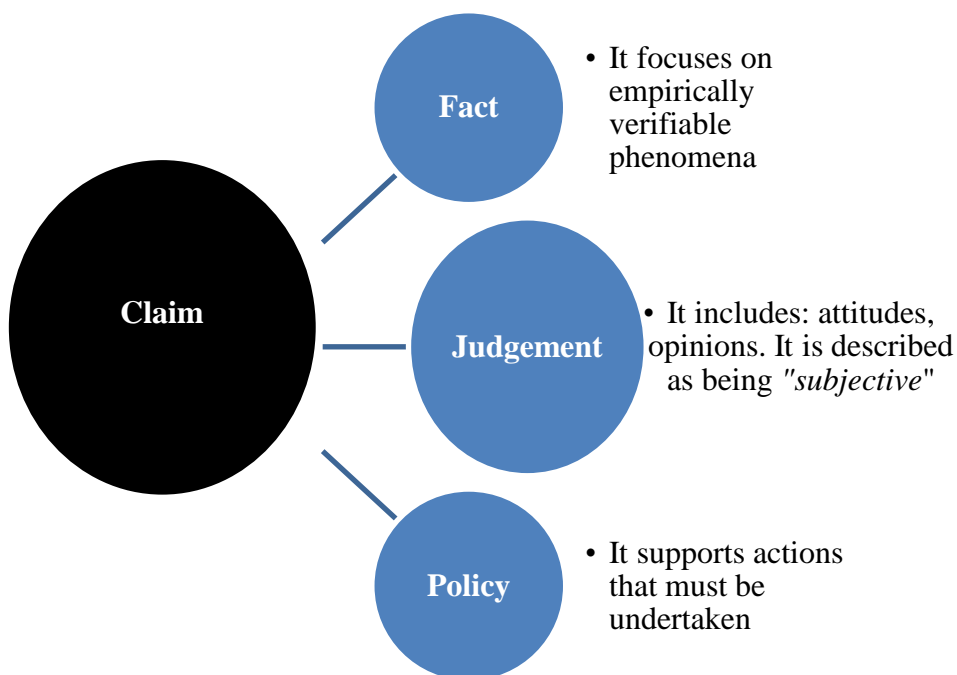


Diagram 1.8. The Basic Components of the claim

Second, grounds, on the other hand, connote the proof or evidence an arguer provides. They try to answer these questions: “ What is your proof?”, “How is it possible?” or simply “Why?”. Grounds can be recognized as statistics, quotations, reports, findings, physical evidence that reflect different forms of reasoning. Study these examples:

Example1: There is no place like home. The proverbs says “East West, home best”

Claim

Ground

Example 2: Drinking water is essential to our health, because the amount of water
in the

Claim

Ground

human body ranges from 50-75%.

Third, the warrant is one of the most fascinating contributions of Toulmin’s schematic to the conception of argumentation. It is the inferential leap that links the claim with the ground. It is basically implicit and identifies assumptions that not everyone may share and that often go unspoken in arguments. It necessitates the listener/reader to identify the underlying reasoning that provides sense of the claim in correspondence to the grounds since it establishes a mental connection between the grounds and the claim. For instance: “Sara is running a temperature. I’ll bet she has an infection”. The warrant in this example is a chain of reasoning that connects the claim and evidence, a fever can be a reliable sign of an infection. Warrant are generally grounded on specific categories of persuasive appeals. Indeed, in ancient Greek, a philosopher named Aristotle noticed that when people try to persuade each other, they use three modes of persuasion which are:

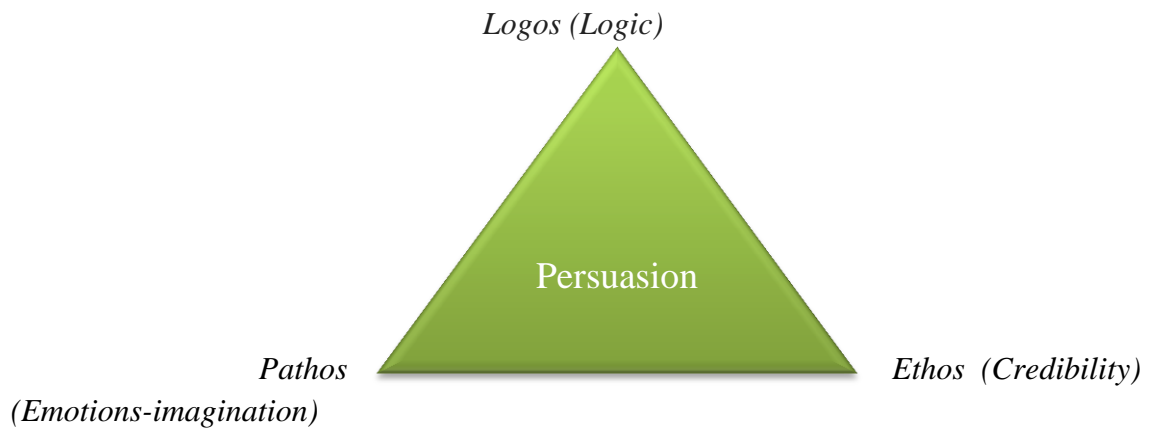


Diagram 1.9. Aristotle’s Triangle of Persuasion

Ethos represents an ethical appeal or source of credibility and trustworthiness or authority⁹ to achieve persuasion which is realized by the presenter's subjective character which signals his/her expertise in the topic of debate. Consider the following example:

Wife: *Dear! Why don't you quit smoking?!! It is ridiculous that I am a doctor who advises smokers not to smoke although my husband does!*

Husband: *I am not your patient neither you are my doctor, I am a husband and you are my wife.*

Logos¹⁰ involves persuading by the use of reasoning, induction and deduction. It is based on providing good reasons and evidence.

Wife: *Dear! You know what, I think that you should stop smoking, because it negatively affects your heart, blood vessels, and may cause you cancer of the lungs, esophagus, throat, mouth, and stomach.*

Husband: *Darling, I think that you quite exaggerate the health threats of smoking.*

Pathos deals with emotional or motivational appeals. An arguer using pathos will attempt to provoke an emotional response in the listener/reader. It evokes meaning that is implicit in the verb 'suffer', to feel pain imaginatively. It is suggested that the appropriate way to convey a pathetic appeals is through narration (telling a story) which can transform the abstraction of logic into a concrete reality. The story carries certain values, beliefs and understandings of the speaker, however, they are implicit. Pathos, therefore, refers to the emotional and the imaginative impact of the message

⁹ It is originated from Greek. Ethos refers to 'Character'. It is an appeal of authority i.e., an authoritative argument which is a form of argument commonly used to establish a valid conclusion. It indicates that (A) is, for instance, an authority on a specific topic, (A) argues about a particular subject matter (S). (A) is probably right.

¹⁰ Logos is a Greek word that denotes logical which refers to the internal consistency, the clarity of the conclusion, the logic of its reasons, and the efficiency of its supporting evidence.

on audience. For instance: The case of pathos in advertising the desire to be attractive to the opposite sex is probably the most common use of pathos such as: denting gum can be sexy. In arguments, pathos focuses on feeling, for example if someone wants a positive response or looks for an agreement, he should make others feel the same way he/she does, such as a wife who wants her husband to stop smoking, she may use the pathos appeal to influence her husband's feeling. Study this example:

Wife: Dear! You know what, I hate smoking, and do you know why I hate smoking?!because I love you and I don't want you to be harmed, moreover, I want to protect my children from its danger.

The husband begins to feel that his smoking hurts not only every organ in his body, but his wife's feelings as well.

Husband: Come on, we have not kids yet! Actually, I don't like smoking too, but I got use to smoke, it is merely a way to reduce my anxiety and anger.

The second triad of Toulmin's model comprises three supplementary constituents: *I-Backing*: It encompasses the evidence to encourage the type of reasoning. Backing usually provides additional justification of the warrant. Finally, The qualifier states the degree of force or possibility to be linked to the claim, it verifies the certainty of the arguer's claim. It allows the arguer to adjust and add specificity and nuance to the claim, thereby making it more stable and less susceptible to further rebuttals. The rebuttal is stated to acknowledge exceptions or restrictions to the argument where it would not hold. The Toulmin model is often represented perceptibly in this way in order to illustrate how each of the six constituents relates to and depends on each other. As it is shown the warrant sits between the evidence and the claim, however, it is put in parentheses because the warrant in many arguments is left as an unstated assumptions instead of being explicitly drawn out.

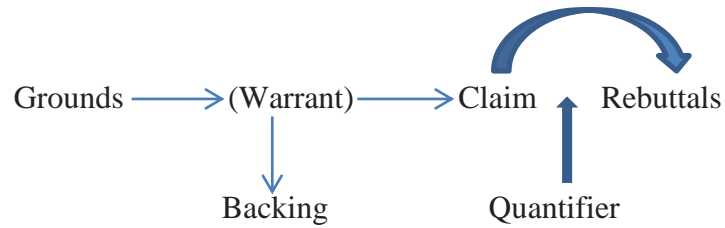


Diagram 1.10. The interaction between the components of an arguments

1.8.1.KINDS OF ARGUMENTS

There are numerous types of arguments, among which two basic ones: Informal arguments; on the other hand, occur in commonplace language and intended for usual conversations they are said to be implicit; however, formal arguments are reviewed in formal logic or symbolic logic. That is, the rational structure, the relationship of claims, premises, warrants, relations of implication, and conclusion is not always spelled out and immediately visible and must sometimes be made explicit by analysis. Formal arguments are split into two major subdivisions: Deductive and inductive arguments.

1.8.1.1. Deductive Arguments

This shape of arguments is grounded on the rules of logic; therefore, if the premises are true, then the conclusion must also be true¹¹. Deductive arguments are strong arguments since they are based on logical connections between premises and the conclusion. A deductive argument is an argument in which the

¹¹ i.e., the truth of their premises guarantees the truth of their conclusion (Truth guaranteeing).

arguer intends to validate its truth, this means to say, to authenticate a guarantee of the veracity of the conclusion as long as the argument's statements (premises) are factual.

In this type of arguments, the assumptions or premises are said to deliver such strong proof for the conclusion, if the premises are explicitly correct or true, then it would not be possible for the conclusion to be untrue. Consequently, a deductive argument is often described as a valid argument in which the premises are successful in guaranteeing the conclusion. A deductive argument with the correct form is regarded as valid apart from the truth of the premises and it is said to be valid providing that the premises are true. *For instance:*

All men are strong (premise-1-)
Adam is a man (premise -2-)

Adam is strong (conclusion)

From this classic example, it is concluded that if the premises are true, then the conclusion is mechanically must be true. Logicians and analysts study deduction by scrutinizing valid arguments forms i.e., arguments that are valid in virtue of their forms as opposed to their contents. Deductive arguments are often evaluated in two ways: First, by ascertaining whether the premises are correct, if they are actually, they guarantee the conclusion, and if so then they are labeled '*valid*'¹², if not '*invalid*'¹³ or '*fallacious*'¹⁴. Then, if the premises within a valid deductive argument

¹² A valid argument always possesses a logical structure that gives logically conclusive evidence for its conclusion i.e., validity which is not related to its content but form.

¹³ A deductive argument which is not valid is invalid. For an invalid argument, it is not impossible (even tremendously unlikely) that the premises are true and the conclusion is false. Arguments which are valid or invalid they are not true or false. In this respect, truth and validity do not address the same meaning; consequently, they should not be confused.

are, in effect, true; accordingly, the argument is called ‘*sound*’¹⁵. A sound argument is a good argument which gives good reasons for accepting its conclusion. However, if the premises are not true, the argument; in consequence, is ‘*unsound*’¹⁶. The term ‘*valid*’ is not used by logicians as a synonym to the word ‘*true*’ sine it is entirely not impossible for valid deductive argument to be false, this means to claim that an argument is deductively valid which denotes that the argument has compulsory a logical structure. The logical structure of a valid deductive argument does not imply the genuine contents of an argument, but instead its construction i.e., the specific manner and order the premises and conclusion fit and interconnect together to provide ‘*truth preserving*’ which signifies that the truth of the premises is preserved onto the conclusion. A valid argument can appear in some different forms, these forms are embodied in some given rules of inference¹⁷ consider the next argument:

Let (P) be If I smell cigarette smoke, I feel sick
Let (Q) be I am smelling cigarette smoke

Therefore, I feel sick

This argument holds the form:

¹⁴ A fallacious argument implies the invalidity of a deductive argument. It is derived from the term ‘fallacy’ which is according to Gensler (2010) an act of using invalid inference for the composition of an argument, he adds that it is a widely spread error which occurs at a cognitive layer.

¹⁵ An argument is ‘sound’ when it is valid and all its premises are true, if so then every sound argument has a factual conclusion.

¹⁶ The validity and invalidity of a deductive argument having at least one false premise results an unsound argument.

¹⁷ Rules of inference are the laws that are applied to infer a conclusion from a premise to coin an argument.

$P \xrightarrow{18} Q$ P <hr style="width: 50%; margin: 10px auto;"/> $\therefore^{20} Q$	<p>Corresponding Tautology¹⁹</p> $(P \wedge (P \xrightarrow{18} Q)) \xrightarrow{19} Q$
---	---

The logical name of this form of a valid argument is ‘*Modus Ponens*²¹’, it is widely used by Cohen and Copi (2004). It is discerned that when P and Q are both true, \therefore is also true. The second universal form of valid arguments is termed ‘*Modus Tollens*²²’; for instance:

Let (P) be If children smell cigarette smoke, they feel sick
 Let (Q) be Children do not feel sick

Therefore, children do not smell cigarette smoke

The general form of this argument will be:

$P \xrightarrow{18} Q$ $\neg Q$ <hr style="width: 50%; margin: 10px auto;"/> $\therefore \neg P$	<p>Corresponding Tautology</p> $(\neg Q \wedge (P \xrightarrow{18} Q)) \xrightarrow{19} \neg P$
--	--

¹⁸ P, Q, R...etc these logical notations symbolize the premises of the argument.

¹⁹ **Tautology:** In logic, tautology indicates a universal evidence in formal logic. In argument analysis, particularly in rules of inference, tautology represents a rule of replacement for logical expression.

²⁰ \therefore This symbol stands for the conclusion of the assumptions.

²¹ **Modus Ponens:** (or law of detachment) is Latin for “method of affirming” (i.e., the conclusion is an affirmation).

²² **Modus Tollens:** denotes the mode of denying.

The logical name of an alternative form of valid argument is ‘*Disjunctive Syllogism*’²³. For example:

Let (p) be Either Milan or Real Madrid will win the
championship

Let (Q) be Milan lost

Therefore, Real Madrid won the championship

So, this valid argument can be represented as follows:

Tautology	Either P or Q	Corresponding
	$\neg P$	$(\neg P \wedge (P \vee Q)) \rightarrow Q$
	<hr/>	
	$\therefore Q$	

The fourth valid argument is formally identified as ‘*Hypothetical Syllogism*’:

Let (p) be If Abdelhak gets a raise, then he will buy a car.

Let (Q) be If Abdelhak buys a car,

Let (R) be He will travel to Algiers.

Therefore, if Abdelhak gets a raise, he will travel to Algiers.

The appropriate form of this valid argument can be:

²³ **Syllogism:** syllogism is an argument that comprises three parts: a major premise, a minor premise, and a

Conclusion. Disjunctive Syllogism is more commonly known as ‘**Elimination**’

	$P \longrightarrow Q$	Corresponding
Tautology	$Q \longrightarrow R$	$((P \longrightarrow Q) \wedge (Q \longrightarrow R)) \longrightarrow (P \longrightarrow R)$
	—————	
	$\therefore p \longleftrightarrow R$	

On the other hand, deductively invalid arguments can be shown in the example below:

All men are strong (premise -p-)
 All Boxers are strong (premise -q-)
 —————
 All Boxers are men (conclusion)

In this invalid argument, the conclusion appeared not to follow the premises. Each of them were attempting to constitute a valid deductive argument; however, that attempt failed. A deductive argument is described as invalid if the truth of the premises does not guarantee that the conclusion must be true. The table below displays the validity of a deductive argument.

P	Q	$P \longrightarrow Q$
T	T	T
T	F	F
F	T	T
F	F	T

Table 1.2. Proof Using Truth Table

Deductive arguments are largely found in mathematics which its conclusion count on some basically arithmetic or geometric computation. Moreover, another type of

deductive arguments may emerge from definitions. Arguments from definitions are characterized by a conclusion claimed to depend merely on the definition of some words or phrases. To a better understanding, practise the following activity.

1.8.1.2. Inductive Arguments

An inductive argument, conversely, is one in which the premises are presumed to support the conclusion in the way that if the premises are true, it is probable that the conclusion would be false. It can also be defined as invalid argument, or non-deductive argument as in inductive arguments the conclusion is supported (but not proven), to a greater or lesser degree, by the premises. The arguer of an inductive argument attempts to establish or increase the possibility of its conclusion. It is meant to work because of the actual information in the premises are true, the conclusion is unlikely to be false. For example:

All men are handsome (premise -1-)

Adam is a man (premise -2-)

Adam is handsome (conclusion)

In this example, even if both of the premises are true, it is still possible for the conclusion to be false (though Adam is a man, he can be ugly or distorted). This sort of arguments is such that the truth of its premises makes the conclusion more or less probable this means that inductive arguments can be either strong or weak.

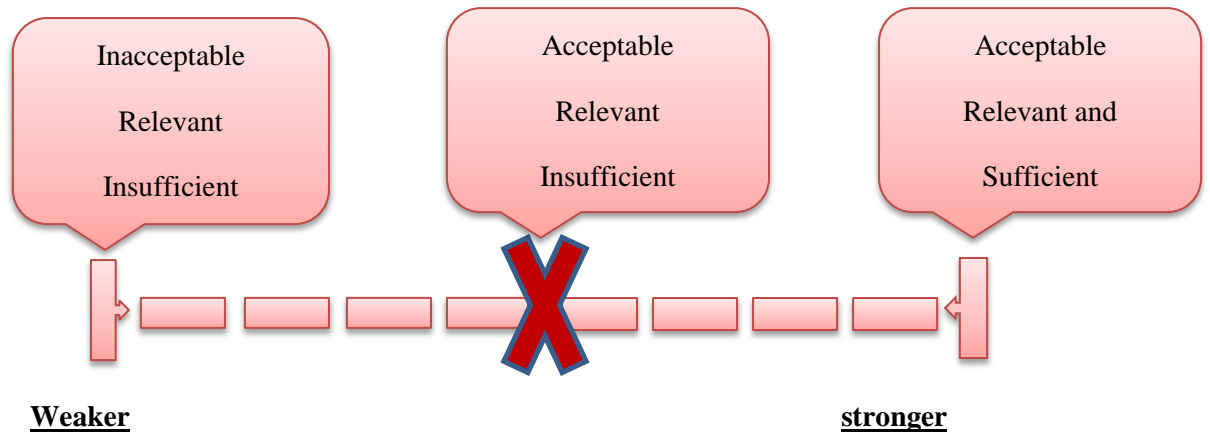


Diagram 1.11. An Illustration of an Inductive Argument

A strong argument is an inductive argument in which the truth of the premises makes the conclusion feasible or likely to be true. For example:

- (1) All tiger observed so far have been black.

Therefore, probably the next tiger we see will be black —————> *strong argument*

- (2) Ninety-eight of humans are mortal.

Socrates is human. Therefore, Socrates is mortal —————> *strong argument*

A clear cut division between strong inductive arguments and valid deductive arguments lies on their structure as the earliest class does not guarantee the truth of the conclusion i.e., it is not *truth-preserving* but rather *probabilistic*. If an inductive argument is strong in which all the premises are essentially true, it is called ‘*Cogent*’, an ‘*Uncogent*’, on the other hand, is a strong inductive argument wherein even one premise is, in fact, false. A weak inductive argument; logically, carries the feature ‘*Uncogent*’, and it simply is what an inductively strong argument is not. Mostly, an inductive argument involves reasoning from specific facts and draws conclusions

about general principles. Induction depends on observation and remarks in its strength. The more observations are cited the more probable the conclusion is true.

The argumentative structure of an inductively strong argument does not guarantee that if all the premises are true, the conclusion must necessarily be true. However, if the conclusion is highly probable, then it should be generally accepted. Due to the fact that the truth of an inductive argument's conclusion cannot be guaranteed by the truth of its premises, inductive arguments are not *'truth preserving'*.

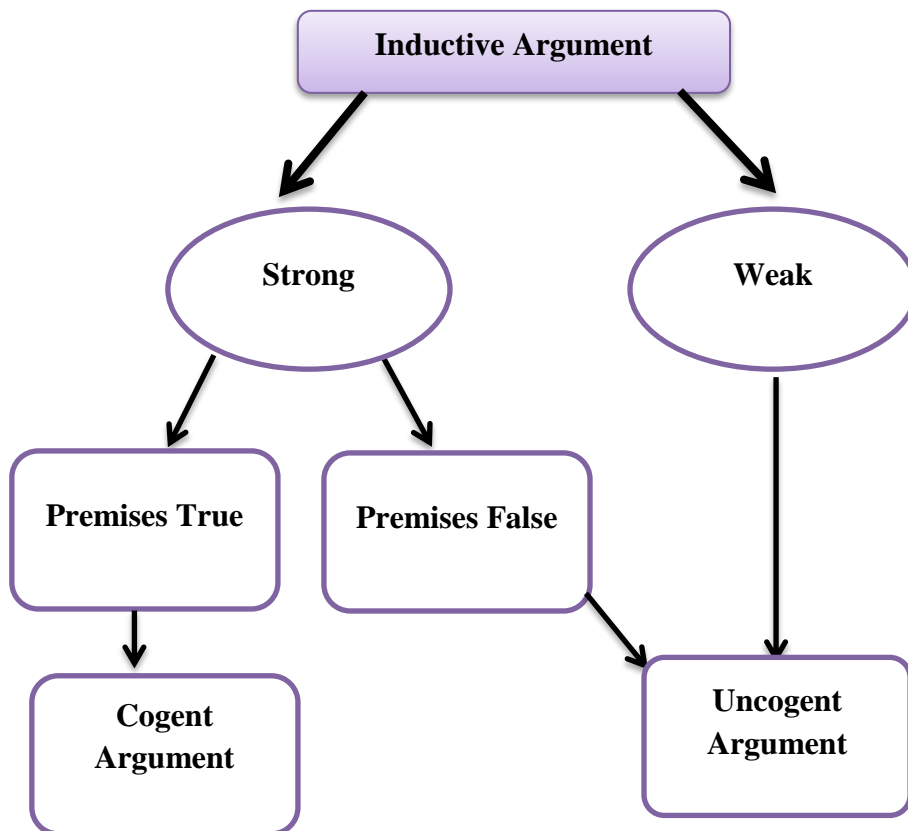


Diagram 1.12. Diverse Types of an Inductive Argument

It is widely believed that there is no standard term for a successful inductive argument unlike deductive argument which its success or strength is not a

matter of degree. The conclusion is regarded to be the best clarification of the obtainable information. In the following examples, there is a demonstration of some strong and weak inductive argument:

1- $\underbrace{\text{The sun has risen everyday in the history of the Universe}}_{P_1}$ therefore

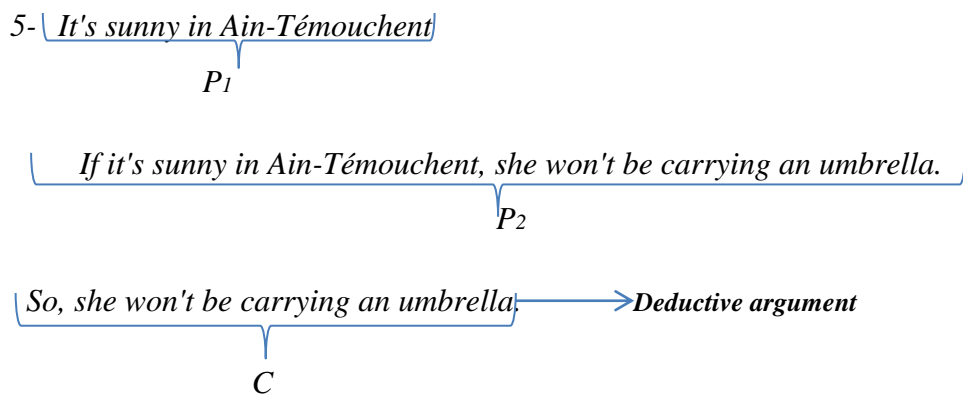
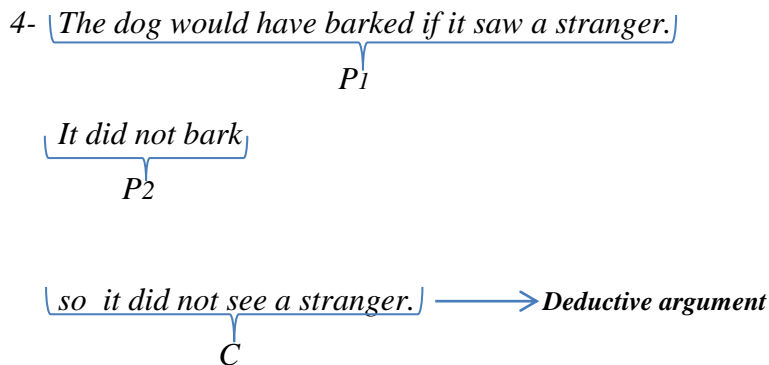
$\underbrace{\text{the sun will rise tomorrow.}}_C \longrightarrow \text{Strong inductive argument}$

2- $\underbrace{\text{Everytime I have seen Adam he has been wearing jeans}}_{P_1}$ therefore $\underbrace{\text{the next time I}}_C$

$\underbrace{\text{see Adam he will be wearing jeans.}}_C \longrightarrow \text{Weak inductive argument}$

1.8.1.3. Deductive and Inductive Arguments

A distinction can be made between the prior two types of arguments; for instance, the first kind does not rely exclusively on the form of the argument but rather it derives from the relationship the arguer performs there to be between the premises and the conclusion. If the arguer holds the belief that the truth of the premises absolutely establishes the truth of the conclusion because of the logical entailment, logical structure, or mathematical necessity, then the argument expresses deduction. However, if the arguer is suspicious and -does not believe that the validity of the premises may establish the truth of the conclusion, but he still believes that their truth provides good reasons which may indicate that the conclusion is true.



1.9. UTTERANCE (énoncé)

The argumentative theory is grounded on the conception that it is an elementary characteristic of utterances which can be described as premises ended with conclusions within arguments (Anscombe & Ducrot, 1983). The Oxford dictionary describes an utterance as “**the act of expressing something in words**” or “**something you say**”. It is also identified as “**a physically identifiable stretch of speech lacking any grammatical definition; cf. sentence**” (Crystal, 1995: 460).

In spoken language analysis, ‘*Utterance*’ is widely defined as a natural unit of speech and a continuous piece of speech beginning and ending with a clear pause.

Phonetically, it is a complete unit of talk, bounded by the speaker's silence, it is as well said to be heteroglossic and polyphonic. On the other hand, utterances can be classified in the linguistic sense as **“stretch of speech about which no assumptions have been made in terms of linguistic theory”** (Crystal, 1991: 367) or purely **“Things spoken”** (Swannel, 1986: 622); along with this comprehensive linguistic description, non-verbal communicative acts such as: *gestures, eye contact, intonation* and so on are also involved within the notion of an utterance (Bravelas & Chovil, 1993).

Any utterance has a range of possible interpretation, it may include one or more literal meanings and could be multiplied by the range of interpretations that a listener may imagine. It may consist of a request for clarification, formulation, reformulation, it may explicit a comment, or express an argument (Davis, 1986: 47). In dialogue, each turn by a speaker may be regarded as an utterance. The term ‘*Utterance*’ is occasionally used by linguists to solely allude to a unit of speech under study, the analogous component in written language is ‘*text*’. This was obviously debated in Bakhtin²⁴’s theory of utterance.

1.9.1. Bakhtin’s Theory of Utterance

Speech, as an event that takes-place in verbal communication, is recognized by his theorists as an active social interaction. Interests in speech acts as a whole, involving the three forces (locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts)²⁵ have brought a perceptive visualization of what any speech might be and how it functions with an utterance. The current approach has not been apparently realized in contemporary science until the early of 1920’s and 1930’s where it was vigorously progressed by

²⁴ Mikhail Mikhailovich Bakhtin is best described as a Russian philosopher, theorist of human communication, literary critic, semiotician and scholar. His works provides innovative and insightful approaches to the study of literature, linguistics...etc.

²⁵ Go to p,

M.M. Bakhtin and L.S Vygotsky. These scholars have developed very interesting speech theories which have much in common (Ivanov, 1973; Bibler, 1981; Wertsch, 1984).

In the current study, a focus will be restricted to a brief demonstration of the key-concepts in Bakhtin's theory of verbal communication, pointing out the notion of an utterance as it is the sample under analysis²⁶ in this investigation. Vygotsky's theory, conversely, will not be incorporated as it is relatively thoroughly described elsewhere in literature (Luria, 1959, 1975, 1979, Leontiev, 1969a; Akhutina, 1975; Zimniaia,1978).

"Metalinguistics", as it was termed by Bakhtin or the verbal communication, was introduced in his prior researches as early as the 1920's which imply new perspectives that were the ground on which a fully complete or original theory was established. *"How can we isolate the "real object" from the stream of language/speech?"*, *"What is the real givenness of linguistic phenomena?"*, these were Bakhtin's inquiries about language and speech. As an attempt to figure out their essence, Bakhtin hypotheses are clearly presented in Voloshinov's words (1929: 113) **"actual reality of language and speech is not the abstract system of linguistic forms, and not the isolated monologue, and not the psychological act of its expression, but the social event of speech interaction that is performed by the utterance and utterances"**. In this point of view, Bakhtin believes that an expression in a living context of exchange that is labeled as *"word"*, or *"utterance"*. It is considered as the central element of meaning and is shaped through a speaker's relation to otherness, this means to say individuals' words and utterances and the cultural context where they are expressed in time and place. This is referred to as *"Addressivity"* and *"Answerability"* (Bakhtin, 1990). He considers an utterance as the minimum indivisible unit of speech interaction. Bakhtin (1981/1984: 276) states:

²⁶ See chapter three

When I construct my utterance, I try to actively determine it [the possible answer of the listener— T.A.]and, on the other hand, I try to anticipate it. This anticipated answer, in turn, has an effect on my utterance (I parry the objection that I anticipate, resort to all kinds of hedges, etc.). When I speak, I also consider the apperceptive context in which the person I am addressing perceives my speech, the extent to which he is informed about the situation . .

According to Bakhtin there are four main properties that any utterance may imply, these properties can be summarized in the following diagram:

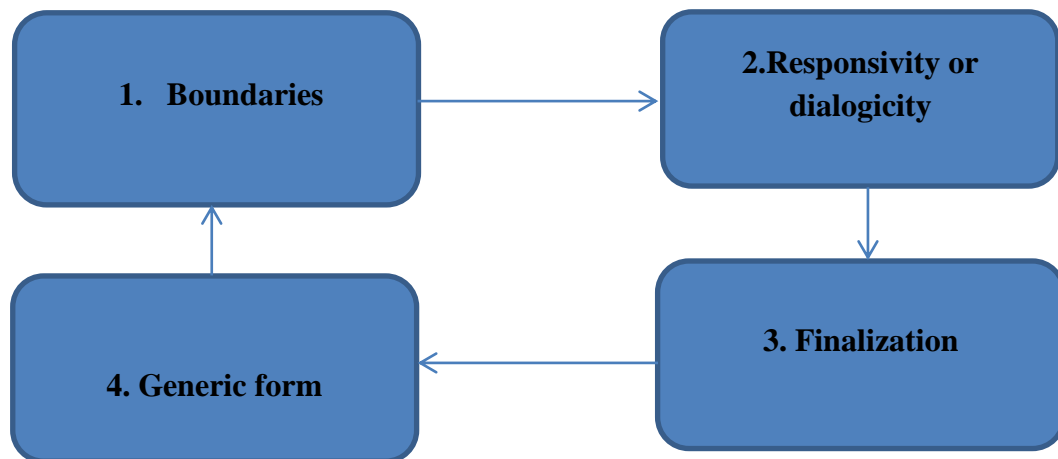


Diagram 1.14. Bakhtin’s Properties of Utterances

Bakhtin offers a survey of the main properties that should exist within any utterance. According to him, boundaries are described as the first property where all utterances must be bounded by a “*change of speech subject*” or “*silence*”. He (1986: 91) asserts **“any concrete utterance is a link in the chain of speech communication of a particular sphere. The very boundaries of the utterance are determined by a change of speech subjects”**. The second property refers to the claim that any utterance is a response to previous utterances or expected to generating a dialogue. In this respect Bakhtin adds (ibid):

Utterances are not indifferent to one another, and are not self-sufficient; they are aware of and mutually reflect one another... Every utterance must be regarded as primarily a *response* to preceding utterances of the given sphere.... Therefore, each kind of utterance is filled with various kinds of responsive reactions to other utterances of the given sphere of speech communication”

The third property is labeled “*finalization*”. It comprises that an utterance should have an obvious closure and it occurs only if the speaker has said everything he/she wishes to say. Bakhtin (1986: 76) asserts:

This change [of speaking subjects] can only take place because the speaker has said (or written) *everything* he wishes to say at a particular moment or under particular circumstances. When hearing or reading, we clearly sense the end of the utterance, as if we hear the speaker’s concluding *dixi*. This finalization is specific and is determined by specific criteria.”

The last property is referred to as the choice of speech genre which is grounded on certain conditions wherein the dialogue befalls.

1.9.2. Characteristics of Argumentative Utterances

Argumentative utterances generally have some specific characteristics among which that they occur within speech events or activity types (Levinson, 1979) which refer to the socio-culturally established types of verbal interaction which constitute part of the verbal repertoire of the members of speech community (Hymes, 1972). Arguments are utterances that partake some characteristics of utterances listed above. Unlike sentences and phrases, argumentative utterances possess some crucial

features which draw a clear distinction as opposed to other forms of speech (Nemo, 1995). Initially, the difference between an unsaid proposition (sentence) and an uttered one (utterance) can be highlighted through the following example:

-1- Bouteflika is alive

(1) Bouteflika is alive

If the difference is considered between proposition -1- and (1) it can be obviously observed that -1- reveals only the fact that Bouteflika is alive; however, (1) represents both the fact that he is alive and the fact it might not have been the case. Subsequently, the sentence is merely an image of the reality; whereas, an utterance is the correlation of the image of the reality and the image of probability (Nemo, 1998). In other words, an utterance in argumentation consists of a proposition with a modal frame and hence receives the following:

Bouteflika may be alive - Bouteflika is alive

————— May not be alive

From this general standpoint a description of the argumentative value of utterances can be propounded. According to Nemo (1998) the constraint through which argumentative utterances are characterized can be summarized in the subsequent:

- ✚ Argumentative value as opposed to informative value.
- ✚ Argumentative orientation.
- ✚ Argumentative strength of an utterance.

However, Coutler (1990) suggests that the elementary pattern which argument, in a two party conversation, follows can be limited basically into two-part sequence: a declarative assertion by S1 adhered to a counter-assertion by S2; and these two sequences can be improved into a four-part structure:

1. A declarative assertion

2. An expression of disagreement by S2
3. An utterance soliciting an account by S1
4. A counter-assertion by S2

For example:

1. S1 : Well, he had all the chances and didn't make much of them.
2. S2 : That's not really true.
3. S3 : Oh? Why not?
4. S4: For a start, you could hardly blame him for his wife's illness.

(Quoted in Eemeren, 2001: 171)

In the above examples, it is demonstrated that the second speaker's counter-assertion is followed by a back-down or reassertion, these unambiguous back-downs are considered as terminations for an argument sequence. Correspondingly, Muntigal and Turnbull (1998) analyze argumentative utterance and maintain that arguments in every-day conversation encompass as minimum of three turns:

- In T1, S1 provide a claim
- In T2, S2 disputes this claim
- In T3, S1 disagrees with T2 by either supporting the T1 claim or directly disputing T2 disagreement.

On the basis of structural features and in their harmony with the pragmatic functions of those contributions and turns, Muntigl and Turnball (1998) mark four types of disagreement:

- ✚ Irrelevancy Claims: In this type, S2 contends that the prior claim is not relevant to the discussion at hand. These tend to follow T1 immediately or tend to overlap.

- ✚ Challenges: in which S2 implicates that S1 cannot provide evidence for his claim and demands that he provides it. These are often preceded by reluctance markers and are typically in interrogative form with question words (Why, when, who).

- ✚ Contradictions: in which S2 utters the negated proposition expressed by the previous claim.

- ✚ Counter-Claims, in which S2 proposes an alternative claim that does neither directly contradict nor challenges S1's claim, allowing further negotiation of the claim. These tend to be preceded by pauses, prefaces, and mitigating devices.

(ibid)

According to the four types mentioned above it is distinguished that there are regularities in the sequential distribution of the acts that constitute an argumentative exchange. Muntigl and Turnbull (1998) assert that these genres are performed by the participants involved in conversations and who are themselves orient to. The authors consider this dissemination by demonstrating the distinct degrees of face threat that occur in the dissimilar categories of reactions.

Vuchinich (1990), on the other hand, focuses mostly on the description of how conversationalists may end an argument i.e., the terminal exchange of argumentative utterance which is performed among participants to coordinate the closing of (T2) the verbal disputes within an argument. He argues that in order to end up or close a verbal conflict there are two basic forms:

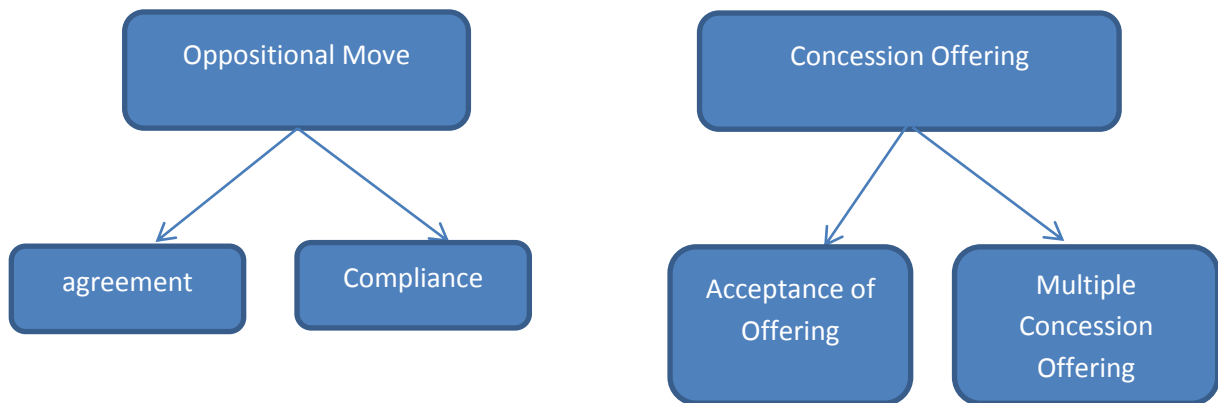


Diagram 1.15. Forms of Closing Verbal Conflict

He adds that participants can also close verbal disputes by either avoiding the second slot in a terminal exchange or by changing the topic (stand off) or until the opponents' withdrawal from the partaking.

Shiffrin (1985) describes argumentative utterances in respect to the linguistic devices through which an opinion is implicated. Argumentative utterances are often marked by devices to strengthen the content of the conversation. She analyzes numerous devices among which the structural clues which are provided at the initial position of an extended turn and at the end of it, as well as, at internal boundary positions between two pieces of support. She mentions some verbal indicators that characterize an opinion. For instance: *indefinite pronouns, stative verbs, and present tense*. There is also another clue in the different distribution of conjunctions. For example: *Coordinate conjunctions*, which often introduce the opinion; *subordinate conjunctions*; conversely, support it.

Ducrot (1984), Anscombre and Ducrot (1983, 1989) and Snoeck Henkemans (1992, 1995a) focused on connectives that display argumentation through linguistic representation of casual relations between, for instance, “*therefore*” and

“consequently”. Ultimately they arrived to the conclusion found already by Nemo (1998) that **“all utterances potentially point to particular classes of conclusions (this is called argumentative orientation), for example calling something cheap may point to a conclusion of it being less good, or on another score a better buy”**. (Eemeren, 2001: 174). Van Eemeren, Gootendorst (1984) obtain that the linguistic devices of argumentation within any utterance as: ‘because’, ‘owing to’ and ‘on the basis of’ contribute to the ease of recognition of the argumentation process.

On his part Vuchinich (1990) emphasizes the paralinguistic or kinesic devices which portray opinions within utterances. He concentrates on the autosegmental layer of language (prosodic level) i.e., **“cues conveying the oppositional character of a turn and its level of intensity include increased volume, rapid tempo, contrastive stress and exaggerated intonation contours”** (Eemeren, 2001: 172).

Some scholars such as: Pomerantz (1984), who has accomplished extensive research in the characteristics of argumentative utterances, drives the attention into the opposition or contradiction occurred within argumentative utterances in the form of disagreement which is embedded directly in the delayed form interrupted by silence, repair initiation or hesitation. However, expressing a disagreement implicitly can be made by the expression “*I don’t know*” (Tsui, 1991). Disagreements can accordingly be either strong in case they are produced by S2 and analyzed through assessment by S1, in this vein, the opinion establishes the whole turn, however, when it is characterized by a token agreement, hesitation, silence, it is then a weak disagreement.

1.10. Conclusion

This chapter is considered as the ground of the current research. It attempts to shed light on the literature review of the argumentation theory highlighting the main key-concepts. The theoretical stances are intensely analysed in order to address the interest of the current empirical survey which implies the analysis of the argumentative utterances amongst the feminine youngsters.

At far as the foremost subject matter is concerned, it is concluded that arguments occur within language for the sake of communication in a conversational context. They are based on both logic and critical thinking in their nature. Arguments respect a particular structure in their constitution and are delineated to several approaches and methods. In the present research only argumentative utterances will be scrutinized corresponding to the case study. The subsequent two chapters are devoted to the description and the analysis of the pivot study.

CHAPTER TWO

SOCIOLINGUISTIC SITUATION: TAD & NYE

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2.1. INTRODUCTION

In this investigation, the researcher is not aiming at scrutinizing the language itself, but rather a theory within it. The study of argumentation requires predominantly the study of language; since arguments cannot exist out of the boundaries of language. The current chapter deals mainly with the sociolinguistic situation of Algerian Arabic (AA) precisely Ain-Témouchent Arabic and American English (AmE) specifically New-York English. These two distinctive languages or dialects on which the argumentation theory will be applied and tested are going to be profoundly inspected.

2.2. STANDARD ARABIC

Standard Arabic (SA) is a member of the large and widespread Semitic language family (Owens, 2013). It is most closely related to Semitic languages which originated from an earlier ancestor “the Afro-Asian Languages Family” (Ehret et al, 2004), (McCall, 1998). The Semitic languages are commonly divided into three major groups: *West Semitic*, *Central Semitic*, and *East Semitic languages*. Arabic is a central Semitic language. Accordingly, historical linguists found out that there are some correspondences between these languages, which are said to be intimately interrelated and interconnected; they are as close as the Germanic and Romance languages.

Standard Arabic is widely used in the Arab world. There are approximately 22 countries where Arabic is regarded as an official language (Alosh and Grandin-Gillette, 2012). It is spoken from Morocco and Mauritania in the West of Africa to Iraq in the eastern edge of the Arabian Peninsula. In this vein, Ennaji (1991: 19) states that SA is “...**standardized and codified to the extent that it can be**

understood by different Arabic speakers in the Maghreb and in the Arab World at large”.

There is no doubt that Arabic has undergone a series of alterations and adjustments in its course of existence. According to (Shrit, 1958:37); Arabic has overtaken through various periods of time; this is evidenced by the elderly texts that had been written in the Safouï and Si'i inscriptions that look like Arabic. Standard Arabic is divided into two types: classical Arabic (CA) and modern standard Arabic (MSA).

2.2.1. Classical Arabic (CA)

It is extensively identified as the language of ‘The *Holy Qur'an*’ or ‘*Qur'anic Language*’ (Mouhadjar, 2002: 989); it is then described by the Muslim community as a sacred language (Watson, 2002) and the precursor of Modern Standard Arabic. It is considered as the language of poetry and the royal princely court, Ennaji (1991: 7-8) confirms that Classical Arabic¹ is “...**the language of Islam. It is codified and the vehicle of a huge body of classical literature....., it encompassed in ancient poetry, grammar books and mainly in the Koran, in which Classical Arabic was revealed and it is still preserved**”. Classical Arabic is also regarded as one of the ongoing members of the old North Arabian dialect group (Roger, 2008), which reverts to the fourth century, its old inscriptions date to 320 AD, they are known as *Namārah inscription* (Bellamy, 1985). It goes back to the Proto-Islamic Period and derived from the dialectical Arabic spoken by Quraish tribes in Mecca. In the view of this concept, Marçais (1960: 566) refers to CA as a language that: “...**had an extremely rich vocabulary, due partly to the Bedouins’ power of observation and partly to poetic exuberance; some of the wealth may**

¹ اللغة العربية التراثية (al-lughah al-‘Arabīyah al-turāthīyah)

be due to dialect mixture” (adapted from Derni, 2009: 38). However, it is believed that Ancient Arabic gained its universal prominence par excellence of Islam (Watson, 2002).

2.2.2 Modern Standard Arabic (MSA)

Modern Standard Arabic (MSA)² is also known as Literary Arabic. It is the fourth most-commonly spoken language in the world and it is one of the sixth official languages of the United Nations (Alosh and Grandin-Gillette, 2012:1). Cown et al (1986: 20) maintains: **“Modern Standard Arabic is traditionally defined that form of Arabic used in practically all writing (forms) of Arabic and the form used in formal spoken discourse such as: broadcasts, speeches, sermons and the like”**.

² اللغة العربية المعيارية الحديثة (al-lughah al-‘Arabīyah al-mi‘yārīyah al-ḥadīthah)

Modern Standard Arabic is principally derived from Classical Arabic (ibid); yet it differs significantly from it. For instance, at the level of register, modernity has brought to Arabic innumerable terms that are perplexing and mysterious to the Classical writers. For example: *Cinema* - سنيما, *film*- فيلم, *computer*-كمبيوتر, *Television*- تلفاز. It is mostly used in *media, newspapers, teaching and learning...etc.* Though Classical Arabic and Modern Standard Arabic are treated as separate varieties of the same language (Arabic) especially in terms of vocabulary (Benali, 1993: 28), they still share almost the same syntax and morphology (Bin-Muqbil, 2006). They are also attached to each other and grouped in one term Standard Arabic (SA) *al-fuṣḥá* (الفصحى) which is “**a modernized version of classical Arabic**” (Al Ani, 1971) and characterized by a writing system called “*Abjad*”.

2.3.The Arabic Alphabet

The Arabic alphabet is a system called “*Abjad*” used for writing the Arabic language. It is one of the most widespread alphabets all over the world. It is generally agreed that numerous languages of Africa and Asia share the same alphabet with Arabic. For instance: *Persian, Urdu, Malay, and Pashto*. Unlike the other languages, such as : the Germanic and Romance languages, the Arabic script is consistently printed from right to left ; it makes use of diverse hand writing styles (Frangieh, 2011). Arabic comprises of 28 elementary and original letters. Rice (1952: 1) confirms: **“Arabic is customarily written and printed in a special alphabet of it, called the Arabic alphabet, consisting of 28 letters and a number of signs”**.Frangieh (2011: 4) adds: **“Arabic has twenty-eight characters: Twenty five are consonants and three are long vowels. Arabic also has several symbols, signs written above or below the letters that affect pronunciation and**

grammatical structures”. The table below illustrates the basic Arabic letters.

<i>final</i>	<i>medial</i>	<i>initial</i>	<i>isolated</i>	<i>letter</i>
ـا	ا	ا	ا	ألف alif
ـب	ب	ب	ب	باء bā'
ـت	ت	ت	ت	تاء tā'
ـث	ث	ث	ث	ثاء thā'
ـج	ج	ج	ج	جيم jim
ـح	ح	ح	ح	حاء ḥā'
ـخ	خ	خ	خ	خاء khā'
ـد	د	د	د	دال dāl
ـذ	ذ	ذ	ذ	ذال dhāl
ـر	ر	ر	ر	راء rā'
ـز	ز	ز	ز	زاي zāy
ـس	س	س	س	سين sīn
ـش	ش	ش	ش	شين shīn
ـص	ص	ص	ص	صاد ṣād
ـض	ض	ض	ض	ضاد ḍād
ـط	ط	ط	ط	طاء ṭā'
ـظ	ظ	ظ	ظ	ظاء ḏā'

<i>final</i>	<i>medial</i>	<i>initial</i>	<i>isolated</i>	<i>letter</i>
ع	ع	ع	ع	عين āyn
غ	غ	غ	غ	غين ghayn
ف	ف	ف	ف	فا fā'
ق	ق	ق	ق	قاف qāf
ك	ك	ك	ك	كاف kaf
ل	ل	ل	ل	لام lām
م	م	م	م	ميم mīm
ن	ن	ن	ن	نون nūn
ه	ه	ه	ه	هاء hā'
و	و	و	و	واو wāw
ي	ي	ي	ي	ياء yā'

Figure 2.1. The Arabic Alphabets

In the Arabic alphabets, the dot plays a crucial role in distinguishing between letters which apparently seem to be analogous; however, they are not. Rice (1952: 1) asserts: “Some letters are identical in basic form and are distinguished from one another by small dots”. The dots are said to be a vital and connected part of a letter. For example, the Arabic letters ج خ are transliterated as: /ʒi:m/, /ħa:ʔ/, /xa:ʔ/. A dot shift may entirely change the way a word is pronounced, consequently, the meaning is affected. A further couple of examples are demonstrated in following the table:

ب	ت	ث	ص	ض
ج	ح	خ	ط	ظ
د	ذ		ع	غ
ر	ز		ف	ق
س	ش		ي	ى

Table1.2. Distinction between some Arabic Letters

While inspecting the above examples, one may come to the conclusion that these letters possess an equivalent shape; however, a difference is noticeable from one letter to another by dots. There are four main positions of the Arabic letters: *Initial, middle, final positions and isolated*. For instance: and isolated - ٤ Final position- ٤ Middle position- - initial position: ٥. It is apparent that the Arabic letters exhibit considerable variations in their shapes; although, they are alike. The Arabic alphabets are often adhered to particular diacritics, **“there are three types of diacritics in Arabic vowel, nunation and shaddah”** (Rabiee: 2011). These vowel marks are labelled as: *“harakat”, Fatha-dama-kasra*; the “أ”, “و”, “ي”, “ى” are regarded as merely an extension or lengthening of those marks. For example: ب-ب-ب

با-بو-بي

There is another sign which is *“Shaddah”*. The *Shaddah* indicator makes a binary consonant i.e. instead of doubling the letter twice, *“Shaddah”* is rather placed. The term *“Shaddah”* is referred to in English as *“Gemination”*. In speech, while pronouncing the *“Shaddah”*, one must stress the letter that contains this mark.

2.4. LANGUAGE AND DIALECT

It is quite apparent that language covers several and distinctive variations i.e., one language may sound distinct from one community to another. This variety of language is labeled '*dialect*'³. Hudson (1996:32) agrees: **“A variety called a language contains more items than one called a dialect”**. In his view, Trudgill (1992: 23) asserts that a dialect is **“a variety of language which differs grammatically, phonologically and lexically from other varieties and which is associated with a particular social class or status group”**. On the other hand, Haugen (1966: 23) explains the correlation between language and dialect as: **“X is a dialect of language Y or Y has the dialects X and Z (never, for example, Y is a language of dialect X)”**.

2.4.1. Vernacular Arabic

Ferguson (1959) classifies language according to **“official, national, and other standard or vernacular”** (Mouhadjar, 2002: 989). Arabic is widely used as an official language in the Arab world (Zaidan and Callison-Burch, 2012). It is characterized by a major linguistic dichotomy: The written form of Arabic (MSA) and the spoken variety of Arabic. It is undoubtful that spoken Arabic possesses a large and various numbers of variations which are typically associated with particular

³Dialect: is originated from Latin "*Dilacteus*" which denotes '*way of speaking*'. It is the form of a language that is spoken in one area with grammar, words and pronunciation that may be different from the other forms of the same language (Oxford Dictionary). Crystal (1995:298) states that **“a regional dialect refers to features of grammar and vocabulary which conveys information about a person's geographical origin. A regional accent refers to features of pronunciation which conveys information about a person's geographical origin”**. It is not fallacious that both dialects and accents are considered as the variations of the same language, in dissimilar regions and social ranks (Gimson: 1975).

geographical regions these regional variations are known as: “*El-daarija* [əldda: rɪʒə]; *el-Lahdja*, *El-ammiya* [əlʁæmiə]) (ibid).

In the many existing varieties of Arabic, MSA stands as the only variety that is standardized in written and spoken forms. It is used in written communication in formal versus (Zaidan and Callison-Burch, 2012). Many researches have stressed Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) being the Lingua Franca and the official language variety in the Arab community. Yet, recently, much attention is being given to dialectal Arabic. A regional dialect of Arabic is distinctively distinguished from MSA, since it may not possess an explicit written set of grammar; however, grammatical and ungrammatical concepts are taken into consideration (Abdel-Massih, Abdel-Malek, and Badaoui (1979), Badaoui and Hinds (1986), Cowell (1964), Erwin (1963), Ingham (1994), Holes (2004))⁴.

Dialectal Arabic pronunciation, being a spoken variety, is principally derived from the rules of spelling used in MSA. Habash, Diab and Rabmow (2012) have suggested CODA, which is a Conventional Orthography for Vernacular Arabic, in order to standardize the spelling of Arabic dialect computational models.

Dialectal varieties of Arabic are split into several groups. One may distinguish five regional dialects in the Arab World:

- **Egyptian**: The most widely understood dialect, due to a thriving Egyptian television and movie industry, and Egypt’s highly influential role in the region for much of 20th Century (Haeri, 2003).
- **Levantine**: A set of dialects that differ somewhat in pronunciation and intonation, but are largely equivalent in written form; closely related to Aramaic (Bassiouney, 2009).
- **Gulf**: Folk wisdom holds that Gulf is the closest of the regional dialect to MSA, perhaps because the current form of MSA evolved from an Arabic variety originating

⁴These linguists attempt to summarize and describe some Arabic dialects; but their researches are considered as one-off efforts, instead of updated regularly by central regulatory organization.

in the Gulf region. While there are major differences between Gulf and MSA, Gulf has notably preserved more of MSA's verb conjugation than other varieties have (Versteegh, 2001).

- **Iraqi**: Sometimes considered to be one of the the Gulf dialects, though it has distinctive features of its own in terms of prepositions, verb conjugation and pronunciation (Mitchell, 1990).
- **Maghrebi**: Heavily influenced by the French and Berber languages. The Western-most varieties could be unintelligible by speakers from other regions in the Middle East, especially in spoken form. The Maghreb is a large region with more variation than is seen in other regions such as the Levant and the Gulf, and could be subdivided further (Mohand, 1999).

(Cited in Zaidan and Callison-Burch, 2012: 3-4)

The breakdown of regional dialects of Arabic is obviously illustrated in the following map:

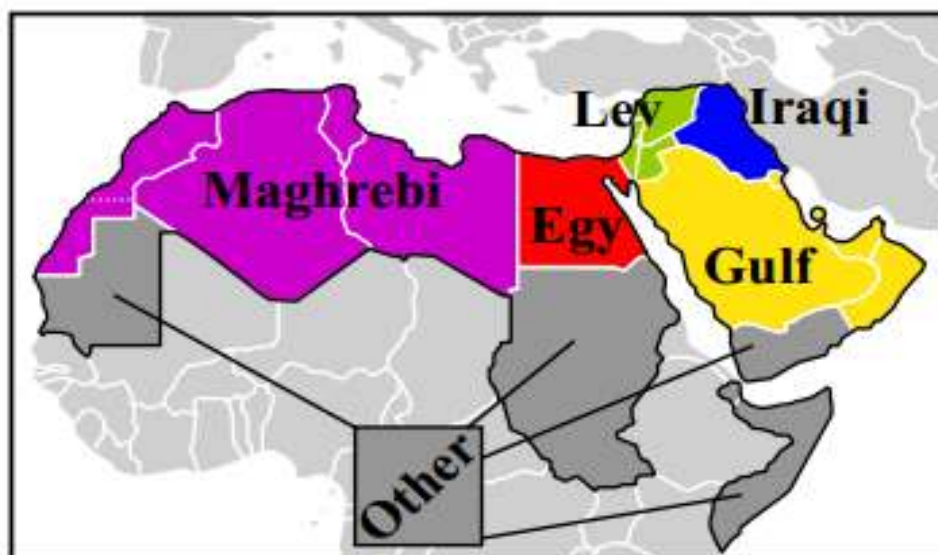


Figure 2.2. Spoken Arabic Dialect Groups

(ibid: 3)

It is noticed that this is a primary division of the dialect groups; however, there is a further subdivision exclusively in large region like Maghreb.

2.5. ALGERIAN ARABIC

Algeria, being a part of the Muslim and the Arab world, declares that Standard Arabic (SA) is its national and official language (Miliani, 2003), (Benmoussat, 2003), (Mouhadjar, 2002) in all sectors including: *educational, political, cultural and economic*. Algerian Arabic is one variety of MSA and the most noticeable dialect of Meghreb, Mouhadjar (2002: 1) claims: **“Dialectal Arabic is the spoken variety and is used spontaneously by the Algerian speaker to express his feeling, thought and communicate”**. It is a continuum of sub-dialects of Meghreb. It is said to be knotty and complex as there are more than one language. The Algerian community is described as multilingual (Mouhadjar, 2002); it is characterized by the co-existence of various languages (Mortad, 1983: 19). The Algerian dialect is originally derived from Arabic; conversely, a diachronic study of the Arabic language (Hassaine, 1984) has evidently exhibited that before the subsistence of Arabic there was another language which is ‘Berber’ or ‘Tamazight’, the language spoken by the native inhabitants of Algeria (Chebchoub, 1985).

According to Chebchoub (1985) the prehistoric period of Algeria witnessed the existence of some African characteristics (Julien, 1931). Algeria, at that time, was occupied by Berbers, Chebchoub (1985: 1) asserts: **“The first known inhabitants of Algeria were the Berbers”**. Anthropologically speaking, the Berbers derived from Caucasian ethnic group. They speak Tamazight (The Berber language) which belong to the Hamitic group of languages. In Algeria, the use of the Berber language is very restricted; however, recently the Berber variety of Algerian Arabic (AA) holds the status of a national Algerian language. Arabic, on the other hand, was kept away as an official language. It succeeded to some extent in dominating Berber; hence, this led to the emergence of a new variety of language.

French, autonomously, goes with Arabic and is considered as the second official language in Algeria. It is used in *administrative institutions, education and social life* (Mohadjar, 2002).

The Algerian community is then categorized by a fascinating variety of groups; each group amongst the following has its own sub-dialect:

- ❖ The Arabs and they represent the majority of the Algerian population.
- ❖ The Berber groups (Kabyles of Kabylie mountains east Algiers). (Mouhadjar, 2002)
- ❖ The Chaouia of Aures range (South of Constantine) (Al-Aissati: 2005: 60).
- ❖ Mzab and Tuareg (South Algeria).(Brett & Fentress: 1996: 3)

Historically speaking, Algeria witnessed many waves of conquests, loads of ferocious invasions such as: the *Roman*⁵ (100 B.C), the *Vandales* (429 A.D), the *Byzantines*⁶, the *conquests of Arabs*⁷ (700 A.D), the *Spanish*, the *Turkish* (1516) and the *French* (1830) (Chebchoub, 1985). Their existence had an effect on the Algerian dialect since they directly contributed many loan words. Algerian Arabic (AA) borrowed countless words mainly from *French, Turkish, and Spanish*. Thanks to its wide use all over the world, English also contributed some words. For example: *Week-end, fast-food, parking*. Nowadays, Algeria is in possession of many loan words that originated from several and various languages.

⁵“During this period, the Latin language was being adopted; it was open to all men of education who acquired citizenship”. However, “The berber was spoken by the Nomads and pleasants” (Chebchoub, 1985: 3). Mostari (2005: 38) specifies: “Latin was established as the official language of the elite living in urban cities, while Berber was spoken by peasants in the countryside”.

⁶ For more details see (Jullien, 1931).

⁷ “Algeria was being completely easternized by the Arabs” (Chebchoub, 1985: 4)

2.5.1. Algerian Arabic: Diglossic Situation

There exist two major varieties of Arabic in Algeria: Standard Arabic (AA) and Algerian Arabic (AA); **“these two varieties are said to stand in a diglossic relation”** (Chebchoub, 1985: 8) in which MSA or SA are in a functional distribution (Ferguson, 1959). Diglossia⁸ is one of the principle characteristics of the Algerian Arabic (AA) which implies the co-existence of two varieties of the same language; nevertheless, each of those varieties operates distinctively with evidently specified roles. Ferguson (1959) distinguishes between the two varieties and termed one of them “the superordinate” or “High variety”. He says:

Superimposed variety, (...) 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 Gighioli, 1972: 245)

Algerian diglossic situation is completely different and particular as the L variety is dissimilar and far from the H one. The reason behind such distance and gap is illiteracy and colonialism, Ferguson (1970: 359) agrees and explains: “These two

⁸Diglossia was first introduced by the German linguist Karl Krumbacher in his book *“Da s Problem dernen Griechischen Schriftsprache”* (1902) in which he tackles the language situations of Greek and the Arabic (Zughoul, 2004: 201). Conversely, the term was created by the French linguist and anthropologist William Marçais who identified the situation of the Arab community (ibid: 401) “La concurrence entre une langue savante écrite et une langue vulgaire parfois exclusivement parlée”. Ferguson defines (1959: 245) diglossia as : “a relatively stable situation in which addition to the primary dialects of the language (which may include standard or regional standards), there is a very divergent, highly codified (often more grammatically complex) superposed variety, the vehicle of a large and respected body of written literature, either of an earlier period or in another speech community, which is learned largely by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes but is not used by anyof the community for ordinary conversation” (cited in Hudson, 1999: 53). Diglossia is 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” (Gighioli, 1972: 232).

varieties, classical and colloquial, exist side by side in the Arabic speech community in a diglossia relationship”.

Algerians use the Algerian Arabic (AA) in informal situations such as, at home, with friends...etc, the use of language, in this context, is for low functions. However, Standard Arabic is recognized overtly in formal situations as a high H variety. The high and low varieties are said to be distinct from each other: “...in grammar, phonology, and vocabulary..... prestige, literary heritage, acquisition, standardization, and stability” (Romaine, 1994:46). In this quotation, Romaine stresses the importance of grammar that exist in high variety; whereas, it does not in low one. Lexis of the high H variety is also different; in terms of meaning and use, from that of low form L. Some common names and even widespread expressions of homely objects (Mohadjar, 2002) are used in low form. They do not exist in high variety. For instance: the word “curtain” in Standard Arabic is named “*Sita:r*”, however, many people in Algeria use the word “*ridu*” rather than “*rideau*” (Fezzioui, 2013), the word “window” it is used in Algerian Arabic as “*Taqa*” instead of the Standard Arabic word “*Nafida*” and so on and so forth.

A third intermediary variety is placed in mid position and labeled as a “*middle language*” in which the interlocutors, especially the cultivated ones, mix the H form with L one in conversational exchange, this occurs in a semi-formal context. Al-Toma (1969: 5) clarifies:

Between.....CA and the vernaculars....., there exist a variety of intermediary Arabic often called “allugha alwusta” ‘the middle variety’ and described as a result of classical and colloquial, but they reveal a noticeable degree of classicism.

Algerian Arabic is categorized by a triangular linguistic situation (high, middle and low varieties) (Fezzioui, 2013). This pivotal linguistic phenomenon endorses and promotes linguists’ attention as: Blanc (1960), El-Hassan (1977) and Meiseles (1980) (Quoted in Benali, 1993: 4) to conduct many investigations around Arabic. An Egyptian study, for example, was made by Badawi (1973) in order to exhibit and

elucidate the way the Arabic linguistic system functions. In attempt to analyse the levels of Algerian Arabic (AA), one may presume that this figure suggested by the Egyptian linguist can be relevant.

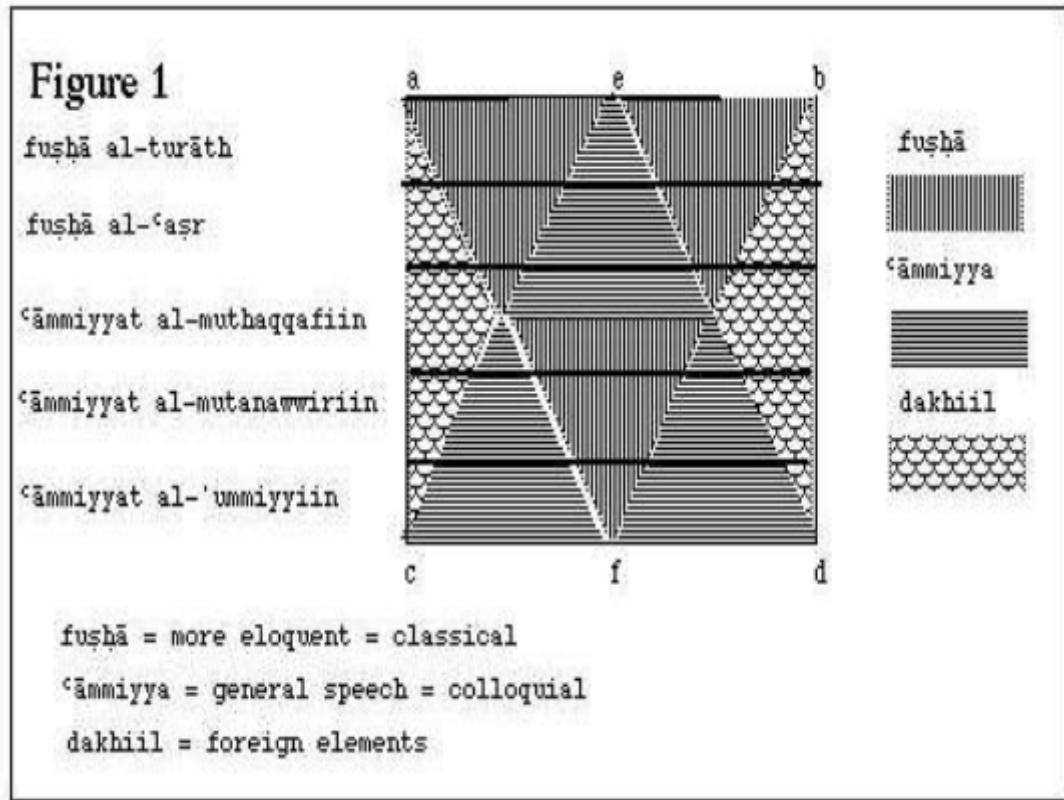


Figure 2.3. Badawi’s (1973) “Levels of Egyptian Arabic”

Badawi’s chart reveals different layers of the Arabic language. These five hierarchical levels are summarized by Freeman (1996) as:

- ❖ Fusha- al- turath —————>The Classical language of tradition
- ❖ Fusha- al- asr —————>The Modern classical language
- ❖ Ammiyat al-muthaqqafiin————->The colloquial of educated
- ❖ Ammiyyat al-mutanawwiriin————-> The colloquial of the enlightened

❖ Ammiyyat al-ummiyyiin —————> The colloquial of illiterate

Similarly, Dendane (2007: 71) refers to the first level as CA which is a Qu'ranic language, the second represents the MSA. The third tier is an educated spoken Arabic, and then the fourth is an elevated spoken Arabic and eventually colloquial Arabic. The term *dakhil* in Badawi's chart refers to the loan words adopted through borrowing.

Algerian Arabic witnesses other kinds of diglossia where H variety can be MSA and L variety is Berber or French as H variety and Berber as L one, this linguistic event is termed as "*interlingual diglossia*" (Derni, 2009). Furthermore, the occurrence of more than two linguistic varieties as: Arabic and Literary or Standard Arabic, Sub-Standard Arabic, Educated Spoken Arabic and Basic Plain Vernaculars (Meisless, 1980) is alluded to as "*polyglossia*" (Platt, 1977). Thus, Mouhadjar (2002) believes that the diglossic situation in Algeria is an intricate and a special one amongst the other Arab diglossic cases. Arabic community, in general, uses the high variety as 'pure' Arabic and low variety (dialect) as 'corrupt' form (Zagad, 2010). In the light of this thought, Lyon (1984) argues that "**diglossia is a particular kind of bilingualism**" (Quoted in Zagad, 2010: 19).

2.5.1.1. Algerian Arabic Bilingualism

The notion of bilingualism remains, for many years of sociolinguistic researches, disputable, though there are various viewpoints about delineating it. None of the sociolinguists could quarrel over the perspective that introduces "*bilingualism*" as the use of two different languages. However, the extent of the mastery of those languages causes such a fuss (Fezzioui, 2013). Horney (1977) maintains that individuals have to master and practice two distinct languages so as to be called "bilinguals" (Cited in Zagad, 2010: 16).

Bloomfield, on his side, refers to bilingualism as the mastery of two separate languages which are restricted to those who possess a native-like ability. Haugen (1956), conversely, contends that bilingualism involves individuals that may have minimal qualification of both languages. Roger (1974) straightforwardly holds that any ordinary interlocutor can be a bilingual speaker whose repertoire includes codes which belong to two dissimilar languages. Beardsmore (1982) has a further vision in which he disregards the level of the mastery of the two languages; instead he perceives that the gradation in bilingualism usages lies on the four foremost skills. A neutral concept was provided by Weinreich (1974) who familiarizes “bilingualism” as merely the use of two languages.

Milliani (2001) believes that “*bilingualism*” is the use of two languages either consciously or unconsciously in daily conversations with a degree of mastery in both languages. He divides a bilingual speaker into ‘*active bilingual*’ who can speak, comprehend and sometimes read and write. The second genre is ‘*passive bilingual*’ that is able only to understand the two languages but masters just speaking, ignoring the other skills (Fezzioui, 2013). Mouhadjar (2002: 991) agrees:

An active bilingual is one who has an active ability in productive and receptive skills even if he does not read or write. The pre-independence uneducative individuals were active bilinguals because they could speak and understand French. Whereas a passive bilingual has a passive ability i.e., he understands French but does not speak it.

Miliani and Mouhadjar’s description was based on the state of Algerian bilingualism since these bilingual speakers are found in or grasped from the Algerian community (ibid). Speaking about Algerian bilingualism, Benali (2003) pictures the Algerian bilingualism as the outcome of language contact, mainly Arabic and French. Mouhadjar (2002: 990) seemingly, goes along with this view and indicates that “**Algerian bilingualism is a special one.**”, since Algerians were linguistically affected by the French colonization (1830-1962). Mouhadjar describes the Algerian bilingualism as not being homogeneous, it can rather be monolingual i.e., not all the Algerians are bilinguals, he further claims that “**the Algerian bilingualism is**

subtractive because Arabic is replacing progressively French in mainly domains: education, politics, and administration” (ibid). Algeria takes a serious policy after its independence to change the situation of Arabic in Algeria. Beneath the ‘Arabization laws, especially the law of 16/01/1991 (Miliani, 2003: 18), MSA is declared as the national and official language in all sectors including: educational, political, cultural and economic, excluding the practice of the French from public administration, education, hospital and economy. Thus, Standard Arabic spreads gradually in Algeria.

In the Algerian policy, specifically in education, children are taught both Arabic and French in an elementary school. Consequently, the Algerian bilingualism is said to be co-ordinate one since languages are learnt separately (ibid). Indeed, there are two major systems regarding the linguistic competence with Algerian bilingualism that are clearly represented by Spolsky (1998: 48):

For a number of years, there was an attempt to distinguish between compound bilinguals whose two languages were assumed to be closely connected, because one language had been learned after (and so through) the other, and co-ordinate bilinguals who had learned each language in separate contexts and so kept them distinct”

According to Fezzioui (2013) bilingualism in Algeria is either ‘societal bilingualism’ which is the consequence of the long ongoing occupation by the French. The second kind is ‘individual bilingualism’ which results from the regional, economic, cultural, ethnic and educational backgrounds (ibid: 47). ‘Individual bilingualism’, itself, is split into ‘balanced bilingual’ and ‘unbalanced bilingual’. In this respect, Mouhadjar (2002: 990) defines these types:

in the pre-independence period those who were in contact with French people were qualified as more balanced bilingual, unbalanced bilinguals; however, are those who came after and whose competence is higher in one language than the other and generally in the mother tongue.

Sometimes those different languages are switched or “**mixed to such a point that result in a bizzare unintelligent language**” (Mouhadjar, 2002: 991).

2.5.1.2. Algerian Arabic: Code-Switching and Borrowing

In bilingualism, interlocutors shift from one language to another (Hudson, 1999). The Algerian bilingualism is also characterized by a special speech behavior called “Code-switching” or “Code-mixing”⁹. Mouhadjar (2002: 991) confesses: “**the Algerians speak two minutes in French, thirty seconds in Arabic then one minute in French and so on.**”, for example:

1- “J’ai pas encore terminé, kare3 wehd cinq minutes ana tani rani ghadi la banque”
1-I have not finished yet, wait for five minutes, me too, I am going to the Bank.

2- “ Je deteste le début de la semaine, teqil bezaf w samet, surtout après les vacances”

2-I hate the beginning of the week, it is too heavy and annoying, mainly after the holidays.

Consider the following conversation:

Conversational Exchange 1:¹⁰

A: Mes amies khosni un emploi li yesma3 b kech khadma ygouli stp
My friend, I need a job, if you heard about any, inform me, please!

⁹The two concepts are sometimes considered alike; however, they vary in terms of usage.

¹⁰Quoted in chatroomconversations

B:Dokhli fi had groupe semouhe « *tout le monde et la* »

Get in to this group it is called « *All the world is here* »

Conversation Exchange 2:

A:Slm lbnat stp roht l dermatho w dert gaa3 les traitements français w madarouli welo, svp c'est urgent l moral rah tayahli, 3awnouni, et merci.

B:Rapper thoum ou khaltih b zit zitoun ou zit lkharwa3 ou dirih deuxfois par semaine fellil ou sbah rohi lelhamam c'est efficace.

Code-switching is widely recognized as the use of two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation or interaction. It is also regarded as “a conversational strategy” used to construct group boundaries; to coin, evoke or change situations. Fishman (1967) refers to code-switching as a situational change, this was clearly illuminated by some sociolinguists, such as Holmes (2001), who believe that code-switching is the outcome of bilingualism wherein bilingual speakers select the language that fits in specific situations and is comprehensible to the recipient, this operation is named ‘situational code switching’. Holmes specifies that code-switching exists within speech events or social situations.

Gumperz (1982), from his part, visualizes code-switching as an exchange of separate languages in terms of grammatical systems and subsystems, and he (1982: 59) labels that “*juxtaposition*”, “**the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems**”(quoted in Romaine, 1989: 121) For example:

- J'ai besoin d'argent; baghi neghda le Turk.
- I need money; I want to go to Turkey.

Trudgill (1992: 16) states: “**The process whereby bilingual or bidialectal speakers switch back and forth between one language or dialect and another**

within the same conversation". Hymes (1974), correspondingly, argues that code-switching is a swap that occurs between two or more languages, or even varieties of languages; this exchange can take-place in style (cited in Ayeomoni, 2006: 91). Milroy and Muysken (1995:7) refer equally to code-switching or code-mixing as **"the alterantive use by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation"**(quoted in Boztepe, 2008: 4).

Switching and mixing two separate languages within one conversation is one common feature of Algerian speech. In Algeria, the state of code-switching is little bit confusing, since it is appeared in a special type called "sabir" which is described as a pidgin French; it is neither French nor Arabic (Fezzioui, 2013: 48). That type of code-switching broadly spread as "Sabir" and "AA/ F code-switching or Francarabic (ibid). For instance:

- ❖ "Ntiya ssayii teconvankih w go3di teinsisti"
- ❖ "You, try to convince him and keep insisting"

Algerians have adopted the conquerors' language (Hussaine, 2011: 18), consequently, there is a large amount of loanwords which was the results of the colonial periods. The Algerian dialect is characterized by some French words, and Spanish ones, especially, in the Western (Oran, Ain-Témouchent...etc).

Spolsky (1998) states this kind of code-switching can be regarded as the beginning of borrowing. Borrowing is widely defined as the inference of words and phrases. In borrowing, Sabir is called "loanblend" wherein a part is borrowed and the other refers to the native language (Romaine, 1989: 52), for instance, in the Algerian speech one may use the word: "*ferchetta*" instead of "*fourchette*" (fork) or "*table*" rather than "*table*" and so on.

2.5.1.3. Algerian Arabic Dialectal Variations

Like all Arabic dialects, the Algerian dialect is said to be variant. It is argued that there are significant local variations within the Algerian dialect which differ conventionally from one region to another. Regions themselves especially those which are located in the vicinity of each other may sound unlike. For example: lexically speaking, in Ain-Témouchent *trainers*(BrE) are called ‘*Sabatta*’, however, in El-Maleh¹¹ they are labelled as ‘*Tinissa*’. From a phonological point of view, as moving to Tlemcen, for instance, the verb ‘*say*’ or ‘*tell*’ is pronounced like : ‘*ʔæli*’, in Ghazaouat¹² it sounds as ‘*kali*’. One more example may display the variations of the Algerian dialect as in the pronunciation of ‘*yes*’ in Algiers¹³ it is pronounced as ‘*eeh*’, T. Ar ‘*wah*’, Adrar ‘*aji:h*’.

Algeria comprises numerous and distinct dialects. For instance : North Algerian Arabic differs from south Algerian Arabic and West Algerian Arabic is diverse from East Algerian Arabic and vice-versa.

¹¹ El-Maleh : denotes ‘Salt River’, it is a village situated near to Ain-Temouchent city.

¹² Ghazaouat : A village that belongs to Tlemcen.

¹³ Algiers : The capital of Algeria.

Domains of use	Spoken Medium						Written Medium					
	AA	MSA	CA	French	Berber	English	AA	MSA	CA	French	Berber	English
Political Speech	-	+	+	+/-	-	--	--	+	+	+	--	-
Administration	+	-	-	+	-	--	--	-/+	-/+	+/-	--	-
Religion	+	+	+	-	-/+	--	--	+	+	-	-	-
Education	-/+	+	-	+	-	+	--	+	+	+	-	+/-
Documentation							--	+	+	++	--	+
Economy/Industry	+	-	-	++	-	+	--	-	-	++	--	-/+
Edition							--	+	-	++	--	-
National Press	-/+	+	++	++	-/+	--	-/+	+	-	++	--	-
Foreign Press							--	-	-	++	-	--
Advertisements	+	+	-	-	-/+	--	-/+	+	-	+	-/+	--
Public Bills							--	+/-	-	+	-/+	-/+
Radio Programmes	+	+	-	+	+	--						
TV Programmes	-/+	+	+	+	-/+	-						
Cinema	+	+/-	-	+	-	-						
Theatre	+	-	-	-	-/+	-						
Daily Conversation	++	-	-	+/-	-/+	-						

Table 2.2. Areas of Language practice in Algeria (Qu  fflec et al, 2002: 103)

2.5.2. Ain-T  mouchent: A Geo-Linguistic Background

A diachronic study of language enables sociolinguists to examine its linguistic evidence (Crystal, 1995); therefore, the present summary account is provided so as to determine T. Ar origin and introduce the dialect of Ain-T  mouchent as a distinct spoken variety of (AA). Ain-T  mouchent has been occupied for more than 15.000 years. It has a Berber origin; this is evidenced by the etymological signification of the word ‘*Ain-T  mouchent*’. In this respect, Safi asserts (1997 :11) “...sur le sens

étymologique de ce mot, à qui on prête une origine berbère”, he adds (1997 :14) **“Ain-Témouchent, ce coin durement éprouvé pansera ses blessures et prendra le nom mi-arabe, mi- berbère de Ain-Temouchent ou littéralement ‘Source des chacals”**, that is to say, the word Ain- Temouchent denotes *“Foxes' source”* which is neither entirely a berbèr word nor a fully Arabic one. On the other hand, Temouchent Arabic is a spoken variety of (MSA) and (AA), this indicates that it stands as a so-called *‘dialect’*.

As it was mentioned earlier, the Temouchent community speak a variety of AA spontaneously; whereas, they study exclusively written Arabic. Temouchent Arabic is no longer regarded as Arabic since it is a mixture of other languages; it is described as being heterogeneous.

2.5.2.1. Some Characteristics of Temouchenti Arabic Dialect

The dialect of Ain-Temouchent was not born from bareness, instead it was the outcome of a number of historical events and linguistic adjustments that go back to numerous waves of incursions among which the Spanish (1505-1518), the Turkish (1515-1830), the French (1830). There were many other invasions, but the previous ones left a profound linguistic imprint which appears perceptibly.

While drawing much attention to TAD, one may find out that there is such a harmony between more than two languages, amongst which L1. These varieties date back to the numerous invasions which existed in Algeria. They are deemed as linguistic phenomena. T. Ar is said to be bilingual since Témouchenti get use to include more than one language in their speech, they can be either active or passive bilinguals (Milliani: 1986). T. Ar can be described as a multilingual or trilingual dialect, rich of loan words, that is, one may find three or more languages in Ain-Temouchent. For example:

For example, the following table puts on view some Turkish lexemes which are very few in comparison to the French loan words:

Turkish Lexemes	Gloss	Original Pronunciation	TAD Pronunciation
Baklava	Baklava	[bʌklava]	[baqlawa]
Tencere	Cauldron	[tendʒere]	[ʔanʒra]
Besmek	wooden slippers	[beʃemq]	[beʃmeq]

Table 2.3. The Turkish Loan words in TAD

TAD	French Words ¹⁴	Gloss
Couzina	Cuisine	Kitchen
Blonda	Blonde	Blonde
Gourgette	Courgette	Courgette
Lotto	Automobile	Automobile
Carta	Carte	Card
Remorka	Remorque	Trailer
Pentoufla	Pantoufle	Slippers

Table 2.4. The French loanwords in TAD

Besides French, Spanish is also present in (AA) since it contributed scores of words that are frequently used among the Algerian community, among which the following words:

¹⁴ French words are quoted in the French Dictionary ‘Larousse’

TAD	Spanish Words ¹⁵	Gloss
Saquila [səkwi:lə]	Escuela	a school
Sémana [sɪmanə]	Semana	a week
Cabasseau [ka:basə]	Cartapacio	a bag
Sabat [sa:bat]	Zapato	a shoe
Tchangla[tchanglita ¹⁶]	Chancleta	a flip-flop
Mario [marɪə]	Armario	Wardrobe
Borico [bɔrɪkə]	Borrigo	Donkey
Féshta [fiʃta]	Fiesta	Festival
Carantita [kerentita ¹⁷]	Caliente	Food / hot
Lekhiya [lɪxiʝa]	Lejía	Liquid for cleaning
Corto [kɔrtə]	Corto	Short
Pakha [paxa]	Baja	Small
Larga [larga]	Larga	Tall
Sokor [sɔkɔr]	Azúcar	Sugar
Calabéssa [calbo ¹⁸]	Calvo	Bald
Cokho [kɔxə]	Cojo	Lame
Roukhou [ru:xu:]	Rojo /rubio	Red
Sandala [səndala]	Sandalía	Slingback
Partiya [pɑ:rtɪʝa]	Partido	Part
Serbita [sərbi:ta]	Servilleta	Towel
Jakita [ʒakɪta]	Chaqueta	Jacket
Slata [slaʔa]	Ensalada	Salade
Sagya [sagja]	Acequia	Spring
Gatta [geta]or [gata]	Gata	a cat

Table2.5. The Spanish Loan words in TAD

¹⁵ Spanish Words are taken from the Spanish Dictionary 'EL DICCIONARIO' 1st edition.

¹⁶ /ʃəŋglə/ or /ʃəŋgli:ʔa/

¹⁷ It is also pronounced /keran/

¹⁸ /Kalabɪsə/ or /kalbɔ/

Among the interesting features of the TAD what is acknowledged in sociolinguistics as “*Diglossia*” and “*Code-Switching*”. Indeed, TAD is full of code-switching. When overhearing some Temouchent dialogues, there seems to be an apparent shift from MSA to T. Ar then from French to English as well in the pronunciation of an utterance. Let’s consider the following sentence in which a son is talking to his father:

a- Face to Face Conversation

- [ʔabɪ, redouane rah fɪ(la fin), rah baxi: jʔawed jelʔab, darwək (tu:rtɪ), hah ʔandek kətbu:lah (geɪm ɪz ɒvər)].
- Father, redouane reaches the end, he wants to play again, and it is my turn now. Look, it is written game is over.

b- A conversation through Phone

Father: [wɪnta twalɪ ləda:r ʔ]	When do you come back home?
Son: [nʒɪ had ʔəl (week-end) ɪnfalɪh]	I come back in the week-end, God will
Father: [(d'accord) əjja (portes-toi bien)]	ok then, take care of yourself
Son: [ʃaha, bəslama]	all right, goodbye

It is easy then to spot that there is more than one language in the above sentence as well as conversation. For instance : there exists the words “*Abi*” /ʔabɪ/, “*yelʃab*” /jelʃab/, and “*beslama*” /bəslama/, “*inchAllah*”, /ɪnfallah/ which are purely Standard Arabic words, then the French words “*La fin*”, “*d'accord*”, “*portes-toi bien*” and the loan word “*tourti*” i.e., “*Mon tour*”, besides the T. Ar like “*baxi yeʃawed*”, “*winta dʒɪ*” /wɪnta dʒɪ/. It is a matter of interest to come across such English words in the TAD as “*game is over*”, “*week-end*”. While pronouncing the foregoing utterance, for instance, the child unconsciously respected the segmental and supra-segmental features of each language intuitively, it was also the case within the second

conversation. However, it should be highlighted that sometimes a loan word is mispronounced because either the sounds are not frequent in the mother tongue or the problem relies on the persons themselves. One may examine the next conversation between a daughter and her mother:

Daughter: [mama wɪ rahəm swalhɪ?] Mom! Where are my stuffs?

Mother: [ʃɒfihəm f (sachet noir)] they are in the black pouch

Daughter: [kajən ɪ (dedɔɔ) wɪ rah l (élénaire)] there is only deodorant, where is the eye liner?

Mother: wah bentɪ, malgrɪləkʃ (élénaire) (la marque) nteʔah (Bourjois)
Yes my daughter, I did not find an eye liner having the mark “Bourjois”.

Both of the daughter and her mother mispronounced two loan words. For example, the daughter uttered the French word “dedɔɔ”, instead of “deodorant” /derɔdɔɔ/, and both of them mispronounced the the English word “élénaire” rather than “eye liner” /aɪlənə(r)/.

TAD is described as being varied and divergent. In particular, it is characterized by various phenomena. At the phonological level, for instance, one may cite the phonological variations among which the pronunciation of the uvular plosive phoneme /q/. In Ain-Témouchent /q/ is pronounced /g/ such as:

MSA	TAD	Gloss	
	“baqara”	[bəgra]	“cow”
	“qɔdama”	[gɔdam]	“in front of”
	“qarib”	[gri:b]	“near”
	“qala”	[gal]	“say”
	“qırba”	[gerba]	“bottle”
“ʔatliqi”	[talgiɪ]	“let it” (imper)	

However, there is a number of apparent exceptions, the same as: /qaraʔtu/, [qri:t], /ʔaqði/, [neqði], /qa:ði:/, [qa:ði]. From a phonological perspective, /g/ is thought to be an allophone of one phoneme /q/. Sometimes /q/ and /g/ cause an ambiguity or a dilemma for those who are not acquainted with TAD since /g/ -in some cases- is not estimated as the allophone of /q/. For instance, such allophones as /g/ in connected speech are determined mostly by the meaning that the utterance is intended to convey (Gimson : 1957 :257), it is just through a conceptual distinction (Crystal : 1971) that the difference between /q/ and /g/ as not a phoneme and its allophone can be made. /q/ and /g/ are deemed to be two separate phonemes, such as “gammal” means “he got lice” and “kammal” i.e. “he completed”. The following selected examples illustrate how a change of /q/ or /g/ in T. Ar can bring out a change in meaning:

/qla/ “he fried”	Vs	/gla/	“he grilled”	
		/naqqa/ “he cleaned”	Vs	/nægga/ “peeled off”
		/ʃaqq/ “he cracked”	Vs	/ʃəgg/ “ on the other side of”

(Quoted in F.A.N. Bouhadiba, 1988: 13)

One of the most prominent features of TAD is the substitution of the dental fricative /θ/ sound for the alveolar plosive /t/. For example:

MSA	TAD	Gloss
/θaqi: l/	[tqi:l]	“heavy”
/θalʒ/	[telʒ]	“snow”
	/θɒlataʔ/	[tlata] “Tuesday”
/θu:mun/	[tu:m]	“garlic”
/mu:θallat/	[mɒtalət]	“triangle”

Another inherent changeability is the omission of the article ‘al’ in the initial position like: “alʕalem” became [leʕlam] “flag”, “allissane” [lsan] “tongue”, “almarad”

[lmard] “illness”, “albard” [lberd] “coldness”. These alterations are said to be a local variation of TAD. The latter underwent some changes at the level of sounds (consonants and vowels). Those adjustments afford a distinctive shape to many words without affecting their meaning.

Algerian Arabic often shortens the syllable structure, for instance, a long vowel becomes a short one. While listening to T. Ar there is a feeling of shortness in several words, as suggested:

MSA	T AD	Gloss	
	/ħaram/	[ħram]	“prohibition”
	/ramadan/	[rəmdan]	“ramadan”
	/arsala/	[rsel]	“he conveyed”
/alnissaʔ/	[nsa]	“women”	

In addition to the previous examples; one may encounter different cases by merely paying careful attention to the subsequent illustrations:

MSA	TAD	Gloss	
	/akala/	[kla]	“he ate”
	/ʔɪftara/	[fra]	“he bought”
	/alsamaʔ/	[sma]	“sky”
	/kataba/	[ktəb]	“he wrote”
	/bariʔa/	[bra]	“he cured”

Several other words rely to the above examples which are characterized by the omission of some sounds such as: ʔɪftara the glottal stop /ʔ/, /t/, and /a/ are totally dropped; accordingly, the word seems to be shorter than the preceding examples.

There are some other interesting cases where the glottal stop /ʔ/ i.e., “hamza” is either substituted for another sound or completely elided.

1- Initial position

MSA	TAD	Gloss
/ʔasnan/	[sənni:n]	“teeth”
/ʔanta/	[nta], [ntaja]	“you”
/ʔukhti:/	[χti:]	“my sister”
/ʔoskot/	[skut]	“don’t speak”

2- Medial position

MSA	TAD	Gloss
/mirʔat/	[mraja]	“a mirror”
/ʔimraʔa/	[mra]	“a woman”
/biʔr/ [bi: r]		“a well”
/faʔr/[fa: r]		“a mouse”
/faʔs/[fa: s]		“a poleaxe”
/kaʔs/[ka: s]		“a glass”

3- Final position

MSA	TAD	Gloss
/dawaaʔ/	[ddwa]	“a medicine”
/hawaaʔ/	[ləhwa]	“air”
/bukaaʔ/	[ləbka]	“crying”

/ʃɪwaaʔ/	[ʃwa]“barbecue”
/el-maaʔ/	[lma]“water”

It is not sufficient; however, to consider merely one position in the use of /ʔ/. Possibilities of the occurrence of /ʔ/ have to be investigated in initial, medial as well as final positions. It is important to put emphasis on the fact that T. Ar is characterized by what is accepted as ‘*gemination*’ or ‘*doubled consonants*’. According to Roach (1992:46) gemination comes about when “**Two identical sounds are pronounced next to each other**”. That is, the process of gemination occurs when a spoken consonant is prolonged, as a consequence, the consonant sounds durable. Just as Roach (ibid) defines gemination, Arab phoneticians like Sibawayh (cited in Haroun: 1973-1975) agree that gemination is to double one consonant; yet, in the Arabic Alphabet that duplication is substituted by “*shadda*”, a small written mark comparable to “w” placed right above the consonant. “*Shadda*” is the most frequent indication in Arabic, it belongs to the group of “*ḥarakat*”¹⁹; correspondingly, within TAD a doubled consonant sound is perceived as being longer. For instance: ‘*mudarrisa*’ ‘*teacher*’ vs ‘*madrasa*’ ‘*school*’. The researcher can illustrate “*shadda*” in three main word positions.

1- Word- initial position :

MSA	TAD	Gloss
/ʔæl ðalam/	[ʔ(ə)ððlam] or [ððəlma]	“darkness”
/ʔal namu:s/	[nnamu:s]“law”	
/ʔal tvʃfah/	[ttəʃah]“apple”	
/ʔal ʃala:t/[ʃʃalat]	“praying”	
/mama:/	[mma]“mom”	

¹⁹Go to page

2- Word- medial position :

TAD	Gloss
/bærrad/“Jug”	
/bazza/	“little girl”
/dawwær/	“roll” (imper)
/raggeb/	“he peered”
/ʕaddebni/	“he persecuted me”
/zajjar/	“ strain strongly”

3- Word-final position :

TAD	Gloss
/ʃædd/	“strain”
/mædd/	“give”
/mæll/“get bored”	
/ʒænn/	“sprite”
/hamm/	“melancholy”
/rædd/	“answer” or “give sth back (to sb)”

One may notice that these variations within T. Ar can be shared with other regions in Algeria. This inevitably leads to ‘*a mutual intelligibility*’.

In connected speech, a spoken language tends to be rapid; accordingly, a change must be pointed out especially at the level of segments. This affects the way some sounds are uttered. Certain segments, for instance, are noticeably influenced by other adjacent sounds, while others are added may be to express a negation or the feminine gender. Some segments; on the other hand, are totally vanished. This is exactly so within MSA.

Amongst the several alterations that occur in MSA, there is a well-known process labelled by many linguists as ‘*assimilation*’ which is the substitution of certain segment into a contiguous one. In this vein, Crystal (1995: 247) explains “Adjacent sounds often influence each other so that they become more alike, assimilate”. The substituted segment can be either identical or distinct.

In MSA, an example of an anticipatory assimilation can be manifested in the case where the nasal /n/ at a final position turns out to be a glide, precisely, when it is followed by glides. For instance, /man jaqu:lu:/ “who says” or /man jaʕmelu:/ “who works” became /maj jaqu:lu:/ and /maj jeʕməl/²⁰. It is worth mentioning that the geminate [j j] is nasalized. There are several examples of regressive assimilation in T. Ar. Some sounds acquired phonetic variations. As an instance of a phonetic assimilation involving nasality, the following examples can testify the substitution of the bilabial nasal /n/ for the nearby [m] or the velar nasal /ŋ/:

MSA	TAD	Gloss
nedrouma /nədru:ma/	madrouma [mədru:ma]	Nedrouma (a city)
ʒenbi /ʒənbi:/	ʒembi [ʒəmbi]	my side
janqoso /janqosə/	jenqos [jəŋqəs]	decrease
janqatɪʕ /jenqatɪʕ/	jangtaʕ [jəŋtaʕ]	cut off

Table 2.6. The substitution of two segments

According to the above table one may take for granted the following:

/n/ [m]
/ n/ [ŋ]

²⁰ This Kind of assimilation is referred to in Arabic as ‘El-Idgham’ /ʔəl-Idʕɑ:m/. A. A, El-jazaʔiri p. 33

Another example can be stated in this vein, that is the exchange of the labio-dental fricatives/v/ by [f] before a dark lateral /ɫ/. For example :

- 1- “kont fel village” /kɔnt fəl vɪɫɑ:ʒ/ became “kont fel fillage” /kɔnt fəl fɪɫɑʒ/

“I was in the village”

There is a case when the bilabial plosive /b/ is realized [m], however, it is hardly ever used among the Temouchenti community. For example:

- 2- “bsahtek” [bsahtək] became “msahtek” [msæhtək] “congratulation”

/b/ [m]

In this genre of assimilation, the bilabial plosive is substituted for a segment that is similar in terms of place of articulation; but, different as nasal [m] vs plosive.

One more illustration may reveal a further possibility; for instance, instead of saying: “ou men baɫd” /u: mən bɫd/ “what comes after?” Temouchent community spontaneously says “ou mbaɫd” /u: mbəɫd/ the geminate [m m] is rather pronounced, this took-place where /n/ and /b/ fuse into a free singlenew segment [m]. This sort of assimilation is referred to as “*coalescence*”. It crops up when there is a reciprocal influence between two fused sounds resulting in a new sound (Crystal: 1995). Temouchenti community is often unaware of these alterations in their speech, solely because it has no harm on the intended meaning.

As TAD expedites, countless sounds are anticipated to be counted out or elided, for the reason that some segments are hard to pronounce, or they sound heavy. This is particularly evident when a bunch of consonants follow each other without any interruption, as in:

a -A cluster of consonants:

- 1- “shefti” /ʃəfti:/ turned into “sheti” [ʃətti] “Did you see?”
/f/ is assimilated to /t/.
- 2- “jerham bouk” [jerham bu: k] developed into “hambouk” [hambu: k] “please”
/j/, /e/, /r/ are dropped down. This is called ‘Syllable dropping’
- 3- “Allah jeraḥmah” /ʔəlləh jərəḥməh/ grew to be “lla jeraḥmah” /llə jərəḥməh/
/ʔ/, /ə/, /l/ are elided.
- 4- “taṣef ki daṣli besfaṣi:” /taṣef ki daṣli bəsfaṣi/ is converted into
“ta ki daṣli besfaṣi” /ta ki daṣli bəsfaṣi/ “You cannot imagine how he slapped me!”
/r/, /e/, /f/ and /r/ of (darli) as well are left out.
- 5- “win rakom” /win rakom/ became “wirakom” /wirakom/ “where are you?”
This is known as ‘back assimilation of [r] to [n]’.

It is fairly obvious from the aforementioned demonstration that certain sounds are assimilated as speech speeds up. In phonology, this process is branded as “assimilation”.

2.6. STANDARD ENGLISH

Standard English is (often abbreviated to SE) is a form of the English language that is referred to as a national norm in any English-speaking country (Throne, 1997). It comprises: grammar, vocabulary and spelling. In United Kingdom (mainly in England and Wales) it is correlated with the “Received Pronunciation”, however, United Kingdom Standard English (UKSE) is associated with grammar and vocabulary. There are several types of Standard English, for instance, Scottish Standard English in Scotland, General American Standard English in United States and General Australian Standard English in Australia (Smith, 1996). Crystal (1995:

110) states “We may define the Standard English of an English-speaking country as a minority variety (identified chiefly by its vocabulary, grammar, and orthography) which carries most prestige and is most widely understood”. In the figure below he classifies various types of Standard English.

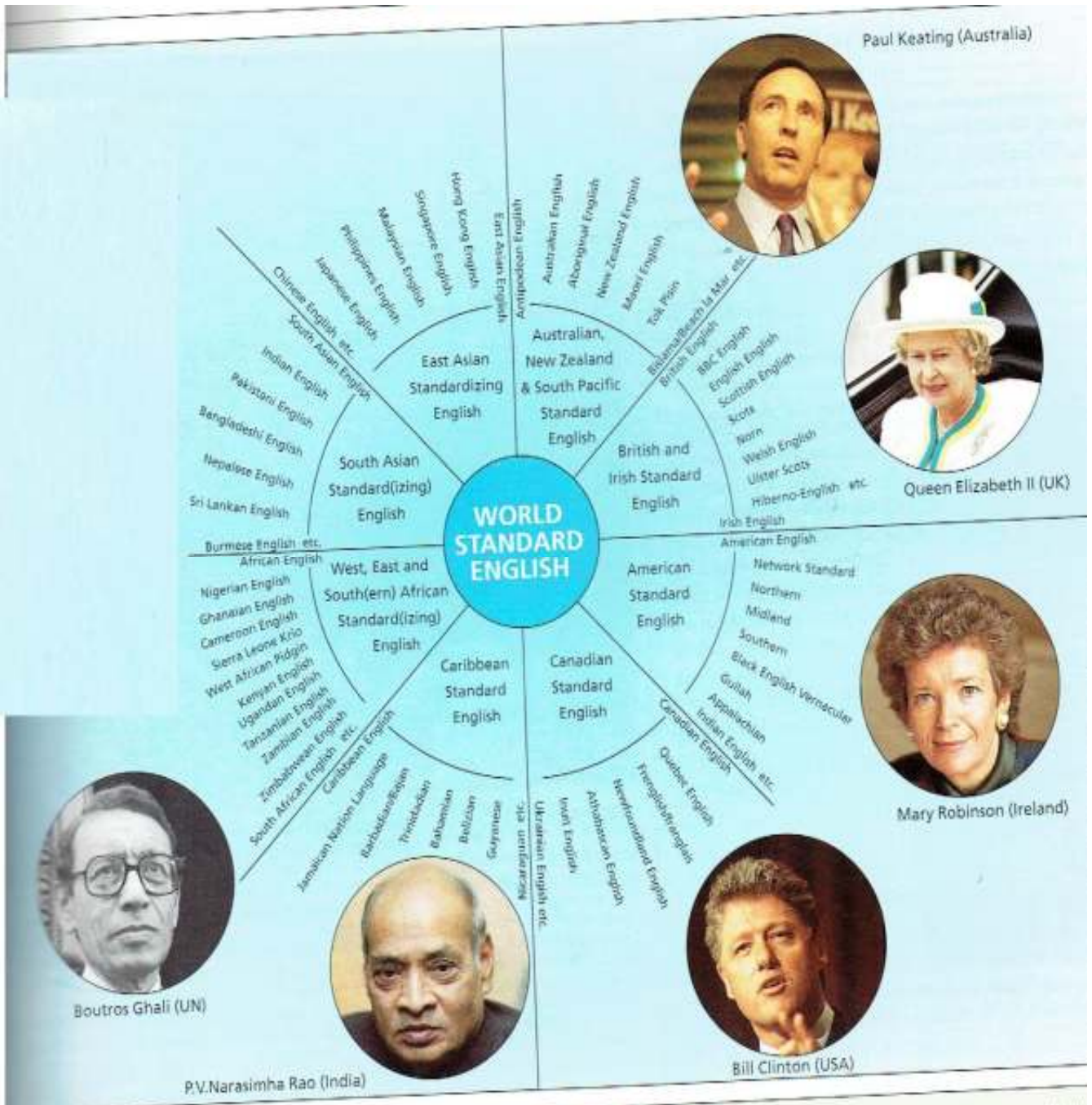


Figure 2.4. Crystal's Types of Standard English

(Crystal, 1995: 111)

Among the dozens of sociolinguistic definitions of Standard English available in the literature of English, the one stated by Fairclough (2001: 48)

“Standard English was regarded as correct English, and other social dialects were stigmatized not only in terms of correctness but also in terms of which indirectly reflected on the lifestyles, morality, and so forth of their speakers, the emergent working class of capitalized society: they were vulgar, slovenly, low, barbarous, and so forth”.

The eighteenth century witnesses the codification of English which took place in England with standardization process of language (Garvin, 1993). Codification as a process has a historical background in Britain by the eighteenth century (Hickery, 2010).

It is said that it is owing to the social change and the urban industrial working class which occurred in England by the early and mid-Victorian era that the so-called ‘*class dialects*’ emerged; it derived from rural dialects (Mugglestone, 1995:74). At that time one of the major features of class was pronunciation, Graham(1869: 156) asserts that ‘**the language of the highest classesis now looked upon as the Standard of English pronunciation**’ (Quoted in Mugglestone, 1995:70). RP as a Standard accent maintains its superiority as the upper usage, this was mentioned by Wyld (1934) who labeled it ‘**the most pleasing and sonorous form**’ (Quoted in Milroy, 2000:19). However, Trudgill (1999) believes that SE is not an accent but a dialect. He (1999b: 124) argues:

Standard English is not a style, a register or an accent, noting that its speakers have access to a full range of informal styles, and can produce it with different accents, and can produce it with different accents, while non-standard speakers can discuss technical subjects without switching to Standard English Standard English is a dialect, defined by the criteria I have discussed. However, because it is standardized and codified, it is not part of a

**continuum of dialects: either a feature is standard,
or it is not.**

In the British dialectology, researchers separate the two concepts: *dialect and accent* to demonstrate the varieties of English (Abercrombie, 1967:19; Trudgill, 1975:20; Crystal, 1995: 298). Standard English as an RP is defined as a particular way of pronouncing a language (Trask, 1997: 3) which is English. RP is regarded as an accent that refers solely to differences in pronunciation (Trudgill, 2000: 5). Hughes and Trudgill (1996: 9) consider Standard English as a dialect which represents ‘**varieties distinguished from each other by differences of grammar and vocabulary**’. The focus, in the current study, will be on Standard English as a dialect mainly a standardized and codified dialect.

2.6.1. Features of Standard English

David Crystal (1995), in his book, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*, extracts five indispensable features of Standard English, which are summarized as follows:

- SE is a variety of English_a distinctive combination of linguistic features with a particular role to play. Some people call it a ‘dialect’ of English_ and so it is, but of a rather special kind, for it has no local base....there is nothing in the grammar and vocabulary of a piece of SE to tell us which part of a country it comes from.
- The linguistic features of SE are chiefly matters of grammar, vocabulary, and orthography (spelling and punctuation). It is important to note that SE is not a matter of pronunciation: SE is spoken with a wide variety of accents (including, of course, any prestige accent a country may have, such as British RP).
- SE is the variety of English which carries most prestige within a country. ‘Prestige’ is a social concept, whereby some people have high standing in the eyes of others, whether this derives from social class, material success, political strength, popular acclaim, or educational background. The English that these people choose to

use will, by this very fact, become the standard within their community. In the words of one US linguist, SE is ‘the English used by the powerful’ (James Sledd)

- The prestige attached to SE is recognized by adult members of the community, and this motivates them to recommend SE as a desirable educational target. It is the variety which is used as the norm of communication by the community’s leading institutions, such as its government, law courts, and media. It is therefore the variety which is likely to be the most widely disseminated among the public. It will, accordingly, be widely understood_ though not to the same extent by everyone, and with varying comprehension of some of its features (thus motivating the demands of the ‘plain English’ campaigns. It may not be liked.

- Although SE is widely understood, it is not widely produced. Only a minority of people within a country (e.g. radio, newscasters) actually use it when they talk. Most people speak a variety of regional English, or an admixture of standard and regional Englishes, and reserve such labels as ‘BBC English’ or ‘the Queen’s English’ for what they perseve to be ‘pure’ SE. Similarly, when they write itself a minority activity the consistent use of SE is required only in certain tasks (such as a letter to a newspaper, but not necessarily to a close friend). More than anywhere else, SE is to be found in print.

(Obtained from Crystal, 1995: 110)

Trudgill highlightssome idiosyncrasies of Standard English grammar, four of which (perhaps the most widespread in mainstream dialects) are shown below:

1. Standard English does not distinguish between the forms of the auxiliary *do* and its main verb forms. Non-standard varieties normally include the forms *I done it* (main verb), *but did he?* (auxiliary): Standard English has *did* for both functions.
2. Standard English does not permit double negation (negative concord), as in *I don’t want none*.

3. Standard English has an irregular formation of the reflexive, with *myself* based on the possessive *my*, and *himself* based on the object form *him*. Non-standard dialects generalise the possessive form, as in *hisself*.

4. Standard English redundantly distinguishes between the preterite and past participle forms of many verbs, as in *I saw* – *I have seen*, or *I did* – *I have done*, where dialects have forms like *seen* or *done* for both.

(Adapted from Trudgill 1999b: 125)

Another linguist working along similar lines is Hudson (2000), who lists further Standard English features, including:

5. Standard English adverbs ending in *-ly*, as in *Come quickly!* Most non-standard varieties use the bare form, as in *Come quick!*

6. Standard English relative pronouns *that* or *which*. Non-standard varieties tend to have *what*.

(Quoted in Kerswill, 2006: 8-9)

2.6.2. British English (BrE) and American English (AmE)

There are two main varieties in the English world AmE (American English) and BrE (British English) which are characterized by some differences, especially at the level of vocabulary, spelling and grammar (Modiano, 1996), (Tottie, 2002). But before moving further to drive a clear distinction between British and American English, it seems to be, in every respect, rational to probe what may British and American English symbolize?

British and American English reflect the spoken and written forms through which English can exist. RP or BrE is the English required to be taught as ESL/EFL and should be applied as an academic form of English; while, AmE has widely spread and governed the Anglosphere (Clark, 2012). This should not mean that AmE is not a standard variety of English as **“standardness is something they largely share with each other and other varieties worldwide”** (McARTHUR, 2002: 247). Thus, they are both forms of English used distinctively. BrE is one shape of English that is utilized in United Kingdom; however, American English is practically used in United States of America and people around the world may follow one of these forms of English, in this respect, Crystal (1995:111) confirms: **“...All other countries can be grouped into those which follow American English, those which follow British English”**.

There are some common differences between BrE and AmE, Crystal, for instance stresses mainly the grammatical one, he specifies: **“There is also a certain amount of grammatical distinctiveness, especially between US and UK English”** (ibid). Marak (2006: 10) transcends the grammatical layer to others; he states that these differences depend principally on four levels: *The level of pronunciation, the level of spelling, the level of vocabulary and the level of grammar.*

Briefly, the most common and crucial differences between BrE and AmE can be shown, for example, at the first and second levels which are considered **“from most viewpoints the least important type of linguistic organization”** (Quirk, 1985: 18). McARTHUR (1992: 42) proves ironically that the spelling differences **“serve as emblems or shibboleths of linguistic nationalism”**. On the other hand, Gelderen (2006) and Tottie (2002) illuminate that the majority of spelling differences are systematic. Some of these systematic differences are summarized in the table below:

Group	British English	American English
1	a chink in <i>sb's</i> armour	a chink in <i>sb's</i> armor
	a knight in shining armour	a knight in shining armor
	be on <i>your</i> best behaviour	be on <i>your</i> best behaviour
	be off- colour	be off- color
	off- colour	off- color
	see the colour of <i>sb's</i> money	see the color of <i>sb's</i> money
	rose- coloured glasses/spectacles	rose- colored glasses
	come through/pass with flying colours	come through/pass with flying colors
	nail <i>your</i> colours to the mast	nail <i>your</i> colors to the mast
	sail under false colours	sail under false colors
	see <i>sb</i> in <i>their</i> true colours	see <i>sb</i> in <i>their</i> true colors
	see <i>sb's</i> true colours	see <i>sb's</i> true colors
	show <i>sb</i> in <i>their</i> true colours	show <i>sb</i> in <i>their</i> true colors
	show <i>your</i> true colours	show <i>your</i> true colors
	a favourite son	a favorite son
	the flavour of the month	the flavor of the month
	a glamour girl/puss	a glamor girl/puss
	be/feel honour -bound	be/feel honor -bound
	do the honours	do the honors
	gallows humour	gallows humor
	schoolboy humour	schoolboy humor
	a labour of love	a labor of love
	be cast in a different mould	be cast in a different mold
be cast in the same mould	be cast in the same mold	
break the mould	break the mold	
They broke the mould when they made <i>sb/sth</i> .	They broke the mold when they made <i>sb/sth</i> .	
Discretion is the better part of valour .	Discretion is the better part of valor .	
2	be/take centre stage	be/take center stage
3	be given the axe	be given the ax
	get the axe	get the ax
	have an axe to grind	have an ax to grind
	be burnt to a crisp	be burned to a crisp
	a grey area	a gray area
	grey matter	gray matter
	a kerb -crawler	a curb -crawler
	kerb -crawling	curb -crawling
	be a licence to print money	be a license to print money
	practise what you preach	practice what you preach
	be spoilt for choice	be spoiled for choice

Table 2.7. A table with three groups of spelling differences

(Selected from Marak, 2006: 12)

Crystal (1995), from his part, encapsulates these differences in the schema mentioned below:

SPELLING							
The spelling differences between British and American English were noted as one of the chief sources of variation in the world press (pp. 80, 300). Several of them are productive, applying to large numbers of words, such as BrE <i>-re</i> , AmE <i>-er</i> (<i>centre / center</i>); BrE <i>-our</i> , AmE <i>-or</i> (<i>colour / color</i>), and BrE <i>-ogue</i> , AmE <i>-og</i> (<i>catalogue / catalog</i>). Many more apply to individual items, including the 100 shown in the following list. An asterisk indicates a usage which is common to both areas in some circumstances; for example, the spelling <i>aesthetics</i> will be found in certain US texts, and <i>inquire</i> is often found in British texts; <i>n.</i> stands for noun. Informal spellings (p. 275), such as <i>nite</i> (<i>night</i>), <i>hilo</i> (<i>high/low</i>), and <i>thru</i> (<i>through</i>), are not listed.							
axe*	ax	gaol	jail*	orthopaedics	orthopedics		
bale out	bail out	garotte*	garote	paediatrician	pediatrician		
battleaxe*	battleax	gauge*	gage	panellist	panelist		
boloney	baloney*	gonorrhoea	gonorrhoea	paralyse	paralyze		
B.Sc.*	B.S.	gramme	gram*	pedlar*	peddler		
buses*	busses	grey*	gray	plough*	plow		
caesarian*	cesarian	gynaecology	gynecology	practice (n.)	practise (n.)		
callisthenics	calisthenics	haemo-*	hemo-	premise*	premis		
cantaloup	cantaloupe*	homoeopath	homeopath	pretence (n.)	pretense (n.)		
carat (gold)*	karat	hosteller	hosteler	primaeval	primeval*		
cauldron*	caidron	inflexion	inflection*	programme	program		
cheque	check	instil*	instill	(not computing)			
chequer	checker	jeweller*	jeweler	pyjamas	pajamas		
chilli	chill*	Jnr.	Jr.*	renegue	renege*		
cigarette*	cigaret	kilogramme	kilogram*	sanatorium*	sanitorium		
cissy	sissy*	largesse*	largess	scallywag*	scalawag		
citrous (adj)	citrus*	leukaemia	leukemia	sceptical*	skeptical		
connexion	connection*	libellous*	libelous	smoulder*	smolder		
councillor*	councilor	licence (n.)	license (n.)	snowplough	snowplow		
counsellor*	counselor	liquorice	licorice*	Snr.	Sr.*		
defence*	defense	manoeuvre	maneuver	storey*	story (build)		
diarrhoea*	diarrhea	marvellous*	marvelous	sulphur*	sulfur		
disc (not computing)*	disk	mediaeval	medieval*	throughway*	thruway		
doughnut*	donut	mollusc*	mollusk	titbit*	tidbit		
draughtsman	draftsman	mould*	mold	traveller*	traveler		
draughty	drafty	moult*	molt	tyre	tire		
encyclopaedia	encyclopedia*	moustache*	mustache	vice (tool)	vise		
enquire	inquire*	M.Sc.*	M.S.	wiiful*	willful		
ensure*	insure	oedema	edema	woollen*	woolen		
faeces	feces	oesophagus	esophagus				
foetus	fetus*	oestrogen	estrogen				
floatation	flotation*	offence*	offense				

(After M. Benson, E. Benson & R. Ison, 1986.)

Figure.2.5. Crystal's Spelling Differences between AmE and BrE

(Extracted from Crystal, 1995: 307)

Modino (1996) clarifies the complexity of demonstrating the differences of pronunciation between AmE and BrE and Tottie (2002) confirms this complexity by comparing Received Pronunciation (RP) which is the formal accent of BrE and Network English within AmE. At the level of sounds, the dissimilarities between

AmE and BrE can be split into systematic and non-systematic (McARTHUR 1992: 42). Marak (2006: 15) believes that:

“...one significant difference between some dialects in AmE and BrE is the post vocalic /r/, thus some AmE speakers speak with a rhotic dialect...another noticeable characteristic of AmE is the pronunciation of the intervocalic /t/. In BrE, /t/ is pronounced as voiceless stop while in AmE it is a voiced tap-a-rapid articulation of a stop with a single tongue tip movement”.

In AmE, the intervocalic /t/ is sometimes uttered as a /d/ such as: *butter, batter, better, and father* (ibid). Still from a segmental perspective, there is also a change as far as the vowel system is concerned, for example, the back open vowel sound is pronounced as long /ɑ:/ in words such as: *bath, fast, half* in BrE (Marak, 2006), however, in AmE, they sound as /æ/. Crystal (1995: 307) exhibits this distinctintion as follows:

SHORT AND LONG A	
RP has many words in /ɑː/ which are pronounced with /a/ in GA. They include the following:	
advance	mask
after	mast
answer	monograph
ask	nasty
aunt	overdraft
banana	pass
basket	passport
bath	past
blast	pastor
broadcast	path
castle	plant
class	plaster
command	raft
dance	ranch
disaster	raspberry
example	rather
fasten	reprimand
France	sample
giraffe	slander
glass	slant
grass	staff
half	task
last	telegraph
laugh	vast

Figure 2.6. The Difference between Long and short A

Differences can be also in rounded back vowels. Within BrE vowel sounds there are distinct back vowels [ɒ], [ɔ], [ɑ:], while in AmE, there are merely two different back [ɔ], [ɑ:].

Tottie (2002) considers “stress” as one feature of pronunciation that marks a difference between AmE and BrE. Stress position in BrE varies from that of AmE even if their words belong to the same word class, Crystal (1995: 307) explains: “**There are many words whose stress varies between the two accents²¹**”. For instance, words ending with ‘*ary*’ or ‘*ory*’, they carry distinct stress assignment as in AmE the stress is on the first syllable, yet in BrE the stress is marked on the second syllable of the word. The table bellow displays stress variation between BrE and AmE:

Words	AmE	BrE
<i>Ancillary</i>	[ˈænsɪ,læri]	[ænˈsɪləri]
<i>Capillary</i>	[ˈkæpɪ,læri]	[kæˈpɪləri]
<i>Corollary</i>	[ˈkɒrə,læri]	[kəˈrɒləri]
<i>Laboratory</i>	[ˈlæb(ə)rə,tɔri]	[ləˈbɒrət(ə)rɪ]

Table 2.8. Stress Distinction between AmE and BrE in words ending with ‘*ary*’/ ‘*ory*’

(Cited in Tottie, 2002: 21)

Furthermore, words ending with ‘*ile*’ are characterized by a weaken vowel in AmE pronunciation which is not the case of BrE, Consider this table:

Words	AmE	BrE
<i>Fertile</i>	[ˈfɜrDəl]	[ˈfɜtaɪl]
<i>Hostile</i>	[ˈhastəl]	[ˈhɒstaɪl]
<i>Virile</i>	[ˈvɪrəl]	[ˈvɪraɪl]

Table 2.9. Stress divergences Between AmE and BrE in Words Ending with ‘*ile*’

(Chosen from Tottie, 2002: 22)

²¹ RP and GA

Eisenstein (1983) claims that **“vocabulary is an obvious area for language variation”** (Quoted in Celce-Murcia, 2000: 78). This is evidenced by the lexical disparity takes a huge position in distinguishing between AmE and BrE (Modiano, 1996). Celce- Murcia (ibid) asserts that **“geographical dialects often reflect vocabulary differences. British and American English are good examples in this regard.”** Aronold (1986: 241) emphasizes its significance as he points out that British and American English vary **“in pronunciation, some minor features of grammar, but chiefly in vocabulary”**. According to Crystal (1995: 308)

“There are three distinctions which have to be made: some words are found only in American (AmE) English, some only in British English (BrE), and some (from either source) have become established throughout the world as a part of Standard English”.

Crystal divides English words into three distinct groups to distinguish between what is purely British or American and what is Standard. This division was obviously shown by Celce-Murcia (2000:78)

Example One:

British American

- | | |
|----------------------------|---------------------|
| ➤ <i>the cinema</i> | <i>the movies</i> |
| ➤ <i>a film</i> | <i>a movie</i> |
| ➤ <i>a lift</i> | <i>an elevator</i> |
| ➤ <i>a boot (of a car)</i> | <i>a trunk</i> |
| ➤ <i>a flat</i> | <i>an apartment</i> |
| ➤ <i>a lorry</i> | <i>a truck</i> |

Example Two:

British: the loo, the W.C

American: The John (informal), the bathroom

(Celce-Murcia, 2000: 79)

The last level of distinction is 'grammar'. Tottie (2002) holds that grammatical differences are unlike the vocabulary ones, as they do not reflect a big change. Modiano (1996) maintains that one of the communal grammatical differences between BrE and AmE are forms of verbs in past and past participle tenses. AmE verbs are ended with 'ed' as the standardized structure of the past tense in English; however, BrE verbs tend to have 't' variety of past tense. This subtle alteration caused a slight change in pronunciation which is usually ignored. Grammatically speaking, the two versions of AmE and BrE past tenses conjugations are officially admitted.

AmEBrE

➤	<i>burn, burned</i>	<i>burn, burnt</i>
➤	<i> dwell, dwelled</i>	<i> dwell, dwelt</i>
➤	<i> get, gotten</i>	<i> get, got</i>
➤	<i> learn, learned</i>	<i> learn, learnt</i>
➤	<i> smell, smelled</i>	<i> smell, smelt</i>
➤	<i> spell, spelled</i>	<i> spell, spelt</i>
➤	<i> spill, spilled</i>	<i> spill, spilt</i>
➤	<i> spoil, spoiled</i>	<i> spoil, spoilt</i>

(Quoted in Modiano, 1996: 125)

2.7. American English (AmE): Its Origin and History

General American (G A) or American English (AmE) is a group of dialects of English language that are widely spread in United States of America (Crystal, 1997). The American community is said to be homogeneous and monolingual with so many regional variations (Labov et al, 2006); in this respect, Crystal (1995: 306) asserts that **“American identity is much bound up with home origins”**. However, though its homogeneity and monolingualism, American English continues to possess a dominant control on “World English”.

In an attempt to trace back the origin and the linguistic history of American English, it is uncovered that the preliminary American term was *“Guaiacum”*; Richard W. Bailey states that this lexis was derived **“from the Taino language in the Bahamas in 1533” (cited in Finegan and Rickford, 2004:3)**. Bailey (1991) explains that the distinct and various waves of immigrations to the new world such as: *Dutch, German, Irish, Spanish* and the Caribbean besides the impact of the Native American languages which had a great influence on the American English lexis; for instance, they contribute words such as: *Chocolate, canoe and powwow* (cited in Finegan and Rickford, 2004: 3). Moreover, the arrival of the British for settlements brought a great deal of transformation to the Native American language and served in the construction of what is known today as ‘American English’. In this vein, it is believed that AmE was the upshot of the British colonization as some American expressions which refer to older Britons seem to be home-based to new American generations (Trudgill and Hannah 2002: 55).

Etymologically, American English earns its huge vocabulary luggage from its contact with other languages, Bailey exhibits this linguistic diversity through the borrowing of some loanwords, for example: *‘bogus’* from African, *‘cookie’* from Dutch *‘bayou’* from French, *‘macarouni’* from Italian, *‘vigilante’* from Spanish, and so on and so forth (ibid).

The multilingualism and multidialectalism of United States of America is the outcome of centuries of linguist changes and developments. Starting from seventeenth century, America witnessed pidgin-like varieties of English which were spread among American and Africans; this led to a complete linguistic diversity in United States. By the beginning of the eighteenth century United States of America was described as a multilingual nation. Yet, in the mid of that century and later on, its sociolinguistic situation became more monolingual. During the twentieth century and the half of the next century America turned out to be a monolingual society than ever, since there were some efforts for making multilingualism unpatriotic (ibid).

2.7.1. Regional Variations of AmE

In Dialectology, notions such as regional variations signify the dialects and even accents of a specific social group. According to Finegan (2004: 19) **“The term is traditionally associated with regional varieties such as those of New York City or the South”**. American English as any language has its distinct disparities from one region to another, he adds (ibid): **“Like all national varieties of any language, American English (AmE) varies across regions and social groups and across the social situations in which it is used”**.

Americans do speak English distinctively according to the different regions they belong to. This variety of American English can be noticed at the level of words, pronunciation and grammar; it is changeable from one region to another. This was supported by William Labov and Ash via an analysis of urban dialects, they (1997: 508) believe:

The main finding of our research, one that violates the commonsense expectation of language works and is supposed to work. In spite of the intense exposure of the American population to national media with a convergent network standard of pronunciation, sound change continues actively in all urban dialects that have been studied, so that the local accents of Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Atlanta, Buffalo, Detroit, Chicago, and San Francisco are more different from each other than at anytime in the past.

Other researches such as those for the American Linguistic Atlas Project (ALAP) revealed that American speakers do not share the same varieties of words, pronunciation and grammar (Houck, 1969). Yet, it is proved through other surveys that only those who live close to each other share the same speech (Kretzschmar, 1996a, Lee and Kretzschmar, 1993). On the other hand, Lepage and Tabouret-Keller (1985) and Johnson (1996) carried out an analysis in which they stressed on the importance of the geographical distributions in shaping the variant linguistic aspects of American English.

Undoubtedly, these linguistic variations of the American language referred to two chief reasons. Initially, the colonial era had brought different varieties of speech habits as there were distinct and isolated communities of colonists, natives, and immigrants. Moreover, the settlements in the American colonies touched three main and large geographical bands: The Mississippi River, the Midland and the Southern regions (Finegan and Rickford, 2004).

Secondly, the contributions of the mix colonists who had different British English dialects; furthermore, Native Americans and immigrants' speech as: The German, the Spanish and others (Marckwardt, 1958:22-58). For instance, there are still some African words from Creole variety which survived and spread in the Sea Islands and the Southern Coast and Southeast (Turner, 1949), (McDavid and McDavid, 1951). Thus, these regional variations emerged from population mixture as every region has its own regional features which may sound dissimilar than others (Miller, 1999).

Crystal (1995) claims that there are several scientific investigations of United States regional dialects through which it is distinguished three broad dialect regions: Northern, Southern and Midland.

According to Crystal (1995: 312) the Northern area **“extends west in a narrow northern strip from western Vermont through New York and across all the northern states to Pacific coast.”** The Southern division contains **“the coastal and piedmont areas of Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, the**

Gulf States, and extending into the eastern part of Texas. In this area also there is frequent loss of final –r” (ibid). The Midland dialect subdivision is regarded as the vastest and largest (Cassidy, 1982) area that includes “**N Pennsylvania and parts of New Jersey, and west into C Ohio and beyond; its southern boundary swings in an arc from C Delaware along the Blue Ridge Mountains of Virginia, and into the Carolinas.**”(Crystal, 1995: 313).

Most of those dialectological studies are based on ‘*Dare*’, as it is named by Frederic G. Cassidy (1907), which is an abbreviated term of *The Dictionary of American Regional English* which “**is the official dictionary of the American Dialect Society**”. (Crystal, 1995: 314). Adams (2011) states that it is a historical dictionary. Cassidy (1982), on the other, maintains that it is an account of American regional and folk speech.

In the map below, there is a representation of the speech areas of the Eastern States of America performed by Kurath (1949).

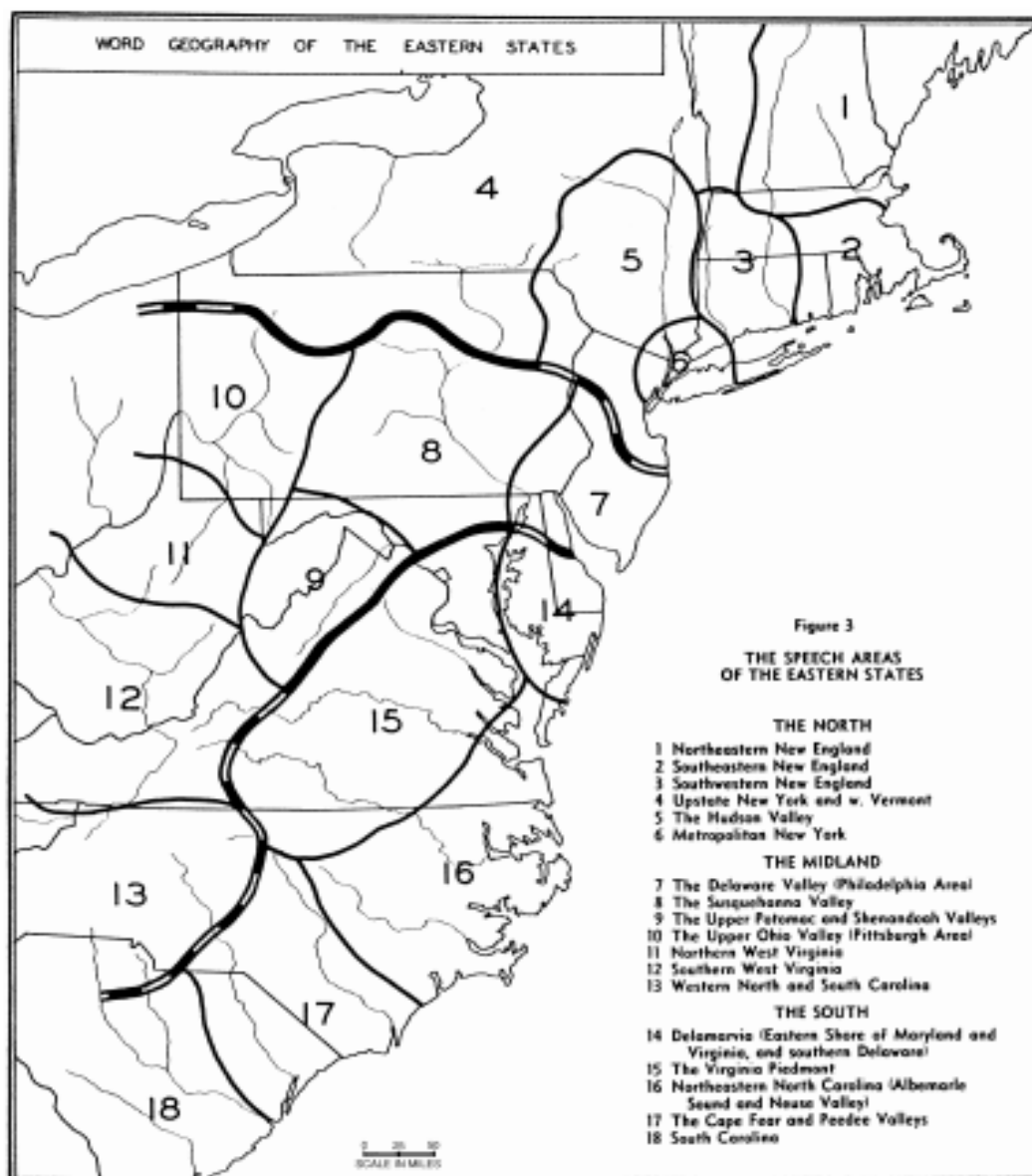


Figure 2.7. Kurath's (1949) The Speech Areas of the Eastern States

Cited in (Finegan and Rickford, 2004: 43)

2.7.2. NEW YORK: GEO-SOCIOLINGUISTIC SITUATION

New York is the heart of United States of America as it is one of the most crowded cities within the country. It implies both the state and the city which is a part of it. *Brooklyn, Manhattan, Queens, the Bronx and Staten Island* are the fifth boroughs of New York each of them is regarded as an independent county of New York State.



**Figure 2.7. The Five Boroughs of New York City:
1: Manhattan2: Brooklyn3: Queens4: The Bronx5: Staten Island²²**

New York City is situated in the Northeastern United States of America, in a coastal position between the Hudson River and the Atlantic Ocean. It is located on one

²²http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:5-boroughs-labels-New_York-City-Map-Julius-Schorzman.png.

of world's largest natural harbors²³. Its area is 468.9 square miles. In 2012, its population reaches 8,336,697 inhabitants.

It was consolidated as a separate city until 1898 though it was established in 1624 by the Dutch colonists under the name 'New Amesterdam' in 1629. Afterwards, its name has been changed to be 'New York' during the English domination (1664) when the king Charles II awarded the land to his brother the Duke York. New York is described as one of the luxurious cities. It is famous for: *Finance, media, art, fashion, education, theatre...etc.* It is a city that groups a great number of immigrants (Zangwill, 1909) as it was stated in the earliest dialectological studies (Babbit, 1896).

Becker and Coggshall (2009) distinguish between two major kinds of groups within NYC: Distinct white ethnic groups with a different language use, the speakers of this category include pre-1880 *Irish and German*. The second wave of these groups belongs to the post-1880 period, and they involve: *Italians, Russians, and Eastern European*. The second group contains the category of non-white ethnic groups i.e., African Americans (Becker and Coggshall, 2009: 755-6). Labov goes along with Becker and Coggshall's division, he (1994: 54) assumes: "**The speech communities in most northern cities are in fact two distinct communities: one white, one nonwhite**". Through this sub-division Labov (1994) believes that ethnicity plays a crucial role in the constitution of New York City English (NYCE).

2.7.2.1. Characteristics of NYE

There are approximately 800 languages within New York. This variety puts New York as the biggest linguistically varied city in the world. With reference to the dialect categorization which was introduced by Cantineau, J (1937-40), Millon, C

²³["How The Earth Was Made"](#). A&E Television Networks, LLC. Retrieved 2011-09-19.

(1937) and Marçais, ph (1960), New York variety is considered as an urban variety of English (Labov and Ash, 1997).

Extensive researches have been performed in urban areas, especially in the cities of Philadelphia and New York. In this context, Labov (1991: 36-37) certifies “**The region for the Southern shift correspond to the coastal and upper South area identified in the Mid Twentieth century, and the Southern shift has urban extension in Philadelphia and New York**”. Labov and Ash (1997) uncovered numerous features within the regional dialects particularly those of the Northeastern and Southern of United States of America; among those features having “*distinct pronunciation*”, or the shift within vowel sounds. As an instance: For a speaker who does not belong to those areas, the following sound can be heard as:

- *Ann as Ian*
- *bit as bet*
- *bet as bat/ but*
- *lunch as launch*
- *talk as tuck*
- *locks as lax*

(Stated in Labov, 1991: 19)

New York City English, being a regional dialect of American English (AmE), is considered as the most noticeable dialect in North America (Labov, 1997). It belongs to the Metropolitan dialects. The New York City Accent is one of the famous and popular accents within United States of American. It is widely spoken in NYC, Western Island and Northern New Jersey (Sheila, 2010).

The variety of American English (AmE) which is known as New York dialect / accent was shaped by distinct factors. A historical study has shown that New York City English was codified in literature by the 1980's (Mencken, 1919). It derives from an ancient variety that incorporates the Mid-Atlantic region (*Philadelphia,*

Pennsylvania, Baltimore, and Maryland). Thus, it shares some specific features with the Mid-Atlantic dialectal offshoots, among which the phonological ones.

One of the most common features of New York City English is “*Rhoticity*” which denote fully r-pronouncing, though the traditional accent of New York used to be a non-rhotic (R- dropping) accent which was, according to W. Labov (1966), a mere imitation of the prestigious London pronunciation or the aristocratic pronunciation which was spread amongst the upper classes. Yet, the modern New York City English accent turns to be a rhotic i.e., –r- sound is pronounced when it occurs at the end of the word or precedes a consonant sound such as: *mother*, and *dark*.

Another notable feature of New York City English is the lessening or diminishing of /h/ sound when it is followed by /j/ sound. Within New York City English /j/ sound is never preceded by /h/ sound instead it is pronounced as /j/ in words such as:

- *human* as /jumən/
- *huge* as /judʒ/

(Quoted in Matthew, 2004: 289)

Besides the substitution of ‘*ing*’ endings for [ŋ] and [n] within the New York accent, New Yorkers pronounce the [ŋg] sound as one variation of /ŋ/. For instance: “*Long Island*” is pronounced as “*Lawn Guyland*” [lɔəŋ ɡaɪlənd] instead of the American pronunciation [lɔŋ aɪlənd] (krugman, 2010). Furthermore, within New York accent vocalization of /l/ sound such as in the word ‘*bilk*’ is rather pronounced as [brɔk], glottalization, alternatively, is a widely spread feature in New York accent which takes-place before syllabic /l/, for example: ‘*bottle*’ sounds as [bɑʔl].

Consistent with wells (1982), the alveolar consonants which are /t/, /d/, /r/, and /l/ in New York accent are produced with the blade of the tongue rather than the tip, this is

known as “laminal alveolar consonants”. The vowel sound /ɔ/ in words such as: talk, walk, law, cross and coffee, and /ɔr/ in words such as: more and core, these words are often raised and tensed from /ɔ/ to gliding ‘aw’ /aʊ/ (Labov, 1966). Furthermore, in New York accent, /d/ sound is often substituted for /t/ and /t/ for /ð/. New York City English is often described as speedy accent of American English.

2.8. CONCLUSION

The central role of this chapter is to elucidate the the socio-linguistic situation of two distinct dialects. This part of the current investigation is opened with an account of historical and socio-linguistic backgrounds of the two varieties which are too vast domains to be comprehensively covered in one chapter such as this, but this research does not analyze systematically the soci-linguistic situation at a wide range as argumentation is the pivot of this research and does dominate a huge area if not the whole one of it. Yet, it is imperceptibly substantial to review and discuss the nature of TAD within the AA variety of standard Arabic and NYE as a descendant of AmE, since argumentation does not occur out of the confines of language. The second chapter of this research is deemed to be an introductory part of the pilot study which is evidently experimented in the subsequent chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

3.1. INTRODUCTION

3.2. RESEARCH SAMPLING

3.2.1. Feminine Youngsters Profile

3.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.3.1. Quantitative Approach

3.3.2. Qualitative Approach

3.4. INSTRUMENTATION

3.4.1. Questionnaires

3.4.1.1. Types of Questionnaires

3.4.1.2. Feminine Youngsters' Questionnaires

3.4.2. Interview

3.4.2.1. Feminine Youngsters' Interviews

3.4.3. Participant Observation

3.5. CONCLUSION

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Research methodology and methods are the ground of this chapter. According to Cohen *et al.* (2007) there are some tactical quests which shape the practicalities of any study, among which the current research is built upon:

1- *What are the research questions?*

2- *What is the style of the research? (For example, experimental research; case study; action research);*

3- *What types of data are required?*

4- *From whom will data be gathered (i.e., sample)?*

5- *How will data be collected (i.e., research instruments)?*

6- *How will the data be analysed?*

(Quoted in Khaldi, 2014: 65)

Chapter three is considered as the pivot of this dissertation. It supplies the methodology used for data collection and analysis in the current research work. It begins with a succinct overview of the methodologies used and affords a background to the design of the current study. Formerly, it testifies the methodology which was regarded essential prior to carrying out this study.

3.2. THE RESEARCH POPULATION SAMPLING

Research investigations are often conducted depending on a sample of subjects instead of the whole population. The research sample of population seeks to identify the ideal case study size and population. It attempts to provide an appropriate answer to the question: *Who will you be surveying? / How many people? ...etc.* To obtain reliable, valid and exact

results, testing all the population is required and favorably recommended. Nevertheless, researchers are aware of the fact that it is quite tough and tedious; furthermore, considered as impossible to include the total number of population and examine every single individual, for this reason, a sampling technique is opted.

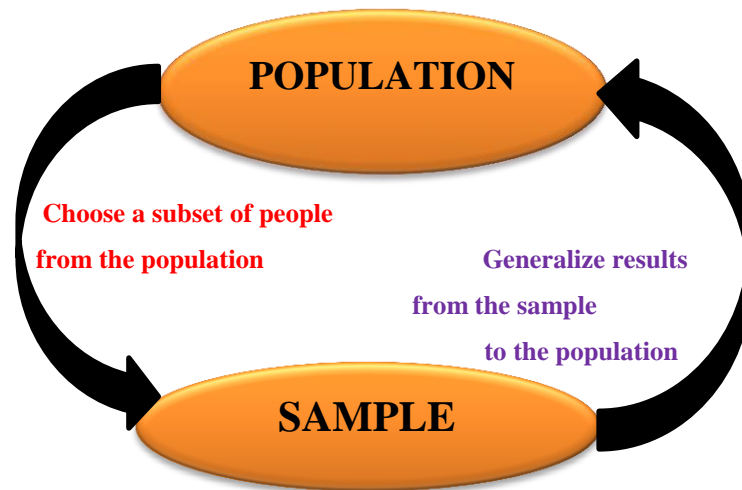


Diagram 3.1. Population Sampling

Population sampling is performed because the entire population requires time, money and much effort. A sample is usually referred to as a small selection of a subset of people. Population sampling encompasses copious junctures¹:

- 1- *Defining the population concern*
- 2- *Specifying a sampling frame, a set of items or events possible to measure.*
- 3- *Specifying a sampling method for selecting items or events from the frame.*
- 4- *Determining the sample size.*
- 5- *Implementing the sample plan.*
- 6- *Sampling and data collecting.*
- 7- *Data which can be selected.*

¹ Quoted in wikipedia

The diagram below demonstrates the process of population sampling:

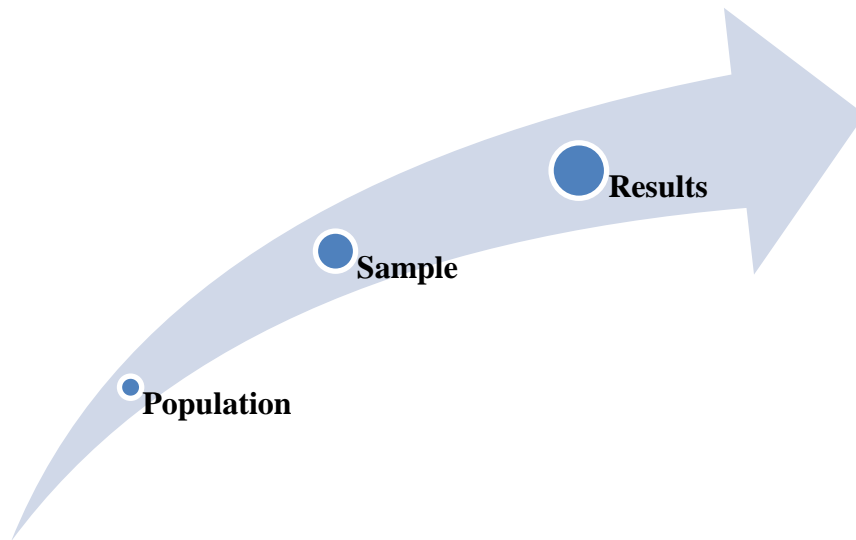


Diagram 3.2. The processing of Research Sampling

The aforementioned process implies the testing that is applied on a specific sample which must be disciplined, systematic and non-biased so that the results could be valid and accurate. The latter ones, which are driven from that sample, can be generalized to represent the whole population.

In order to avoid invalid and misleading data, population sampling should be done candidly, thus, every researcher must select an adequate sampling that serves his/her survey and can draw authentic and reasonable conclusions.

3.2.1. Feminine Youngsters Profile

The subset of individuals involved in this investigation represents young females aged between 15 and 24 years old. All of them are students of distinct streams (Literary, scientific....etc.). They are high school university students. The investigator opted this subset of people using convenience sampling which is grounded on the selection of

samples that are available for the present study (Mackey and Gass, 2005). The current research sample comprises two-hundred and thirty eight participants divided into one-hundred and nineteen Algerian young ladies from Ain-Temouchent and one-hundred and nineteen are American ones from New-York city; to whom the questionnaires were administered. From one angle, one-hundred and forty girls were interviewed in both cities. From another angle, eight participant observations are recorded containing distinct and various numbers of participants and depending on a qualitative approach. The table below attempts to illustrate the number of participants in correspondence with the research instruments used:

Research Instruments	Number of participants	Factual Information
Questionnaires	238 participants	-119 Ain-Témouchent feminine teenagers.
		-119 New-York feminine teenagers.
Interviews	140 interviewees	-70 Ain-Témouchent feminine youngsters
		-70 New-York feminine youngsters.
Participant Observation	Between 2 and 7 participants per / 1 conversation.	- 08 participant observations are recorded:
		-04 Ain-Témouchent conversations.
		-04 New-York conversations.

Table 3.1. The Present Research Methods and Participants

The pollster had to travel to United States of America to collect properly her data. She struggled challenging circumstances in moving to the field of work which is reckoned as the half of the sample under analysis. The data collection method durably consumed much time, money and force as both settings and participants build a crucial ground of the current search. The present research sampling can be simplified as follows:

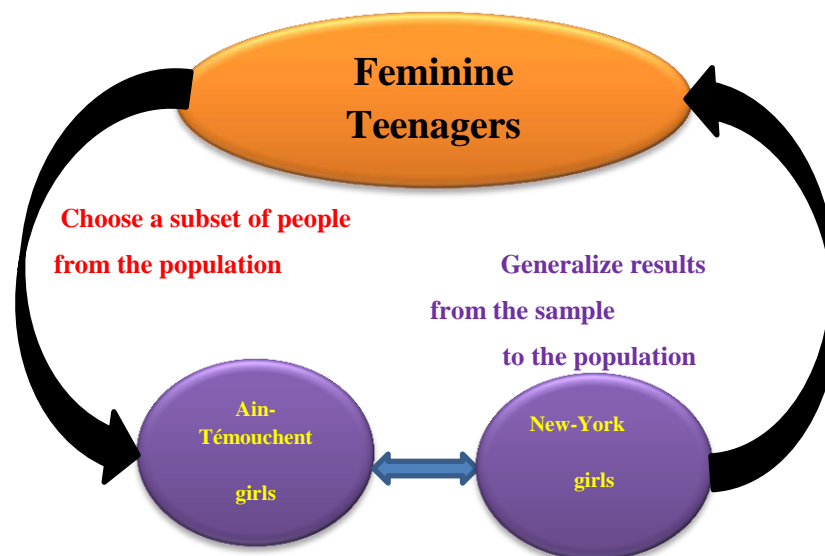


Diagram 3.3. The Current Research Sampling

3.3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research, being “a systematized effort to gain new knowledge” (Redman and Mory, 1923: 10), or “a careful investigation or inquiry especially through search for new facts in any branch of knowledge” (Oxford Dictionary, 1952: 1069) is “actually a voyage of discovery” (Khothari, 1990:1) from the known to the unknown (ibid). That unknown is academically labeled as ‘*research*’. Any research involves, in its essence, a probe or an inquisitiveness to gain knowledge, it is, in point of fact, the primitive method to uncover the undiscovered.

A research incorporates “defining and redefining problems, formulating hypothesis or suggested solutions, collecting, organizing and evaluating data; making deductions and reaching conclusions; and at last carefully testing the conclusions to determine whether they fit the formulating hypothesis” (Clifford Woody, quoted in Khothari, 1990: 1). Concisely, a research is based on a particular study, carried by a scientific observation with the assistance of comparison or distinction through authentic and systematic methods and experiments.

Any research, in its movement from the known to the unknown, entails a great deal of various and diverse approaches, methods and methodologies. A research methodology is the relevant procedural mode to thoroughly resolve the research problematic. It is the study of the methods, techniques and strategies implemented by the researcher that attempts to find out the unknown aspects of her problem and seek for the appropriate resolutions for it. This can only be achieved through collecting data which is **“the powerful determinant of the final product”** (Kasper and Dahl, 1991: 216). In this sense, Selinger and Shohamy (1989) propose:

- The nature of the research problematics,
- The design chosen to investigate it,
- And the type of data collected

(cited in Djebbari, 2014: 185)

A research can be tackled through several and different approaches among which six common ones (Johnson, 1993): correlational approaches, case studies, survey research, ethnographic research, discourse analysis, and experimental research.

- ❖ **Correlational Approaches:** do not involve **“how one collects data, but the type of research questions that are asked”** (Johnson, 1993: 4). This type of approaches is **“quantitative in natures”** (Djebbari, 2014: 149).
- ❖ **Case Studies:** They often deal with the analysis of particular cases in a given context. They are carried out to scrutinize specific issues.
- ❖ **Survey Research:** This approach touches mostly a teaching/learning context as it **“may offer valuable information about classroom practice and teaching methods.”** (ibid); it may also afford the **“status of the proffession and about the political, demographic,**

and programmatic contexts in which teachers teach and students learn languages” (Johnson, 1993: 9)

- ❖ **Experimental Research:** The ultimate objective beyond the application of this approach is to construct a **“cause-and-effect relationship between two different phenomena, to establish that a specific set of actions or conditions (the independent variable) causes changes in some outcome (the dependent variable)”** (Johnson, 1993: 13).

According to Djebbari (2014: 150) **“this approach randomly selects participants into the experimental and control groups, and experiments are generally conducted in labs”**.

- ❖ **Discourse Analysis:** It is recognized as **“the study of a language beyond the sentence”** (Djebbari, 2014: 150). It also refers to the study of some **“written texts and oral interchanges and analyzes them in an interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary fashion”** (ibid).

Johnson (1993: 8) proclaims that the success of these approaches is based on six key points:

- *The development of a flexible, working research design that involves productive refocusing;*
- *The use of multiple data- collection procedures.*
- *The collection of adequate amounts of information over time.*
- *The validity or credibility of information.*
- *Data analysis procedures; and*

➤ *The typically and range of examples.*

(Quoted in Djebbari, 2014: 150)

One of the most interesting methodologies of researches is the case study on which the current research is based and raised. It principally implies an entire and specified report of a given and single situation (Mackery and Gass, 2005). A case study can be also “**an examination of a case in its context**” (Johnson, 1993:7) or a strategy that analyzes a particular phenomenon (Johnson, 1992). It consists of an examination of a certain status; it can be a child, a programme (Khaldi, 2014), a teacher, a home, a class, a group of people, a variety of language and so on.

A case study researcher depends on observation in order to mark the major features and qualities of the case and indicate the impact of the independent variable(s) (that causes the outcomes) on the dependent variable(s) (caused by the independent variable(s)) (Cohen et al, 2007). Another type of variables that can be selected by the case study researcher is the mediator. The latter demonstrates the correlation between the previous variables by determining whether the independent and the dependent variables can be changeable and adapted (Khaldi, 2004: 92), (Brown, 1988).

What are the main obstacles that feminine youngsters encounter? How does the argumentation process take-place within feminine youngsters’ conversational exchange in both Ain-Témouchent and New-York cities? The mediator variable within this case study is the feminine youngsters and their acts of arguing, the obstacles they encounter in a conversational argumentative exchange and the way they construct their arguments. As a ground of this investigation, the above questions provoke other inquiries which cannot be less important than it and that necessitates particular approaches. Thus, the connection between the three variables should be scrutinized through multiple sites, quantitative analysis and evaluation (Merriam, 1988) (extracted from Mouhadjar, 2010: 72); and mixed methods of research that rely predominantly on “**collecting, analyzing, and mixing both**

quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies” because “**the use of the quantitative and qualitative approaches, in combination, provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone”** (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007: 5).

The research can generally be evidenced by the mixing of the quantitative and qualitative paradigms as they provide strength and authenticity to the analysis. Researchers are supported to utilize both of the two approaches as “**combining the qualitative and quantitative paradigms can produce a fuller portrait of the phenomenon under focus”** (Khaldi, 2014: 93). Our investigation methodology is a mixture of quantitative and qualitative analyses; for instance, a qualitative approach can fit through participant observation of the feminine youngsters’ arguments. Such combinations may provide comprehensive outcomes and effective findings (Djebbari, 2014). The quantitative approach applied in this study is grounded on a statistical analysis. It deals with the process of interpreting numerical data. As believed by Ghiglione (1985) (Quoted in Bouhania, 1999: 67) the two approaches can be assembled in one definition:

Il est habituel de considérer qu’une enquête complète doit commencer par une phase qualitative, sous la forme d’un ensemble d’entretiens non-directifs ou structurés, suivi d’une phase quantitative, l’application d’un questionnaire à un échantillon permettant une inférence statistique au cours de laquelle on vérifie les hypothèses élaborées au cours de la première phase et on les complète par des renseignements chiffrés....

This may imply that it is customary to begin any investigation with the qualitative phase then join it to a quantitative one. Ghiglione (1985) mentions that there should be the application of a questionnaire; which is the chief research instrument in this study, in order to obtain a statistical inference. These research methods are applied so that the assumptions and hypotheses are empirically experienced. The present dissertation is also based on operating the theory of argumentation into practice i.e., how arguments are originated and constructed, on which basis a young lady produces an argument, and what difficulties and

obstacles may block the process of arguing and so on. The practical frame deals with argumentation theory testing in a feminine youngsters' conversational exchange situation depending on quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Crotty's (1998) view of building the groundwork of a research revolved around what he labeled "*Elements of Inquiry*". These elements of research are abridged in four vital questions:

- ✚ What epistemology — theory of knowledge embedded in the theoretical perspective—informs the research (e.g. objectivism, subjectivism, etc.) ?

- ✚ What theoretical perspective— philosophical stance—lies behind the methodology in questions (e.g., positivism and postpositivism, interpretivism, critical theory, etc.)?

- ✚ What methodology— strategy or plan of action that links methods to outcomes— governs our choices and use of methods (e.g., experimental research, survey research, ethnography, etc.)?

- ✚ What methods — techniques and procedures — do we propose to use (e.g., questionnaire, interview, focus group..etc)?

(taken from Creswell, 2003: 3-4)

The above elements held by crotty are schematized in the following figure:

Alternative knowledge claims

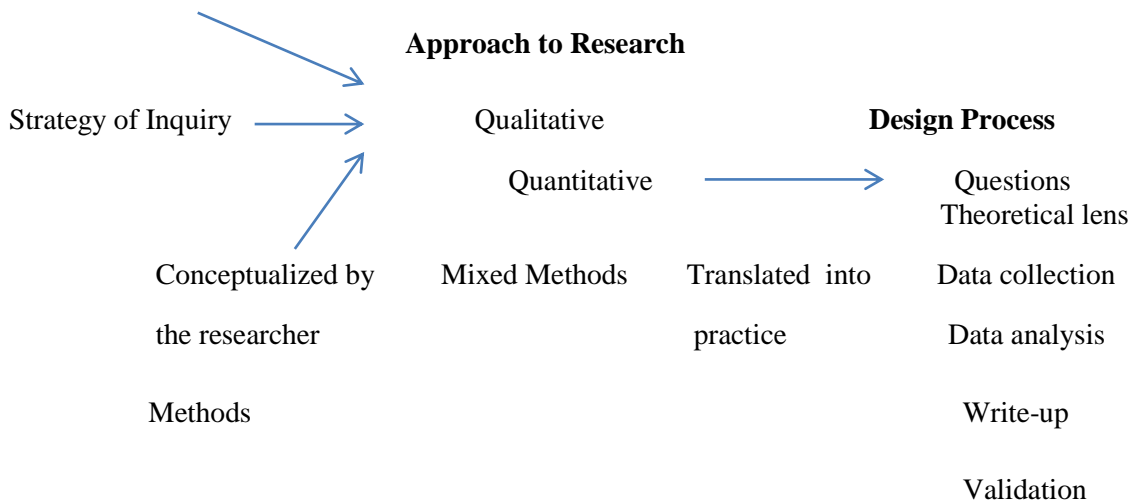


Figure 3.1. Knowledge Claims, Strategies of Inquiry, and Methods Leading to Approaches and the Design Process

(ibid: 5)

In the view of this, the current case study will highlight how these elements of inquiry mentioned by Creswell (2003: 5) i.e., *knowledge claims, strategies and methods* stand all together to design fitting approaches to the research. The knowledge claim or the research methodologies (Neuman, 2000) and ontologies (Crotty, 1988) or the research paradigms (Lincoln and Guba, 2000, Mertens, 1998) can be split into four analytical components (Creswell, 2003: 6):

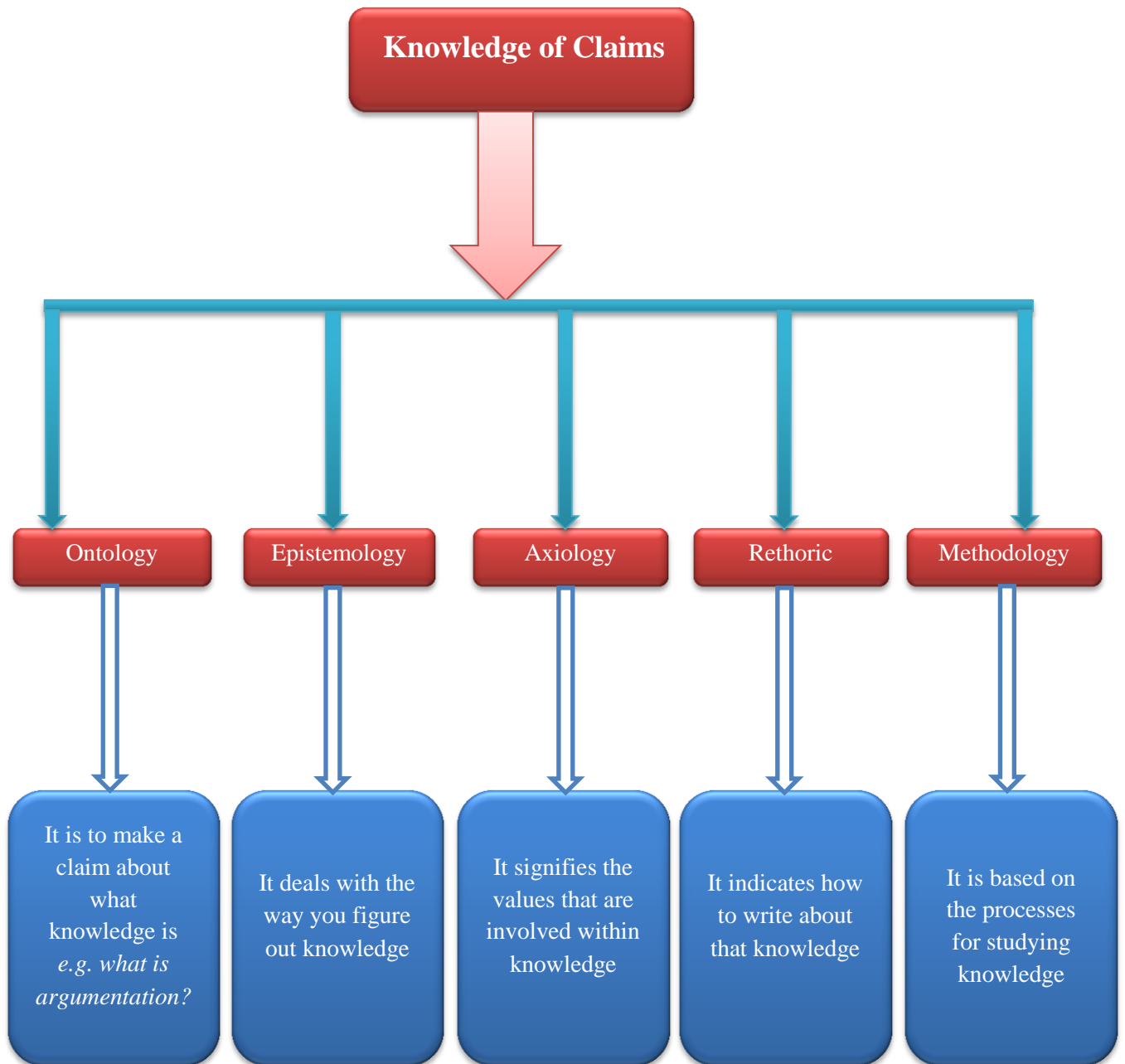


Diagram 3.4. Elements of Knowledge Claims

This proposed framework, on which this investigation is based, calls the attention to the fact that the theoretical and practical perspectives are intergrated within the philosophical assumptions which erects an insight into the problem under analysis. In the light of this thought, the elements of knowledge claims are provided to treat the major issue within the argumentation process in feminine conversational exchanges.

Qualitative and quantitative approaches can be portrayed as two philosophical assumptions about the essence of *reality, epistemology, values, the rhetoric of research, and methodology* (Creswell, 2003: 4). The necessity of our investigation to be carried out and examined, requires the application of some philosophical assumptions, effective procedures and given approaches.

3.3.1. Quantitative Approach

A quantitative approach depends largely on logic interms of a measurement that is absorbed from a statistical and numerical perspectives. This genre of approaches is interested in classifying and counting the characteristics of the case under analysis and building statistical models. In his definition of quantitative approach, Creswell (2003: 18) holds:

A quantitative approach is one in which the investigation primarily uses postpositivist claims for developing knowledge (i.e., cause and effect thinking, reduction to specific variables and hypotheses and questions, use of measurement and observation, and the test of theories), employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys, and collects data on predetermined instruments yield statistical data.

Quantitative researches are purely scrutinized via mathematically-based methods. Along with this view, Dornyei (2001c: 192) refers to quantitative research as:

[Quantitative research] employs categories, viewpoints and models as precisely defined by the researcher in advance as possible and numerical or directly quantifiable data are collected to determine the relationship between these categories, to test research hypotheses and to enhance the aggregation of knowledge.

As its name implies, quantitative analysis lies in the numerical data which guarantees statistically the results which “**may be “generalisable” (Sliger and Shohamy, 1989) to larger population”** (Quoted in Djebbari, 2014: 186). It was McKay’s classification of a quantitative research as she (2005: 137) splits it into two foremost categories: associational and experimental wherein the correlation between variables is determined as:

the goal of associational research is to determine whether a relationship exists between variables and, if so, the strength of that relationship. This is often tested statistically through correlations, which allow a researcher to determine how closely two variables are related in a given population....Many types of experimental research involve a comparison of pretreatment and post-treatment performance.

In its simplest terms, a quantitative research aims at examining pre-determined hypotheses and produce generalizable results (Marshall, 1996), as the latter ones can either confirm or refute those hypotheses proposed by the investigator. Conclusions, driven from quantitative analysis, provide ‘*How many/ how much.....*’ people are involved within a given problem. For example, quantitative data collection may reveal absolutely that 80 feminine youngsters in Ain-Témouchent and 20 of them in New-York encounter poverty of speech and thought blocking. This result would be under the question :

➤ *How many feminine teenagers face difficulties whilst arguing?*

Yet, this quantitative data remains insufficient as it provides only statistical data, additional quantitative data might be assembled to specify ‘*Why*’ and ‘*How*’ they face such obstacles. The researcher, accordingly, would intergrate open-ended questions, such as: Why they do encounter these difficulties and how an investigator can treat this problem. The use of this method enables the researcher to get² :

² Adapted from the PARK companion, JIPS/ACAPS 2012.

- *Numeric assessments*
- *Simple data collection and analysis*
- *Data that are analogous amongst distinct and numerous communities in diverse sites.*

However, this would still fall short of investigating our case study. Similarly, the dissertation would collapse counting on one approach in the collection and analysis of its data. Successively, a qualitative approach goes along with quantitative one.

3.3.2. Qualitative Approach

Interviews, open-ended questions, and participant observation within this research are applied under the umbrella of a qualitative approach (Weir and Robert, 1994). Creswell (2003: 18) considers a qualitative approach as:

....one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives (i.e., the multiple meanings of individual experiences, meanings socially and historically constructed with an intent of developing a theory or pattern) or advocacy/participatory perspectives (i.e., political, issue-oriented, collaborative, or change oriented) or both. It also uses strategies of inquiry such as narratives, phenomenologies, ethnographies, grounded theory studies, or case studies”

This means to say that qualitative approaches fit as an analysis of human acts. Social considerations are said to be the origin from which qualitative approaches were emerged. This is proven by Djebbari (2014: 187) as she asserts: **“Qualitative methods are originally traced back to the methodologies applied by anthropologists and sociologists in investigating human behaviour within the context in which that behaviour would take place”**.

During a qualitative analysis the inquirer would be impersonal and objective so as not to influence the natural behaviour of the participants. Cohen et al (2005: 461) ensures: **“Qualitative data analysis involves organizing, accounting for and explaining the data; in short, making sense of data in terms of the participants’ definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities”**.

It is only through qualitative approach used in this study that the investigator could analyze the results of the feminine youngsters’ questionnaires and interviews besides the participant observation and arrive to methodically review informants’ performance (Djebbari, 2014: 188). Creswell (2003) systematizes quantitative approach in terms of : knowledge claims, strategies of inquiry and methods, he (2003: 20-21) distinguishes two types of qualitative approaches:

- **Qualitative approach:** constructivist knowledge claims, ethnographic design and of the behavior.

- **Qualitative approach:** participatory knowledge claims, narrative design and open-ended interviewing:

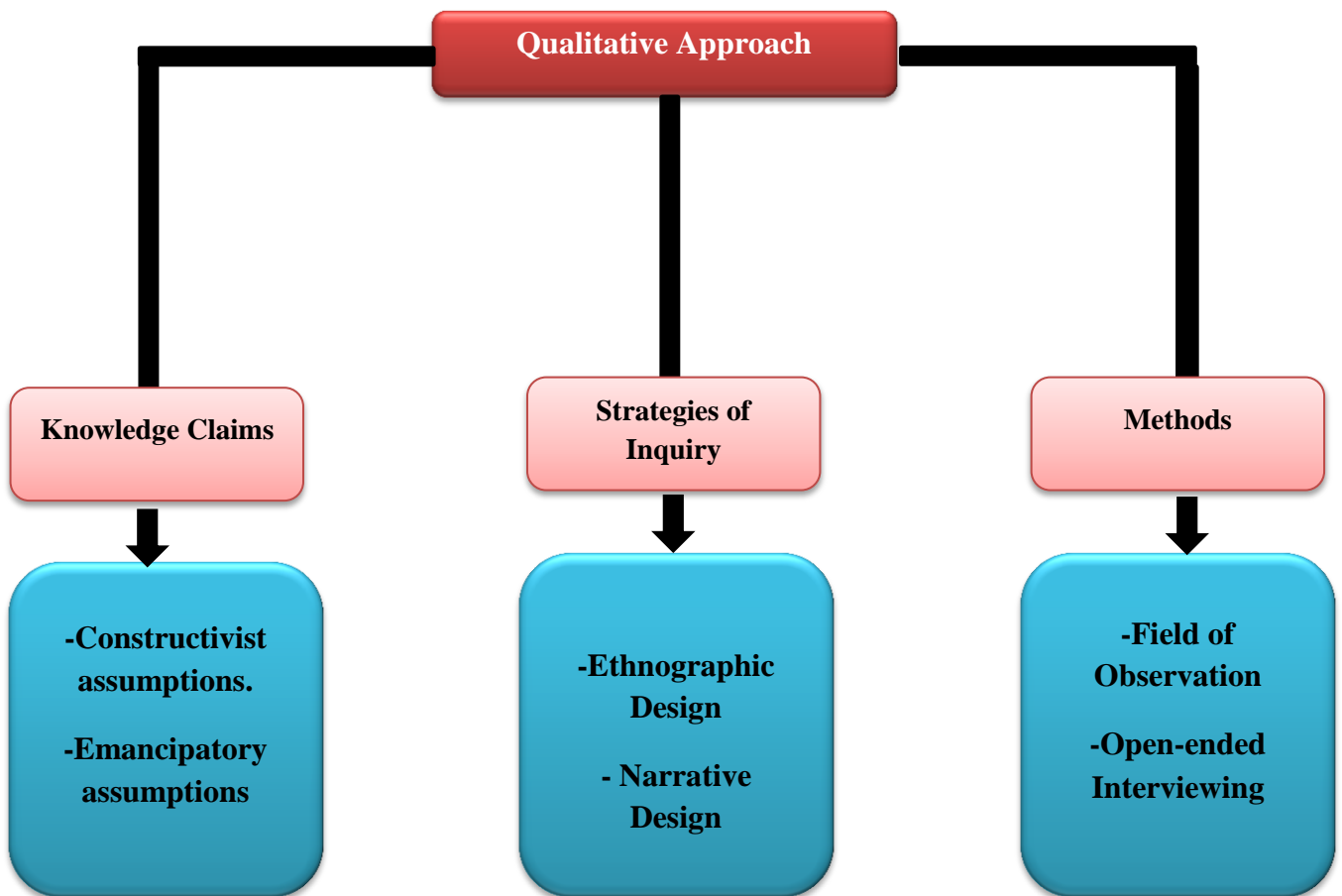


Diagram 3.5. A Qualitative Approach Features

The data collected through qualitative methods are often held in the form of a case study. The benefit of the present case study from a quantitative analysis can be summarized in six ultimate points³:

- *Rich and detailed information about affected populations.*
- *Perspectives of specific social and cultural contexts (i.e., the human voice of disaster).*
- *Inclusion of a diverse and representative cross section of affected persons.*
- *In depth analysis of the impact of an emergency.*

³ Adapted from the PARK companion, JIPS/ACAPS 2012.

- *A data collection process which requires limited numbers of respondents.*

- *A data collection process which can be carried out with limited resources.*

Criteria	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Purpose	To understand & interpret social interactions.	To test hypotheses, look at cause & effect, & make predictions.
Group Studied	Smaller & not randomly selected.	Larger & randomly selected.
Variables	Study of the whole, not variables.	Specific variables studied
Type of Data Collected	Words, images, or objects.	Numbers and statistics.
Form of Data Collected	Qualitative data such as open- ended responses, interviews, participant observations, field notes, & reflections.	Quantitative data based on precise measurements using structured & validated data-collection instruments.
Type of Data Analysis	Identify patterns, features, themes.	Identify statistical relationships.
Objectivity and Subjectivity	Subjectivity is expected.	Objectivity is critical.
Role of Researcher	Researcher & their biases may be known to participants in the study, & participant characteristics may be known to the researcher.	Researcher & their biases are not known to participants in the study, & participant characteristics are deliberately hidden from the researcher (double blind studies).
Results	Particular or specialized findings that is less generalizable.	Generalizable findings that can be applied to other populations.
Scientific Method	Exploratory or bottom-up: the researcher generates a new hypothesis and theory from the data collected.	Confirmatory or top-down: the researcher tests the hypothesis and theory with the data.
View of Human Behavior	Dynamic, situational, social, & personal.	Regular & predictable.
Most Common Research Objectives	Explore, discover, & construct.	Describe, explain, & predict.
Focus	Wide-angle lens; examines the breadth & depth of phenomena.	Narrow-angle lens; tests a specific hypotheses.
Nature of Observation	Study behavior in a natural environment.	Study behavior under controlled conditions; isolate causal effects.
Nature of Reality	Multiple realities; subjective.	Single reality; objective.
Final Report	Narrative report with contextual description & direct quotations from research participants.	Statistical report with correlations, comparisons of means, & statistical significance of findings.

Table 3.2. Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

(Quoted in Johnson and Christensen (2008) and Lichtman (2006)

Mixing these methods can be perceived by some scholars such as Creswell (2003) as a mixed methods approach. Creswell elucidates the notion of this approach as the involvement of both quantitative and qualitative approaches wherein knowledge claims are based on pragmatic grounds:

Mixed methods approach is on which the researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds (e.g., consequence-oriented, problem-centered, and pluralistic). It employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problems. The data collection also involves gathering both numeric information (e.g., on instruments) as well as text information (e.g., on interviews so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information.

The authenticity of the current research within its results can be strengthened by using mixed methods approach to analyze the argumentation process. Combining the two methods serves in validating instrumentation for all data collection and helping the researcher in its results' interpretation. In the light of this view, Creswell (2003: 19) visualizes the abovementioned approaches in the table below:

Table 1.4 Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches

<i>Tend to or Typically</i>	<i>Qualitative Approaches</i>	<i>Quantitative Approaches</i>	<i>Mixed Methods Approaches</i>
Use these philosophical assumptions Employ these strategies of inquiry	Constructivist/Advocacy/ Participatory knowledge claims Phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study, and narrative	Postpositivist knowledge claims Surveys and experiments	Pragmatic knowledge claims Sequential, concurrent, and transformative
Employ these methods	Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text or image data	Closed-ended questions, predetermined approaches, numeric data	Both open- and closed-ended questions, both emerging and predetermined approaches, and both quantitative and qualitative data and analysis
Use these practices of research, as the researcher	Positions himself or herself Collects participant meanings Focuses on a single concept or phenomenon Brings personal values into the study Studies the context or setting of participants Validates the accuracy of findings Makes interpretations of the data Creates an agenda for change or reform Collaborates with the participants	Tests or verifies theories or explanations Identifies variables to study Relates variables in questions or hypotheses Uses standards of validity and reliability Observes and measures information numerically Uses unbiased approaches Employs statistical procedures	Collects both quantitative and qualitative data Develops a rationale for mixing Integrates the data at different stages of inquiry Presents visual pictures of the procedures in the study Employs the practices of both qualitative and quantitative research

Table 3.3. The Major Educational Research Approaches

3.4. INSTRUMENTATION

Instruments used in data collection are typically considered as the backbone of researches. In this respect, Dornyei (2001) confirms: **“The backbone of any survey is the instrument used for collecting data”** (cited in Djebbari, 2014: 152). Research instruments/ tools may also be named, in many studies, as research methods (Khaldi, 2014: 95). It is often believed that: “

Research methods are the various procedures, schemes and algorithms used in research. All the methods used by a researcher during a research study are termed as research methods. They are essentially planned, scientific and value-neutral. They include studies, numerical schemes, statistical approaches, etc...

(Rajasekar, Philominathan and Chinnathambi, 2003: 5)

These methods or instruments rely on the research leading question and sub-questions; Mackey and Gass (2005: 45) respectfully approve that: **“research questions, to a certain extent, dictate a particular method”**. To this point, it is worth mentioning that there is certain dissimilarity between research methods and research methodology. Unlike the prior one, research methodology refers to the research styles such as: an experimental research, a case study and so on, however, methods are strategies and techniques employed by the researcher to gather data. Nevertheless, there is an intimate correlation between the methodology used and the methods selected as the latter ones are based only on the approaches that the researcher has designed.

In this study, the investigator maintains a mixed methods approach or **“multi method approach, which requires a multiple sources of data collection”** (Djebbari, 2014: 152). Grounded on these approaches, she employs some research methods in relation to the

research questions, research aims and objectives as well. They are designed to uncover what difficulties and obstacles are encountered by feminine youngsters in both Ain-Témouchent and New-York cities, and which kind of reasoning and thinking they are yielding within an argumentative conversational exchange.

It is believed that research instruments may vary from one investigation to another, and from one instruments to another. It is generally agreed that research methods can be congregated in five common types:



Diagram 3.6. Types of Research Instruments

The inquirer, in this study, employs three foremost research instruments: a questionnaire, an interview and a participant observation. She utilizes them as a gauge to determine the

process of argumentation amongst feminine youngsters, the way their conclusions are driven and the difficulties faced by them.



Diagram 3.7. The Research Instruments Used in this Case Study

At the onset of this research work, the investigator employs questionnaires for both feminine youngsters (Témouchent and New York feminine youngsters). The questionnaires are adhered to a second research instrument which is the interview to verify their feelings and viewpoints about themselves and afford some general and specific key-concepts. The participant observation is the third research apparatus which sought to check their arguing abilities and difficulties within a conversational exchange.

Considering the case study, the abovementioned methods are selected in respect of the research problematics and subordinate questions in an attempt to seek the answers to them.

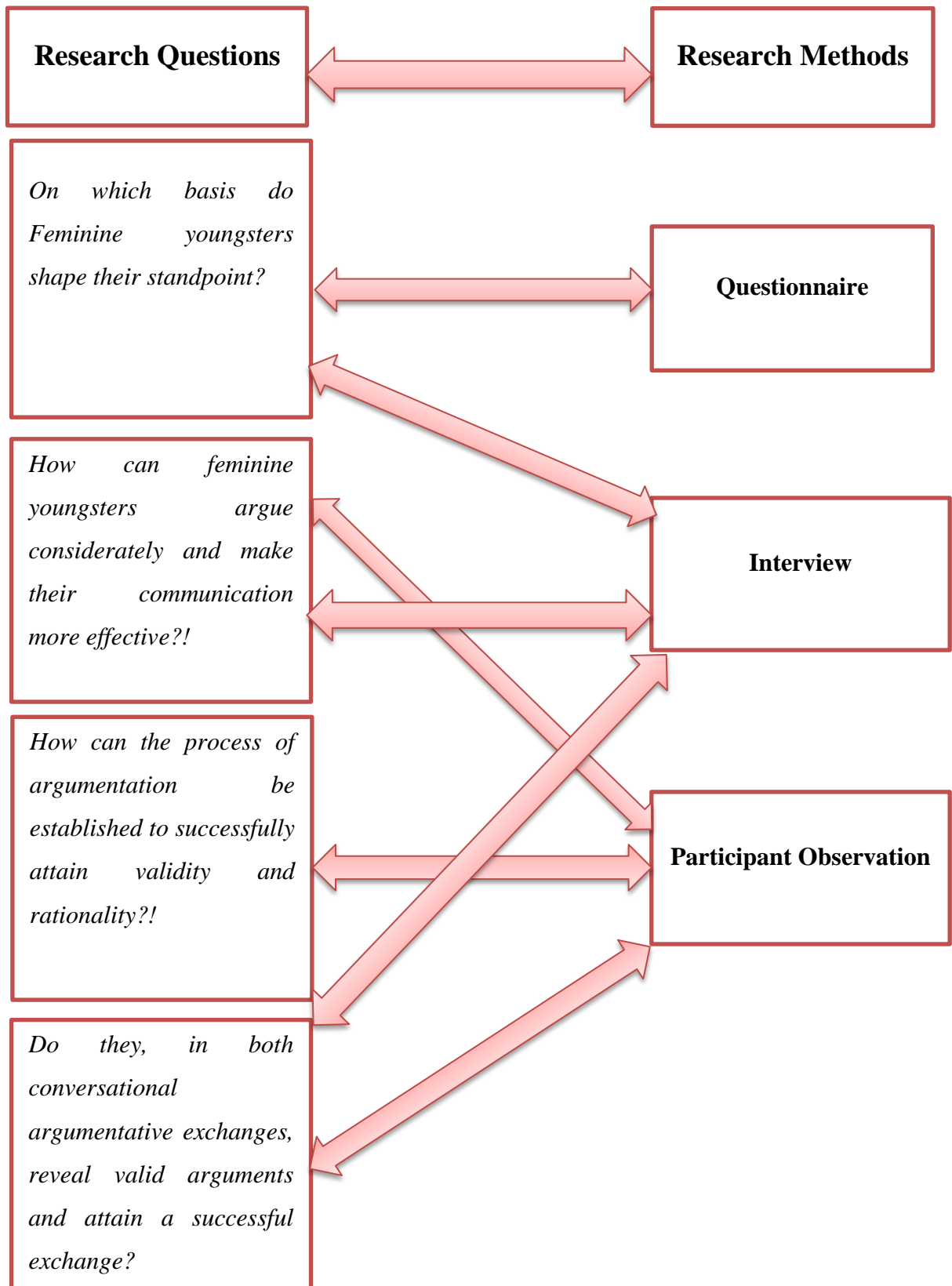


Diagram 3.8. Research Questions and Methods

3.4.1. Questionnaire

Questionnaires, being one of the most familiar methods in data collection, gained increasing and considerable attention mainly in social sciences. They are actually **“printed form for data collection, which include questions or statements to which the subject is expected to respond, often anonymously”** (Seliger & Shomhamy, 1989: 172). Brown (2001: 6) on the other hand, considers questionnaires as **“any instrument that presents respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers.”**; on his part, Dornyei (2003: 3) says: **“Questionnaires are certainly the most often employed data collection devices in statistical work, with the most well-known questionnaire type- the census- being the flagship of every national statistical office”**.

Questionnaires have been defined and termed distinctively; some researchers refer to them as a set of systematically structured questions conducted by the examiner to collect the required data from respondents. Others regard a questionnaire as a crucial research method of measurement (Oppenheim, 1992) which is used to generate quantitative and qualitative data (Dornyei, 2007). Three kinds of data about the respondents may be accessed by the use of this research method. These types can be synopsisized as follows:

- ❖ ***Factual questions***: They are inquiries which encompass: demographic information, socio-economic, education, etc. They are formed **“when the items are used to find out more about the respondents’ characteristics and facts. Examples include: demographic characteristics (age, gender, and race)”** (Khaldi, 2014: 98)

- ❖ **Attitudinal questions:** They cover people's viewpoints, attitudes, beliefs and values.

- ❖ **Behavioural questions:** They revolve around both past and present activities of the respondents, for example: “**habits, life-style**” (ibid), etc...

A scientific and standard questionnaire is regularly built in respect to some basic elements. The latter ones can be précised in these points:

- **Title:** It provides a clear view about the field of the examination so that the respondents get acquainted with the type of research. Moreover, their answers will be oriented to a specific area of investigation. It is recommended while entitling the questionnaire, to choose a captivating title to call the attention and attract the enthusiasm of the respondents.

- **General introduction:** This is a short description of the research key objective and what is included within it. It generally contains some guided instructions.

- **Guided instructions:** They imply a concise and precise illustration of the way through which the respondents reply to the questionnaire.

- **Questionnaire items:** They are separate questions which differ from each other. They are said to be the crucial part within a questionnaire.

- **Optional information:** This handles the personal contact information of the researcher. It may include the full name, the specialty, affiliation and the email address. This element could be compulsory within email questionnaires and optional in self-administered questionnaires.

- **Expressing gratitude:** It is necessary, as a researcher, to finish up any questionnaire expressing thanks and appreciations to the respondents who take-part in the fulfillment of the investigation. For example, *thank you, thank you for your collaboration, etc...*

A questionnaire should not be compressed (Cohen et al, 2007) neither involve more than six pages (Dornyei, 2007). It should be coherent, cohesive and succinct. In case the questionnaire is quite long, a breakdown into subsections is suggested and required. According to Cohen et al, (2007: 339) this may **“indicate the overall logic and coherence of the questionnaire to the respondents, enabling them to ‘find their way’ through the questionnaire.”**

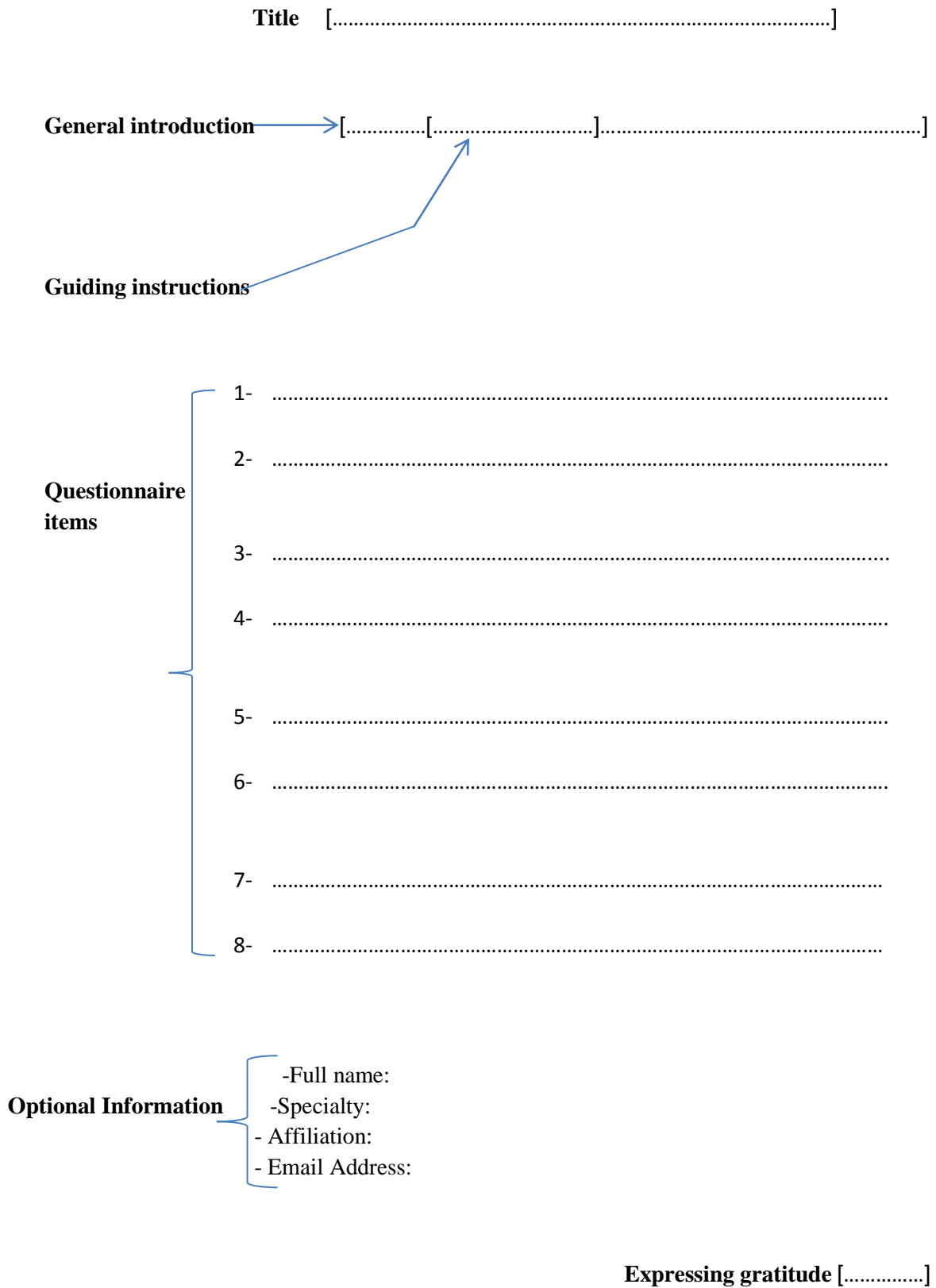


Figure3.2. Modeling the Elements of a Questionnaire

Dornyei (2003) believes that though the importance of questionnaires in collecting data, they are still imperfect as they have “**some serious limitations and some of these have led several researchers to claim that questionnaire data are not really reliable or valid**” (Djebbari, 2014: 155). In this context, Dornyei (2003: 9) calls the attention of the researchers to “**be aware of the advantages and disadvantages underlying questionnaire application**” (Djebbari, 2014: 9):

Advantages	Disadvantages
<p>Collect a huge amount of information in less time. not time consuming.</p> <p>Data collection can be fast and relatively straight forward</p>	<p>it is very easy to produce unreliable and invalid data by means of ill-constructed questionnaires.</p> <p>Simplicity and superficiality of answers by participants.</p>
<p>Cost- effectiveness.</p> <p>They can be successfully used with a variety of people in a variety of situations targeting a variety of topics.</p>	<p>Unreliable and unmotivated Respondents.</p> <p>Respondent literacy problems Especially in social research.</p>

Table 3.4. Advantages and Disadvantages of Questionnaire

(Cited in Djebbari, 2014: 155)

3.4.1.1. Types of Questionnaire Questions

Referring to the context of questionnaire, it is distinguished that these items are a set of questions having different forms and features. As a matter of fact, there are distinct types of questions within a questionnaire. It is held that the key to design a good questionnaire is acknowledging the questionnaire format and the types of questions asked. There are three commonly topmost types of questionnaire questions: Open-ended, close-ended and mixed questions.

- **Open-ended questions**: They are also called open format questions. These questions are fall under qualitative analysis. They provide the researcher with much insightful information given by the informants who supposed to be free to express their thoughts and feelings, Khaldi (2014: 99) asserts: **“open ended items allow the respondents to express their ideas in their own manner and way, thus, result in more detailed, insightful, and even, unexpected data”**. Moreover, she (ibid: 98) adds and explains that open-ended questions **“enables the respondents to write a free response in their own terms, to explain and qualify their responses. The researcher simply puts the open ended items and leaves a space (or draws lines) for a free response.”** open-ended questions may imply classification questions (Dornyei, 2007) **“which are used to ask the respondent for further explanations”** (Khaldi, 2014: 98).

- **Closed- ended questions**: or closed format questions are quantitative items that afford statistical data and percentages. They cover multiple selection questions i.e., the item will be joined with a set of some proposed answers and it is the task of respondents to choose among any of the suggested answers. Mackey and Gass (2005) spotlights that closed-ended questions can lead to responses that are simply quantified and scrutinized. Wilson

and McLean ensure (1994:21): “**closed questions prescribe the ranges of responses from which the respondent may choose. In general closed question are quick to complete and straight forward to code and do not discriminate unduly on the basis of how articulate the respondents are**”. Seven subdivisions can be derived from closed format questions, for example: *Leading questions, importance questions, likert questions, dichotomous questions, bipolar questions, rating scale questions, buying propensity questions.*

- **Mixed Questions:** They imply the choice of given propositions and then explain the reason behind that choice. It is simply to “**ask the informant to choose one of the proposed possibilities, then justify his answer**” (Djebbari, 2014: 157).

Under the current investigation, questionnaires are the elementary instrument which has to be administered to the target sample of population. Prior to the administration of the full-designed questionnaire, it is praiseworthy to pilot the questionnaire to people who belong to the target sample or similar to so as to gather feedback on the functionality and validity of this tool (Djebbari, 2015: 159). Along with this thought, Dornyei (2003: 63) believes that “**an integral part of questionnaire construction is ‘field testing’, that is, piloting the questionnaire at various stages of its development on a sample of people who are similar to the target sample the instrument has been designed for**”.

Piloting the questionnaire is a vital step in data collection to testify, verify and qualify whether this research method pours in the research objective before its eventual administration. In this fashion, Cohen et al (2005: 260) holds: “**the wording of questionnaire is of paramount importance and that pretesting is crucial to its success. A pilot has several functions, principally to increase the reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaire.**”

A considerable number of questionnaires were administered to a similar sample to the target population. The target sample of people, in this case study, is embedded in feminine youngsters; consequently, the researcher has chosen an equivalent sample but from another city (Naama City) to substantiate this research method. Based on the teenagers' responses, the pollster modifies the questionnaire draft; she adds an item (question 4)⁴ to highlight the types of difficulties they may encounter as the majority of respondents were not able to specify what problems and complexities they struggle. Alternatively, she dropped down a part of the second question in which the respondent presumed to provide their problems and difficulties, other questions were changes, some were reformulated without any omission. As regards piloting questionnaire, Oppenheim (1992: 48) concludes: "everything about the questionnaire should be piloted; nothing should be excluded, not even the type face or the quality of the paper." On his part, Dornyei (2003: 64) holds that the act of piloting is central to underline the following questions:

- Whose wording may be ambiguous;
- Which are too difficult for the respondent to reply to;
- Which may, or should be eliminated because, contrary to the initial expectations, they do not provide any unique information or because they turn out to measure something irrelevant;
- Which- in the case of open-ended questions- are problematic to code into a small set of meaningful categories?

(Extracted from Djebbari, 2014: 160)

⁴ See Appendix A.

3.4.1.2. Feminine Youngsters' Questionnaire

The administration of questionnaires can be either by mail (mailing questionnaires) or one-to-one administration and group administration. In this respect, Dornyei (2003: 81) claims: **“One- to- one refers to a situation when someone delivers the questionnaire by hand to the designed person and arranges the completed form to be picked up later (e.g., handing out questionnaires to colleagues at work).** The researcher depends on self-administration method i.e., one- to- one administration. It is chosen in order to elucidate the principal aim of this examination and guide the respondents as the direct contact with them may give them a hand in drawing their answers accurately.

Title → **Feminine Youngsters' Questionnaire**

General instruction

I kindly request you to voluntarily contribute in the fulfillment of this investigation by replying to the following questions through which you provide your personal viewpoints. Our main concern is to scrutinize your personal arguments. Please, give your answers sincerely and authentically as only this will guarantee the success of our analysis and interpretation.

Guiding instructions

1. Can you express yourself in any conversation accurately?

Yes No

2. Do you encounter any difficulties while expressing your viewpoints?

Yes No

3. Among these difficulties which one do you face while arguing?⁵

- 1- Poverty of speech
- 2- Thought disorder/blocking
- 3- Illogicality

Questions items

Optional Information

Contact Information:

Miss. Amel BENCHAREF
AHMED SALHI UNIVERSITY CENTRE– Naama– Algeria
Faculty of Letters and languages
Department of Foreign Languages
E-mail : amel_46dz@yahoo.fr

Expressing gratitude → [Thank you for your Collaboration]

Figure 3.3. The Elements of the Current Research Questionnaire

⁵ For more details see Appendices 'A' and 'B'.

Two questionnaires are prepared for this case study. Indeed, they are two versions of the same questionnaire one in the English language which will be administered to the feminine youngsters in New York and the second one is an Arabic version addressed to Ain-Témouchent feminine youngsters regarding both form and content. While constructing the research questionnaire, the researcher respects the universal elements of questionnaire. The aforementioned figure is an instance of the research elements applied in the current research questionnaire.

The questionnaires were addressed to one hundred and twenty informants in both Ain-Témouchent and New-York cities. They are composed of nine items. They endeavour to draw the attention towards how feminine youngsters express their point of view and what are the psychological, social and cultural variables that may devastate the argumentation process from occurring? Questions are designed to explicitly obtain an insight and perceptiveness about feminine youngsters' personal arguments. The questionnaire begins with a factual or category question in which the investigator inquires about the feminine youngsters' age and gender:

1. Age

Gender: Female
Male

1-السن
2-الجنس: أنثى
ذكر

Then, it is followed by some attitudinal questions wherein the young ladies evaluate and judge their capacity in expressing their point of view and what difficulties and problems may prohibit or block the argumentation process.

The second question aims at figuring out whether the girls are aware or unaware of their ability or disability of expressing their thoughts and feeling; this may imply also the verification of the conversation competence in a conversation competence in an argumentative exchange.

2. Can you express yourself in any conversation accurately?

Yes

No

2- هل تستطيعين أن تعبري عن نفسك بشكل جيد في أي حوار كلامي؟

لا

نعم

The third and the fourth questions intend to uncover the obstruction and difficulty that they suffer from whilst arguing. Prior to piloting the questionnaire the researcher depend on the feminine youngsters to provide their difficulties, however, after piloting, it seemed to be tough for girls to identify where the problem lays; thus, the researcher interfered with a couple of suggestions which requires the addition of a new question '3'.

3. Do you encounter any difficulties while expressing your viewpoints?

Yes

No

3- هل تواجهين أي صعوبات عندما تعبرين عن آرائك؟

لا

نعم

4. Among these difficulties which one do you face while arguing?

- 1- Poverty of speech
 - 2- Thought disorder/blocking
 - 3- Incoordination
 - 4- Illogicality
 - 5- Tangentiality
 - 6- Derailment
 - 7- neologism
- | |
|--|
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |

4-من بين هذه الصعوبات، أيها تعانيين منها؟

- | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|
| | 1- فقر في المصطلحات |
| | 2- التثنت أو الاحتباس الفكري |
| | 3- عجز فكري [انعدام أو قلة الأفكار] |
| | 4- عدم القدرة على ربط الافكار |
| | 5- الخروج عن موضوع الحوار بسبب التوتر |
| | 6- اعطاء آراء غير منطقية |
| | 7- استعمال مصطلحات لا يفهمها غيرك |

The fifth question belongs to the category of behavioural and attitudinal questions, as the researcher investigates the psychological habits in shaping arguments. This inquiry may afford a clear image about the basis the feminine teenagers stand upon while constructing their conclusions about particular facts.

5. In your daily conversational exchange, you shape your arguments on the basis of:

- a. Logic and critical thinking
- b. Religion and beliefs
- c. Traditions and culture
- d. Personal experience and feelings
- e. Others

5- في حواراتك التبادلية، هل تبنيين آرائك على

أ. المنطق و التفكير النقدي

ب. الدين و الايمان

ت. التقاليد و الثقافة

ث. الخبرات و الأحاسيس

ج. أخرى

إذا هناك قواعد أخرى، ماهي؟

In the sixth question the feminine participants are requested to reveal how they do persuade someone of their opinion.

6. When you get involved in a debate, how do you often persuade someone of your viewpoint?

6- عندما تشاركون في نقاش ما، كيف تقنعين عادة الطرف الآخر برأيك؟

Do they follow unconsciously Toulmin's model of argumentation in the production of arguments? For Toulmin reasoning is not a mere act of inference or process of evaluation, but rather an achievable act of justification. Do they respect and consider the sixth universal components of an argument? The researcher's target is to test out the presence and effects of the persuasive appeals hosted by the Greek philosopher Aristotle: *Logos*, *Pathos* and *Ethos*:

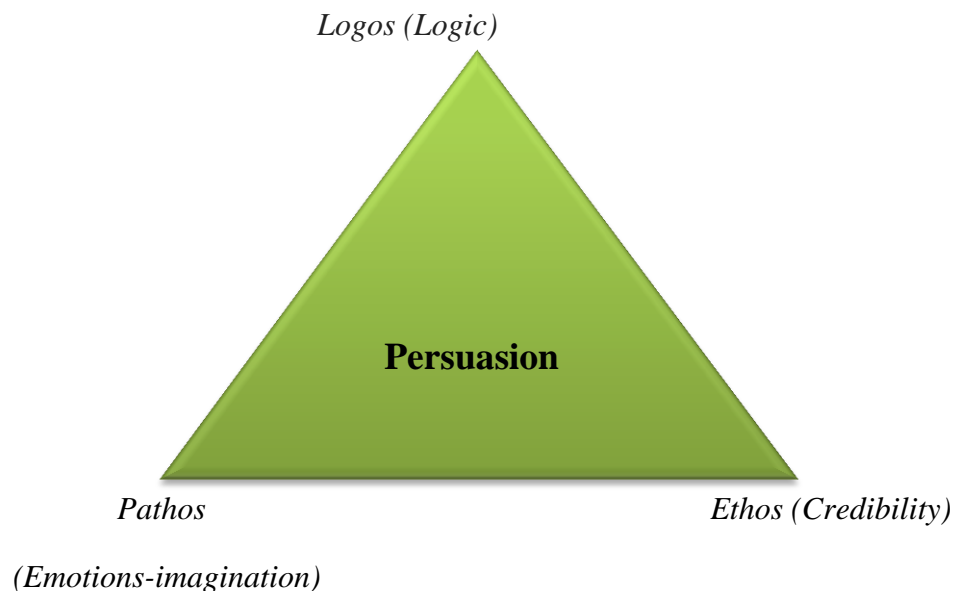


Diagram 3.9. Aristotle's Triangle of Persuasion

Through Aristotle's pyramid, the pollster aims at finding out whether feminine youngsters' arguments are grounded on logic, credibility or emotions and imagination in a persuasion process. This question circles around the arguments' persuasion, in this item the researcher intends to unmask the types of arguments provided by feminine teenagers, deductive or inductive, valid or invalid, strong or weak, and also check out the persuasion process with an argumentative exchange, if the feminine youngsters in both cities imply logic while

assessing their partners' arguments, and to get acquainted with the genre of reasoning they depend on within a criticizing context i.e., 'critical and non-critical thinking'⁶.

7. In a conversational exchange, which kind of roles do you partake?

- a. Arguing
- b. Evaluating and judging
- c. Listening and analyzing
- d. Others

If others, what are they?

7- في الحوار التبادلي، أي الأدوار تتخذين؟

- أ. تقديم الآراء
- ب. التقييم و الحكم
- ت. الاستماع و التحليل
- ث. أخرى

إذا هناك أدوار أخرى، فما هي؟

Question number eight is an attitudinal question through which the researcher tests the conscious and unconscious use of language by feminine youngsters to communicate and express their viewpoints and feeling. The participants are inquired to indicate to which extent they agree or disagree.

8. It is said that language is an unconscious method of communicating thoughts and emotions

⁶ For more details check chapter one.

Agree

Disagree

Say why.....

8-يقال أن اللغة هي طريقة لا واعية لتواصل الأفكار و العواطف؟

لا أوافق

أوافق

.....علي إجابتك

The last question was opted to know to which extent they influence feminine youngsters' life and how important they are in their views?

9. As a young lady, how do your arguments influence your life?

9- كفتاة، كيف تؤثر آراءك على حياتك؟

The current questionnaire is an amalgam of open-ended, close-ended and mixed questions. There are three types of question items, for instance, items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 are close-ended questions, however, open-ended items are: 6, 7, 8, 9 is said to be a mixed item.

Eventually, the investigation questionnaire comprises some clarification items, others for evaluation and assessment, the pollster also implements some items for problem identification and clarification. Some question items are set forth to draw attentions, require providing explanation and justification, on the other hand, substitute ones are

referred to the research targets. The table below is a summary of the distinct aims of the questionnaire question items.

QUESTION ITEMS	OBJECTIVES
Item 1	Questioning for identification
Item 2	Evaluation
Item 3	Problem identification
Item 4	Problem interpretation
Item 5	Drawing attention and making selection
Item 6	Explanation and justification
Item 7	Questioning for classification
Item 8	Citing objectives and targets
Item 9	Assessment

Table 3.5. Aims of Questionnaire Question Items

3.4.2. Interview

As a second research instrument of data collection, the interview holds a crucial position within this investigation. It is described as an **“in-depth information about a particular research issue”** (Djebbari, 2014: 165) and introduced by kvale (1996: 14) as **“an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest”**, he further elucidate (1996: 6):

An interview is a conversation that has a structure and a purpose. It goes beyond the spontaneous exchange of view as in everyday conversation and become a careful questioning and listening approach with the purpose of obtaining thoroughly tested knowledge.

A considerable perspective about interviews was provided by scholars such as Cohen, Lawrence and Marrison (2007: 349) who maintain that an interview is **“a flexible tool for data collection, enabling multi-sensory channels to be used: verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard”**. Interviews are often various and numerous as:

The literature of research methodology identifies a number of different interview types; hence, distinct kinds of interview are recommended by Lecompte and Preissle (1993) who propose six types of interviews: standardized interviews; in-depth interviews; ethnographic interviews; elite interviews; life history interviews; focus groups.

(Djebbari, 2014: 165)

According to the scholars Bogdan and Biklen (1992) interviews are split into: semi-structured interviews and group interviews. On their part, Lincoln and Guba (1985) incorporate structured interviews. Four other genres of interviews were drawn by Patton (1980: 206): informal conversational interviews; interview guide approaches; standardized open-ended interviews; and closed quantitative interviews. The table below condenses the strengths and weakness of the aforementioned categories:

Types of Interview	Characteristics	Strengths	Weaknesses
<p><i>Informal Conversational Interview</i></p>	<p>Questions emerge from the immediate context and are asked in the natural course of things; there is no emergence of question topics or wording.</p>	<p>Increases the salience and relevance of questions; interviews are built on and emerge from observations; the interview can be matched to individuals and circumstances.</p>	<p>- Different information collected from different people with different questions. -Less systematic and comprehensive if certain questions do not arise ‘naturally’. -Data organization and analysis can be quite difficult.</p>
<p><i>Interview Guide Approach</i></p>	<p>Topics and issues to be covered are specified in advance, in outline form; interviewer decides sequence and working of questions in the course of the interview.</p>	<p>-The outline increases the comprehensiveness of the data and makes data collection somewhat systematic for each respondent. -Logical gaps in data can be anticipated and closed. Interviews remain fairly conversational and situational.</p>	<p>-Important and salient topics may be inadvertently omitted. - Interviewer flexibility in sequencing and wording questions can result in substantially different responses, thus, reducing the comparability of responses.</p>
	<p>The exact wording</p>	<p>Respondents answer the same questions,</p>	<p>-Little flexibility in relating the interview</p>

<p><i>Standardized Open-ended Interviews</i></p>	<p>and sequence of questions are determined in advance. All interviewees are asked the same basic questions in the same order.</p>	<p>thus increasing comparability of responses; data are complete for each person on the topics addressed in the interview. Reduces Interviewer effects and bias when several interviewers are used. Permits decision makers to see and review the instrumentation used in the valuation. -Facilitates organization and analysis of the data.</p>	<p>to particular individuals and circumstances; standardized wording of questions may constrain and limit naturalness and relevance of questions and answers.</p>
<p><i>Closed Quantitative Interviews</i></p>	<p>Questions and response categories are determined in advance. Responses are fixed; respondent chooses from among these fixed responses.</p>	<p>Data analysis is simple; responses can be directly compared and easily aggregated; many short questions can be asked in a short time.</p>	<p>Respondents must fit their experiences and feelings into the researcher's categories; may be perceived as impersonal, irrelevant, and mechanistic. Can distort what respondents really mean or experienced by so completely limiting their response choices.</p>

Table 3.6. Strengths and Weaknesses of Distinct Types of Interviews

(Patton 1980:206)

Regarding structured interviews, the interviewer ought to trace a pre-prepared interview draft which may include a number of questions to be replied by given interviewees. For Khaldi (2014: 104) **“This type of interviews can particularly be used when a written questionnaire would be in theory appropriate except that for the reason that a written format is not feasible, for instance because of low level of literacy among the participants (Dornyei, 2007)”**.

As for unstructured interview, it provides a large space of freedom to the respondents to express themselves and debate a specific topic. The interviewer is permitted to quest irregularly affording some optional questions with minimum of disruptions and interferences. It is widely held that this genre of interview is adequate for an in-depth comprehension of a certain issue. In this fashion, Khaldi (2014: 105): **“This kind of interview is most appropriate when the study focuses on in-depth understanding of a specific phenomenon, or when an account of how a phenomenon has developed is required.”**

A semi-structured can be appeared in the form of a printed list of inquiries presumed to be a guide for the interviewer who still has **“the freedom to prompt and probe for more information” (ibid)**. Along with this perspective, Dornyei (2007: 136) states: **“Although there is a set of prepared guiding questions and prompts, the format is open-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on issues raised in an exploratory manner” (2007: 136)**. Prompts are embodied in the proposed topics and questions cited by the interviewer, nevertheless, probes are sub-questions provided by the interviewer for more clarification and details. Cohen et al (2007) mentions dissimilar ways of probing: **“follow-up ‘why’ question; repeating the question; repeating the answer in a questioning tone, showing interest and understanding; asking for clarification or an example; pausing” (Khaldi, 2014: 105)**



Diagram 3.10. Kinds of Interviews

Cohen et al (2007) distinguishes three major items that exist within interviews:

- a. **Fixed alternative items:** They include various choices, and it is the task of the respondents to pick up **“from two or more alternatives”** (Khaldi, 2014: 106). This type can be found in dichotomous items such as (*yes/no, agree/ disagree...*and so on). A third proposition can be added as *‘do not know’*.
- b. **Open-ended questions:** In this type the participants are free to respond to the questions by their own expressions i.e., they should not select from any alternatives as it is explained by Kerlinger’s words: **“Those that supply a frame of reference for respondents’ answers, but put a minimum of restraint on the answers and their expressions”** (cited in Cohen et al, 2007: 357).
- c. **Scale items:** They involve rating the degree of a viewpoint as either (strongly agree to strongly disagree) or frequency rating

(never to always). This type of items can be mixed with open-ended questions in order **“scales can be checked against data elicited by the open-ended questions”** (ibid: 358).

It is worthy to insist on the fact that an interviewer is a researcher who has to keep his objectivity in an interviewing context. Mackey and Gass (2005) confess that this research method may encompass selective recall, memory loss and halo effect (Khaldi, 2014: 106). The latter one takes-place as the pollster cites unconsciously some cues and signs which would be remarked by the interviewee and consequently their responses would be influenced by those cues. Avoiding this danger in the process of interviewing, Mackey and Gass (2005) put forward these keys for researchers in general and interviewers particularly to follow, thus they should:

1. Keep silent for a short while, or say “anything else” rather than accepts the first answer as the final complete response;
2. Mirror the interviewees’ responses by repeating them neutrally to provide an opportunity for reflection and further input;
3. Make the interviewees as comfortable as possible. This can be done through beginning with a small talk, and/ or by using the respondents’ mother tongue whenever a communication problem arises or when the respondent so prefers.

(Quoted in Khaldi, 2014: 107)

Arksey and Knight (1999) take into account the interviewer’s signs and body language as well; these signs can be either nodding head, smiling or repeat questions at the respondents. In this line of thought, Khaldi (2014: 107) claims:

“The interviewer should also avoid giving signs of approval or disapproval of the participants’ responses; repeat questions at the participants’ request; move on to another question without anger if a participant indicates unwillingness or inability to answer the questions; avoid doubled-barrelled questions (asking more than one point at a time); avoid assuming that the respondent has the required information”.

They draw the attention to those signs and gestures made by the interviewer while receiving the interviewee’s responses and insist on preventing any sign of approval or disapproval.

There are two fundamental techniques to record an interview: note-taking and tap-recording. Note-taking is a way in which the pollster has to record what the participants say. This seems to be an intricate undertaking as the **“researcher does not have an objective word-for-word record of what was said”** (Mackay 2006: 56). From another point of view, tape recorder is more practical and authentic material **“as it preserves the respondents’ actual utterances”** (Khaldi, 2014: 107), and afford **“an objective record of what was said that can later be analyzed”** (Mackay, 2006: 55-56).

3.4.2.1. Feminine Youngsters’ Interview

The current research interview is a face-to-face semi-structured interview, or as it is labeled **“standardized open-ended interview”** (plattón, 1980: 206). It is constructed by using **“exact wording and sequence of questions”** (ibid) prepared and organized by the interviewer. All the feminine youngsters are asked the same questions. The interviewer commences her interview by shedding much light on the objective of carrying out the interchange of views as they are named by kvale (1996).

As a matter of fact this interview is designed as a second research instrument in order to validate the feminine youngsters’ responses that are provided within the questionnaire. The

interview holds a conversational technique, this means to say that it **“asks the same sort of questions as the structured interview, but the style is “asks the same sort of questions as in the structured interview, but the style is “free flowing” rather than rigid”** (Djebbari, 2014: 167). The interview, in the current case study, uses an interview guide which comprises some inquiries and topics that will be debated during the conversation. The investigator chooses this type of interviews because she has only one chance to interview New York and Témouchent feminine teenagers, this may provide her with a clear, reliable and comparable qualitative data. She respects the same choice (a semi-structured interview) by applying it on both youngsters’ groups.

Prior to the tape-recording of the interview; the pollster depends on some worthwhile observations and informal interviewing to testify the worthiness of this research instrument and progress an extensive understanding of the matter of concern and gain relevant and insightful semi-structured questions. The inclusion of open-ended questions is a crucial part of the semi-structured interview, besides the paper-based interview guide that the interviewer follows; she has also recorded the conversations through a Dictaphone as it is the easiest way to record a semi-structured interview.

The conversations balance between the interviewer’s questions and the interviewees’ responses and arguments. The discussions slightly diverge from the interview guide when the interviewer begins prompting and probing. Furthermore, the interview affords the interviewees the freedom to express their viewpoints using their own words. The interviewer attempts not to be subjective and keep her objectivity during the interview to avoid influencing the interviewees’ beliefs and thoughts.

Interviews of this kind struggle to scrutinize, in the current analysis, the way feminine youngsters argue, and the difficulties they strive in the process of arguing. Thus, the semi-structured interview was administered to the same sample meant for the questionnaire so as to cross-check and compare their answers and consequently gain a comprehensive and

profound data. The research uses a tape-recording which allows her to take much time to transcript her tapes for analysis.

The pool of interviewees is composed of 114 girls in both Ain-Témouchent and New-York cities; the timing devoted to each conversation ranges between from 10/15 till 25 minutes. The interviewer prepares two interview guides one in English for New York feminine youngsters and Arabic translated copy (see Appendix B and E). The table below represents the current research semi-structured interview's elements and features.

Elements	Features
Format	Face- to – face
Size	One- to – one
Number of sessions	20 sessions
Interviewees	New York feminine youngsters Ain-Témouchent feminine youngsters
Data Collection	Tape-recoding
Formats for reporting	Content analysis
Length	3/25 minutes

Table 3.7. The Current Research Semi-Structured Interview’s Elements and Features

The interview questions are designed in respect of the former research method to corroborate the results of the questionnaire and its validity. Therefore, the researcher associates the interview questions with the questionnaire question items so that the

interview inquiries regarded as a justification of the responses provided by the feminine youngsters in the two questionnaires. The following table illustrates the harmony between the interviews and the questionnaire questions items⁷:

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS	QUESTIONNAIRE QUESTION ITEMS
A.	2.
B.	3. and 4.
C.	3.
D.	5. and 6
E	8.
F	9.

Table 3.8. The Harmony between the Current Research Interview and Questionnaire

Not surprisingly, gathering data in this manner, though it might lead to rich and nuances data, still requires confirmation which would be provided by a third research instrument as two research methods cannot fit in the current dissertation. In seeking to obtain very complete responses and gain authentic results, participant observation is most likely to afford the depth information that might be convenient. The third research apparatus is catered to ensure the previous achieved results and resolve seemingly conflicting information, since the researcher is a part of the conversation and takes-part in the debate; therefore, she has the absolute opportunity to inquire about the obvious conflicts and issues feminine youngsters strive.

⁷ For more details check appendices A, B, D and C.

3.4.3. Participant Observation

“An observer is under the bed. A participant observer is in it.”

John Whiting

The abovementioned quotation declared by John Whiting entails two core types of observations: direct and participant observations. The former method is originally a quantitative approach wherein the researcher observes perceptibly the frequency and intensity of particular behaviours and events. It is a method which does not basically require the involvement of the observer; thus, the generated data can be carried out without the interference of the observer with the informants under analysis; this means to say that the direct observation typically does not require a human data collector. It can be recorded through an audio or video recorder. Opposing to direct observation, participant observation is a discrete method.

Participant observation is intrinsically a qualitative and interactive method of research and comparatively unformed. It is commonly connected with exploratory and explanatory research targets: why/how questions, causal explanations, exposing the cognitive elements, rules, and norms that lie beneath the observable behaviours. The data collected are often free flowing and the analysis much more interpretive. *“You had to be there”* is a statement used by those who believe that the researcher should be present to capture the essence of the conversation. This phrase implies a significant truth as there are usually some critical elements of human behaviours and utterances that are apparent only to those who are actually there.

Observation might be a key method to test out what people narrate about themselves and how they do argue. The researcher, depending on a qualitative approach, holds that there are countless viewpoints within specific community; an observer is presumed to uncover what those distinct viewpoints and perspectives are and serve in comprehending the interplay amongst them. In this respect, Mouhadjer (2010: 77) proclaims:

Field observation is a data collection instrument employed by qualitative researchers, whose main objective of any research is to try and understand the true perspectives of the subject being studied. It allows the researcher to access the subject and record what they observe in an unobtrusive manner. It is called also, field notes, because it refers to the various notes recorded by scientists during or after their observation of a specific phenomenon they are studying.

Regarding strengths and weaknesses, participant observation is largely characterized by some disadvantages and advantages. Amongst the former ones “time-consuming” as researchers commonly spend a long period of time in collecting data. Documenting the data is one another serious disadvantage of participant observation. It is generally agreed that researcher encounter challenging difficulties as far as documentation is concerned; he must rely on his/ her analysis while taking-part in the conversation and expand his/ her observations.

Above and beyond, habitually posed disadvantages of participant observation is the observer’s subjectivity though it is worth pointing out that a scientific investigation calls for objectivity. The advantages of participant observation, alternatively, are embodied in providing information about unknown behaviours. The observer should be aware of the fact that there are a distinction between what he/she describes or reports and what he/she interprets. They can be separate from disadvantages in the table below:

Strengths	Weakness
<p>-Permits an understanding of the observable behaviours.</p>	<p>- Time-consuming.</p> <p>-It necessitates tremendous effort to reach objectivity as this instrument of research is purely subjective.</p>
<p>-It provides information previously undetermined to a researcher that is indispensable for project design, data collection, and interpretation of other data.</p>	<p>Records depend on memory, personal field, and persistence of researcher.</p>

Table 3.9. Strengths and weaknesses of Participant Observation

The very flexible nature of participant observation signifies that the observer has extensive scope in the way he/she designs and conducts the data collection. Like any qualitative research, the deep-seated consideration that determines how the pollster goes about his/her participant observation is his/her research objectives. Correspondingly, the features delivered below, structured in roughly chronological order for most participant observation protocols, are propounded as guidelines rather than stern regulations. The highly personalized nature of participant observation denotes that effectively every researcher will require to be acquainted with these guidelines. Things, an observer researcher might remark during participant observation, are tremendously wide-ranging and it is only the

observer’s research objectives that might limit them. It is broadly acknowledged that there are some overall categories that are regularly observed.

The table below itemizes th guidelines in various and unlimited categories that are frequently observed within any conversation.

Category	Includes	research should note
Appearance.	Clothing, age, gender, physical appearance.	Anything that might indicate membership in groups or in subpopulations of interest to the study, such as profession, social status, socio-economic class, religion, or ethnicity.
Verbal behavior and interactions	Who speaks to whom and for how long, who initiates interaction, languages or dialects spoken, tone of voice	Gender, age, ethnicity, profession.
Physical behavior and gestures	What people do, who does what, who interacts with whom, who is not interacting.	How people use their bodies and voices to communicate different emotions, what people’s behaviors Indicate about their feelings toward one another, their social rank, or their profession.

Personal space	How close people stand To one another.	What people’s preferences Concerning personal space suggest about their relationship.
Human traffic	How and how many people enter, leave, and spend time at the observation site	Where people enter and exit, how long they stay, who they are(ethnicity, age, gender), whether they are alone accompanied
People who stand out	Identification of people who Receive a lot of attention from others.	These people’s characteristics, what differentiates them from others, whether they seem to be strangers or well-known by others present note that these individuals could be good people to approach for an informal interview or to serve as key informants.

Table 3.10. General Things to Observe

(Mack, Woodson, MacQueen, Guest, and Namey, 2005: 20)

For Howell (1972) a participant observer should get through four stages where the majority of participant observation examinations are founding a network to figure out that what people say must be what they really believe and should accordingly be interpreted in their

behaviours. The subsequent table is an illustration of those four stages suggested by Howell (1972: 392-403):

Howell's participant observation phases	Descriptions
Establishing rapport	Get to know the members, visit the scene before study. Howell states that it is important to become friends, or at least be accepted in the community, in order to obtain quality data.
In the field	Do as the locals do: It is important for the researcher to connect or show a connection with the population in order to be accepted as a member of the community. DelWalt & DelWalt (2011) call this form of respect establishment as “talking the talk” and “walking the walk”. Also mentioned by Howell, DelWalt and DelWalt state that the researcher must strive to fit in with population of study through moderation of language and participation. This sets the stage for how well the researcher blends in with the field and quality of observable events he or she experiences.

<p>Recording Observations and Data</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Field notes -Interviews -Reflexivity journals: <p>Researchers are encouraged to record their personal thoughts and feelings about the subject of study. They are prompted to think about how their experiences, ethnicity, race, gender, sex, sexual orientation, and other factors might influence their research, in the case what researcher decides to record and observe (Ambert et al., 1995). Researchers must be aware of these biases and enter the study with no misconceptions about bringing in any subjectivities into the data collection process (Ambert et al., 1995; DeWalt & DeWalt, 2011; Richardson, 2000).</p>
<p>Analyzing Data</p>	<p>Thematic Analysis:</p> <p>Organizing data according to recurrent themes found in interviews or other types of qualitative data collection and narrative analysis:</p> <p>Categorizing information gathered through interviews, finding common themes, and constructing a coherent story from data.</p>

Table 3.11. Howell’s Four Stages of Participant Observation

According to Bernard (2006) there are five motives behind conducting participant observation. These motives are:

- 1- *Opening up the areas of inquiry to collect a wider range of data.*
- 2- *Reducing the problem of reactivity.*
- 3- *Enabling researchers to know what questions to ask.*
- 4- *Gaining intuitive understanding of the meaning of your data.*
- 5- *Addressing problems that are simply unavailable to other data collection technique.*

Once the pollster decides to handle participant observation, which is a complex research method in collecting data, she must choose what type of participant observer she wants to be. In this light of thought, Spradley (1980: 58-62) advocates the existence of five divergent kinds of participant observers detailed below:

Types	Level of involvement	Limitations
Non-Participatory	No contact with the population or the field of study.	Unable to build rapport or ask questions as new information comes up.
Passive Participation	Researcher is only in the bystander role.	Limits ability to establish rapport and immersing oneself in the field.

Moderate Participation	Researcher maintains a balance between “insider” and “outsider” roles.	This allows a good combination of involvement and necessary detachment to remain objective
Active Participation	Researcher becomes a member of the group by fully embracing skills and customs for the sake of complete comprehension.	This method permits the researcher to become more involved.
Complete Participation	Researcher is completely integrated in population Of study beforehand (i.e. he or she is already a member of particular population studied.	There is the risk of losing all levels of objectivity, thus risking what is analyzed and presented to public

Table 3.12. Different Types of Participant Observation

In this investigation, participant observation was implemented to measure the feminine youngsters’ argumentation process, test the validity of their arguments and uncover the arguing difficulties as well. Once the researcher decides to integrate this research method, she chooses to act as moderate, active and complete observer. She intends to behave as a member of the sample of population she is analyzing which seemed to be a critical diagnostic task.

This selection was drawn to avoid subjectivity which is a prominent feature within complete participation; nevertheless, the need to be fully integrated in the feminine youngsters’ discussion was too imperative since any projects have been strictly restricted

by poor entry into the field of research, failed in obtaining valid and detailed results. Behaving as a moderate participant provides the researcher space to observe objectively the conversation and manage to balance between describing the conversation (insider observer) and interpreting the behaviours of feminine youngsters (outsider observer). Being an active participant allows the observer to be deeply involved in the conversation and can comprehensively reach a high level of understanding; hence, she can draw insightful conclusions.

The researcher conducted 8 participant observations among which 4 are handled in Ain-Temouchent. She sought to record conversations that took-place between Temouchent girls preferably in their free time at high schools (Mohamed Daoudi and Ain-Temouchent University Centre) as this might facilitate the collection of data; moreover, the girls kindly displayed convivial appreciation and cordial enthusiasm. They did welcome the participation observer and reveal a supportive assistance. The girls tend to share diverse and assorted topics, for instance: Films style and make up, romantic relationships, Indian movies; this allows bigger differences of opinions.

The observer held a pivoting role and attempts to keep an argumentative context, meanwhile she, from one hand, acted as an insider observer i.e., a complete and active participant who takes-part in the debate, argues, agrees and disagrees, inquires, comments, etc..., on the other hand, she opted to be a moderate participant, a moderate participant observer is most of the time attempting to equalize between being an insider and outsider; however in this context, much time was devoted to an outsider participation especially when the conversations turned to rise quarreling and arguing subjects, the observer began to analyzes the girls' viewpoints within the conversational exchange. She depended on both tape-recording and note-taking. The latter one was incorporated so as to scrutinize and interpret the girls' behaviours.

The alternative four observations were carried out in New-York city. The researcher retained the same context; the process was then repeated for New-York girls. The observer conducted the recording of conversations at New York Institution of Technology and Long Island University keeping similar methods used within Témouchent participant observation. The major concern of American young ladies was differentiated from that of Témouchent girls; this was proven by the distinction which lays upon the different debated topics such (exams, clothes, talking about leisure activities, etc).

The observer described the conversations within participant observation as casual ones. Scholars in several disciplines have proclaimed that a casual conversation is a genre or type of conversational exchange system, and distinguished it from task-based interaction. The researcher had to draw attention to the fact that the discussions comprise a free focused social conversation, intended to exchange information, express thought, emotions and beliefs. During the feminine youngsters' conversations, the observer could identify the conversations as interactive exchanges involving short turns by most of the participants, onetime interrupted and sometimes long uninterrupted contributions.

It is also worth mentioning that those 20 conversations vary not only in terms of the argued topics but also in the duration of their episodes as they are not bound by any restrictions and continue to go on indeterminately which consumed immeasurably much time and enormously concerted effort. The observer, in her investigation, dealt with feminine youngsters' interactions encompassing argumentative utterances. Within participant observation, the pollster faced many distinct communicative situations or 'speech-exchange systems' (Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974) which will be analysed and criticized in the fourth chapter.

3.5. CONCLUSION

The third chapter bared the practical layer of this investigation. It has so far come around depicting the research case study. Initially, it discussed the research problematic through an analysis of the sampling; it also provided a critical review of the methodologies and instrumentation used to investigate the arguments. It attempted to shed light considerably on the argumentation process within a particular subset of population embodied in feminine youngsters in two divergent settings, it continued to uncover the difficulties they strive while arguing.

This phase predominantly paves the way for clarifying the methodology of research explicitly and affords detailed explanation of approaches, methods and techniques generally employed in the examination of the participants' arguments. The researcher, throughout this chapter, sought to figure out the central problem behind the inability of

constructing and revealing effectively an arguing behaviour among feminine youngsters, meanwhile, uncovering the disability of providing valid arguments. She picked up two distinct samples of population from different countries to scrutinize via an analytic and comparative experiment the produced arguments. Furthermore, in the next chapter, the investigator intends to interpret the results drawn from the case study and temporarily search for the applicable and relevant methods and strategies to form rational arguments and successively valid conclusions.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

4.2. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.2.1. Feminine Youngsters Questionnaire Analysis

4.2.2. Feminine Youngsters Interview Analysis

4.2.3. Participant Observation Analysis

4.3. FEMININE YOUNGSTERS' CASE STUDY RESULTS

4.3.1. Results of New-York Questionnaire

4.3.2. Results of the Ain-Témouchent Questionnaire

4.3.3. Results of New-York Interview

4.3.4. Results of Ain-Témouchent Interview

4.3.5. Results of New-York Participant Observation

4.3.6. Results of Ain-Témouchent Participant Observation

4.4. FINDINGS ANALYSIS, COMPARISON AND DISCUSSION

4.5. CONCLUSION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This conclusive chapter flows imperceptibly into revealing the data collection results and providing ultimate conclusions and analytic interpretations of the case under analysis. The principal target of the current phase is to inspect and debate the data that were secured from the distinct research instruments which occupied feminine youngsters' questionnaires, interviews, besides the participant observation. The canvasser engaged in the scrutiny passing through some quantitative and qualitative analyses.

4.2. DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

A common myth in scientific research studies implies that data have their own meaning. This denotes that data should be interpreted; as numbers cannot talk for themselves. Data analysis is a process of scrutinising that entails **“the sifting, organising, and synthesising of data so as to arrive at the conclusions of the research”** (Selinger and Shohamy 1989, quoted in Khaldi, 2014: 121). It refers to converting and exhibiting the gathered data through critical conclusions and decisive results and supporting decision-making. It is also identified as some procedures used for inspecting data and techniques for interpreting results; Marshall and Rossman (1989: 111) believe that: **“data analysis is the process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data. It is messy, ambiguous, time-consuming, creative, and fascinating process. It does not proceed in a linear fashion; it is not neat.”**

The data analysis applied in researches is basically based on the gathered data was done so far; interpretation, on the other hand, is the process of attaching meaning to those data. Hitchcock and Hughes hold (1995: 295) that **“...the ways in which the researcher moves from a description of what is the case to an explanation of why what is the case is the case.”** From another point of view, De Vos (2002: 339) stated that data analysis is a **“process of bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of the collected data”**. As proclaimed by Woods, Fletcher, and Hughs (1986: 8):

“When a linguistic study is carried out, the investigator will be faced with the prospect of understanding, and then explaining to others, the meaning of the data which have been collected. An essential first step in this process is to look for ways of summarizing the results which bring out their most obvious features”

While analysing data, analysts should break down the collected data into minimal components so as to get results and answers to the problematic and sub-questions, furthermore, to testify the suggested hypotheses. Data analysis and interpretation are employed with the contemporary research to examine and summarize the data, identify relationships between variables, compare those variables and uncover the dissimilarities and similarities that could exist between variables; moreover, to obtain evident results. In the present research work, the researcher implemented specific statistical and analytical procedures to calculate the collected data frequency, percentage, mean, median, standard deviation and mode. The calculation held by the pollster depended largely on his/her problematics i.e., what she/he wanted to know. The choice of a specific data analysis procedure is relied on some basic motives. These ones are introduced by Seliger and Shohamy (1989) in three major points:

- *The nature of the research problematics,*
- *The design chosen to investigate it,*
- *and the type of data collected.*

(Quoted in Djebbari, 2014: 185)

For instance if the question is: How many individuals responded to each item within the questionnaire, then it is a measure of frequency. In case the investigator is interested in a particular manner then she/he seeks for percentage. If she/he wants to know about the average number of responses then she/he targets the mean, **“the mean refers to the arithmetic average of a set of values. It is the sum of values in a sample divided by the number of such values”**. (Khaldi, 2014: 121). If the pollster searches for the middle value in a range of values, then it is the quest of median. According to Khaldi (2014: 121-122) **“the median is the value that split the values of the sample into two equal groups,**

where half of the sample has values at and above the median while the other half has values at and below the median”. In some statistical analysis, the researcher principally tends to compare between two or more groups or sample of population, as the instance of comparative and distinctive analyses of the current study.

The investigator might attempt, for the sake of analysis, to demonstrate the extent to which an answer varies from the mean, in statistical analysis, this is referred to as standard deviation; **“the standard deviation is a measure of the dispersal of values, i.e., how far away from the mean/average each value is”**(Khaldi, 2014: 122). Djebbari (2014: 184) goes further to uncover the significance of these statistical measures of analysis by stating that **“raw data are not informative unless they are organized and described. Descriptive statistics, embracing frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviations, were applied for a better understanding of the scores obtained from the study research instruments.”** The table below recapitulates the aforementioned statistical measures of data analysis:

Statistical Measures of Data Analysis					
Frequency	Percentage	Mean	Median	Standard Deviation	Mode
-The number of individuals' answers	-The proportion of people's responses in particular way	-The average number or average score	-The middle value in a range of values	-The degree to which an answer differs from the mean	-The repeated value in a range of values

Table 4.1. Different Analytical Procedures of Data Analysis

Prior to the employment of a statistical analysis any researcher should be aware of the descriptive statistics that are restricted only to the sample analysis without generalizing or driving universal results. In opposition, inferential statistics are intergraded to verify the validity of the obtained results **“whether the results observed in our sample (e.g., mean differences or correlations) are powerful enough to generalize to the whole population. If they are, we can say that our results are statistically “significant” and we can then draw some more general lessons from the study.”** (Dörnyei, 2011) (Cited in Djebbari, 2014: 184).

Investigators from a distinct variety of perspectives believe that it is unreasonable to collect data regarding all the population, thus, inferential statistics simplify and generalize results so that researchers can analyse and interpret their findings significantly. In data analysis and interpretation, there are two general methods employed for analysing and summarising the obtained results which encompass: quantitative and qualitative analyses, in this respect, Newman and Benz (1998) hold that: **“a combination of qualitative and quantitative constructs...is often regarded as a matter of continuum rather than a clear-cut dichotomy”** (quoted in Davies, 2004: 488). Thus, the core focus of quantitative and qualitative data analyses is to interpret the obtained results reasonably.

4.2.1. Feminine Youngsters Questionnaires Analysis

Having administered questionnaires to two hundred and thirty eight feminine youngsters and then collected them, it is considered to be the initial step towards the present research data analysis or it is **“the half of the battle”** as stated by Dörnyei (2003) (mentioned in Djebbari, 2014: 189). To analyse these questionnaires, the investigator adopted specific procedures such as data coding and processing. The latter methods rely on substituting alphabetical formulas for numerical values. This may also imply that a coding procedure permits converting c feminine youngsters’ responses into numbers and percentages by means of graphical representations. In this context, Dörnyei (2003: 98) distinguishes two types of coding: **“(a) a coding frame that specifies the meaning of the scores for each item and (b) a codebook**

that contains an organized summary of all the coding frames”. This hypothesis is well explained by Djebbari (2014: 190) in the following table:

Coding Frame	Code book
<p>Offers a numerical score for every possible answer to an item, e.g. yes=1, no=2, strongly disagree=1, ‘disagree’=2, ‘neutral’= 3, ‘agree’=4, ‘strongly agree’=5.</p>	<p>This is intended to provide a comprehensive and comprehensible description of the dataset that is accessible to anyone who would like to use it.</p>

Table 4.2. The Coding Process

The procedure of switching raw data into significant statement, involving: data processing, data analysis and interpretation, stands as the ground of the current analysis of feminine youngsters’ questionnaires. Indeed, the analysis of this case study goes through three main procedures: editing, coding and analysing the responses of feminine youngsters. According to Richardson & Meyburg (1995) the undertaking of renovating accomplished questionnaires into operational results is consisted of numerous discrete tasks, encompassing: primary editing of the questionnaire, coding, computer-based data entry, computer editing, data correction, analysis, interpretation of results, summary and report.

4.2.2. Feminine Youngsters Interview Analysis

Interviews, amongst distinct and numerous forms of qualitative data, follow specific approaches and procedures in their analysis. However, the choice of these ones may rely on one basic question:

- What is the objective behind the Interview analysis?

Is it:

- Description
- Substantive or formal theory
- Theory testing

In this fashion, Eisenhardt (1989: 545) argues: “**The final product of building theory from case studies may be concepts, conceptual framework, or propositions or possibly mid-range theory....On the downside, the final product may simply replicate prior theory, or there may be no clear patterns within the data**”. While analysing an interview, two basic procedures should be applied: Inductive approach and a combination of deductive/ inductive approaches including: unstructured, structured and semi-structured interviews. In the current analysis of feminine youngsters’ interview, the examiner employed an inductive approach, labeling pertinent pieces and identifying the different units of analysis by dividing them into chunks of data comprising: *words, phrases, sentences, and paragraphs*. The table below demonstrates the inductive approach for analysing feminine youngsters’ interview:

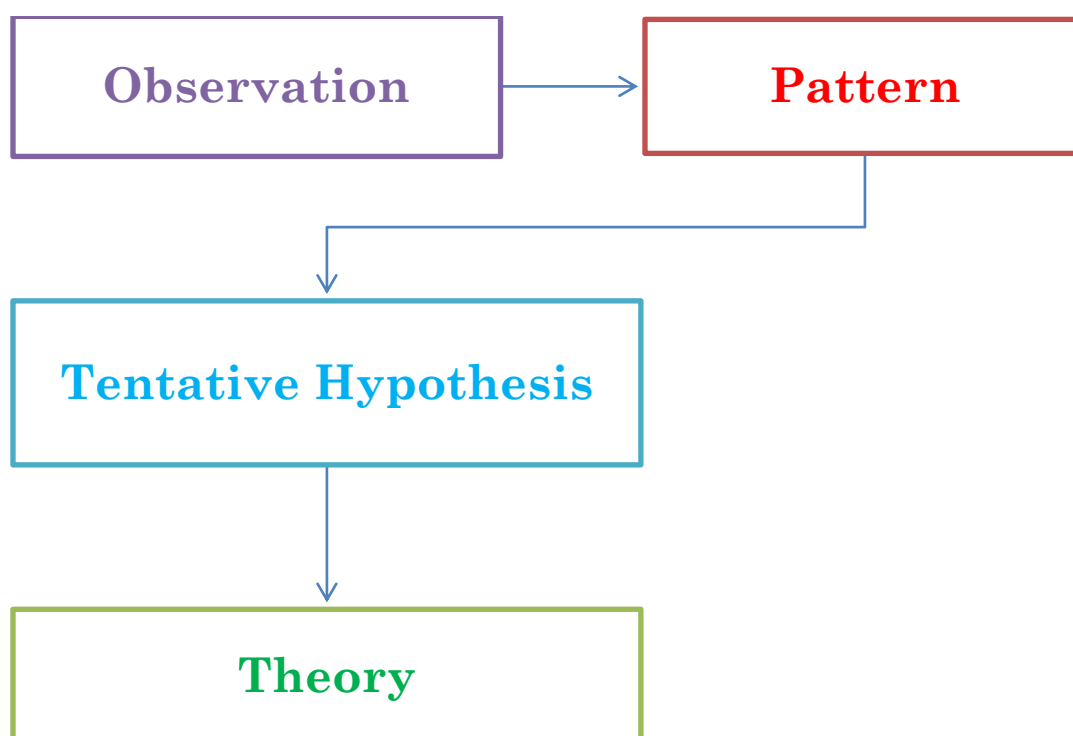


Diagram 4.1. Inductive Approach for Interview Data Analysis

The sentence/utterance, words and structure as crucial units of analysis are addressed in feminine youngsters' interview by means of content analysis. Initially, the investigator considered her problematics and sub-questions while inspecting the interview's responses, and attempted to synchronize them with the research themes. The researcher made use of both open coding and close coding so as to reduce the long list of indexing. The eventual process with feminine youngsters' interview data analysis is the constant comparison which implies referring to the transcript more than one time and checking new data that match with the selected codes. Having explored the arguments of young ladies belonging to divergent communities of speech, the canvasser targeted mainly the cognitive and sociolinguistic layer of the interviewees' utterances. According to the nature of the interview transcript and its questions, the research inquiry, its themes and sub-themes; the interview data analysis stands on:

- ✓ Listing all feminine youngsters' arguments.
- ✓ Observing concepts.
- ✓ Collecting examples of these concepts.
- ✓ Analysing these concepts to find commonalities and discords (similarities and differences).
- ✓ Observing the linguistic competence as language is an apparatus to convey those concepts.
- ✓ Drive conclusions.
- ✓ Evaluating rationally the conclusions.
- ✓ Construct a theory.

4.2.3. Participant Observation Analysis

Participant observation being a research method of data collection is unlike the interview which emphasises on what people say about a particular situation. Participant observation conversely provides a different vision, reflecting what people are really doing rather than what they think or say they are doing. Having considered participant observation as “**the**

systematic description of events, behaviours and artifacts in social setting chosen for study” (Marshall and Rossman, 1989: 79), researchers are permitted to describe particular situations with a written photograph (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper & Allen, 1993) indicating primarily what the purpose of their observation. According to Dewalt and Dewalt (2002: 92) **“The goal for design of research using participant observation as a method is to develop a holistic understanding of the phenomena under study that is objective and accurate as possible given the limitations of the method”**. This means to say, analysing a participant observation depends on the reasons behind such observation. In this fashion, Schensul, Schensul and Lecompte (1999: 91) introduce some reasons behind utilizing participant observation in a case study:

- ❖ To identify and guide relationships with informants;
- ❖ To help the researcher get the feel for how things are organised and prioritised, how people interrelated, and what are the cultural parameters;
- ❖ To show the researcher what the cultural members deem to be important in manners, leadership, politics, social interaction, and taboos;
- ❖ To help the researcher become unknown to the cultural members, thereby easing facilitation of research process; and
- ❖ To provide the researcher with a source of questions to be addressed with participants.

Werner and Bernard (1994: 142-3), on the other hand, hosts five goals for implementing participant observation in studies as a vital research instrument:

- ❖ It makes it possible to collect different types of data. Being on site over a period of time familiarises the researcher to the community, thereby facilitating involvement in sensitive activities to which he/she generally would not be invited.
- ❖ It helps the researcher to develop questions that makes sense in the native language or culturally relevant.

- ❖ It gives the researcher a better understanding of what is happening in the culture and lends credence to one's interpretations of the observation. Participant observation also enables the researcher to collect both quantitative and qualitative data through surveys and interviews.
- ❖ It is sometimes the only way to collect the right data for one's study.

In the present investigation, the researcher started her analysis taking-into consideration her research question and purpose. In this respect, Merriam (1988: 97) confirms: **“Where to begin looking depends on the research questions, but where to focus or action cannot be determined ahead time.”** As a matter of fact, what to analyze is basically grounded on what to observe. To conduct her analysis, the researcher paid cautious attention to three fundamental aspects (Dewalt and Dewalt, 2002):

- *What is happening?*
- *Why is it happening?*
- *How is it happening?*

The interpreter, in the current participant observation, sought to inspect the regular from the irregular arguments, she searched for variations to perceive and comprehend the events in its totality from a variety of perspectives. She attempted to put under light the negative cases or exceptions such the most common difficulties that feminine youngsters are facing through their performance (behaviours), and typify the principal targets for the observation.

Wolcott (2011) goes further to stress one of his suggestions in which observers should limit the scope of their analysis in what they want to know by asking themselves whether what they covet through the observation and its analysis makes sense to the research question and purpose. The process of observing goes hand in hand with the process of analysis as researchers observe through description and analysis. In this fashion, Werner and Schoepfle (1987, as stated in Angrosino and Deperez, 2000:677) maintain that in

scrutinising participant observation, the examiner must distinguish between three categories of processes:

- ✚ The first is *descriptive observation*, in which one observes anything and everything, assuming that he/she knows nothing; the disadvantages of this type is that it can lead to the collection of minutiae that may or may not be relevant to the study.
- ✚ The second type, *focused observation*, emphasises on observation supported by interviews, in which the participants' insights guide the researcher's decisions about what to observe.
- ✚ The third type of observation, considered by Angrosino and Deperez (2000) to be the most systematic, *selective observation*, in which the researcher focuses on different types of activities to help delineate the differences in those activities.

The researcher focused mainly on the three observations the first, the second and the third processes in her observation. In the first type, she endeavoured to describe what she saw, in the second type, she targeted argumentative utterances only to analyse; however, in the third form, she examined the similarities and dissimilarities between Témouchent feminine youngsters' argumentative conversations and The New-York ones. Both Taylor and Bogdan (1984) suggest that the investigator should be truthful, but not technical in her observation and analysis. Merriam (1998), alternatively, adds that the examiner has:

- To pay attention to all behaviours shifting from a 'wide' to a 'narrow' analysis.
- Search for words, expressions in conversations.
- Focus on the initial and last remarks.

Dewalt and Delwalt (2002) on his part, provides these propositions for participant observation analysis:

- Dynamically, the participant observer should analyse his/ her conversations considering details.

- Looking at the interactions happening in the setting, involving who talks to whom, whose viewpoints are respected, how conclusions are formed; also, where partakers stand or sit.
- Listen attentively to conversations, paying diagnostic attention to non-verbal expressions, and gestures.
- Making use of 3-D three-dimensional or 4-D four-dimensional maps and interaction maps.

She inspected the relationship between the sociocultural and cognitive behaviours and the physical environment in special situations which involve: persons, place, time, conception, thing or occasion, this is referred to as ‘the process of mapping’ (Kutsche, 1998). In the process of analyzing and summarizing findings within the present research, the analytical observer dared to lay down all her preconceptions and prejudices as Kutsche (ibid) calls the observers to avoid judgments and adjectives such as ‘good’, ‘pretty’ to provide objectivity to their analysis.

4.3. FEMININE YOUNGSTERS’ CASE STUDY RESULTS

The aforementioned paragraphs are regarded as a theoretical introduction which affords an overview of the distinct systematic procedures and applicable techniques employed in the analysis of the findings of the case under study. The achieved results are obtained by means of those procedures which stand as the device through which results come to be inevitably significant. The feminine youngsters’ case study results are listed in the following items through a numerical analysis and then interpreted. Initially, the researcher will present the key results in a methodical order. The results are organised around explanatory materials such tables, figures, graphic illustrations...etc., to bestow the fundamental findings in a logical sequence. The results order is fashioned to provide evidence, validity and respond to the research questions and assumptions probed.

In the experimental process of this case study, the investigator endeavored to answer this inquiry: ‘*What did I find out?*’ At the outset, she begins with:

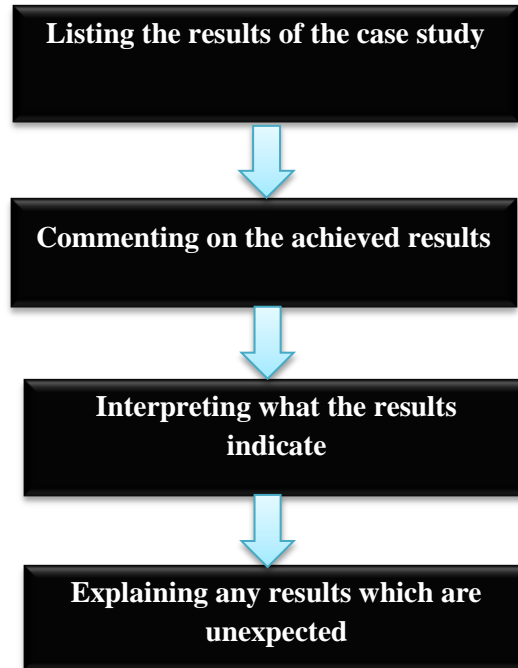


Diagram 4.2. The Current Research Steps of Results Analysis

The investigator will provide the measurements yielded in the experiment and then compare the measurements to the calculations. The purpose of listing and discussing the results is to exemplify the truth or falsehood of the research hypotheses besides resolve the research query.

4.3.1. Results of New-York Questionnaire

Regarding New York questionnaire analysis, the researcher distinguished numerous categories of questions to express results. The first rubric was about category and ordinal data i.e., it inquired about gender and age. This was employed so as to target the main sample of population. The target audience is specifically females. Since the case under investigation addressed purposefully females rather than males, the question is put to provide authenticity and ensure that all the participants are females. As it is acknowledge, females do have much fun arguing and discussing their problems, beliefs and feelings to relieve themselves from pain, responsibility and to express who they are. Thus, they are targeted so that the examiner could get feedback from. Therefore, the bulk of the audience

for the current research questionnaire were feminine teenagers and young adults who would afford an insight into what challenged their argumentative process such as the difficulties they face and so on.

Gender	Number of People
Females	119 girls
Males	00

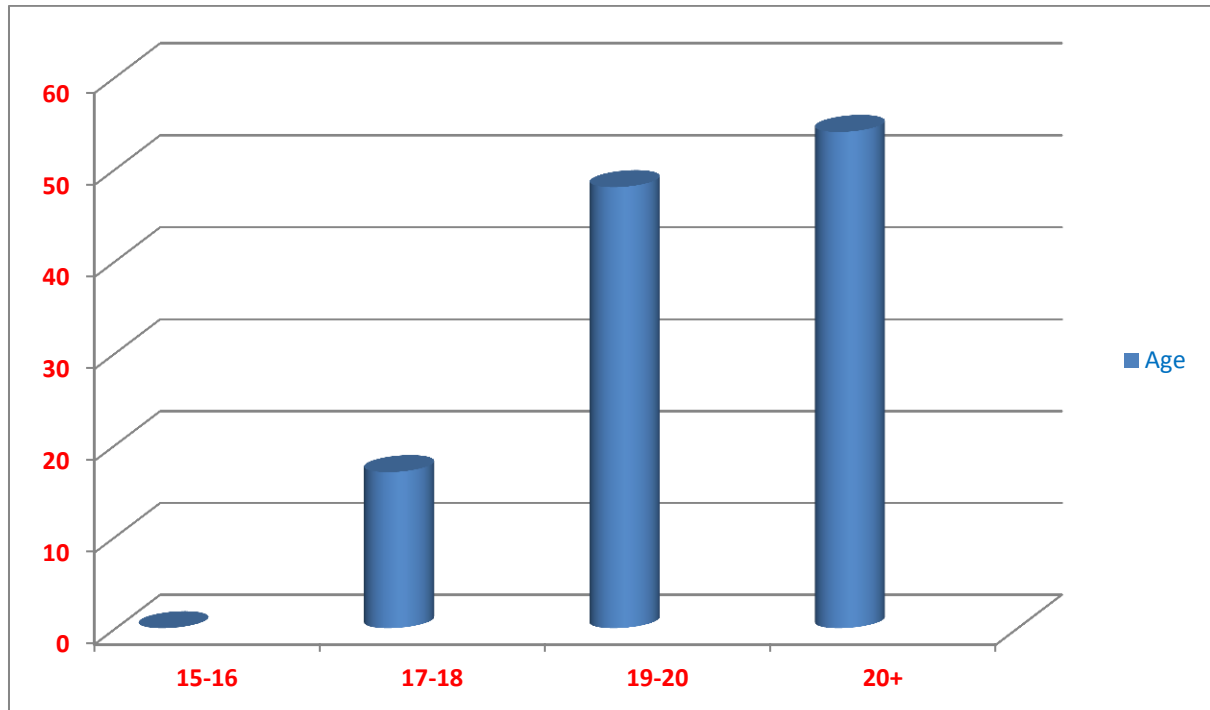
Table 4.3. New York Participants Gender

As far as the age is concerned, the question endeavoured to warrant that the examiner appealed to the most appropriate samples. For feminine youngsters, it is believed that the ages of 15-24 are the researchers target audience. Therefore the one hundred and nineteen (100%) questionnaires have feminine participants based on that age. The inquiry will allow the investigator to link between gender and age to inspect how both of them influence the argumentation process, and how the argumentative process functions within this category.

Age groups	Frequency	Percentage
15-16	0	0%
17-18	17	14.28%
19-20	48	40.33%
20+	54	45.37%

Table 4.4. New York Feminine Teenagers Age

The above table reveals the distinct age groups of New-York feminine teenagers who responded to the questionnaire. These results can perceptibly be represented in the following bar-graph:



Bar-Graph 4.1. New York Feminine Teenagers Age Groups

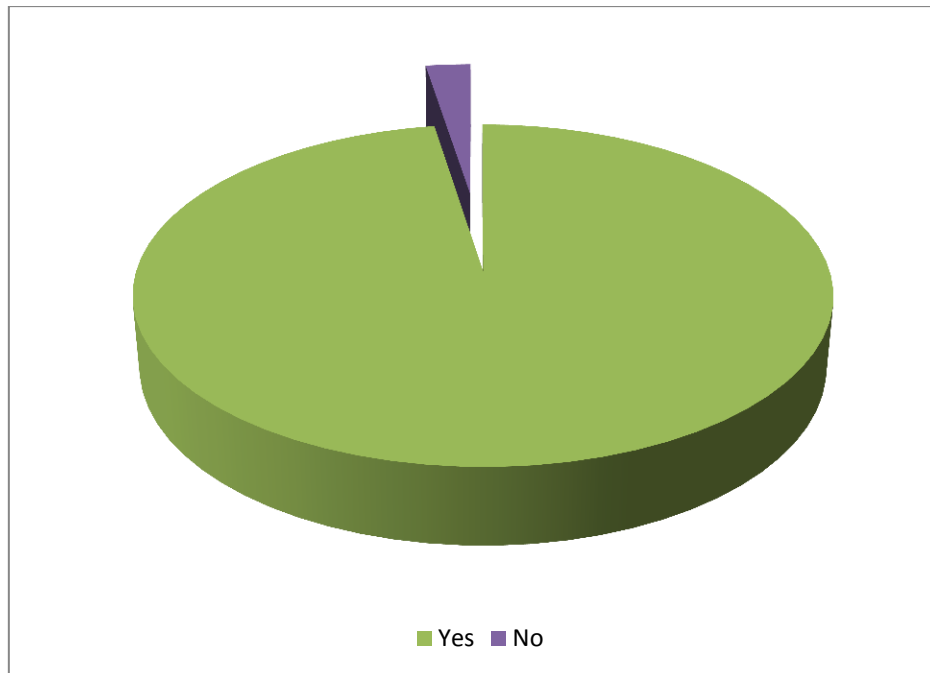
The mean and median of the New York Teenagers age groups are exemplified in the table below:

Age	Mean	Median
15-16	29.75	32.50
17-18		
19-20		
20+		

Table 4.5. The Mean and Median of the New York Teenagers Age Groups

The second dichotomous question demonstrates that the majority (**97.47%**) of New York teenagers can express themselves in any conversation accurately only three (**2.52%**) of

them said no i.e., they were not able to express themselves. The result is obviously visualized as follows:



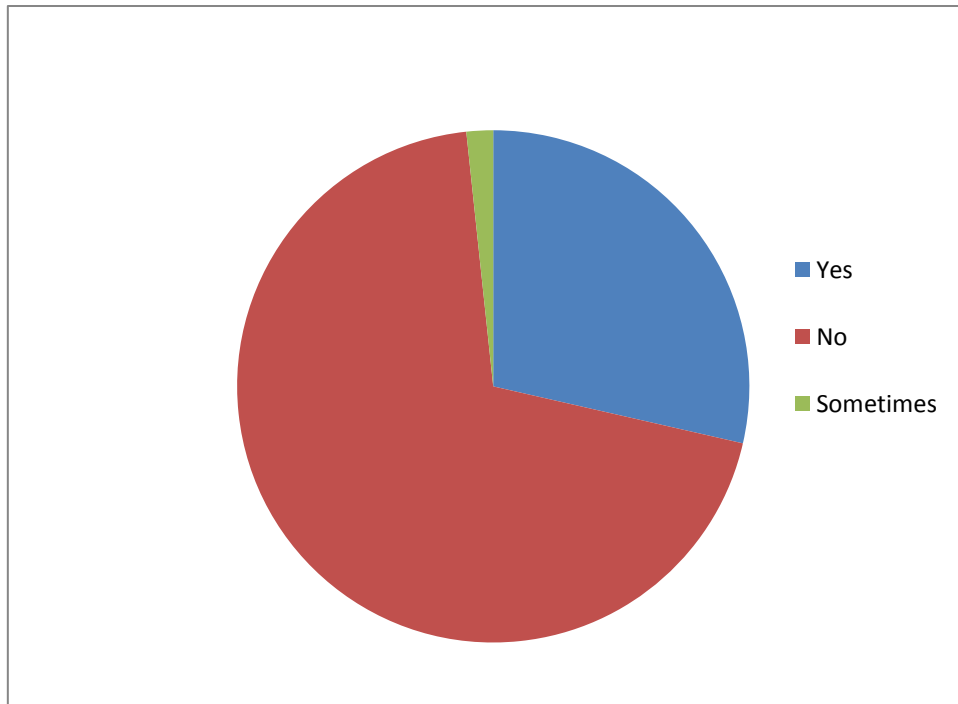
Pie-Chart 4.1. New York Teenagers Ability of Expressing Themselves

The third dichotomous question investigates whether the New York girls are aware of encountering difficulties while arguing. Thirty four girls said that they face difficulties in expressing their point of views; however, eighty three teenagers said ‘no’ and only two who indicated that they sometimes challenge expressing their arguments. The table below summarises what has been achieved.

Responses	Yes	No	Sometimes
Frequency	34	83	02
Percentage	28.57 %	69.74%	1.68%

Table 4.6. Difficulties Percentages

The above percentages can be well represented in this pie-chart:



Pie-chart 4.2. New York Feminine Youngsters' Difficulties

The fourth item within the questionnaire which is a multiple choice question lists various difficulties that teenagers might face in their arguing; twelve girls (**10.08%**) encounter problems of poverty of speech, however, fifty three (**44.53%**) refer to thought disorder/blocking, twenty one (**17.64%**) suffer incoordination, eleven (**9.24%**) have the problem of illogicality, and eleven (**9.24%**) girls mention tangentiality, thirty (**25.21%**) their difficulty is derailment, and seven (**5.88%**) teenagers stress neologism. Conversely, twenty nine (**24.36%**) NY girls state that they have no problems to face while expressing their point of views commenting with 'none'. The following table is a representation of the coding of the distinct types the problems that New York feminine teenagers suffer from while expressing their point of views.

Difficulties	Frequency	Percentages
Poverty of speech	12	10.08%
Thought disorder/ blocking	53	44.53%
Incoordination	21	17.64%
Illogicality	11	9.24%
Tangentiality	11	9.24%
Derailment	30	25.21%
Neologism	07	5.88%
None	29	24.36%

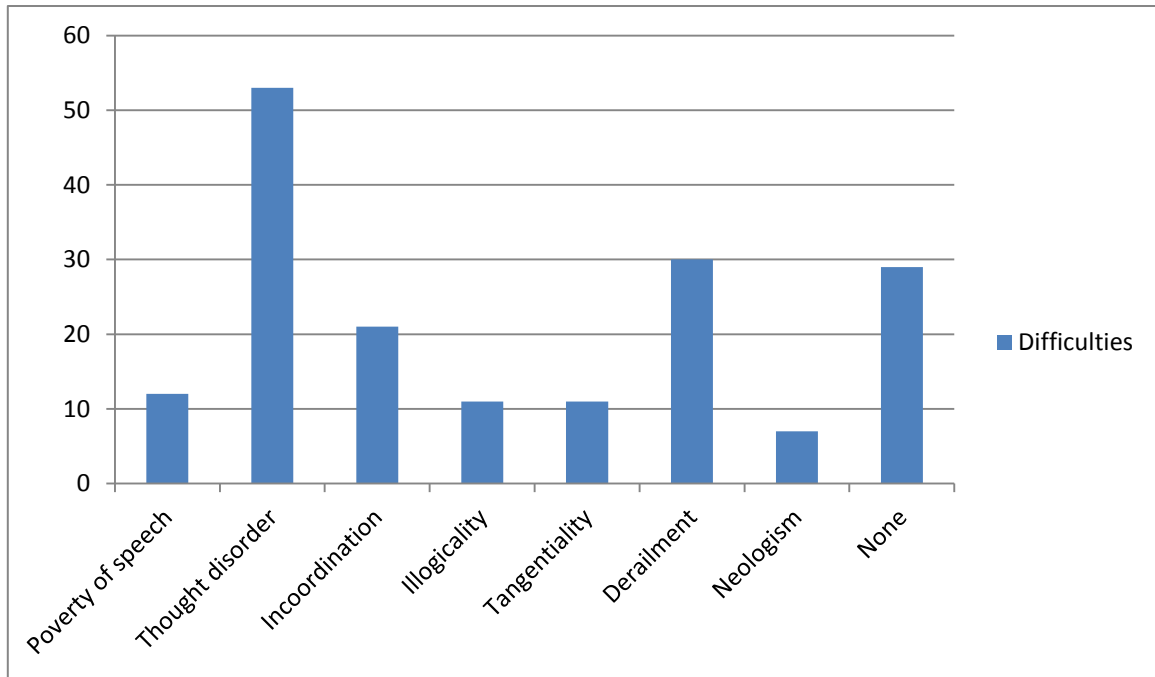
Table 4.7. New York Feminine Youngsters’ Difficulties

The table below personifies the mean, median and mode of the New York feminine youngsters’ difficulties while arguing:

	Mean	Median	Mode
NY Teenagers Difficulties	21.75	16.50	11

Table 4.8. The Mean, Median and Mode of the New York Feminine Youngsters’ Difficulties

The abovementioned difficulties are evidently embodied in the following bar-graph:



Bar-Graph 4.2. The Different Difficulties of NY Feminine Youngsters in arguing

The fifth question reveals that ninety one (**76.47 %**) girls shape their arguments on the basis of logic and critical thinking, twenty nine (**24.36%**), on the other hand, consider religion and beliefs while forming their viewpoints. Thirty six (**30.24%**) hold that traditions and culture play a vital role in constructing their arguments. Personal experience and feelings have the highest percentage as ninety seven (**81.51%**) NY teenagers depend on them. Only two (**1.68%**) girls did not reply to this question. These numbers and percentages are noticeably exemplified in the table that follows:

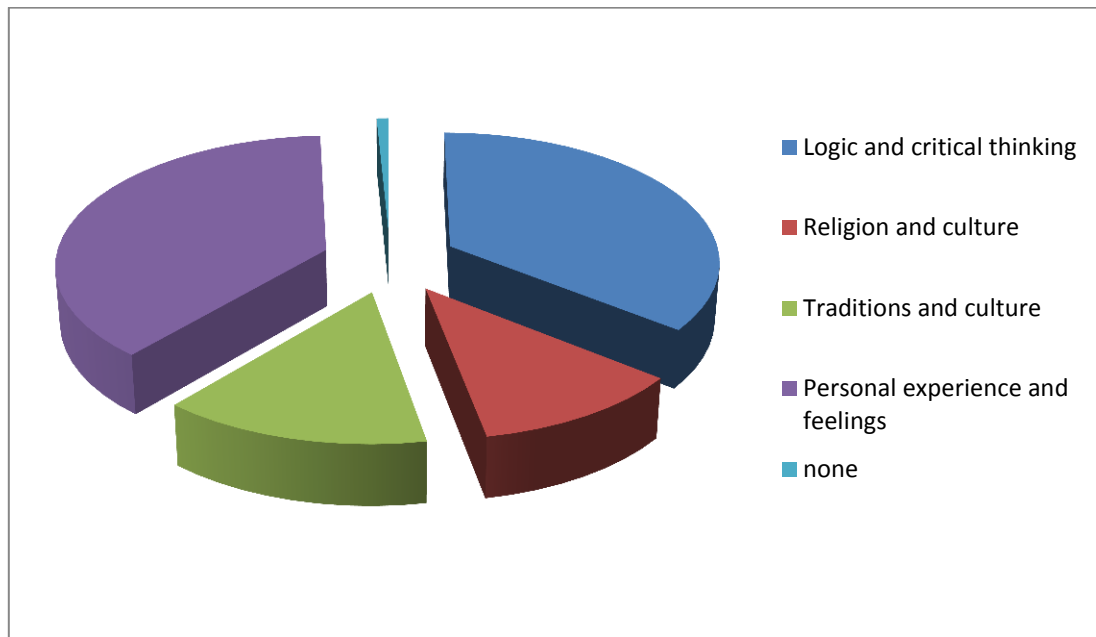
The Bases of shaping an argument	Numbers of NY Teenagers' responses	Percentages
a. Logic and Critical Thinking	91	76.47 %
b. Religion and beliefs	29	24.36%
c. Tradition and culture	36	30.25%
d. Personal experience and feelings	97	81.51%

Table 4.9. The Numbers and Percentages of the Different Bases of Shaping an Argument among NY Teenagers

The Bases of shaping an argument	Mean	Median
	63.25	63.50

Table 4.10. The Mean and Mode of the Different Bases of Shaping an Argument among NY Teenagers

The results of the overhead table are perceptibly visualized in the subsequent pie-chart:



Pie-Chart 4.3. The Bases of Shaping Arguments

The sixth question was provided by the pollster to check out how feminine youngsters persuade others. It aims mainly at finding out whether feminine youngsters' arguments are grounded on logic, credibility or emotions and imagination in a persuasion process. The question implies: 6. *When you get involved in a debate, how do you often persuade someone of your viewpoint?* The researcher received distinct responses, for instance:

- ✓ *I try to use factual information to persuade someone of my viewpoint. Anything that is current in the news is also helpful.*

b. Religion and beliefs

c. Traditions and culture

d. Personal experience and feelings

e. Others

6. When you get involved in a debate, how do you often persuade someone of your viewpoint?

I try to use factual information to persuade someone of my viewpoint. Anything that is current in the news is also helpful.

Figure 4.1. An Example of NY Teenagers' Answers

The arguments provided by New York teenagers were varied and distinct from one girl to another. Amongst one hundred and nineteen (**100%**) New York girls, one hundred and nine (**91.59%**) have responded to question six. Eight participants (**6.72%**) misunderstood the question and ten (**8.40%**) girls couldn't answer the question. It was quite difficult to analyze their answers quantitatively, as they provide plenty different ways to persuade someone about their standpoints. Those ways were variable and unstable.

d. Personal experience and feelings

e. Others

6. When you get involved in a debate, how do you often persuade someone of your viewpoint?

To persuade someone of my viewpoint, I generally use my personal experience/examples that pertain to me. I back this up with facts/what I believe.

Figure 4.2. An Example of NY Feminine Youngsters persuasion's answer

The researcher listed the NY teenagers' answers and picked up the suggested modes used in persuasion. Some girls stated that they persuade someone by affording factual evidence, logical points and examples, others "*try to establish both sides of arguments and then try to give a reasonable explanation*", another one asserted that she had a special way to convince someone of her point of view, she holds: "*I usually play a devil's advocate and play the argument from both sides. Put the shoe on the other foot*". Some girls try their best "*not persuade, but to make valid points*" (stated by one of the NY feminine youngsters). On the other hand, they persuade people by personal experience and feelings "*I usually persuade people by feeling*". Some participants referred to the subject nature, others linked the success of persuasion to the person they addressed, others confusingly misunderstood the question and brought strange answers such as, *frequency adverbs: always, very often...etc* as it is mentioned below with yellow color. Here are the samples of NY feminine youngsters' answers:

- 1- *If my viewpoint is totally correct I try to convey people to agree it*
- 2- *I try to show someone why I think what I do and hope that they can get a better understanding of why I think that way.*
- 3- *I tell them my point of view*
- 4- *Try to make it relate to them*
- 5- *Facts, clear argument*
- 6- *Explain using examples and possible outcomes*
- 7- *I'm pretty good debating so most of the time I can persuade people.*
- 8- *I first clarify my point and feelings, why I think opposite to you and being of stubborn nature I will reason -----with different examples to support my ideas.*
- 9- *I am able to persuade someone of my argument whether they end up agreeing with me or they decide to open up their viewpoint.*
- 10- *I try to think of logical points to convince the other person of my viewpoint. Most of the time we agree to a common ground.*
- 11- *Getting them to view in another person perspective so they can understand from my point of view.*
- 12- *I state my point of view and support it with facts*

13- *Tell them my point of view*

14- *Explain what I'm trying to get across by backing up my point with evidence and details.*

15- **Fairly often**

16- *It all depends on the subject of debate, I can be influential on subjects I have knowledge in*

17- *I don't usually try to persuade someone of my own viewpoint. I just share what I believe and listen to what others believe as best I can*

18- *Pretty often I back up my ideas with facts*

19- *I will argue with reasons and facts*

20- *Back up with facts*

21- **Often most the time**

22- *I try to express my fullest abilities how I feel about the topic and attempt to get opposition to see things from my point of view*

23- **Occasionally**

24- **Very often**

25- *To persuade someone of my viewpoint, I generally use my personal experience/examples that pertain to me. I back this up with facts/ what I believe*

26- *By saying positive points of view*

27- *Offer my opinion*

28- **A little but not much**

29- *I don't usually persuade people, if they don't agree with me I don't really care. But if I was so convinced someone about something, I would probably name all the benefits it brings.*

30- *By stating all things correct about my opinion*

31- *Often, the people I argue and refuse to listen to my views or take them into consideration*

32- *All the basset level we have desire to be agreed without to share*

33- *I provide examples and personal experiences*

34- *I let the person see it for themselves. I don't force my opinions on someone; I want them to be heard.*

35- *I would say half of the time*

- 36- *Just I will explain in simple language*
- 37- *By giving personal or real time example*
- 38- *I usually talk things to set my point across*
- 39- *Explain what I feel and also make sure the other person's viewpoint is being understood*
- 40- *List relevant information to help shape your argument*
- 41- *Not often I respect other viewpoint and one's viewpoint is 100% correct anyway*
- 42- *Give them examples*
- 43- *I persuade them by sharing my beliefs*
- 44- *I try to tell them my thought and my viewpoint*
- 45- *Based on previous experiences and facts*
- 46- *I had very little experience with debates*
- 47- *Mostly in an argumentative way*
- 48- *Experience in my life and topic*
- 49- *Evidence*
- 50- *Quite often logic and reasonable view*
- 51- *Logical fashion*
- 52- *Factual reasons that support my side instead of opinions*
- 53- *Viewpoint that support what I believe*
- 54- *Being clear*
- 55- *Examples*
- 56- *Be opposite*
- 57- *Listen to them then argue*
- 58- **Frequently**
- 59- *Examples*
- 60- *More than half the time*
- 61- *Examples*
- 62- *Examples*
- 63- *Key point seeking for validity*

- 64- *Revealing good aspect*
- 65- *Explain myself and feeling*
- 66- *Facts and logic*
- 67- *Listen then argue*
- 68- *Show my feeling and explain them*
- 69- *Examples*
- 70- *Factual evidence*
- 71- *Logical points*
- 72- *Facts and details*
- 73- *Fairly often*
- 74- *Always*
- 75- *I usually persuade people by feeling*
- 76- *Personal experience and knowledge*
- 77- *Valid points*
- 78- *I don't debate often*
- 79- *How it effects*
- 80- *State main arguments*
- 81- *Put myself in their shoes*
- 82- *Most of the time I stand my opinion*
- 83- *Factual evidence and personal experiences*
- 84- *I can persuade someone of my point*
- 85- *Facts and personal experience*
- 86- *Often*
- 87- *Think from their point of view*
- 88- *Critical thinking*
- 89- *used facts and prior experience*

90- *Sometimes I am able to, but it depends if the person if the person is open-minded or not.*

91- *With logical points and critical understanding*

92- *I give examples*

93- *I tend to focus on using both logical thinking and personal experiences.*

94- *Always*

95- *Present the fact of my viewpoint*

96- *I state my opinion*

97- *By giving my view point and facts*

98- *Not very often I'm not very persuasive*

99- *Using logic*

100-*Bring them the facts*

101-*I try and let them see it from my point of view*

102- *By stressing on facts and figures.*

103-*I use knowledge of background information and persuasive language.*

104-*No, I don't I just explain my point of view*

105-*I try to state my viewpoints clearly and concisely sometimes offering examples so that the other person can understand where I am coming from.*

107-*I tend to focus on using both logical thinking and personal experiences.*

I give examples

108-*I state my reasoning*

109- *I try to use factual information to persuade someone of my viewpoint. Anything that is current in the news is also helpful.*

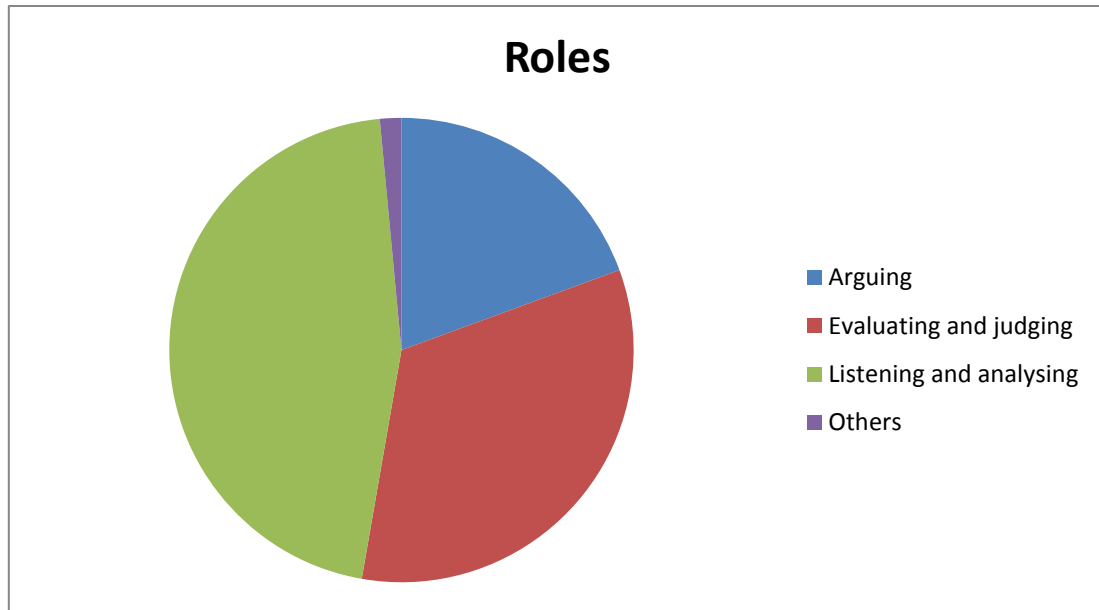
Considering the above responses, the pollster precisely distinguished three main modes of persuasion under the light of Aristotle's triangle of persuasion.

Consequently, the examiner concludes from the above NY feminine youngsters’ answers that the expressions such as: *facts, evidence, logic, reason, and validity* belong to *logos angle*, the category that includes: *Examples, explanation of NY girls’ standpoints or making someone thinks what you think* is classified in *Ethos column*. If the girls claimed that they reveal what they feel, integrate their personal experience, or make others feel what they feel then this should be *Pathos mode*. The following table visualises these appeals in correspondence with NY Teenagers’ responses:

	Logos (logic)	Ethos (Credibility)	Pathos (Emotions-Imagination)
NY Teenagers’ responses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Facts -evidence -logic -reason -validity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Examples -Explain my viewpoint. -Make them think what I think. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Feelings -My personal experience. -Make them feel what I feel.

Table 4. 11. NY Feminine Youngsters’ Persuasive Appeals

Question seven discusses the roles that NY girls partake while arguing. Multiple choices are perceived. The obtained results expose that thirty nine (**32.77%**) state that in a conversational exchange they often argue, however, sixty seven (**56.30%**) young ladies declare that they evaluate and judge. Ninety two (**77.31%**) girls claim that they listen and analyze. Only three (**2.52%**) of the participants indicate that they contribute in a conversation through other roles. In identifying those roles, only two (**66.66%**) out of the three girls that responded to the question ‘*if others, what are they?*’, however, the third girl did not reply. One of the two girls who answered to the question, pointed out: “*Waiting mu turn to speak*”, whereas, the second one comments on by “*moderating*”. The bar-graph below reveals the aforementioned statistics visibly:



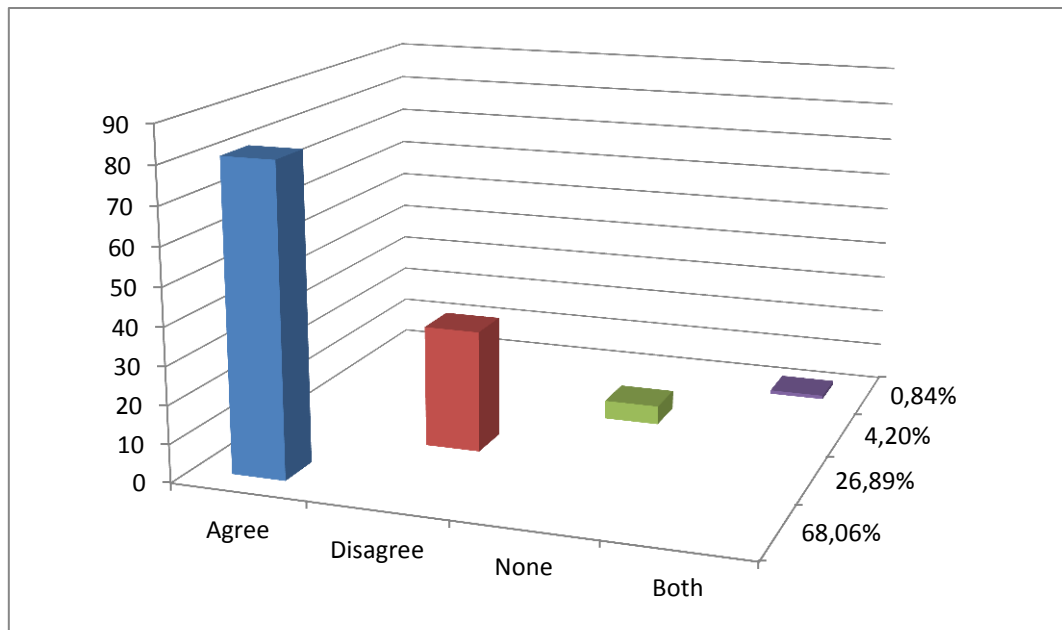
Pie-Charts 4.4. NY Feminine Youngsters Roles in a Conversation

As it is observed, the lowest score. Min is 3 and the highest score. Max is 92, the examiner attempts to count the mean the overall mean of the roles' scores:

Roles	Arguing	Evaluating and Judging	Listening and Judging	Others
Percentages	32.77%	56.30%	77.31%	2.52%
Mean	50.25			
Median	53			

Table 4.12. The Percentages and Mean of the Roles

The eighth question inquires about the language conception in transferring thoughts and ideas consciously. Eighty one (**68.06%**) participants expressed their agreement with the definition of language. Nevertheless, thirty two (**26.89%**) girls divulged that they disagree with that notion of language. Five (**4.20%**) girls did not answer the question neither comments on. Though it was not cited in the questionnaire, one (**0.84%**) participant added a third box and wrote 'Both'. The bar-graph below reveals those numbers and percentages:



Bar-Graph 4.3. New York Girls' Language Notion

As far as the justification of their agreement, disagreement or considering both choices depending on the context, NY feminine youngsters' answers are split into two main responses, those who agree (**68.06%**) on the fact that language is an unconscious method of communicating thoughts and emotions and who disagree (**26.89%**) on that. The girl who believed in both conceptions of language stated that *"It is both. At times we are very conscious of the words that come out of our mouths. Other times it is unconscious."*

Agreement Proof	Disagreement Proof
<i>1- Many times they speak without thinking</i>	<i>1-Language is a conscious way to express oneself as many people spend a moment to think before speaking.</i>

Table 4.13. NY Girls Agreements and Disagreements Proofs

New York feminine youngsters' answers of the ninth question were read several times by the examiner, and then picked out isolated and similar ideas and responses. The answers were grouped then into distinct and various categories so as to ease the data analysis. The question was:

9. As a young lady, how do your arguments influence your life?

The most common responses are best portrayed in the following statements provided by New York girls are:

- *“They help me find who I am.”*
- *“Standing up for what I believe in.”*
- *“I need to speak out more to be heard in today’s society.”*
- *“They influence me in the aspect to make sure whatever I’m arguing about makes sense but also projects my ideas.”*
- *“By making my view points stronger.”*
- *“I show that my arguments are logical and not just based on society’s standards.”*
- *“Show me the way to behave.”*
- *“I feel more confidence when I can express myself.”*
- *“By teaching me to accept when I am wrong.”*
- *“They influence my individuality and my attitude.”*
- *“They show your personality and personal standards.”*
- *“They shape the course of my life; it helps me evaluate life decisions more carefully. I improve to be a better person.”*
- *“Arguments are not good. All the time, it’s entirely based on situation.”*
- *“I fight for what I want.”*
- *“It influenced my life by thinking critically.”*
- *“It shapes my transition into womanhood by choosing what I identify with and what I don’t choose to integrate into my new perspectives. However, I am open to hearing others’ viewpoints without feeling the absolute need to conform or not.”*
- *“My life depends on the way how I think. If I go bad then I will take wrong step that will probably spoil my life. If I am good in my thoughts then I can set a right path so that I will be in a good position.”*
- *“I evaluate based on logic what facts I know to be true and consider the facts they present me with. I try to keep an open mind but I am willing to admit when I am out of my depth and don’t know enough on the subject to formulate an opinion.”*

- *“I think standing up for myself & my thought and feelings are important. Although I avoid involving myself in any conflict. I like to think my arguments help me to stand up for myself. They influence me in a positive way as a reminder of having to work hard to protect myself and my personal beliefs.”*

Others go to specifically distinguish two types of arguments’ influences:

- *“Depends on the argument, if it is constructive then it probably will influence it in a good (positive) way but if it is negative then probably not. I don’t usually involve myself in negative arguments.”*

It is significant to mention that not all of the New York teenagers responded to the last question. Strangely enough, some of them misunderstood the question, thus, unexpected and weird answers were provided such as:

- *Very much*
- *Yes*
- *Yes, it does*
- *Often*
- *Not too often*
- *Very influential*
- *A lot*
- *“I don’t argue often, so I don’t think it influences my life greatly. I like to think that I argue in a way that is respectful and thoughtful and I try not to damage my relationships with people.”*

On the other hand, some other girls did not answer the question at all. The investigator ended up the analysis of the results of New York feminine youngsters’ questionnaire wondering about the Ain-Témouchent teenagers’ answers.

4.3.2. Results of Ain-Temouchent Questionnaire

Much like New York feminine youngsters' questionnaire, Ain-Temouchent feminine youngsters' questionnaire analysis dealt with the category and ordinal data i.e., it questioned the gender and age of Temouchent girls. This was used to target the main sample of population. The researcher had administered one hundred and nineteen questionnaires, however, only one hundred and twelve girls have responded to the questionnaires.

Gender	Number of People
Females	112 girls
Males	00

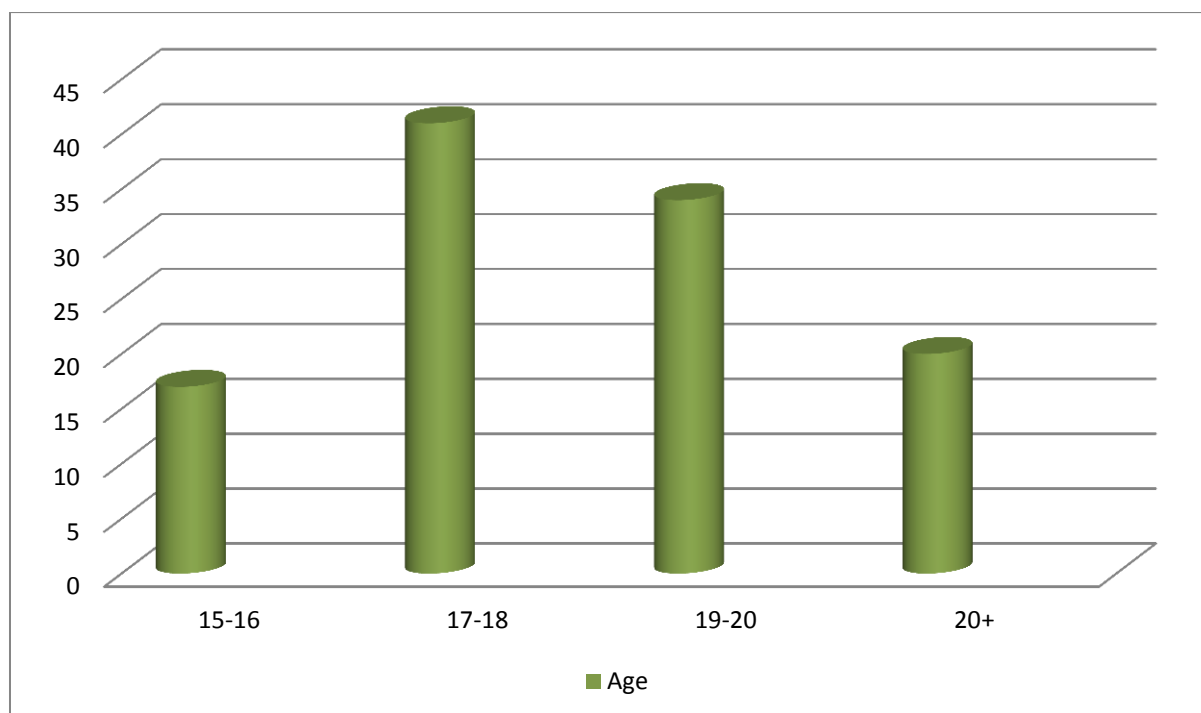
Table 4.14. Ain-Temouchent Participants Gender

Regarding age, the question strived to certify that the one hundred and twelve questionnaires have Temouchent feminine participants. The table below reflects the age category, frequency and percentage of Temouchent participants.

Age groups	Frequency	Percentage
15-16	17	15.17%
17-18	41	36.60%
19-20	34	30.35%
20+	20	17.85%

Table 4.15. Ain-Temouchent Feminine Teenagers Age

The aforementioned table displays the different age groups of Temouchent feminine teenagers who replied to the questionnaire. The above outcomes can discernibly be epitomised in the following bar-graph:



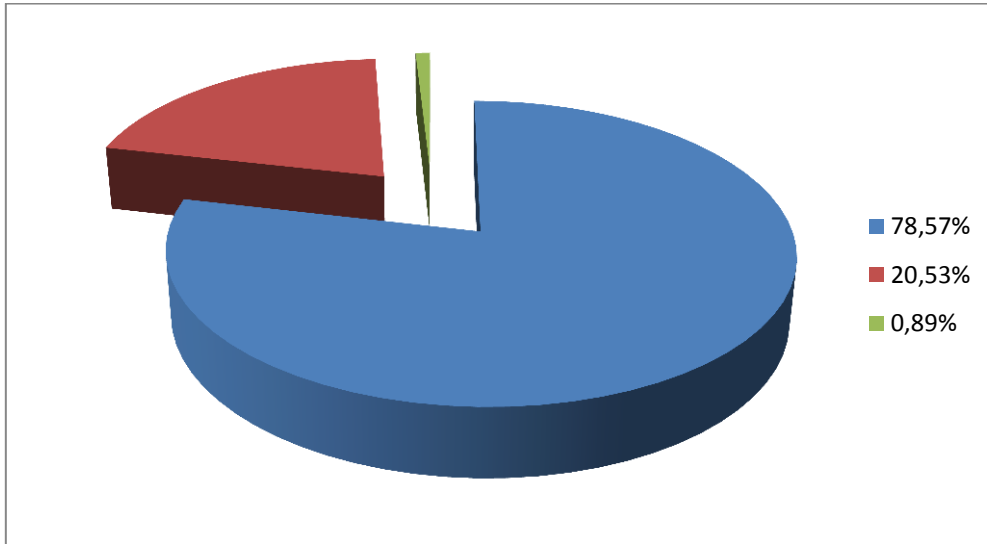
Bar-Graph 4.4. Temouchent Feminine Teenagers' Age Groups

The mean and median of age groups of Temouchent are represented in the table that follows:

Age	Mean	Median
15-16	28	27
17-18		
19-20		
20+		

Table 4.16. The Mean and Median of Temouchent Teenagers' Age Groups

Question two shows that eighty eight (78.57%) of Temouchent teenagers can express themselves in any conversation appropriately only twenty three (20.53%) of them said no i.e., they could not express themselves. There was one girl who mentioned ‘أحيانا’ i.e., ‘sometimes’ (0.89%). The upshots are palpably personified as follows:



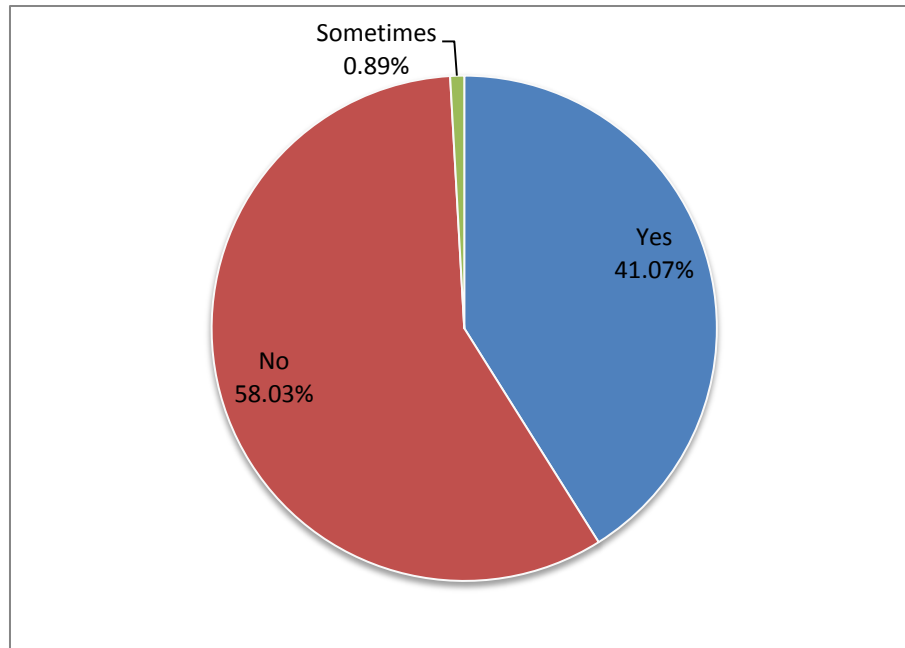
Pie-Chart 4.5. Temouchent Teenagers Ability of Expressing Themselves

The third question revolves around Temouchent girls' awareness of facing problems while arguing. Forty six girls said that they face difficulties in expressing their point of views; whereas, sixty five teenagers answered with 'no' and only two who answered differently, one of the girls stated that she sometimes faces problems while expressing her arguments. This table recapitulates those results.

Responses	Yes	No	Sometimes
Frequency	46	65	01
Percentage	41.07%	58.03%	0.89%

Table 4.17. Difficulties and Percentages

The overhead percentages can be well exemplified in the following pie-chart:



Pie-chart 4.6. Temouchent Feminine Youngsters' Difficulties

As regard as the fourth question; eighteen Temouchent girls (16.07%) encounter problems of poverty of speech (فقر في المصطلحات), however, thirty participants(26.78%) stressed thought disorder/blocking (التشتت او الاحتباس الفكري), nine teenagers(8.03%) faced incoordination (عد القدرة على ربط الافكار), and seventeen (15.17%) suffer from illogicality (اعطاء آراء غير منطقية), and twenty seven(24.10%) girls had tangentiality, only seven young ladies(6.25%) their problem is derailment, and twenty five contributors(22.32%) mentioned neologism(استعمال مصطلحات لا يفهمها غيرك). On the other hand, twenty seven (24.10%) of Temouchent participants indicated that they do not encounter difficulties while expressing their standpoints, for instance, one of the participant wrote 'و لا واحدة' i.e., 'none'.

Difficulties	Frequency	Percentages
Poverty of speech فقر في المصطلحات	18	16.07%
Thought disorder/ blocking التشتت أو الاحتباس الفكري	30	26.78%
Incoordination عدم القدرة على ربط الأفكار	09	08.03%
Illogicality اعطاء آراء غير منطقية	17	15.17%
Tangentiality الخروج عن الموضوع بسبب التوتر	27	24.10%
Derailment عجز فكري أو قلة الأفكار	07	06.25%
Neologism استعمال مصطلحات لا يفهمها غيرك	25	22.32%
None لا شيء	27	24.10%

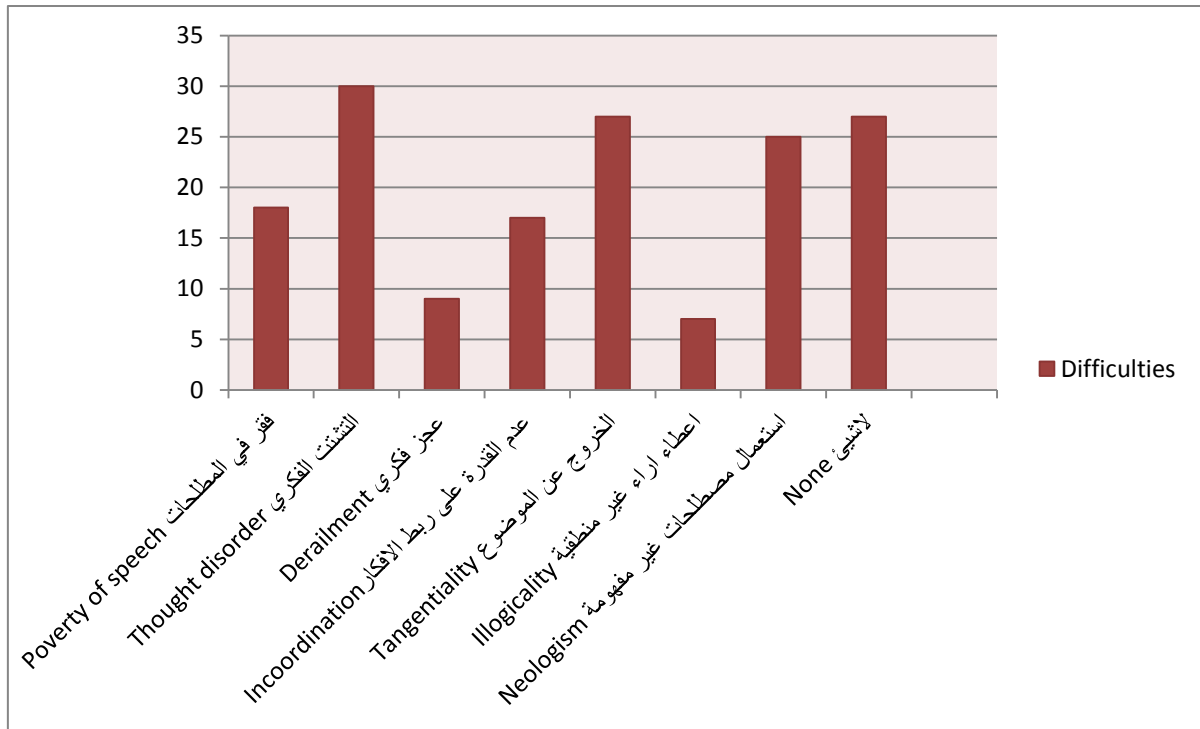
Table 4.18. Temouchent Feminine Youngsters' Difficulties

The following table exemplifies the mean, median and mode of Temouchent feminine youngsters' difficulties:

	Mean	Median	Mode
Temouchent Teenagers' Difficulties	20	28.50	27

Table 4.19. The Mean, Median and Mode of Temouchent Feminine Youngsters' Difficulties

The above difficulties are clearly modified in the subsequent bar-graph:



Bar-Graph 4.5. Temouchent Feminine Youngsters' Difficulties

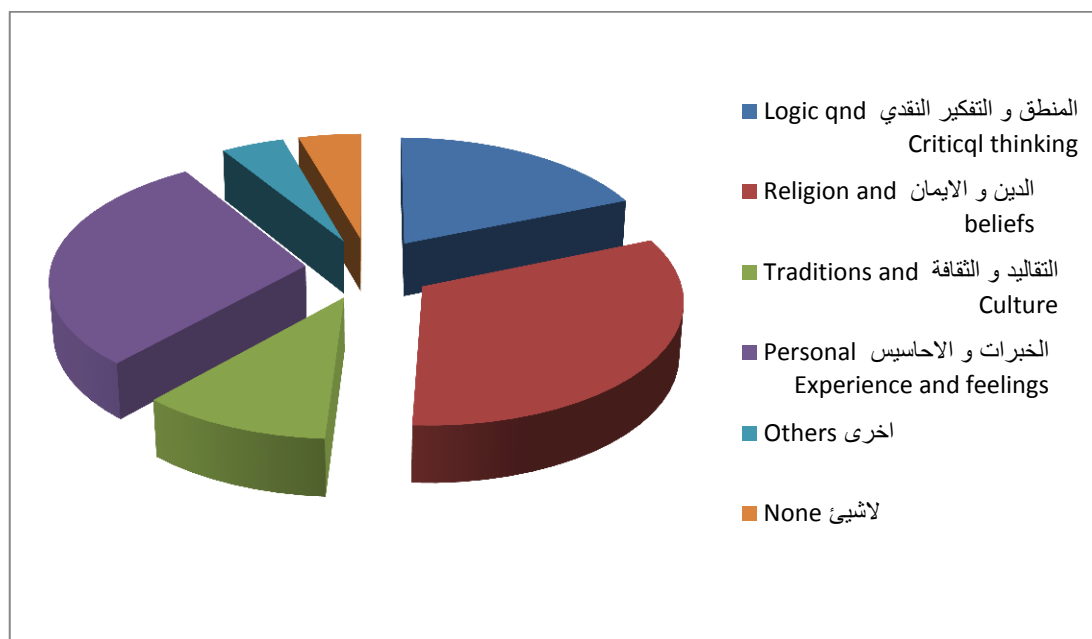
Question five divulges that twenty one (**18.75%**) girls form their point of views on the basis of logic and critical thinking, thirty six (**26.78%**), on the other hand, consider religion and beliefs while forming their viewpoints. Twelve (**10.71%**) participants revealed that traditions and culture are two significant factors that serve in constructing their arguments. Personal experience and feelings have the highest percentage as thirty three (**29.46%**) Temouchent teenagers depend on them. Five (**04.46%**) girls pointed out that they have other bases that they often relay on. Five (**04.46%**) other girls had no answers to this question. The numbers and percentages below are noticeably demonstrated:

The Bases of shaping an argument	Numbers of Temouchent Teenagers' responses	Percentages
المنطق و التفكير النقدي .ا	21	18.75%
الدين و الايمان .ب	36	26.78%
التقاليد و الثقافة .ت	12	10.71%
الخبرات و الاحاسيس .ث	33	29.46%
أخرى .ج	05	04.46%
لاشيئ .ح	05	04.46%

Table 4.20. The Numbers and Percentages of the different Bases of Shaping an Argument among Temouchent Teenagers

The Bases of shaping an argument	Mean	Median	Mode
	18.66	27	5

Table 4.21. The Mean and Mode of the different Bases of Shaping an Argument among Temouchent Teenagers



Pie-Chart 4.7. The Bases of Shaping Arguments Among Temouchent Participants

In question sixth, the pollster investigated the way Temouchent feminine youngsters persuade others. Persuasion is one of the noteworthy variables within the current investigation. The question targets principally feminine youngsters' bases of forming arguments, are they based on logic, Credibility, or emotions and imagination in a persuasion process? The question involves:

6- عندما تشاركين في نقاش ما، كيف تقنعين الطرف الآخر؟

6-When you get involved in a debate, how do you often persuade someone of your viewpoint?

Amongst the responses that the examiner obtained, the following ones:

6- أقول له ضع نفسك أو تخيل أنك تواجه نفس الحالة.

6- I tell him put yourself or imagine that you face the same situation.

The arguments delivered by Temouchent participants were diverse from one girl to another. Amongst one hundred and nineteen (100%) Temouchent girls, (95.53%) have responded to question six. Five girls (4.46%) did not reply to the question. Like New York teenagers' questionnaire, the Temouchent one shares the same complexity in inspecting the participants' answers quantitatively, as they afford different manners and techniques to persuade someone about their arguments. However, most of the girls agreed that Those techniques were mutable.

The researcher catalogued Temouchent teenagers' responses and gave a lift to the proposed methods employed in persuading others. Some participants said that they persuade someone by providing: *factual evidence, logical points and examples*, others “-تقديم العلل و الحجج و البراهين” i.e. give ‘*proofs and evidence*’, another one confirmed that they brought real examples from real world: “عادة بالإتيان بأدلة من واقعا لأن الإتيان بدليل من الواقع أفضل” “Often giving proofs from our real world because providing evidence from reality is the best proof and usually I do persuade them”.

(Stated by one of Temouchent feminine youngsters). Conversely, others persuade people by personal experience and feelings “عادة أقنعه بتجاريبي أو بخبرات قد مررت بها في حياتي و أحيانا أدخل “الجانب الديني استلزم الأمر. “Usually, I convince him by experiences which I passed through in my life and sometimes I include the religious side if it is required”. Here are the samples of Temouchent feminine youngsters’ answers:

-بإعطائه حجج مقنعة.

-By providing convincing proofs.

-عادة أقنعه بتجاريبي أو بخبرات قد مررت بها في حياتي و أحيانا أدخل الجانب الديني استلزم الأمر.

-Usually, I convince him by experiences which I passed through in my life and sometimes I include the religious side if it is required.

-أقنعه عادة بإعطاء حجج أقوى من حججه أو ببساطة نفي حججه و ابطالها و نقد رأيه.

-Often, I convince them by providing stronger proofs than his or simply I deny his proofs and criticize his opinion.

-بالأدلة و الحجج.

-With proofs and evidence.

-أقنع الطرف الآخر عادة برأبي باستعمال مصطلحات أفكار دينية فأنا عادة أو دائما ما أستعمل الدين في أفكاري و معتقداتي.

- I convince my partner usually I use my words, religious ideas, I often or always use religion in my thoughts and beliefs.

-بالأدلة و الأمثلة و البراهين.

-With proofs, examples and evidence.

-بالحجج و الأدلة

-With proofs and evidence

-بحجج و براهين.

-With proofs and evidence.

-إعطاء مبررات منطقية.

-Give logical proofs.

-عن طريق الأدلة و البراهين في أي مجال كانت و إن سمحت لي الفرصة و لم أكن مع شخص متعصب.

-Through proofs and evidence in every domain and if it is the opportunity not to be with a stern person.

-اتخاذ دليل أو الكلام المناسب لا فناع الطرف الآخر بالاعتناع.

-Take a proof or the adequate speech to persuade the other through persuasion.

1- الاستماع فهو خير جواب، 2- أن تكوني مقتنعة تماما. 3- النقاش يكون مفهوم مثال توضيح الفكرة-ترتيب الافكار. 4-

الصبر و التحدي. التحدي ليس أن تقنع شريك أو الطرف الآخر بالغصب بل بالعكس بالفهم و الإيضاح الجيد. ثم الشرح إلى أن يتقنع مع البراهين.

-1. Listening as it the best answer 2- To be completely convinced. 3. The debate should be understood for instance clarifies the idea. Organize the ideas. 4. Patience and challenge.

Challenge is not to persuade your partner with force but on the contrary with understanding and good clarification and then the explanation so that he gets persuaded with evidence.

-لكي أقنع الطرف أقدم براهين على صحة رأيي و حوادث واقعية لكي أجعل رأيي أكثر صحة للطرف الآخر.

-To persuade my partner I afford him evidence which displays the validity of my viewpoints and real accident to make my opinion more accurate to the other.

-إستعمال أدلة و براهين من الواقع لبيان صحة كلامي.

-I use proofs and evidence from real world to show the certainty of my speech.

-أنا عادة لا أبحث عن اقتناعه بل اصغائه إذا إستطعت امتلاك كل تركيزه.

I usually do not search for persuading him but his attention if I can get all his attentiveness.

-عندما أريد إقناع شخص ما أستمع له أولا ثم أقول رأيي و أدممه بشيء من الواقع أو بأدلة من الحديث و السنة.

-When I want to convince someone, I listen to him first, then I give my viewpoint and I support it with something from reality or with facts from the Hadith and Sunna.

-أحاول أن أناقشه بما يفهمه. أي بالمصطلحات و الأفكار القريبة إلى مستواه -أي كان- كما أحاول دائما إدخال المنطق و المرح في النقاش إذا كان طبعاً قابل للمرح فيه.

-I try to persuade him with what he understands. That is by words and thoughts that are closer to his level-whatever it was-I always attempt to integrate logic and entertainment in the debate if it was jokey.

-عادة بالإتيان بأدلة من واقعنا لأن الإتيان بدليل من الواقع أفضل دليل و في أغلب الأحيان أقوم بإقناعهم.

-Often giving proofs from our real world because providing evidence from reality is the best proof and usually I do persuade them.

-أبذل ما بوسعي للتعبير عن رأيي بإعطاء آراء منطقية.

I do my best to express my point of view by giving rational arguments.

-أقنعه بأمثلة حية من الواقع و ما يجري من حولنا.

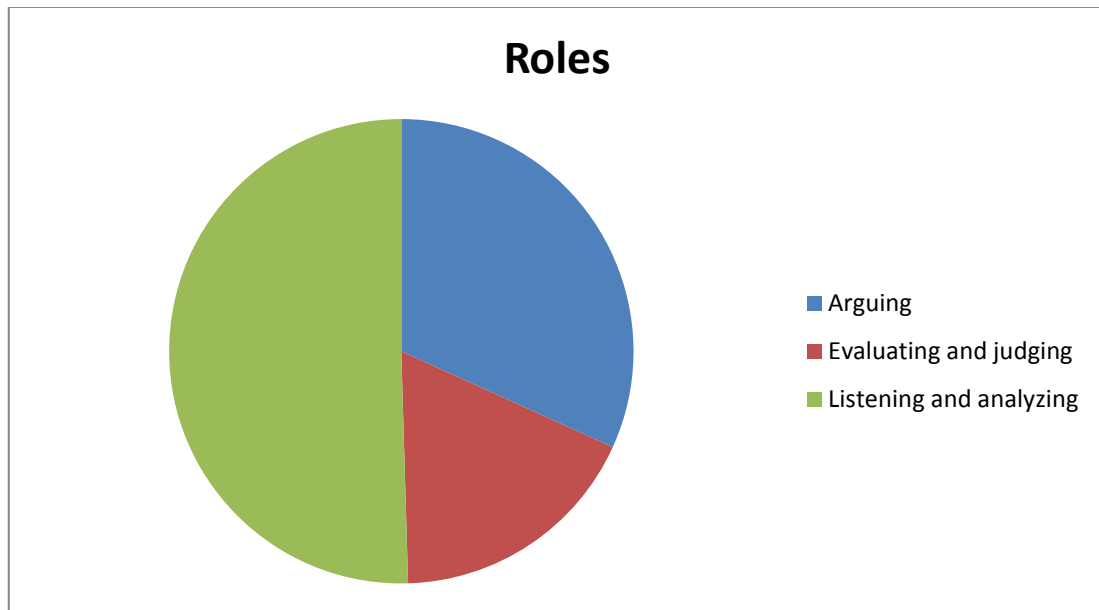
-I convince him with vivid examples from reality and what goes around us.

Accordingly, the researcher encapsulates from the above findings Temouchent feminine youngsters' expressions such as: *براهين و أدلة proofs and evidence*, *منطقي logic*, *real and valid* referred to *logos*, the category that includes: *أمثلة Examples*, *explication of Temouchent girls' point of views توضيح الأفكار* is classified within *Ethos*. The girls who asserted that they revealed only their personal experience, and simply influence others emotionally, in effect, they practice *Pathos mode*. This table pictures the Temouchent girls' appeals in correspondence with Aristotle's modes of persuasion:

	Logos (logic)	Ethos (Credibility)	Pathos(Emotions- Imagination)
	-Facts	برهان	-Examples أمثلة
Temouchent	-evidence	دليل	-My personal experience.
Teenager	-logic	منطق	-تجاري و خبراتي
s'	-validity	- صحيح	-Explain توضيح أفكار
responses			my viewpoint.

Table 4. 22. Temouchent Feminine Youngsters' Persuasive Appeals

The results of the seventh question displays that thirty four (**30.35%**) said that often argue, however nineteen (**16.96%**) girls stated that they evaluate and judge. Fifty four (**48.21%**) young ladies held that they listen and analyze. The fourth item which implies اخرى i.e., other roles have not been marked by Temouchent girls. The bar-graph below demonstrates these statistics appropriately:



Pie-Charts 4.8. Temouchent Feminine Youngsters Roles in a Conversation

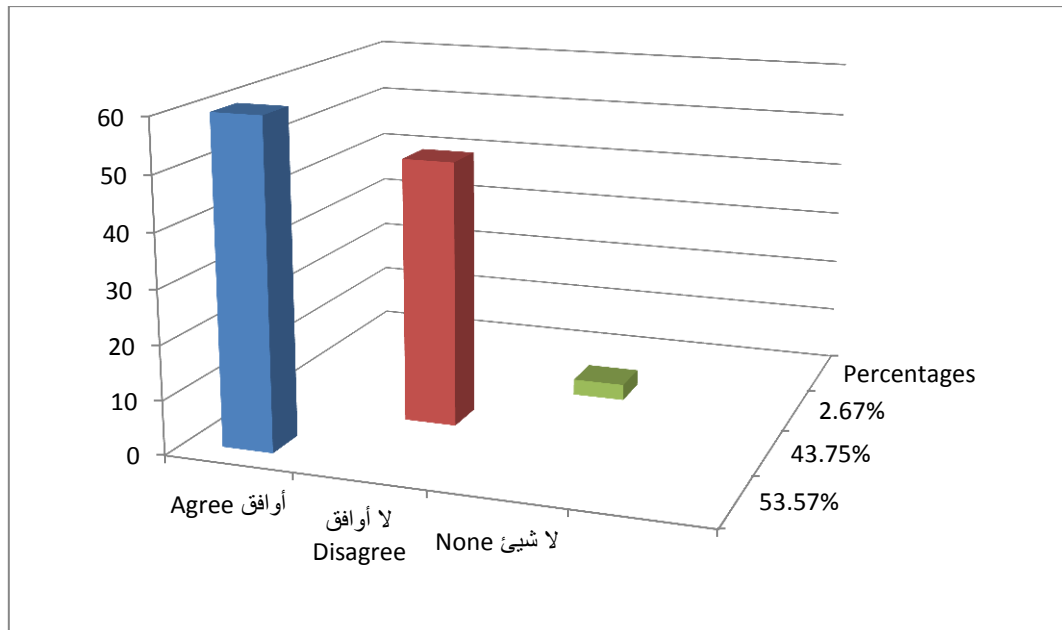
The examiner attempts to calculate the global mean of the roles' scores:

Roles	Arguing	Evaluating and Judging	Listening and Judging	Others
Percentages	30.35 %	16.96%	48.21%	00%
Mean	28.50			
Median	19			

Table 4.23. The Percentages and Mean of the Roles

As regard as the eighth question, sixty (**53.57%**) participants express their agreement with the definition of language. Nevertheless, forty nine (**43.75%**) girls divulge that they disagree with that notion of language. Three (**2.67%**) girls did not answer the question

neither comments on. The following bar-graph demonstrates those numbers and percentages:



Bar-Graph 4.6. Temouchent girls' Language Notion

Regarding the agreement and disagreement, Temouchent feminine youngsters' answers are divided into two chief responses, those who agree (53.57%) on language being an unconscious method of communicating thoughts and emotions and who disagree (43.75%) on that, and who did not respond (2.67%).

Agreement Proof	Disagreement Proof
<p>1- لأنه عادة يقول اللسان ما نحس به...لهذا لا نراقب كلماتنا.</p> <p>2-Because it is often the tongue that says what we feel...that's why we do not watch our words.</p>	<p>1- لان اللغة هي طريقة واعية لتوصيل الأفكار و العواطف.</p> <p>1-Because language is a conscious method to transmit thoughts and feelings.</p>

Table 4.24. Temouchent Participants Agreements and Disagreements Proofs

The ninth question's answers were analyzed by the pollster, and then selected out distinct and analogous thoughts and responses. The answers were grouped then into distinct and various categories so as to ease the data analysis. The question was:

9-كيف تؤثر آراءك على حياتك

9. As a young lady, how do your arguments influence your life?

The most familiar responses are revealed in the following statements afforded by Temouchent young ladies:

- مرة سلبا و مرة ايجابا .

-positive and negative.

-اكثرها بطريقة سلبية .

-Most of it in a negative way.

-ترفع من مستوى ثقفتي بنفسي .

-It increases the level of my self-confidence.

- بشكل كبير لأن أغلب الوقت تؤثر على آرائي الخاصة في حياتي اليومية مع الأخذ بعين الاعتبار بعض آراء الآخرين لكن دون تعدي على ما يخصني .

So much, because most of the time it influences my personal arguments in my daily life taking into consideration some of others' viewpoints without transcending my concerns.

-تحدد شخصيتي و هويتي مع الناس .

-It indicates my personality and my identity with people.

-تؤثر آرائي على حياتي بطريقة ايجابية لأنني الوحيدة التي اخترت هذا الرأي .

-My viewpoints influences my life in a positive way because I am the only one who chooses this standpoint.

-لا أتبع آراء الآخرين بل أتبع رأيي الذي يساعدني لتجنب الانحراف .

-I do not follow the others' arguments but mine which helps me avoid deviation.

-ليس كثيرا أحيانا تؤثر علي سلبيبا لكنني أتخذ القرار الصائب و الحسن .

-Not too much, sometimes it influences me negatively but I take the correct and good decision.

تؤثر علي جدا لأنها تحدد أرائي و اختياري.

-It influences me too much because it shapes my viewpoints and choices.

تؤثر أرائي على حياتي باتخاذ الأفكار المناسبة التي تليق بمستواي و تؤدي بي الى النجاح في حياتي و تساعدني في بناء مستقبل زاهر.

-My viewpoints influence my life by taking appropriate ideas which suit my level and that lead me to success in my life and help me building a flourished future.

-عندما أتخذ قرارات لا واعيه.

-When I take unconscious decisions.

Most of the participants answering to the last question mentioned that their arguments influence their life either in a positive way or negative one; others provided distinct and sometimes equivocal responses. Conversely, some other girls did not reply to the question at all.

4.3.3. Results of New-York Interview

The bulk of this section will discuss the data gathered from the New York teenagers' interviews. The word choice and meaning, the utterance and its rational structure, i.e., the relationship of claims, premises, warrants, and valid conclusions as essential components of analysis, are addressed in feminine youngsters' interview by means of content analysis. The fundamental objective of the current research work interview is 'theory testing' and building a 'conceptual framework' so as to uncover the type of arguments employed. Furthermore, to tackle the main obstacles and difficulties NY feminine youngsters suffer from to achieve a successful and expressive argumentative exchange. Thus, the interviewees' arguments will be inspected in respect of Toulmin Model of Arguments and Bakhtin theory of utterance.

The interview questions go hand in hand with the questionnaire question items seeking for validity and authenticity¹. Under the light of Toulmin Model of arguments, six questions within the interview that will be analyzed qualitatively.

❖ *What three words best describe you? Why particularly these words?*

While listening to the recording, New York feminine youngsters listed distinct words that revealed who they are. The interviewer, in her attempt, to test their ability to express themselves as one hundred and sixteen feminine youngsters (97.47%) asserted within the questionnaire in item 2 that they are able to express themselves in any conversation accurately. The most the selected words are adjectives that best describe who they are. The adjectives varied from one girl to another however many girls share the same words, for instance: the first interviewee stated that she is *modest, assertive and sympathetic*, the interviewee 18 said that she is: *easy-going, respectful and creative*, participant number 12 claimed that she is: *respectful- honest and understanding* and so on. Both of the participants ten and eleven stated that they are: *patient- good listener*, however they were different regarding the third word as participant 10 was *friendly*; whereas, eleven was *responsible*. Participants such as 15, 17, and 62 were not able to complete the three words. Number 15 said she was: *curious and easy-going*, on the other hand, number 17 held that she is *active*. The sixty-two participant said that she is: *driven and curious*. The sixth interviewee couldn't express herself with the expression '*I don't know!*'. Most the adjectives listed by the New York teenagers are: *analytical, optimistic, good, friendly, driven, hard-working, modest, sociable, assertive, sympathetic, spontaneous, confident, honest, responsible, understanding, compassionate, patient, curious, nice, funny, quiet, shy, creative, and independent*. In responding to the second half of the question '*Why particularly these words*' all the girls state that these words best describe them, moreover, they add that this is the way the member of their families and friends see them and they explain how and why every adjective is adequate to that description. For example participant 70 justified "*because that what others think of me and what I think of myself*".

❖ *What do you think of gay marriage?*

¹ See chapter three p. 197

This question is provided to testify the participants' answers regarding religion and personal viewpoints. Most of the girls stated that they did not mind if two people of the same gender get married. For instance interviewee 1 though she traditionally held that her religion is against this type of marriage: "*traditionally, according to my religion this is something to be against*" she held: "*To me, I do believe in because if two people love each other, they should marry, just because you believe in a certain way does not mean everybody else should believe in the same way*". Others such as participants 2, 3, 68, 69, 70 do not have problems with 'gay marriage' stating that with the expression 'It's Okay' since it does not involve them. One of the participants 28 claimed that she supported gay marriage and confessed that she is a gay. Girl 14 was the only one who was against it as she confirmed that it is forbidden and should not be allowed, the girls was Muslims, she said: "*I think that, Okay! Gay marriage, personally I don't agree with it because of my religion and my belief*".

According to Toulmin, which represents a practical argument that is based on the justificatory function of argumentation, the above statements (Warrants) can be analysed as follows:

- Traditionally, according to my religion this is something to be against"
Ground Claim
- To me, I do believe in because if two people love each other, they should marry,
Claim Ground 1
- just because you believe in a certain way does not mean everybody else should believe
in the same way" Ground 2
- "I think that, Okay! Gay marriage, personally I don't agree with it because of my
religion and my belief". Claim Ground

❖ *If you get hurt abusively by someone, do you forgive him/her? Why?*

who maintained: “No, because I am not religious, maybe a little spiritual. I focus on this life”. Most of the NY interviewees went along with the subsistence of the afterlife for instance, girl 19 confirmed: “Yes, because I count on biocentrism, they talk about how everybody has power and energy....that energy can be transferred, so I believe when somebody died their energy transferred”. Another category expressed its doubt and uncertainty about the existence; however, it referred to religion as it is proclaimed by participant 25: “I think so, I’m not really sure”; when the interviewer asked her to justify, she defended her viewpoint as follows: “I’m Christian, I do believe in God, I do believe he had a purpose for everyone in afterlife”.

- *No, because I am not religious, maybe a little spiritual. I focus on this life*
Claim Ground
- *Yes, because I count on biocentrism, they talk about how everybody has power and energy....that energy can be transferred, so I believe when somebody died their energy transferred*
Claim Ground
- *I think so, I’m not really sure*
Claim
- *I’m Christian, I do believe in God, I do believe he had a purpose for everyone in afterlife*
Implicit Ground Claim

❖ *In a debate, how do you figure out that someone is lying to you?*

All New York feminine youngsters participating in the interview stated that they figured out a lie of somebody through body language such as: *eye contact, smiles, gestures....etc.* For instance: Girl 19 said that “*when they touch their nose, ... their body language*”, Girl 22 declared: “*....their physical patterns, facial expressions, their eyes*”. This means to say that they observe the non-verbal language; however, a girl added that they listen to their arguments and their structures. Girl 14 argued: “*...listen to their arguments, like...premises, conclusions... think logically about it*». Some teenagers confessed that they are good at figuring out a liar as they are honest; others asserted that it is hard to judge someone.

❖ *How can you describe your present life? What does make sense to your life?*

The concluding question within the interview touches the NY teenagers' personal life. Most of the interviewees confirmed that their life is dynamic with much pressure describing it as being "busy" since most NY feminine teenagers are involved in part time jobs; meanwhile, they attend college. For instance, interviewee 11 said: *"I like it, I'm busy, I get something going on, I love it"* and for what makes sense to her life, she replied: *"my life makes sense, I'm happy"*. Girl 18 declared that her life is balanced between *"studying, working"* she continued to add *"that's what I need right now"* i.e., that's what makes sense to her life. Participant 30 described her life as 'exciting', she stated: *"It's exciting...it's not stable but it's not negative, it's what I'm doing thinking of and doing that make sense"*. Few of the participants felt uncertain about how their life can be described and could not answer the second half of the sixth question, such interviewee 43, she claimed: *"Aaaam! I don't know how to describe that I just have ups and downs just like everybody else"*, and when she is questioned about what give meaning to her life, she doubted: *"I don't know actually, I really never thought about it"*.

4.3.4. Results of Ain-Temouchent Interview

Temouchent feminine youngsters' interview will analytically be discussed in order to reveal the obtained results from the data collection. Similar to the previous interview, the word choice and meaning, the utterance and its rational structure, and valid conclusions as critical components of analysis, are tackled by means of content analysis. The central target of the interview analysis is *'theory testing'* and building a *'conceptual framework'* so as to uncover the type of arguments employed. Furthermore, to tackle the main obstacles and difficulties Temouchent feminine youngsters suffer from to achieve a successful and expressive argumentative exchange. There six questions within the interview that will be analyzed qualitatively.

- ما هي أحسن ثلاث كلمات تصفك؟ لماذا هذه الكلمات بالضبط؟

❖ *What three words best describe you? Why particularly these words?*

It is recorded that Temouchent feminine youngsters enumerated distinctive words that revealed who they are. The interviewer, in her attempt, to test their ability to express themselves as eighty eight feminine youngsters (78.57%) asserted within the questionnaire in item 2 that they were able to express themselves in any conversation accurately. The utmost designated words were adjectives that were superlative in defining who they are. The adjectives differed from one girl to another, nevertheless, several girls utilized the similar words, for instance: the second interviewee stated that she is *الخجل* *shyness*, *البساطة* *simplicity* and *التردد* *hesitation*, she stated that these words described her. The interviewee 14 mentioned that: *hope* *الأمل*, *التردد* *hesitation* and *التفاؤل* *optimism*, participant number 27 claimed that she is: *شام* *shy*- *عاقلة* *calm* and *قاع الناس* *بيغوني* and so on. Both of the participants two and twenty seven stated: *hesitation*, however they were different regarding the other words. Number 21 said she was: *شجاعة* *optimist* and *متفائلة* *patient*, on the other hand, number 16 held that she is *هادئة* *calm*, *شجولة* *shy*, and *صبورة* *patient*. The participant 67 said that the best words that describe her are: *حنونة* *kind*, *حساسة* *sensible*. Most the adjectives itemized by Temouchent teenagers are: *شجولة* *shy*, *optimistic*, *متفائلة* *good*, *طيبة* *friendly*, *محبة* *friendly*. In responding to the second half of the question ‘Why particularly these words’ all the girls state that these words best describe them.

- ماذا رأيك في ” السحاق“ او ”الزواج بين الاناث“؟

❖ *What do you think of ‘gay marriage’?*

Question two attempted to affirm the teenagers’ responses vis-à-vis religion and personal viewpoints. All the girls asserted that gay marriage is forbidden, offensive and socially unacceptable. For instance interviewee 33 claimed: “شيء غير منطقي في الحياة و غير شرعي في ”الدين نتاعنا” *“Something illogical in life and illegal in our religion”*. Participant 2 said: “*Pour-moi* *فضيحة*” *“For me, it is scandal”*. Participant 27 confirmed that it is: “*حرام*” *“forbidden”*. The Temouchent girls responded to this question with claims only.

- اذا اوذيت كثيرا من قبل شخص ما، هل تسامحين هذا الشخص؟ لماذا؟

❖ *If you get hurt abusively by someone, do you forgive him/her? Why?*

The third question reveals a variety of Temouchent teenagers' answers. they, in fact, differed from one girl to another; some girls said that they forgive, yet; they wait for God's punishment as girl "نخليها بينه وبين ربي هو لي يشوف شا يدبر إلا كان أداني بزاف أنا نسانحه في الدنيا و ربي" "I keep that between God and him, my God knows what should be done, if he hurted me too much, I'll forgive him in this life and my God punishes him in the hereafter". Girl 25 asserted that she would not forgive him "لا إذا جرحني بزاف منسملطش"; "No, if he hurted me too much I will not forgive him". Girls 14 and 16 confirmed that they forgive as their religion calls for forgiveness: "نعم، لأن ديننا يدعو بهذا"، "نعم لأن ديننا دين تسامح". However, Girl 4 referred, in her forgiveness, to her innate nature, she believed: "نعم أسامحه" "yes, I forgive because I am forgiving". Others related the act of forgiveness to the extent of the fault and who made it, like participant 22: "قد أسامحه و قد لا أسامحه على"، "I may forgive and I may not, depending on the degree to which I love him". In justifying the majority of the girls alluded either to religion or their feelings. For instance, those who support forgiveness, they upheld that religion calls for forgiveness; conversely, those who did not believe in forgiveness, they held that they could not forgive someone who caused them harm and pain.

نعم لأن ديننا دين تسامح

Ground Claim

نعم لأن ديننا يدعو بهذا

Ground Claim

نعم أسامحه لأنني مسامحة

Ground Claim

- هل تؤمنين بالحياة بعد الموت؟ علل إجابتك؟

❖ *Do you believe in life after death? Justify your opinion.*

As regard the belief in life after death, participants reported distinctively their agreement and disagreement. Few of them deny the existence of eternal world such as interviewee 7 who maintained: “لا يوجد حياة أخرى” “Thers is not another life”. Other Temouchent girls held that there is another life as we shall either punished or rewarded, they maintained: “نعم، هناك حياة أخرى، حياة العقاب، الجنة و النار.”
 “Yes, there is another life, the life of punishment, paradise or hell”

In this question Temouchent interviewees did not respect Toulmin’s diagram of argument, as they expressed the claims without their grounds, this affected the validity of their arguments. They consequently perceived as ‘*unsound*’.

- في نقاش ما، كيف تكتشفين أن شخصا ما يكذب عليك؟

❖ *In a debate, how do you figure out that someone is lying to you?*

All Temouchent interviewees said that they discovered a lie of somebody through body language such as girl 2: “تصرفاته” *his eyes, his gestures* “عينه” *his hesitation* et, stated by Girl 14.

- كيف تصفين حياتك الحالية؟ ما الذي يعطي معنى لحياتك؟

❖ *How can you describe your present life? What does make sense to your life?*

The last question within the interview traces back Temouchent participants’ private life. Most of the girls asserted that their life is stressful as most of them had final exams with much pressure. For instance, interviewee 17 said that her life is: “مملة، متوترة من الامتحانات” “boring, anxious because of exams”. She asserted that what gives meaning to her life are “الوالدين”, “*parents*”. Girl 2 declared: “حياتي بسيطة، جميلة و أرضى بها” “*My life is simple, beautiful and I accept*”. and for what makes sense to her life, she replied: “الوالدين” “*The parents*”. Participant 08 described her life as being ‘مغامرة، و تحدي’ “*adventure and challenge*”, when asking her about what makes sense to her life she stated: “أمي” “*My mother*”. Most of the participants state that their parents, family, friends give sense to their life.

4.3.5. New York Participants Observation Results

During the participant observation, the researcher spent considerable time within feminine youngsters in order to scrutinize the phenomenon under analysis. She, along the eight participant observations, occupied herself in specific and distinct settings. Being a part of the group explored, the examiner could comprehend the behaviours, meanings and roles that the participants take, put and perform upon given events or distinct communicative situations. In those situations the elementary structure of dialogue, involving utterance characteristics, turn-taking organisms, stops and overlaps, may differ with the genre and parameters of divergent interactions (mode, content, and goal). Such observations are appropriately exposed in the researches of Goffman (1974), who underlines the importance of framing in exchanges besides types of interactional scenario (Goffman, 1974; Goffman, 1981). Over and above, these disputes are systematically significant for interaction analysis.

Operating as a participant observer, the examiner had assisted four conversational exchanges. This means to say, four conversations have progressively been recorded in New York. The conversations took place in different areas in New York Institute of Technology (NYIT Old Westbury Campus). The researcher visited the following settings to tape her conversations through the third research instrument:

- Student Activity Center (SAC)
 - *Food Service Pub, Gym, Lecture- lounge*
- George and Gertrude Wisser Memorial Library (WSLB)
- Educational Hall (EDHL)
 - *Architecture Library*
- Balding House (BGHE)
- New York College of Osteopathic Medicine (NYCOM)
- Sports Complex (SPCX)

The first Conversation includes four members who debated two topics. The conversation lasted for one minute and twenty seconds in New York College of Osteopathic Medicine (NYCOM). They talked about exams' questions, and teachers' evaluation marks.

Conversation 1:

Participant 1: *I didn't expect those questions! That's ridiculous, isn't it?*

Participant 2: *Come on! They were not that difficult*

Participant 3: *She is saying that because she didn't revise well!*

Participant 1: *Oach! Stop it, I did, but the questions were terrible!!*

Participant 3: *I like them!*

Participant 1: *The test was easier! I got an A*

Participant 2: *You got A that's why it was easy hehe!*

Participant 3: *I got B, but Mrs. Selena's questions are the best.*

Participant 1: *Ammm, I don't think so!*

Participant 2: *ok! Can you just forget about it!!*

Within the above conversation, the researcher behaves as passive participant, all the three of girls were sitting debated the aforementioned topics, they utilized vernacular English (NYE), and they were spontaneous. The researcher focused mostly on argumentative utterances.

Conversation two, on the other hand, was between the participant observer and a New York girl who was mentoring and meanwhile attended college. The topics were about college, the girl's objectives as a sort of self-presentation, children's education, etc. The researcher became a complete participant. The conversation persisted for five minutes; it can be described as the longest conversation. It was carried out in George and Gertrude Wisser Memorial Library (WSLB).

Conversation2:

Participant1: *I hope young man of colour get mentoring or even womento expand mentoring programs in New York city and to recruit more mentors for New York city.*

Participant observer: *Emheem! That's very interesting!*

Participant1: Yeah! Very very interesting having that support system, and mentoring in life can impact a person, some people don't have that especially what area you're coming from if your mom and dad is working three jobs so make sure you have food...helping you to prepare for college..

Participant observer: Yeah!

Participant1:and to do other different things, a caring person in your life who can guide...so having a person who can push you kind of guide you influence you in a positive way can impact young person's life, because its different when you get guidance from your parents (ok! Mom, I heard that five hundred times) and to get that from an outsider.

Participant observer: I wish you good luck! That's incredible and that's what is needed in society, ok! You are absolutely doing a great job, ok! And that's great that you listen you listen to the needs of kids and adolescent particularly because sometimes they are not able to say that or they don't know how to say that, but this affects their life sometimes badly and sometimes they escape from those situations where they found themselves, otherwise they turn to drugs or something else.

Participant1: Absolutely, they believe...nobody cares about me? I can do this

The third conversation was conducted in Student Activity Center (SAC) (Food Service Pub) and endured for fifty five seconds. Six New York feminine teenagers were involved in the conversation. They were having their lunch. The participant observer operated as a passive participant.

Conversation3:

Participant1: I hate those pants!! They are disgusting eeeeh!

Participant2: I just like the black colour!

Participant1: I really don't know why they wear them!!

Participant2: because they are bitch!

Participant1: hhhhh!

Participant3: Sorry, wearing such pants doesn't make you a bitch!

Participant1: Come on! Look at her over there, just annoying!

Participant3: hhhh you hate the girl not the pant!

Participant2: *hhhhhh that's right!*

Participant1: *Lady, I don't care about her or any, I cannot handle anybody, bye!*

The ultimate conversation was performed in Sports Complex (SPCX). Four participants have carried out the conversation. The timing devoting to this conversation was three minutes; yet, the examiner could interpret only five as the Sport Complex was noisy, therefore, it was arduous to apprehend the whole conversation's utterances. The girls were talking about clothes and shopping. The participant observer interacted as an active participant.

Conversation4:

Participant1: *Amanda, what a nice T-shirt you are wearing!*

Participant2: *Oh! Thank you! It's from daddy!*

Participant observer: *it's so wonderful! I love it*

Participant1: *yeah! I often buy my clothes from 5th Avenue New York shops*

Participant observer: *mmm! Where is it situated?*

Participant2: *Next Christina's Epicure, right there!*

Participant1: *but it's gonna charge you a lot!*

Participant2: *yeah! Too expensive! I am planning to visit Boston; there are fashionable clothes over there!*

Participant1: *Wow! I wanna go with ya!!*

Considering New York feminine youngsters, the researcher noticed that they followed Grice's maxims of an effective conversation. The fourth axioms were respected. The conversations managed to be relevant, valued, concise and precise, understandable and clear.

<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> Conversations Conversational Events </div>	What is happening?	How is it happening?	Why is it happening?
<p>Conversation 1: Four (04) contributors were involved.</p>	<p>They were debating exams' questions, teachers' evaluation marks.</p>	<p>Spontaneously</p>	<p>Because the girls disagree. Their arguments were divided into: -Exams' questions were difficult. -Exams' questions were easy.</p>
<p>Conversation 2: Two (02) participants were included.</p>	<p>They discussed: -Someone's objectives in life. -Children's education -Education's system.</p>	<p>Spontaneous.</p>	<p>One of the two participants started introducing herself. She talked about her job and her goals which revolved around children's education.</p>
<p>Conversation3: There are three (03) feminine youngsters.</p>	<p>They criticized a girl and her clothes.</p>	<p>Spontaneous.</p>	<p>One of the participants hated the girl who had been criticized.</p>
<p>Conversation4: (03) partakers were concerned.</p>	<p>They argued about clothes and shopping.</p>	<p>Spontaneous.</p>	<p>The second participant bought a nice T-shirt.</p>

Table 4.25. New York Conversations and Conversational Events in Participant Observation

4.3.6. Temouchent Participation Observation

Among the characteristics involving Temouchent participant observation is that the participant observer could not play the role of the ‘invisible observer’. She operated as a moderate participant in the first and the second conversations, however, in the third she acted as a complete participant observer. The fourth conversation introduced her as an active participant observer. Temouchent participant observations were recorded in distinct settings:

- SHOUEIB University Yard (Ain-Temouchent)
- Mohamed DAOUDI High School

In the first Conversation seven girls discussed one topic. The conversation endured for one minute and thirty eight seconds in Mohamed DAOUDI High School. They talked about Indian films:

Conversation 1:

Participant observer: *Shahowa le film li ather ficom bezzaf?*

What movie impact you most?

All participants: *Habibi daiman*

“Habibi Daiman”.

Participant observer: *A3lah ater ficom bessaf!*

Why did it impact you?

Participant 1: *Nebghou nebkou*

We like crying

Participant 2: *kayen bezaf*

There are many

Participant observer: *tbghou tebkou bezaf!?*

You like crying most ?!

Participant 3: *houma yebghou yebkou*

They like crying

Participant 4: *Ana netfarej w nebki*

I watch and cry

Participant 5: *Alla hna netferjou 3la khater lekessa besah ila kanet tebki nebkou, hta netlakou rwahna nebkou*

No, we watch for the story but if it is tragic we cry, we find ourselves crying

Participant observer: *Ana 3jebetni ta3 howa men blad w hiya men blad*

I like that when she is from a country and he is from another country

Participant 4: *fih sharoukhan?*

It includes Sharoukhan ?

Participant observer: *Aayya*

Yeah

Participant2: *ki yeg3od vignet- deux ans fel hats*

When he stays twenty years in prison

Participant 4: *Besah hdik nihaya saida fe tali daha*

But it was a happy ending, at the end he married her

Participant observer: *Besah hta shebnou*

But until they became old

Participant1: *Mohim daha*

Anyway, he married her

The researcher, in the abovementioned conversation, acted as a moderate participant, all the girls were talking in the same time, the participants six and seven neither argue nor comment on the disputable topic. The girls involved within the conversational exchange employed vernacular Arabic (TAD) spontaneously.

The second conversation, in opposition, was between the participant observer and two feminine youngsters. The discussed topics were: women's jobs,. The researcher behaved as a moderate participant. The conversation persisted for three minutes. It was recorded in SHOEIB University in Ain-Temouchent.

Conversation 2:

Participant observer: Ahlem ki ghadi tetkharji shabaghiya diri es-que ghadi tekhademi wela tego3di fedar?

Participant 1: Ana netmana neg3od fe dar za3ma sheti lemra ki tetzawej kima haka netmana neg3od kbel zawej netmana bach nekhdem shawa situation ta3lekhadema w kolchi, shawala ki netzawej baghiya neg3od fedar za3ma nerabi weldi za3ma baghiya neg3od situation ta3 dar haka.

Participant observer: mmm

Participant 1: Shawala ki yekber weldi kima haka

Participant observer: t3awedi tewali tekhademi

Participant1: Temma newali nekhdem

Participant observer: Tesamala lekhedma rahom hatinhalek ki tedkhol Ahlem tekhem, hhh

Participant: hhhh, la rani 3arfa haja wa3ra besah rabi kolch sha rabi meketablna

Participant observer: W Amina ntiya tani kima hak?

Participant2: Ana ana negra w netmana besh nekhdem weli fel mektab rabi yejibeh. 3ad dorka rani nekra besh nekhdem w had swalah ga3

Participant observer: mmm

Participant2: manish negra ghi haka au moins tekoun 3andi natija za3ma lekraya w ga3 besah li fel maktoub rabi yejibeh

Participant observer: Saha loukan par exemple tedi wahad yegoulak matekhedmish, taqabli?

Participant2: eeh! Ila kan za3ma binatangna kash haja kont nebghih, ila kanet za3ma benatna...

Participant observer: wah! 3alaka!

Participant2: in...i3ij...

Participant observer: insijam

Participant2: haaya, insijam w ga3, aya ma3andich problem. Law na3arfah beli ye3tini ga3 swalhi za3ma yeaamenli 3la swalhi ma3andich problem

Participant observer: W Ahlem

Participant1: Ana 3andi normal ki yegoli matekhademich mankhedemch

Participant observer: Madabik, hhhh

Participant1: hhh, mechi nebghi tekoun 3andi 3alaka m3a weladi haka. Tekoun 3andna fel osra khir matekounch 3andna bera w kolchi, raki fahma. Shawala bash ma nekhdemch

khas rajal ykoun kamel za3ma mech kamel kamel el kamel li Allah shawala kima ygoulou takel 3la rouhah

Participant observer: *mmm*

Participant1: *yekad yesraf 3la weladah, yesraf 3liya*

Participant2: *besah za3ma haka mechi ghi lemra li matekhdemch tkoun 3andha 3alaka m3a weladha*

Participant observer: *kadera tkoun tekhdem w 3andha 3alaka*

Participant2: *li tekoun ta3ref tenadem watha w m3a weladha makanch problem*

The third conversation was performed in Ain-Temouchent University, it lasted for four minutes. Three Temouchent feminine teenagers participated in the conversation. The selected topic was putting make up. The participant observer operated as an active and moderate participant, she initiated by expressing her point of view about make up to motivate the two participants.

Conversation 3:

Participant observer: *Ana ana ba3da en persone manebghich makiyage ana contre, besah ntiya 3lah tebghi makiyage Fatima?*

I, I personally dislike make-up, I am against, but why do like make-up Fatima?

Participant 1: *Ana! Hakak*

Me! *Just like that*

Participant 2: *Mechi question mechi watka men nafssi*

It is not because I am not a self-confident

Participant observer: *Hiya hiya mechi 3la tiqua benafs, hiya shoufi...*

It is, it is not a question of confidence, it is ...look...

Participant 2: *Wah! Hiya ygoulak wahda machi watka menafsha dir makiyage bah teban*

Yeah, it is said someone who is not a self-confident put make-up to look pretty

Participant 1: *Lla mechi kadiya ta3 hadi*

No, it is not the case

Participant 2: *kayen li kima hak yekhamou, besah ana ma nekhamamch kima hak*

There are who think in this way, but I don't think like this

Participant 1: *Ana tani mankhamamch kima hak.*

Me too, I don't think like this

Participant 2: Ana ye3jebni makiyage.

I like make-up

Participant Observer: mmm

Participant 2: 3ada madertahsh fi sin mobakir, derteh fe 2ème année fel jami3a.

Though, I did not put it on in young age, I put it in 2nd year in University

Participant observer: Ana ta3rfi 3lah manebghish makiyage ana manebghish makiyage parceque nebghi la beauté naturelle nebghi jamel ykoun jamel tabi3i. Khatch makiyage yebdel, yebedel bezaf l insan. Besah kol wahad w 3andah rai.

Do you know why I don't like make-up because I love a natural beauty. Because make-up change, change people a lot. But everyone has his/her opinion

Participant 2: besah kayen makiyage ghamek w kayen li za3ma Claire

But there is a dark make-up and there is actually a soft one

Participant 1: kayen li Claire, kayen li Claire

There is a soft one, there is a is soft one

Participant 2: Ana manbeghich ghamek ana nebghih Claire , diri khel

I don't like dark, I like it soft, you put eyeliner

Participant observer: Ntya Fatima?

You Fatima?

Participant 1: Ana, ana man...ana nebghih haka, shhal kan 3andi? kan 3andi fibali khmasta3esh ki bedit ndir maquiyage

I, I don...I like it just like that, how old was I?I was perhaps fifteen years old when I started putting make-up

Participant observer: besah shahiya lehaja li khaletok tebhghih za3makina?

But what makes you like it, for instance

Participant 1: Mechi ana te3jebni fe tili, te3jebni lehiwaya ta3eh ki tego3di terasmi

In fact, I like in Television, I like it as a hobby, when you are drawing

Participant 2: Ana ma3andich problem, nekder nekhrej bla makiyage

I don't have a problem, I can go out without make-up

Participant 1: ana tani

Me too

Participant observer: *Wah! Khatch kayen li matekhrej bla makiyage!*

Yeah, because there is who does not go out without make-up

The fourth conversation was completed in Ahmed DAOUDI High School. Three participants were involved in the conversation. The timing devoting to this conversation was two minutes. The girls were disputed about some strange kinds of remedy. The participant observer interacted as an active participant.

Conversation 4:

Participant observer: *Ghaloulak tebakhri bel zbal ta3...*

They told you to cure with the dung of....

Participant 1: *Wah besah khali jabahlna m sahra jebalna ga3 shwiya, shwiya zbal*

Yeah! But my uncle brought us from Sahara he brought us some, some dung

Participant observer: *hhhhh*

Participant 2: *Wah! Yebakhrou!*

Yeah ! They use it as a remedy

Participant observer: *Baghiya nesksik wahd met3alem w kari yebakher bel zabel ta3 na3aj*

I want to ask you, someone who is a literate and learner he use the dung of Ewes

Participant 1: *Besah arwahi negoulak haja hadi mejarba, jarbouha w braw baghiya nejarabha.*

But, come to tell you this is something tested, they tested it and recovered I want to try it

Participant 2: *Wah!*

Yeah

Participant observer: *Nti shkoun galak nishan?!*

Who told you that it is valid?!

Participant 1: *Jarbouha wahdin w braw*

Some people tried it and they recovered

Participant 2: *Wah! Kisamouha?*

Yeah ! what's its name ?

Participant 2: *Wah wallah mjarba!*

Yeah ! Wallah it is tested

Participant observer: Nti shtihom be3aynik?!

Did you see them with your eyes ?!

Participant 1: Galouhali

They told me

Participant observer: Galouhalek!?

Told you ?

Participant 2: Aya besah hadi li chefet be3ayniha dat w bghat dir

Yeah but that who saw with her eyes, took and wanted to apply

Participant observer: Hadi li gatelek! Ana ba3da shakhsiyan mendirsh

That who told you! I personally, I won't apply

Participant 1: Besah ana maghadish naklah ghadi ghi nestanshkah

But I won't eat it, I will just smell it

Participant observer: hhhhhh

<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-between;"> Conversations Conversational Events </div>	What is happening?	How is it happening?	Why is it happening?
<p>Conversation 1: seven (07) contributors performed the conversation.</p>	<p>They were talking about Indian films.</p>	<p>spontaneously</p>	<p>Because they are fun of the actors and the stories of Indian cinema.</p>
<p>Conversation 2: Three (03) participants were included.</p>	<p>They debated women and their ability as well as will to work.</p>	<p>Spontaneous.</p>	<p>They participant observer interrogated one of the participant about her future life after graduation.</p>
<p>Conversation3: There are three (03) girls.</p>	<p>They expressed their opinions about putting make-up.</p>	<p>Spontaneous.</p>	<p>One of the participants criticized who those put make-up.</p>
<p>Conversation4: Three (03) partakers were involved.</p>	<p>They argued about strange kind of remedy.</p>	<p>Spontaneous.</p>	<p>The participant observer rejected this type of medicine.</p>

Table 4.26. Temouchent Conversations and Conversational Events in Participant Observation

Unlike New York feminine youngsters, Temouchent girls did not respect the Grice's Maxims of an effective conversation. The fourth maxims will be testified in the Temouchent feminine youngsters' conversations:

- **Relevance:** Temouchent girls mentioned so many irrelevant utterances such as:

"Shawala ki yekber weldi kima haka"

The expression "*kima haka*" is irrelevant in this context.

- **Quantity:** In conversation 2, the quality maxim is affected as the participant1 could not reveal the necessary information for understanding the communication. For instance: *"Ana netmana neg3od fe dar za3ma sheti lemra ki tetzawej kima haka netmana neg3od kbel zawej netmana bach nekhdem shawa situation ta3lekhadema w kolchi, shawala ki netzawej baghiya neg3od fedar za3ma nerabi weldi za3ma baghiya neg3od situation ta3 dar haka."*
- **Quality:** The quality of what is said is very essential in the success of communication, however, girls struggled a lot to attain a valuable and adequate speech. For example in conversation 2, the expression: *"za3ma baghiya neg3od situation ta3 dar haka"*, does not make sense at all. This can be referred to as '*neologism*'.
- **Manner:** In conversation 3, for instance, the participant 1 was asked by the participant observer to validate her choice: *"...besah ntiya 3lah tebghi makiyage fatima?"*

Participant 1: Ana! Hakak.

As noticed, the answer provided by P1 was unclear and irrelevant.

4.4. FINDINGS ANALYSIS, COMPARISON AND DISCUSSION

From the aforementioned results, conclusions can be driven to respond and resolve the research central query and its subordinate probes. In the contemporary investigation the researcher attempted to uncover the mysterious obstacles that block feminine youngsters from expressing themselves adequately, furthermore, inquire about the bases on which feminine youngsters in New York and Ain-Temouchent construct their standpoints, and the way through which an argumentation process can be established to effectively attain validity and rationality. Over and above, this study endeavoured to examine how feminine youngsters can argue mindfully and make relevant communication. As analysing and comparing two discrete speech communities, the researcher basically inquired about

whether the feminine youngsters in both conversational argumentative exchanges reveal valid arguments and attain a successful exchange.

The obtained results from the first research instrument displayed that the one hundred and nineteen (119) New York feminine youngsters answered the questions and returned back the questionnaires; however, though one hundred and nineteen questionnaires were administered to Temouchent feminine youngsters, only one hundred and twelve (112) responded and gave back the surveys. Thus, this may influence the whole number of sampling:

New York Feminine Youngsters'	Temouchent Feminine Youngsters'
119	112

Table 4. 27. Data Analysis Sampling Numbers

As far as the ability and disability of expressing oneself among both New York and Temouchent young ladies, the majority of them stated that they had no problems in communicating their thoughts and feelings. Only few of them confessed that they are unable to interact, and for Temouchent girls one held that she sometimes felt incapable, yet occasionally, she managed to do so.

Regarding the third question, some New York and Temouchent subjects revealed that they encountered difficulties while arguing. This category represented the minority; however the majority stated that they had no problems. Very few of them added sometimes. It is crucial to mention that though piloting the questionnaires, the targeted participants added the column '*sometimes*' since the examiner has designed two columns within that question. This caused a change in the form as well as content of the questionnaire.

In the design of the questionnaire, question four was fully connected with the third question. Surprisingly, many girls, in both communities, declared in question three that they face no problems when they argue, nevertheless, they paradoxically ticked in question

four some of the proposed difficulties. The results achieved from this question exhibited that both teenagers in New York and Temouchent cities suffered from specific problems in a conversational exchange, nevertheless, they varied in terms of classification. The following table represents the arguing difficulties among both New York and Temouchent girls:

	New York Girls' Difficulties	Temouchent Girls' Difficulties
Difficulties in arguing	1-Thought disorder	1-Thought disorder
	2-Derailment	2-Tangentiality
	3-Incoordination	3-Neologism
	4-Poverty of speech	4-Poverty of speech
	5-Illogicality& Tangentiality	6-5-Incoordiantion
		6-Derailment
	7-Neologism	7-Illogicality

Table 4.28. New York and Temouchent Girls Arguing Difficulties

New York feminine youngsters based primarily on their experience and feelings, logic and critical thinking, traditions and culture, then religion and belief; on the other hand, Temouchent young ladies referred first to religion and beliefs, personal experience and feelings, logic and critical thinking, then traditions and culture.

Question seven revealed that New York girls partook the roles of listening and analysing, they may also evaluate and judge. Arguing as a role was given the lowest percentage which denotes that it is a challenging task for them as they encountered many difficulties that stood as an obstacle toward expressing themselves. Conversely, the majority of Temouchent girls tended to interact as a listener and analyst, another category stated that they argued, others held that they preferred evaluating and judging. The results accomplished from this question was unexpected by the researcher as New York teenagers were assumed to be open to arguing.

The interview and participant observation showed new facts that questionnaire could not reach. The interview results demonstrated that Temouchent feminine youngsters are facing a great challenge unconsciously. Knowing that Temouchent Arabic dialect is a mixed dialect full of *Standard Arabic*, *Berber*, *French*, *Spanish* all these languages affected defectively the structure of Temouchent utterances. The adjustable system of the Temouchent utterance influences both thoughts and the lexical realm. Consequently, the shift from one language to another without the mastery of either languages caused thought disorder. Ironically, the TAD seems to be loaded with vocabulary, yet, it is concluded from the interview and participant observation that this is the chief reason for their language handicapped, as they did not master all the above-mentioned languages. Moreover, the participant observation recordings revealed that Temouchent young ladies did not respect the Toulmin's model of arguments.

4.5. CONCLUSION

This closing chapter aims at analysing the collected data and exposing the obtained results. It endeavours to provide the research problematics and sub-questions with the appropriate answers. It goes further to testify the suggested hypotheses. Tersely, it is fruitfully accomplished that arguing complexity is encountered by both New York and Temouchent feminine youngsters; however, it is distinguishing as it varies in percentage and frequency between the two selected samplings. Feminine youngsters could progressively improve their arguing performance through critical thinking, implementing logic, evidence and factual knowledge to attain validity and rationality.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The feminine world is occupied with confusing states that are challenged to be rendered more comprehensible. Accordingly, in a feminine context, argumentation being a social process, is meant to obtain adherence from listeners to gain either support or approval and to reflect oneself existence. On account of the current study theoretical upshots, arguments basically are the outcomes of the debatable process; they are a communicative activity that should be based mainly on philosophical effort i.e, '*logic*'. The necessity to argue is genuinely tied to the nature of human beings who generally argue to rationalize their thinking; typically prove their actions or beliefs and solve their troubles by claims and reasons.

The principal interest of the present investigation was to uncover the difficulties that feminine youngsters encounter within arguments, testify their persuasion ability regarding Aristotle pyramid of persuasion and esteem the validity of their arguments in respect of Toulmin's (1969) model of argument. To achieve that, the pollster selected two distinct communities of speech to analyse and compare the different or similar types of obstacles. The preliminary chapter was devoted to the interdisciplinary areas of the sub-fields of sociolinguistics and cognitive psychology, it offered by identification the arguemntation speculation and arguments' structure. The foremost purpose of chapter one was to afford an overview of the literature, cultivate one's ability to construct, evaluate arguments, which yield debates and negotiation and how valid conclusions can be achieved. In the second chapter, the examiner did not intend to analyse the language itself, rather a theory within it. The search of argumentation requires largely the examination of language. The aim behind chapter two was mainly to check out the sociolinguistic situation of Algerian Arabic (AA) precisely Ain-Témouchent Arabic Dialect (TAD) and American English (AmE) specifically New-York English (NYE), as arguments are expressed via language.

Chapter three was the pillar of the present enquiry. It provided the research methodology used for data collection. The chief objective of this phase was to discuss the research problematics through the analysis of the sampling through definite research instruments which included: Questionnaires, interview and participant observation. Two types from each instrument was designed to testify feminine youngsters' arguments in Ain-Temouchent and New York cities. They aimed at underscoring feminine teenagers' difficulties to uncover their disability of arguing.

Data obtained from the research instrumentation were scrutinized quantitatively and qualitatively. Their analysis revealed divergent findings which were explicitly detailed in the concluding chapter. The attained results from the first research instrument exhibited that:

- *Both feminine youngsters suffered from thought disorder. They share the same percentages considering thought disorder and poverty of speech, however, they stated the other struggles, however, distinctively.*
- *Through the interview results it was concluded that the process of argumentation can be established through logic, reason and critical thinking to successfully attain validity and rationality, otherwise, it will be invalid and fallacious.*
- *A young lady in both communities respected the Aristotle model of persuasion and used at least one appeal. This serves as a crucial factor for an effective communication.*
- *Findings showed that New York feminine youngsters based principally on their experience and feelings, logic*

and critical thinking, traditions and culture, then religion and belief; on the other hand, Temouchent young ladies referred first to religion and beliefs, personal experience and feelings, logic and critical thinking, then traditions and culture.

- *The interview results obviously revealed that some Ain-Temouchent and New York girls failed in constructing valid arguments as they did not respect Toulmin's (1969) model of argument, yet, others they went along his diagram of argument including structured and premises that lead to sound conclusions.*

Eventually, this study is reaching its final conclusion with the perspective that arguing is an art that is based on universal norms and necessitates given techniques. At this point, it is worthy to claim that any argument should, in essence, entail audience consideration. This might not happen unless *logic, credibility and reasonable thinking* are implemented within arguments. A professional arguer should yield analytical and logical arguments. He should be flexible in the choice of the appropriate appeal that addresses her listener. She may adjust from logical arguments (*logos mode*) to emotive arguments (*pathos appeal*) or credible arguments (*ethos mode*).

Toward this end, it is hopefully wished that some future investigations prolong this study. Limiting the scope of discovery, several issues were neither tackled nor involved. Thus, forthcoming investigational inquiries may provide, for instance, *detailed suggestions and propositions of how to argue*, they may scrutinise *fallacious arguments and valid arguments*. The researcher held one method of argument (Toulmin, 1969) and relied on Frans Van Eemeren, Grootendorst (2001) theory of argumentation, however, there are other scholars who might disagree with those conceptions and theories.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 'A'

New York Feminine Youngsters 'Questionnaire

Feminine Youngsters' Bio-Data Questionnaire

I kindly request you to voluntarily contribute in the fulfillment of this investigation by replying to the following questions through which you provide your personal viewpoints. Our main concern is to scrutinize your personal arguments. Please, give your answers sincerely and authentically as only this will guarantee the success of our analysis and interpretation.

1. age

gender : Feminine
Masculine

2. Can you express yourself in any conversation accurately?

Yes

No

3. Do you encounter any difficulties while expressing your viewpoints?

Yes

No

4. Among these difficulties tick the ones that you face while arguing?

1- Poverty of speech

2- Thought disorder/blocking

3- Incoordination

4- Illogicality

5- Tangentiality

6- Derailment

7- neologism

5. In your daily conversational exchange, you shape your arguments on the basis of:

- a. Logic and critical thinking
- b. Religion and beliefs
- c. Traditions and culture
- d. Personal experience and feelings
- e. Others

6. When you get involved in a debate, how do you often persuade someone of your viewpoint?

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7. On which basis do you evaluate your partners' argument in a conversation?

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8. In a conversational exchange, which kind of roles do you partake?

- a. Arguing
- b. Evaluating and judging

c. Listening and analyzing

d. Others

If others, what are they?

.....

.....

9. It is said that language is an unconscious method of communicating thoughts and emotions

Agree

Disagree

Say why.....

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.....

10. As a young lady, how do your arguments influence your life?

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Contact Information:

Miss. Amel BENCHAREF
AHMED SALHI UNIVERSITY CENTRE– Naama– Algeria
Faculty of Letters and languages
Department of Foreign Languages
E-mail : amel_46dz@yahoo.fr
Mobile: 00 213779371840

Thank you for your Collaboration

Appendix 'B'

Ain-Temouchent Feminine Youngsters' Questionnaire

استبيان حول سبر آراء الفتيات

نرجوا منكن المشاركة في هذه الورقة العلمية المتمثلة في استبيان و الذي يعتبر كوسيلة أولية في بحثنا لدراسة سبر آراء الفتيات في ولاية عين تموشنت. لذا نطلب منكن أن تجاوبين بشفافية وذلك لنتمكن من تحليل و ترجمة الأجوبة بشكل سليم.

الجنس: أنثى
ذكر

1- السن

2- هل تستطيعين أن تعبري عن نفسك بشكل جيد في أي حوار كلامي؟

لا

نعم

3- هل تواجهين أي صعوبات عندما تعبرين عن آرائك؟

لا

نعم

4- من بين هذه الصعوبات، أيها تعانين منها؟

1- فقر في المصطلحات

2- التشتت أو الاحتباس الفكري

3- عجز فكري [انعدام أو قلة الأفكار]

4- عدم القدرة على ربط الافكار

5- الخروج عن موضوع الحوار بسبب التوتر

6- اعطاء آراء غير منطقية

7- استعمال مصطلحات لا يفهمها غيرك

5- في حواراتك التبادلية، هل تبين أرائك على

أ. المنطق و التفكير النقدي

ب. الدين و الايمان

ت. التقاليد و الثقافة

ث. الخبرات و الأحاسيس

ج. أخرى

إذا هناك قواعد أخرى، ماهي؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

6- عندما تشاركين في نقاش ما، كيف تقنعين عادة الطرف الآخر برأيك؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

7- على أي أساس تقيمين رأي الطرف الآخر في حواركما؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

8- في الحوار التبادلي، أي الأدوار تتخذين؟

أ. تقديم الآراء

ب. التقييم و الحكم

ت. الاستماع و التحليل

ث. أخرى

إذا هناك أدوار أخرى، فما هي؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

9- يقال أن اللغة هي طريقة لا واعية لتواصل الأفكار و العواطف؟

لا أوافق

أوافق

علي إجابتك

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

10- كفتاة، كيف تؤثر آراءك على حياتك؟

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

معلومات للاتصال بالباحثة:

الأستاذة. أمال بن شارف
المركز الجامعي بالنعامة – أحمد صالح-
قسم اللغات الأجنبية
لغة انجليزية
البريد الالكتروني: amel_46dz@yahoo.fr

شكرا لتعاونك

Appendix 'C'

New York Feminine Youngsters' Interview

Feminine Youngsters' Interview

This is an in-depth interview which we are conducting as a second research instrument in order to validate the feminine youngsters' responses that are provided within the questionnaire.

- a.* What three words best describe you? Why particularly these words?

- b.* What do you think of 'gay marriage'?

- c.* If you get hurt abusively by someone, do you forgive him/her? Why?

- d.* Do you believe in life after death? Justify your opinion.

- e.* In a debate, how do you figure out that someone is lying to you?

- f.* How can you describe your present life? What does make sense to your life?

THANK YOU

Appendix 'D'

Ain-Temouchent Feminine Youngsters' Interview

استجواب الفتيات

هذا الاستجواب يعد وسيلة بحث ثانية في هذه الدراسة التطبيقية لتحليل آراء الفتيات و لذلك لتأكيد اجابتهن في وسيلة البحث الأولى و المتمثلة في الاستبيان.

- ما هي أحسن ثلاث كلمات تصفك؟ لماذا هذه الكلمات بالضبط؟

- ماذا رأيك في " السحاق" او "الزواج بين الاناث"؟

- اذا أوديت كثيرا من قبل شخص ما، هل تسامحين هذا الشخص؟ لماذا؟

- هل تؤمنين بالحياة بعد الموت؟ علل إجابتك؟

- في نقاش ما، كيف تكتشفين أن شخصا ما يكذب عليك؟

- كيف تصفين حياتك الحالية؟ ما الذي يعطي معنى لحياتك؟

شكرا

Appendix 'E'
New York Participant Observation

Participant Observation

Time:

Profile:

The selected topics :

Brief Description of the conversational exchange:

Appendix 'F'

Ain-Temouchent Participant Observation

ملاحظة المشـارك

الوقت:

العينة:

المواضيع المختارة:

وصف مختصر للمحادثة:

الملخص : تجسد الدراسة الحالية محاولة نقدية لفحص و استكشاف ظاهرة الجدل بين الشباب المؤنث لعين تموشنت و نيويورك في التبادل الحوارى فى سياقات متباينة لدراسة عملية الجدل و قياس صحة الحجج، و إضافة على ذلك معرفة العقبات و التحديات التى تواجهها الفتيات فى التبادل الجدلى. يتم هذا البحث من خلال المناهج التحليلية و المقارنة مع تسليط الضوء على بعض المجالات المتعددة التخصصات لبعض الحقول الفرعية من علم اللغة الاجتماعى و علم النفس المعرفى.

كلمات مفتاحية: الشباب المؤنث لعين تموشنت و نيويورك، التبادل الجدلى، التبادل الحوارى، الجدلية، علم اللغة الاجتماعى، علم النفس المعرفى.

Résumé : L'étude actuelle incarne un effort critique d'examiner et d'explorer le phénomène de l'argumentation dans les échanges de conversation des jeunes féminins d'Ain-Temouchent et New York dans des contextes divergents à témoigner le processus d'argumentation et de mesurer la validité des arguments, en outre, comprendre les obstacles et les défis que les jeunes féminins se confrontent lors d'un échange argumentatif. Ce travail de recherche est réalisé grâce à des approches analytiques et comparatives, perdant beaucoup de lumière sur des domaines interdisciplinaires de certains sous-domaines de la sociolinguistique de recherche impliquant et de la psychologie cognitive.

Mots clés : Ain-Temouchent et New York jeunes féminines, argumentation, échange argumentatif, échange de conversation, sociolinguistique, psychologie cognitive.

Summary: The current study epitomizes a critical endeavour to scrutinize and explore the phenomenon of argumentation within Ain-Temouchent and New York feminine youngsters' conversational exchange in divergent contexts to testify the argumentation process and measure the validity of arguments, moreover, figure out the obstacles and challenges that feminine youngsters confront during an argumentative exchange. This research work is carried out through analytic and comparative approaches, shedding much light on interdisciplinary areas of some sub-fields of research involving sociolinguistics and cognitive psychology.

Key words: Ain-Temouchent and New York feminine youngsters, argumentation, argumentative exchange, conversational exchange, sociolinguistics, cognitive psychology.

European Journal of English Language, Linguistics and Literature

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Progressive Academic Publishing, UK

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European Journal of English
Language, Linguistics and
Literature

EJELL

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Progressive Academic Publishing, UK
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European Journal of Language, Linguistics and Literature(EJELL) is a bi-annual peer-reviewed research journal published by Progressive Academic Publishing, UK. The journal is indexed with Google Scholar, ROAD Directory of Open Access Resources, UK and Impact Factor International, UK. For this journal we welcome manuscripts in the following areas:

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Publisher's Address: Progressive Academic Publishing, Somerset House, Birmingham Business Park, Birmingham, UK, Post Code: B37 7BF. URL: www.idpublications.org. Email: editor@idpublications.org

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A PROSODIC ANALYSIS OF [WH-QUESTIONS] AND COMMANDS: CASE OF TEMOUCHENT PARENTAL CONVERSATIONAL EXCHANGE

Amine BELMEKKI
Abu Baker BELKAID University
ALGERIA

Amel BENCHAREF
Ahmed SALHI University
ALGERIA

ABSTRACT

The study of speech sounds exists as long as man is interested in language. The foremost question that phonologists attempted attentively to answer is how sounds are collected to successfully transmit the intentional meaning. The current study is an original work that focuses on the auto-segmental level of Temouchent dialect as a variety of Algerian Arabic. The interest of the current study is to emphasize the prosodic view, which tends to be complex. The researchers predominantly examine one of the most prominent prosodic features, notably 'intonation'. They tried mainly to highlight the nature of Temouchent [Wh-question] and commands' intonation within parental conversational exchange, and identify the common types of intonation used to testify its effectiveness of intonation. The results revealed through the spectrographic analysis that there is H+L% rising-falling intonation within temouchent [Wh-question]; however a rising one H+H in commands.

Keywords: Intonation, parental conversational exchange, prosodic view, spectrographic analysis. Temouchent Arabic dialect.

INTRODUCTION

The broad interest of this paper is primarily to identify the Temouchent Arabic dialect prosody, and describe some of its aspects as well. Furthermore, this paper enumerates the various approaches, methods and research procedures that are applied while checking up on the Temouchent Arabic dialect prosody. As dealing with prosodic analysis, the poly-systematic principle (Firth: 1948) quoted in (Bichr, 2000: 499) is incorporated along with this study. Prosody, actually, is perceived as a super tier of any spoken language which transcends the segments and goes far beyond their confines.

Temouchent Prosodic Features: Role and Impact

Any language can possess syllables that are identified in terms of consonants and vowels (Rogers, 2000: 88). Temouchent Arabic dialect, like MSA, encompasses a number of syllables. There are various and distinctive categories of syllables in Temouchent Arabic dialect, counting the two different segments that construct a syllable. Some of them are frequent while the others are seldom used.

Some Temouchent Arabic dialect Syllable Types:

- CV [ddi] 'take (imper), /læ/ 'no' (a simple answer) or:
- CL /la:/ 'no' (surprise or strong warning)
- VCV /aya/ 'carry on', /ana/ 'me', /umma/ 'people', /ila/ 'if'
- CVC /rab/ 'God', /hab/, /lem/ 'gather' or :
- CLC /na:s/ 'people', /ti:r/ 'fly or go away', /lu :m/ 'blame'

Temouchent Arabic dialect is said to be a stressed accent, it is similar to stress languages such as : *English, German, Spanish*, etc. Within RP, for instance, a word class adjusts merely by

shifting the stress position: 'record (n) re'cord (v). In Temouchent Arabic dialect one may pick out these examples:

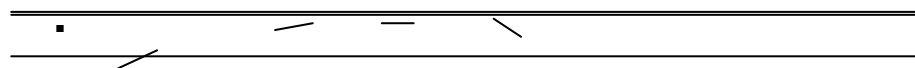
/ʔa (ə)ʃahom 'their dinner'
ʔa/ʃahom 'he/she invited them to dinner'
ba/rka 'stop'
ba (ə)/rka 'a lake'
/laʃeg (q) 'adhesive'
la/seg (q) (v) 'stick on' (imper)

Temouchent Arabic dialect is likely presumed to share with Arabic its prosody. For instance: 'raha tebki' 'she is crying' can be used with a falling-rising tone when her crying is common both for the speaker and listener 'raha tebki ?' and it can be described as:

A specific statement // raha teBKI // A falling- rising tone
Or a [Yes/no question] // RAha teBKI ?// A rising tone
As a reply to [Wh-question] // ~~RAha TEbki~~ // A falling tone

In Arabic tones as well as pitch are represented by three equal horizontal lines over each other. The rising, neutral, and falling tones are marked by a dash (-), Crystal (1995: 248); on the other hand, used only two parallel lines to show the direction of pitch and the movement of tones. In Arabic, the (.) indicates the toneless or the neutral syllable. The following utterance is selected from Temouchent Arabic dialect to represent types of intonation:

- //maMA XAlini NExrez/ hambu:k// 'mom let me go out, please'



/ma ma khalini nekhrej hambouk/

This utterance is a request in which various tones are used. Those different tones function distinctively. While listening to the Temouchenty community, one may notice that Temouchent Arabic dialect intonation varies vigorously within an utterance. As a lucid example, vegetable and fish sellers who often use a rising tone in order to attract the attention of the purchasers.

Research Questions

The current case study attempts to answer two major research questions:

- 1- *How can prosodic features influence the meaning of an utterance?*
- 2- *To which extent rising and falling intonation of Temouchent Arabic dialect may adjust the meaning of an utterance?*

Several questions are adhered to the second question among which:

- 1- *Whether the intonation of commands is as equal as that of Wh-questions in Temouchent utterances?*
- 2- *What differences and similarities could exist between them?*

Research Approaches and Methods

This research work is regarded as a phonological study of speech, namely Temouchent Arabic as a case survey cross a case analysis. So as to find out the basic characteristics of Temouchent mainly at the auto-segmental level, there must be a number of approaches as

well as methods to abide by. There are two main approaches on which this study is based. These approaches are embodied in the quantitative and the qualitative attitudes. The quantitative approach is grounded on a statistical analysis; it deals with the process of interpreting numerical data. Qualitative approach; alternatively, seeks out the 'why' not the 'how'. The qualitative approach is exploited, namely in this survey, so as to obtain an insight into the similar or different types of tones within two types of utterances.

This may indicate that it is customary to begin any research work with the qualitative phase then join it to quantitative one. This paper is also based on operating the theory of prosody into practice, i.e., to detect whether the Temouchent Arabic dialect intonation goes along with the universal prosodic principles or it displays other features. For instance, using falling tones within [wh- questions], or splitting the syllable structure accurately by means of respecting the three basic universal principles for ascertaining the syllable structure. The practical framework; on the other hand, has to do with theory testing in a given situation (prosody of T. Ar) depending on the conservative (Gumperz, 1982), descriptive conceptual analytic, and finally the comparative methods. It is worth laying an emphasis on the fact that the second chapter, within this investigation, comprises a practical surface that requires specialized experimental materials.

Research Tools

Various adjustable instruments have been used within the present study for analyzing, comparing and measuring the degree of evidence of dynamic phenomena within Temouchent Arabic. At the start, the use of phonetic transcription or analysis (Chao, 1934), (Harris, 1951), (Chomsky, 1957/1964) for portraying the pronunciation of some Temouchent sounds or such processes as assimilation are employing either as slant or square brackets. This study is characterized by the insertion of prosodic transcription by making use of different shapes of lines, tree diagrams for dissecting syllable structures, tone units and so on. The third research instrument is the recording, as an audio tool, to record the parental conversations and observe the way fathers speak when they are interacting with their children. The last tool is called 'spectrogram'. It is an automatic optimizer which detects the original F0, it is also used to uncover the nature of Temouchent Arabic intonation through the acoustic realization of tones and pitch within two categories of utterances through the conversation of a selected corpus.

Data Collection and Procedures

In this study, the researchers fundamentally examine one of the most prominent prosodic features which is 'intonation' across the spoken variety of Temouchent; for the purpose of identifying the common types of intonation used in the parental conversational exchange, testifying chiefly the nature of tones within two intonation types. In effect, the chosen corpus consists of a number of recorded utterances among which eight pairs are selected. Eight utterances will be analyzed, each couple of utterances is identical; however, some are marked with a question mark so as to point out the interrogative intonation; while, four of them represent commands. The researchers look in depth at the utterances making use of a prosodic phonological analysis since they pick out the utterances from contextual conversations. The Temouchent conversations are recorded to build the corpus of this investigation. The conversations are said to be spontaneous amongst homogeneous speaker groups. The experiment is applied on four native Temouchent families. The focus is mainly on the fathers' speech toward their sons (between 10 and 15 years old).

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The analysis is grounded on conceptual spectrographic analyses and acoustic methods. It attempts to supply a response to the central problematics. After the examination of data, it can be concluded that: The four recorded conversations are regarded as the basis on which the answer of the problematics is built. In an attempt to be as objective as possible, the Temouchent conversations have been analyzed as they have been actually performed. They have been also examined independently. In fact, the conversations' performers are: the four fathers who belong to an erudite class. The son; on the other hand, attend schools either intermediate or high schools. The four conversations' subject matter; in the main turns around education, learning, football. The four conversations took place at home. They were composed of various utterances, only two kinds of them were analyzed in order to detect their types of intonation and then compare them. In Temouchent Arabic there are four common sorts of questions: [*Wh-questions*], [*yes/no questions*], [*question tags*], [*negative/declarative statements using a specific intonation*]. Among these questions, the [*Wh-questions*] were chosen to be studied. In Temouchent Arabic [*Wh-questions*] are generally either monosyllabic or bisyllabic words. They usually begin with an interrogative pronoun such as:

'shawala' /ʃæwalə/, 'shawa' /ʃæwə/ or 'sha' /ʃa/ → what
 'win' /win/ → where
 'ʃlah' /ʃlɰh/ → why
 'shkoun' /ʃku:n/ → who
 'winta' /winta/ → when
 'kifah' /kɪfæh/ → how
 'shhal' /ʃhæl/ → how many/much/long

Temouchent commands, like *Arabic, English, French* commands, are shaped by using the verb in the imperative. That is, verbs in commands, often initiate an utterance. For example:

'rouh' /ru:h/ → go
 'arwah' /ərwæh/ → come
 'shrob' /ʃrɒb/ → drink
 'khrej' /xrez/ → go out

While listening to the recording, it has been perceived that the above categories of utterances are present; however, not as it is guessed. Only few of *wh-questions* and commands are picked up as the conversations are spontaneous. Evidence of this might be provided by the statistical analysis which offers the following numbers that can be summarized in the table below:

Table 1. Recording's Statistics of Temouchenty Wh- questions and Commands

Témouchenty Families	Commands	[Wh-questions]
<i>The first family</i>	03	00
<i>The second family</i>	02	03
<i>The third family</i>	02	04
<i>The fourth family</i>	02	03

To scrutinize the Temouchent intonation and its level of pitch, the selected utterances should be cited and then transcribed phonetically. Here are two utterances extracted from the first conversation:

Conversation 1:• *Commands:*

- rouh /ru:h/ 'go'
- ghsal wajhek /ɣsəl wəʒhek/ 'wash your face'
- khof /xɒf/ 'hurry up'

Conversation 2:• *Wh-questions:*

- 'Kisamouh?' /kɪsəmu:h/ 'what's his name?'
 - 'shkoun houma' /ʃku:n hu:ma/ 'who are they?'
- 'werini nta wahd el-nass hna fi bladna hadi nejhoul fel balloun?' /werɪnɪ nta wæhd ʔənnæs hna fi blædna hædi nəʒhu: fəl bælu:n/ 'show you me some people here in our country succeeded in playing football?'. Interestingly, the researcher encounters this utterance which goes beyond the norms mentioned above to indicate a complex utterance level. The word 'werini', 'show me' in the previous utterance is not a word level. That is to say, it does not occur in isolation. If it is assumed that 'werini' arises as a word, it is then perceived as a command; whereas, the long utterance denotes that it is not. It is true that through the form one may assert that the utterance is a command; however, the speaker used a particular type of intonation which has a higher phrase curve than the preceding utterances; thus, the utterance can be recognized as 'who are those who succeeded in playing football?'. Furthermore, the listener replies to the utterance as it is a [Wh-question]. (Listen to the recording).

• *Commands:*

- 'kemalhom' /kəmelhɒm/ 'finish them'
- 'hfad kraytek' /hfæd kræjtək/ 'learn your lessons'

Conversation 3:• *Wh-questions:*

- 'shhal raha saʕa?' /ʃhal ræha sæʕə/ 'What time is it?'
- 'shkoun, el-Barsa?' /ʃku:n ʔəl bɑ:rsa/ 'who, the Barsa?'
- 'shadarou?' /ʃa dəru:/ 'What did they do?'
- 'wirak?' /wɪræk/ 'where are you?'

• *Commands:*

- 'arwah' /ərwa:h/ 'come'
- 'rouh' /ru:h/ 'go'

Conversation 4:• *Wh-questions:*

- 'win kont' /wɪn kɒnt ʔ/ 'where have you been?'
- 'sha teshri?' /ʃa tɛfri ʔ/ 'buy what?'
- 'shhal shriteh' /ʃhæl ʃri:təh/ 'how much did you buy it?'

• *Command:*

- 'ara sarf' /əra særf/ 'give me the change'
- 'rouh jib leħlib lkhoul darwak' /ru:h ʒɪb leħli:b lxu:k dərwək/ 'go to bring milk to your brother now'. The above utterances are said to be distinct. It is noted, through an acoustic analysis, that what makes the difference between them is more to do with tone use (variations).

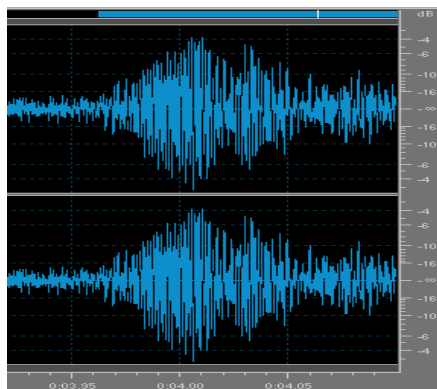
Spectrographic Analysis

In an attempt to establish the nature of tonal events occurring within Temouchent [Wh-questions] and commands, each utterance should be divided into several tones, and then these

tones should be kept to be shown at the spectrogram to determine the type of tones within those utterances.

Conversation 1:

- *Command:*
'**Khof**' /xɒf/ 'hurry up'

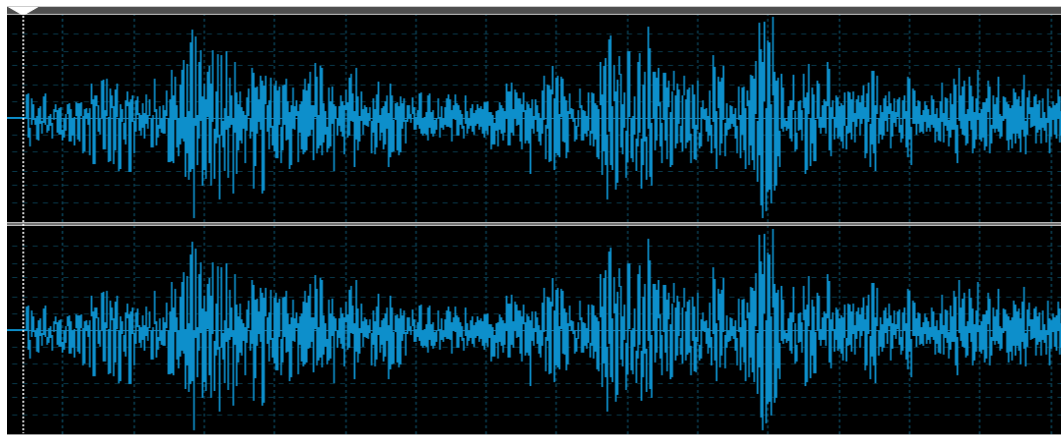


Spectrogram 1. A Representation of the Command 'Khof'. The piece that includes 'khof' has a greater

amplitude, that is the sound automatically is louder.

Conversation 2

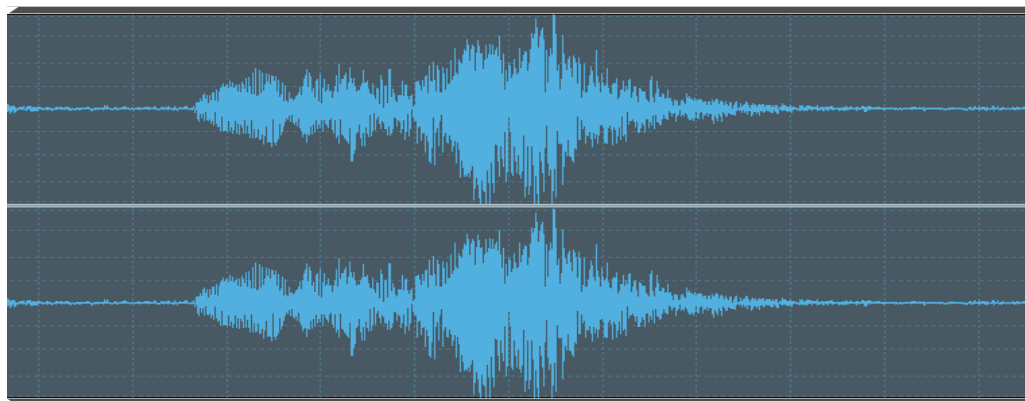
- *Command:*
'**kamalhom** wa **hfad** kraytek' /kəmælhɒm w ɪfæd kræjtək/ 'finish them and revise your lessons.'



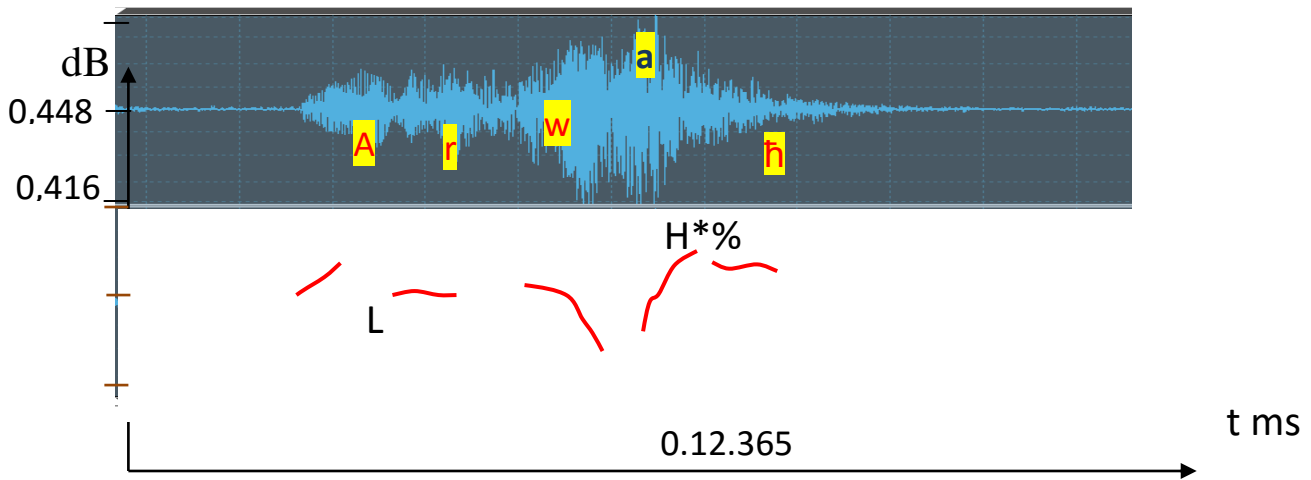
Spectrogram 2. An Illustration of the Tone of 'Kemelhom' and 'Hfad'

Conversation 3:

- *Command:*



Spectrogram 3. An Imperative Utterance 'Arwah'

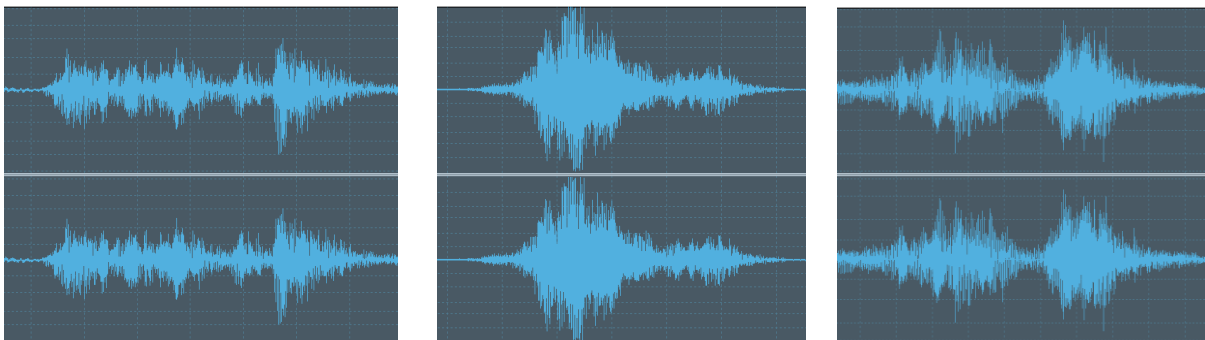


Graph1. Shapes of the Pitch of the word 'Arwah'

It is clear that the voice of the father rises suddenly from the lower bound of his frequency to the limit of the upper bound. 'a' tends to be the intensity of this word (here about 215 Hz). The tone within this word can be represented as H+H*

Conversation 4:

- Command:

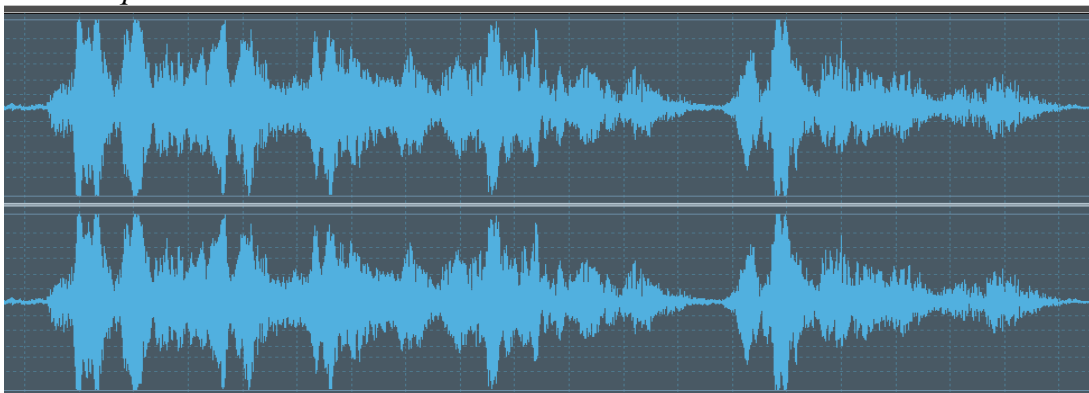


Spectrogram 4. A Repetitive Command of 'Rouh'

The second Command is said to be the prominent one as it is higher than the others.

Conversation 2:

- Wh-question

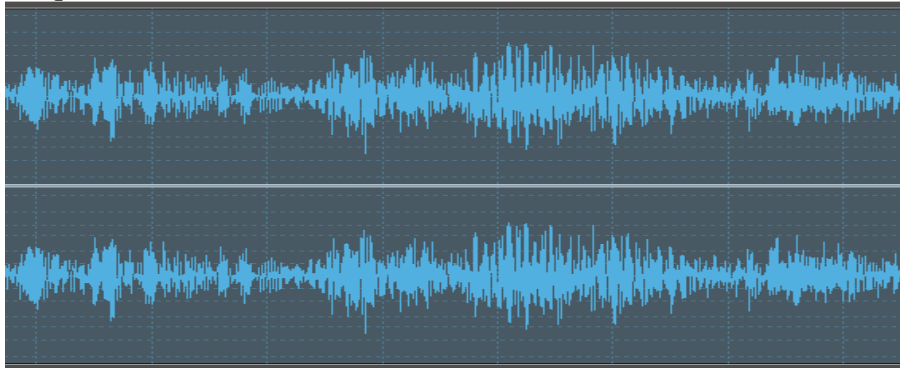


Spectrogram 6. A Representation of 'Werini Wahd Anass Hna fi bladna nejhou fel ballon ?'

Tones are harmonically complex. The spectrogram shows that there are various frequencies and different amplitudes. According to Rogers (2000) this is referred to as complex repetitive waves since it is not a simple sine wave.

Conversation 3:

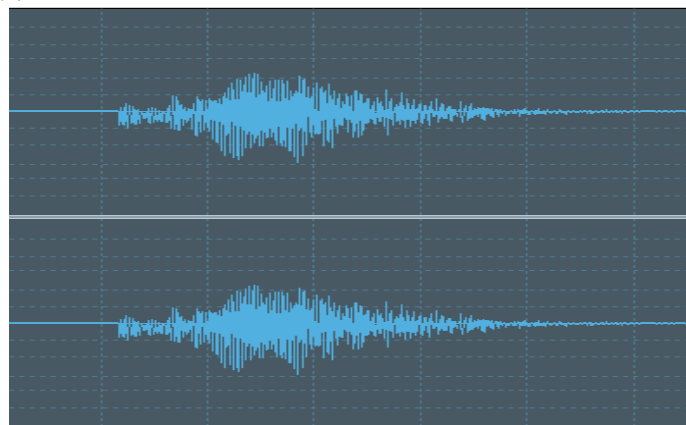
- *Wh-question:*



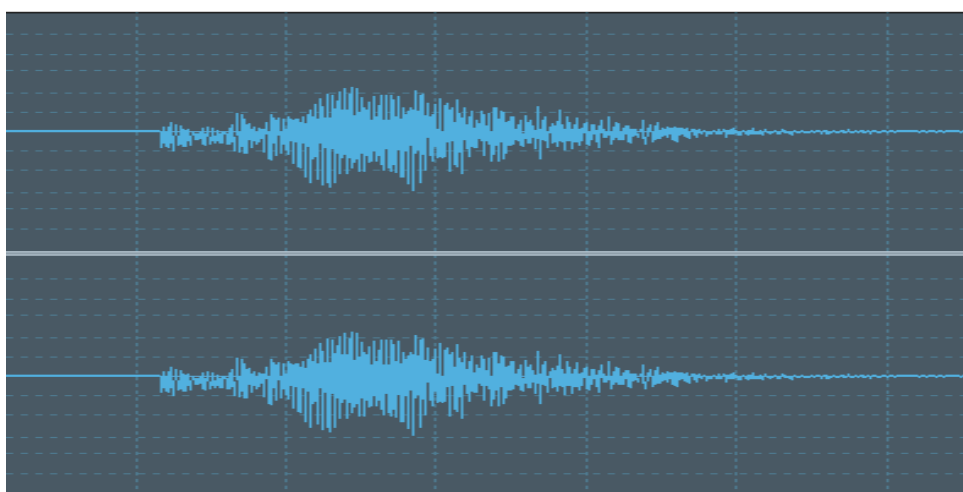
Spectrogram 7. A Representation of the Utterance 'Shhal Raha SaSa ?'

Conversation 3:

- *Wh-question :*



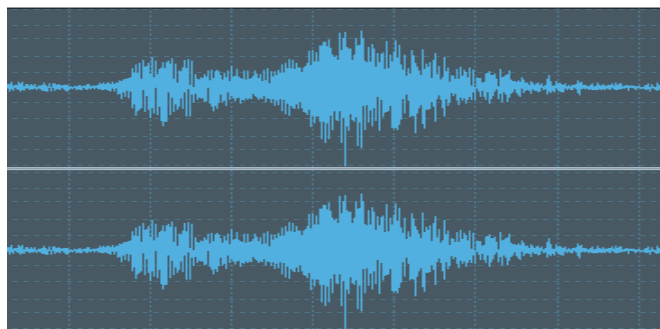
Spectrogram 8. An Illustration of the utterance 'Win Kont'



Graph 2. A Demonstration of the Pitch Level of the Utterance 'Win Kont ?'

Conversation 4:

- *Wh-question:*



Spectrogram 9. An Interrogative Temouchenty Utterance 'Sha Teshri ?' having a falling Tail

RESULTS AND INTERPRETATIONS

Through the current spectrographic analyses there seems to be a complex interaction between a tone and intonation, especially at the level of an utterance. It is apparently noticed that all commands are said with a high rising tones. In prosody, this is referred to as HRT or HRI which is regarded as one characteristic of speech (Ching: 1982). It is labeled as 'uptalk' or 'upspeak' and characterized by a high frequency (Ladd: 1996) that is, the rising tone followed the accented syllable of the IP at a very high tier, it often occurs after a low pitch (Warren: 2005). HRT is mostly used among leaders, assertive, and authoritative speakers (McLemore: 1991, Cheng et al: 2005 and Warren: 2005).

HRI is seemed to be one of the features of Temouchent commands; as an example, the HRI in 'Arwah' 'come here'. It is only a short step from the belief that HPI serves in transmitting the intended meaning within a conversation; but, a more important step is that as the fathers use this kind of intonation within their commands, it is usually followed by a pause which disheartens an interruption and indicates that they have not finished their speech. This was the same result of the previous work of Allen (1990) and Guy et al (1986). Additionally, One of the foremost characteristics of Temouchent command in the parental conversations, is that parents tend to repeat their commands more than one time, for example, the utterance: 'rou rou regliha, regliha, regliha' 'go and set up the image' in conversation 3, and others such as: conversations 1&4.

The main reason behind such repetition is to accentuate a command. This phenomenon affects the pitch level of an utterance. The pitch level differs significantly as the word is replicated. As it has been mentioned earlier, commands get a high rising tone H*; however, the repeated command sounds lower H- than the preceding one. Yet, what happens in conversation four (spectrogram 3.7) is very interesting. As the father was interacting with his son, he used the verb 'rouh' 'go' three times with a high pitch. The second 'rouh' is said to be the highest one. The reason for that use is that the son interrupted his father and refused his command as a result, he increased the level of pitch higher than the previous and the followed ones so that his order is emphasized. Hence, it is worth stressing, in this vein, that there is an intimate relationship between the harmony of voice which denotes the shape of pitch and its context.

In Temouchent *wh-questions*, it is perceived that *wh- pronouns* such as: *Win* 'where', *shhal* 'How much', *sha* 'what' usually initiate the utterance to form the question; consequently, the pitch of *wh- pronoun* sounds higher on the accented syllable, the pitch of the rest of the utterance ; on the other hand, decreases. That is, there is a low fall leading to L% and

accordingly, the f0 has a lower frequency than the previous one. Unfortunately, frequency and time axes are hidden as the researcher cuts and zooms in on the interrogative utterances from the whole spectrographic representation. It is quite important to mention that the words occurring before *wh-pronoun* conserve their natural and original pitch. Through the spectrographic analysis, it is quite obvious that the curve of the pitch within [Wh-question] utterances differs from that of commands. They are uttered differently; this is evidenced by the results, cited in the conclusion.

CONCLUSION

To conclude, this paper was an attempt to elucidate the spectrographic representation of the recorded utterances and words. Furthermore, it arrived at citing some results and providing overall ideas to interpret them. It contains two steps, the first one is the dissection of the experiment to discover the nature of intonation within *wh-questions* as well as commands; moreover, measure pitch curves. The second step is to study the difference between intonation and tones. The results reveal that there is H+L% rising-falling intonation within Temouchent *wh-question* utterance; however, a rising one within H+H% tones within commands.

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