People's Democratic Republic of Algeria

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A Critical Analysis approach to an Argumentative Discourse of the Illegal Immigration in Algeria

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Foreign Languages in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Master's Degree in Linguistics

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Academic Year: 2020/2021

Dedication

Lovingly dedicated to my parents, to my sisters and brothers, to all my friends.

Abdelfatah & Meriem Hidayat

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank a number of persons who were present while needed.

First of all, special thanks to Pr. BENABED for his scientific guidance, corrections, pertinent criticism and advice.

Thanks to the members of the jury, Dr Belarbi Khaled and Dr Toubida Mustapha.

We address our gratefulness to Dr Mostefaoui for having been so kind to read our work and for his precious comments.

Abstract

In this work we examine the specific discursive strategies used by migrants whose arguments are full of discursive struggle while justifying their experience of migrating. Firstly, these migrants make efforts at the discursive level to present their migration as rational and justified. However, with the methodology of triangulation, discourse analysis calls for the tools of an argumentative analysis used besides Critical linguistics (CL) a critical discourse analysis (CDA); it focuses more on uncovering the different arguments available within a data to build their stories. It offers explanation to their discursive argumentative strategies practices by analyzing them in a linguistic, discursive, social and cultural angle.

Key words: Discourse Analysis, Illegal Migration, Discursive stratergies, Linguistic Items

Résumé

Dans ce travail, nous examinons les stratégies discursives spécifiques utilisées par les migrants dont les arguments sont pleins de lutte au niveau discursif pour justifier leur expérience de la migration. Premièrement, ces migrants font des efforts au niveau discursif pour présenter leur migration comme rationnelle et justifiée. Alors, avec la méthodologie de la triangulation, l'analyse du discours fait appel aux outils d'une analyse argumentative utilisés à côté de la linguistique critique (CL) une analyse critique du discours (CDA). Tout ceci afin de focaliser davantage sur la découverte des différents arguments disponibles dans un corpus choisi pour construire leurs histoires. On se propose d'expliquer leurs stratégies argumentatives discursives en les analysant sous un angle linguistico-discursif et socio-culturel.

Mots Clés : Analyse du Discoure, Migration Illégale, Stratégies discursives, items linguistiques

ملخص:

ندرس في هذا العمل الاستراتيجيات الخطابية المحددة التي يستخدمها المهاجرون الذين تمتلئ حججهم بالصراع الخطابي مع تبرير تجربتهم في الهجرة. أولاً ، يبذل هؤلاء المهاجرون جهودًا على المستوى الخطابي لتقديم هجرتهم على أنها منطقية ومبررة. ولهذا و، مع منهجية التثليث، يستدعي تحليل الخطاب أدوات التحليل الجدلي المستخدمة إلى جانب علم اللغة النقدي (CL) و كذا تحليل الخطاب النقدي (CDA) ؛ نركز بشكل أكبر على الكشف عن الحجج المختلفة المتاحة داخل خطاباتهم لبناء قصصهم. و هنا نقدم شرحًا لممارسات استراتيجياتهم الخطابية الجدلية من خلال تحليلها من زاوية لغوية ، خطابية ، اجتماعية وثقافية.

الكلمات النفتاحية : تحليل الخطابة، الهجرة الغير شرعية، الخطط الاستطرادية،الوحدات اللسانية

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

DA (Discourse Analysis)

CL (Critical linguistic)

CDA (Critical Discourse Analysis)

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General Introduction

Language is seen as a means of communication used by every individual in its spoken, written, verbal and non-verbal forms to convey information and arguments to others. It is assumed that language and culture cannot be separated; they represent the nation via reflecting the attitude or behavior of the speech community of that language. However, some linguists such as Van Djik, Foucault, Searle, Fairclough, Routledge, do not consider language as a simple system of transmitting, receiving and exchanging ideas. They had to look above the grammatical rank-scale taking into account the linguistic subfields including pragmatics, semantics and semiotics. The need to investigate language beyond the level of sentence gives birth to discourse analysis. Instead of focusing on smaller units of language, such as sounds, words or phrases, discourse analysis is used to study larger chunks of language, such as entire conversations, texts, or collections of texts. At this level we are no longer asking what has been said, but, what is meant, intended, and what the action beyond utterances is in regard to the context.

In this work we examine the specific discursive strategies used by migrants whose arguments are full of discursive struggle while justifying their experience of migrating. Firstly, these migrants make efforts at the discursive level to present their migration as rational and justified. Secondly, they try to convince of their financial needs and unemployment as the main reasons to their migration act. Exploring lived experience before while and after migrating reveals the kind of discourses that are being adopted and adapted to each situation. This research explores migrants' voices when arguing to make sense out of their discourse while trying to justify their acts.

However, with the methodology of discourse analysis of an argumentative discourse used at the same time with some of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) tools, we focus more on uncovering the different arguments available to build their stories. It offers explanation to their discursive argumentative strategies practices by analyzing them.

This research focuses on the argumentative discourse and tries to give an account after it identifies the different argumentative strategies that the language allows through linguistic items, and discursive utterances. People whether pro or against illegal migration express their opinions and lay their feelings using an appropriate language for arguing. We try to get a set of argumentative discourses, hoping that this will lead us to answer the main question: *How* does language translate peoples' opinions into argumentative strategies on the phenomenon of the illegal immigration *El Harga*?

This research aims at understanding how language is used in real life situation. Examining how language functions and how meaning is created in different social contexts, extracting the linguistic features and linguistic items that reflect the use of language in argumentative strategies, focusing on the social aspects of communication and the ways people use language to achieve specific effects, such as evoking emotions, creating doubt, or managing conflict. With the schemes of argumentation and the linguistic means that appeared in their conversations, the migrants show the reasons of their migration.

Illegal migration is an interesting, emotion evoking subject to Algerians since each year thousands of people of all ages and genders leave Algeria knowing they can die within the process. We are conducting this research to understand the reasons that pushed and still pushing a lot of our relatives, friends and people we know to take such suicidal decisions to leave their homeland and everything they know behind them. We want to identify those reasons through their argumentative strategies, to see how language is used to reveal feelings and position towards illegal immigration.

Proposed Research Questions

- 1- How are the argumentative strategies identified within discourse?
- 2- How do linguistic and discursive items reflect opinions and positions toward immigration questions?
- 3- What are the views of the host countries people on the illegal immigration? How are views of the world, and identities, constructed through the use of discourse? (Fairclough, 2001, p.2)

Hypotheses

- 1- People reveal their feelings and position linked to the reasons of act within their discourse.
- 2- Linguistic and discursive items reflect opinions and positions toward immigration through a variation of speech acts.

3- The host countries views on the illegal immigration apparent in their speeches differ from one person to another depending on their race and political status within their homeland.

The Structure of the Dissertation

The introductory chapter (1) of this thesis is followed by three background chapters which provide the contextual historical background on migration and reasons that push youngsters to leave their homeland, particularly Algerians, in order to describe the broader socio-political context and reasons, such as in chapter one.

Chapter 2 provides a review of the theoretical background of the study of discourse analysis. It defines key theoretical concepts across approaches and within the school of thought of DA¹. It gives also a brief introduction to the main approaches to DA, such Critical Linguistics CL and Critical Discourse Analysis CDA and the most known of its theoriticians.

The contents of Chapter 3 include a discussion of the methodology adopted as well as the benefits of using a discourse analysis approach and a more qualitatively oriented approach of DA. In addition, the data for this study and discussions surrounding the choice of data, the sample as well as the period chosen are outlined there. This chapter provides a comprehensive analysis of a chosen corpus of messages from the web to illustrate the various discursive strategies used in the construction of migrants' discourse strategies and representations.

Finally, important discussion surrounding the data collection and data sampling are also elaborated. It serves also as a conclusion without forgetting to present the contributions and limitations of the study as well as suggestions for much needed future research.

¹ Discourse analysis

Chapter 1: Illegal Emigration: Conceptualization and Reframing

Introduction

Human migration is the movement of people from one place to another, usually across nations, with the goal of settling in a new location, either temporarily or permanently. It is an ancient phenomenon that humanity has known for centuries. Many human migrations, whether individual or collective, from one community to another, have occurred in human societies, depending on the economic, social and even political conditions in which they live. The word "illegal immigration" is vague, and it is also used in connection with legalistic language that posits the legal removal of undesirable people from society.

1.1 Emigration/Immigration's Definition²

The word "immigrant" originates from the Latin verb « migrare »: to move from one locality to another. However, when people or animals move from one place to another, they are generally called "migrations," and people who regularly move from one country or region to another are referred to as illegal immigrants, illegal aliens, irregular migrants, undocumented workers or as "sans papier" "migrants."

The term "immigration" was created by Noah Webster³ who defined immigrating as « to come to settle in a country (which is not one's own); to pass into a new habit or place of residence. ». Shumsky, Neil Larry⁴, calls this definition "more ample in its options and less pointed in its purpose than Webster's definition" and according to Samuel Johnson's Dictionary of the English Language published in 1755, migration is: "an act of changing place" but did not define migrate or immigrate. Webster did. This is Webster's 1806 definition of immigrate: "to remove into a country." It's similar to his emigrate: "to remove from place to place." Here's Webster's more elaborate, 1928 definition of immigrate: "To remove into a country for the purpose of permanent residence.⁵"

Emigrate and immigrate are, of course, two distinct ways of expressing the same concept.

²https://immigrationtounitedstates.org/580-immigrant.html, consulted on may 10th, 21.

³ The author of the Oxford English Dictionary, 1828.

⁴ https://www.jstor.org/stable/20474606?mag=how-noah-webster-invented-the-word-immigration consulted on may, 10th, 21

⁵ https://daily.jstor.org/how-noah-webster-invented-the-word-immigration/, consulted on may 10th, 21

'Immigrate' means to come 'in'. Both 'immigrate' and 'in' start with the letter 'i'. 'Emigrate' means to 'exit'. Both 'emigrate' and 'exit' start with 'e⁶.

The International Organization for Migration⁷ has defined migration as "the movement of a person or group of People, whether between countries or entering the same country between two places on its soil, and the concept of immigration includes all types of movement of people by changing the usual place of residence.

Emigration is the move to live in another nation. Generally, to migrate means to change from one location to another .To emigrate is to leave, while to immigrate is to enter. As a result, the words emigrate and immigrate are frequently followed by from the home country, whereas the words emigrate and immigrate are frequently followed by to and the destination country.

1.2 Illegal Immigration

It is called illegal immigration because it takes place according to an illegal framework, as it is intended to violate legislation and laws applicable for regulating the entry of foreigners into the sovereign territory of a state, and includes the movement of individuals or groups Cross-border in an illegal way (outside the law).

Illegal immigration was defined as entering a country other than the country of origin or traveling to reside in a foreign country without possessing the authorized documents that allow his reception or residence. And there are those who call it "EL-HARGA", which is a term that is often used in the nations of the Greater Maghreb to describe individuals who cross the Mediterranean on their way south of Europe, and when they arrive, they burn their paperwork linking them to their home country." ⁸

It is appropriate to say that some of the study of the phenomenon of migration, in the world in general and in Algeria in particular, is based on Abdel-Malik Sayyad's (2014) work, which gave it new meanings and terms. He used two terms to define immigration: emigration/ immigration. The first term can be translated as immigration, which is defined as movement

⁶ https://www.abc.net.au/education/learn-english/migrate-emigrate-immigrate. Consulted on may, 10th, 21.

⁷ International Organization for Migration, International Migration Law, No. 06, Geneva, 2006, Page 02

⁸ Nasira Ateeq: Illegal immigration under Islamic law, an intervention presented to the Fourth National Forum on Illegal Migration, a new problem of the law.

from one country to another. The second term, which can be translated as alienation, refers to being in the receiving country and living there. As a result, Abd al-Malik Sayyad believes that immigration is always the movement from the country of origin to the country of reception, and that it is a future exile.

1.3 The Causes and Factors of Illegal Immigration in Algeria

Migration is a natural social phenomenon that dates back to a long time, and it is a characteristic of peoples and Tribes. Throughout history, it has taken many forms, including primary migration, It is intended to settle in uninhabited regions, while secondary migration is residency among citizens, integration and adaptation with them, and there is a forced migration like the one that takes place to flee from the invaders or religious persecution. Through history, we can cite a known example of a forced one, the transfer of millions of people from Africa Compulsory to work for the whites on their farms in the new world. We can talk, however, of a voluntary immigration, when one seeks to find better opportunities for living. We have another example of a great movement of migration in history, the migration of our Prophet Muhammad (PBUH) from Makkah to Madinah, after his suffering became severe and his people forced him to leave his homeland in dark circumstances, so the date was the year.

Any individual person searches for areas that allow him to live and settle, a decent living, stability and economic progress. Unfortunately, this concept has transformed from an ordinary natural phenomenon to one that threatens the extrapolation and security of societies, and has become a serious challenge due to the risks resulting from it.

Figure 1. Proportion of young people wanting to emigrate from their countries



People who would like to migrateand those who would rather remain

Source: SAHWA Youth Survey 2016 (2017).

1.3.1 Political Reasons

The democratic experiment that Algeria has known gave birth to the multitude of political parties and associations. These latter are not thought of to have met the needs and aspirations of citizens. The worsening of the security situation and the emergence of terrorism in the past decades, and the spread of the phenomenon of mass killing and massacres, the Algerian youth have been pushed into secret migration to escape from terrorism, and in search of security and stability.

1.3.2 Social Reasons

This disastrous situation that Algeria experienced in the black decade with terrorism created difficult social conditions where the middle class ceased to exist, and two classes emerged in society: a new rich bourgeois class and a poor class. This situation was lived as a moral and material violence to which the Algerian youth were subjected, either from the side of the family or that of the environment. Added to those bad social conditions, these youngsters experienced a harsh life due to unemployment strangulation, lack of housing, juvenile delinquency, addiction and drug use, criminality and aggressive behavior. All these social prblems were lived as a moral and material violence and had their awful consequences on them.

1.3.3 Economical Reasons

In Algeria, the transition to a liberal economic system at the beginning of the nineties led to the emergence of complex problems facing political and social public bodies, most important among them the difficulty of reconciling the incomes of middle class families.

During those decades, the deterioration of purchasing power of the Algerian families due to low incomes has widened the gap between the poor and the rich that led to the appearance of beggars in almost all the big cities and to the spread of other phenomena that are no less dangerous than their predecessors. The rate of celibacy has dangerously risen in the society where the percentage of young people reaches 70%, the majority of whom have neither a job nor a home. Added to this, the situation of university students, who because of the spread of unemployment, find themselves obliged either to engage in unrelated work to their academic studies or to emigrate. We can add two main factors with significant effects on countries that had difficulties to find stability:

- 1 The effects of economic globalization and its negative impact on the economic status of countries.
- 2 The vast disparities between the countries of the North and the countries of the South led to the displacement of citizens from South to north.

In fact, many young people point to some economic factors as the main reasons to emigrate in their messages:

e.g., "Here there is no work, while there are jobs there. It's a project for work and for a better future" (C2 a).

"The lack of job opportunities, poverty, prices are getting higher everyday ... All that pushes people to migrate" (C2a).

Figure 2. Main push factors for emigration (by country, share of total)

	Tunisia	Могоссо	Lebanon	Egypt	Algeria
Lack of professional opportunities	34	20	0	48	13
Poor living conditions	21	18	19	11	21
Inadequate opportunities for study and training	12	9	9	5	11
income lower than abroad	12	16	26	26	10
Lack of opportunities to gain experience	5	9	0	2	22
Help the family	1 5	16	4	1 5	17
Escape family pressure and problems	4	9	27	1	6
Political and security circumstances	3	3	0	0	0
Other	4	0	15	2	0

1.4 Social Media and Anti-immigration and racist discourse

It is evident nowadays that the social media through its open space witnesses the rise of Facebook groups who constitute real weapons that have automated affective public[s]'. The socio-technical infrastructure of social media shapes and nourishes racism in many new ways. Theses open spaces are effectively used by anti-immigration and racist actors, whose discourses rely on affect to gain attention and circulation.

So many groups are well established in theses open free space that is facebook where their interactions amplify racist comments and responses published by Facebook users, turning racial antagonism into discursive violence. Thus, open Facebook permits posts and interaction that has pushed the boundaries of what was first publicly acceptable language on topics linked to the issue of migration and migrants. Anti-immigration actors have so far succeeded to make out of a discourse (reflecting the radical right-wing sentiments towards immigrants), attitudes and utterances before unacceptable, normally circulating on the web. This discourse on social media has become real and has even instigated violent (anti-immigrant) political action; what proves that racist discourses on social media do not exist in a vacuum but are manifested in the actions of people participating in the production and circulation of racism online.

1.5 Public European attitudes through media representations

Immigrants and their descendants, especially those of so-called non-Western or Muslim background, are often represented negatively in the European. As the table indicates, there is a relatively larger increase in the negative attitude towards non-EU immigration between 2015 and 2018.



Figure 3. Representation of migrants by Europeans

Chapter 2: Discourse Analysis: A CDA's Approach to an Argumentative Discourse

Introduction

There is constantly an interchange of language and discourse by learners in the linguistic and literary fields in the attempt to account for the use of language in various fields of study. In this chapter, we explain discourse, discourse analysis, its related fields and approaches to the study.

Discourse is not restricted to the study in the Department of English and Linguistics alone; it cuts across all the fields of learning. It is language in use. For the reason that language is constantly used by people in various social fields, there will always be various types of discourse to be investigated. Therefore, discourse analysts have a wider spectrum of areas to cover the ways language is used through linguistic and theoretical tools.

Our choice to mobilize some of CDA's theoreticians is because, as stated by Wetherell et al (2001), CDA through its Analytical *framework focuses upon social problems that have a semiotic aspect*. According to Fairclough, (2003), one of the most famous theoreticians, the relation between language and social reality, all the kinds of events, is reflected in texts, social practices (orders of discourse) and social structures (languages).

2. Definition of Discourse

The term discourse refers to what can either be spoken or written. We can find discourse in all domains of learning; in these fields language's use objective is mainly interaction. In (Egbe, 1996: 72) it is presented as meaning "*talk and text*" and as "*connected speech and continuous writing*" respectively, and in context it is an extended *natural language that is longer than the sentence*".(Egbe, 1996: 72). This definition means that discourse is far from being any set of pieces of sentences gathered without any purpose, but coordinated language in a social context.

Linguists may find it somehow difficult to give a precise definition of discourse, agree however, to present it as language beyond sentence. A set of sentences combined in an organized occurring utterance play a fundamental role in the formation of discourse. But discourse is not just a set of linked sentences; they must belong to a particular context and express a social meaning. It is probable to combine sentences together without a cohesive

VII. Introduction

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Linguists may find it somehow difficult to give a precise definition of discourse, agree however, to present it as language beyond sentence. A set of sentences combined in an organized occurring utterance play a fundamental role in the formation of discourse. But discourse is not just a set of linked sentences; they must belong to a particular context and express a social meaning. It is probable to combine sentences together without a cohesive unity. Yet the sort of combination of sentences which does not contain the main features of discourse, does not make a discourse and, cannot, therefore be called so. Crystal (1992) gives the following definition of discourse, "a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit such as a sermon, argument, joke, or narrative" (25).. From the above, Crystal as well as other scholars bound discourse to spoken language.

2.1. Discourse Formation

When studying language, the grammatical one is always limited to the sentence, the sentence being the highest rank-scale in grammar. Discourse requires an analysis that goes beyond the borders of the sentence. The fact that language comes from a discourse formation or speech community; there is a need for an investigation further than the level of sentence. Many scholars have this explanation in common and see discourse as the organization or unit of language above sentence (Stubbs 1983:1, Schiffrin 1987a: 1, T. Onadeko 2000: 82).

The Russian formalists and structuralists focus on the linguistic characteristics of universal language, such as: phonology, syntax and semantics. These features do not study sets of sentences combined or utterances; this is the concern of discourse analysts. Schiffrin (1994) says that: "Consistent with the definition of discourse as language "above the sentence," many contemporary structural analyses of discourse view the sentence as the unit of which discourse is comprised."

Discourse formation requires skills for the organization of language not only beyond the sentence, but more than a paragraph. We can say that discourse has two major structures: micro and macro. The micro-structure refers to the local significance of discourse; it can be extracted from the aspects of semantics, syntax, stilistika, and rhetoric. It involves the combination of smaller bits of language organization to make up the word, the phrase, the clause and the sentence. The macro-structure of language refers to the global meaning that can be observed from the theme or topic raised by the use of language in discourse, it is the discourse proper because it helps in the analysis of language beyond the sentence level. At this level of language organization, important factors such as purpose, the topic or subject matter, thesis statement and the audience are to be considered to produce a meaningful discourse. These factors are better discussed in the composition section. In another position, discourse is looked at from the social function of language as language in use. Schiffrin (1994: 20) gives a comprehensive meaning of discourse when she explains discourse as "a particular unit of language (above the sentence), and a particular focus (on language use)."The explanation covers both perspectives of the formalist and functional approaches to discourse as a fragment of language beyond sentence and as language in use. Fasold (1990: 65) is one of the scholars who approached discourse from the functional point of view. He argues that, "the study of discourse is the study of any aspect of language use". Language is not used in a vacuum; it is used by participants in a context to perform certain functions. This is the reason utterance is situated in a context. Schiffrin (1994) corroborates with this view when she explicates that, "discourse is viewed as a system (a socially and culturally organized way of speaking) through which particular functions are realized" (32). Social functions performed by discourse define the communicative role of discourse and the various fields of activities to which discourse belongs.

Discourse is both structural and functional in nature, and the best approach to discourse is to explain it from both structural and functional perspectives to show how language is used in social context, and what it is used to do.

2.2. Discourse Analysis

As discourse has been defined as a unit of language above sentence and focus on language use in social context to perform social functions, discourse analysis, on the other hand, is the analysis of a unit of language above sentence used in a social context to perform social functions. Brown and Yule (1983: 1) state the core of discourse analysis hence:

The analysis of discourse is necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs.

Discourse analysts are concerned with the study of language in use in social context, specifically, what language is used for not the formal properties of language. They are interested in diverse social contexts of conversation particularly its organization and the processes involved in the encoding and decoding of its meaning. Analysts naturally focus on the occurring conversation which may be utterances or documented conversation. Onadeko (2000: 83) from a pure linguistic perspective to discourse gives a unique insight to discourse

by saying, "It is the scientific study of naturally occurring (i.e. spontaneous) conversation (or what is meant to be rendered in written mode) which exists between at least two participants in a social context." From his view, discourse analysis includes all verbal and non-verbal actions that take place in a conversation in a social setting. Schiffrin (1994: 42) as well gives an interesting exposition by explaining that analyses of discourse reveal interdependence between structure and function of language in use. She asserts that structural definition focuses on text while functional definition focuses on context.

There are various functions that language can be used to perform in social context especially interactional conversational interaction. Jakobson (1960) proposes six functions of language which Hymes (1962) also supports. Stubbs (1995: 46) having observed these functions, builds on Jakobson's and Hymes' contributions by making his own proposition on functions of language as expressive or emotive, directive or conative, poetic, contact or phatic, metalinguistic, referential and contextual functions. Halliday (1970: 140-165) has also proposed three broad functions he believes language should perform as ideational, interpersonal and textual functions.

These functions are found in different genres of discourse. Texts can be extracted from various genres of discourse such as family (interaction among family members), classroom (interaction between teacher and students), hospital (interaction between doctor and patient), market (interaction between seller and buyer), political (conversation among political actors on political issues), religious (interaction between priest and congregation), legal (conversation on legal issues either between the judge and the accused or between lawyer and his client).

The term discourse analysis was first used by the so called Zellig Harris (1952) as a method for analysis of connected speech or writing in order to continue descriptive linguistic analysis beyond a single sentence, and also to show correlation between culture and language. He employed distributional technique to determine elements that can co-occur in the same environment to show the pattern of combination of the classes of words in a text (Malmkjær and Anderson 1991: 100), also to discover the patterns of morphemes, which will allow to differentiate a collection of sentences from a text (Onadeko 2000: 84). He could not give the concept his due because he only applied the structuralist approach which could not explore semantic import of language analyzed. Halliday (1961, 1967 and 1970) develops what Harris introduced earlier when he discusses the field, the mode and the tenor of discourse. Sinclair

and Coulthard (1975) are the first people that made an attempt to produce a structural analysis of naturally occurring conversation in classroom dialogue. They study spontaneous discourse units and their relation in sequence. Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974) have paved the ground on which Sinclair and Coulthard achieved their success in discourse analysis. Various scholars have produced several works on the concept.

2.3. Argumentative Analysis

Argumentative analysis is a branch of rhetoric which consists in explaining and clarifying the modalities with which a speaker tries to act on the audience, and to identify the strategies and objectives of the speech in question, based on the argumentative effectiveness; According to Amossy R (2002: 25): "An argumentative analysis aims to describe and explain the ways in which oral or written discourse attempts to act on an audience [...] the analysis of argumentation in discourse aims to study the effectiveness of speech in its institutional, social and cultural dimensions."

This perspective, which aims to analyze all kinds of discourse that aim both explicitly and implicitly to act on a given audience, calls forth various approaches such as: the linguistics of enunciation and pragmatics.

2.4. Discourse Features

Discourse is characterized by various important features which embedded in the field of discourse, and their knowledge facilitates the analysis of discourse for scholars who are not very familiar with discourse. Among all those who investigated in the field of discourse analysis Wale Osisanwo gives simple comprehensive features of discourse in his introductory book *Introduction to Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics*. These features will be explored briefly.

2.4.2 Conversation

The interaction that happens between at least two people, one speaks and the second person responds to the first speaker. In some situation, one may use paralinguistic cues as a response such as nodding, gesture, or facial expression.

2.4.3 Discourse Participants

Persons involved in conversation. Commonly known as interlocutors; each of them is addressed differently as speaker and addressee.

2.4.4 Opening and Closing of Discourse

Discourse opening is the preliminary exchange that creates a platform to initiate a conversation. It may be in form of greeting or summoning. Closing of discourse is the closing statement made by one of the participants to show that conversation has come to an end. The cues such as "bye", "good bye" or "Period" could be used.

2.4.5 Holding Floor

This is a situation in which a participant is speaking in a discourse while the other participants wait for him to finish what he has to say. The person speaking is holding floor at that moment.

2.4.6 Turn-Taking

Each participant waits for his turn to speak, when someone is speaking the other waits for him to stop speaking to take his turn. This helps avoiding overlapping in a conversation.

2.4.7 Selecting the Next Speaker

This method aims at selecting the next speaker. It is done either by calling the next speaker to speak his view or by using non-verbal cues such as pointing to the next speaker or simply keeping quiet after speaking if only two participants are involved in discourse.

2.4.8 Overlapping

It is also called interruption. It occurs when another speaker starts speaking while the first speaker did not yet finish his talk, so that two or more participants are talking at the same time.

2.4.9 Topic Negotiation

This method is used by a participant who feels that he has no place in conversation and is eager to make his point at all cost. It is done by introducing a new topic.

2.4.10 Discourse Markers

These are the devices or cue words used to mark boundary of an utterance in discourse to show relation. They show how a piece of discourse is connected to another piece of discourse, that is, they show connection between what has been said or written and what will be said or written. For example, "mind you", "still", "by the way", "however", "nevertheless", "like".

2.4.11 Speech Errors

Mistakes made during conversation such as slips of the tongue. it could be factual error or errors of construction. It includes repetitions, hesitations and use of gap fillers such as "emm", "I...", "well...", "euuh..." etc.

2.4.12 Repair Mechanism

This is the method used to correct speech errors. The participant restates his words, or gets corrected by the other participants.

2.4.13 Role Sharing

Role is allocated to participants in a social set-up based on age, sex, education, achievement, profession or social status. The factors above are used in allocation of turns in human society since it is highly stratified. The binary features of Berry (1987: 51) assign +higher and –higher roles to distinguish the status of the participants in conversation.

2.4.14 Talk Initiation

It is the process of initiating a conversation. One of the participants starts the conversation while the other listens.

2.4.15 Elicitation in Talk

It is the process of requiring a reaction, response or feedback (verbal or non-verbal) from an interlocutor by questioning the interlocutor.

2.4.16 Adjacency Pairs

When the exchange structures are in pairs, we have adjacency pair. They are always complementary and reciprocatory with features such as greeting and response, complaint and apology, question and answer, challenge and reaction.

2.5 Discourse Rank-Scale

The concept of rank-scale is that the units are organized in a hierarchical order. It means a bigger unit in rank is formed from one or more units of the rank below it. In this case, it implies that the upper unit in rank has structure which will be explored while the lowest unit has no structure. Halliday (1961) divides grammar into morpheme, word, phrase, clause and sentence in grammatical rank-scale. In consonance together with his grammatical rank-scale but contrary in context, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) divides classroom discourse into organizational units in hierarchical order as:

Lesson ↓ Transaction ↓ Exchange ↓ Move ↓ Act

In descending order, Lesson is the highest unit in discourse rank-scale while act is the lowest unit in ascending order.

2.5.1 Act

Acts are the smallest and "...lowest rank of discourse" (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992, pg.8). Acts are used "...to initiate succeeding discourse activity or answer earlier discourse activity" (Coulthard, 1977, pg.104). There is always a main act in the opening move labeled as the head act. There are three primary head acts, which frequently appear in opening moves; elicitation, directive, and informative (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1992, pg.15). An act has no structure of its own; it is not divisible just like morpheme. It can be formed by grammatical

units such as words, groups, clauses or sentences. It relates to the function of an utterance it had been meant to perform which is illocutionary act of Searle (1962). Act always performs actions, and it's categorized according to functions it performs. There are three main types of act. They are informative act, elicitation act and directive act. An informative act gives information to the interlocutor in sort of response either positive or negative in verbal utterance or non-verbal communication like nodding, shaking of head etc. For example:

Amine: You need to drink some water.

Youcef: Yes.

(Positive response)

Aymen: I will bring Ines back home with me.

Asmaa: No, I won't allow you.

(Negative response)

Lotfi: You must behave well kiddo.

Kiddo: (nods)

(Non-verbal response)

An elicitation act is used to require a verbal response from the interlocutor. It takes the form of a question with a predicated response. If the answer is tardy, the question is repeated with prominence or reframed. The response could also be accompanied by body language like nodding, raising or shaking of hand. For example:

Malak: I can't find my hat mum!

Mum: it is right there, honey.

(Immediate response)

Adnan: Where can I find this kind of flower?

Rachid: (silence)

(Delayed response)

Adnan: dude, where can I find this kind of flower?

Rachid: down the valley.

A directive act requests an action as a response either for the benefit of the speaker or other people. It may receive either verbal or non-verbal response, or at times both verbal and non-verbal response. For example:

Dad: please close the window.

Amel: (closes the window)

(Non-verbal response)

Dad: can you bring me that remote control.

Youcef: (grabs the remote control and bring it) here it is.

(Verbal and non-verbal response)

2.5.2 Move

A move is higher than act in rank and lower than exchange. It consists of acts in its structure. A move is simple when it consists of one act, but complex when there is more than one act in its constituent. Unlike act, a move has act in its structure. There are five types of Move to mention "Sinclair and Coulthard": framing moves, focusing moves, the other three moves are labeled as opening, answering, and follow-up. For *example*:

Elion: I need your help.

(Simple move)

Brook: What can I do for you?

Elion: I lost my wallet when I was coming from the Airport. I don't have any money with me, and I need to go home. Please, lend me 200 euro till next week.

(Complex move)

Brook: Okay, take (giving him the money).

The framing move is used to structure lesson, that is, it indicates the end of a lesson or initial task and readiness for another task. The focusing move follows framing move; it is used to attract students' attention to the direction of the lesson or change the direction of the speaker.

Aya: first thing I will do once I collect my salary, I will change the furniture. (Focusing)Djamel: Wait, you have to pay your rent first. (Framing)

Sinclair and Coulthard (1992, pg.22) state that, "the purpose of a given opening could also be passing on information or directing an action or eliciting a fact." So it is used to supply information, ask a question, make a request, direct an action or elicit a fact. Answering move is a response to the opening move, it may have two parts: a head and a post-head. The

head will give the response to the opening, and the post-head requires that the initiator of the opening to give a response to it. For example:

Dad: Prepare a cup of tea for me. (Opening)Vero: Yes sir. Do you want it cold or hot? (Answering)

(Head) (Post-head)

Dad: Make it hot. (Response to post-head)

The follow-up move takes place after the answering move; it functions as feedback or verdict to confirm whether the answering move is correct or wrong. It is produced by someone who plays a higher role in conversation especially the teacher as a reaction to the student's response, or parent to child. For example:

Teacher: what is the exact operation to get the number of trees?

Student: We devise the total number of fruits we have on the expected number of fruits of one tree.

Teacher: excellent, you got it. (Follow-up)

2.5.3 Exchange

An exchange is made up of moves. There are two classes of exchanges; boundary exchanges and teaching exchanges. Boundary exchanges are initiated by the teacher to indicate a transition from one section of lesson to another, it consists of the framing and the focusing moves. Teaching exchanges take place where questions are asked, answered and feedback is given to the answers, it contains three moves: opening, answering and follow-up moves. Sinclair and Coulthard (1992: 3) refer to these moves as initiation, response and feedback in, "A typical exchange in the classroom consists of an initiation by the teacher, followed by a response from the pupil, followed by feedback to the pupil."

2.5.4 Transaction

Transaction is formed from an exchange or a sequence of exchanges united by one task. It is the basic unit of conversation and consists of minimal contribution made by the participants in the discourse. It usually begins with an opening and ends with a closing. There are boundary markers like "right now", "ok", "well", "right" which indicates the start of a replacement transaction. These markers are called frames.

2.5.5 Lesson

A lesson is the highest unit of classroom discourse. It consists of a set of transactions. It refers to all activities that take place in the classroom from the moment the teacher enters the class till he leaves. It consists of a sequence of interactions.

2.5.6 Spoken Discourse

Spoken discourse is the verbal form of discourse which includes all verbal utterances either formal or informal. All the social activities we get involved in to relate with one another such as casual conversation, interview, seminar, sermon, public lecture, telephone exchange, classroom conversation, political talk and so on are spoken discourses. Although spoken discourse is verbal, it is as well accompanied by various non-verbal behavior such as facial gestures and body movement to assist the interpretation of discourse. The most frequent type of spoken discourse found in human society is Informal conversation. Spoken discourse may be either face-to-face or as distant communication where the speaker is not physically present like telephone conversation, radio and television broadcast.

Certain features characterized spoken discourse such as identified or expected audience, immediate understanding and feedback, faster than written discourse and varied in speech, gestures, rhythm, intonation, pausing and pitch range. It encourages the use of short phrases and clauses because of its lexical and grammatical compositions, attributive adjectives and lexical repetitions.

Spoken discourse can be classified according to the number of participants implicated. For instance, monologue is an uninterrupted speech performed by only one person. The speaker may be thinking out loud, talking to himself or others who do not respond or are not expected to respond. It is mostly used in drama. Dialogue is a conversation between two participants. Multilogue is a conversational situation where many participants are involved in a conversation.

2.6 Utterance and Communicative Acts

We cannot refer to spoken discourse without mentioning Utterance and communicative acts which are indispensable concepts in spoken discourse. Utterance is a unit of verbal spoken language in context. Schiffrin (1994: 39-41) describes discourse as utterances. It implies that discourse is made up of small units that we call utterances. Utterances are contextualized sentences, in other terms, a collection of sentences used in a particular context just as discourse is defined as language in context. One difference between an utterance and a sentence is that a sentence is decontextualized while an utterance is contextualized sentences. Utterances are used to perform communicative acts. The concept of communicative acts is derived from J. L. Austin lecture of 1955 titled How to Do Things with Words where he described every speech as an action. Every utterance made by a speaker is meant to perform an action, that is to say, altering the reality of the situation in context. It is the performative function of illocutionary act of the speech acts. The product of communicative act is the action carried out as a result of the utterance which is illocutionary result. The position of J. R. Searle (1962) is that understanding the utterance which he called illocutionary result is more important. He explicates illocutionary act as the conventional relation between the intention of the speaker and the utterance. The act of the utterance is the major concern in communicative actions. It may be any of those speech acts given by J. R. Searle (1969): assertives, directives, commissives, expressives and declaratives or those given by Jakobson (1960) referential, emotive, phatic, conative, metaphysical and poetic functions. Communicative act is structured according to the three levels of speech act: locutionary act, illocutionary act and perlocutionary act for the reason that it is believed that utterance performs action at each level of speech act.

2.6 Written Discourse

Written discourse is any form of discourse that has been graphically represented or documented on a piece of paper or other media means. It encourages the act of documentation of the message conveyed which can be used later as a reference. Written discourse is cautiously constructed with an opportunity for correction and reconstruction, unlike the spoken discourse, the writer is able to adjust and modify the content of his work. The ideas in written discourse are organized structurally into paragraphs, where each paragraph conveys an idea that can be summarized into one sentence called the topic sentence. Punctuation marks are employed to make the written discourse meaningful to the reader. The paragraphs are linked one to another by connectives to make the discourse a unified cohesive whole. We should take into consideration that written discourse can be divided into chapters, verses,
sections, headings, units, subheadings etc. The writer is always cautious in written discourse because anyone can pick the text up at any time to read.

2.7 Text

Text linguistics is referred to as the study of written discourse by the pioneers of systemic functional linguistic (SFL) who develop interest in the study of written discourse (Halliday and Hasan 1985: 10, Bloor and Bloor 1995: 86). They believe that written discourse has certain feature which makes it different from spoken discourse, which is actually its textuality

Text, originated from the Latin word textus meaning "to weave", is a continuous piece of writing (Daramola 2001: 161). Text is not limited to written language alone; it is both spoken and written. It is defined by linguists as any language that is functional, that is, either spoken or written language used in a particular context. Halliday and Hasan (1976:1) explain that, "The word text is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length that does firm a unified whole." It means that a text is either be spoken or written, but it necessarily must have elements of unity which will enable it to make sense or meaning. It is described as a semantic unit. Daramola (ibid) explicates that it has two basic features: a product and a process. It can be constructed and recorded in a systematic way for further assessment as a product. It evolves as a semantic choice, as a process, through a semantic network in a context. Text can be seen as a means of exchange or an interactive event between two speakers of a language.

2.7.1 Texture

Texture is the quality of a text and the basis for unity and semantic independence. The texture is what distinguishes the text from other combination of words; it is the element that unifies the structure of a text, it refers to the property of language that each line is linked from or linked to the line that precedes it. Daramola (2001:163) argues that, "the texture of a text is a demonstration of some kinds of semantic relations between its components or messages." He justifies a text as a semantic unit which has texture as element of its meaning unity.

2.7.2 Context

In discourse analysis, we study both text and context. Context is the social environment in which a text occurs. It is a set of circumstances or facts around a particular event or situation. Therefore, it is everything that surrounds production of an utterance including the situation, the interlocutors and the knowledge of the cultural norms and behaviour. All these external factors constitute context which usually influence or affect the meaning and help the language speaker to understand meaning in appropriate manner. Schiffrin (1994) categorically declares that:

Context is thus a world filled with people producing utterances: people who have social, cultural and personal identities, knowledge, beliefs, goals and wants and who interact with one another in various socially and culturally defined situations. (363)

The idea of context is credited to Malinowski's context of situation which refers to the context in which language users or participants in discourse find themselves. To understand and interpret discourse in a proper manner, the context of situation is indispensable (Daramola 2005: 67). A text occurs in a context of situation. According to Halliday, There are three components of context of situation, field, tenor and mode. The three components help us to center our attention on a specific speech situation by making the features of a text explicit. Each of these components makes the study of discourse explicit. Field of discourse refers to the action that is taking place and the purpose that language is performing in context of the social relationship among them. Mode of discourse refers to the role of language in communication particularly as a channel or medium of communication. The mode can either be spoken or written.

Interpreting Discourses: Key aspects of contexts crucial to the production and interpretation of discourse

- 1. Situational context: What people know about the environment they are in (physical, social, linguistic).
- 2. Co-textual context: the amount of information people know about what they have been saying.

Background context: the background information people already have about each other and the world (cultural knowledge, interpersonal knowledge, knowledge about life, norms and expectations of particular discourse communities) How is meaning produced?

2.7.3 Cohesion

Cohesion is defined as "the way certain words or grammatical features of a sentence can connect that sentence to its predecessors and successors in a text" (Hoey 1996: 3). According to Tarnyikova, the cohesion refers to "a surface structure linkage between elements of a text" (2009:30).

Cohesion is the grammatical and lexical relationships of different elements that hold the text together. (Čechova 2008). Halliday and Hasan (1976) speak about cohesive links (cohesive ties) usually divided into 5 groups: conjunction, reference, substitution, ellipsis and lexical cohesion.

Grammatical cohesion comports morphological categories such as tense, verbal mood, verbal voice, definiteness and some syntactic categories such as recurrence of a sentence pattern, recursiveness, and junction. Lexical replacements such as (repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy and others) are involved in the Lexical

2.7.4 Coherence

We can say that a piece of writing is coherent if it is visibly organized and has a logical sequence of ideas that keep the focus on the topic or the main idea. It influences the reception of the message by the interlocutor since it enables a text to make sense to readers. It does not exist in language but in people. People determine whether what they read makes sense or not because they try to arrive at an interpretation and an understanding which is line with their experience. It is possible for a text to make sense without cohesive ties. Such text has coherence but lacks cohesion.

To achieve the semantic unity in the text we use some elements that are called the cohesive devices. Halliday and Hasan (1976) recognize five major types of cohesive devices: references, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

2.7.5 Reference

Reference is realized by personal pronouns (I, he, hers, our, etc) and demonstrative (that, this, those, etc), it is the relation between an element of a text and the personal pronoun or demonstrative which refers to it for interpretation in a given context. Words used as references cannot stand by their own for they do not have their own meaning; we can only infer their meaning by referring to something else in the text. Halliday and Hasan (1976)

distinguish two major types of reference. First, Exophoric references are situational reference understood only by understanding the context because they refer to something outside the text. Second, Endophoric reference is within the text; it covers both anaphoric and cataphoric. Anaphoric is referring backwards to what has been said earlier in the text. Cataphoric reference is referring forwards to what will be said later in the text. For example:

'It was really hard to achieve' (Exophoric reference)

'Amina is sick, she couldn't come to school' (Anaphoric reference)'They really enjoyed, my friends loved the party' (Cataphoric reference)

2.7.6 Substitution

Substitution is avoiding repetition by replacing a word, phrase or clause with a word in the next clause. For example:

Nadji: pass me the bottle of water.

Mehdi: I don't have it anymore.

The cohesive item "it" is used to replace the sentence made by Nadji to avoid repeating it.

2.7.7 Ellipsis

It is a substitution by zero elements, the deletion of certain grammatical elements from a structure for cohesive purpose. Such grammatical elements are referred to as unnecessary elements, but they can be uniquely recovered. For example:

Malik: Did Mum see the note I left on the table?Said: She Might have done.

2.7.8 Conjunction

Conjunctions are the linkers used to indicate a relationship between clauses and sentences. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 320-322) state four specific conjunctive relations of 'and', 'yet', 'so' and 'then' which may occur either in external or internal context. Other scholars mention additive, temporal, adversative, casual and continuative relations of conjunction such as (in addition, for instance, however, finally, etc) (Onadeko 2000:99).

2.7.9 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical relationship exists when lexical items have a structural relationship; it is achieved through semantic through lexical devices such as repetition, equivalence, synonymy, hyponymy, collocation, etc. Lexical items are used as a cohesive device when the features of words and group of words are used to create relationships among the words. There are two types of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation. Reiteration simply means doing or saying the same thing several times.

2.8 Conversation Analysis

Conversation is either oral or spoken discourse that can be recorded for further researches. It is actual social talk, the naturally occurring utterances between participants in a social setting which follow the social regulations of organizing communication. Conversation analysis is an approach to discourse from sociology, the study of social interaction which seeks to discover the methods that members of a society use to produce a sense of social order, it embraces both verbal and non-verbal conduct in situations of everyday life, and conversation is a source of much of our social order (Schiffrin 1994: 232). As well named talk in interaction, in the early 1970s, it was introduced by Schegloff, Sacks and Jefferson. Where its main concern was the social order, how the social context is created from language, and how social context creates language. It is the approach to discourse that focuses on context, and the relevance of context is on text. It considers how participants in a conversation succeed in the construction of systematic solutions to frequent organizational problems of talk, and the solutions come throughout the close analysis of the chronological development of talk (Schiffrin 1994: 273). The basic premises of conversation analysis are:

- I. Language is considered as a form of social interaction.
- II. Conversational structures are rule-governed. It posits that verbal interactions are both structurally organized and contextually oriented. It is the duty of the analysts to elucidate the structures and determine how they are interrelated (Heritage 1984).

To make sure a conversation goes smooth and well organized, several mechanisms were created. One of these mechanisms is turn-taking, which is the method of allocating floor in conversation. When a participant of a conversation speaks, others listen, which allows others to speak when his turn is over by giving a sign. It is the basic characteristic of normal conversation which can be done either by declaring the next speaker or the next speaker just

take the floor without being appointed, or the current speaker continues if the next speaker refuses to take the floor (Coulthard 1985: 59, Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson 1974: 704). Another mechanism is adjacency pair which is a unit of conversation that contains two utterances, when the exchange structures are in pairs, different speakers produce them taking one turn after another in a sequence. They are always complementary and reciprocatory with features such as greeting and response, complaint and apology, question and answer, challenge and reaction. Each sequence of the conversation is characterized by an opening, exchange and closing. We find as well the insertion sequence which is a sequence of turns that intervenes the first and the second parts of the adjacency pair. It is used as a delay tactics to gain time for when people do not want to provide a direct response to an elicitation until they are sure of what to say. When there is a failure or misunderstanding within the conversation we employ the repair mechanism. There may also be overlapping which must be avoided.

2.9 Discourse Analysis and Pragmatics

Pragmatics is one of the most vibrant and rapidly growing fields in linguistics that studies how context contributes to meaning; it is a complex subject with all kinds of disciplinary influences with almost no boundaries. It is the study of meaning in relation to the context in which language used. It is a general functional cognitive perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in form of behavior; it is the systematic study of meaning by virtue, or dependent on, the use of language. The origin of pragmatics was traced back to Morris (1938) who defined it as a branch of semiotics (Schiffrin 1994: 191, Osisanwo 2003/2005: 49). Pragmatics unlike semantics which is the study of meaning of language looks at the aspect of meaning and language use that is dependent on the speaker and the listener (Wales 1989: 365, Yule 1996: 1). Using pragmatic as an approach to discourse means the investigation of meaning of language beyond the literal meaning, therefore, looking at the meaning in the context of discourse between the participants, that is to say, communicative meaning. Pragmatics assumes that when people are communicating, they as a rule follow some kind of cooperative principle, it has some basic principles that everyone who is familiar with it must know in order to apply it, which are: implicature, presupposition, speech acts, deixis, reference, and context, and the division of labour between, and the interaction of, pragmatics and semantics (see also Huang 2007, 2013c, 2014: 2, 2016). They are explained below.

2.9.1 Utterance and Context

Utterance is a unit of discourse or speech that is uttered in a context. Context is the setting, all physical, social and cultural situations that surround discourse. For the meaning to derive from the Utterance, this latter must be considered within its context.

2.9.2 Implicature

This is implicit meaning or something implied in conversational context which is distinct from what is said.

2.9.3 Entailment

It is logical implication, the relationship between two sentences where the truth of a sentence requires the truth of the other sentence. Entailments are communicated without being said and are not dependent on the speaker's intention.

2.9.4 Presupposition

It is the background knowledge or belief, the implicit assumption related to an utterance, shared and assumed to be true by the participants in discourse which makes them to understand the appropriate context of discourse.

2.9.5 Deixis

for understanding the meaning of certain words and phrases in an utterance, contextual information are required to convey meaning, reference items are used in utterances, and such items depend on the context of the utterance. Frequent deictic words are 'I, you, we, now, here, there, that etc. There are different kinds of deixis which are: discourse deixis, personal deixis, place deixis, time deixis and social deixis.

2.10 Speech Acts

Understanding how people communicate is actually a process of interpreting not just what they 'intend to mean' (imply). Some issues related to pragmatics, what the speaker intend to say, are: speech act theory, conversational implicature and politeness theory In order to know the certain functions of the said words, instead of asking what the speaker is trying to say, we ask what the speaker is trying to do?!

Speech act theory attempts to explain how speakers use language to accomplish intended actions and how listeners determine the intended meaning from what is said. Two influential works in this area are Austen's (1962) 'How to Do Things with Words', and Searle's (1969) 'Speech Act'. Their work appeared during the time when logical positivism prevailed, which stressed that: Language is to describe a fact or a state of affairs. If a statement cannot be tested for truth or falsity, it is meaningless. They argued that language is used to do things other than refer to the truth or falseness of statements.

Austin introduced the theory in the year 1962. He observed that there are sentences that look like statements but have more functions than just stating. These are: Constative, ethical propositions, performative, and expositive.

Speech act theory focuses on the fact that by saying something one is also doing something. Discourse analysts working in this tradition have elaborated complex typologies of different sorts of speech act and have tried to explain different aspects of communication, such as psychiatric interviews, by trying to identify the intended meanings of a speaker's utterance and the responses of hearers, Howarth (2002: 6-7).

Austin and Searle argue that language is used to do things that go beyond the literal meaning of what we say and thus, language is used to perform actions -- a speech act is an utterance that has a performative function-- the functions of speech acts often include such acts as suggesting, greeting, ordering, warning, and promising, apologizing, inviting and congratulating. In order that a speech act qualify as performative there must exist an accepted conventional procedure, and this latter must be executed by the right person.

2.10.1 Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

In order to accomplish a direct speech act, there must be a direct relationship between a structure and a function. Whenever there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function, there is an indirect speech act.

2.10.2 Austin's Felicity Conditions

Austin argued that for a speech act to work, it must meet certain felicity conditions. A successful speech act must be in a generally accepted procedure (e.g., a birthday party invitation). The conditions must be appropriate for the use of the speech act (e.g., it must be someone's birthday). The person who uses the speech act must be the appropriate person to use it in the particular context (e.g., a member of the family or an invited friend). The person performing the speech act must be empowered (i.e. have the required thoughts, feelings, and intentions for the speech act to be). Or else, the speech act will go wrong or be undertaken.

2.10.3 Searle's Felicity Conditions

For Searle, speech acts must respect some general conditions. The hearer must hear and be familiar with the language. The speaker must be serious and not pretending or play-acting.

Searle had also put forward conditions specific to declarations and directives. The speaker must believe that it is possible to bear out the action. The act must be performed in the hearer's best interests. The speaker must be sincere about his will to do it. Words count as the acts.

According to Austin in *How to do things with words* (1962), there are three types of acts that occur simultaneously in every utterance: Locutionary, Illocutionary and Perlocutionary.

2.10.4 Locutionary Act

Perform an act of saying something (the literal meaning of the actual words); what does he say?

e.g. I am fed up of living here. (Literal or derived meaning)

2.10.5 Illocutionary Act

Perform an act in saying something; what does he do? (The pragmatic force of the utterance, the intention of the speaker when uttering those words).

e.g. Things get worse; I am suffocating here. (primary or derived)(might mean let me go.)

Searle (1969) suggests that Illocutionary of speech acts consists of five general classifications: Representative, Directives, Commissives, Expressives, and Declarations

2.10.5.1 Representatives

Utterances used to describe some state of affairs, the statement may be judged true of false , the speaker may assert a proposition to be true , using such verbs as believe, think, affirm, deny, report ,etc .for example: this shirt belongs to my brother . I confirm that this shirt belongs to my brother.

2.10.5.2 Directives

Utterances used to get the hearer to do or not to do something; they express what the speaker wants, for example: can you please hand me the salt?

2.10.5.3 Commissives

Utterances used to commit the speaker to do some act, they express what the speaker intends, for example: I will fix the door tomorrow.

2.10.5.4 Expressives

Utterances used to express the emotional state of the speaker, expressing what the speaker feels, for example: I'm so sorry!

2.10.5.5 Declarations

Utterances used to change the state of some entity, in order to perform a declaration properly; the speaker has to have a special institutional role in a specific context.

2.10.6 Perlocutionary Act

The effect of the utterance upon the hearer; what for? (the actual effect of the utterance)

2.10.6.1 The Cooperative Principles

Grice (1975) introduces the 'Cooperative Principle' approach as a communication activity to describe how conversation operates. He also introduces the concept of 'Conversational Implicature' to describe how we infer unstated meanings in ordinary conversations. The Cooperative Principle is how people cooperate together when they are in conversation in order to understand each other, and in order to the conversation to proceed successfully and meaningfully. People try to get along with each other by following certain conversational rules or obeying what Grice (1975) calls 'maxims of conversation'. These are four: Maxim of Quantity Maxim of Quality Maxim of Relation Maxim of Manner

2.10.6.2 Maxim of Quantity

is making your contribution as informative as is required but not more, or less than is required. Example:

A: how do I log in my account?B: use your family name as the ID and your birthday date as the password.

2.10.6.3 Maxim of Quality

is avoiding to say what you believe to be false or for which you lack adequate evidence Example

A: why did you wake up so early? B: I couldn't sleep more; I love to wake up at 6 in the morning to attend the discourse analysis course.

2.10.6.4 Maxim of Relevance

is being relevant, making the contribution directly to the point Example:

A: There is somebody in our room. B: I'm in the bath.

2.10.6.5 Maxim of Manner

is being clear, brief and orderly, avoiding obscurity of expression, and ambiguity. Example:

> A: Let's stop and get something to eat. B: Okey, but not M-C-D-O-N-A-L-D-S

"They should be sincerely, relevantly and clearly whilst providing sufficient information" (Levison, 1983)

2.11 Critical Linguistics

Generally, the CDA and Critical Linguistics are but one thing, since they are used in place of each other (Wodak, 2006:1); however, CDA is a more "refined, broadened and changed" approach compared to its ancestor (Wodak, 2006:5); an ancestral school which influenced the development of CDA so strongly.

The story of CL^9 started in the 1970s at the University of East Anglia when specialists there used for the first time the term Critical Linguistics in their research works on the various language use in institutional settings. The first works of discourse analysts focused on surface and structural features of language.

According to Mason, (2006), integrating social elements made the new tendency appear with the "Cultural Turn" in discourse analysis. The main objective of Critical Linguistics has become the relation between language, people and social processes (Mason, 2007:341). Wodak, (2006:5) basing his studies on those of Roger Fowler, Robert Hodge, and Gunther Kress assumed that there was a strong link between linguistic structure and social structure, and discuss the relations between linguistic processes and their ideological motivations (Kress & Hodge, 1979).

In (Mason, 2007) two further assumptions distinguishing this approach appear:

- 1. Language is central in constructing social realities,
- 2. Language, in addition to having a communicative role/function, serves as a means of control (Mason, 2007, p. 342).

2.12 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)¹⁰

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is that subdivision of applied linguistics that is concerned with the study of discourse and language in relation to social and political issues to

⁹ Critical linguistic

¹⁰ https://www.researchgate.net/publication/306959405

discover the kind of influence they have on each other. As said supra and according to Fairclough, (2003), the relation between language and social reality, all the kinds of events, is reflected in texts, social practices (orders of discourse) and social structures (languages).

One of the most known specialists of CDA¹¹, Teun van Dijk, gives the following definition of the discipline:

"Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality." (2001: 352)

From the quotation of Van Dijk, we can understand that CDA does not stand on one theoretical support but is a multidisciplinary branch of AL¹². Its objective is to study discourse in a critical way calling for various disciplines like: rhetoric, stylistics, sociolinguistics, pragmatics, ethnography, conversation analysis, etc. What is commonly accepted and can be said is that CDA asks and attempts to answer questions about the way any discourse structure is used in conveying social hierarchical influence of different strays of society such as: *ideology, political dominance, power, control, gender issues, race/racism,* and *discrimination against strangers*, etc. This lays on the hypothesis of CDA that within any interaction, speakers use language items that reflect their social position status and capacity of influence.

2.13 Ideology and Discourse

Among the central terms in CDA, the one of Ideology, since, generally accepted as the notion that reflects better the link between discourse and society (Van Dijk¹³ 1997:2004). Just like language, ideology is social: the members of a community use it in maintaining a successful interaction, by developing a necessary framework that allows them to communicate and act as members of their community, sharing an identity, a culture and the same values.

¹¹ Critical Discourse Analysis

¹² Applied linguistics

¹³ Within CDA, it is Teun van Dijk who has developed and is still developing a theory which intends to specify the internal structures and contents of ideologies

As stated by Van Dijk, (1997:25), it is also through discourse that ideologies are transmitted in society by dominant groups, in so doing; they reproduce their authority and domination on other groups and stand their hegemony.

From another side, ideologies are *mental representations*. This means that they have also a cognitive role in organizing beliefs, and thus form the basis of **social cognition** and at the sa; e time the basis of **discourse** as explained by Van Dijk who states that they refer to "the shared knowledge and attitudes of a group" (1997: 29).

2.13.1 Ideological effects in discourse

According to Fairclough, (1995), Ideology in discourse is reflected in the lexical, grammatical and textual items and whenever there are changes in language items, it indicates a different ideology. A great number of discourse analyses within the CDA approach deal with how language contains the different aspects of authority, **power**, **sexual discrimination** and **social inequalities**. Consequently, the topics generally treated in many research works have titles such as: *professional power*, *institutional power*, *gender inequality*, *racism*, *ethnocentrism*, *the enactment of power through media discourse or through political discourse*, among others.

2.14 Models of Critical Discourse Analysis

2.14.1 Fairclough's Model

The work of Norman Fairclough (1989, 1992a & b, 1995) presents a comprehensive and programmatic attempt to develop a theory of CDA which links discourse, power and social structure.

In the field of CDA, Fairclough is known to be the one who put a model considered as the basis of all the domain of CDA, a sort of a theoretical framework, through the proposal of the major guiding principles for CDA research. For Fairclough(2001:21), language is an important part of social life; it is shaped by the material and social conditions in which it is produced. From Fairclough's point of view, discourse is a three-dimensional concept which involves:

1) texts (the objects of linguistic analysis),

2) discourse practices (the production, distribution and consumption of texts) and

3) *social practices* (the power relations, ideologies and hegemonic struggles that discourses reproduce, challenge or restructure).

2.14.2 The Model of Van Dijk

Van Dijk is another theoretician in the field of CDA who has worked on text grammars and psychological theories before. In Van Dijk, (2004), he understood that the grammars and theories had very little to do with the real problems of this world and was, thus, pushed to turn to CDA. As an example he evoked the questions related to "racism"; a problem, which for him must be studied in relation to discourse since it is generally expressed, reproduced or legitimated through text and talk.

2.14.3 Ruth Wodak' Model

Ruth Wodak (1989) is another theoretician belonging to the field of CDA, her approach is commonly known as critical *linguistics*. *It is* as an interdisciplinary study to language with a critical point of view in which language behavior is approached in natural speech situations of social relevance. Wodak, R. uses in her analysis different methods and focuses on the historical and social aspects in order to denounce social inequality and injustice,

It is also interesting to speak of Wetherell et al. (2001), who have chosen to base their study of CDA on *semiosis referring to* all forms of meaning-making: visual images, body language and verbal language. For them social life is a sort of interconnected networks of *social practices* and each practice having a semiotic element.

The approach chosen in our study combines different points of view. In order to analyze the text of our corpora accordingly, i.e. we intend to unveil the functions and strategies through language thinking that clearly, speakers, migrants and anti migration persons, in our case, have reasons for saying something and for saying it in the way they do. We think that CDA can be the appropriate approach to supply answers to our firstly advance hypotheses. We can sum up the principal ideas of CDA as summarized by Fairclough & Wodak (1997: 271):

- 1. CDA addresses social problems
- 2. Power relations are discursive
- 3. Discourse constitutes society and culture
- 4. Discourse does ideological work
- 5. Discourse is historical
- 6. The link between text and society is mediated
- 7. Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory
- 8. Discourse is a form of social action

2.15 Steps to follow when doing CDA

Wetherell et al (2001: 236) propose an analytical framework for doing CDA which is modelled upon Bhaskar's (1986) concept of *explanatory critique*. We reproduce it here as a useful guide for the student or reader who wants to 'embark' upon CDA:

2.16 An Analytical framework for CDA

Stage 1: Focus upon a social problem that has a semiotic aspect.

Beginning with a social problem rather than the more conventional 'research question' accords with the critical intent of this approach –the production of knowledge which can lead to emancipatory change.

Stage 2: Identify obstacles to the social problem being tackled. You can do this through analysis of:

b) the network of practices it is located within

- c) the relationship of semiosis to other elements within the particular practice(s) concerned
- d) the discourse (the semiosis itself) by means of
 - structural analysis: the order of discourse
 - interactional analysis
 - interdiscourse analysis
 - linguistic and semiotic analysis

The objective here is to understand how the problem arises and how it is rooted in the way social life is organized, by focusing on the obstacles to its resolution –on what makes it more or less intractable.

Stage 3: Consider whether the social order (network of practices) 'needs' the problem.

The point here is to ask whether those who benefit most from the way social life is now organized have an interest in the problem *not* being resolved. 193

Stage 4: Identify possible ways past the obstacles. This stage in the framework is a crucial complement to Stage 2 - it looks for hitherto unrealized possibilities for change in the way social life is currently organized.

Stage 5: Reflect critically on the analysis (Stages 1-4). This is not strictly part of Bhaskar's explanatory critique but it is an important addition, requiring the analyst to reflect on where s/he is coming from, and her/his own social positioning.



Figure 4. CDA approaches and their theoretical backgrounds (Reproduced from Wodak & Meyer 2009a, p.20)

Conclusion

In this chapter we have tried to demonstrate that DA is a mixture of discourse analysis that goes beyond the sentence and seeks to identify the regularities of the context of language use, added to the level of the linguistic analysis; in other words both linguistic and extralinguistic dimensions are taken into consideration. Following this line, it is clear that the use of theoretical insights concerning this relationship between language and context can be exploited to reach the resolution of a number of practical problems in many domains that involve language use as a central component.

We have chosen to use some of the CDA's steps in analysis and applied it on an argumentative discourse. On this premise, and in the following chapter qualified to be "practical", the analysis of a corpus of exchanged messages on the web in which are engaged people desiring to migrate 'harraga" looking for a better life and those who try to discourage them is likely to unveil their linguistic strategies using appropriate arguments to convince themselves and the others of the legitimate act of fleeing their.

Chapter 3: Analysis Applied to a Corpus of Migrants Messages and Anti migration Polemists

Introduction

When we speak or when we write, we produce a discourse, and when we want to make someone adhere to the defended theses we are part of the argumentative function of the discourse, where the speaker is called upon to use a set of language acts based on discursive logic for argumentative purposes, in other words, to use argumentative strategies.

In the previous chapters, it was a question of providing all the theoretical conceptions of what we will describe, analyze or interpret in what follows. So, it will be a question of bringing all the knowledge into reality and collecting so much of the main and necessary data for the completion of this work.

Any argumentative speech seeks to convince and persuade the receiver by putting forward arguments, arousing their emotions or even by using different figures of speech in order to make them adopt the opinion of the arguer and share their thoughts. And to do this, the latter needs some kind of "weapon" which can enable him to make his speech more effective, and achieve the intended objective; and this is what we will try to develop and analyze in this step.

We, therefore, aim to carry out a qualitative and functional analysis of the immediate constituents of an argumentative discourse, and consequently, we treat our corpus at a deeper level and from a double point of view, the first linked to an enunciative aspect and the second has a pragmatic aspect. This is meant to better explain the different argumentative and discursive techniques and strategies and to provide answers to our questions expressed while posing our problematic. This will allow us, subsequently, to do a microanalysis of our corpus and make the desired comparison, in the next step.

3.1 A Critical study on Immigration

First of all, we know that according to many research works conducted in Europe in relation to immigration the macro strategy proposed by Teun Van Dijk years earlier, the one based on the "*positive-self and negative-other*" (Rojo & Van Dijk, 1997) is widely dominating. It clearly focuses on and reinforces a *negative* specification of the *Other* and *positive* attributes of the *Self* but the *positive* attributes of the *Other* and *negative* attributes of the *Self* are mitigated or neglected. In the following chapter, we are trying to adopt a critical perspective and position on migrants' representations which is built, in opposition to that of the Europeans, on ' *a negative-self and positive- other or them*". So through a myriad of analytical frameworks and a chosen variety of data, we point to the most prominent media depictions of migrants', anti and pro-migration persons argumentative to identify how the different positions are conveyed through linguistic and discursive items; a kind of exploration into the argumentation strategies adopted in the public media discourse.

We stress a major point here, however, which that the representation of the self by migrants and by the others is not limited to linguistic analyses of messages exchanged on the web, but also built on a multimodal discourse analysis which embraces the analysis of non-linguistic elements of discourse such as: social cultural elements and, ideological backgrounds.

3.2 Research Design

The study is based on narratives taken from messages or excerpts produced as answers to a question (*1a1 in appendices*) that we addressed through Facebook on illegal migration. We have used only some of the discourses of the correspondents from our corpora. The research explored the most significant argumentative discursive strategies of migrants and of the who are either pro or against illegal migration. In the figure below, we give a global view of the research design:

Figure. 5. Research design



3.3 Statement of Purpose

This research focuses on the argumentative discourse and tries to give an account after it identifies the different argumentative strategies that the language allows through linguistic items, and discursive utterances. People whether pro or against illegal immigration express their opinions and lay their feelings using an appropriate language for arguing. We try to get a set of argumentative discourses, hoping that this will lead us to answer the main question: How does language translate peoples' opinions into argumentative strategies on the phenomenon of the illegal immigration?

3.4 Aim of the Research

This research aims at understanding how language is used in real life situation. Examining how language functions and how meaning is created in different social contexts, extracting the linguistic features and linguistics items that reflect the use of language in argumentative strategies, focusing on the social aspects of communication and the ways people use language to achieve specific effects, such as evoking emotions, creating doubt, or managing conflict. With the schemes of argumentation and the linguistic means that appeared in their conversations, the migrants show the reasons of their migration.

3.5 Research Motivation

Illegal immigration is an interesting, emotion evoking subject to Algerians since each year thousands of people of all ages and genders leave Algeria knowing they can die within the process. We are conducting this research to understand the reasons that pushed and still pushing a lot of our relatives, friends and people we know to take such suicidal decisions to leave their homeland and everything they know behind them. We want to identify those reasons through their argumentative strategies, to see how language is used to reveal feelings and position towards illegal immigration.

3.6 Methodology

Our study focuses on analyzing a corpus on illegal migration; it is a twofold research; investigative and informative, and the collected corpora belong to foreigners and to Algerians of different ages and genders. We are concerned with different arguments put forward by the

target sample in order either to convince themselves, and the others or to justify such risky decisions, to finally, as they believe, they will find a better life beyond the seas, either they are pro or anti illegal migration, different points of view reflect the use of language. From what we have collected, we will choose at least 10 corpuses to analyze and extract the different linguistics features, such as discursive strategies, and linguistic items that characterize discourse held by the target sample.

In this chapter, we describe and analyze the data of the study; some messages chosen from the facebook space and excerpts from articles from the public media. This is followed by a discussion of analysis of this study. Then, an argument as to why we have adopted methodic triangulation is presented. The drawbacks of Corpus Linguistics (CL) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) are both outlined and hence the justification for a mixed methodology is highlighted.

3.7 Methodic triangulation

As said before, our study has adopted methodic triangulation which is in research defined by Olsen (2004: 3) as the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints or standpoints put light upon a topic. The use of three distinct analytical frameworks such as argumentative discourse analysis, **Critical Linguistics (CL)** as well as the CDA is one example of methodic triangulation. "The combination of methodologies traditionally associated with CDA (DHA) and CL in research projects, and their potential theoretical and methodological cross-pollination, seem to benefit both CDA and CL". (Baker et al, 2008, p. 297)

Our choice to mobilize some of CDA's theoreticians is because, as stated by Wetherell et al (2001), CDA through its Analytical *framework focuses upon social problems that have a semiotic aspect.* According to Fairclough, (2003), one of the most famous theoreticians, the relation between language and social reality, all the kinds of events, is reflected in texts, social practices (orders of discourse) and social structures (languages).

3.8 Data sampling for qualitative Discourse Analysis and Critical Discourse Analysis

The corpora are ideal forms of data for the discourse analysis. However, conducting a qualitative CDA of each and every part in the corpus was not possible within the timeframe of

a master research. Therefore it was necessary to select a suitable number of messages and some excerpts from articles taken from the public media for detailed qualitative analysis.

3.9 The data

So, the data for this study consists of messages from the web (facebook) as an answer to a question (*Cf. to (1a1) in appendices*) addressed from our part to some internet users and passages from some public media written by anti-migration polemists and speeches of politicians. In sum, we believe that an analysis of this corpus offers interesting insights into how migrants represent themselves and are represented in the public media Discourse Analysis of our corpora.

The focus in this conception is on the regularities which utterances illustrate when sited in contexts. Thus, it is clear that the aspects of the world in which an utterance is used can also add to the meaningfulness of discourse. Van Els et al. (1984), in this respect, argue that 'the study of language in context will offer a deeper insight into how meaning is attached to utterances than the study of language in isolated sentences' (p.94).

3.10 The Speech/Discourse

At the outset, it should be pointed out that discourse is a very broad notion which is not yet stable; the great extension of the concept "discourse" prevents it from having a single definition accepted by all researchers. Maingueneau, D., (1979: 11) confirmed this polysemy by saying: "[...] *linguists and non-linguists base the concept of 'discourse' often in uncontrolled use, and when some have a very restrictive conception, others make a very loose synonym for "text" or "statement"*.

Sometimes, in the Saussurian sense, which limits the field of linguistics as the study of language, "speech" is synonymous with "speech", and in the past it designates a message. Charles Bally, in his treatise on stylistics, exposed in 1909 the principles of a linguistics speech, which oppose the Saussurian way of which speech is rehabilitated and which seek in the relationship maintained by the speaking subject, his speech and the context.

The instability of the notion of discourse makes it impossible to attempt to give a single, precise definition adopted by all discourse researchers. Finally, we will come to remember that the term "speech" currently, and unlike the recent past, not only presents oral statements

but also written texts. Therefore, discourse designates any oral or written realization of the dimension of the sentence or beyond supported in a context, or the conditions of communication to which it is anchored and which give it its meaning.

3.11 The Implicit Speech

With the aim of telling him a fact, questioning him, convincing him, acting on him or simply transmitting information to him, the speaker addresses himself to others through several acts which ensure and accomplish the desired task.

And to do so, in his speech, and alongside its explicit content, we find the implicit which is used to express itself in various ways through indirect and difficult to detect processes, and which presupposes linguistic and cultural skills to the receiver, sufficiently close to those of himself. For Blanchet, P., (1995: 90): "*The implicit is everywhere, because everything is not said, and you have to get involved in social conversations to produce meaning*"

E.g. (1a2)

They start bringing lots and lots of immigrants and they place then in some place. The city that has it's own tradition and culture it's really hard to get the immigrants adapt...instead they are creating no-go zones and crime levels are sky rocketing.

In this statement what is said hides many other things. The fact this speaker tries to convince he, says explicitly that the problem of immigrants is one of difficulty of adaptation to the culture of the host country that has *« it's own tradition and culture »* which, implicitly means his refusal, and not only, but that immigrants are dangerous because their culture is different. It might even be inferior, even violent since it's *« hard to get them adapt »*.

As stated by Fairclough (2011) "discursive practices may have major ideological effects". Language is always crossed with ideology, and it plays a central role in the production, manipulation and influence of social power relations (Fairclough, 2001). Sometimes, those in control of the dominant discourse use linguistic choices to frame immigrants as strangers and as dangerous 'Others' is not new.

So, we opt for an enunciative and pragmatic analysis of the discourse, and we find it important to define the presence of the implicit which constitutes a fundamental dimension, as well, for the enunciation as for the semantic analysis in our statements, by looking at two components considered as subcategories of implicitation: they are the *presupposition* and the *implication*.

3.12 The Presupposition

As we pointed out before, the implicit is used in order to make read a representation taking into account the complicity of the interlocutor, who must interpret it, and assuming to pass it without being responsible for what was said, but, its subcategory, the presupposition, and despite its implicit status, is given as a reminder of a knowledge internalized in the utterance, and engages the enunciator as responsible even if he considers what he says as common knowledge or belief.

Maingueneau, D. (1983: 135), defines it, by taking up the words of O. Ducrot, as:

A particular speech act, just like affirmation, questioning or order (...); to presuppose is not to say that the listener knows, or that one thinks that he knows or should know, but to place the dialogue in the hypothesis that he can already play the role of someone whose listener knows that (...), linguistic attitude, talking game.

During our research, we were able to detect several statements with presuppositions, we chose as examples:

E.g. 1: It is high time to end this human escape with real acts in favor of the young Algerian, and not with traditional promises not fulfilled.

In this statement we find:

Posed: Promises have not been kept.

Presumption: Promises have already been made.

E.g.2: They face the worst of situations, wanting to change a life, graduate an evolution, these young people try a chance, ...

Posed: Young people want to change.

Presumption: They live in bad conditions.

The speaker uses this referral technique to justify the choice of "HARRAGA" who want to try their luck and change their living conditions despite what they face (the worst of situations), by giving them reason, implicitly, because he presupposes that "they experience a certain discomfort (changing, graduating, trying...)".

3.13 Argumentative Analysis

Think about a discourse situation where the speaker tries to prove to the hearer a particular point of view. The speaker formulates persuasive arguments as the foundation to convince his audience. First step the hearer is going to do is to understand the idea the speaker wants him to believe. Second step, the hearer is going to analyze the structure of the argument being presented, afterwards judging credibility and eventually responding.

3.13.1 Convince or Persuade

The act of convincing consists at changing the hearer's mind or position towards a certain point.

3.13.2 Analysis of Arguments

To analyze an argument, we should look at what makes the argument 'work', in other words, what makes it valid and acceptable to the receiver. Some aspects contribute to make an argument valid; we should consider the ways the argument is tailored for particular listeners or readers, for a particular reason and in a particular context, this first aspect is referred to as rhetorical. Second aspect considers the extent to which the arguments follow the laws of reason and logic, and avoid fallacies in its reasoning; we refer to this aspect as logical. But, since logos have long been considered as an element of rhetoric, the rhetorical and logical aspects may overlap. In order to approach the argument analysis, one should think of it as a critique. In a critique, we systematically examine and evaluate a piece of writing or a speech and the author's logic; we may assess his persuasive or rhetorical strategies. In order to persuade their readers, writers must use three types of proofs or rhetorical appeals. They are **logos**, or logical appeal; **pathos**, or emotional appeal; and **ethos**, or ethical appeal, or appeal based on the character and credibility of the author. It is easy to notice that modern words "logical," "pathetic," and "ethical" are derived from those Greek words. In his work Rhetoric, Aristotle writes that the three appeals must be used together in every piece of persuasive discourse. An argument based on the appeal to logic, or emotions alone will not be an effective one¹⁴.

3.13.2.1 Ethos

It is an appeal to ethics, and it is a way of convincing the audience of the character or credibility of the persuader.

E.g. (ca1)

Such crap. <u>I will complain</u>...immigrants must come to America legally. How hard is that to understand?...<u>I don't mind</u> what color your skin is..just be a good human, and do it the legal way.

Here we can see how this speaker is, by his own implication, trying to persuade, in answering through presenting, what is ethically acceptable, from his own point of view, legal migration.

3.13.2.2 Pathos

It is an appeal to emotion, in this appeal; emotional response is created in order to convince an audience of an argument.

E.g. (1a2)

The situation in our country <u>is really miserable..a lot of obstacles</u>, that's why most youth are <u>not satisfied and less motivated</u>, they want to try immigration for the main reason which is <u>looking for better life although it's dangerous...</u>

Convincing by emotions in addition to some evidences from the daily life is a way of argumentation that pushes the intervening person to focus on the emotional side, "*looking for a better life*", is a quite legitimate reason which deserves the sacrifice, "*although it is dangerous*".

However, emotions can be used on the side of those who are against in order to prove that immigrants are the source of troubles, and make the locals scared:

¹⁴ Aristotle. *Rhetoric*. <u>http://classics.mit.edu/Aristotle/rhetoric.1.i.html</u> (consulted on april, 21)

E.g. (1a2)

The immigrants to adapt...instead they are creating no-go zones and crime levels are sky rocketing..

3.13.2.3 Logos

It is an appeal to logic, in this appeal; reason is used as a way of persuasion. In the following example, the person seems trying to use reason:

E.g. (1a2)

Nothing is <u>worth risking life</u>, our country doesn't encourage, it's better to emigrate...but in legal way, there are many examples of people who succeed without immigration.

In this intervention, it is clear that it is a call for reason which does not condemn emigration but prefers it to be "*in legal way*". There is also a willing to make a difference between success and emigration by stating that many succeed in their home countries.

3.13.2.4 Subjective Evidence

It is the evidence that we cannot verify, we can either believe them or reject them. On the other hand, **objective evidence** is evidences that we can examine and evaluate their credibility for ourselves.

We can see this in the numerous examples extracted from our corpus, the speakers generally express their own opinions which are mainly subjective. They even try, unconsciously, to over generalize. However, we can accept a statement such as "*illegal emigration equals risking life*", which stands on objective data based on some statics revealing the big number of people drowned in the sea while trying to reach the other side; but, hardly do we agree with the one that says '*they are creating a no-go zones*", which means all of them are dangerous criminals!

Argumentative relations model the discourse structure of arguments. They indicate which argument components are related and constitute the structure of argumentative discourse. Identifying argumentative discourse structures is strongly related to discourse analysis. The identification of argumentative relations postulates the identification of implicit as well as non-adjacent discourse relations. An argumentative discourse has two components in its structure. First, its central component which is the claim that is either supported or attacked by at least one premise; the claim is a controversial statement that should not be accepted by the hearer without additional explanation or support, that's the work of the premise; this latter underpins the validity of the claim. It is a reason given by a speaker for persuading his audience of the claim.

3.14 Argumentative Coherence

It is maintaining a well organized line of reasoning; not repeating ideas or jumping around, but keeping the focus on one central idea. Our corpus is a good example of that coherence since whatever is said, it is always related to the main topic of emigration, its reasons, its consequences, the major arguments of emigrants and the reactions of the others



Figure 6. The global structure of the Argumentative discourse 52

3.15 Different Types of Reasoning

Reasoning Is the process of grasping things in a logical, rational way. It is considered an innate human ability that has been formalized by fields such as logic mathematics and artificial intelligence. The process of reasoning is used to make decisions, solve problems and evaluate things. It can be formal or informal, top-down or bottom-up and differs in terms of handling of uncertainty and partial truths.

3.16 Deductive Reasoning

A crucial formal method of top-down logic of valid reasoning that starts with a general statement or hypothesis, and examines the odds to reach a specific, logical conclusion, it usually follows steps. First, there is a premise, and then second premises, and finally an inference, provided that the premises are true, deductive inference conclusions are certain. It is clear in the way things are developed in the reasoning of the speakers who generally go from a general statement (hypotheses) to reach very particular ones and make certain conclusions; we can give a set of examples to demonstrate that:

E.g. (1a5)

I always wanted to talk about this topic! I'm obviously against it because its suicide...young people nowadays immigrate cuz they think that they will live survive there but it's not true they won't survive...what we see in social media or movies does not show the real image of those countries...people go there some survive but most die from hunger...people who live there always treat you as an outsider they will never accept you...Even tho Algeria isn't that much of good country but someone has to try to change it to become a good country... We shouldn't run away from our country we should change it.

In this quite long message, the speaker goes from a general statement, the problem of emigration, explains the reasons, which are not justified for him/her and arrives at last to some conclusions that are presented as certain.

- 1. Illegal emigration is not a good thing/a risky task (*a first premise*)
- 2. It is hard to live on the other side (survival)
- 3. Life is difficult in Algeria
- 4. But it is possible to change it (*a second premise*)
- Even though, the conclusion is true and possible but it is not reality, however, to make a change, these people should make efforts to change rather than running after false dreams. (*a deductive inference*)

3.16.1 Inductive Reasoning

Unlike the deductive reasoning, this is the bottom-up logic; it looks for theories to explicate observations. It is exploratory in nature and allows for uncertain but

likely elements. We can find in our corpus a seducing image of the West world given either by the media or by those who have already emigrated. This makes our youngsters make inductions that life on the other side is a paradise and thus, worth all sacrifices. So, the word "Harga" is associated to good life, and we can have a great number of *examples*:

E.g. (1a4) ...they want to try illegal immigration for the main reason which is looking <u>for better life although it is dangerous</u>; they want <u>to succeed</u> in their studies, searching for good job; improve their life conditions in another country that give value to human efforts and energy.

E.g. (1a4)...so they will try to go there for living in a better place, making a good life...

E.g. (1a4) ... even people who have a stable situation worry about the future of their children and would like to leave the boat before the great flood...¹⁵

E.g.(1a4)... for over there(on the other side) you could realize what is left

unrealized of your dreams¹⁶...

From the entire above examples from our corpus we can make the following inductions:

- 1. Life is better on the other side
- 2. Life is bad in the home country
- 3. On the other sside we can realize our dreams
- 4. In our country home things are getting worse and may lead t a catastrophy.

3.16.2 Reasoning by Analogy

The type of inductive reasoning that argues that what is true in one set of circumstances will certainly be true in another different set of circumstances, which has been criticized on the basis that two set of circumstances can never be the same. The objective of using reasoning by analogy in persuasive speech is not to create absolutely certain conclusions but to mention cases and supporting evidence that can influence an audience.

¹⁵ Our translation of « ...même les gens qui on t une situation stable s'inquiète pour l'avenir de leurs enfants et pensent quitter la barque avant le grand deluge..."

¹⁶ Our translation from the dialectal arabic text « ... bach hnak ta9dr tréalise wach b9alk m tes rêves... »

When going through our corpus, we can witness a big number of speakers using such a strategy. They try to convince by making analogies in the two sides, which means those who are favorable to illegal emigration and those who are against. We can present here some examples.

E.g. (1a4) ... they want to try illegal immigration for the main reason which is looking for better life although it is dangerous; they want to succeed in their studies, searching for good job; improve their life conditions in another country that give value to human efforts and energy.

From this example, we can understand the comparison between a "here" and a "there", on the other side where all what is not here is there, job, opportunities, happiness, democracy, etc.

E.g.(1*a*4) There are many reasons: First is our country don't motivate youth, and the main one is unemployment don't give them at least a chance or even their rights for living a better life here...So they will try to go there for living in a better place, making a good life.

This example shows clearly how the speaker makes a comparison of what makes a difference, a better place so a better life on the other side.

3.16.3 Critical Thinking William Graham Sumner (1906)

Critical thinking is the examination and test of propositions of any kind which are offered for acceptance, in order to find out whether they correspond to reality or not. The critical faculty is a product of education and training. It is a mental habit and power. It is a prime condition of human welfare that men and women should be trained in it. It is our only guarantee against delusion, deception, superstition, and misapprehension of ourselves and our earthly circumstances.

This kind of thinking generally consists of stating the arguments unfavorable to a thesis, that is to say the reasoning that targets the person instead of relying on logic.

In this passage, we can clearly detect this type of reasoning, where the speaker rejects the opposite idea and demonstrates his inconsistency by targeting his opponent, and even by attacking him; for him "Emigration is the common cause of the lazy or dreamers".

E.g. (1a5)

I always wanted to talk about this topic! <u>I'm obviously against it because its</u> <u>suicide</u>...young people nowadays immigrate cuz they think that they will live survive there but it's not true they won't survive...what we see in social media or movies does not show the real image of those countries...people go there some survive but most die from hunger...people who live there always treat you as an outsider they will never accept you...

3.16.4 Concessional Reasoning

In argumentative speech and writing, the argument is supported by claims, or evidence. At times, the author also includes a concession, by pointing to the opposing viewpoint as acknowledged, by doing so, the speaker or writer lets the readers be aware that he or she took into consideration the other side of the argument and understands it. This makes the overall argument even stronger.

E.g. (1a2)

Nothing is worth risking life, our country doesn't encourage, it's better to emigrate...but in legal way, there are many examples of people who succeed without immigration.

We can see her that the speaker accepts the thesis of the opponent, and declares that life is difficult in the home country and that you are not encouraged in any way, but even when conceding, he/she keeps on arguing against illegal emigration, claiming that some people succeed without it.

3.16.5 Reasoning Through the Absurd

According to Petrakis, Peter Alan¹⁷, (1998 : 42), Camus, Albert, associates the feeling of absurdity with the feeling of exile. As rational members of human society, we instinctively feel that life has some sort of meaning or purpose. When we act under this assumption, we feel at home. As a result, absurdist feel like strangers in a world divested of reason. The feeling of absurdity exiles us from the homelike comforts of a meaningful

¹⁷ Petrakis, Peter Alan, "Albert Camus's Reconstruction of Symbolic Reality: Exile, Judgment, and Kingdom." (1998). *LSU Historical Dissertations and Theses*. 6697.

https://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/gradschool_disstheses/6697, consulted on April, 2nd, 21.

existence. From this perspective, all our actions, desires, and reasons seem absurd and pointless. The feeling of absurdity is closely linked to the feeling that life is meaningless.

This kind of reasoning consists in assuming the truth of a proposition and then, in demonstrating that it leads to an absurdity, to end in a contradiction.

E.g. (1a5)

I always wanted to talk about this topic! I'm obviously against it because its suicide...young people nowadays immigrate cuz they think that they will live survive there but it's not true they won't survive...what we see in social media or movies does not show the real image of those countries...people go there some survive but most die from hunger...people who live there always treat you as an outsider they will never accept you...

From this example, we can understand that it is really an absurdity to quit a country where you feel yourself ignored to go where you will, maybe, never accepted.

3.17 Logical Connectors

They are linkers which connect the semantical unit of language. Logical connectors are words used to join or link two ideas that have a particular relationship. These relationships differ from sequential (time), to reason and purpose, or adversative (opposition, contrast and/or unexpected result), condition. Within each category, a different type of connector is used to join the ideas or clauses, with different grammar and punctuation. These types are: Conjunctions, Prepositions, Subordinating conjunctions, Transitions and Conjunctive adverbs.

MOESCHLER, J. (2005: 62) defines them as follows:

- "The argumentative operator is a morpheme which, applied to a content, transforms the argumentative potentialities of this content. "

- "The argumentative connector is a morpheme which articulates two or more statements intervening in a single argumentative strategy."

We find some in or corpus that are really largely used such as: But, Because, Yet, While, At

least, so, for, etc. Examples of some logical connectors in our corpus
a. But:

E.g. (1a5)

young people nowadays immigrate cuz they think that they will live survive there <u>but</u> it's not true they won't survive...

...people go there some survive <u>but</u> most die from hunger...

The connector "but" in these examples shows the opposition that is meant by the speaker who tries to reject the arguments basing that on evident consequences, "most die" or simply, telling them the truth.

b. Because

This connector is used in its real context since we are in an argumentative context which requires that speakers or candidates to illegal emigration feel themselves obliged to explain the reasons/ causes of their acts.

E.g. (1a5)

I always wanted to talk about this topic! I'm obviously against it <u>because</u> its suicide...young people nowadays immigrate <u>cuz</u> they think that they will live survive there but it's not true they won't survive...what we see in social media or movies does not show the real image of those countries...

c. So

Whenever there are reasons/causes, there are consequences, and these are expressed by the connector "So".

E.g. (1a4) There are many reasons: First is our country don't motivate youth, and the main one is unemployment don't give them at least a chance or even their rights for living a better life here....<u>So</u> they will try to go there for living in a better place, making a good life.

3.18 Collocations

A collocation is the fact that words to co-occur. Sinclair, (199:170), defines them as "the occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a text". Words which occur in close proximity are referred to as collocates:

Collocates (words which frequently or significantly co-occur near or next to each other) can become fixed phrases that represent a packaging of information. Such phrases thus become entrenched in language use, and the information within them becomes difficult to pick apart or criticize. (pp. 127–128)

E.g. The collocation between <u>illegal</u> and <u>immigrant</u>; an <u>influx</u> of <u>migrants</u>; <u>Migrant inflow; wave</u> of <u>immigrants</u>; etc.

These collocation lead people, when repeated and fixed, to accept without question that the movement from one country to another under some circumstances is reprehensible, and, further, that all immigration is illegitimate.

We can sum in the following table some of collocates to the word migration:

Workers, illegal, suspected, dealers, muslims, dealing, target, compete, blame, blamed, communities, groups, vulnerable, crime, drug, etc.

E.g. They predicted an <u>influx of migrants</u> would spark development and said the market would pick up again. (Ct3)

3.19 Constructing One's Own Decision to Migrate

3.19.1 Construction of Representations

The literature on migration and on Europe migration in particular, reveals that youngsters migrate mostly because of the vision of a better life abroad.

Strauss and Feiz (2014) explain that "controlling the minds of others for the purpose of perpetuating such ideologies of power is discursively achieved, through contextual features of discourse as well as through linguistic forms" (p. 321).

Synthesizing Fairclough (2003) and Van Dijk (1993, 2006), Strauss and Feiz (2014), present a framework of linguistic strategies that serves as a means of "justifying, rationalizing, legitimizing, and perpetuating inequality, racism, and injustice, and thereby also controlling social cognition. This is from their side, the "them" side, positive representations of THEM (dominant, elite); using metaphors and analogies (reflecting positive self-representation—self as "savior," "benefactor," "normal" and negative other representation and negative representations of US (the powerless, the marginalized, the opposition, the migrants, etc...), moreover, these OTHERS as "vermin," "gluttons," "different," and "abnormal").

Contents of the messages	Emerging from the analytical process, the discourses of migrating were closely identified and associated with the thematic areas (contents).
Means and forms of realization	The experiences of migration were constructed using lexical and grammatical means from both sides: those who experienced migration, those who are about to do and anti migration.
Rhetorical and argumentative features of the text	They consisted of the means used by the speakers to convince a receiver of their point of view.
Strategies	This refers to strategic action as 'oriented towards a goal but not necessarily planned to the last detail'.

Table 1. We can sum up our analysis which consisted of the following four dimensions:

3.20 Strategies of denouncing one's Situation (social, economical, political) as Related to Representations

To	opics	Argumentation	
-	Justification of having no job/no political stability/economy	 Having no job A dramatic life situation a wish to live in a homogeneous society Political instability Terrorism 	
-	Representations of the self "US"	 differences diminishing us and stressing our insignificance diversity as negative and undesirable self- stigmatisation (not-alike, holding negative traits) self perception as intruders and strangers among them negative experience of being a migrant status of the foreigner as a permanent status of being an outsider or a temporary incompetence Passivity usefulness 	
-	Representation of the others "THEM"	 constructing superiority of them general characteristics of them what they are like A better life More freedom Human rights More dignity, etc. 	

We can sum up the global argumentative strategy in this table:

Elements (theme)	Examples (corpus)
Emigration	Emigrate whatever
Reasons	Social, political, economical, etc.
Consequences	Risky
Their vision	A better life elsewhere
The others vision	It is an illusion

 Table 3. Argumentative strategies

3.21 Ideological effects in discourse

According to Fairclough, (1995), Ideology in discourse is reflected in the lexical, grammatical and textual items and whenever there are changes in language items, it indicates a different ideology. A great number of discourse analyses within the CDA approach deal with how language contains the different aspects of authority, **power**, **sexual discrimination** and **social inequalities**. Consequently, the topics generally treated in many research works have titles such as: *professional power*, *institutional power*, *gender inequality*, *racism*, *ethnocentrism*, *the enactment of power through media discourse or through political discourse*, among others.

3.21.1 Ideological analysis: An example.

In order to illustrate how practitioners of CDA analyze discourse in terms of ideology, we here give an example (In his latest costly outburst, France's best-known far-right ideologue Eric Zemmour spoke with his trademark intensity with a racially charged discourse¹⁸.

E.g.

All of them, all of them, they've no right to be here!" Zemmour said in the segment. "They're thieves, killers, they're rapists. That's all they are. We should send them back. They shouldn't even be here!"

¹⁸ https://www.france24.com/en/live-news/20210325-french-far-right-pundit-zemmour-provokes-and-teases-ambitions: consulted on may, 25th, 2021.

to "colonising immigrants", the "Islamisation" of French streets and warned that the country's problems were "aggravated by immigration, itself aggravated by Islam"

Previous criminal convictions for racial and religious hate speech include a 2010 sentence after he said "most drug dealers are black and Arab" and in 2019 when he likened Muslims in France to "colonisers".

In 2010, as a guest on a talk show, Zemmour repeated one of his favorite claims about immigration: "People who come from immigrant backgrounds are stopped more frequently by the police because most drug dealers are black or Arab," he said. "That's a fact."

"On the one hand, French elites no longer want to teach history, out of post-colonial guilt," he said. "And on the other hand, immigrants no longer want to acquire French culture or identity. They hold that their identity of origin always comes first, even if they claim to be French, to live on French territory and have the same rights as the French who've been living there for thousands of years. That's the novelty." And why was it so important to be French? "If you want to live in France and be French," Zemmour replied, "then you must become French."

Since this speech and so many other fragments of Eric Zemmour's speech express ideological polarization by making reference to their different social views of minorities (migrants). And because all discursive structures aim at putting emphasis on *our good* things (theirs), as opposed to *their bad* things (others), we tried to apply Van Dijk 's (1997) CDA's principle of positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation which finds its expression at different levels of discourse description adopting the following analysis built upon his 6 features:

Table 4. Van Dijk's principles

1 . <i>Topic</i> selection	e.g., colonising immigrants", the "Islamisation" of French streets and warned that the country's problems were "aggravated by immigration, itself aggravated by Islam"
	All of them, all of them, they've no right to be here! (migrants).
2. Schematic organization	e.g., The argument against integration On the one hand, French elites no longer want to teach history, out of post-colonial guilt," he said. "And on the other hand, immigrants no longer want to acquire French culture or identity.
3. <i>Local meanings</i> , coherence, implications and presuppositions	e.g., All of them, all of them, they've no right to be here! (migrants); it is presupposed here that all migrants are "illegal".
	in order to understand discourse meaning and coherence, people may need models featuring beliefs that remain implicit (presupposed) in discourse. Thus, a typical feature of manipulation is to communicate beliefs implicitly, that is, without actually asserting them, and with less chance that they will be challenged.
4. <i>Lexicalization</i> implying our positive and their negative properties	<i>Lexicalization</i> implying our positive and their negative properties. We want them to become French <i>Vs</i> All of them, all of them, they've no right to be here!" Zemmour said in the segment. "They're thieves, killers, they're rapists. That's all they are. We should send them back. They shouldn't even be here!"
5. Style	e.g., imitation of popular oral argumentative style: 'to live on French territory and have the same rights as the French who've been living there for thousands of years.
6. <i>Rhetorical devices</i> , such as contrasts	 Such as contrasts, analogies: he likened Muslims in France to "colonisers". They hold that their identity of origin always comes first, even if they claim to be French, to live on French territory and have the same rights as the French who've been living there for thousands of years. That's the novelty. Hyperboles and euphemisms ('less fortunate of our fellow citizens').

What is given here is only a sample of CDA concerning ideologies when hidden in all the layers of the structural properties of discourse and context. This gives us a clear example of analysis to understand the composite link between discourse and society. In his discourse the famous polemicist is clearly "inciting to hatred towards migrants and spreading a number of degrading stereotypes" that could encourage "discriminatory behaviour", such as: e.g., They're thieves, killers, they're rapists.

People who come from immigrant backgrounds are stopped more frequently by the police because most drug dealers are black or Arab," he said. "That's a fact."

His peech is so violently xenophobic, when referring to "colonising immigrants", the "Islamisation" of French streets and warned that the country's problems were "aggravated by immigration, itself aggravated by Islam.

Racist speech has become commonplace on public media; what stresses the role of ideology, which according to political philosopher Michael Freeden (2003), "evokes strong emotional responses".

The study of such pieces of discourse can give possibility to find instances of the linguistic and discursive, and grammatical structures. The analysis reveals that the ideology is behind the text revealed through the use of certain syntactic, rhetoric, stylistic, lexical structures, etc.

Similarly, argumentation may be persuasive because of the social opinions that are "hidden" in its implicit premises; other fact expressed in the public media and exchanged on the web shows that people, those who do not accept such discriminatory discourses, are fed up with being lectured all the time. They feel that these media have become the scene of these elites giving lectures to the world in their names.

However, it is necessary to say, on the other side when anti-immigrants discourse is adopted by the people, some political elites do not passively accept public demands to restrict or exclude immigration. The values contained in Table 5, for example, show considerable differences between elite and non-elite opinion on what Thomas Raines and colleagues (2017) describe as the identity axis after a survey on immigration:

Table 5. Comparison between elite and public attitudes.

Perceived effects of immigration on	Elite	Public
The country	1	20
Has been good for the country	57	25
Neutral – neither agree nor disagree	16	31
Has been bad for country	24	44
Cultural life	12	
Immigrants enhance cultural life	58	32
Neutral – neither agree nor disagree	15	29
Immigrants have not enriched cultural life	26	38
Crime		28
Has made crime worse	30	51
Neutral	15	25
Has not made crime worse	54	24
Welfare	8 . D. M.	2
Is a strain on the welfare state	35	55
Neutral – neither agree nor disagree	14	24
Is not a strain on the welfare state	49	21

Source: Raines et. al. (2017), p.20

3.21.2 The use of pejorative terms and metaphors

The discourse of some other politician leaders known by their racism towards immigrants may be damaging to immigrants who are undressed of their humanity and presented as criminals and as animals than as human beings seeking a better future for themselves and for their families.

The data excerpts below from Trump's speech¹⁹ shows some of the uses of these pejoratives terms on the public media. The aim is to transmit fear and refusal of immigrants through the repeated use of these terms. These pejoratives reinforce some negative judgment that frames immigrants as dangerous. In addition to the pejorative terms we find a large use of metaphorical constructions to nourish anti-immigrant sentiment and for the purpose of making of them unworthy of dignity and of the same rights as those of their citizens.

¹⁹ https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/fact-checker/wp/2017/02/28/fact-checking-president-trumps-address-to-congress/

The CDA approach is appropriate for this type of analysis since one of its aims is to study textual expressions of ideologically-charged opinions and to bring about the "extension of linguistics beyond sentence grammar towards a study of action and interaction" (Wodak & Meyer, 2009: 2).

According to Lakoff, metaphors are powerful non-literal, semantic tools – a means of understanding abstract or unfamiliar concepts in a target domain in light of more concrete and familiar concepts known as the source domain (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980).

From excerpts of some American politicians, immigrants are framed as constituting a threat to the American way of life. They are presented in a negative way as: 1) criminals, 2) freeloaders, and 3) dishonest, 4) dangerous criminals, 5) drug dealers...etc.

E.g. Trump Speech, February 28, 2017 – Immigrants as Criminals

For that reason, we will soon begin the construction of a great, great wall along our southern border. As we speak tonight, we are removing <u>gang</u> <u>members</u>, <u>drug dealers</u>, and <u>criminals</u> that <u>threaten</u> our communities and prey on our very innocent citizens. Bad ones are going out as I speak, and as I've promised throughout the campaign.

In the table below, we sum out some of the metaphors detected in some of Trump's speeches:

 Table.
 7. Metaphors' use in politicians' speeches

Metaphors that frame representation of Americans of immigrants

Illegals, Aliens, rapists, criminals, freeloaders, dishonest, dangerous, criminals, drug dealers, flood waters, waves, objects, animals...etc.

From this excerpt, We undoubtedly understand the fact that Trump equates immigrants with criminality.

3.22 Discussion

In the corpora analyzed above, the discourse offers many contrasting perspectives on the topic of immigration. A discourse analysis which ignores the representations of immigrants only provides a partial and hence inaccurate picture. The discourse of the messages exchanged via facebook and that of some famous politicians offer a representation of immigration different from one another. This chapter has provided a discussion of the various representations of migrants; starting by those of themselves through a relatively negative view of the self and positive view of the other that became apparent during the collocation and critical discourse analyses. Also the discussion illustrated, the representation of migrants in the discourse of some polemists. Both the critical discourse analysis and the corpus analysis reveal a negative and alarmist representation fixed and static representation of immigrants in the public media discourse.

- How do immigrants represent themselves and the others?
- How are immigrants represented in the messages exchanged via the public media?
- What collocations do the words, 'migrant (s)', 'immigrant (s)', have in the political discourse of the Europeans?
- How are immigrants referred to, described?
- What argumentation strategies are used to argue for/against migration?
- How do the findings from the corpus analysis contribute to the findings from a traditional Critical Discourse Analysis approach?

In the corpora and adopting a CDA approach, we understand how discursive devices are employed by the public media to construct a view of the "the migrant", as the negative *Other*. Analysis focuses on the lexical and syntactic compositions used in the media to construct the Europeans as dominant and powerful while constructing the migrants as violent and involved in criminal activities. We can sum these representations as follows:

Representations	Language
migrants as a threat	Argumentative strategies:
	Implicit language
a burden	Presupposition
contributing to crime	Speech acts
passive beneficiaries	Reasoning
Dehumanizing immigrants	CD A:
	Ideology
victims of gambling	Representation
portrayed as passive	
Drug dealers	<i>CL</i> :
	Lexical items
	collocation

Table.6. Representations

Conclusion

To get a better understanding of how people likely to migrate or those who try to discourage them communicate with each other, and use the linguistic items. We recorded and transcribed a number of messages exchanged on the public media (web). Using an approach of DA, we analyzed them considering the discourse level the peak of linguistic description and necessarily, the analysis of language in use.

In this chapter, we relied on the linguistic elements that surround the utterances under analysis to arrive at an adequate interpretation of meaning on the basis of intra-textual relations that bind them. This is what is generally referred to as 'the linguistic context'.

We also followed an analysis following a triangulation; i.e.; using some of the tools of DA, in doing an argumentative analysis, a linguistic one and one according to CDA; a kind of methodic synergy; it analyses the data set using corpus tools to perform a collocation analysis, as well as qualitative analysis using tools from the DCA.

General conclusion

The language used by people in favor or against migration in their conversations has served as a means to convey information and arguments used. We know that the language cannot be separated from culture and the socioeconomical and political contexts because language represents its nation and has close relation to the attitude or behavior of groups of users of the language. The role of language in the set of samples from our larger corpus seems chosen to express and unveil the social, cultural and political reality of those elected to migration.

Through this study, we assert that the use of language along with more subtle discursive strategies, such as positive representation of 'them', negative representation of 'us,' and metaphorical constructions are being used from one side to justify the act of migrating and from another one, encourage fear and anti-immigrant sentiment and to strip them of their humanity for the purpose of rendering them unworthy of dignity and of the same rights and benefits as natives.

Through the lens of Discourse Analysis and Corpus Linguistics, we have analyzed a collection of transcriptions selected from among a good number of messages and remarks exchanged among migrants themselves but also by other people, along with a set of opinions surrounding migration collected from the net, and used to reveal and quantify discursive patterns that contribute to the arguments full of discursive struggle while justifying their experience of migrating. Firstly, these migrants make efforts at the discursive level to present their migration as rational and justified. However, our purpose far from being sociological, tried to give an account after it identifies the different argumentative strategies that the language allows through linguistic items, and discursive utterances.

Moving from one layer of language to another, linguists consider the discourse level the apex of linguistic description; the analysis of discourse being, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. This is what has been demonstrated through this paper while that the hybrid approach of discourse analysis adds novel dimensions to linguistic analysis that go beyond the sentence and seeks revealing the regularities of the context of language use, both linguistic and extra-linguistic. In this perspective, we relied on the linguistic elements that surround the utterances under scrutiny to arrive at an adequate interpretation of meaning on the basis of intra-textual relations that bind them.

We also followed an analysis following a triangulation; i.e.; using some of the tools of DA, in doing an argumentative analysis, a linguistic one and one according to CDA; a kind of methodic synergy; it analyses the data set using corpus tools to perform a collocation analysis, as well as qualitative analysis using tools from the DCA.

We think we have answered to the question that constituted our main purpose, "how does language translate peoples' opinions into argumentative strategies on the phenomenon of the illegal immigration?", through the choice of a set of utterances from messages collected from the web and exchanged between, either persons likely to migrate or those who try to discourage them. We do think at last that people, confirming our hypotheses, reveal their feelings and positions, giving and defending their acts by reasons they think to be rational and sufficient within their discourse.

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Appendices



Nancy Allen thank you for your reply, I appreciate it and I will check your page

1 1

1

1





جمال الدين Luck of job Poverty Bureaucracy Chafik fehmo fehmo

> Répondre 2 🖸 岁 J'aime

Voir les 3 réponses précédentes...



1 į

انت علبالنا ... Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui جمال الدين 🚱



جمال الدين كاين ناس... Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui



Kata Lia Lack of jobs*



👑 هدی مرام

Nothing is worth risking life, our country doesn't encourage, it's better to emigrate...but in legal way, there r many examples of people who succeed without immigration

11 J'aime Répondre

Voir les 4 réponses précédentes...

هدى مرام ... Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui it's for

🕷 هدی مرام 🚆 No...I think u r planning to leave,...

هدى مرام ... Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui khlas a



Imad Hadjar they feel miserable thats it



Hamida Ch

the situation in our country is really miserable a lot of obstacles ,that 's why most youth are not satisfied and less motivated ,they want to try illegal immigration for the main reason which is looking for better life although it is dangerous ,they want to succeed in their studies ,searching for good job ,improve their life conditions in another country that give value to human efforts and energy.

1 j J'adore Répondre



Benaissa Yahiaoui

هادا سؤال ما يحتاجش كاستيون

1 j J'aime Répondre



Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui Benaissa Yahiao...

Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui Hamida Ch thank

1 0

Benaissa Yahiaoui Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui...



Ik Ram

There are many reasons : First is our country don't motivate youth, and the main one is unemployment don't give them at least a chance or even their rights for living a better life here So they will try to go there for living in better place ,making a good life ,



Aikous Ayoub

Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui Yes I would, i don't know what to say about the arguments please explain .



Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui

Aikous Ayoub reasons to go there and leave everything behind , since you are anti give me more reasons for not going there.

15 h J'aime Répondre



Aikous Ayoub

Abdel Fettah -Only reason for not going there is through the death boats, because there is it almost like suicide. I can't literally speak for their behalf as I have never tried it and I do not know their reasons and I do not judge them . -Reasons to go there but with Visa (especially for educated or cultured people. And those with good ethics and manners because life in Algeria with this corrupted government and degenerated people gives them depression) reasons are Infinite i cannot even count them, far better life standards. Advanced in Thousands of years. Just my opinion I'm still in Algeria, trying

to migrate "legally" .



Azzouz Hacene

On ne peut pas coller le drame a l'equipe actuelle, Donnons lui le temps et participons

26 sem J'aime Répondre



Rom Erwin

ils ont perdu espoir, meme leur révolution a été volé par les obscurantistes de Rachad qui nous promet un deuxième Afghanistan



26 sem J'aime Répondre



Moumene Bsm

Y'a pas que les jeunes qui veulent partir,meme les gents qui ont une situation stable s'inquiete pour l'avenir de leurs enfants et pensent quitter la barque avant le grand déluge

26 sem J'aime Répondre



loukan nposser une question asq ak hab tb9a hna f dz la réponse tea 91.47% m les junne rah tkoun nn ... c grv wlh

sahbi 9ali ou mazlha door fi rassi Dz tkhalik tréalise un seule rêve li howa trisqué ou troh la blad nass bach hnak ta9dr tréalise wach b9alk m tes rêves #Harga #Onedream #Oneday #gouvernement



<u>1a5.</u>



Maroua Rikkabi Skr

I always wanted to talk about this topic ! I'm obviously against it because its suicide

Young people Nowadays immigrate cuz they think that they will live survive there but its not true they won't survive What we see in social media or movies doesn't show the real image of Those countries

people go there some survive but most die from hunger

People who live there will always treat you as an outsider they will never accept you

Even tho Algeria isn't that much of a good country but someone has to try to change it to become a good country

We shouldn't run away from our country we should change it .

1 j J'adore Répondre

...

10



Hamida Ch

the situation in our country is really miserable a lot of obstacles ,that 's why most youth are not satisfied and less motivated ,they want to try illegal immigration for the main reason which is looking for better life although it is dangerous ,they want to succeed in their studies ,searching for good job ,improve their life conditions in another country that give value to human efforts and energy.





Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui Hamida Ch thank...



Benaissa Yahiaoui

هادا سؤال ما يحتاجش كاستيون

1 j J'aime Répondre



Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui Benaissa Yahiao...





lk Ram

There are many reasons : First is our country don't motivate youth, and the main one is unemployment don't give them at least a chance or even their rights for living a better life here So they will try to go there for living in better place ,making a good life,





Erin Bressler

Such crap. I will complain..Immigrants must come to America legally. How hard is that to understand!? Try to cheat your way here isn't right.. and won't get my support. Period. I don't care what color your skin is.. just be a good human, and do it the legal way.

ra Jaime Repondre	1	а	J'aime	Répondre
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28 00

Voir les 9 réponses précédentes...

Erin Bressler Casper Gnay another sick and delusional...



Amanda Santos Mattos

And I bought each one legally with money I worked for and was taxed on.

1 a J'aime Répondre

37 🕐

Voir les 5 réponses précédentes...

Arantza López You bought numbers and democracy? I...



Neil Cameron

Love this and sharing it too (My phone used to be Finnish but now it's Korean!)

1 a J'aime Répondre

40 🖸 🗑 💭

Voir 1 réponse précédente...



Skyy I bought a Finnish and a Chinese too!



Bogdan Velcea

I see a lot of ppl here saying that America is great, express their love for it, but I would ask you, are you sure about that when you'll get very ill being hospitalized and having to pay a lot of money, than becoming bankrupt, or what about being shot by a random person on the street, or being persecuted because of your skin color, or being sued for stupid reasons just because is easy and possib... Voir



Matt Grenon

Alfredo Weeks one of my best childhood friends was killed by a drunk driver.. it just so happens that the drunk driver was an illegal immigrant, and fled before facing prosecution! Because he was here illegally, my friend and his family will never get justice! And for all we know, the guy either never even left the country, or he left and just came back, with a different name, social security numb... Voir plus

12 h J'aime Répondre



Dylan Ackerman

Alfredo Weeks The victim mentality..,

10 h J'aime Répondre

1 🖸

Matt Grenon

Dylan Ackerman don't you just love the historians that use incidents that happened hundreds of years ago, against us? Cuz as far down the ancestry tree as I can see, I don't know of any of my ancestors that owned slaves, or came over here on the Mayflower and used genocide against the Native Americans, stealing their land! Only a small percentage of European ancestors took part in that anyways! So... Voir plus

10 h J'aime Répondre

1 🖸

1 🖸

Evan Szymanski

Matt Grenon exactly. All the immigrants taking our jobs.

10 h J'aime Répondre



1a2

Master Kubek

Stuff is being shipped all over the world yeah and that's fine and good for the economy but when they start bringing lots and lots of immigrants and they place them in some place I the city that has it's own tradition and culture it's really hard to get the immigrants to adapt ..instead they are creating no-go zones and crime levels are sky rocketing. Often those who come don't work and just waiting for government money while robbing and destroying infrastructure. That is creating a lot of problems ...you don't have problems with your stuff but with people you do.

1 a J'aime Répondre

2 🖸

2 🖸

Victor Lavotha

It is good untill one does not mix Italian Pizza with Chinese food and Hungarian gulyas pluss Kebab and Mac Donald all on one plate in the restaurant.

1 a J'aime Répondre



Jacek Dziadkowiec

She's missing one more argument: your ancestors were probably not native Americans. They were immigrants.

1 a J'aime Répondre



Hamida Ch

the situation in our country is really miserable a lot of obstacles ,that 's why most youth are not satisfied and less motivated ,they want to try illegal immigration for the main reason which is looking for better life although it is dangerous ,they want to succeed in their studies ,searching for good job ,improve their life conditions in another country that give value to human efforts and energy.

1 j J'adore Répondre

1 🔘

Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui Hamida Ch thank ...



Benaissa Yahiaoui

هادا سؤال ما يحتاجش كاستيون

1 j J'aime Répondre



Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui Benaissa Yahiao...



Benaissa Yahiaoui Abdel Fettah Mostefaoui...



lk Ram

There are many reasons :

First is our country don't motivate youth, and the main one is unemployment don't give them at least a chance or even their rights for living a better life here So they will try to go there for living in better place ,making a good life,