

PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA
MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH
UNIVERSITY OF HASSIBA BENBOUALI - CHLEF
FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH



A Sociolinguistic Investigation of Students' Slang Variables and the Attitude towards its Use: the case of English language Master's students community at Mostaganem University

A Thesis Submitted to the Department of English in Partial Requirement for the Degree of
Doctorate in English Language

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Academic Year :2025/2026

Statement of Originality

I hereby certify that the doctoral thesis entitled “**A Sociolinguistic Investigation of Students’ Slang Variables and the Attitude towards its Use. The Case of English Language Master Students Community at Mostaganem University**”, is entirely original from my own research and writing, and that no portion of it has been plagiarized in whole or in part from any other source unless specifically cited in quotation marks and supported by thorough, accurate, and comprehensive referencing.

20.05.2025

Meryem BELKHIR

Dedication

To my parents for their endless support and confidence in my efforts.

To my brothers: Abdelhak, Aboubaker El Sadik and Abdelmalek and to my lovely sister Jiji for their unconditioned love.

To my husband for his constant assistance and advowson to accomplish this work.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank all the people who have contributed to the accomplishment of this work.

I first direct my thanks to my supervisor Dr. Naimi Amara, who has immediately accepted to be in charge of this work and has given me the wonderful opportunity to complete my Ph.D thesis under his supervision, it is truly an honor. His advice has been precious to accomplish this work. His invaluable support and encouragement enabled me to pursue the present work.

I would also like to extend my heartfelt gratitude to the esteemed members of the jury for devoting their valuable time to reviewing my work. Dear professors, your criticism is very appreciated and will surely improve this academic work. I appreciate the opportunity to benefit from your expertise.

I express my great appreciation to first year and second year master students learning English at Mostaganem University who have voluntarily participated as in my research through making me acquainted with the slang terms they create and accepting generously to fill in the questionnaire about their attitude towards slang. Special thanks are addressed to the teachers who have helped me to pursuit my research through filling in the questionnaire given to them to supply me with their attitude towards slang variety.

I direct special thanks to my colleagues at Khemis Miliana University who have provided me with unfailing moral support.

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Abstract

People create distinctive groups based on language variation, which is inextricably linked to context. In this connexion, students form their own communities through using slang. The current study revolves around students' slang variables across level, specialism, and gender as well as the attitudes towards the variety through targeting first and second year Master's students of English at Mostaganem University. Therefore, the primary contribution of this research is to provide insight into students' construction of their communities and their linguistic characteristics within the Mostaganem University context. By following community of practice paradigm, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods are used in this study. Data was collected from Master's students using a variety of research tools, including surveys, semi-structured interviews, and observation. The purpose of observation is to document the differences in slang variables across levels and specialism. Semi-structured interviews are conducted to know about gender-based differences in terms of slang features and frequency. A questionnaire is designed to withdraw Master's students attitudes towards the use of slang. The findings show that master's students do not form distinctive communities of practice through using similar slang variables across levels and specialties. It is also shown that male female students use different slang variables and males outscore females in the use of slang, which is thought by most of them to be a means of creativity.

Key Words: Attitude, Slang variables, Master's students

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General Introduction

General Introduction

Language plays an important role in every society by offering a means of communication and understanding. It is intertwined with society in a way that makes it impossible to understand one without the other. Whereas it is of a paramount importance since any human being has a vital need to exchange ideas, information, it is a truism that language is not simply a tool of communicating information, but that of maintaining and establishing relationships among people. In this sense, people having the same characteristics and interests may construct a community and develop a tool to communicate and relate to each other. Thus, various varieties emerge in different contexts. Slang is one of them. In this connection, the present study falls within the sociolinguistic sphere, revolving around the idea of how students' community creates its slang to characterize and distinguish itself; its variation across level, specialism, and gender.

According to many sociolinguists, slang variety does not have a subtle definition; but it is defined in terms of its features. It is regarded as a non-standard, or a highly colloquial variety of language that belongs to a particular group of people according to some researchers. From the perspective of some sociolinguists, as Eble (1996) and Mattiello (2008), this code is used to accomplish several discursive functions. It excludes out-group members from a discourse. It is also used for showing solidarity among its in-group members. Identifying oneself as belonging to a specific community is another task of that variety. Playfulness and humor are aims for which particular communities talk in slang. As language is a means to facilitate communication between its users, slang is created to ease interaction among members of a given community, and get rid of formalism. There are various linguists who are keen to investigate the phenomenon of slang.

Many works have a contribution to the study of slang variety. Among them, we could mention Partridge's "*Slang Today and Yesterday*" (1935). It provides some hints on the origin

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of the word slang, its definition as a variety of language, and the functions of its use. Eble's "*Study on Slang and Sociability: In Group Language among College Students*" (1996) is a result of several surveys that are carried out through years on the college students in North Carolina. The author supplies the features of slang and its morphological formations as it is provided in the first chapter. Among the recent works is Mattiello (2008) "*An Instruction to English Slang*" in which she presents various slang definitions and the sociolinguistic properties of slang that are tackled in the first chapter. In addition, Rwasamanzi (2009) '*The Use of Slang among the Students of the Higher Institute of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry*' is a work that draws on the features of slang words used among students who belong to the agriculture institution. All the mentioned works supply one with an insight on slang variety.

In spite of the fact that the phenomenon of slang use has been investigated by many researchers, in contexts where English is a foreign or a second language in foreign societies, there are few inquiries undertaken on students' use of this variety in Algeria.

The reason behind working on the present theme lies on my experience as a part-time teacher. The fact of having investigated the issue of slang use among first year Master's students community of English at Mostaganem University in a magister degree dissertation leads me to probe into more cryptic aspects of this linguistic phenomenon. More deeply, the existence of various master specialties and the creativity aspect of slang urge one to inquire this code in terms of level, specialty, and gender. The variation of language across gender according to some approaches has also impulsed me to question slang diversity among male and female students. This research addresses both first and second year master students as a case study.

Along these observations, the following aims are put forward:

- 1- To draw out the disparity of slang in terms of specialty among first year Master's students.

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- 2- To pick out the slang features used by Master's students across levels.
- 3- To Withdraw the slang features first and second year Master female students use.
- 4- To Identify the recurrence of slang among males and females Master's students.
- 5- To draw out the motives behind slang use.
- 6- To uncover the attitude of students towards the use of slang.

According to objectives previously stated, the research questions are:

- 1- Does slang usage vary across academic years or specialties?
- 2-How do gender-based differences manifest in slang usage (in both features and frequency)?
- 3-What motivates Master's students to employ slang?
- 4- What is the attitude of students via slang variety?

So as to inquire the above- mentioned research questions, the following hypotheses are put before hand:

- 1-First year Master students in the department of English at Mostaganem University are constructing distinct communities, according to their specialty, through creating varied slang.
- 2-First year Master students' slang is dissimilar to second year master students' one.
- 3-Females and males Master's students resort to the same features in their creation of slang.
- 4-Male Master's students at the department of English use slang more frequently than female ones.

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5-Slang is a means that mostly facilitates communication according to males and females Master's students.

6- Slang use is the output of creativity according to students.

The research is conducted at the department of English, University of Mostaganem. The informants of this investigation are First and Second year Master's students of English .Their age ranges from 20 to 25 years old. They belong to various specialties (Language & Communication, Science of Language, Didactics of Foreign Languages, Didactics & Applied Linguistics, Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches, Linguistics, and Civilisation & Literature). In order to test the above mentioned hypotheses, eighty students are selected as an opportunity sample and fifty were chosen as a purposive sample.

For the reliability and objectivity of data gathering, the following tools are employed: tape recording of students' speeches among their mates, interviews with students, and questionnaire designed for students . Recordings aim at manifesting the students' practicality of slang use; and at looking forward slang differences along the diverse first year and second year Master's students' specialties. Interviews aim at inquiring the several slang types that master students create in their academic and non- academic sphere as well as gender differences in their construction. The questionnaire looks forward the attitude of students towards slang use.

This study includes five chapters;

The first chapter (Theoretical Background of Language Variation) sheds light on various concepts. It is divided into different sections. The first part (Speech Community) presents the various definitions of the concept . The second part (Language Variation according to Variationist sociolinguists) dissects the relationship between linguistic and social variables. The third part investigates the relationship between language and gender through

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presenting the gender theories. As this research deals with attitude of students towards slang, as a language variety, the remaining expounds attitude towards language variation.

The second chapter (Slang Variety and its Sociolinguistic Features) is split into three sections. The first section provides various definitions of slang variety from distinct perspectives. The second part sheds light on the sociolinguistic aspects of slang as well as it displays the multiple functions of its use. The third part deals with the relationship between slang and gender through introducing previous linguistic studies.

The third chapter (Research Methodology and Data Collection) is divided into three sections. Following community of practice approach and shared repertoire, it starts with elucidating the community of practice and its fit in this study of Master's students in the department of English at Mostaganem University. It spots light on the participants involved in the study and the tools used for collecting the necessary data to answer the pre-determined research questions as well as the methods of analysing the data. It also considers the research ethics taken into account throughout the current study.

The fourth chapter (Students' Construction of their Community through Slang and the Attitudes towards its Use) is split into three parts. It begins with the analysis of students' interactions through data gathered from the recordings. It consists of a comparison between the specialties of first year Master's students as well as between first year and second year Master's students. The residual part consists of the analysis of students' questionnaire that revolves around their attitude towards slang use.

The fifth chapter (Gender and Students' Slang Types and Their Functions) reveals the various slang types used by female and male master students' in both academic concerns and non-academic concerns as well as their functions of use . It is divided into two parts. The first one comprises the presentation and the analysis of students' answers of the questions of the

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interview. Part two (Data interpretation) comprises the quantitative analysis of data to see whether female and male students' slang features are dissimilar in terms of types opted for and the frequency of use. It looks at the predominant function for which male and female Master's students employ slang.

Chapter One:

Theoretical Background of Language
Variation

1.1.Introduction

As a means of communication, language cannot be dissociated from the people who use it. More broadly, language and context are interrelated to each other and there is a mutual influence between them. Language choice is the product and the process of context, which is an intricate concept that is highly debated because of its inclusiveness. It is with the foundation of variationist sociolinguistics that researchers started to deal with the correlation between language variation and social factors such as age, class, gender, and ethnicity, as well as attitude towards language features. Following the central concern of the present research, slang variables in the community of students of English, it is crucial for us to elucidate the term speech community and the impact of context on language use from the variationist approach. Since this research deals with the relationship between gender and students slang, it is of a paramount importance to consider gender approaches to language use as well.

1.2.Speech Community

Speech often reveals where a person comes from and what type of background they have. Language also identifies which group or community somebody belongs to. The language used by a group of people differs in phonology, grammar, and lexis from another language group. This group is known as a speech community.

Simplifying the notion, a speech community is just a set of individuals who distinguish themselves from other groups by having similar speech features. However, linguists approached it from distinct perspectives which may lead it as a controversial concept. For some researchers, it is regarded as a single harmonious entity. It is defined in terms of language; it emanates from the usage of a single language. As John Lyons (1970) puts forth that it stands for “all people who use a given language or dialect.” (p.326).. In light of the fact that they speak the same language, one could conclude, for example, that all Arabs

are members of the same community. Hockett (1958) adds that communication is a crucial component in explaining speech communities, in addition to language similarity. In this connection, Dendane (2007) claims that one cannot refer to a speech community from a sociolinguistic perspective when its members almost ever interact with one another through "direct" or "indirect" contact. From his view, he asserts that speech community is determined by the regular communication between its members (p.29). His definition supports Bloomfield's view that regular interaction, rather than sharing the same language, determines speech community. In other words, a fundamental requirement for the speech community is that members must communicate with one another; otherwise, two groups that share the same language but have no interaction at all would be classified as two distinct communities. Emphasizing communication, Gumperz (1968) refers to speech community as a group defined by frequent and regular communication through a common set of verbal cues, and distinguished from other similar groups by notable variations in language use (p.114). In other words, Gumperz depicts speech community as a range of people who communicate using a common *verbal repertoire*. Being tied together by regular interaction they can be distinguished from out-group by language use diversity. This leads to the idea that people may possess various language varieties which use is restricted by certain social norms. Moreover, he also admits that speech community is defined by its relationship with other communities rather than having a priori basis. Likewise, Trudgill (1992,pp.69-70) designates speech community to be a group of speakers who share verbal repertoire and linguistic norms; these norms can be more specific, such as those for style shifting, which are examined by secular linguistics, or more general, like those found in the ethnography of speaking. From the retrospective view, the concept stands for a group of people who have a common share of language patterns.

Through putting focus on communication code in the construction of speech community, Gumperz (1971) issued the term 'linguistic community'. The latter denotes a body of speakers who might be monolingual or multilingual who may, essentially, communicate recurrently through face to face interaction. More significantly, a group might be pulled together or cut off from one another due to certain social factors. In parallel, Romaine (2000) accentuates the joint norms of language rather than shared linguistic behavior. This what supports Labov's (1972a, p.120) perspective in which views that The participation in a set of shared norms—which can be seen in overt forms of evaluative behavior and in the consistency of abstract patterns of variation that are invariant with respect to a specific level of usage—defines the speech community more than any consensus in language use. That is, he affirms community recognition from the social patterns participation viewpoint. Members have a common standard and attitude toward specific linguistic elements in certain social contexts. Group assessments of the norms' relevance can demonstrate them as each person assesses his or her own place in the community. They also show up as the frequency of specific patterns that differ depending on the language used. From his ethnography of communication model, Hymes (1974) rejects speech community characterization from common linguistic behavior perspective he rather relates its determination with the norms of interpretation through issuing; in his article "*Models of the interaction of language and social life*", that the concept targets an aggregate of speech agents who share knowledge about speech standards and perceptions in which such sharing includes knowledge regarding some sort of speech, as well as its patterns of use.

Hymes assumes that speech community is a nebulous concept to be accurately defined. He also believes that it relies on the idea of a group. He makes a deeper distinction between participating in a community and becoming a member of it. He contends that

participation alone—not language proficiency—determines membership, and that birthright—which is indisputable—determines membership as well. This notion makes us think that we are all members of the same community or group. The latter, however, is distinguishable from the former by the use of specific language. A group can identify itself by the production and variation of language, encompassing variances in dialect, accent, and even language use. To put it succinctly, feeling about language matters just as much as following its norms

Following the same line of thought, Since the concept of a group is based on each person's unique sense of belonging, Levinson and Brown (1979) contend that a person can identify more with one group than another depending on the situation. this identification is determined based on the group's similarities and differences under specific social conditions. people might belong several speech groups depending on the social context in which they interact. Relatively, Gumperz (1982) claims that due the freedom people have to alter their social personas in response to changing circumstances that the premise of speech community-defined as functionally integrated social systems with shared assessment norms, may truly be isolated- becomes subject to significant criticism (p.26). Unlike Hymes' concept of membership, Gumperz (1982) asserts that people can be members of different communities through creating a code that resembles the community they want to identify with. He argues that community definition from the perspective of evaluative behaviour of speech agents , along with Labov's conceptualization, is contentious. This is due to the fact that when participating in different occasions, people shift their identity. Hence, identity is not pre- established; it is rather socially constructed (Hall, 1990) . Hall proposes the concept of transitory identities, in which people situate their identity in a certain circumstance for social practice.

In the same line of thought, Saville-Troik (1996) asserts that every individual within a society possesses a variety of social identities, and each identity in a particular setting is linked to several suitable vocal and nonverbal modes of communication (Cited in Wardaugh , 2006,p. 127).He also admits those identities may be manifested through language use in different contexts.

1.3. Language variation according to Variationist Sociolinguists

Language is considered to be complex due to its constant variation and change. Linguists have studied the phenomena extensively, employing a number of methodologies. Before the birth of sociolinguistics, language was detached from the society in which it is used by De Saussure and Chomsky. Both view language as a single homogenous system, and their purpose was to develop a set of principles for good language usage. Chomsky (1965) distinguished between competence and performance, drawing on De Saussure's concepts of langue and parole. The two concepts target the ideal language users as the former stands for knowledge about language and the latter denotes the use of that knowledge without regarding social situation. According to him, linguistic theory focuses on the ideal speaker-listener in a homogeneous language community (p.3). However, Chomsky's explanation of the linguistic system fails to grasp the complexity of language, which stems from the fact that language is employed in a variety of ways to convey meaning between speakers and to offer information about their social and geographical contexts. In short, the scholars ignored the variability of language as they deem to be useless to be studied.

According to Labov, who is considered as the pioneer in the field of research on language and society, Every linguist accepts that language is a social truth, although not everyone emphasizes it equally. His study, which concentrated on analyzing sociolinguistic variation in New York, had influenced scholars interested in social variation. Ultimately, it led to the emergence of variationist sociolinguistics approach. This new discipline viewed

language as a system that might vary according to the social facets of speech agents and the situation. In other words, studying the correlation between linguistic and social variables is the cornerstone of this approach.

1.3.1.Linguistic Variable

Linguistic variable is firstly derived from Labov's study (1972). Long before 1960's, the term was considered as 'free variation' that Meyerhoff (2006,p.10) claims that there were no apparent linguistic restrictions that would predict which variation you would get. So, free essentially meant unfettered. Before the emergence of variationist sociolinguistics, variation was not constrained by some social factors. Thanks to Labov that Sociolinguists have accumulated a substantial body of research that demonstrates linguistic factors as well as non-linguistic (i.e., external to the language system) can both have an impact on speaker variability. Relatively, Chambers (2003) says that: "the most casual observations of speech show that its variants are associated with social factors" (p.14). Thus, linguistic variation is highly related to social situation.

The linguistic variable is defined by Chambers and Trudgill (2004) to be:

A linguistic unit with two or more variants involved in co variation with other social and/ or linguistic variables. Linguistic variables can often be regarded as socially different but linguistically equivalent ways of doing or saying the same thing, and occur at all levels of linguistic analysis. (p.50)

That is, the linguistic variable is a linguistic item with multiple alternate versions that can be used interchangeably without altering the meaning of the word; it co-varies in accordance with various factors as age, gender, social status, and ethnicity. This can be exemplified, from a phonological perspective, by the pronunciation of the variable /ng/ which has two variants [ŋ] and [n] as in the word 'speaking'. We can say 'speaking' with [ŋ] variant, or 'speaking' with [n] variant.

Depending on the speakers' level of awareness towards certain variants, the linguistic variable may have several statuses. Relatively, Labov (1972) identified three kinds, each of which exhibits a variety of behaviours and carries a distinct set of social values. These are Indicator, marker, and stereotype.

First, indicator is the most ambiguous sort of variable which may change depending on the social aspects of the speakers. However, it is not socially identifiable. Labov (1972) characterizes it as variables employed in any context by each individual in a largely consistent manner (p.188). An example of a sociolinguistic indicator is merging of the vowels in words hock and hawk according to Labov. The degree of merger varies among individuals, but it frequently occurs below the speaker's awareness. Second, markers have been found to be correlated with social characteristics like speaking modes, class, and ethnicity. They not only demonstrate social dispersion but also stylistic diversity which speakers are aware of. They are powerful conveyors of social information (Wardough, 2006). For instance, from Labov's study (1966), the variable /r/ denotes the social strata of individuals in New York. If [r] is pronounced, individuals are of a higher social class unlike those who do not articulate it, that are of the lower class like in [ha:rd] vs. [ha:d]. Lastly, stereotypes are the most noticeable sort of variables. They are a common and deliberate characterization of a group's discourse. Because they are stigmatized, listeners are quick to comment on them and frequently manipulate or avoid them.

Language variation occurs at all aspects of language. This leads sociolinguists to put forth three diverse of variables. In this regards, it is asserted that Language is intrinsically flexible on a variety of structural levels, including phonology, morphology, and syntax. (Milroy and Milroy, 1998).

1.3.1.1. Phonological Variables

Sociolinguists mostly use phonological factors since they are the easiest to detect and analyze. As a result, sociolinguistic methods have been effectively used to the study of a variety of phonological factors (Milroy & Gordon, 2003, p.138). They occur when a lexical unit has alternative phonological structures. This might take place through elision or assimilation according to Martinet's principle of "less efforts". The latter can be demonstrated by removing /h/ in some nouns like hotel /otel/, which exhibits "laziness and slovenly speech" (Holmes, 2001, p. 154). More importantly, a vast variety of vowels and consonants are used as examples of phonological variations. For instance, in Labov's New York study, it is found *ing* has different realizations [n] or [ŋ]. He also carried out a study his well-known fourth floor experiment to find out the relationship between the realization of the post-vocalic /r/ articulation and social strata. He questioned the shopkeeper about a product he knew was on the fourth floor of the store. In order to get relevant findings, he made the speaker repeat his answer. He came to the conclusion that customers used /r/ in posher stores (Holmes, 2001, p. 154)

1.3.1.2. Morpho-Syntactic Variables

When sociolinguists investigate social stratification in speech communities, they haunt more to morpho-syntactic variables than to phonological ones. Using this kind of variables, socioeconomic disparities or differences are easy to spot. Accordingly, Chambers (2003) claims that morpho-syntactic variables, or grammatical variables, have historically been seen as traits that mark social disparities more profoundly than phonological ones (Tagliamonte, 2006, p.206). Variationist sociolinguists inquired various morpho-syntactic variables. One of them is *ly*, which is part of the morphological construction of adverbs in English. The adverb is recognized by the suffix 'ly'. Nevertheless, there exists a variation in their formation: they end with the variable 'ly' or it may be omitted. For Example:

-I mean, you go to Leeds and Castleford, they take it so much more *seriously* ... They really are, they take it so *serious*. (YRK/046) (Cited in Tagliamonte,2006, p.217).

Furthermore, Wardaugh and Fuller (2015) highlight that the verb "to be" is a variable with two options that exist through its presence or absence in the sentence, as in she is beautiful /she be beautiful / and she beautiful .Another grammatical variable that was the interest of researchers is the verbal (s). The latter's variants include its absence in the third person singular as well as its presence in plural cases. For instance:

-He get up early everyday

-Many people comes to the party.

Tagliamonte (2006) concentrates his study on modality system. This encompasses the moropho-syntactic semantic variable (have to) which is a deontic modal that implies obligation and necessity. It has a series of diverse variants as: must, have (got) to, got to, need to, and should. To illustrate with, he put forth the following examples in which the variants are employed:

- I commanded: ' you *have to* stand up', I ordered: ' you *must* get up'

1.3.1.3. Discourse/Pragmatic Variables

According to Llamas et al. (2007), discourse/ pragmatic variables denote the linguistic devices used to organize discourse, indicators such as "I mean," "you mean," "you see," and "tag questions" that are used in conversational turns. Additionally, there are other quotatives used in discourse variation research as said, asked, to mention but least. Besides these quotative forms, a new quotative variety is shown by Tagliamonte (2002); "*be like*" which occurs to refer to other quotatives as *said*, *answered*, and *thought*. Variation between quotatives is illustrated by the foregoing examples:

-She is like ‘ Oh- no problem, we will postpone our meeting.’”

-She was like: 3

1.3.2.Social Variables

Contrasted to pre- 1960’s language study, Variationist sociolinguists developed a curiosity on language variation in connection to social aspects.. According to them, linguistic parameters are not the only variables that influence how people speak. Thus, The social dimensions of linguistic variation provide an essential starting point in the study of language. Maclagan (2005) argues speech-language pathologists must be aware of the socioeconomic and regional variations existing in the speech community they are working with before beginning any treatment because speech plays such a significant role in an individual's identity (p.15). In other words, since language holds much about people’s identity and belonging, it is of a paramount importance that sociolinguists consider the factors that affect language use in different linguistic inquiries. They uncovered social factors that help to explain language diversity that exists among individuals in various speech communities. They put forth the most significant factors, affecting language variation to be: gender, social class, and age.

1.3.2.1.Social Class

As an independent variable, social class is to categorise people into groups. This categorisation is evident in the linguistic behaviour of individuals in speech communities.. The industrial and political revolutions of the 18th century preceded the term's first widespread usage in the early 19th century. It refers to any groupings within a community that are arranged hierarchically (Trudgill ,1995,p. 23).The ability to classify speakers of a particular community into social groups through linguistic features was questioned by sociolinguists in their research. This can be manifested through Labov’s New York work

(1966) which demonstrates a connection between the speaker's socioeconomic status and the presence or the absence of the post-vocalic /r/ in terms like 'car ' and 'hard. If [r] is articulated speakers belong to high class. However; when it is not pronounced, they are part of the lower class.

Various standards and assessments have been used by scholars to identify social classes (Wardhaugh, 2006). To give one example, Labov (1972) established eleven social classes according to factors including education, occupation, and income. There were four social classes that he belonged to: Working class, Lower Middle Class, Upper Middle Class, and Lower Class. Trudgill (1974) distinguished between five social classes in his study of linguistic variation in Norwich, focusing on six indices (occupation, education, income, housing types, locality, and father's occupation). These classes were Middle Middle Class, Lower Middle Class, Upper Working Class, Middle Working Class, and Lower Working Class.

1.3.2.2.Ethnicity

Language features reveal individuals' identity and group adherence. In other words, in addition to culture and politics, language is an important factor that shows the ethnicity membership. Trudgill (1995) asserts that:

Language may be an important or even essential concomitant of ethnic group membership. This is a social fact, though, and it is important to be clear about what sort of processes may be involved. In some cases, for example, and particularly where language rather than varieties of a language are involved, linguistic characteristics may be the most important defining criteria for ethnic-group membership. (p.41)

Ethnic community members tend to use specific linguistic variables that may distinguish them from the mainstream community (Taglimonte, 2006). A significant body of LVC research, mostly in the United States, has shown that those of African American and

Hispanic heritage, as well as those of Spanish descent, speak differently from European Americans. The more common linguistic variables, on the other hand, were proposed by Labov (1966), Fasold (1971), and Wolfram (1969) as consonant cluster simplification and copula absence. They contend that group-specific differences exist in the frequency of the variable (t,d) and its language constraints; for instance, simplification rates among African Americans were higher than those among European descent. Deletion happens in prevocalic contexts, though it hardly ever occurs in European varieties. Moreover, Mallinson and Wolfram (2002) proposed three linguistic traits that distinguish old African Americans from elderly European Americans: the variable (s), copula absent with *is*, and the variable (t,d) in a prevocalic linguistic environment.

1.3.2.3. Age

Age was at the essence of the sociolinguistic research and inquiries into language variation and change. To categorize speakers and monitor sociolinguistic variances across their ages, variationists used chronological age to investigate language variation in progress. More importantly, studies of language change in process used the apparent time approach, which entails listening to an organized sample of speakers of various ages. In other words, this approach entails synchronic analysis of speakers. Accordingly, Labov (1994) stated sound change is fundamentally based on generational shifts. Through using the apparent time model, Romain (2000) claimed that a Tunisian study identified language distinction between females of all ages- older, middle-aged, and young. Notably, elderly ladies pronounce the diphthongs /aw/ and /aj/. Nonetheless, in the second generation, diphthongs and monophthongs alternate. In addition, younger women tend to use monophthongs in their speech. Ultimately, she claimed that age contributes to the diversified linguistic traits. An individual's speech can change over the course of their life, as revealed by age stratification

based on linguistic variables. Different age groups may employ different linguistic features because language diversity reflects their identities.

1.3.2.4. Gender

Gender is another social issue influencing language variety. The purpose of language and gender research is to determine the extent to which characteristics connected with gendered language influence linguistic patterns and interaction strategies. Relatively, Weatherall (2002, p. 2) mentions that:

Gender has been invoked as an explanation for all manner of linguistic variation, including vocabulary innovation (e.g. Jespersen, 1922), pronunciation (see Coates, 1986), grammar (see Key, 1975) and communication style (e.g. Maltz and Borker, 1982).

Early works on gender differences in speech style focused on power of men in using language. According to Lakoff (1973), women's marginalization and powerlessness can be reflected in the way men and women are supposed to converse and the way women are spoken about (p.45). In other words, language reveals the position of women in society according to her.

Most studies were undertaken by feminist linguists revolved around gender differences in language use. Accordingly, Cameron (2003) put forth that a rudimentary historical-typological explanation of feminist linguistic methods since 1973 would likely differentiate between three models of language and gender (p.33). These are the deficit model, dominance mode, and the cultural difference model. Before explaining these perspectives, however, it is required to clarify the notion gender. The latter is used interchangeably with the concept of sex. This can be surfaced in what follows to enlighten the concepts and the way they will be used throughout this study.

1.4. Gender and Sex

Gender and sex are decussate terms, though; they are conceived from a sociological point of view as two distinct concepts. The two notions are considered as being related as gender categorization is done on the basis of sex. Litosseliti (2006) claims that gender is determined in different societies on the grounds of allotted sex traits (p. 11). Accordingly, Azizah (2012) defines gender as a position in society that both men and women hold. Gender identity is based on a person's perceived physical characteristics that indicate her ability to procreate. These physical characteristics serve as indicators for classifying people as men or women and supporting their corresponding social standing. In contradistinction to sex which is related to the physiological, biological, and anatomical differences between males and females, gender is linked to the behaviours that culture assign to individuals to be a male or a female through the socialization process (Litosseliti 2006, Allyson Jule 2008). Through conceptualizing gender as a social construct, Coates (2007) goes further by stating that speakers' speech is influenced by the social and cultural context in which they live, regardless of their gender at birth. As a result, sociolinguists now differentiate between gender, which refers to socially formed categories based on sex, and sex, which is a biological term.

Therefore, in contrast to sex, gender refers to the socially and culturally defined behavioral patterns that are associated with being male and female. Moreover, the interchangeable use of gender and sex is criticised. As both males and females have varied social and cultural experiences, the fact of attributing gender to sex results in confusing inferences that all individuals will manifest the same gendered behavior across all cultures (Jule, 2008). It is delusive to resort to biology in the explanation of gender. In similar fashion, Talbot (2010) expounds that the premise that socially determined differences between men and women are inherently unavoidable is implied when gender is combined to

sex. She also claims that the conflation of sex and gender has political roots since it frequently coincides with the defense of masculine advantages or the reassertion of conventional family roles.

More deeply, the issue of merging sex with gender results in the assumption that individuals exhibit the same determined behaviours across societies as some essentialist researchers claim. Using her words, Sadiqi (2003) mentions that:

Gender within the essentialist view was defined by three major clusters of characteristics: innateness, strict binarism, and bipolarization. Gender was qualified as innate because biological endowments were innate; it was binary given the strict binary opposition between men and women as two undifferentiated groups; and it was bipolar because human beings pertain to one of the two bipolar categories :male or female. (p.3)

Unlike the essentialist movement linguists who see sex and gender as a biological sex, some feminist researchers put a distinction between the two concepts. They consider gender as a complex fluid variable. Accordingly, Goddard and Patterson (2000) assert that gender is acquired rather than being a biological aspect that one is born with. Moreover, Wardaugh (2006) distinguishes between the two concepts by asserting that “sex is to a very large extent biologically determined whereas gender is a social construct involving the whole gamut of genetic, psychological, social, and cultural differences between males and females” (p.315) .That is, gender is a notion that encompasses social and cultural differences in meanings, beliefs, behaviors, and psychological attributes that are developed via socialization.

More importantly, gender is flexible as it is constructed through time by its interaction with some social variables as it is an activity people perform (Butler 1990, Zimmerman and West 2002, Talbot 2010). In other words, it is related to context and the role

they occupy in the society. It varies according to social roles and experience. Zimmerman and West (2000) taunt that women may be perceived as unfeminine, but this does not imply that they are not females.. That is a person, being a woman or a man, can be feminine masculine depending on the situation and the social role they perform. To illustrate more, Johnson (1994) manifests that women and men reveal the same conversation paradigm when appointed the same managerial role. Rather from being a rigid categorization, gender should be viewed as a construct.

Though sex and gender are two related concepts, they are to be distinguished from each other. Gender is constructed in men's or women's daily activities, and more importantly, in social relationships, and interactions. In similar vein, Thompson and Walker (1989) assert that gender is a concept that is generated, built up, and maintained daily through family interactions (p. 856). In short, gender is revealed through language people employ and the multiple interactions they engage in. Since the present study tackles the relationship between gender and slang as a variety of language, there is an overriding need to consider the different approaches to the study of gender in correlation with language.

1.5. Gender Theories

Gender is implicit in our everyday activities and, more interestingly, in the language we use. There is an opulent body of research that manifests how men and women speak and how they are spoken about. The literature on language and gender exhibits multiple perspectives on the relationship between language and gender. Before the feminist theory achievements, no attention was given to scout on the issue of language and gender. Robin Lakoff's work *'Language and Women's Place'*(1975) is a break-grounding work that led many researchers to question the issue through advancing various theories. The latter are assorted into four approaches as they are explained in the following pages.

1.5.1. The Deficit Model

The deficit model studies language and gender from an essentialist view. This approach advocates Jespersen (1922) and Lakoff (1975), look upon male-female linguistic disparities as a proof for women subordinate status. More deeply, women's language was considered as deficient to men's like it is manifested by Sadiqi (2003) "women's language was an imperfect, deviant, and the deficient gloss of men's"(p.4). By devoting the chapter 'the Women' in his book *Language: its Nature, Development, and Origins*, the pre-feminist linguist Jespersen (1922), she presents some claims about gender distinctions in terms of language use. Contrasted to men who own an extensive vocabulary due to innovation, she asserts that women have a limited vocabulary; they exaggerate the use of hyperbole (pretty, very, terribly); as well as they construct incoherent sentences and leave them unfinished. Moreover, they are "more conservative" since they avoid using swear- words and they haunt to polite language forms. From her assumptions, Jespersen showed women's speech deficiency to male normativeness. Relatively, Sadiqi (2003) emphasized that, in line with Jespersen, women spoke in a way that was different from how males often speak. In an effort to distance themselves from the crude yet masculine vocabulary of males, they employ ladylike language (P.5). Although Jespersen (1922) had a contribution in the deficit framework, his work lacked empirical evidence since it concentrated on the prevailing gender ideologies of his day rather than on real-life behaviour. Lakoff was the main feminist proponent, who promoted the issue of language and gender and roused some scholastic debate on the matter through her pioneer published book *Language and Women's Place* (1975). This work issued an enormous inquiry on the domain of language and gender. Throughout her book, she contends that women's language is inadequate and lacks power and assertiveness. She also notes that women experience a "double bind" in which they are criticized or reprimanded for not speaking in a ladylike manner, but at the same time,

speaking in a ladylike manner routinely prevents the female speaker from gaining access to power because she is unable to maintain the ground based on her linguistic behavior. Lakoff's inquiry establishes the ground of many research in the field of language, it is a stepping stone for the emergence of the dominance framework.

1.5.2.The Dominance Model

The core principle of this model predicated on the notion that any linguistic variation between men and women is rooted from their incompatible power relations. This power, relative to different studies, can be manifested in the language patterns employed by both genders. In this regard, Sadiqi (2003) asserts that inequitable power dynamics between the sexes were the catalyst for language distinctions between men and women (p.6) .

Various researchers have undertaken investigations from different point of views. Zimmerman and West (1975) take a sample of mixed –gender conversations at the university campus as their corpus of study to dig deeper into the patterns of interruption, silence, and topic development. The data gathered show that men control conversation by interruption in cross-gender interactions through expropriating women's freedom of speaking and banning speech to be completed . In contradiction, men's blocking talk rarely appears in the same-gender groups. According to their study, interruptions are symmetrically between speakers from the same-gender pairs. Their survey reveals that women have tendency towards silence then men indicating their submission, especially when being interrupted by them. Nevertheless, males' silence precedes minimal pairs to signal their disinterest or rather non-cooperation in talk (Coates, 2004, p.120).The researchers' results do not only exhibit women's restricted right to speak but it shows men's dominance and women submission as well. Through adducing Woods' (1989) study , Coates (2004) claims that women are more prone to be interrupted by male subordinate even when occupying higher ranked positions in the workplace. Moreover, Wardaugh (2006) notes that men often interrupt women in cross-

gender interactions. Even though dominance framework is based on empirical investigation, dominance theory plainly fails as a general explanation of gendered linguistic differences.

1.5.3. The Difference Model

Unlike the dominance and deficit view of the relationship between language and gender; which depict women as deficient and dominated respectively, the difference theory considers women as different from men from a positive point of view. Tannen is the proponent of this view through his influential book: *You just Don't Understand it* (1990). This theory is also known as the "Two-cultures" model. Alternatively, researchers following this model consider that the speech styles differences are due to males and females' belonging to two distinct subcultures. Maltz & Borker (1982) and Tannen (1990) works are effective in the 'two –culture model.

The arguments of Maltz & Borker (1982) are purely ethnographic through drawing into Gumperz's (1982) model of ethnographic communication. They affirm that, through having acquired rules and principles for initiating and interpreting interactions, men and women come from distinct subcultures. According to them, boys and girls, in their early stage of life, play in groups of people of the same gender where they learn from each other multiple rules for amiable conversations. They are socialized in different manners. To explain more, boys construct large groups, display competitiveness, and express assertiveness to maintain their dominance; in contrast, girls form small groups, bid cooperativeness, and create intimate relationships. In short, speech styles are generated in early life due to the *gender segregation of childhood friendship groups*.

Following in the same line of thought, Tannen draws her assumptions from Maltz and Borker (1982). She approbated on the women's and men's belonging to different subcultures. Consequently, they engage in cross –cultural communication by using different speech styles as Tannen (1990) asserts that: "instead of different dialects, it could be said that

we speak different genderlects”(p.42).In addition, she claims that speech styles differences emanate from the intention and the objective of interaction rather than from the dominant position men occupy in society. Moreover, she adds that women and men approach the world differently. She portrays the communication styles that both genders opt for in their interactions as “report vs rapport” or “competitive vs cooperative” styles respectively. Unlike men, women’s conversations are vehicle to show support and construct intimate relationships. Social context in which both genders use language to enact their identities is disregarded.

I.5.4.Social Constructionist Theory

Unlike the traditional essentialist studies on language and gender, the advocates of the performative theory claim that gender speakers (females and males) construct their gender (West and Zimmerman,2002). This theory has drawn more emphasis on understanding gender as a component of social identity construction. More deeply, Crawford (1995) claimed that gender is to be perceived as a verb rather than a noun. She puts forward that gender is in the process of construction through males and females performances. In brief, gender is a ‘doing’ instead of a ‘being’ according to the performative framework of language and gender (Zimmerman and West ,2002).

Following the same line of thought, Litosseliti (2006) mentions that the performative theory focuses on the way men and women perform their gender in a particular situation instead of looking at the distinction between men and women speech.It takes into account the context in which gender is constructed (Litosseliti, 2006). In addition, context includes specificity and complexity. The former denotes treating men and women in a given setting ,whereas; the latter targets the intersection of gender and other identity factors as status, age, and many more. That is, it stands for the way ways in which people attribute

meaning to different aspects of context as well as how they enact their identity. Henceforth, the concept Community of Practice has emerged in the study of language and gender sphere.

The concept of Community of Practice is firstly introduced by Eckert and McConnell-Ginet (1992) in their investigation on Belton High's school girls' gender identity in relation to their linguistic practices. Parallel to the performative framework, CofP paradigm treats gender as something which issues from people's practice. The association of the concept with the study of language and gender is noticeable as it is considered by Holmes and Meyerhorff (2003) as a remedy to the inadequate essentialist notions as it matches complexity and specificity. Following CofP approach, gender is envisaged as constructed through the community members' practice with the consideration of some social factors as ethnicity, age, class, and gender.

Thus, individuals are central in the construction of their gender identity with the use of distinctive language forms in their participation of various communities of practice. This is instantiated in Mullany's (2006) investigation on business encounters where participants of the community of practice engage and enact their identities. She discloses that the role individuals perform within a particular community of practice has an important function than gender in determining speech aspects employed. She demonstrates that male managers perform their professional identity through various linguistic forms that are tied up to females' speech style in contrast to the binary issued by past studies concerning male and female speech aspects (Tannen 1994, Holmes 2001) like hedges, mitigated directives, and many more. Thus, the study of language and gender veers from looking at language features males and females should use as the society requires to the way they enact their identity through language use (Litosseliti, 2006).

1.6. Gender Variation in Language

Till the advent of variationist sociolinguistics that sociolinguistics started to investigate the differences between female and male speech as compared to traditional studies of language variation which focused only on men's language as they consider it to be the best representative in regional dialects (Holmes & Meyerhoff, 2003, p.99).

With the development of sociolinguistic studies, researchers endeavoured to make a bridge between language and gender. They asserted that men and women do not speak the same way as Holmes (2013) asserted that "Women and men do not speak in exactly the same way as each other in any community." (p.160). In her study of men and women's linguistic style, Lakoff contends that because it is seen improper, particularly for men, neither men nor women should speak in the other's language. Her essay *Language and Woman's place* was incentive as it led to the foundation of research about gender and language. She put forth some features of women linguistic features;

- 1- Hedges, e.g. sort of, kind of, I guess;
- 2- (Super) polite forms e.g. Would you, please...I'd really appreciate if...
- 3- Tag questions;
- 4- Speaking in italics, e.g. emphatic so and very, intonational language;
- 5- Empty adjectives, e.g. charming, sweet, adorable;
- 6- Hypocorrect grammar and pronunciation;
- 7- Lack of sense of humour e.g. poor at telling jokes;
- 8- Direct quotations, e.g. "Hannah said that he said..."
- 9- Special vocabulary, e.g. specialised colour terms like 'Dove grey'.
- 10- Question intonation in declarative contexts.

Furthermore, Lakoff (1990, introduced a recent section of the list that is summarized as follows:

- Women's intonational contours display more variety than men's.
- Women use diminutives and euphemisms than men.
- Women's voices are breathier than men's.
- Women make more use of expressive forms (adjective those expressing emotional rather than intellectual evaluation).
- Women use intonation patterns that resemble questions, indicating uncertainty or need for approval. - Women are more indirect and polite than men.
- In conversations, women are more likely to be interrupted, less likely to introduce successful topics. - Women's communicative style tends to be collaborative rather than competitive.
- More of women's communication is expressed non verbally (by gestures and intonation) than men's.
- Women are more careful to be 'correct' when they speak, using better grammar and fewer colloquialisms than men (p. 204)

The most dynamic component of language is its vocabulary. As a result, the gender disparity in language use is manifested by the vocabulary differences. Similar to this, Jespersen(1992) asserts that women have a unique language that includes adverbs and adjectives. More deeply, women tend to use more adjectives and adverbs, and have fewer vocabulary than males As they start talking without planning or thinking about what to say, They likely construct simpler sentences.

Lakoff (1975) cites that gender differences can be explained in terms of time spent engaging in color-related tasks, such as selecting clothing as compared to men. They prefer using French-inspired color names like mauve (lavender), azure (blue), aquamarine (blue-green), etc. Being unfamiliar to men, their use; nonetheless, displays women elegance. Women frequently use words with exaggerated connotations, such as gorgeous, pretty, cute, heavenly, adorable, darling, precious, sweet, and charming while men haunt to simple adjectives as “good, very, really” and similar expressions. According to him, women tend to employ intensifiers like "so," "awfully," "beautiful," "terribly," and "very" more frequently than men do. Contrasted to their men counterpart, women frequently employ tag questions and hedges. It has been theorized by Labov (1966), Levine & Crockett (1966), and Trudgill (1972) that men use slang more frequently than women. Relatively, Wenjing (2012) claims that women are more conscious of the refinement of language as they refrain from using abusive words like *damn* or *shit*, and many more. There are differences in terms of topics of interaction as well.

In the same line of thought, men are better at switching topics than women, who tend to stick with one subject while expressing support for others' viewpoints on it. Men and women are also reported to choose distinct topics (Ning & Dai, 2010). Women are more inclined to talk about personal issues while the other gender prefers to chat about sports, politics, and other public matters. Using Lydie Meunier's words (1996),

The topics such as sports, politics and cars which are seen as “serious” are preserved for men only, the choice for women are the topics such as child-bearing and personal relationships which are labelled as “trivial”.

From the previous quote, with discrepancy to men, women haunt to private and personal topics. There are some disparities between women's and men's choice syntactic structures. Women like tag questions above other types of questions (Wenjing ,2012). They employ a rising tone, which is designed to convey uncertainty. Conversely, men prefer to communicate straightforwardly, that is why they consistently choose imperative and declarative words to convey the tone of demands and requests.

In terms of pronunciation , it is also asserted that women pronounce words in a more standard way than men do (Wenjing ,2012). In other words, women speak with conventional form and a refined accent instead of men who tend to employ non-standard form of pronunciation more frequently. Compared to men, females have a higher tone while men recurrently place the highest pitch on the most essential word, women are reported to utilize reverse stress: through a lowest pitch. Though most studies were interested in the linguistic strategies that both genders use in interaction rather than variables recurrently resorted to (Bucholtz, 2002), there are some linguists who investigated on the issue.

It is worth to mention that Labov was the first one to consider gender as a sociolinguistic variable. His work from 1966 in New York City showed through the random selection of the sample that everyone had an equal chance to be a representative of a speech community. He contends that it is possible to select men and women on an equal basis regardless of their social status, age, or ethnicity. He was interested in three principles. The first one is about sociolinguistic stratification, where men employ non-standard forms more often than women. The second one discusses how women would rather use prestigious forms than men in order to rise to a significant position in society. The remaining one demonstrates that women are most often innovators.

In order to get trustworthy and legitimate data for his study, Labov developed the sociolinguistic interview, which was specifically created to elicit various speech patterns.. Though Mansfield and Trudgill (1994) assert that there is a dearth of research on the phonological variations used by both sexes, his research has revealed that phonological characteristics stratify according to age , sex/gender, socioeconomic position, and situational context. As a result, he discovered that: First, upper-class women employ more standard versions than their male counterparts. In order to obtain social status, the lower middle class (LMC) "hypercorrects" its language; it imitates the middle class' (MC) more conventional language behavior. His findings join Lakoff's assumption about women use of standard variant of language. Labov's research revealed that gender has a significant impact on socio-phonological variance, but he left open the question of the reasons behind women's utilization of more standard forms than males. Relatively, he mentions that women are said to rely more on symbolic assets than males since they have less material power, and they are considered to be more expressive than men, employ expressive symbols more frequently, or rely on them more to assert their position Labov(1990).

Working within Labov's paradigm in his investigation of Norwich, Trudgill (1972) seeks to understand why women employ more standard forms than men. His study was based on a large-scale interview with a sample size of sixty persons. He focused on the variable (ng), revealing that there were extremely noticeable variations between the utilization of working-class females and working-class males; Males preferred the (n) form far more than did females, using pronunciations such "singin" instead of "singing." According to him , women haunted to employ the prestige forms more frequently than males. He clarified his findings by arguing that they usually use standard pronunciations more to indicate and secure their social standing. More deeply,

women are more concerned with their social position than males. They are thus more conscious of the social implications of language characteristics. In the same line of thought, supporting Trudgill's position, Fasold (1990) asserts women use more standard variant than men since it allows them to seem less regional and have a voice and they believe that doing so may put them in a better social position than males. Corresponding to this, Gordon (1997) argues that women utilize standard forms to avoid the social stigmas associated with using non-standard dialects. Furthermore, Mashrine, et al. (2004) mentions that Labov's work in New York and Trudgill's one in Norwich show that male informants tended to employ more vernacular language features, whereas their female informants tended to use more prestige or high status language traits across all stylistic contexts and social class groups.

Whatever the social class, men employ the non-standard variants of the language in contradistinction to their women counterpart who utilize standard variety. In the results of his investigation, Trudgill (1995) notes that working class speech appears to have associations or implications of masculinity, similar to several other features of working class culture in our society. This may mean that men are more likely than women to favor non-standard linguistic forms.

From Trudgill's perspective, gender interacts with other social factors as social class. Retrospectively mentioned, working class males favour the use of non-standard linguistic features as they consider it as a marker of masculinity. In other words, they are establishing both themselves as an example of maleness and the variant in as an example of manliness. As the present research is also concerned with attitudes of both teachers and students about linguistic behavior, it is of a paramount importance to clarify the concept.

1.6. Language Attitude

"Attitude" comes from the Latin word "aptus," which meaning "fit." Depending on the field of application, it can mean several things. In the social sciences, it is the primary focus of several researchers and it overlaps with other factors like ideology, belief, opinion, value, habit, traits, and motivation..

1.6.1. The Definition of Language Attitude

Attitude is a crucial concept in understanding social behavior. It is implicit, but it can be noticed through external behavior according to Baker (1992). Relatively, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) define it to "be a hypothetical construct which is not directly observable but can be inferred from observable responses" (p.2). From a sociolinguistic point view, attitude revolves around speakers' view about linguistic behavior ,which has distinctive orientations.

According to Baker (1992), there are two constituents of language attitudes: instrumental and integrative orientations. In the words of Lambert (1964),

An instrumental orientation to learning stresses the utilitarian value of L2 proficiency, of which getting a pay raise or a better job or a good grade in school are examples. In contrast, an orientation is said to be integrative if it reflects openness toward another culture group, an openness that may include a desire to be accepted as a member of that group. (p.181)

As retrospectively mentioned , an instrumental orientation to language is primarily self-centered. Peoples' instrumental attitude towards language can be both positive and bad as due to their desire to achieve success or self- enhancement. On the contrary, integrative towards language is primarily interpersonal and social in nature. People who own a positive view regarding a language aspire to associate themselves with speakers of that language through seeking them.

Language attitude denotes speech agents' perception of their own or others' language usage as designated by Crystal (1992). Their view is manifested through their own reaction which might be negative or positive (Ajzen, 2005, p.3). Consequently, a particular linguistic behavior can be foreseen, when language attitudes have an impact on the decision to speak a certain language. This leads one to say that language attitude research raises issues about how speakers of particular varieties are appraised and assessed.

Through expounding the way language variety is evaluated, Fasold (1990) mentions that a variety's appraisal is the result of experiences and a wide range of historical, social, economic, political, and cultural ramifications that constantly interact with one another, transforming the objective into the subjective. That is, he highlights the significance of viewing language not only as objective, socially neutral means of meaning communication, but also as varieties connected to social or ethnic identities that have an impact on how people view and value languages in society. As language attitudes may be latent (i.e., dormant), it can be conveyed through verbal or non-verbal subjective reactions. Additionally, they serve as markers for affective responses and opinions (Baker, 1992, pp. 13-14). They need to be supported by several empirical research so that specific attitudes areas can be clarified. The following key areas are identified by Baker (1992, pp. 29–30).

- Attitude towards language variation, dialect and speech style
- Attitudes towards learning a new language
- Attitude towards a specific minority language
- Attitude towards language groups, communities and minorities
- Attitude towards language lessons
- Attitude of parents towards language lessons
- Attitude towards the uses of a specific language
- Attitude towards language preference

The present study endeavours to measure the first area. The present study's focal point is the attitude towards non-standard variety, particularly the use of slang among master students of English. Hence, regarding a particular variety of a particular social group, one can have either a favorable or a negative opinion.

1.6.2. Attitude towards Language variety

People's attitude towards certain linguistic behavior are said to be socially consented on. Through stressing the arbitrariness of attitudes about language variety, Holmes (1995) states that "the particular linguistic forms that people regard as prestigious or stigmatized are in general totally arbitrary" (p.154). She asserts that language variation is negatively seen and speech of the prestigious social class is typically the one that elicits favourable reactions.

Sociolinguists' key objective is to provide an account of overt attitudes towards language, linguistic stereotypes, and linguistic traits according to Labov (1984).

1.6.2.1. Stereotypes

Generally speaking, stereotypes represent a particular way of articulating attitude. They can be identified by a consensus among members of the same group concerning some features as adequate and used to identify other variations. They are generalized representations that are created without any empirical basis, leading to the categorization of people on the basis of their outward appearance (Flay, 1997). They are the foundation of community stigmatization processes, and value judgments.

1.6.2.2. Representation

The term representation has been conceptualized by different social sciences fields as sociology, psychology, and philosophy. It typically relates to the ability to remember an idea that is expressed by symbols, signs, images, to mention but few. From the perspective of Moscovici (1963), who is the founder of the term, representation refers to a set of principles, behaviours, beliefs, that serve two purposes: first, to establish a system that allows individuals to successfully traverse and control their material and social surroundings. The second revolves around facilitating communication among community members by giving them a system for exchanging ideas and information as well as a way to name and categorise various aspects in their world, and their social and personal histories without ambiguity. In inquiring language attitude, one should take into account the suitable theory as well as the research method to be applied for its assessment.

1.5.3. Methodology and Attitude Measurement

In order to study language attitudes, one is to consider two different theories about nature of attitudes. The focus of one theory is “the mentalist view of attitude as a state of readiness” meanwhile the core of the second approach is a behaviourist perspective that the way people react to social circumstances reveals their attitudes. (Fasold, 1990). From the mentalist approach, attitudes consist of three components: affect, cognition, and readiness for action. Beliefs and thoughts are part of cognition. Affective component is concerned with emotions and feelings towards the attitude’s object. The behavioural aspect of attitude is verbal and nonverbal behavioural propensity by an individual. It consists of actions and perceptible reactions that are the outcome of an attitude object. Though, the behaviourist theory advocates perceive attitude as a single unit. In investigating people’s language attitude, there are distinctive methods used to be measured.

There are numerous research techniques for gauging individual’s attitudes towards language. They include content analysis, document analysis, interviews, case studies,

autobiographies, and matched guise method as claimed by Baker (1992). More interestingly, the researcher is to choose that appropriate method that takes into account the individual and the group in order to get a fair picture of the community's attitude towards certain linguistic behaviours.

In the same line of thought, Fasold (1990) issued an article concerning ways of assessing people's attitude towards their mother tongue. It was a wonderful resource for researchers inquiring on the issue. Through asserting that views towards language or its variety encompass attitudes towards its users, he put forth two ways for their evaluation.

The direct method involves asking people to answer questions on a questionnaire or during an interview about their opinions on a particular language in contrast to the indirect strategy which is used to prevent the informants from knowing that their attitudes are examined. In designing the questionnaires, the researcher should include both open and close-ended questions. Being another direct method for determining language attitude, interviews are likely to contain open-ended questions. However, assessing language attitudes in indirect way, matched guise technique is usually used. In applying this technique, a sample of speech agents from the speech community is asked to provide their opinion about speakers' characteristics through listening to a recording of a group of speakers reading a passage. Observation is also another indirect method to collect objective data concerning individuals' viewpoints about language.

1.7. Conclusion

Language cannot be studied independent from its social situation of use. Linguistic theory had completely ignored this kind of research until William Labov paved the way for it. More deeply, language correlates with social and contextual factors. The latter comprises various elements such as: setting, time, the participants, etc. Dealing with the participants, one can consider age, ethnicity social class, and gender. As the present study revolves around

the use of slang according to gender, one cannot neglect the different theories of gender . It has been a point of interest for many feminist researchers for which they issue four approaches to study the relationship between language and gender- deficit theory, dominance theory, difference theory, performative theory. The deficit theory advocates claim that females' use of some polite formulas and hyper correct grammar is due to their subordinate status, compared to males. The dominance theory proponents assert males' dominance over females, especially, in conversation (Spender, 1980). However, the difference theory principles state that males and females opt for two different *genderlects* as they belong to distinct cultures (Tannen,1990). The performative theory upholders affirm that females and males' style of speech depend on the role they perform within society. Since the focal point of this research is concerned with slang variables , it is necessary to define it.

Chapter Two:

Slang and its Sociolinguistic Variables

2.1.Introduction

According to many sociolinguists, slang is a variant that has undergone so many meanings that it is hard to pin down. It's a contentious term for which numerous scholars offer varying interpretations, from being a member of a criminal subculture to being an ordinary individual (teens, families). It is crucial to highlight specific slang characteristics that help identify its many forms, since this aligns with the primary focus of the current study, which is students' slang kinds and their functions of use. Thus, it is vital to consider the various perspectives from which it has been approached

2.2.Slang as a variety

In processing slang variety, most sociolinguists' investigations focus on the sociological element of the phenomenon; nevertheless, it has been viewed from several perspectives as well. From the sociological approach, it serves two paradoxical functions, such as maintaining unity within the group and preventing outsiders. The variety's interpersonal component fulfills the former purpose (Eble, 1996). That is using a common slang vocabulary makes it easier to fit in and maintains group cohesion (Munro ed. 1997). Broadly speaking, slang is a social activity that speech agents value for a variety of reasons like putting themselves and their audience at the same speaking level, easing interpersonal interaction, as well as impelling closeness and friendships. The latter emphasizes anti-social goals including creating distinctions (Eble, 1996), and concealing their preoccupations (Stenström et al. 2002), opposing people in authority (Allen, 1998). Slang is specifically seen as an in-group vocabulary that certain social subgroups (such as criminals or drug addicts) develop in order to keep their interactions secret; or a variety that youths or college students embrace to distance themselves from the older generation.

Focusing on the stylistic elements, slang is described according to its degree of usage, in juxtaposition to standard language, as being below the neutral style like Zoltan (2000) who mentions that the variety falls on the extreme informal-formal spectrum. In other words, it is at the essence of colloquial speech (Partridge, 2015). Slang is further distinguished from other non-standard forms; it cannot be confined to the concepts of cant, argot, or jargon, nor is it a dialect or register (Andersson & Trudgill 1990, Eble 1996). From the same perspective, slang is seen as a momentary, fleeting lexicon that is either expected to fade away or to acquire a more standard position.

From a linguistic perspective, slang is perceived as a means of inventing new words or employing common words with hazy meanings as grounded in Eble's (1996) argument by claiming that slang exploits existing words and their current meanings in diverse ways, drawing on and frequently combining resources from the sound system. It is different from formal language in terms of both morphology and semantics. It exhibits blatant disobedience to standard word-formation principles. In semantics, it redefines common things while also giving them nuances and more complexity. From the idea of the non-compliance with the standard language norms, Sorning depicts slang as a *stau nascendi* or an *experimental language*.

2.2.1. Definition of Slang

Every term in sociolinguistics is debatably provided with distinctive definitions. Slang, as one of language varieties, is not an exception. Thus, how is slang defined?

Most people view slang as an informal communication code. It comes from the English term "s' language," which is used to refer to abusive language used by specific subcultures, according to the epistemological framework (Burdova, 2009). In this regards, it is suitable to target Finegan (2015) definition of the concept, in his book "*Language, its Structure and Use*", as a variety occasionally employed in highly informal settings conveying a deliberate distance

from some conventional norms or rebellious overtones, undoubtedly popular among youth and college students. It always denotes disobedience to or rejection of prevailing values. More deeply, Finegan (2015) defines slang from the stylistic and sociological point of views. On one hand, he depicts it as a variety consisting of expressions that are used solely in highly informal situations. On the other hand, it is a means of rebellion or breaking the ordinary norms and values of the society.

From the latter view, Leech and Svartvik (1981) approaches the notion from the stylistic point view through defining it as a very common variety which has the power to convey closeness and camaraderie among members of a particular social group because it is typically not fully understood by its out-group members. For example: the army slang is distinctive from that of theatrics. Similarly, it stands for the vocabulary that individuals use to manifest their belonging to a given group (Sorning, 1981). This coincides with Le Page's idea of language as "a social badge". In other words; language, in addition to musical preferences, body decoration, and clothes, can denote a young person's identification as a unique group apart from society (Appel & Schoonen; 2005, p.2).

From a sociolinguistic approach, being deciphered only among the in – group members, it is considered like a tool to bridge social gaps and bolster consistency as "it expresses their common fear, interests, aversion and preferences" (Sorning, 1981). Following the same line of thought, being a non-geographic specific code, Ellis (2002, p.53) accounts for slang as a variety of language used in various situations that people use to convey their sense of membership to a particular group within the community. It is rather "a variety according to use" (Bailey, 1985, p.2). That is, it is depicted register for its dependence on the intention of speakers in the community to attain certain objectives as showing belonging or dissonance to a peculiar group. Relatively, Crystal (1987) mentions "the chief use of slang is to show that you're one of the gang" (p.53). It is rather a form of linguistic identity marker (Roth, 2007). In addition to its

inclusive aspect, according to Trudgill (2003), slang is a means to mark the exclusion of out-group members as claimed by De Klerk (1995) in his article '*slang in South African English*' that it can be used purposefully to disobey authority figures and to reject outsiders by underlining their lack of belonging.

In addition to the opposition purpose of slang use, Akmajian et.al (2001) insist on the difficulty of defining slang, even though it is recognized by different members of a society, due to the creativity aspect. Accordingly, from the linguistic approach, they depict that:

Slang like a fashion of clothing and popular music changes quite rapidly. Slang can enter a language rapidly, then fall out of fashion in a matter of few years or even months (Akmajian et. al, 2001,p.303)

In the retrospective quotation, Akmajian et. al compare slang to a fashionable style of clothes or music that attract people to use or listen to; it appears in a particular period and it becomes out of date rapidly. Thus, people have an interest in creating new words or changing their speech as wearing new clothes. More importantly, the rate of creativity is manifest in slang that any kind of vocabulary of language (Millar, 2007). Following in the same line of thought, Eble (1996) through different inquiries on college students' slang in different periods of time, stresses the ephemerality aspect of slang variety as through depicting it as a dynamic collection of informal terms and expressions that people use to build or maintain group cohesion or social identity while adhering to prevailing trends and fashions in society(p.11).

In supporting Eble's view, Sorning (1981) demonstrates that it is a non-standard variety which is in a constant process of creation, or rather an *experimental language* (p.20). Being a component of language, it is utilised for interpersonal reasons as maintaining bonds, strengthening social identity among its users. In addition, it is a manifestation of change and newness in a society. According to Green (2016, p.28), slang items are changed by in- group

members, especially, when they become common in the society at large. without ignoring the descriptions that have been put forward given, It is crucial to note that while some sociolinguists portray it positively, whereas others characterise it negatively.

In public conversation, slang is associated with negative connotations. (De Klerk, 1991). This is illustrated in Lighter's (2001) depiction of the concept from a stylistic point of view through mentioning that it is a colloquial, non-standard, non-technical vocabulary which frequently has strong implications of impertinence or contempt, particularly toward accepted attitudes and principles in the dominant culture. They are disrespectful words that flout the norms of a given society. Additionally, this converges with Sorning's claim "a stigmatized language variety or deviant variant when compared with the codified standard language" (1981,p.71). By claiming that it deviates from standard language, they both convey a negative tone. A variety of sociolinguists in the subject have offered further definitions.

Nonetheless, slang is depicted with a different tone. In addition to the negative perception of the variety, Stenstrom (2000) asserts consists of a highly informal vocabulary used by some subcultures. In addition, it comprises lexis peculiar to a *profession*. Those words are the result of playing with words, through creating new words or attributing other meanings for already existing. Relative to this, Fowler (1926,p.308) enhances its creative elements, By including features of use ; either for novelty value or looking fashion. He argues that slang results from playing with words and renaming objects and acts; either new words are created or existing words are misused for the sake of novelty or to seem fashionable (Cited in Barry, 2010,p. xIviii).

From the above mentioned definitions, all sociolinguists in the discipline of slang consent on the idea of its informality as well as its belonging to a specific group of people. Moreover, they each indicate a distinct purpose as for defensiveness and

antagonism(Mcknight), for reinforcing social relationships inside the in-group (Eble), and occasionally for novelty (Fowler). The latter brings up an aspect of slang's transient nature, which is mentioned in a few definitions. Since language has the same creative quality as slang, how would it be able to differentiate between slang and creative standards?

2.2.3.Slang Criteria

Considering that slang is not a recently coined word (Lighter, 1994), there are certain requirements that must be met for a statement to qualify as "true slang." What are these criteria ?

According to Dumas and Lighter (1978,pp.14-15), the conditions are the following:

1-It lowers, if temporarily, "the dignity of formal speech or writing; in other words, it is likely to be seen in such contexts as a "glaring misuse of register."

2-Its use implies that the user is familiar with whatever is referred to, or with a group of people that are familiar with it and use the term.

3-"It is a taboo term in ordinary discourse with people of higher status or greater responsibility."

4-It replaces a well-known conventional synonym. This is done primarily to avoid the discomfort caused by the conventional term or by further elaboration.

In this sense, slang is an informal variant of language, reducing the formal status of a discourse. For instance, "sleep" and "screw," which refer to having sex with someone, are two different things. The latter will make speaking less formal. Then, familiarity is crucial to ensuring intelligibility inside the in-group since, as previously noted, slang can be a tool for inclusion or exclusion. Also, understanding one's in-group is unique rather than conventional;

for example, using colloquial language unique to a set of people suggests familiarity. To explain more, the code is used by certain individuals, such as youths and gangs. Since all discourse is limited by the social context in which it is implemented, any application outside of that in-group is objectionable. It substitutes the traditional terms to offer comfort by giving the traditional words new meanings or by borrowing from other languages, as it is said to be utilized for defensiveness and novelty. For instance, to avoid being explicit, use the term *mampara* (fool), which is used in African American English, rather than the term *fool*. These are the requirements that an expression must meet to qualify as slang.

Dumas and Lighter (1978) enumerate few key characteristics of slang. These include reducing the speech's formal value, the in-group's familiarity with one another, removing the taboo element from its context of use, and changing the traditional meaning of some statements to make them more comforting. "The misuse of register" gives rise to the idea that slang and many other linguistic variations overlap. Thus, how is it possible to draw distinctions between them?

2.2.4.Slang and Similar Varieties

It is difficult to distinguish slang from other linguistic codes, as several researchers have shown via their trials. One of them is Green (2002, p. 27) who contends that accounting for slang phrases becomes erroneous due to its evolving nature is exemplified in this way. In other words, words can simply shift categories and be embraced by a different population. For that reason, Andersson and Trudgill (1990) suggest distinguishing slang from other varieties instead of looking for a precise definition (p.69). Accordingly, boundaries are established between slang and others codes.

Slang and colloquialism differ and merge at the same time. According to Zuckerman (2003), the former is an informal variety utilized by a social group—such as teens, criminals, etc.—but not out of familiarity (p. 21). Though it ignores the clique's nature, colloquialism

shares the value of informality with it. It therefore contains slang. Eble (1996) corroborates the latter notion by stating that slang is colloquialism and that the opposite is not feasible with contradistinction. This is demonstrated by the fact that although beer belly is slang, belly (stomach) is included in colloquialism. This is the method by which slang and colloquialism can be distinguished; yet, it is crucial to consider other codes.

A comparison of the characteristics of slang and vernacular demonstrates that they are both spoken language codes. While vernacular and slang have some similarities, they also differ to some degree. In contrast to slang, vernacular refers to the people who live in a specific area or region and is more indigenous in nature. It is described as the speech that native speakers of a given nation or region often use, often with variations in sound or mispronounced phrases that are typical of that location (Mattiello, 2008). Scottish slang, for instance, mispronounces the word "football" as "fitba." In certain ways, dialect is different from slang.

Although slangs and dialects share the trait of regionalism, as slang varies from place to place, they are not the same. In general, dialect is a variety spoken in a specific geographic area. It has its own grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Some standard American English phrases can be handled as slang in British English. To illustrate with, "to go down a bomb" is a proverb for something very successful, while in American English the term can mean the exact opposite meaning 'to be a disaster' (Mattiello, 2005). Despite its local idiosyncrasies; slang is not inherently associated with any one location or social group though slang is not inherently associated with any one location or social group. For instance: Everyone knows that nerd is an intelligent person. Being only concerned with pronunciation, accent is one characteristic of slang.

Among the nonstandard variants of speech, the most conspicuous variant that characterizes slang is accent stands for the pronunciation of words (stress, pitch, etc). To explain more, some slang terms are created from the standard terms through mispronunciation which results

from shifting some sounds For instance: *Heck* is the slang of hell .One can say that Slang employs a variety of linguistic devices besides mispronunciation. More importantly, slang is mainly a semantic issue as it frequently denotes a change in meaning. slang is considerably a matter of semantics as it often represents a change of meaning. A good example is drug names as ball and base (crack) that have a distinctive reference in the ordinary language. Though slang and jargon are attributed to specific groups or profession , they are incompatible in some features.

Jargon and slang diverge from one another in certain ways, yet they also have a few traits in common. Coleman (2004, p. 2) claims that slang is a transient variation that is used to identify members of a certain clique as either in-group or out-group. Its vocabulary is extremely unfamiliar (Mattiello, 2008). However, according to Denham and Lobeck (2013), jargon is a specific language associated with a certain occupation. Its function is inclusion/exclusion, just like slang . Only in terms of prestige and pretentiousness do jargon and slang vary from one another because they are both the property of peculiar groups. In essence, slang terms are substantially more spontaneous than jargon used in different fields as they are not related to social class. These are the discrepancies made between jargon and slang.

It is commonly known that slang is a social variety characterising a group. It is further divided into general slang and specific slang. The former stands for a vocabulary that speech agents purposefully deviate from the standard code and shift the conversational tone towards informality. It also indicates language users' intention to reject the conventions or to eliminate excessive seriousness, their urge to be startling, and induce friendliness (Flexner, 1960; Partridge,1947). since they are not restricted to any particular group or subject, general slang terms disseminate more widely and they can be used in highly distinctive situations for example: Footy (football) is a term commonly used by English speakers from various backgrounds (Mattiello, 2008, p. 40). However, the latter is a code that individuals employ to

demonstrate their membership in a group and build closeness and unity with its constituents. Specific slang is often used by speakers to create their own unique identities, which may include characteristics like age, education, lifestyle, social standing, and regional affinity. In order to strengthen the ties within their own peers as well as to put the elder generation at arm's length, individuals of similar age and experience may hang out with it (Stenstrom et al, 2002). For example: *ace* (excellent) and *cool* (good) are associated with teenagers and college students to mean marijuana. It may also be utilized by persons having the same interest to boost the effectiveness of communication. It can be opted for by people having a joint mindset or lifestyle to conceal hidden information from those in positions of authority, and to strengthen their group cohesiveness (Andersson and Trudgill, 1990). To instantiate with, *rock* (cocaine) and *solid* (hashish) are specialised words spoken by drug addicts and dealers;. More importantly, those words have a distinct meaning in ordinary speech.

Due to its high degree of colloquialism, slang differs greatly from mainstream language. From a stylistic perspective, slang is seen as having a lower rank than formal language because it contains words that fall below the level of formality (Stenstrom et al., 2002).It, therefore, happens in situations where people do not speak Standard English (Lighter, 1994). From a linguistic perspective, both varieties differ in terms of morphology and semantics. When compared to formal variety, slang has different rules for the production of in subordinate words in morphology (Mattiello, 2008). More deeply, there are some words- formation rules that are purely peculiar to slang like suffixes as -o in '*laddo*' (lad), -ers in '*butters*' (ugly), to mention but few. Furthermore, Slang can also be created by creating new words or renaming neutral terms. More importantly, many standard words have colloquial equivalents, such as alky for alcohol. However, occasionally a slang word for its inclusivity does not have a parallel in Standard English, such bimbo (a young, pretty, vacuous woman). There are several ways that slang differs from formal language.

Other than formal language, there are other codes associated with slang, jargon, vernacular, accents, and colloquialism. A number of sociolinguists try to discern between them. Nonetheless, they do not hesitate to emphasize the difficulties, citing language ephemerality as a barrier.

2.2.5. Slang Words' Creation

Certain researchers have suggested that slang phrases emerge through distinct methods. From Pei and Gaynor's perspective, slang is a type of language is typically unique to particular social classes, age groups, or social groups. Lexicographically, it is created by popularly extending the meaning of words that already exist. Its terms are also constructed through coining new words without regard for grammatical rules or the rules governing how words are formed in language or through semantic indeterminacy according to Andersson and Trudgill (1992).

Andersson and Trudgill (1992:82, 84) present three types of creation, in their opinion. First, by creating new slang words like "freak out" (to lose control). Second, phrases can be created by giving basic, neutral words several meanings, like "juice" (to marry) and "computer" (to be a computer). The aforementioned characteristics prompt one to reflect on Jespersen's (1992, p. 298) statement regarding the exuberance of slang, according to which slang finds entertainment in coining new terms and spreading them, as well as in giving old words new meanings. Third, terms that are deemed slang are those that are acquired from other languages; one such example is *mampara*. But Hubacek (1988) generates more phases.

Following in the same line of thought, Hubacek (1988) contends in his examination of Czech slang that the same onomasiological mechanisms that grow standard vocabulary also expand slang vocabulary. He presents the two main innovation processes. First, transformation expands vocabulary through derivation, compounding, or shortening. That has to do with the

morphology of words. Second, the other phase is the transposition, often known as the semantic process. Through metonymy and metaphor, a word's neutral meaning is transformed into a metaphorical one (killed soldier: empty beer container)., as Hayakawa (1964) argues that “Slang is the poetry of everyday life” (p.195) .Moreover, *De Klerk* (2006) defines of slang as “an expressive, almost poetic medium, evidenced by the amount of rhyme, alliteration, metaphor, onomatopoeia...” (p.408). This illustrates how slang is figurative. Hubacek describes the offspring of slang in this way. According to Hubacek (1988) and Trudgill and Anderson (1990), creativity takes place at the semantic or morphological level. As a result, slang terminology have some linguistic quirks.

2.3. Linguistic Analysis of Slang

Withing the linguistic framework, analysis should consider morphology, phonetics, grammar, and syntax. Various sociolinguists focus on the linguistic characteristics of slang. These include Eble (1996), Mattiello (2008), and Anderson and Trudgill (1990). They offer unique points of view through analysis. Therefore, what are the linguistic characteristics of slang?

2.3.1. Slang’s Morphological Variables

Slang, as indicted in this chapter, is a language variant. It's said to follow the word-formation procedures of ordinary English. With reference to this, Eble (1996) notes slang makes use of words and their current meanings in a variety of ways, combining and repurposing elements from word-building processes and the sound system. However, because the standard word construction rules do not match the usual ones, its morphology is extra-grammatical (Mattiello,

2008). Only the most common word-formation mechanisms— affixation, compounding, , functional shift, blending, and shortening —are examined in Eble's research.

2.3.1.a. Compounding Slang words

Slang vocabulary allows words from different grammatical categories to be combined but referring to one object (Wisniewski, 2007). Using Plag's words (2003) it consists of “two elements, the first of which is either a root, a word or phrase, the second of which is either a root or a word” (p.135)

- Noun-noun:

Couch potato “lazy person” (Man, you are such a couch person!).

Bird class ‘easy class’

Cake bole “the mouth”.

jungle juice ‘juice mixed with alcohol’

glamour puss ‘a glamorous person’,

Motor mouth “a person who talk fast and incessantly”

Meat hook “an arm”

-Adjective-noun:

mad money ‘money for use in an emergency’

low-key ‘quiet night of friend’

Big mouth “a person who talks too much”.

Squarehead ‘an honest person

Droopy drawers “an untidy dressing woman”

Bloody paper “red marked paper” (I got my test from the teacher, it was completely bloody).

Hot chair ‘the electric chair’

Good oil “reliable information”

-Verb-noun:

Breakneck “dangerous”

Sawbones ‘surgeon’

Jitterbug “a person, obsessed by an idea, acts in a nervous way”

Take sides “to feel strongly about one side of the argument and act on that feeling”

plug-ugly ‘ an ugly person who strikes’”

-Verb (or participle) - some grammatical words (pronouns, preposition):

Mix it “to quarrel”

Buzz off ‘ move away quickly’

Hang out ‘pass time”

-Noun-verb (or participle):

Mind blowing “alternation of consciousness”

Shit-scared ‘extremely frightened’

Gob-stuck “surprised”

-Noun-noun derived from verb by adding the suffix “er”:

Head-shrinker “psychiatrist”

High-roller "someone who bets large amounts of money or lavishly"

Gob-stopper ‘ a hard , frequently round candy meant for sucking

2.3.1.b. Slang Words’ Affixation

Affixation or *deformation* focuses on incorporating suffixes or prefixes (Partridge, 2015). It is "the most common word formation process" (Yule 2006,p. 58). More interestingly, slang, employs affixes that are more flexible in some ways to convey a variety of meanings. Though prefixes play a peripheral role as their number is limited, here are just few prefixes that make up slang:

-Mega “a great amount of”, for example: *megaparty* ‘ a great party’

Megawork “an extreme work”.

-Perma “the shortened form of permanent”, For instance: permagrin, permagross,

-Re¹: *re-up* “increase”

-De²: *Delouse* ‘free from something unpleasant’

-Super: *superfly* ‘excellent’

¹The suffix re- is used to indicate again in English formation.

² The suffix de- is used in English to create complicated verbs with the meaning "to deprive."

-Un³: *Untogether* ‘Weakly coordinated’

-Schm⁴: *Child- schmid*

-Under⁵: *underpants* ‘ a thick, close atmosphere’.

Every prefix that has been listed has a different meaning. Mega and Perma are prefixes that are commonly found in the vernacular of English students, according to Eble (1996, p. 32). Subtly, one is used to provide a brief emphasis when combined with an everyday term, while the other is intended to convey situations that cannot be changed. "De, un, under, super, re" are all used in both vernacular and everyday speech, but "schm" is specific to slang. Slang words can also be constructed using a variety of suffixes, much like regular vocabulary. He presents the most effective methods that learners can use slang.

- er: *crasher* ‘one who cannot tolerate alcohol , *bummer* ‘depressing experience’

- aholiс: *foodaholic* “ a glutton”. *bookaholic*, *caffeinaholic*.

- dom⁶: *queerdom*.

- age: *Foodage* , *fundage* “money”.

- omatic:, *dunkomatic*, *jogomatic*

- orama:, *funorama*, *barforama*, *grossorama*,

- fest: *beerfest*, *pizzafest*.

³is employed to create negative adjectives

⁴It comes from words in the Yiddish. It creates an opaque word by substituting the term's first letter, "s."

⁵ Is used to form denominal.

⁶ “-dom” is attached to verbs and nouns to express the sense of state and dignity.

-y: *lunchy* 'lunch'; *dorky* 'stupid'; The addition of this suffix produces denominal adjectives.

Slang terms can also be created by combining additional suffixes as : 'less', 'ette', 'ed' 'able', 'ery', 'ers', 'eroo', 'o' or 'oo', 's', (Mattiello,2005)

-Less: *legless* "drunk"

-ette⁷: *hackette* "a reporter or journalist"

Bimbette "A young woman regarded as sexually attractive but thought to lack intelligence"

-ed: *pipped* 'annoyed'(forming adjectives)

Cracked"insane"(deverbal type).

loaded "drunk"(forming adjectives) -able⁸: *ropeable* 'requiring to be roped; obstinate'

Noshable "suitable to be noshed".

-ery: *noshery* (*nosh* 'food, a meal') 'a restaurant

-er/ers⁹: *crackers* 'crazy, mad'

bed-sitter ' bed-sitting room'

collekkers ' collections'

Lekker "lecture"

-roo/eroo¹⁰: *pipperoo* "A particularly remarkable or pleasing person or thing"

7To indicate feminine sex, the suffix "-ette" is used with personal substantives.

⁸ The prefix "-able" confers a passive connotation. It forms both denominal and deverbal adjectives in Standard English, but only deverbal adjectives in slang.

⁹ "-ers" are used to be humorous and jocular.

¹⁰ Wentworth (1972) describes it as "a factitious slang suffix."

smasheroo ‘a great success’.

-o: *wrongo* ‘a nasty, unscrupulous individual person’

pinko ‘a socialist’

weirdo "Someone who is peculiar or out of the ordinary"

-s: *smarts* ‘intelligence; wits’.

Flicks “the cinema”

Furthermore, according to Mattellio, infixes like "bloody" and "fucking" are used in the development of slang words. These words typically form adjectives or adverbs, like fant-idilyas-astic and abslu-bloody-tely.

2.3.1.c. Slang Words’ Functional Shifts

The process via which a word's grammatical category shifts without affecting its lexicon is known as the "functional shift." In Eble (1996, pp. 34–35), four categories of word functional changes are introduced.

1-shift from noun to verb:

Butt in “to disrupt”.

Jive ‘talk nonsense’

Shelf ‘provide information about something’

Goof ‘make a mistake’

2-shift from verb to noun:

Clean-up 'a profit or exceptional financial success'

Hang-out 'a residence'

Rave-up 'a lively party'

3-shift from adjective to noun:

Ready 'cash'

Verbal 'insult or abuse'

Frail 'woman'

4-shift from adjective/ adverbs to verb:

Total 'damage beyond repair' (a motor vehicle, in an accident)

Off 'turn off, shut down', 'kill'

2.3.1.d. Slang Words' Shortening (Acronyms, Clipping, and Blending)

By the process of shortening of slang words, new words are created. Its aim is economy in language as it consists in the elimination of sounds without any meaning change (Eble 1996, p.35). Three useful categories of abbreviations exist in English word-building, according to Leech and Svartvik (1981): blends, acronyms, and clipping. An acronym is made up of the first letters of words that are either pronounced as a single word, like TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language), SAT (Standard Assessment task), or as a sequence of letters, like BED (Bachelor of Education), EFL (English as a Foreign Language), and ESL (English as Second Language). However, clipping happens at the level of polysyllabic words. It is a prime illustration of a unique group, such as a school. Exam (mination), math (ematics), lab (oratory).

In addition, blending is a combination of clipping and compounding according to Widawski (2015). It is identical to *amalgamation* in that it involves matching the beginning and ending of two words to form new words with distinct meanings (Widawski,2015). At first glance, it appears to overlap with terms like: *gaydar* for gay-radar, *brunch* for breakfast- lunch, and *smog* which refers to smoke and fog. School slang terminology contains fewer blends, such as *scrump* for *screw-bump*. Slang also has unique phonological features.

2.3.2. Slang's Phonological Variables

In addition to the elements stated above, Eble (1996) focuses on sound patterns that impede with slang creation. Because one of its tasks is humor and innovation, it employs novel sound patterns known as 'jocular mispronunciation', as Mattiello (2008) coined the term. So the expression 'excuse me' is pronounced *Screws me* or *squeezes me*, and *summat* for somewhat. Another way to demonstrate that slang is a different usage in terms of phonology is assimilation. In contrast to slang, the phenomenon of consonant gemination is prohibited in standard language. When teenagers "talk," "give it to me" can be (gimme), and lemme is simply (let me). These shortcuts allow the speaker to communicate more quickly. Another aspect is onomatopoeia realized in slang terms, e.g. *jig* (money), *yuke* (vomit). It also includes words that are connected both syntactically and semantically. The rhyming of slang flows in creativity sphere as it is productive in coining nouns, which are normally in the syntacti, e.g. *pig's ear* for beer, *rock of ages* for wages. This type of words is called Rhyming slang¹¹. It is created from famous characters of cinema, or names of familiar places. Alliteration, or the recurrence of the same consonant at the beginning of words, is another element that influences the things, such as *rip the rug* (dance) and *blimp boat* (fat person). In contrast, the recurrence of vowel sounds, such as *lose move* (dumb person) and *waste case* (drunk person). Further intriguingly, slang phrases are created by assimilation and consonant germination, such

¹¹Rhyming slang evolved as a secret language used by shady street traders in London's East End in the 19thC to conceal their business dealings from the authorities

as innit (isn't it), lemme (let me), and gonna (going to). These are the most noticeable slang phonological features.

2.3.3.Slang's Grammatical Variables

As previously indicated, slang can be created in a variety of ways. At the morphological level, it is believed that the same ordinary word-building mechanisms that produce broad vocabulary also generate slang. At the phonological level, some common words are mispronounced, absorbed, or rhyming, among other things. However, no grammatical feature is offered because the grammar is identical to Standard English (Munro, 1997)¹². Furthermore, Jespersen (1992) claims that slang is more productive in the lexical element of language than in the grammatical one. More profoundly, slang nouns become plural by adding the suffix 's', as in birds, which signify girls or ladies. Furthermore, there are no plurals for uncountable nouns in slang. Adjectives, like nouns, follow the comparative and superlative rules of Standard English. For example, *daisy* means charming as the base form, *daisier* as the comparative form, and *daisiest* as the superlative form. Identical to the standard variety, slang verbs are typically modified by adding the suffixes "s" and "ing" in the third person, present tense and continuous form, to create phrases like "nicks" and "nicking," respectively. For the past tense of the verbs, such as nicked, the suffix 'ed' is added. But the syntactical characteristics of slang differ from those of standard language.

2.3.4. Slang's Syntactical Variables

According to Eble(2004), it is asserted that:

slang expressions do not follow idiosyncratic word order, and slang words and phrases typically fit into appropriate grammatical slot in an established syntactic pattern (p.263),

¹²Mentioned in Mattiello (2008)

In the retrospective quotation, Eble (2004) affirms that slang words have no peculiar syntactic order but they just pursue the ordinary language syntactic features. Nevertheless, slang has its own set of syntactic properties. First, the definite article 'the' is used inappropriately in place of the indefinite article 'a'. Instead of expressing "I have a mega headache," practitioners say "*I have the megaheadache*". Second, the copular 'be' is dropped in the present tense. Following the same line of reasoning, another construction is to combine the adjectival word total with the adverbial function to signify "completely," as in "*I'm total upset*." These are the syntactical features of the slang variation.

2.3.5. Slang's Semantic Variables

Eble (1996) and Munro (1997) claim that the semantics of slang is recognised for devouring metonymy, synecdoche, and metaphor by referring to things in a figurative manner, such as wheels for a car. Another semantic feature of slang is irony, as in the ironic phrase "a little bit of all right" used to refer to an attractive woman. Once more, Eble makes the case that Standard English differs from slang in that it recognises word meanings through specific semantic procedures. Mattiello elaborates on Eble's argument, which highlights the distinctive way that slang is used: in slang contexts, words' meanings are conveyed through vivid and sometimes striking denotations. This indicates that a common word has a different meaning in Standard English and sometimes the opposite connotation is intended in slang. For Example: *wicked* is a bad word in Standard English means excellent as a slang word (Mattiello,2008). In addition to its linguistic properties, slang has multiple sociological features.

2.4. Slang's Sociological Analysis

Slang has multiple sociological characteristics that are linked to its varied linguistic aspects and multifaceted functions of use (Mattiello, 2008). These qualities are investigated in the foregoing pages.

2.4.1. Privacy, Secrecy, Group Restriction

Slang is defined as an intragroup vocabulary. It is employed between people with the same age and experience., etc. Relatively; it is asserted that

Slang is created by all social classes in every kind of circumstance as a more convenient, more private, or more entertaining means of communication. Groups create their own language within a language. The various kinds of slang are a means of identification. Peers recognize each other through its use. Slang is a way of belonging, of speaking the same language. (Partridge, 1984,p. 94)

From the retrospective saying; Partridge joins different linguists' views. He argued that social groups tend create their own variety, within language, as an effective means of communication. Being a means of identification and recognition among peers, slang use creates a sense of belonging to a specific group rather another one. In return, its application adds to the goal of secrecy and privacy. Slang terms are incomprehensible and cryptic in order to exclude outsiders, such as authorities, from interpreting the in-group conversation as Roth (2007) asserts that the secrecy of this language contributes to "perception of slang as an impenetrable code" (p. 6). However, the in-group's closeness or cohesiveness is strengthened by its obscurity. Consequently, Mattiello (2009) raises the concern that teenagers or college students keep the elder generation of parents and professors at a distance by using incomprehensible private terminology (p. 70). To elude their parents or teachers during chats, criminals use terminology like *pinch* to indicate "to steal," while students use terms like *magnet* to refer to "an attractive girl. Thus, the use of slang is an indication of a rebellion against the mainstream values (Finegan,2015)

2.4.2. Orality, Informality, Debasing

As stated in the above definitions, the informality of slang is the most widely accepted characteristic.. It is a highly informal variety which is spoken rather than written as Milward

(1937,p.3) mentions ,in his master degree thesis, that slang expressions are those that would not be used in good literature, except in conversation (Cited in De Klerk ,1990.p.594). Accordingly, in his essay on slang in The Cambridge History of the English Language, Lighter (2001) depicts slang as an informal, nonstandard, nontechnical vocabulary that is primarily made up of unusual-sounding synonyms to typical words and phrases. Relative to lighter's definition, as it carries striking connotations of impertinence or disdain for the dominant culture and norms, slang is frequently associated with undignified individuals. Its existence degrades the dignity of conversation since it is subservient and debased (Dumas and Lighter, 1978) as it is mentioned in the retrospective pages. Moreover, Rapoport (1975,p.144) argues that slang variety consists of metaphors that are present in less educated people's speech who cannot write. So, Slang is used to tone down the seriousness of communication.

2.4.3. Impertinence (offensiveness), Vulgarity (obscenity), Aggressiveness,

Unconventionality

Sorning (1981) and Allen (1998) emphasize the violence and brutality of slang. The former stated that "slang has been interpreted as parodistic, aggressive, and even malicious" (p.69).Being a source of disobedience and provocation; it consists in words that have an insinuation of impertinence such as disrespectful words to name out-group members as reported by Lighter (2001) previously . Many derogatory words and eccentric metaphors and analogies are coined as *bone-head* and *turkey* to stand for "stupid people". Accordingly, Greenough and Kittredge (1962) mention that the creation of slang typically involves the application of oblique analogies, meaningless words, harsh, violent, or ridiculous metaphors, as well as idioms drawn from lesser-known or less respected customs. More interestingly, there are many filthy, coarse, and rude terms in slang that are occasionally connected to sex. *Fuck* and *screw* for "sexual intercourse," for instance. Because of its vulgarity, one is prompted to examine the claim of unconventionality made by Dumas and Lighter (1978), which was

discussed on the preceding pages. Slang, in other words, takes the place of formal terms to enable euphemism.

2.4.4. Time Restriction Ephemerality, Freshness, Novelty

Slang is fleeting and transient as Gleason (1961, p.6) regards it as an amount of lexis that changes almost freely and they rather have a much shorter lifespan than items in the general vocabulary, appearing and disappearing much more quickly (Eble, 2004, p. 263). Their creation is an ongoing process. They are up-to-date to the extent it renders people's speech creative and new, and help people to avoid the monotony of neutral style of language. Relatively, it is commonly known that language is susceptible to renewal and creation by the young generation. Bucholtz (2001) claimed that slang is a key component for the exhibition of freshness as well as a tendency to young culture trends. That is, teenagers who aspire to be cool find common ground in slang, which serves as an orientation value for all forms of youth culture. By showing their familiarity with the ever-evolving vocabulary of youth slang, they can establish their status as trend-setters. This aspect is manifested by its users through demonstrating an understanding of the always evolving slang of youth. As compared to ordinary vocabulary, slang lexis change very rapidly. being defined as substandard expressions that may or may not have any attributes existing expression used to facilitate communication in a new sense, Adeyanju (2007) claims that slang expression may exist for a short period of time in a sociolinguistic environment before disappearing if it is not widely accepted and used. Likewise, Munro (1997, p. 27) mentions that :“Slang words come and go. Some slang expressions are no longer recognized by speakers just a few years later, other slang words come to be accepted as standard language, while still others persist as slang for many years” . The subsequent example instantiates this temporal property, *brill* (1980's), *sick* (2000's).

2.4.5. Playfulness, Faddishness, Colour, Musicality

Slang consists of strange terms. This is owing to its colorfulness as emphasized by Melillo. et al (2004,p. v): "...slang expressions generally add color and vitality to conversations that help to enrich meaning in our daily speech". They demonstrate how the use of slang adds color to speech by combining a variety of elements that work together to provide fresh meanings that grab the listener's attention.as Flexner (1960) mentions: "slang is sometimes used for pure joy of making sounds, or even for a need to attract by making noise" (p.xi). Accordingly, Yust (1950) describes onomatopoeic nouns as flummox, which means "failure." The peculiarity of musicality, or playing with sounds, is another characteristic. Rhyming is slang's preferred sound effect, according to Eble (1996).For example, alliteration (dinky-die to signify "honest"), reduplication (hosty-tosty to mean "comfortable"), and jocular mispronunciation (abyssimia for "I'll be seeing you"). Allen(1998:878) argues "bizarre metaphors" like "bird and chick are metaphors for "female" are part of what makes figures of speech so bizarre.

2.4.6.Humour

Through the use of slang, humor is incorporated to make the listener chuckle.. More deeply, its nuanced and inventive character make of not just a way of conveying information, but also a vehicle for humor (Thorn, 2005). It is likewise impossible to dispute Yust's (1950,p. 766) claim that "a humorous element is almost always present in slang, usually as a humorous exaggeration" (Mattiello, 2008). In connection with the aforementioned, terms such as *dance one's ass* and *work one's guts out* demonstrate the exaggeration of humor by illustrating the exaggeration of the effects produced by excessive dancing and working, respectively.

2.4.7. Individuality, Prestige, Efficiency

Slang serves as a hallmark of an individual's identity. According to Munro, it discloses details about a person's condition, age, gender, and other characteristics. Even more intriguingly, it conveys the importance of status. Certain sociolinguists present the idea of

"covert prestige" and point out the advantages of using slang. Subtle prestige is linked to power and self-reliance. To elaborate, youth frequently employ taboo terminology to establish their identity or to promote group cohesion against the mainstream values. In other words, the use of slang is an indication of an intentional detachment from the society principles (Finegan, 2015). This can be exemplified by Asher's (1998) definition of slang as

A class of language used, among other social and psychological uses, to deny allegiance to genteel, elite, and proper society and to its standard linguistic forms. Slang is thus used to assert social opposition, ranging from the most vicious and hostile verbal aggression to the gentlest, teasing contrariness and playful disruptiveness (p.3961)

Asher's quote supports Finegan's definition of slang. He considers this variety as means of repudiating adherence to the society as well as to its conventional linguistic forms to maintain their position. This resistance can be manifested through expressions spanning from the harshest and most violent verbal abuse to the mildest, humorous, or playful objection. Slang phrases are also more straightforward than their conventional equivalents. Correspondingly, Mattiello (2008, p.47) says slang is used: "to be brief, concise". They are effective due to their clarity and easiness of interpretation among their in-group members.

2.4.8. Subject-Restriction, Technicality

Slang is the distinctive jargon used in a given profession or occupation. It is peculiar to a group of individuals who are identified by the usage of particular vocabulary. Consistent with this idea, Andersson and Trudgill (1990, p. 79) assert that you can identify your group membership by selecting the appropriate phrases. For instance: *to clap a guy on* "put a stop to", *oggin* "the sea", *bloke* "the ship commander"

As it was already said, slang has a number of sociological characteristics that are mostly connected to one another. The affinities between them determine how they are arranged

together. These traits cause one to question the purpose of slang rather than its nature. Therefore, the aforementioned characteristics of slang are employed to fulfill specific purposes.

2.5. Slang Functions

Slang is a language phenomenon that emerged as a result of many social demands, dimensions, and functions rather than a word repertoire. Respectively, from Eble's (2004) perspective, slang is a term that belongs to a spectrum of expressions and words that are used more for interpersonal and social purposes than for ideational purposes in language. Though many sociolinguists have highlighted its various uses in the section on slang meanings, it has other functions as well. Accordingly, Partridge (2015, pp 6-7) sites fifteen functions for slang use as the following

1. In sheer high spirits, by the young in heart as well as by the young in years; 'just for the fun of the thing'; in playfulness or waggishness.
2. As an exercise either in wit and ingenuity or in humor. (The motive behind this is usually self-display or snobbishness, emulation or responsiveness, delight in virtuosity).
3. To be 'different', to be novel.
4. To be picturesque (either positively or - as in the wish to avoid insipidity - negatively).
5. To be unmistakably arresting, even startling.
6. to escape from clichés, or to be brief and concise. (Actuated by impatience with existing terms.)
7. to enrich the language. (This deliberateness is rare save among the well-educated, Cockneys forming the most notable exception; it is literary rather than spontaneous.)

8. to lend an air of solidity, concreteness, to the abstract; of earthiness to the idealistic; of immediacy and appositeness to the remote. (In the cultured the effort is usually premeditated, while in the uncultured it is almost always unconscious when it is not rather subconscious.)

9a. to lessen the sting of, or on the other hand to give additional point to, a refusal, a rejection, a recantation;

9b. to reduce, perhaps also to disperse, the solemnity, the pomposity, the excessive seriousness of a conversation (or of a piece of writing);

9c. to soften the tragedy, to lighten or to 'prettify' the inevitability of death or madness, or to mask the ugliness or the pity of profound turpitude (e.g. treachery, ingratitude); and/or thus to enable the speaker or his auditor or both to endure, to 'carry on'.

10. To speak or write down to an inferior, or to amuse a superior public; or merely to be on a colloquial level with either one's audience or one's subject matter.

11. for ease of social intercourse. (Not to be confused or merged with the preceding.)

12. To induce either friendliness or intimacy of a deep or a durable kind. (Same remark.)

13. To show that one belongs to a certain school, trade, or profession, artistic or intellectual set, or social class; in brief, to be 'in the swim' or to establish contact.

14. Hence, to show or prove that someone is not 'in the swim'.

15. To be secret - not understood by those around one. (Children, students, lovers, members of political secret societies, and criminals in or out of prison, innocent persons in prison, are the chief exponents.)

According to the retrospective functions, slang is seen as a tool that people use to have fun as stated by Partridge (2015). Slang is used by people who are looking for freshness and uniqueness. Additionally, it is used to shock and impress individuals, particularly when forbidden words and figures of speech are used as claimed by Anderson and Trudgill (1990, p. 78) who emphasized Adams' assertion that "slang asserts our everyday poetic prowess" (2009, p. 6) since we give our words shapes by carefully choosing sounds to create effects, or aestheticism. Continuing along the same vein, humor is a tool for which slang is employed. It also appears as a result of snobbing in addition to other motives as well.

Slang is used by speech agents to establish closeness, familiarity, and identity. Its straightforwardness makes it useful for easy communication, according to Jay (1992)¹³ More intriguingly, defying convention is seen as rebellion since slang expressions contain far more emotional intensity than does standard English (Partridge, 2007,p.34)¹⁴. As Rajimwale (2006, p. 205) claims that "the use of slang establishes immediate affinity reinforces social identity," people turn to this variation to help them stand out within their communities and foster concord. To elaborate, it makes ties between in-group members stronger rather than eliminating outliers from the group as purported by Trudgill (2003,p.30) that slang is used to establish , consolidate, and sustain friendships. In addition to strengthening group cohesiveness, the shared maintenance of the ever-evolving slang lexicon also allows for the inclusion and exclusion of certain individuals. Taking in mind the intimacy aspect, its use lessens the formality or severity of a discourse (Eble ,2004). Although slang is normally avoided in impersonal public circumstances, its capacity to temporarily interrupt the serious tone of speech can make it a valuable technique of reducing tension or developing rapport with the audience.

¹³Cited in Stenstrom, A et al (2009:68)

¹⁴ Cited in Stolt (2010 :4)

People use slang to express their affiliation with a certain profession or group.. This can be instantiated by Shahraki & Rakesh's (2011,p. 198) definition of slang as speech expressions utilized by a speech community (such as youths, criminals, etc.) to demonstrate its allegiance to a positive social identity and is frequently disapproved of by other social groups. It is an utilization pattern that is not appropriate outside of the group and is unpleasant to the broad population. Secrecy is also a motivating factor in slang use. Similarly, Thorne provides further elucidation on slang in Dictionary of Contemporary Slang (2005 through characterizing it as a vocabulary that has been purposefully chosen for its remarkable informality. Being originated in a small social groups or communities, it is a concealing code that incorporates their distinct principles and behaviors while reinforcing their exclusivity.

To explain more, Thorne joins Spolsky (2008) in his view about slang as an in-group discourse which is distinguished by the disapproval of formal regulations. It is a deliberate form of communication used in gang and peer groups in order to distinguish them from other languages and to maintain some level of concealment. To accomplish the purpose of exclusion, it is conveyed through obscene terms like *dick* for "penis". More interestingly, some scholars claim the variety of slang use and its function between males and females as it is dealt with in the present study.

2.6. Gender and Slang

Referring to the previously mentioned theories of language and gender, females and males speech were always considered as being distinctive. More deeply, many feminists assert that women haunt to a more polite style of speech through using hypercorrect grammar, some polite formula because of their subordinate status to men. However, men linguistic style is different from that of women as they have a dominant status in society. As slang is part of language, can these conceptualizations be applied to slang use?

Dealing with the issue of slang and gender one cannot neglect some of the studies undertaken on the issue. Supporting the claim that females resort mostly to standard language or prestigious speech style, Bailey (1985) purports that females are slang eschewers. More importantly, males use much slang. This can be explained in term of confidence and the hierarchical manner they use to engage in conversation. In similar fashion, Jespersen (1922) and Milward (1937)¹⁵ back up this idea for which Flexner & Wentworth mentions that: "most American slang is created and used by males . . . the majority of entries in this dictionary could be labeled 'primarily masculine use'" (Flexner & Wentworth 1975:xii). These inquiries confirm the idea that females do not use slang, but they rather resort to polite formulas. However, there exist other investigations on the issue of gender and slang.

Other researchers disconfirm the retrospective claim-females abstain from using slang- on the matter of slang and gender. Undertaking a research on North America, Risch (1987) asserts that females haunt more frequently to the use of contemptuous terms that are part of slang. Relatively, De Klerk (1992) takes on a study in a school around Grahamston, and the participants are required to provide some slang terms for different words. Consequently, it is found that females utilize slang terms. More deeply, females do not endeavour to maintain the use of standard speech style as the stereotypic literature claims. There are additional works that are to be taken into account as well.

"The Similarities and the Differences between slang in Kaunas and London Teenagers' Speech" is one of the works that have been undertaken on the issue of slang and gender. Jolanta Legaudaite (2009) tackles a comparison between COLT and COKT. She discovered variations in the slang used by boys and girls in both COLT and COKT. Boys use slang more than girls.

¹⁵ Mentioned in De Klerk, V (2005) Slang and swearing as markers of inclusion and exclusion in adolescence.

More deeply, she has claimed that *name-calling* is a feature of slang used by girls in COLT and COKT, whereas; the other slang categories are used by boys. In addition, the employment of dirty words is typical to boys in both COLT and COKT. According to her, this divergence is the result of their socialization in different cultures. More interestingly, the asymmetrical way of communications contribute to the elaborate use of slang by boys than girls as they are competitive, compared to girls who are supportive. Relatively, slang use hold a masculine aspect of dominance and aggression as it is manifested through boys' employment of dirty slang words in both COLT and COKT.

Moreover, there are other researchers who investigated slang types and its variation according to gender. In her research about *Gender Influence on Slang Used by Teenagers in Their Daily Conversation at School*, Salma (2013,p. 67) indicated that the most commonly used slang words among teenagers were including acronyms, loan or borrowing, onomatopoeia, back, center, clipping or shortening, blending, compounding, meaningless reduplication, and substitution. Upon applying Diekman and Eagly's (2000) approach to investigate the impact of gender on slang usage, the data additionally demonstrated that men utilize 488 slang terms more frequently than women, who use 410 slang words. *Gender Analysis on Slang Language Used by the Eight Semester Students of English Education Department in their Daily Conversation at UIN Alauddin Makassar* is a research undertaken by Kasmawati (2017) on slang kinds and their occurrence depending on gender. Data revealed that the eight semester students in the English Education Department's daily conversations were characterized by slang from the theater, art, public schools, and universities, as well as slang from society. Further, depending on the circumstances, those kinds are used differently by males and females . When it comes to the frequency of slang terminology, research showed that 66.48% of males and 33.50% of females used slang language. In a similar vein, Shahraki and Rakesh (2011) split their sample population into three age groups (high school, senior university students), and then conducted a study on

the use of slang by Iranian female and male respondents according to age. They found that in the first and third age groups, males utilized slang terms and expressions more frequently than their females counterpart . Though females tend to be more conservative in their fashion choices than males , the latter use these expressions to show that they are tough and embody the masculinity that society demands of them. Thus, the findings are consistent with Tannen (1990) and Ning, Dai, and Zhang (2010) idea regarding the distinctions in language use between the two genders.

2.7.Conclusion

Sociolinguists present a variety of slang definitions from different perspectives. This extremely informal variant is linked to strengthening social solidarity or an in-group (Leech and Svartvik, 1981; Eble, 1996). Either a negative or positive tone permeates the definitions. Sorning (1981) addresses the disapproving mindset of using slang as a form of rebellion. However, novelty has a positive connotation (Partridge, 2015). As a result, it possesses linguistic characteristics, such as odd word-formation rules like functional shift, compounding, shortening, etc. that differ from those of regular language. Onomatopoeia, assimilation, rhymed slang, and jocular mispronunciation are examples of sound play at the phonological level. Slang and regular language are similar to one another grammatically, according to certain sociolinguists, but it differs from formal language in that it has a unique syntactical structure. Furthermore, slang possesses several sociological attributes such as informality, temporal constraints, effectiveness, and so forth. Using the variety is motivated in large part by those characteristics. Among them are things like novelty, solidarity, secrecy, and out- group exclusion. Being related to gender, different studies found that both genders use slang but with a varied frequency. To accomplish the intended objectives of the present study about slang and its variation in accordance to gender among master students of English at Mostaganem University, specific methodological procedures are to be followed. Hence, the following chapter aspires to expound the research design , data collection tools, and data Analysis opted for in this study.

Chapter Three

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3.1. Introduction

After dealing with the theoretical portion, it is time to carry out our research by introducing the methods used to collect quantitative and qualitative data. On the one hand, we will strive to answer our research questions; on the other side, we will try to make meaningful conclusions. Data collection methodologies are essential for studying social diversity in language. With an emphasis on real language, one of the fundamental goals of sociolinguistics is to develop and improve ways for collecting data that reflects spoken and written language usage. This section, meanwhile, concentrates on the particular methodologies we employed in our research as well as the reasons for using them. It contains a succinct explanation of our technique, materials, participants, and procedures. Relative to the previous chapter that revolves around language variation according to context and gender, distinct theories approach the relationship between language and gender contrastively; one of the views, the social constructionist theory considers gender as constructed and performed distinctively in specific context rather than a fixed variant that distinguish men and women (Litosseliti, 2006). More deeply, people enact their identities through their belonging to different communities of practice. Against this background, the present research focal point is the analysis of first year and second year master's students, in the department of English at Mostaganem University, slang variation . It questions whether their slang varies according to specialties, level, and gender. Accordingly, one is required to clarify the community of Practice concept.

3.2. Community of Practice

The community of practice approach prioritizes the practices and activities that community members participate in by means of which they linguistically try to identify themselves as group members. Etienne Wenger and Jean Lave initially put forth that the idea

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in their book *"Social Learning: Legitimate Peripheral Participation"* (1991). Accordingly, Wenger et.al (2002) mention:

A community of practice is group of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic ,and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis. (p.4)

In this connection, the community of practice principles revolve around a shared interest and practice. In the community of practice framework, individuals create shared practices for activities such as raising a family, teaching, learning, or playing music, among other things. By keeping common knowledge and values up to date, they enhance the activities. Naturally, communities of practice do not create their own speech patterns (Talbot, 2010); instead, they adapt to the different speech practices of larger speech communities, honing the speech practices of those speech communities that people want to be a part of. More importantly, a set of people ,do not necessarily work together every day, constantly interact with each other in a common practice to share insights and solve problems as well as common issues (Wenger et.al, 2002). Moreover, he also states that its members may develop standards and shared resources or rather a tacit understanding that facilitate their practice. Wenger (1998) asserts that there are communities of practice everywhere and that individuals belong to a variety of communities. Families, singing groups, friends, factory workers, and students—including this dissertation's audience—are a few instances of communities of practice.

As previously said, the main premise behind the connotation of the word "practice" is the act of doing; nevertheless, this act should be carried out in a social setting that gives our work a unique value and relevance. In summary, practice is mostly the means by which our actual, everyday experiences take on new significance and reveal a unique meaning. Our life would probably be meaningless if the endeavors we undertake were "valueless" (Abdelhay, 2008, p.

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111). Therefore, unless an action fulfills a definite aim, we cannot see it as a practice within a community of practice.

Following the community of practice description, Master's students of English in Mostaganem University form a community of practice. It stands for a group of students who engage in joint learning practice throughout which they develop some established ways of interacting and a shared understanding of their practice. Sharing practice is a crucial component as not any assemble of individuals arranged into group form a community of practice. Relatively, Wenger (1998) notes that it describes a process by which we interpret the world and our interactions with it as having meaning. Distinguished from a mere team, the community of practice is approached from three fundamental components: mutual engagement of participants, negotiated enterprise, and shared repertoire. In this vein, English language Master's students in Mostaganem University covered in this study would be regarded as a community of practice considering that that it is established on those three criteria.

3.2.1 Mutual Engagement

According to Wenger (1998), the mutual engagement of its members essentially signifies the notion of a community of practice. It stands for the participation of individuals in a common practice whose meaning is negotiated among them. This dimension is very crucial since when engaged in an endeavor, participants deliberate its meaning with one another. This is consistent with the perspective put out by Wenger (1998), who states that people negotiate meanings through the acts they perform with one another (p. 115). In the absence of mutual involvement, a community will seem more like a collection of distinct groups than a cohesive community of practice. Unlike the speech community, which establishes a set of guidelines that members must follow a an effective standard to be categorized as part of a particular social

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group. To participate in the meaning-negotiation process, individuals of the community of practice might become members and assume responsibility for addressing a range of practices.

It is true that mutual interaction is important in forming a community of practice; nevertheless, this does not imply uniformity . The diverse mode of participation offers a beneficial drive to the practice process. That is, the relationships and interactions that bind community members together are independent of the social norms that homogenize them. According to Wenger (1998), they can be summed up as striving for relevance through the intricacy of doing things along with an open flexibility; no rules restrict the form that it can take.

In the current research, Master's students are believed to be a community of practice. Being an inevitable parameter, mutual engagement, consisting in the interaction of the community members on shared practice, revolves around dense relationship between participants throughout They are free to act anyway they like . Mutual engagement, which is necessary for a community of practice to be coherent, depends on people's capacity for communication. This fosters a sense of belonging among community members because, in Wenger's words (1998), participation in a community's practice is defined by one's ability to be included in what matters. More significantly, the reason people engage in communal activities is essential to their participation as members of the community. To illustrate, the community of master's students interacts with one another for a variety of purposes, such as completing assignments, editing lectures, exchanging subject-specific knowledge, and discussing both academic and non- academic activities. Mutual engagement is a basic component in any practice by whatever way it happens (Wenger, 1998). Relative to the present study participants, students can communicate in the English language department both inside and outside the classroom, via a variety of networks including Facebook and email, and on campus, to name but few.

3.2.2 Joint Enterprise

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According to Wenger and Lave (1991), joint enterprise is defined as a shared knowledge of the nature of practice when pursuing mutual involvement. In the context of this study, the joint enterprise refers to the experience that master's students of English share, which leads to the development of a shared resource (code) for both academic and non-academic concerns. In their practice, participants, particularly students, encounter a variety of scenarios that they approach from various perspectives, such as learning experiences, having a boy or girl companion, going on vacation, and so on. People's engagement in a joint endeavor does not mean that they all concur on meaning, but their answers to their conditions--similar or dissimilar--are interrelated because they are engaged together in the joint enterprise (Wenger, 1998) . For their practice, Master's students approach their experiences and concerns from many angles, developing numerous terminology to be used. Those multiple concepts do not account for the coherence of the community of practice as understanding an enterprise does not need to be homogeneous. But, the enterprise determines group's adhesion.

3.2.3. Shared Repertoire

The creation of a shared repertoire is the third crucial component in the community of practice construction (Wenger and Lave, 1991). Shared resources emerge as members of a community engage in frequent communication to create knowledge through their shared tasks. The latter stand for daily routines such as meals of the day, special event rituals, methods of speech, modes of walking, lores, and so on. These everyday rituals and acts form component of the community's norms. From Wenger's perspectives, the routines, words, instruments, methods of doing things, stories, symbols, genres, actions, or thoughts that the community has created or embraced throughout the course of its life and that have been ingrained in its practice are among the resources that represent its experience (p. 125). The tools available to a community for creating meaning and making members' identities visible are known as shared repertoire.

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That is, members of a community of practice concoct meaningful expressions about their immediate environment and identities, and their development of styles, including language styles, to convey their identities and modes of membership (Abdelhay, 2008, p. 120). The repertoire plays an important role in recognizing and characterizing them because a community is built on common practices. Thus, the shared repertoire of master students, in the present research, may include their daily routines, education, tests, failures, relationships with other sexes, teachers, tests, and terms that they use to communicate among themselves to reflect their experience.

Coherence within the community of practice is largely dependent on the three previously described qualities. According to Wenger's definition, students can establish a community of practice when they consistently engage in shared experiences and activities, leading to the development of a shared resource repertoire. A community of practice can be distinguished from a social group by its practices and significant traits (Wenger, 1998), but endeavor entails more than just mutual interaction; shared enterprise and a common repertory serve as the cornerstone of community coherence. As a result of participating in an activity, participants gain a deeper grasp of the purpose of their practice.

3.3. Meaning in Communities of Practice

Being the essence of practice, meaning comes from our interaction with the outside world. It follows that meaning is neither forced nor predestined as it arises from our dynamic relationship with the environment rather than from within ourselves (Wenger, 1998, p. 91), but it is constructed via a process of negotiation. Accordingly, action and interpretation are both necessary for meaning negotiation as individuals' engagement meaningfulness is a constant process of negotiation. Master's students in this study create their own knowledge and interpretation of their university experiences, through which they operate in the world.

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3.3.1. Negotiation of Meaning

Meaning negotiation is essentially an ongoing process of communication between people to discuss positions and seek to an agreement; this kind of negotiation is not distinguishable from negotiating a transaction and pricing (Abdelhay, 2008). The phrase "negotiation" refers to the never-ending struggles to succeed in passing rounds of daily engagement. According to Wenger (1998), the term of "negotiation" refers to the basic need to achieve meaning while engaging in the course of our everyday activities in our surroundings ; whether we are speaking, thinking ,acting, solving problems, or just daydreaming,.

Meaning negotiation is more than just a string of words; it designates much more than manufacturing and conveying meaning via language. Meaningfulness is produced through a variety of daily activities, including but not limited to language use (Wenger, 1998, p. 53). Language is undeniably one of the most powerful ways of human communication; nevertheless, it is not the sole social construct that people use to express themselves, share news, and send important directives. Clothing and body mannerisms are among the elements in social relationships; spoken communication or physical touch is not the exclusive vehicle for negotiating meaning.

Wenger's s deep knowledge and elaboration of the notion is complemented with analytical instruments that investigate this process as it is shaped by people in various communities . Meaning negotiation, in his view, is comprised of two interrelated and overlapping processes that he refers to as "participation" and "reification."The convergence of these two processes brings to light the negotiation of meaning.

3.3.2. Participation

Participation is a crucial idea from the standpoint of the community of practice. To begin, the vast majority of dictionaries define participation the act of dissecting and actively

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engaging in a project, activity, etc. For Wenger, Participation comprises both action and connection. That is, participating in a practice and the relationships that arise inside a community of practice framework are both necessary, as participants work together to give meaning to their circumstances. Using Lave and Wenger's words (1991), participation is "the complex process which combines doing, talking, thinking, feeling, and, belonging" (p.120). It establishes the members' reciprocal involvement and ensures that everyone behaves in a way that is publicly acknowledged as appropriate. Social community construction and the experiences of its members are shaped by participation. Since it continues even after a person leaves the group, it is not limited to the particular circumstances in which members engage as Wenger (1998) claims that "the meanings of what we do are always social" (p. 94). We can concur that, even when we are not in direct contact with people, our involvement and engagement in our communities is social and indicates conviviality (Wenger, 1998; Abdelhay, 2008). In this sense, Master's students continue to participate in their community even after leaving it; as instances, they might be seen at family and neighborhood meetings. According to Lave and Wenger, involvement includes a social component even when there isn't direct communication between members of the group.

3.3.3. Reification

Assigning a form to social engagement through the creation of shared resources for a shared endeavor is known as reification. Wenger (1998) attempts to define it as the process by which members of a society approach an abstraction as if it were significantly existing or as concrete material things. He defines reification as the process of transforming an experience or a concept into a tangible manifestation. It covers a wide range of abstract and concrete things. Relatively, Wenger et.al (2002) mention participants might generate a shared tacit understanding or they might produce tools, standards, generic constructs, manuals, to state but few. Through time, they establish a distinct viewpoint on their subject and a corpus of accepted

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beliefs, customs, and methods.(p.5. More deeply, Wenger defined "reification" as the process of reproducing human experiences by transforming them into objects that solidify their meaning into "thingness.". Most importantly, it is essential to all practices. There are a variety of abstractions, tools, symbols, stories, phrases, and notions in any community of practice that reinforce a portion of that profession in a consolidated manner. Relatively, English language Master's students at Mostaganem University transform their various experiences, academic or non-academic, into different slang expressions they might share in-group to be used in their daily basis. As the present research focuses on the case of Master's students English language community, it is necessary to define the case study concept.

3.4. Case Study

A case study is a rigorous research strategy that generates a thorough understanding of an event or problem that is occurring currently inside a particular system. It entails investigating a subject through one or more cases within a context, environment, etc.

To understand a phenomenon that happens in real life, case study research requires a detailed analysis of an individual, organization, or event. It is widely used in the social sciences and humanities to look into complex issues and provide explanations for specific events or situations. Information for a case study can come from many different places, such as documents, observations, and interviews. It is important to remember that case studies can incorporate both quantitative and qualitative research methods. Creswell (2006) states in this regard that

Today, the case study writer has a large array of texts and approaches from which to choose. Yin (2003), for example, espouses both quantitative and qualitative approaches to case study development and discusses explanatory, exploratory, and

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descriptive qualitative case studies. Merriam (1998) advocates a general approach to qualitative case studies in the field of education. (p.73)

Scholars believe that specific attributes, such as the size of the bounded case—that is, whether the case involves one or more individuals, a group, a speech community, a program as a whole, or an activity—have an impact on the type of case study that is conducted. The following are the most notable variations:

During a single case study, the researcher focuses on a certain issue or topic and then selects a single example to illustrate the issue (Creswell & Poth, 2018). For researchers who wish to focus on a single item (e.g., a single member of a particular group) or group (e.g., a specific group of people inside a constrained system), a single case study is an ideal option (Yin, 2017).

In a multiple case study, the investigator selects many cases to emphasize a particular issue or subject (Creswell & Poth, 2018). A numerous case study aims to find common patterns, correlations, or similarities between the examples. Finding out patterns or links is a numerous case study's objective, regardless of how similar or unlike the cases are from one another (Yin, 2017). When the phenomenon under study is uncommon or challenging to observe, this approach is frequently employed.

Because the case presents a unique circumstance, An intrinsic case study centers on the case in question, retaining the analytical techniques of a case study while resembling the narrative research focus (Creswell & Poth, 2018). In an intrinsic case study, the case serves as the main subject of investigation with the aim of providing an in-depth understanding of the situation. This kind is widely used in the social sciences and humanities, particularly when the case being studied is exceptional or uncommon or when the researcher wants to understand a particular problem or circumstance more thoroughly.

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It is commonly known that students tend to create their own code (slang) to communicate with their mates on a daily basis to distance themselves from the mainstream norms and as well as to establish closeness and intimacy. This study employs a case study methodology, concentrating on a particular population—Mostaganem University English language Master's students. Because the objective is to examine this group not only for its own purpose but also to investigate more general areas regarding how students use slang and how this usage varies across gender, it is regarded as a single instrumental case study. By concentrating on a single group in a single setting, the study can offer comprehensive and significant findings regarding language, gender, and social interaction in educational environments.

3.4. The Fieldwork

This section outlines how the researcher conducted the study, including the selection of the sample, as well as the methods used for data collection and analysis.

3.4.1. Population and Sampling

Choosing a sample population for a survey is the most difficult aspect of data collection since it depends on how diverse or homogeneous the speech community is. Additionally, choosing a sample is the initial step in determining the limits of the research. Accordingly, being a set of people or groups with similar traits; Hartas (2010) asserts that a population is defined by the presence of a given trait, not its size (which can be tiny or huge). Alternatively, rather than being determined by its proportion, population is defined in terms of shared characteristics among certain individuals. The population of the study includes master of English students at Mostaganem University. These students were chosen because they are advanced language learners who actively participate in many forms of communication, both formal and informal, in academic and social contexts.

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After individuals are chosen, the researchers can designate them as a sample, which is a portion or selection from the population under study. Hartas (2010) maintains the significance of the sample selection procedure by asserting that the research validity greatly depends on how the sample is chosen. The sample must be representative of the population from which it was taken in order for study findings to be extrapolated to the entire population.

Having chosen the population, the next step is to choose the kind of sample. Given the sociolinguistic characteristics of the present study, it was critical to establish representativeness for quantitative analysis -about the frequency of slang variables among female and males master's students of English and the attitude towards its use and depth for qualitative investigation- on slang variables across academic years, specialties, and gender . As a result, a combination of basic random sampling and purposive sampling was utilized.

A simple random sampling technique was used to get a broad, objective grasp of how students perceive about using slang as neither academic year nor gender was taken into account as a variable. Every student was guaranteed an equal chance of getting chosen because to this probability sampling technique. Eighty Master's students in all were chosen at random from the student body. This means that, in their first or second year, all students in the population, male or female, had an equal probability of getting selected. As a result, the study was able to fairly represent student sentiments without concentrating on any particular group .

As the preset study looks at slang variation among Master's students across gender, specialism, and academic level, a purposive sampling approach ,that involves intentionally selecting individuals who are especially knowledgeable, articulate, or involved in the phenomenon under investigation, was opted for by the researcher to focus on individuals who could provide rich, detailed data about the sociolinguistic dynamics of slang use in student communities. More deeply, participants in the purposive sample were selected based on specific

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criteria including, willingness to engage in reflective discussion about their language practices, representativeness in terms of different specializations or levels within the Master's students community, the inclusion of male and female students to insure gender-based analysis of slang variables. the two samples are depicted in the following table

Sample Type	Participants	Purpose
Purposive sample	-50 Master students(25 females, 25 males) -7 first year + 7 second year Master's students interactions	- to identify slang variables differences according to gender - to explore deeply slang variables across academic years and specialism.
Random Sample	Eighty Master's students (first year and second year Master's students of English	- To draw out Master's students of English attitude towards slang use

Table 3.1. Sampling Techniques Used in the Study

The samples try to draw some conclusions about slang utilization. The current samples' size supports Milroy and Gordon (2003) view that high sample sizes are not typically required for linguistic surveys as in other disciplines' investigation through refereeing to Labov's and Trudgill's sample size in their investigation about New York city and Norwich linguistic features, respectively. Fourteen first and second year Master's students of English were observed and recorded. Fifty Master's students of English (25females, 25 males) were interviewed. Only eighty questionnaires were given back to be the core of investigation throughout this study.

3.4.2.Data Collection Methods

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In order to obtain as much trustworthy data as possible, the majority of sociolinguistic studies find the necessity to vary methods of data collection, qualitative and quantitative methodologies. According to Johnstone (2000), the analysis stage of sociolinguistic research frequently combines qualitative and quantitative methods (p.37). Cobin (1990) clarifies that due to a combination of factors such as training, the nature of the problems being addressed, and personal conviction, the majority of projects and researchers emphasize one method over another; nonetheless, it is possible to use both qualitative and quantitative methodologies in the same research study with success (p.18). This falls under research triangulation (Noble and Heale, 2019) which is the procedure that aids in enhancing the validity and credibility of research. Differently, the primary goal of research triangulation is to certify study findings. In order to validate research findings, it occasionally employs a combination of approaches. Triangulation and mixed approaches are not the same thing, though. Triangulation describes how the researcher uses all the multiple approaches in the study to extract the necessary information and critically analyze findings; thereby establishing validity and credibility. Mixed methods, on the other hand, essentially combine quantitative and qualitative research approaches to get research questions answered. It is rather another term for methodical triangulation (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012).

As the goal of the current study is to have a sociolinguistic overview of slang variation and the attitude towards its use, the fieldworker opted to investigate the topic from several perspectives using diverse approaches of data collection (methodological triangulation). Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected for slang terms description, their frequency across gender, as well as students' view about the use of the variety. The logic behind the selection of each method is explained prospectively.

3.4.2.a. Qualitative Methods

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It is evident that qualitative methods entail a researcher discussing various aspects of people and events without comparing events in terms of numerical measurements. Relatively, Denzin and Lincoln (2000) assert that qualitative research is multifaceted focused as it incorporates a naturalistic, interpretive approach to the world. They continue claiming that the goal of qualitative research is to understand or interpret occurrences based on the meanings that people ascribe to them by observing objects in their natural contexts. In order to comprehend the factors that influence people's attitudes, behaviors, and decisions, researchers employ strategies like participant observation, unstructured interviews, observational, historical, interactive, and visual texts as well as personal narratives.

Hennink, Hutter, and Bailey (2011), in line with Deniz and Lincoln, contend that qualitative approaches are more appropriate for understanding individuals' viewpoints and lifestyles. As a result, they give the researcher further data that is representative of nature. In this regard, they mention

Qualitative research is useful for exploring new topics or understanding complex issues; for explaining people's beliefs and behaviour; and for identifying the social or cultural norms of a culture or society. (p.21)

In reference to the retrospective quote, the fieldworker considered the qualitative model to convenient and pertinent -through participants' observation and semi-structured interviews- to fulfill the purpose of this study: to draw out similarity and disparity of slang features in terms of specialty and level in the light of community of practice paradigm. Relatively, conversations amongst first-year Master's students across all specialties are compared to see whether students construct various communities. Interactions across levels are also compared to elicit similarities and discrepancies between first year and second year Master's students' slang aspects. Moreover, it is opted for to describe slang variables and its variation across gender as well as the

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attitude of students towards slang use. The quantitative method was also targeted throughout this research.

3.4.2.b. Quantitative Methods

The quantitative method works with data gathering through structured approaches such as questionnaires, surveys, and so on, and it also relies on calculating the number of replies supplied by informants. Thomas (2003) argues that quantitative approaches concentrate on measuring the quantities (more and less, bigger and smaller, frequently and infrequently, identical and different) of the traits exhibited by the subjects and events the researcher is studying (p.1). He goes on to say that, in contrast to qualitative approaches, which provide a more in-depth account of events, quantitative methods use statistical techniques to provide a general description of the phenomenon under study. King, Keohane, and Verba (1994) highlight the following assertion in this regard:

Quantitative research uses numbers and statistical methods. It tends to be based on numerical measurements of specific aspects of phenomena; it seeks measurements and analyses that are easily replicable by other researchers (pp.34)

Following in the same line of thought, Glesne and Peshkin (1992) put forth that conclusions drawn from quantitative methods can be broadly extrapolated to other people and places. That is, aspects of quantitative approaches aim at producing generalizable conclusions include meticulous sample strategies and experimental layouts. The function of this method is to measure and observe, and caution is exercised to avoid "contaminating" the data through personal engagement with research subjects. Relative to Boeree (2012), it can be summed up as techniques that try to depict life as it actually is.

Hence, the fieldworker resorted to statistical representation of data in order to depict the variation of slang frequency across gender to investigate whether there exists a difference

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between female and male Master's students in terms use as well as the most prevalent reason for which the variety is employed through different research tools.

3.4.3. Research Instruments of the Study

Data collection allows for sufficient concentration while conducting subsequent data analysis. Interestingly, data collecting frequently generates fresh ideas for conducting further investigations on the same obtained sample. Everyday conversation generates data. To investigate sociolinguistic diversity, linguistic samples should be gathered from each community member speaking under all circumstances. According to Milroy and Gordon (2003) state that every language variable would be examined in relation to every social component by the investigator. Even the most skillful and well-funded scholars are obviously unable to tackle an endeavor of this magnitude. Researchers determine the scope and complexity of data analysis based on time and resource constraints.

Research instruments can be classified as either qualitative or quantitative. Interviews, observations, and taking notes are examples of qualitative instruments. When attempting to comprehend people's attitudes and behaviors, they typically rely on examining things inside naturalistic settings. Conversely, It is significant to remember that quantitative research is defined as an objective or a systematic process employed to gain insight about the outside world through the use of numerical data (Burns and Grove ,1991). Thus, quantitative tools concentrate on data and statistics. Since statistics constitute the foundation for analyses, interpretations, and conclusions, questionnaires are the most often used instrument and are regarded as objective.

Regarding our research, it is vital to always keep in consideration that gathering data is a difficult and frequently regarded as extremely complex work. The idea is supported by O'Leary (2004) when he argues that collecting data is a challenging endeavour, and it is important to keep in mind that there is no one-size-fits-all approach for gathering trustworthy data as the

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choice of data collection technique will rely on the objectives of the study, the benefits of each approach, and its drawbacks.

In short, conducting complex issues and obtaining trustworthy findings requires the use of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Taking into consideration the focus of the present research that revolves around slang variables and the attitude of their use in EFL students community of practice, it is important to note that, questionnaires are used to get quantitative scores about the students' main perception concerning the use of slang, interviews to get both qualitative and quantitative results through the description of slang terms used by students in varied situations for both academic concerns backed up with numerical data to figure out their relationship with gender, ultimately, recordings of students' speech to gather qualitative data through describing the slang variables used by first year and second year Master's students of English in different specialties.

3.4.3.1. Questionnaire

It is commonly considered that one of the most important tools for collecting data is the questionnaire, which is appropriate for use in quantitative methods. It consists of a variety of open-ended and multiple-choice questions. Actually, the primary distinction between an interview and a questionnaire is that the latter requires a dialogue. Kumar (2011) highlights the difference between the two tools in the following:

[...] it is the interviewer who asks the questions (and if necessary, explains them) and records the respondent's replies on an interview schedule, and in the latter replies are recorded by the respondents themselves. (p.145)

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Questionnaires relate to forms that are filled in only by the informants; in contrast, interviews involve straightforward questions by the interviewer. Although questions are typically handed out to respondents in person, they can alternatively be sent to them by mail (in the case of online surveys). Its components do influence the type of data that needs to be gathered.

Furthermore, as they have an impact on the quality of data collection, the researcher should formulate insightful questions. According to Kumar (2011), the respondent or the investigator checks the category that most accurately represents their response from a list of potential responses provided in the questionnaire or schedule when answering a closed-ended question. Throughout the present study, the researcher has created closed questions with yes-or-no response options; a series of multiple-choice questions were designed for this study in which participants were given ideas and then asked to select an option depending on their opinions and dispositions. Regarding questions with open-ended responses, they provided the researcher with possible comments, point of views about a given subject. By giving respondents the chance to openly express themselves, they increase the diversity of informants (Kumar, 2011).

Relative to the current study, students' questionnaire consists of both open-ended and close-ended questions. Master's students had been required to justify their answers since it allowed the researcher to offer potential ideas and interpretations of their views about slang. In short, Winkinson and Birmingham (2003) assert the possibility to use questionnaires to gather enormous amounts of data from a range of respondents. Compared to other methods of data collection, they provide several advantages. They add that an efficient questionnaire is one that permits the responder to provide accurate and valuable information.

Retrospectively, the questionnaire is regarded as a crucial and practical research tool since it allows the researcher to collect as much quantitative data as they can in order to provide

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conclusive results. The structure of the questions is vital while its edition. In order to attain in the goal of questionnaire design, the questions should be as unambiguous and plain as possible. That is, the researcher should choose phrases that the respondents will comprehend because he will not have the opportunity to explain questions to them, as questionnaires are forms filled out only by the informants in contrast to interviews, in which the interviewer asks direct questions.

Though the questionnaire is an antique technique that was originally developed by dialectologists, it is still in use today. It might be written or delivered by the fieldworker. Throughout the present study, a questionnaire was handed directly to students to be filled in, and they were returned back in the same day. It tries to uncover the attitude of students and towards the use of slang. A combination of open-ended and closed-ended questions are included in the questionnaire to supply a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the matter.

3.4.3.1.a. Description of the questionnaire

To investigate students' attitudes toward slang and its perceived social and linguistic functions, a questionnaire was developed and administered to eighty Master's students of English at Mostaganem University. The questionnaire was designed to capture both quantitative and qualitative data and was composed of eleven items, combining multiple-choice, yes/no, and open-ended questions.

The questionnaire was prefaced with a brief introduction that explained the study's purpose and guaranteed anonymity. This helped to build trust and encourage honest and reflective responses. The format was accessible, with clear instructions, and provided students with space to elaborate their answers when applicable. It comprises five sections. The first one includes demographic queries on gender for both groups. Moreover, it consists of information

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on their Master level. The second part, consisting of two questions, revolves around their distinction between formal and informal variety and their own conception of slang. The third part centers on the shift of slang variety to writing. Made up of two open and two closed response questions, they stretch from five to six. Moreover, the fourth section tackles their attitudes towards slang variety.

The questionnaire was distributed in the classroom with the help of a trustworthy friend who was familiar with the students and the academic environment. This strategy aided the process by promoting student participation in an informal and comfortable academic setting. Administering the questionnaire in this familiar context allowed respondents to be more calm and focused, resulting in more genuine and reflective responses. The presence of the acquaintance, who served as a mediator, also helped to clarify any ambiguities about the questions without the researcher directly affecting responses, preserving neutrality and minimizing potential bias.

4.3.3.2. Participants Observation

Another crucial tool for gathering data is participant observation, not only for sociolinguists but also for scholars in other social sciences. Engaging in direct observation or an interview is what participant observation entails. In this vein, Taylor et al (2008) mention that:

In participant observation, it should be apparent that you might choose to utilize a variety of methods for obtaining data. These direct observation, respondent interviewing, informal interviewing, archival study and actual participation in the processes in which subjects are involved. (p.107)

From the retrospective quote, Taylor, Sinha and Ghoshal claim that researchers in conducting observation, are to choose from a range of tools as structural or semi-structural

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interviews as well as taking part in the activities of target population under study. The latter has been supported by Dewalt and Dewalt (2011) who put forth that participant observation is a technique used by researchers to gain insight into the explicit and implicit features of a group of people's routines and culture by engaging with them in their everyday activities, rituals, interactions, and events (p.11).

As a matter of fact, observation is included in qualitative approaches. It is a type of observer method where the researcher can obtain information in the least intrusive way by observing the study subjects' interactions, ideally without their awareness; in compliance with Dantzker and Hunter (2012, p. 61).. Because of this, participant observation involves the researcher in the study's operations. In addition, Labov (1972) argues that:

Sociolinguists seek to observe speech as people use it when they are not being observed. That is the 'observer paradox', and it has been a central preoccupation of sociolinguistic methodology from the beginning. (p.61)

The Observer's Paradox is a tactic developed by the variationist William Labov. Its goal is to watch and record the informants in the target group speaking in their natural speech, or "vernacular." That is, community-based linguistic research should seek to understand how people speak when they are not being routinely observed though systematic observation is the only way to get this information (Labov,1972,p. 209). Labov puts forth that the informants are not always as relaxed and natural as they usually are; at times, they experience tension or embarrassment due to the interviewer's presence, the recording equipment, or the work itself, which makes the interviewer's job more difficult.

Relative to the present study, participants' observation was an important approach for naturalistic data collection, allowing the researcher to see firsthand how slang formed organically and used in diverse social interactions among first and second year Master's

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students of English. These observations took place in informal and semi-formal locations where students frequently congregate—hallways, university cafés, campus benches, study groups, and before or after lectures. The goal was to observe spontaneous speech events and identify the use of slang in its functional context and to see whether they form different communities of practice through slang variation across levels and specialism.

As the goal of gathering language data is to figure out how some features of conversation work with social variables, access to the current informants was not resilient when the field researcher employed the friend-of-a-friend strategy, that is, per (Swann et al, 2004, p. 118), Lesley Milroy (1987) utilized it in her investigation of working-class speech in Belfast where she initially got to know the community as a friend of a friend; as she was given names of friends and acquaintances by a community member who was aware of the research's goal. After that, she got in touch with them and introduced herself as "friend of X." This facilitated her rapid establishment of trustworthy ties within the community.

Therefore, the present fieldworker decided not to speak with her informants by herself; instead, other people introduced them. It was inevitable that the fieldworker would find these research assistants that the students would feel comfortable with (the present informants) for the purpose to gather data about slang used by Master's students of English, Mostaganem University, across level and specialism. This way, the researcher thought, would be mitigated for the repercussions of 'the Observer's Paradox'. The selection falls on some students of her acquaintances, who are first year and second year Master's students of English in different specialism. They have less formal and academic interactions with them, which may make her engagement with the informants more relaxed and amicable.

The fieldworker was presented as a post-graduate student. In order to prevent the informants from being pressured to participate in a formal manner—doctoral post-graduation is

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frequently equated with teaching at university in Algeria. The latter may be linked to respect and social distance which might impact the informants' verbal expressiveness in some way. The fieldworker had been recognized as a student so that the participants felt she shared their actual situation and, as a result, they were more willing to communicate their ideas.

Data collection of Master's students of English at Mostaganem University took place through observation and recording their interactions ; approximately in the middle of the academic year 2019-2020 from the beginning of February to the beginning of March. Seven group interactions among first year Master's students and seven interactions among second year Master's students were recorded throughout different specialties. The recordings are not sequential. More importantly, the transcription of recorded conversations adheres to the conventions that have been suggested by Sacks et al. (1974) and Chafe (1994). After the student discussion is over, every recorded interaction is immediately transcribed.

The researcher took a non-intrusive yet visible role, ensuring that participants were aware of the observation but did not deliberately change their behavior. Ethical principles including informed consent and confidentiality were properly followed. Prior to their involvement, each participant provided their express agreement after being made aware of the observation and the recording purpose -studying linguistic features they tend to use in their interactions. By making sure that the recording procedure was open and optional, the researcher made sure that participants might withdraw at any time without facing any consequences. Strict confidentiality and anonymity protocols were followed, and recorded material was safely retained and used only for scholarly purposes. More deeply, the research confirmed the anonymity of students' identities throughout the whole research.

Due to research challenges as well as the phenomenological dilemma of the 'observer's paradox,' data collection cannot always rely solely on one study approach. These issues can be

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addressed in subsequent study using alternate methodologies with complementing limitations and benefits (Milroy & Gordon, 2003,p.73). Additionally, anonymity was employed to foster participant trust.

3.4.3.3.Interview

'The sociolinguistic interview' is one of the most popular methods for gathering naturally spoken data. William Labov created this method in his Martha's Vineyard and New York investigations in 1972, and he later improved it. Being times when parties socialize with one another, interviews are research instruments from which a large portion of our understanding of society comes from, according to Hutchby and Wooffitt (1998,p.172). Alternatively, they claim that the interview is an in-person discussion. It is regarded as a resource for gathering qualitative information. In some circumstances, it may be more effective than a questionnaire since respondents are better able to convey their thoughts, sentiments, and feelings when asked directly about them. In line with Hutchby and Wooffitt's view, Taylor, Sinha, and Ghoshal (2006) assert interviews are very helpful for gathering and measuring data in circumstances when the formality of a questionnaire would make it less likely to elicit the needed information. In order to give the researcher ample information, it is important to notice that the format of the interview question is highly important. Kumar (2011) states that in this regard:

When interviewing a respondent, you, as a researcher, have the freedom to decide the format and content of questions, decide the way you want to ask them and choose the order in which they are to be asked. (p.154)

From the perspective of Kumar, the researcher is to select the appropriate questions depending on the main study aim. As there are distinctive interview types, he/ she should select the suitable one that aids in collecting data. It is of a paramount importance to shed light on them.

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With structured interviews, every respondent might be asked the same questions in the same way by the interviewer. A rigorously organized set of inquiries is employed, with the common goal being the application of a quantitative approach to data analysis. In a lot of staged interviews, the questions and potential responses are predetermined as well (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). Conversely, open-ended questions are used in semi-structured interviews instead of closed ones. Semi-structured interviews are similar to structured interviews in that topics and questions are arranged beforehand. When gathering vast amounts of attitudinal data or when little is known about the subject, semi-structured interviews might be helpful in generating a list of potential pre-codes (Madill, 2007). However, due to necessity to conduct content analysis on a large number of interviews and generate coding frames, semi-structured interviews need more time to conduct than structured interviews. The interviewer may choose to record responses on tape or in writing. In semi-structured interviews, the open-ended format of the questions helps to clarify the subject matter being investigated while also offering the interviewee and interviewer the chance to go into further detail on certain subjects. In situations where an interviewee is struggling to answer a question or provides a brief response, the interviewer may use cues or suggestions to help the interviewee consider the topic more thoroughly. The interviewer is free to delve further into the interviewee's initial response. Unstructured interviews possess almost little organization. Interviewing with the goal of addressing a limited number of topics—possibly just as one or two—the interviewer formulates questions depending on the interviewee's prior response (Kothari, 2004). Despite being limited to one or two themes; they are well explored. Additionally, because no attempt is made to compile and quantify participant responses, the analysis process is different with in-depth interviews. Instead, extensive and in-depth conversations with those involved are meant to provide a "rich picture" of what is occurring in a situation.

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Semi structured interviews have been conducted. They are opted for as they are not restricted through affording an opportunity for informants to express their views without getting far from the core concern of research. Relatively, Currie (2005) claims that a semi-structured interview permits the interviewee to speak freely, elaborate on their responses, and even modify the interview's topic; in contrast to a structured interview. It is acceptable as long as the interviewee stays on topic and contributes to the type of information you are attempting to gather.

Relative to the present research , semi- structured interviews were conducted with fifty first year and second year Master's students of English who were purposively selected (25 females and 25males). They help the researcher to get a detailed idea about slang variables that male and female students of both first- and second-year English language Master's degree resort to in both academic and non-academic concerns. The benefit of interviewing in groups was astounding. For instance, the fieldworker was required to begin an interview with a concise and specific question. Once the informants grasped the message, the focal point may emerge naturally from a group interaction . The fieldworker may then evacuate the participants conversation. Each informant participated in the debate and conversation as if he or she were not being observed by an outsider. The role of the interviewer role was limited to re-orienting the subject in a coherent manner by asking new questions.

To avoid their knowledge skewing the data, the fieldworker generally refrained from disclosing the true linguistic purpose of her inquiry to the participants. Following in the same line of thought, Milroy and Gordon (2003) state that when speakers become emotionally invested, such as when they are experiencing happiness, excitement, fear, or rage, they focus more on the words themselves instead of emphasizing how they say things (p.65). By posing questions that elicit strong emotional responses, interviewers can, in theory, get less reticent responses. This what led the fieldworker to ask general questions, for instance; rather than

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asking about slang terms used in a given context, students have been requested about their own constructed terms to interact with their mates in their daily basis in order to avoid the stereotypical representation of slang since it is mostly associated with vulgarity and to hinder the informants from recognizing the real theme and objective of the whole study as well as to hide the recording material.

3.4.3.3.a. The Layout of the Interview

The interview comprises four sections. It is initiated by two preliminary questions to know about the level and the specialty the students are member of. The first section encompasses five questions which target the way first and second year Master's students stand for the academic interests such as: the modules, teachers, students and activities like studying, having exams, failing, and passing. In addition, the second part covers three questions that are concerned with non-academic matters as: the same sex, the other sex, having a beloved. The third section consists of one question that revolves around some academic and non academic interests. Consisting of four open-ended questions, the remaining part revolves around the functions for which first year and second year Master's students use slang.

3.4.4. Data Analysis Methods

As the data was collected using quantitative and qualitative tools as the participants' observation, semi-structured interviews, and the questionnaire, they have been analysed using distinctive in order to answer the formulated research question and to achieve the pre-determined objectives. The research opted for content analysis to analyse data gathered from students' observation and the semi-structured interviews as it is concerned with studying verbal recorded, and written human communication as well as open-ended questions by using a systematic coding and classification process to find recurring themes or patterns. It has two kind relational and conceptual content analysis.

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The former stands for a semantic analysis . It has been used to analyse first year and second year Master's students' recorded conversations . The conversations were transcribed and the researcher got familiarized with transcripts through reading and understanding the context where the conversation took place . The slang terms existing in the students' interactions were highlighted in bold character. The codes were described and interpreted according to the situation they are used in and put into categories through linguistic analysis. More deeply, slang terms were classified according to the linguistic variable they belong to as clipping, function shift, blending, and many other variables (as mentioned in chapter two) In other words, content analysis -opted for to process data gathered from students interactions- is term centered as it is based on slang expressions used and their variables. The researcher compared first year Master's students across specialties and second year Master 's students of English in terms of slang variables differences to whether Master students construct distinct communities. Similarly, data gathered from the semi-structured interviews -to investigate gender based differences in terms of slang variables as well as slang functions- was processed using deductive content analysis as well. After transcribing students' interviews, the researcher got an overview about the content of the transcripts and creates a list of slang expressions (codes) that were described and grouped according to the their linguistic structure and the predetermined themes in the interview sections (Academic, non- Academic , and multiple situations).

However, the latter stands for statistical representation through counting the frequency of codes in the content. Its goal is to provide the most accurate representation of a variety of messages, as explained by Wimmer and Dominick (2011). To do this, the various categories that the study variables fall under are given numbers. It complements the relational content analysis method. It has been used to quantify the qualitative findings gathered from the semi-structured interviews. More deeply, slang terms have been classified into categories (slang

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variables), then the researcher quantifies their frequency in order to draw out the reoccurrence of categories among female and male Master's students of English at Mostaganem University.

The data gathered from the questionnaire were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively as it contains both close ended and open- ended questions where students were supposed to justify their answers for some questions , to know the most prevalent attitude of students towards the use of slang. Quantitatively, data were represented using descriptive statistical analysis tools as graphs. Qualitatively, students' justifications were interpreted using relational content analysis.

3.5.Ethical Considerations

All researchers, regardless of subject matter, encounter ethical issues that they must respect and consider when undertaking any research,. It has been widely believed that ethics is inextricably linked to what is legally and morally correct. In social research, Edwards and Mauthner (2012) claim that it alludes to the researchers' moral judgment, decision-making, and capacity for accountability during the course of the investigation. (p.16). More importantly, It should be noted that ethics are the first considerations for the researcher because any difficulty can lead to failure in study, the rationale for which numerous academics have generated a set of ethical standards. In this respect, Hammersley (1999) points out that:

[...] ethical considerations were believed to set boundaries to what researchers could do in pursuit of knowledge. Now ethical considerations are treated by some as constituting the very rationale of research(p.18). Cited in Edwards and Mauthner (2012,p. 16).

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In addition to being honest in his approach and reporting, the researcher should be intelligent and well-informed about the work he is performing. Bell and Bryman (2007) conducted a brief examination of the moral precepts. They consequently came up with ten ethical practice principles, which are summed up as below.

Making sure that participants experience no harms
Preserving the integrity of study subjects
Emphasizing the research subjects' full informed consent
Maintaining the anonymity of study participants
Keeping Confidentiality of Research Data
Averting falsifying about the purpose or nature of the study
Affiliation, funding source, and conflict of interest disclosure
Being honest and forthright while discussing the research
Avoiding reporting study data in a deceptive or inaccurate manner

Table 3.2. Key Ethical criteria in Research Ethics (Bell and Bryman , 2007)

Since there are ethical considerations in any research involving human subjects, the fieldworker pledges to conduct herself in an ethical manner, specifically by:

-Every research participant received an invitation to take part in this study. The researcher briefly described the purpose and scope of the study.

-An information sheet was distributed to each research participant to help them comprehend the various facets of the study. The information sheet aided prospective participants in making decisions about their engagement in the research.

-In order for the research to be confidential, the researcher opted for different research tools. The participants' interactions were recorded by using a tape recorder. Interviews and questionnaires were also designed to achieve the research objectives.

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-Being cited by Cohen, Manion and Morrison(2000,p. 60), Frankfort, Nachmias and Nachmias (1992) mention that;

[...] the right to research and acquire knowledge and the right of individual research participants to self-determination, privacy and dignity [...] A decision to conduct research despite an ethically questionable practice [...] is a limit on the second right.

Dealing with privacy, during every phase of data collection, analysis, and report writing, participant names were kept anonymous.

-The participants' true names are not included in the transcripts; code names were used in their place.

-The scientific Committee for Research at the University of Chlef has authorized this study.

- The research subjects provided an informed consent reply that provides a thorough explanation of the procedure for gathering data.

- As being put forth by Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000), social researchers must consider the implications of their research on the participants and operate in a way that preserves their dignity; the participants in this study were unlikely to incur any physical or psychological harm.

3.6. Conclusion

People tend to belong to varied communities depending on the role they accomplish in the society. They are obliged to look for a code to communication that suit the norms of social group they adhere. Relatively, students tend to construct their own community which norms are different from the standards of university by creating their own variety. As the current study revolves around the sociolinguistic analysis of slang variables and the attitude towards its use, there should be a methodological process followed to collect data. Hence , this chapter focused

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on the specific approaches used in the study and the rationale behind them. It provided a concise overview of the methodology, resources, participants, and processes of data collection and interpretation.

Chapter Four:

Students' Construction of
their Community through
Using Slang and The
Attitudes towards its Use

4.1.Introduction

As the first chapter revolves around language variation according to context and gender, distinct theories approach the relationship between language and gender contrastively. One of the views, the social constructionist theory considers gender as constructed and performed distinctively in specific context rather than a fixed variant that distinguish men and women. More deeply, people enact their identities through their belonging to different communities of practice. Against this background, the present chapter's focal point is the analysis of first year and second year Master's students', in the department of English at Mostaganem University, construction of their own community of practice through slang use. It questions whether they belong to different communities as they study distinct specialties and levels.

According to the assorted definitions provided in the second chapter, slang is considered as a deficient variety, being an informal code which is constructed through using certain linguistic formations which have no room in standard language, that contains ephemeral words. Relatively, the present chapter also sets forth Master's students' attitudes about slang.

4.2. The Analysis of Students' Interactions during Observation

After each observation students' interactions, the recording of students' interactions was played back recurrently in order be transcribed and for the students' slang patterns to be singled out, semantically described, and related to the linguistic variable they belong to. The following excerpts are examples which show the way first and second year Master's students, across specialties, manipulate their slang to construct their community.

4.2.1.First Year Master Students Interactions

First year Master's students conversations belonging to different specialities were recorded in various distinctive situations which might vary according to the students' discursive needs. The recordings were transcribed and analysed.

4.2.1.1. Science of Language

The following extract is part of a conversation occurs between a group of first year Master's students studying science of language, talking about their academic concerns

Extract:

(1)S1: What's up **bro**?

(2)S2:**Pissed** off...uh much lectures and resea:rch=

(3)S1:**Gender** told us to [What?] search about language and gender.

(4)S3: **Yea::p**... (0.2) this year **nworko** very hard uh as if [we **wanna** become **Chomsky**].

(5)S4: () I wish **we close the year**.

(6)S2: ((Laughing)) **the make-up is calling** from now=

Lines Omitted

(8)S3:Me also...uh(0.2) I **tryнна** read different theories of language and gender.

(9)S2:**Damn** those studies... uh (0.1) my mind excludes those things.

(10)S4:Oh! We have a lecture now=

(11)S1: We **gonna** sleep in the class.

(12) S3:Let's go [**yeap** it's time.]

The retrospective extract is a conversation of first year Master's students of Science of Language. The informants are three males and one female. They are discussing their studies (See , Appendix 2). Throughout their conversation, there is a noticeable use of slang aspects in terms of vocabulary and syntactical structure. To begin with, a male student utters the word **bro** which a clipping of the word brother. To consent with her mates, the female participant says **yeap** rather than yes. This feature reoccurs in line (12) for the same discursive function. It is apparent that students tend to construct affixed words as **Nlearno** in line (4) which is formed through an association of the English word 'learn' as well as the Algerian Colloquial affixes 'n' and 'o' to stand for ' we learn'. The informants tend to assimilate words as **wanna**, **trynna** , and **gonna** in lines 4, 8, and 11 respectively. Those words refer to want to, trying to, and going to, in that order. To express his anger of the studies pressure, a male participant opts for the words **pissed off** and the interjection **damn** in lines 2 and 9. **Chomsky** is a name of a linguist that the female student mentions as a metaphor to stand for the state of ' intelligence'. Following in the same line of thought, they refer to their teachers by creating certain names. **Gender** is a core concept in their specialty used to refer to one of their teachers in line 3. From the excerpt, first year Master's students of Science of Language create some syntactical expressions. When discussing the issue of passing the year and failing, students construct figurative expressions as **we close the year** and **the make-up is calling** in lines 5 and 6.

4.2.1.2. Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches

Here is an excerpt taken from a discussion occurs between a group of four female students studying literature and interdisciplinary approaches, revolving around exams.

Extract

(1)S1: **Exams are calling.**

(2)S2: **Si:::s** uh... What do we have now?

(3)S1: I think uh (0.2) **Black Lit** [ask one the **Brainiacs** we have]

Lines omitted

(5)S4: **yea::p** uh **the make-up is calling** .

(6)S2: **Discourse** said that she is absent next week=

(7) S4: **Fantabulous**=

(8)S3: we have **lala time**.

(9)S1: I am leaving.... (0.2) **home is calling**/

Lines omitted

(11)S1: I **cut class** of this afternoon=

Lines omitted

Throughout their conversation, there are certain outstanding slang features. They tend to form figurative expressions. More deeply, **exams are calling** and **home is calling** in lines 1 and 9 stand for “exams are approaching” and “it is time to go home”. Relatively, **the make-up is calling** in line 5 refers to the state of failing in the exam for the participants. **Cut class** is a expression that one of the participants use to express the fact of being absent in line

11. To call her female mate, one of interactants use **si:::s** which is a clipping of sister. Being asked about the module they have, a female student mentions **Black lit** which consists of a metonymy of African American and a clipping of Literature. In the same situation, students opt for an affixed word **Brianiac** in line 3: which is an association of “brain” and the suffix “iac” to mean outstanding students. They utilize the name of the module to label their teacher like **Discourse**, in line 6, to stand for the teacher of Discourse Analysis. They express their joyful situation through uttering the word **Fantabulous** in line 7 which results from a blending of the words fantastic and fabulous. Moreover, to express their feeling about having free time; they create their own phrases like **lala time** in line 8. As in the previous discourse, **yeap** is utilized by this group of students as well.

4.2.1.3. Linguistics

The following dialogue is extracted from a conversation occurs between first year Master's students of Linguistics where they expressed their feelings towards their classmates.

Extract:

(1)S1: **What's with you?**=

(2)S2:Have you seen that **Linguistica**[**yeap**] uh ... I don't know from where they are bringing/

(3)S1:/ just stop talking of this **bakak**=

Lines omitted

(5)S4: **cause** of her I was **bombed** in **psycho** and/

(6)S1:Stop talking of that (0.2) I **have blues**

(7)S2: I **gonna** eat now I/

(8) S4: **Hold your horse...** **Neato** all of us.

(9) S3: I go to the **dorm**=

Lines omitted

More deeply, the students are discussing the difficulty of their studies through expressing their feelings towards the outstanding students in their classes. The conversation starts with asking about his mate, a student creates an expression **What's with you?** Being annoyed about the achieving students, they borrow words –to refer to them–from other languages as **Linguistica** and **Bakak** which are words loaned from Spanish and Colloquial Algerian Arabic, respectively. They opt for assimilated words as **gonna** instead of saying “I am going to”. Moreover, they resort to clipping like in **cause** in line 6 and **dorm** in line 9 that are the output of the fore and the back clipping of because as well as dormitory. To ask for waiting, they create the expression **hold your horse** (line 8). **N'eato** is an affixed word that is constructed through a combination of ‘eat’, and the Algerian Colloquial Arabic affixes ‘n’ and ‘o’ to mean ‘we eat’. To express his failure, one of the informants metaphorises it by the term **bombed** in line 5. **Have blues** is an expression created by students to stand for ‘**anger and sadness**’.

4.2.1.4. Didactics and Applied Linguistics

The next excerpt represents a conversation that existed between students of Didactics and Applied linguistics, started by a personal subject which was manifested by expressing a negative feeling towards a student, followed by expressing their attitude towards studies.

Extract:

(1)S1:Have you seen that **beast**?=

(2)S2:= **Yea:p** (0.1) Why?

Lines omitted

(5)S1: Don't ask me. I became **pissed off** when I see her.

(7)S4: **What's up?**

(8) S3: We missed your **gasration**=

(9)S2: We need to laugh uh ...(0.2) we are **cognitively fucked** .

(10)S4: ((laughing)) you are having a **revision beard**.

(11)S2: I **flunked** it in **psycho peda** uh/

Lines omitted

Accordingly, the interlocutors are males and females whose talk revolves around their private life as well as the academic one. It is obvious that they haunt to multiple slang features. Referring to a girl, one of the male students utters the word **beast** in line 1. There is also the occurrence of **yeap** (line 2) by a male students to support her mate when talking about his girlfriend. To express his state of anger, a male participants employs the word **pissed off** (line 5). When a female participant undertakes the conversation, she greets by saying **What's up?** rather than 'Good morning'. **Gasration** (line 8) is an affixed word that is uttered to refer to 'talking'. More deeply, it is constructed through a combination of the Arabic Colloquial word 'gasra' and the English suffix 'ation'. Shifting to talk of their failure in the module of Educational Psychology, one of the female students mentions **psycho peda** (line 11), French borrowed clipping. To depict his state of being tired due to studies, a male

student mentions the phrase **cognitively fucked**. **Revision beard** is created expression that a female student says to her male mate to stand for 'the beard grown during exams' preparation'. To express the state of failing, one of the participants create the word **flunk** (line 11).

4.2.1.5. Didactics of Foreign Languages

The following written dialogue is an interaction among students of Didactics of Foreign Language. The group comprises four female students who are discussing their timetable.

Extract:

(1)S1: **Didactique** is absent today=

(2)S2: Oh really! At least we **chill** some/

(3)S3: **Yea:p** {nodding} uh ... (0.2) but we have **Metho**/

Lines omitted

(5)S4: What about **Socio**[I didn't catch a word]

Lines omitted

(8)S3: nothing ... (0.1) **it's dead**. I'm alone uh ... and I **gonna** be alone.

Lines omitted

Retrospectively, there is an apparent use of some slang aspects. As in the previous discussions, participants resort to **yeap** (line 3) and the assimilated form **gonna** (line 8). When talking about some of their modules, students haunt to clipping as **Socio** (line 5) and **Metho** (line 5) to speak of Sociology and Methodology, respectively. Though, they tend to

borrow the French word **didactique** in order to stand for teacher of Didactics. Students' slang features do not consist only of the previously mentioned constructions; they adapt some expressions to the situations they engage in. Accordingly, **it's dead** is an Algerian Colloquial Arabic expression which is translated into English by a female participant to mean ' I have no news'. When expressing the fact of having a rest, one of the speakers employs the word **chill** in line 2. The latter may be found in different first year master students' interaction throughout specialties.

4.2.1.6.Civilisation and Literature

The present discourse occurs among students for Civilisation and Literature. The group comprises males and females students who are talking of exams and the difficulty of achieving in some modules

Extract:

(1)S1: look look **Mr Jefferson** is here=

Lines omitted

(3)S1: We **gonna** have an exam with him/

(4)S3: Only the **bakak** will work [I'll try to make it up with **Metho**]

(5)S2: Those **khabach** can answer [and **close** it]

(6)S4: **Metho** and **DA** are for tomorrow [**recap** reca:p!!]

Lines omitted

From the first sight, it is noticed that they have recourse to distinctive slang constructions. Students haunt to clipping- similar to some of the prior interactions- and

acronyms like **Metho** (line 4, 5) for research methodology as well as **DA** (line 6) for Discourse Analysis. In requesting one of his mates to repeat her speech, he uttered **recap** as a back- clipping of 'recapitulate'. Being recurrent in the above extracts, the assimilated construction **gonna** exists in the present students dialogue. When they refer to their teacher of American Civilisation, students choose **Mr Jefferson** as a label for him. More deeply, Jefferson is figure in the American history which is frequently employed by their teacher. To talk of the outstanding students, interlocutors borrow Algerian Colloquial expressions as **bakak** (line 4) and **Khabach** (line 5). **Close it** (the module) is said by one of the participants as a metaphorical expression to mean 'getting the average'.

4.2.1.7. Language and Communication

This discussion is extracted from a communication of Master's students of Language and Communication. The group includes two females and two males who are interacting about the courses of different modules for exam's revision.

Extract:

(1)S1: You have the summary of **HRD**?

Lines omitted

(6)S1: What about **ESP**?

(7)S4: **ESP** ... Uh I have its summary=

Lines omitted

(9) S3: **Yea:p** ...(0.2) we'll meet tomorrow.

(10)S4: I'm **cognitively fucked** of those/

(11)S1: We **wanna** exchange summaries to revise=

(12)S2: and uh(0.2) **to close the year.**

Relative to the excerpt, students have a tendency towards different slang aspects that are mostly mentioned in the fore-going interactions of first year Master's students in various specialties. When asking about the summary of some modules, a female and a male student employ acronyms like **HRD** and **ESP** to stand 'Human Resources Development' and 'English for Specific Purposes'. For the consent of their meeting, **yeap** is said by a female interlocutor. In addition, students ply the assimilated structure **wanna** (line 11). As the previous conversation, in order to stand for passing the year, **close the year** is also opted for by students. As in one of retrospective interactions, to describe the state of being tired because of hard work, there is also the occurrence of the expression '**cognitively fucked**' in the present communication. Second year master students' conversations were recorded as well.

4.2.2.Second Year Master's Students Interaction

Distinct discussions between second year Master's students of English ,belonging to different specialties, were transcribed and represented in the up-coming excerpts.

4.2.2.1.Science of Language

The above extract represents a discussion among three female students of Linguistics who target some of their academic concerns.

Lines omitted

(2)S2:Oh yea:h **Flit.**

(3) S3: I **gonna** research on the net about it.

(4) S2: We have **powerpoint** tomorrow for our viva.

Lines omitted

(6) S2: Much things to be ... (0.2) memoire... **Flit** uh (0.1) I'm **cognitively fucked**=

Lines omitted

It is obvious that students haunt to some slang aspects. Referring to a module they study through shortened forms and metonymy. **Flit** (line 2) is a clipping of both 'Feminine' and 'Literature', whereas; **powerpoint** (line 4) is a metonymy that stands for presentation techniques. This term is recurrent throughout their talk (line 6). However, there is an apparent use of some expressions adopted by first year master students as well. They also utilize assimilated forms as **gonna** instead of 'going to'. To express their state of being tired of studies, students tend to create some expressions as **cognitively fucked** (line 6) as well.

4.2.2.2. Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches

The excerpt is taken from a discussion among second year Master's students of Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches whose talk revolves around both academic and non academic interests

(1) S1: you see that **babemagnet**?

(2) S2: Oh **yea:p** ... I know him uh why?

(3) S1: He was **my heart** uh... () we loved each other and now?

Lines omitted

(5) S1: One of the **beasts** took him ... (0.2) when I remember uh I become like...

Lines omitted

(8) S4: Are you talking of **Af Civ**?

Lines omitted

(10)S2: Don't tell me ...uh we **gonna** have a make-up session=

(11)S4: =((laugh))we have it next week for **Am Civ**.

(12)S2: I have my sis marriage uh ... I **cut class**/

Lines omitted

There is a noticeable occurrence of some of slang concepts used by first year master students throughout specialties. To instantiate with, **Am Civ** (line 11) and **Af Civ** (line 8) are clippings of both 'American Literature and 'African Literature'. As first year master students, This group of students ply **gonna** in line 10 as well as **yea:p** in line 2 instead of 'yes' .They also create expressions as **cut class** to stand for the fact of being absent. In targeting an attractive male, a female participant constructs a compound word **babemagnet** (line 1). She also has recourse to metonymy **my heart** in denoting her boyfriend. However, a female participant designates a female she dislikes by the figurative term **beast** (line 5).

4.2.2.3. Linguistics

The retrospective discussion is eluded from a group of four male Master's students of English Language and Linguistics. The students are talking of dissertation issue and passing to doctorate degree

(1)S1: What's new with you?

(2)S2: **It's dead.**

(3)S1: **I have the blues/**

(4) S2:/ I'm **cognitively fucked** of that...

(5)S1: From what?=
Lines omitted

Lines omitted

(7)S3: What shall we do? ... We finish it **to close the year** (0.1) and **nchillou/**

(8)S4: /You said **chill** ((laughing)) Job jo:b is waiting=
Lines omitted

Lines omitted

(11) S1: =We aren't **linguistica** to study it.

From the first sight, the present slang expressions have already been used by first year Master's students in several parleys. Being asked about his state, one of the male participants creates an expression **it's dead** to mean 'nothing new with me'. To depict his anger of loosing dissertation work, a male participant utters 'I have blues (line 3). There is the use of the expression **cognitively fucked** in line 4. To describe their inability to pursue their studies as they are not like outstanding students, they borrow the word **linguistica** (line 11) from Spanish language. Moreover, for relaxing, students use meaning shifted word as chill in line 8. They also construct words through affixation. To exemplify with **Nchillou** is composed of

'chill' and the Algerian Colloquial Arabic affixed 'n and ou' to mean 'we chill'. Identical to some of first year master students' dialogues, **to close the year** is opted for by second year master students in this talk.

4.2.2.4. Didactics and Applied Linguistics

This dialogue is extracted from a conversation between second year Master's students of Didactics and Applied Linguistics. The participants are two females and males who are talking of their exams and grades

(1)S1: You have a **revision beard** ((laugh))

(2)S2: Those **examania** are killing us=

(3)S3: =**Yea:p** ... I wish **we close the year...**/

(4) S4: Oh.... I **ace** it in **DFL**/

(9) S3: **Hold your horse** uh ... to come with you.

(10)S2: I **dropped** the /

Lines omitted

(12)S2: you **prevail** it uh ... don't/

(13)S1: Rea:lly! **I closed** it...(0.2) uh/

(14)S4: We spend days and nights studying as **bakak**.

Throughout the students' discussion, there appears a noticeable commonality in some slang terms and features with other interactions. To target her mates' beard during exams, a female student coins the term **revision beard** (line 1). Referring to exams, they construct the

affixed word **examania** (line 2) that is the output of an association of the word 'exam' and the affix 'ania'. They depict their state of getting the average or passing the year, they utilise some metaphorical expressions as **I close it** as well as **we close the year** in line 3 and 13, respectively. Following in the same line of thought, ace (line 4) and prevail (line12) are formed through function and meaning shift: uttered to describe the fact of getting good marks. However, a female student mentions **dropped** for describing their failure in a given module. **DFL** is an acronym that stands for the module 'Didactics of Foreign Languages' As in other students' talks, students opt for the borrowed Algerian Colloquial Arabic word **bakak** to designate 'outstanding students'. They also create the utterance **hold your horse** for asking one of their mates to wait. Furthermore, **yeap** is employed instead of yes like the preceding and the following speeches.

4.2.2.5. Didactics of Foreign Languages

This excerpt stands for an interaction among second year Master's students of Didactics of Foreign Languages. The students are discussing their dissertations' issues

(1)S1: Hey... uh hey, aren't you looking?

(2) S2: I miss you **boss**. I'm blind of **cramming**=

(3)S1: =You **cram** for what?

Lines omitted

(7)S3: For me uh...**everything goes in smoke for me**=

Lines omitted

(9)S2: you look tired uh .. you have to **chill** [you look **having the blues**]

(10)S3: **Nchilli!!** Are you ok /

Lines omitted

(13)S4: hey, **what's with you?**

(14)S1: He lost his **memoire**=

Lines omitted

(17) S4: /Remind me and stop **having blues**.

Lines omitted

Relatively, it is conspicuous that students employ some expressions haunted to in other conversations (through levels and specialties). To ask one of his mates about his state, one of the male participants employ the expression **what's with you? Having blues** (line 9, 17) is uttered to denote anger. Giving a piece of advice to his mate interlocutor to relax, a male student utters chill (line 9). **Cram** (line 3) is a term which is employed by students to stand for 'studying a lot'. To call his male mate, one of the students use the word **boss** (line 2).The last two terms are constructed through meaning shift. Talking of their dissertation, they borrow from French language the word **memoire** (line 14). **Everything goes in smoke for me** is an expression that one of the students utter to depict his loss of dissertation's written version..

4.2.2.6.Civilisation and Literature

The excerpt is taken from a discussion among second Master's students of Civilisation and Literature. The group consists of two females and one male whose talk is blend of academic and non- academic concerns

Lines omitted

(4) S2: Thanks (0.1) **I wanna** attend but I need the courses.

(5) S1: Last time uh... There was strike [we had only one session for each module.]

(6) S2: I missed **gasration** and **tbahdilation** with you=

(7) S3: I'll bring you the courses tomorrow (0.2) **I gonna**/

(8) S2: **/Hold your horse** ... today **n'eato** together and I pay.

(9) S3: I'm comi::ng just a minute=

(10) S4: Hurry up [to come for **Brit Lit**]

From to the extract, Students utilize various slang terms with distinctive construction that are used in the above dialogues as well as in first year Master students' discourse. They have recourse to the assimilated forms **wanna** in line 4 and **gonna** in line 7. To stand for the module of British Literature, they opt for the clipped form Brit Lit (line 10). They tend to borrow either words or affixes from Algerian Colloquial Arabic. The expressions **gasration** and **tbahdilation**, in line 6, are formed out of borrowing the Algerian Colloquial Arabic words 'gasra' (funny talk) and 'tbahdil' (scandal), which are added the English suffix 'tion'. Following in the same line of thought, they loan affixes 'n' and 'ou' to be joined to the verb 'to eat' for designating 'we eat' in line 8. Asking his female students to wait, as some of the

above interactions (throughout specialties and levels), the expression **hold your horse** is also gone about in line 8.

4.2.2.7. Language and Communication

The following extract comprises a talk among second year Master's students of Language and Communication. The group comprises four female students who are discussing a mixture of academic and non-academic concerns

Lines omitted

(5)S3: As today, uh ... we have **ICC**, **HRM** and ... till 5pm [how can you work]

(6)S4: now ... (0.1) I must **n'eati** now.

(7)S2: ((laugh)) **we fill the belly for the mind to sing**=

(8) S1: **Yea:p** uh... we don't have time after

From the previous extract, there is an obvious recurrence of some slang aspects compared to the previous dialogues. To consent with one of the female participants, they employ **yea:p** (line 8) instead of 'yes'. Referring to some of their modules, they resort to acronyms as **ICC** and **HRM** to stand for 'Intercultural Communicative Competence' and 'Human Resources Management', respectively. To express her need to eat, one of the interactants utilizes the affixed word **n'eati** (line 6). The latter is the output of a combination of the English verb 'to eat' and the Algerian Colloquial affixes 'n and I' to mean 'I eat'. **We fill the belly for the mind to sing** is an Algerian Colloquial Arabic expression which is translated into English that is uttered, by one of the female participants, to depict the importance of eating in order to study and think properly.

4.2.3. Comparison of First Year Master's Students' Specialties

From the analysis of first year Master's students discussion, there are some slang constructions that are common among different specialties. For answering, students tend to articulate *yeap* instead of *yes* in almost all specialties. In nearly all specialisms, they shift the pronunciation of words through assimilation as *wanna*, *gonna*, and *trynna*. To stand for the modules they have, students employ varied slang constructions. In some options, students resort to shortened forms as clipping and acronyms, such as: *HRD* and *ESP* for Applied Linguistics and Communication, *Metho* and *Socio* for Didactics of Foreign Languages, *Metho* and *DA* for Civilisation and Literature, *written* and *Brit Civ* for General and Comparative Literature, *psycho* for English Language and Linguistics. Some other students borrow clipping from French or associate a metonymy to clipping, for example, *psycho peda* for Didactics and Applied Linguistics and *Black Lit* for Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches, respectively. By designating their teachers, some of them, as the analysis of their interactions show, resort to the name of the module taught or a recurrent figure in their lectures. There is an obvious occurrence of clipped words as *sis*, *bro*, *dorm*, *recap*, and *cause* in some specialties as the data collected manifests above. Engaged in some situations, in some first year master's option; students borrow words from Arabic and Spanish as *khbach* (Civilisation and Literature), *bakak* (Civilisation & Literature and Linguistics), , and *linguistica* (Linguistics) to call outstanding students. Likewise, students of Literature & Interdisciplinary Approaches and Sociolinguistics & Gender Studies employ affixed words as well as metaphor like the words *Brainiacs* and *Chomsky*, respectively. Using varied utterances throughout specialties, students create expressions to depict several situations as *close the year*, *cognitively fucked*, *revision beard*, *have blues*, *what's up?*, *what's with you?*, *it's dead* , *hold you horse* , *cut class*, *flunk*, and *lala time*. Few of the already mentioned

sayings are common among some Master's options. Some of the groups have recourse to personification and metaphors to describe particular situations, for instance, *The make-up is calling* is employed in Science of Language, and Literature & Interdisciplinary Studies; *Exams are calling* and *home is calling* are employed in Literature & Interdisciplinary Approaches; and *beast* occurs in Didactics and Applied Linguistics. Furthermore, in a set of dialogues, they make use of affixed words through associating English suffixes to Algerian Colloquial Arabic or combining English words to Algerian Colloquial affixes as *gasration*, *nworko*, and *neato*. In few retrospective dialogues, students tend to shift words' meanings as chill for to relax; and damn and pissed off for anger. These are the slang linguistic aspects that are employed by first year Master's students in distinctive conversations.

From the antecedent comparison, it is eminent that first year Master's students belonging to various specialties form one community of practice through using slang as the terms shown above. It is prominent that they have shared repertoire which is slang features. The actual data collected from recording students' conversations in all specialties manifests that they are mutually engaged in similar academic and non-academic concerns as learning, revising for exams, sharing challenges and other matters. Though they belong to distinctive specialties, it is noteworthy from participants' discussions that they participate in joint enterprise. They share similar confronted everyday situations like learning experience -how to do their projects, how to improve learning -about which they mutually engage as they communicate and share knowledge about the different areas of study to overcome matters they encounter through using assorted slang features. More importantly, words' diversity-over the distinctive specialties- do not account for the coherence of community of practice since understanding an enterprise does not need to be symmetrical (Wenger,1998).

By embracing the community of practice approach, it is noteworthy that first year Master's students in different specialties engage in common activities either academic or private ones for which they share knowledge. Since one of the criteria of community of practice is shared repertoire, it is obvious that students use slang within their groups. Through the analysis of first year Master's students' interactions in the various specialties, there appears an interconnection between them in terms of slang features used. Though they mutually engage in parallel tasks, there are some differences at the level of the terms employed. This can be dissected from Wenger's perspective (1998) which argues that mutually engaged participants may approach their joint enterprise distinctively. Similarly, first year Master's students of English in Mostaganem University proceed their activities from variant standpoints. Relative to what is said beforehand; it is eminent that first year Master's students, belonging to different specialties, have recourse to identical slang aspects in their in-group communications.

4.2.4. Comparison of First Year and Second Year Master's Students' Slang Aspects

From the analysis of second year Master's students' discussions, it is conspicuous that second Master's students of English use several slang constructions as first year ones. The use of the responding formula *yeap* occurs in discussions of both levels. As first year, second year Master's students employ the assimilated forms *wanna* and *gonna* in their interactions. They similarly create some expressions to fulfill certain situations. *Hold your horse, cognitively fucked, it's dead, have blues, what's up?, what's with you?, revision beard, cut class* are utterances resorted to in the two master degrees. Following the same line of thought, *we fill the belly for the mind to sing* is solely used by a second year Master's students of Language and Communication. Though the modules they learn in the two

Master's degrees are somehow different, they haunt to clipping, acronyms, and metonymy like it is illustrated in the retrospective pages. Likewise, they borrow words from Spanish, French, and Colloquial Arabic, such as: *Linguistica*, *memoire* (second year), and *bakak*. They identically go about affixed words' employment through associating either English words with Algerian Colloquial Arabic affixes or English affixes to Algerian Colloquial words, for example: *n'eato*, *gasration*, to mention but few.

In contrast to first year, second year Master's students ply compounds as the terms *dreamboat* and *babemagnet*. In the two degrees, students opt for figurative expressions as they are explained in the preceding pages. Indistinguishably, they shift the meaning of words to denote some activities like chill and prevail. While slang terms are sometimes distinctive between first year and second year Master's students, they mostly resort to the same slang features. Master's students similarly engage in different activities and they address their experiences and concerns from several viewpoints as part of their practice, through developing a variety of words to employ. This corresponds to Wenger's view that members of a community '... responses to their conditions-similar or dissimilar-are interconnected because they are engaged together in the joint enterprise'(p.120).

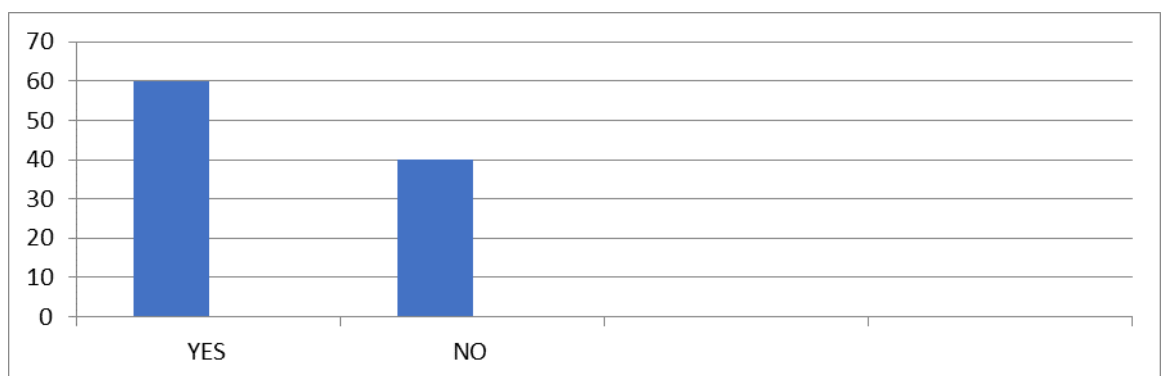
To answer the second question in this chapter, a comparative study has been undertaken between first year and second year Master's students of English in Mostaganem University. Data gathered shows that second year Master's students use various slang terms. Though there are some differences in the expressions employed between the two Master's degrees, the haunted to slang aspects are mostly similar between them. In short, first year Master's students' slang patterns are akin to second year Master's students ones. Students have different viewpoints against the use of slang.

4.3.Students' Attitudes towards the Use of Slang

In order to inquire the students' attitudes towards the use of slang variety, a questionnaire was designed for both first and second year Master's students to be filled in.

4.3.1. The Analysis of Students' Questionnaire

From the students answers about the first and the second question that revolve around their demographic information, it is shown that the participants are forty first year and fifty second year Master's students. Globally, the group consists of thirty seven females and forty three males. The third question targets the difference between formal and informal variety according to students by justifying their answers. More importantly, there is a difference between formal and informal variety for both of them are opted for in distinctive contexts for multiple purposes. The students' answers are shown in the following graph:

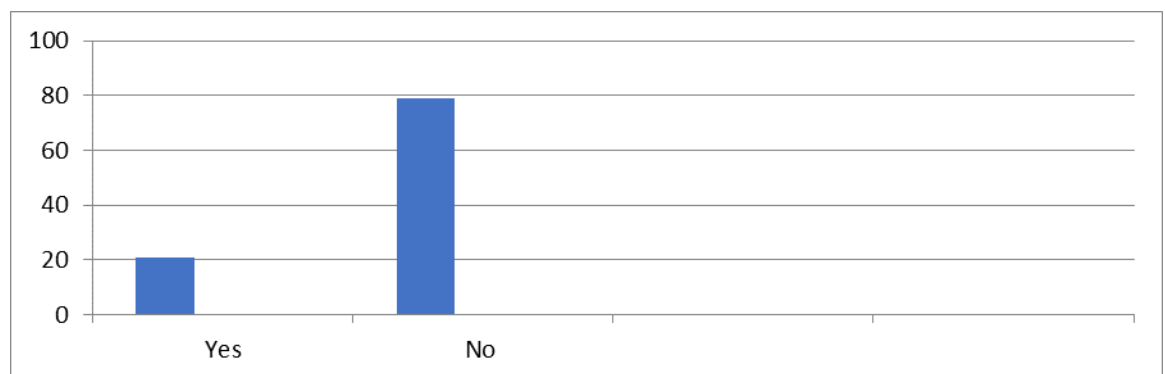


Graph 4.1. Students' Answers about the Difference between Formal and Informal Variety

From the graph, it is conspicuous that the majority with 60% consent that there is a distinction between the formal and the informal variety. Their consent is justified from context. Accordingly, some of them argue *'yeap, there is a difference between the two the first is used in the classroom in speaking and writing. But the informal one is spoken in*

informal settings between friends”, “*one is used in the classroom with teachers, the informal is used outside the classroom in chatting with intimates*”, and “*both of them are used in two distinctive contexts to establish different purposes*”. Moreover, it is manifested that 40% of the students claim that there is no difference between the two varieties. Some of them explain their position from communication perspective “*both of them are used for communication between people to satisfy situation needs*”. These are the ways the students consider both formal and informal varieties.

Relative to the previous question, the fourth question revolves around the use of the formal variety outside classroom from the students' perspective. The graph below manifests their views.

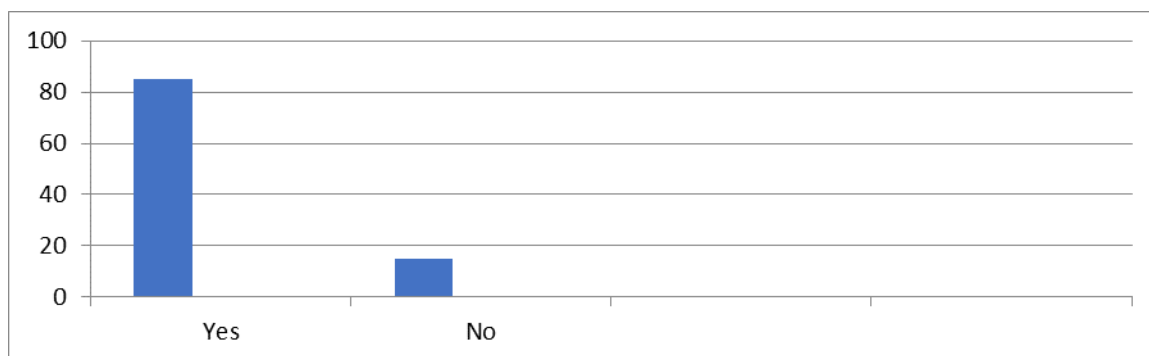


Graph 4.2. Students' Attitude about the Use of Formal Variety outside the Classroom

According to the retrospective chart, it is obvious that the majority of students disaccord with the use of the formal variety outside classroom. Similarly to question three, they justify their answers from the perspective of context. Being part of context, some students explain their position from the nature of the relationship they establish with their mates. According to a student, “*we speak to our friends with whom we have a close relationship outside of the*

classroom using the informal variety". Other students approach it from the prospect of communication easiness. Accordingly, they claim *"formal variety is full of bonds so we use the informal variety to communicate with our mates outside the classroom."*, and *"when we use the informal variety outside the classroom, we feel at ease to speak to our friends about any topic we want to talk about"*. However, the minority of students (18%) agree with the use of the formal variety outside the classroom. They explain it from the prospect of topic of discussion. Relatively, one of them explains his standpoint through saying that: *"we use the formal variety when we talk of our studies or projects we have to even outside the classroom"*. From their explanations, it is apparent that students approach their use of the formal and informal code of language from the viewpoint of context.

Through targeting context, question five aims to show whether students create a variety to communicate among their mates. The prospective graph indicates their viewpoint:

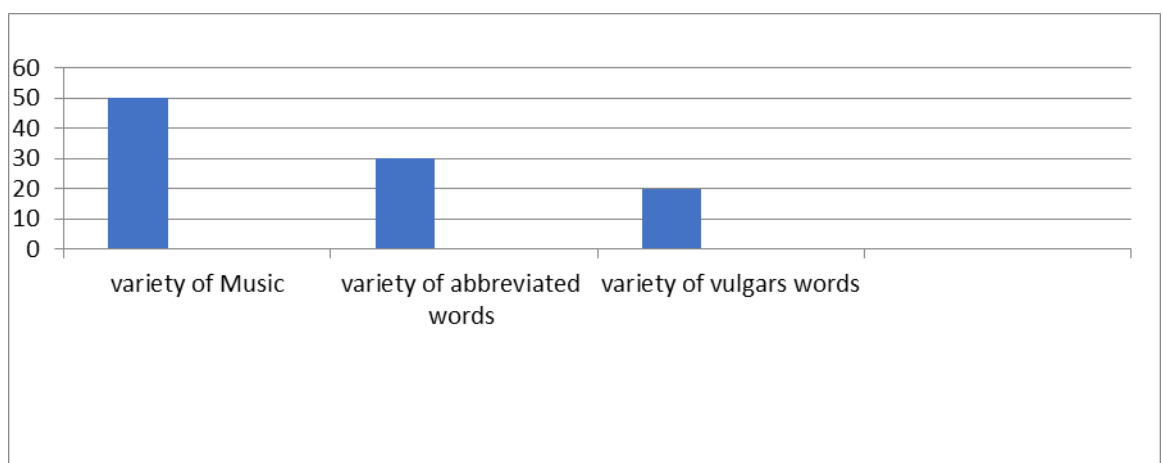


Graph 4.3. Students' Creation of a Special Code among their Mates

In correspondence to the foregoing results, it is evident that the majority of students (88%) assent with the creation of a code to interact with their mates. They rationalize their view according to the situation of communication. More interestingly, this can be illustrated by some students' views *"we create some expressions in different situation to express ourselves. Those expressions do not exist in the formal variety"*, and *"when we talk of*

personal matters as intimates, we use special words to have a good discussion". Though, the minority of them (12%) disapprove the idea of code creation. In this connection, they mention that *"we do not create a language to talk to our mates"*, and *"in order to communicate with our friends far from studies, we use informal English"*. Therefore, students expose different attitudes about the creation of a language variety for their interaction with their mates.

The sixth question is bound to the concept of slang as an informal variety of language. Students are required to show their personal conceptualization of slang. Their answers are classified into multiple categories as it is evident in the following graph:

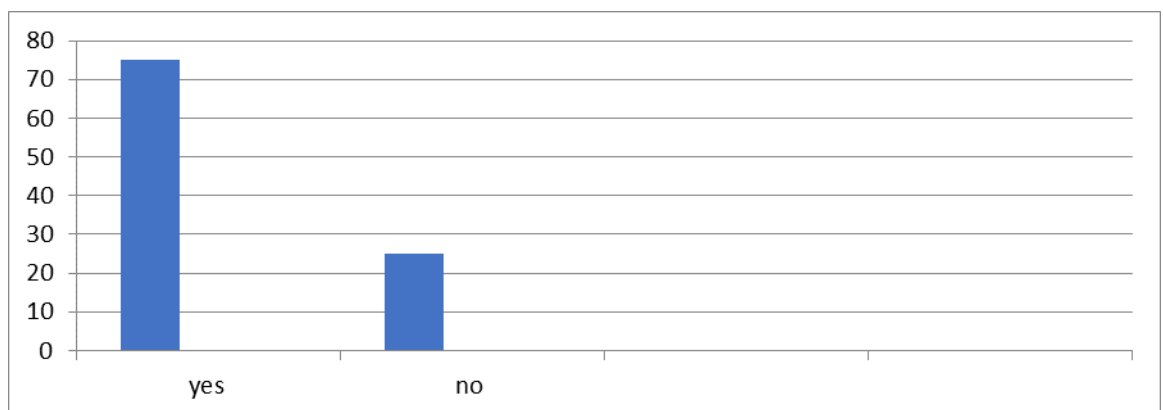


Graph 4.4: Students' Consideration about Slang

It is pre-eminent that the students' answers are arranged into three sections as it is shown above. Most students with the estimate of 50% consider slang as a variety of music as one of the students claim that *"slang is used in music, when see lyrics you find plenty of slang words not like formal language"*, and *"when we download music lyrics, they are full of slang terms"*. Moreover, 30% of them explain slang from the morphological perspective by consisting of abbreviated words as it is said *"slang consists of abbreviated words like*

gonna and wanna instead of 'I am going' and 'I want to' and many examples", " slang is an informal variety that is bound with shortened words to be used between friends". 20% expound slang from its composition of vulgar words like it is mentioned "slang is a variety which consists of vulgar words that cannot be employed with distant participants". Thus, slang is approached from diversified perspectives according to students.

Slang as an informal variety can only be employed in speaking rather than writing. The seventh question is concerned with the use of slang in oral conversation from the students' perspective. The answers are represented in the up-coming graph :

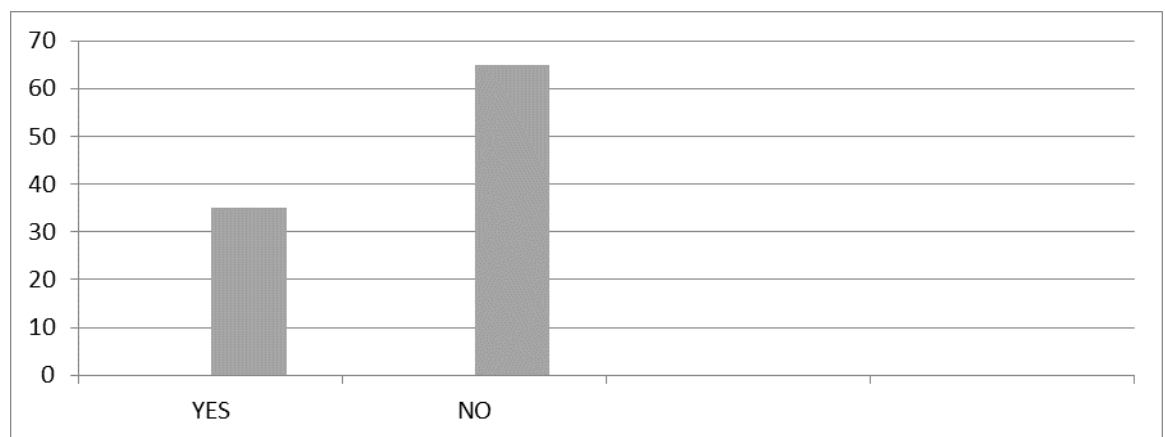


Graph 4.5. Slang Use in Oral Conversations according to Students

From the graph, 75 % of the students opt for slang use in oral conversation. They expound their standpoint from the communication perspective. That is , slang is used to fulfill communication needs as it can be illustrated by some students' sayings : *"it is used in spoken language. It is used in informal settings as with friends"*, and *"I think that slang can only be used in speaking because it is full of vulgar words that cannot be said to anyone"*. All the students' arguments exhibit that slang is employed in spoken discourse for interaction. This can be illustrated by Maulidiya.et al (2021) view of slang as a variety frequently haunted by younger generation in their daily life communication than the standard language.

Contrastively, 25% are against the use of slang in spoken discourse. They explain their position in terms of slang unfeasibility in public. This can be instantiated by some of their sayings: *“it cannot be used in everyday speech since it is full of impolite words”*, and *“slang consists of words that cannot be used in public”*. From the previous justifications, it is obvious that students consider contextual cases where slang cannot be used through disregarding some situations where it can be used.

Following the same line of thought, question eight targets the use of slang in written discourse. While several scholars show that slang is oral rather than written, the students manifest distinct viewpoints. The latter are represented in the fore-going chart:



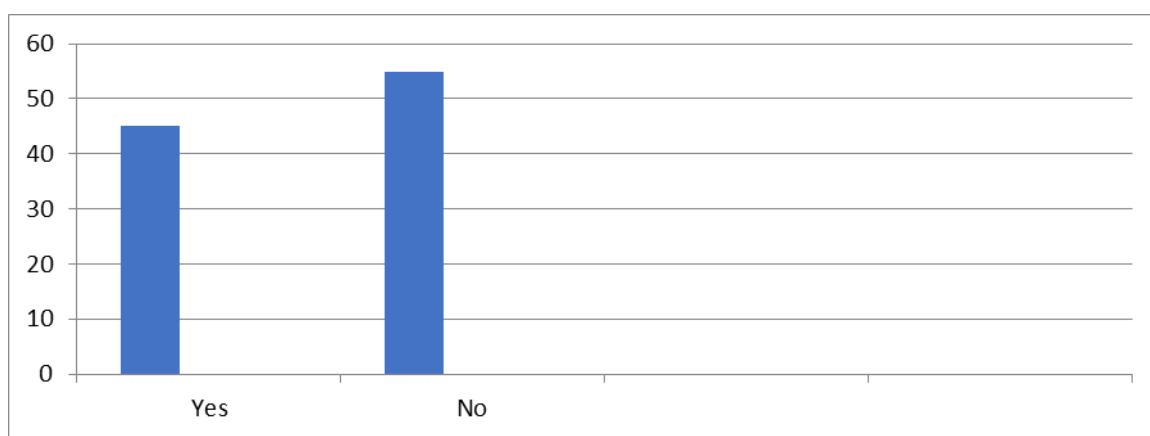
Graph 4.6: the Use of Slang in Written Productions according to Students

From the chart, it is obvious that the majority of Master's students are against the use of slang in written production with the estimate of 65%. Most of them consent about its use in spoken language. They explain their choice in terms of the formal sphere like it is mentioned in most of their responses *“when we write we use the formal language, not slang”*, *slang is not used in informal contexts. For example in exams we use standard or formal language”*. The students' view coincides with study of Saputra and Marlina (2019), *An analysis of slang*

words used by instagram account *plesbol*, in which they considered slang as linguistic variety that does not exist in dictionaries and a code that is used in informal conversations rather than in written materials, particularly in formal settings.

However, some others support the employment of slang in written texts. They are viewed via the lens of informal context . 35% claim the utility of slang in writing through affording some of language forms. This can be instantiated by some of their explanations: *“it helps us to write specially the use of abbreviations, shortened forms”*, *“when we are in a hurry, we can resort to some contracted forms when we write in our note books”*, and *“slang gains time for example in taking notes or when the teacher dictates something in order not to miss anything”*. It is obvious that students approach the use of slang in written discourse from different perspectives.

According to some researchers, slang is considered as an anti language as it follows some ungrammatical structures that are not feasible in the standard language. Relatively, question nine requires from students to express their attitude about slang as anti –language. The students’ answers are represented below:

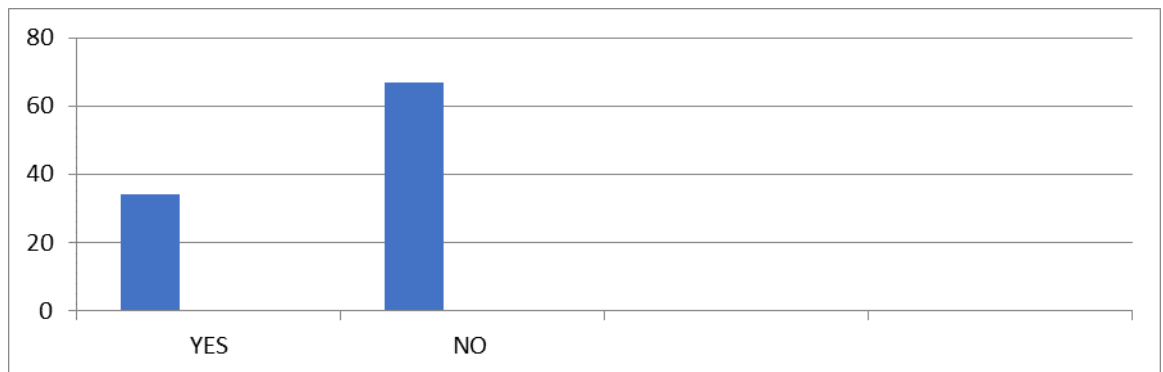


Graph 4.7: Students’ Attitudes about Slang as an Anti-language

From the graph, 45% of the Master's students consider slang as anti-language. They account for their view in terms of its discrepancy from the standard language. Accordingly, they mention: *"it is considered as anti-language as it is not like formal language that can be used in all settings"*, and *"slang is full of informal words and words that have their own structure which is different from the standard language"*. Nevertheless, 55% do not deem slang as anti-language through claiming its utility in interaction as it is told by one of the students: *"slang is not anti-language as it helps and facilitates to communicate"*, and *"it can be used in speaking and writing"*. From their explanations, it is lucid that most master students conceive slang as a variety of language that is employed in interaction rather than anti-language as Ellis (2002) in her article ' *What is Slang?*' defines slang as a type of language used in specific circumstances that is not location-specific and allows people to convey their sense of membership in a particular group within the community. In the same line of thought, in her study of North Carolina University students slang, Eble (1996) denotes slang as a constantly evolving collection of slang terms and expressions that people use to create or strengthen social identity or unity within a group.

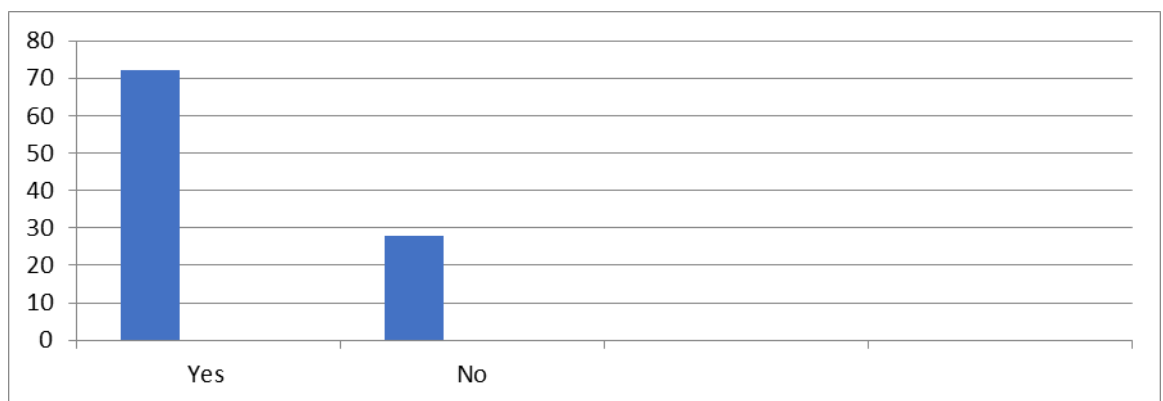
Following the same line of thought, question ten addresses Master students' attitude about slang as an outcome of language deficiency. The majority of students are against the notion. They believe that slang is a variety opted for in specific contexts with particular purposes. Thus, they state: *"Slang is used in certain situations, not because we lack vocabulary or knowledge of the standard language."* *"Slang is a distinct speech pattern that has nothing to do with mastery in formal language"*. The minority claim that slang is the result of language deficiency. some of them justified their standpoint through telling that *"we sometimes go back and forth to slang as we lack some exact terms in the formal language"*, *"slang is helpful it provides words that we need or forget especially in*

speaking .so we felt the need to resolve the language gap”. From the previous justifications, it is evident that the majority of students visualise slang as a variety utilised in some peculiar situations instead of being the upshot of language shortage as it is demonstrated underneath.



Graph 4.8: Students’ Attitude about Slang as a result of Language Deficiency

Data collected from question eleven treats whether creativity is a factor for the construction of slang according to Master’s students. As it is shown in one of the previous chapters, slang is formed through creating new words or creating alternative meanings to the existing words in the standard language. From their answers, the majority of students consider slang as the outcome of creativity. The prospective chart interprets the students’ views.



Graph 4.9: Students’ Attitude about Slang as a result of Creativity

Relative to the graph, 73% reckons that slang is constructed through innovativeness. They explain their choice in terms of the constant created words which become part of slang repertoire. They assert that *"every time we have terms that enter slang vocabulary," "we always meet new words with a special formation which is different from the standard language in terms of its structure."* Nonetheless, the remaining students (27%) do not believe that slang production originates from inventiveness. They expound their preference by saying that *"slang exists in songs and lyrics which we pick out to use in our everyday use", "slang consists of the already existed words, we change the meaning or the structure of the words. For example: abbreviated words"*. From the students' justifications, it is lucid that the majority of students slang as the outcome of creativity. Their distinctive perspectives are further supported by Eble's (1996) claim that "new slang words and expressions usually arise productively,"(p.26) where users use the language's phonological, morphological, and cultural resources to convey new meanings.

Retrospectively, The students' questionnaire ranges from their definition of slang and its use in both speaking and writing to their attitudes towards it. All Master's students relate the use of slang to the nature of context. They perceive that slang can be used in informal contexts in both speaking and writing. More importantly, they claim that slang is opted for in informal interactive situations as with close friends and casual written scripts as through taking notes. When being asked about slang as anti- language, the majority of students reject the notion by asserting the variety's role in communication. Being introduced to the idea of slang as an outcome of language shortage, most of them consider slang as an independent variety that can be used to establish certain communication needs. Through being requested to supply their attitude about slang as an indication of creativity in the language, the majority of them ,by approving this aspect, denote the distinctive vocabulary creation that constantly

enter slang inventory. This supports Pongsapan (2022) findings on students of English at Christian University Indonesia Toraja where he found that the majority of students consider slang as a means of enriching the language with new words.

4.4. Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, we tried to answer the following questions: Does first year Master's students' slang vary from one specialty to another at the department of English, Mostaganem University? Is slang used by first year Master's students different from that of second year Master's students at the department of English, Mostaganem University? What is the attitude of students via slang?

It has been shown that first year Master's students of English at Mostaganem University, belonging to different specialties, construct one community of practice through using identical slang features that are employed by second year Master's students as well. It could also be concluded that an outstanding number of students deem slang to be an indication of creativity in the language.

Chapter Five:

Gender and Students' Slang Types and Their Functions

Chapter Five Gender and Students' Slang Types and Their Functions

5.1. Introduction

As the previous chapter which revolves around students construction of their community through the analysis of first year and second Master's students of English interactions, belonging to different specialties, to pick out whether they construct different communities of practice through the use of slang, it is shown that students belong to one community of practice. Being mentioned in the first chapter that language is related some social variables as gender, the present chapter looks at the variation of slang according to gender, as a social variable. More deeply, it looks at slang types that male and female Master's students have recourse to in their academic and non-academic interests. It also elucidates the functions for which master students use slang.

5.2.Data Description

Pertaining to different specialties, master's students of English supply assorted slang words with distinct structures. Some terms are frequently used throughout the levels and specialties, while others are unique to specific groups.

5.2.1. Part One: Academic Concerns

This part revolves around the description of slang terms and their variables, used by master's students in fulfilling their academic interests such as referring to different modules they study and their teachers, labelling their classmates, and standing for their exams.

Question One: I know that you have various modules to study, would you site how you call each one?

1-“Teaching” is a metonym that first year and second year master students of Language and Communication use to refer to the module of Applied Linguistics.

2- "ESP" is an acronym for 'English for Specific Purposes', employed by first and second year master students of Language and Communication.

3- "HRD" is an acronym coined for the module 'Human Resources Development', used by students of Language and Communication at both levels.

4- 'Meto' /mito/ is a clipping that denotes the module 'Methodology'.

5- 'X(1)' is the name of the teacher, utilized in some specialties at both levels, to stand for the module of 'French'.

6- 'DA' is an acronym, students in some specialties construct, that stands to 'Discourse Analysis'

7- 'Speaking' /spi:king/ is a mispronounced word that is uttered by master students of Language and Communication to indicate the module of 'Oral Communication'

8- 'ICC' is an acronym for 'Intercultural Communicative Competence', used by master students of Language and communication

9- 'HRM' is an acronym employed by second year master students of Language and Communication for 'Human Resources Management'

10- 'X(2)' is a name of the teacher that is haunted to by second year master students of Language and Communication as a label for the module taught 'Blended Learning'

11- 'Intelligibility' is a term used a metonymy to name the module 'Communication Practices' by second year master students of Linguistics.

12- 'Socio' is a clipping for 'Sociolinguistics' in first year master specialties of Linguistics and Gender & Sociolinguistics.

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13-‘Phono’ is a clipping for the module ‘Phonology’, constructed by first year master students in both Linguistics and Gender & Sociolinguistics.

14-‘Saussure’, the founding father of Modern Linguistics, is used by first year master students of Gender and Sociolinguistics to denote the module ‘Main Linguistic Theories’.

15-‘CoP’ is an acronym, resorted to by first year master students of Gender & Sociolinguistics for the module ‘Community of Practice based Sociolinguistics’

16-‘Traduction’ is a French borrowed word employed by first year master students of Gender & Sociolinguistics for ‘Culture and Translation’.

17- ‘X(3)’ is a name of the teacher used as a metonymy to denote the module which first year master students of Gender and Sociolinguistics were taught, ‘Gender Theories.

18- ‘Written’ is an adjective which is shifted the function to be a noun. It is used to stand for ‘Academic Writing’. It is employed by students belonging to all specialties and levels.

19-‘Scientific Research’ is an expression that students utilise for referring to ‘Ethics and Deontology’.

20-‘Bilingualism’ is term used by second year master students of Gender and Sociolinguistics to stand for the module of ‘Language Management and Language Policy’

21-‘FCDA’ is an acronym, opted for by second year master students of Gender and Sociolinguistics for ‘Feminism Critical Discourse Analysis’.

22-‘F Lit’ is a clipping of ‘Feminine’ and ‘Literature’. (Second year master students of Gender and Sociolinguistics)

23- 'Powerpoint' is a metonymy which is uttered by second year master students of Gender and Sociolinguistics to indicate the module 'Presentation Techniques'.

24- 'X (4)' is the teacher's name that is used as a metonymy by Second year master students of Gender and Sociolinguistics to denote the module taught, 'Applied Linguistics'.

25- 'X (5)' is the name of the teacher which is opted for by Second year master students of Gender and Sociolinguistics to call the module 'Classroom Interaction'.

26- 'Psycho' is a clipping of the term 'Psycholinguistics'.

27- 'Plagiarism' is a term employed as a metonymy formed by first year master students of both Linguistics and Didactics & Applied Linguistics" to label the module 'Ethics Conduct in Research'

28- 'Chomsky' is a name of a linguist which is chosen by first year master students of Linguistics to target the module 'Chomskyan Linguistics'

29- 'Register' is a term that second year master students of Linguistics utilise as a name for 'Systemic Functional Linguistics'.

30- 'How to Undertake a Research' is an expression which is shifted the function by first year master students of Linguistics to be a name for 'Academic Writing'.

31- 'Feminism' results from shortening the module 'Feminism and Linguistic Theory'.
(Second year master students of Linguistics)

32- 'Lexis' is word picked out to be a label for 'Semantics'. (First year master students of Linguistics)

33- 'Thesis' is a term chosen for 'Bibliographical Research'. (Second year master Students of Linguistics)

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34- 'Video' is utilized to refer to the module 'African- American Filmography'. (Second year master students of Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches)

35- 'Legal English' is a metonymy for the module 'Forensic Linguistics. (First year master students of Linguistics)

36- 'Am Lit' is a clipping of 'American' and 'Literature'. (First year master students of both Literature & Civilisation and Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches)

37- 'Am Civ' is a clipping of the terms 'American' and 'Civilisation'. (First year and second year master students of both Literature & Civilisation and Literature & Interdisciplinary Approaches)

38- 'Brit Civ' results from shortening the words 'British' and 'Civilisation'. (First and second year master students of Civilisation and Literature and Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches)

39- 'Brit Lit' ensues from clipping the terms 'British' and 'Literature'. (First and Second Year master of Civilisation & Literature and Literature & Interdisciplinary Approaches)

40- 'Socio(1)' is a shortened form of 'Sociology'. (First and second year master of Civilisation and Literature)

41- 'LTP' is an acronym of the module 'Literary Text Pragmatics'. (Second year master students of Civilisation and Literature)

42- 'GL' is an acronym of 'General Linguistics'.

43- 'Morpho' is a shortened form of the module ' Morphosyntax'. (First year Master students of Didactics of foreign languages)

44- 'ICT' results from 'Information and Communication Technology'.(First year students of Didactics of Foreign Languages and Didactics and Applied Linguistics)

45- 'Bonjour' is a French borrowed greeting which is chosen as a name of 'French' (Didactics of Foreign Languages)

46-'Socio (2)' is a clipping of the module 'Socio/ Psycholinguistic Context in Language Teaching'.(first year master of Didactics of Foreign Languages)

47- 'Didactique' is a French borrowed word to refer to the module 'Didactics and Interculturality'. (first year Master of Didactics and Foreign Languages)

48- 'Curriculum' is a term which is used to refer to the module 'Fundamental Issues in Language Teaching'. (First year master of Didactics of Foreign Languages)

49- 'X (6)' is the teacher's name that is used to stand for the module taught: 'Language Teaching Approaches and Methods'.(Second year master of Didactics of Foreign Languages)

50- 'Objectivity' is a concept that is used to refer to the module 'Ethics and Deontology'. (first year master of Didactics of Foreign Languages)

51-'Future Life' is a phrase employed to indicate 'Communication Practices'.(Second year master of Didactics and Foreign Languages)

52- 'CS' is an acronym for 'Cognitive Sciences'. (Master students of Didactics and Applied Linguistics)

53-'DFL' is an acronym constructed for the module 'Didactics of Foreign Language'. (master students of Didactics and Applied Linguistics)

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54- 'Affects' is a concept in teaching that students designate to target 'Applied Linguistics'.
(Master students of Didactics and Applied Linguistics)

55- 'psycho-peda' is, a clipping borrowed from French, used for 'Educational Psychology'.
(Master of Didactics and Applied Linguistics)

56- 'Plagiarism' is a term which is given to the module 'Ethics and Deontology'. (First year
master of Didactics and Applied Linguistics)

57- 'Work' is a metonymy that is chosen to indicate 'Communicational Practices'. (Second
year master of Didactics and Applied Linguistics)

58- 'Af Civ' is a clipping of the words 'African' and 'Civilisation'. (Master of Literature and
Interdisciplinary Approaches)

59- 'Grammaire' is French borrowed word that is utilized to stand for 'Grammar'. (First year
master of Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches)

60- 'Black Lit' is constituted from 'Black' and 'Lit' the clipped form of 'Literature. It refers
to 'African- American Literature'. (First year master of Literature and Interdisciplinary
Approaches)

Unlike the discrepancy that can be accounted for by the variation of the modules learned in every specialism, students employ the same slang features. From the first sight, it is patent that female and male Master's students haunt to several slang constructions to label their modules such as: clipping, acronym, metonymy, borrowing, and function shift. They are disposed to shortened expressions. More deeply, clippings can be instantiated by the use of the terms *Metho*, *Phono*, and *Socio*, to mention but few; and acronyms are exemplified by the occurrence of words as: *DA*, *FCDA*, *Flit*, *ect.*. They also employ the name of the teacher or an aspect studied to designate their modules Such as: (*X*), *Affects*, *scientific Research*, *ect.*

Moreover, they go for borrowing some words from French language. This can be shown in *Didactique*, *Bonjour*, ect. They sometimes shift the function of some words to denote some of their modules like in the use of *Written* which is shifted the function from an adjective to a noun. Students form names to point out their teachers.

Question Two: Having various modules means having many teachers as well. Would you provide the name that you construct for each one of them?

- 1 'Mrs Affects' is coined by students of Didactics and Applied Linguistics to stand for the teacher of Educational Psychology.
- 2 'Miss Needs Analysis' is a concept which first and second year master students of Foreign Languages Didactics, and Language and Communication to stand for the teacher of English of Specific Purposes.
- 3 'Mr You like it or Dislike it' is an expression that students of Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches employ to label the teacher British Civilisation.
- 4 'Mrs Intertextuality' is employed by second year master students of Literature and Civilisation, for the teacher of Literary Texts Pragmatics.
- 5 'Bilingualism' is concept that second year master students of Sociolinguistics and Gender Studies choose to call the teacher of Language Management and Language Policy.
- 6 'Miss Genre' is haunted to by second year master students of Sociolinguistics and Gender Studies to call their teacher of Critical Discourse Analysis and Feminism Critical Discourse Analysis.

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- 7 'Mr Malxomax' is well-known figure in the history of United States of America that students of Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches use to target the teacher of History of the United States.
- 8 'Super' is an adjective that is shifted the function to a noun. It is mostly used by first year and second year master students in all the specialties as a label for the teacher of French.
- 9 'Miss the Roaring' refers to the Golden Age. It is employed by first year master students of Literature and Civilisation to denote their teacher of History of Great Britain in 19th century.
- 10 'Miss Tom Sawyer' represents a character in the short story 'Adventures of Tom Sawyer' that is attributed by First year Master students of 'Literature and Civilisation' to their teacher of Literature of 19th century.
- 11 'Miss Identity' is an expression that students in all specialties utilise to denote the teacher of Sociology.
- 12 'Methodology' is a name opted for by first year and second year master students in all specialties to refer to their teachers of 'Methodology'.
- 13 'Language and Context' is an expression haunted to by second year master students to target the teacher of Communicational Practices.
- 14 'Miss Community' is a name opted for by first year master students of Sociolinguistics and gender studies to refer to their teacher of Community of Practice Based Sociolinguistics'.
- 15 'Miss Memoire' is an expression that master students in all specialties choose to call the teacher of Academic Writing.

- 16 'Miss Good' is used as label for the teacher of Literary Stylistics by first year master students of Linguistics. It is formed by changing the function of the term from an adjective to a noun.
- 17-'Meta-cognition' is a concept which is mainly used by second year master students of Foreign Languages Didactics to denote the teacher of Cognitive Sciences.
- 17 'Miss Discourse' is the name of the module that students generally, in all specialties, attribute for their teacher of Discourse Analysis.
- 18 'Viva' is a name that second year master students of Linguistics and English Language employ to call the teacher of bibliographical research.
- 19 'Miss So Far so Good' is an expression recurrently produced by the teacher of African Civilisation. It is shifted the function from a phrase to a noun. It is used by students of Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches to depict their teacher.
- 20 'Miss Edward Said' is a prominent figure in the history of Interculturality that first year master students of Foreign Languages Didactics opt for to call the teacher of Intercultural Studies.
- 21 'CBA' is an expression that students of Language and Communication coin to denote the teacher of Applied Linguistics.
- 22 'Syllabus' is a concept that second year master students of Sociolinguistics and Gender Studies employ to depict the teacher of Applied Linguistics.
- 23 'Be Cautious' is used generally by First year master students in all specialties to refer to their teacher of Ethics and Deontology. It is shifted the function from a sentence to a noun.

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- 24 'Corpus' is resorted to by first year master students of Linguistics to denote the teacher of Corpus Linguistics.
- 25 'Miss OK' is an expression repeatedly used by the teacher of Applied Linguistics that second year master students of Sociolinguistics and Gender Studies opt for to stand for him or her among themselves.
- 26 'Mr Jefferson' is well-known figure in the history of United States of America that students of Literature and Civilisation employ to target the teacher of History of the United States
- 27 'You Search' is an expression that first year master students of Language and Communication choose to depict their teacher of Human Resources Development. It is constructed through function alternation from a sentence to a noun.
- 28 'Planning' is chosen by master students of Didactics and Applied Linguistics to call the teacher of Didactics of Foreign Languages
- 29 'Feminism' is a name coined by first year and second year master students of Sociolinguistics and Gender Studies to refer to their teachers of Gender Theories and Classroom Interactions in the Feminism Theory, respectively.
- 30 'Saussure' is the name of the founding father of Modern Linguistics, used by first year master students of Sociolinguistics and Gender studies to stand for the teacher of Linguistics.

Relative to the previously mentioned words about teachers' dubs, it is noteworthy that male and female Master's students (first and second year) in all specialties have a tendency towards function shift, and metonymy in their slang formation. They are inclined to the use of metonymies for labeling their teachers through an expression the teachers recurrently

employ or the subject they mostly treat. This can be exemplified by *MRS Affects*, *Mr Jeffersson*, *Mr Malxomax*, *Miss Genre*, to mention but few. In the same line of thought, they also opt for the name of the module as *Methodology* to refer to their teacher of methodology. They go about shifting the function of certain words and expressions, for instance: *Mr. You like it or Dislike it*, *You search* are altered from a sentence to a noun. There is recourse towards acronyms like *CBA* which is utilized by students of Language and Communication for the teacher of Applied Linguistics. Though the features haunted to are alike, the terms vary throughout specialties and levels for Master's students. Students create labels for their mates as well.

Question Three: In any class, there are some outstanding students, what are the words that you create to stand for them?

- 1 'Shakespeare' is a name of a great writer in the history of British Literature that is employed to stand for clever students
- 2 'Boffin' is a noun that is used to refer to intelligent students.
- 3 'Encyclopedia' is a metaphor for intelligent students as they know everything in all subjects.
- 4 'Head' is a metaphor used by students to stand for intelligent ones since they consider the head as the container of information.
- 5 'Smarty' is an affixed noun that consists of the noun 'smart' and the affix 'y'.
- 6 'Computer' is a metaphor employed by students to refer to bright ones
- 7 'Mad' is an irony that students construct to stand for clever students
- 8 'Ba9a9' /baqa:q/ is an Algerian colloquial expression that students resort to in order to call intelligent students

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- 9 'Brain' is a noun that is used to stand for brilliant students. It consists of meaning shift.
- 10 'Smarts' is a noun that stands for bright students. It is composed of the noun 'smart' and the affix 's'.
- 11 'Khabach' / xaba:ʃ / is a word that is borrowed from Algerian Colloquial Arabic to stand for intelligent students.
- 12 'Brainiac' is a noun that is constructed by students to denote excellent students. It is an affixed word that is composed of the noun 'brain' and the suffix 'iac'.

From the terms described retrospectively, males and females Master's students have recourse to meaning shift of words as in *Boffin*. Moreover, there is a noteworthy use of figures of speech. They resort to metaphors, essentially, through referring to some objects as: *computer, encyclopedia, brain, head* or figures as *Shakespeare*. They also form some affixed words like *smart, smarty, Brainiac*. More importantly, they borrow Algerian Colloquial Arabic words that stand for intelligent students as *Khabach and BakaK*. Master's students create slang terms for some academic activities as well.

Question Four: During the year, you sit for exams. So, what are the words that you use among yourselves to express this event?

1-'N'Examinou' is an expression that students construct through combining the English word 'exam' with Algerian Colloquial affixes 'n' and 'nou' to mean 'we do the exam'.

2-'Examania' is a noun that is composed of two word 'exam' and 'mania'. It is constructed to refer to the exam phase.

3-'Report' is a term that is used by students to label the state of having exams as according to them they are going to state back everything they have been exposed to.

To describe the state of having exams, master's students of both genders haunt to multiple slang constructions. There is an outstanding use of affixed words. They are constituted from an association of English words with Algerian Colloquial Arabic affixes as *n'examinou*. They haunt to assimilation as in *exama*nia. *To report* is a word which is shifted the meaning since students treat the fact of having exams depends on giving a written account of an already seen subject. Any exam ends with passing or failing.

Question Five: As any exam ends with passing or failing, what are the expressions that you construct to stand for both?

- 1 'Exam Hero' is a figurative expression that is employed by students to stand for getting the exam.
- 2 'Ace it' is an expression that is constructed through function shift, from a noun to a verb, to mean 'passing in the exam'
- 3 'Prevail' is a verb that is shifted the meaning by students to meaning 'passing the exam'.
- 4 'To have credit' is an expression that students create with the LMD system. Passing is associated with the amount of credit
- 5 -'To close the year' is an expression that students use to describe their act of passing since they metaphorphize passing with something to be closed and have an end.
- 6 'Bombed it' is a metaphor used by students to express the state of failing in the exam.
- 7 'Flunk' is a verb that is employed by students to denote 'failing in the exam'.
- 8 'Bit it' is an expression that is shifted the function from a noun to a verb to denote the state of failing.

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- 9 -'Failit' is formed by students through a combination of the English verb 'fail' and the borrowed Colloquial Algerian Arabic suffix 'it' to mean 'I failed'
- 10 'Buckle' is an expression that is shifted the meaning to stand for the fact of failing.
- 11 'The make-up is waiting' is a personification for the need of students to enter the make-up exam. The make-up is personified.
- 12 'Dropped the ball' is a metaphor to stand for 'failing the exam'. The exam is metaphorised by the ball.

As it is shown retrospectively, males and females Master's students construct multiple slang formation to depict the fact of passing and failing in the exam. There is a notable appearance of figures of speech as metaphors and personifications. Students tend to create some metaphorical expression like *'to close the year'*, *'I have credit'* for passing. The latter can be explained from the perspective the LMD system which operates with thirty points that guarantee the students' success. They also form some utterances for failing such as: personification in *'the make-up is inviting'*, and a metaphor in *'dropped the ball'*, to mention but few. They compose affixed words like *failit* that results from an association of the English word and Algerian Colloquial Arabic suffix. There is an existence of shifting both meaning and function of terms to target either passing or failing as they are deeply described above. Apart from the academic concerns, Master's students may have other concerns for which slang exists in their repertoire.

5. 2.2.Part Two: Non-Academic Concerns

The present section endeavours to describe the different slang terms and their variables created by Master's students to fulfill some non-academic interests as referring to their mates of the same sex and of the opposite sex, as well as their beloved.

Question One: What are the expressions that you create to stand for your mates from the same sex?

1- 'Bro' is a clipping of the word 'brother' used by male students to stand for male friend.

2- 'Sis' is a clipping of the word 'sister' used by female students to refer to female students.

3- 'Beast' is used by female students to refer to an ugly female.

4- 'Boss' is an expression employed by male students to label their male friends.

5- 'B' is a clipping of the term 'bitch'. It is uttered by male students.

6- 'L' boys' is an association of the Algerian Colloquial Arabic affix 'l' and the English word 'boys' to refer to male students.

7- 'L' girls' is a combination of the Algerian Colloquial Arabic affix 'l' and the English word 'girls' to denote female students.

To denote their mates from the opposite sex, students employ several slang types. Both male and female students mostly resort to the same slang features. There is a prominent occurrence of clipping like 'sis, b', and 'bro' for females and males, respectively. To call their mates from the same sex, students also use affixed words that result from a combination of English words with Algerian Colloquial Arabic affixes as described previously. Unlike female students who have recourse to metaphors as 'beast', males tend to shift the meaning of words like 'boss'. Students create other slang terms for referring to the opposite sex as well.

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Question Two: What are the words that you use among yourselves to refer to the opposite sex?

- 1- 'Bomb' is a metaphor that male students utter to refer to a beautiful female.
- 2- 'Babemagnet' is a compound that female students utter to denote an attractive male.
- 3- 'Bird' is metaphor used by male students to stand for a skinny female.
- 4- 'Box' is metaphor used by male students to refer to attractive females.
- 5- 'Butter face' is a compound noun employed by male students to label a female with an attractive body.
- 6- 'Dreamboat' is a compound that female students construct to call attractive males.
- 7- 'Amazon' is a metaphor that male students opt for to depict a female with a muscular body.
- 8- 'Cheese' is uttered by female students to refer to an attractive male.

From the terms explained beforehand, students opt for two different slang features. They frequently have recourse to metaphors such as: *cheese*, *Amazon*, *box*, *bird*, and *bomb*. They utilise compound words to call their counterparts. For instance, *Butterface* and *dreamboat* refer to females and males, respectively. More deeply, there are more terms for females than for females. Nevertheless, students coin diverse constructions to denote their beloved.

Question Three: What are the expressions that you construct to call your beloved?

- 1- 'Mi Chica' is opted for by male students. It is a Spanish borrowed expression to mean 'my girl'.
- 2- 'My husband' is a meaning shift used by female students to refer to their beloved.

3-My box' is an expression coined by male students.

4-My cat' is a metaphor constructed by male students to depict their girlfriend.

5-'Chérie' is a French borrowed term that is opted for by female students.

6-' My heart' is a metonymy coined by female students to depict their boyfriend.

To describe their beloved, students utilise varied slang types. Male students tend to create metaphorical terms to identify their beloved like *my box and my cat*. Though, female students employ a metonym to stand for their boyfriend: *my heart*. Both of them borrow words from other languages, for instance: *Chérie and mi chica* are loaned from French and Spanish, respectively. Moreover, there is recourse to meaning shift by females that can be exemplified by the expression *my husband*: which literally means 'a married male'. In addition to the academic and non- academic concerns, there are other situations for which they create slang.

5.2.3. Part Three: Multiple Situations

The present part tries to expound different slang terms and their variables used by Master's students of English to accomplish some probable academic and non-academic interests, which are not mentioned in the previous two sections in the interview, that they might engage in.

Question One: Life is full of situations; you may use other expressions for both academic and non- academic concerns, would you provide them?

1-'Dorm'is formed through shortening the word 'dormitory' to stand for the campus.

2-'Cram' is a verb that is shifted in meaning to denote 'studying a lot in a short period, especially, in the exams'

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3-'Revision Beard' is used by male students to stand for the beard grown in the exam for those who do not bother to shave during the exam phase.

4-'Cut class' is an expression employed by students to mean 'quit the class'.

5-'Hit the book' is an expression created by students that means 'to study'.

6-'Cognitively Fucked' is a phrase uttered by students to denote the fact of being mentally tired after studying hard.

7- 'Chill' is used by students to denote the state of relaxing.

8- 'My bad' is constructed by shifting the function of the word from an adjective to a noun. It means 'my fault'

9-What's up? Is used for greeting.

10-What's with you? Is an expression used to mean 'what is happening to you?'

11-'Shit' is an exclamation that is used for disgust.

12-' n 'eatou' is a verb which is formed by combining the English verb ' to eat' and the Algerian Colloquial Arabic affixes ' n' and 'ou' to mean ' we have lunch'.

13-'Gasration' is constituted through a combination of the Algerian Colloquial word 'gasra' and the English suffix 'ation'. The whole word means 'speaking to have fun'

14-'Tbahdilation' is constructed through a combination of the Algerian Colloquial word 'tbahdil' and the English affix 'ation' to mean a scandal.

15-'It's dead' is an expression coined by students to mean 'there is nothing special or new'.

16-'Everything goes up in smoke' is an expression employed by students to denote the state of failing.

17- 'Recap' is constructed out of shortening the word 'recapitulate'

18- 'Have the blues' is an expression used by students to depict the state of depression and sadness.

19- 'Hold your horse' is an utterance created by students to mean 'wait!'

20- 'Nattendou' includes affixes as 'n' and 'ou' that mean 'we' and the verb 'to attend' to stand for 'to learn'.

21- 'Doitha' is a verb that is constructed from the phrase 'do it' and the Algerian Arabic suffix 'ha'. The whole formation means 'I did it'

5.2.4. Part Four: The Function of Use

In this part, the questions are directed to Master's students for providing the functions for which they employ slang. From data collection, it is apparent that master students in all specialties have diversified motives for slang use.

Question One: Do you think that you use these words for secrecy?

In answering this question, all students disagree about slang secrecy goal. A second year Master's female student of Sociolinguistics and Gender Studies claims: "*I don't use slang words for secrecy uh we actually utter neutral expressions (0,2) that don't need to be secret among our mates (0.3) we don't insult each other*". Following the same line of thought, a first year male student of Literature and Civilization says: "*For me I use slang not for secrecy... I speak in slang uh because we belong to the same group (0.3).It makes communication easy ...we feel homogeneous.*" Most students have short answers about the secrecy of slang use. The above sayings are just instances of some students' justifications of their answers. Some of them mention that they don't need secrecy among themselves as they

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use *neutral* words. Some others expound their position on group homogeneity and ease of communication. Accordingly, Ellis (2002) argues that it is “variety of language used in certain contexts by means of which people express their sense of belonging to a particular group within a community which is not specific to any geographic location” (as cited in Arua & Alimi, 2009)

Question Two: Do you think that you utilize them for easiness of communication among your group?

From the students' answers, all of them agree with communication easiness function. Some of them limited themselves to short answers while others try to give an explanation of their point of view. A first year male Master's student of Didactics of Foreign Languages responds as follow:

Yes uh we feel at ease uh free from constraints (0.3).we don't have to speak standard English. We don't have to use English of the classroom I use just a word and uh I will be normally understood.

In a similar way, a second year male Master's student of Language and Communication says:

Yes (0.4) when I use slang uh ... I feel free to express myself. It helps us to share our feelings uh emotions with our mates... or close friends uh we don't care about the structure of standard language'

Relative to the retrospective instances, students expound their agreement from different angles. According to them, it free them from the constraints of standard language that they are urged to use in the classroom. In addition, it attains intelligibility among themselves through only uttering some terms. It also facilitates for them the task of expressing feelings among their close friends. In return, this leads to solidarity among students in their community.

Question Three: Do you employ it for solidarity among yourselves?

When they are asked about solidarity of slang use, the majority of students agree, but the minority disagree. Only the students who approve have justified their position though the remaining ones restrict themselves to short answers. Relatively, a second year female Master's student of Language and Communication argues: "*We use slang because we are friends uh when I use it I break the distance with them (0.5) I feel close to them. We talk to each other uh without any constraints and limitations*". In the same line of thought, a first year male student of Didactics of Foreign languages responds that: "*Yes, when I speak in slang uh ... we are looked at by other students who belong to other departments (0.3) uh that we belong to the English Department and we learn English*". According to the previous substantiations, students use slang to show their belonging to the department of English. Moreover, it is employed to break the distance among them. Similarly, other students claim that slang employment is a sign of unity. It is exemplified by a female student of Gender and Sociolinguistics saying "*... when we slang uh we feel homogeneous or rather united as we use it all ... and we understand it all.*" Though, other students utilise slang for humour.

Question Four: Do you use it for humour?

From the data gathered, humour, as a function of slang use, is consented on by the majority of Master's students. It is exemplified by a first year Master's student of Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches claim as follow: "*I use slang mostly for playing and joking with my mates (0.3) we play with words to give new meanings... We form new words uh that are not possible in English for laughing*". In the same line of thought, a second year Master's student of Linguistics says: "*Yes , I sometimes use it for laughing with my friends uh (0.3) We create words for things uh we have in common as beast for a fat female (0.2) Shakespeare of a student who is intelligent*". This suggests that Master's students use slang with their

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friends when they interact with them for the motive of humour. They tend to construct informal words that do not exist in standard language. They also create words to stand for shared things to afford laughter. Their application for humour varies throughout specialties and levels. In short, all the functions' estimate will be represented in the following pages.

5.3. Data Analysis and Interpretation

After describing the slang terms provided by Master's students of English to fulfill their various interests and the functions for which they opt for using them, the present part endeavours to classify the slang terms to their variables and see their frequency among male and female Master's students. It also tries to see the most frequent function for slang use .

5.3.1. Slang Variables' Frequency among Males and Females for Academic Concerns

As the first part of the interview deals with the slang terms students adopt for their academic concerns, the following table presents slang words' and their variables as well as their frequency among male and female master's students.

Slang Features	The Terms	Males	Females
Acronyms	-ESP	- 8 TIMES	-8 Times
	-HRD	- 3 Times	- 2 Times
	-DA	-40 Times	- 35 Times
	-ICC	- 10 Times	- 9 Times
	-HRM	- 3 Times	- 2 Times
	-COP	- 4 Times	-4 Times
	-FCDA	- 2 Times	- 2 Times
	-LTP	-3 Times	- 4 Times
	-GL	- 3 Times	- 2 Times

	-ICT	- 4 Times	-3Times
	-CS	- 2 Times	- 3 Times
	-DFL	-4 Times	-4 Times
	-CBA	-2 Times	-3 Times
Clipping	-Socio	-6 Times	- 8 Times
	-Phono	-8 Times	-8 Times
	- Am Lit	- 7 Times	-6 Times
	-Am Civ	-10 Times	-12 Times
	-Brit Lit	-11 Times	-11 Times
	-Brit Civ	-13 Times	-13 Times
	-Socio (1)	- 5 Times	-4 Times
	-Socio (2)	-2 Times	-3 Times
	-Morpho	-4 Times	-4 Times
	-Af Civ	-13 Times	-15 Times
	-Psycho	-8 Times	-6 Times
Metaphor	-Shakespeare	- 8 Times	- 6 Times
	-Boffin	-6 Times	-4 Times
	-Encyclopedia	- 6 Times	- 8 times
	-Head	- 9 Times	-11 Times
	-Computer	- 7 Times	- 8 Times
	-Brain	- 10Times	- 12 Times
	-Bombed	- 7 Times	- 4 Times
	-Exam Hero	-5Times	-
	-Dropped the ball	- 10 Times	-9 Times
	-Amazon	- 20 Times	- 17 Times

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	-Cheese	-	- 10 Times
Metonymy	-X(1)	-3 Times	- 4 Times
	-X(2)	-One Time	- 2 Times
	-X(3)	- 6 Times	- 5 Times
	-X(4)	- 2 Times	- O ne Time
	-X(5)	- 2 Times	- 3 times
	-X(6)	-2 Times	- 2 times
	- Intelligibility	-20 Times	-16 Times
	- Saussure	-4 Times	- 3 Times
	-Scientific Research	- 2 Times	-1 Times
	-Bilingualism	-5 Times	-7 Times
	- Powerpoint	-3 Times	-2 Times
	-Chomsky	-2 Times	-1 Times
	-Register	-2 Times	-2 Times
	-Feminism	-11 Times	- 9 Times
	-Lexis	- 2 Times	-1 Time
	-Thesis	- 2 Times	-3 Times
	-Video	- 1 Time	-1 Time
	-Legal English	- 1 Time	-2 Times
	-Bonjour	-5 Times	- 9 Times
	-Curriculum	- 3 Times	- 2 Times
	-Plagiarism	-5 Times	-3 Times
	-Work	-1 Time	-1 Time
-Future Life	- 2 Times	-2 Times	
-Objectivity	-3 Times	-2 Times	

	-Meta-cognition	- 3 Times	-2 Times
	-Mrs Affects	-3 Times	-4 Times
	-MissNeeds Analysis	-4 Times	-4 Times
	-Mrs Intertextuality	-7 Times	-9 Times
	-Genre	-3 Times	-2 Times
	-Miss Roaring	-3 Times	- 4 Times
	-Miss Tom Sawyer	-4 Times	-4 Times
	-Miss Identity	-7 Times	- 9 Times
	-Methodology	- 29 Times	- 25 Times
	-Language& Context	- 2 Times	-2 Times
	- Miss Community	- 2 Times	-1 Time
	-Planning	-8 Times	- 6 Times
	-Mr Jefferson	-3 Times	-2 Times
	-Mr Malxomax	-4 Times	-4 Times
	-Syllabus	-2 Times	- 3 Times
	-Edward Said	-2 Times	-3 Times
	-Viva	-3 Times	-1 Time
	-Corpus	-2 Times	-2 Times
	-Discourse	-25 Times	-22 Times
	-Teaching	- 6 Times	- 4 Times
	- Miss OK	-2 Times	-3 Times
	- Affects	-4 Times	-3 Times
Personification	The make-up is inviting me	- 36 Times	- 30 Times
Meaning Shift	-Report	- 10 Times	- 8 Times

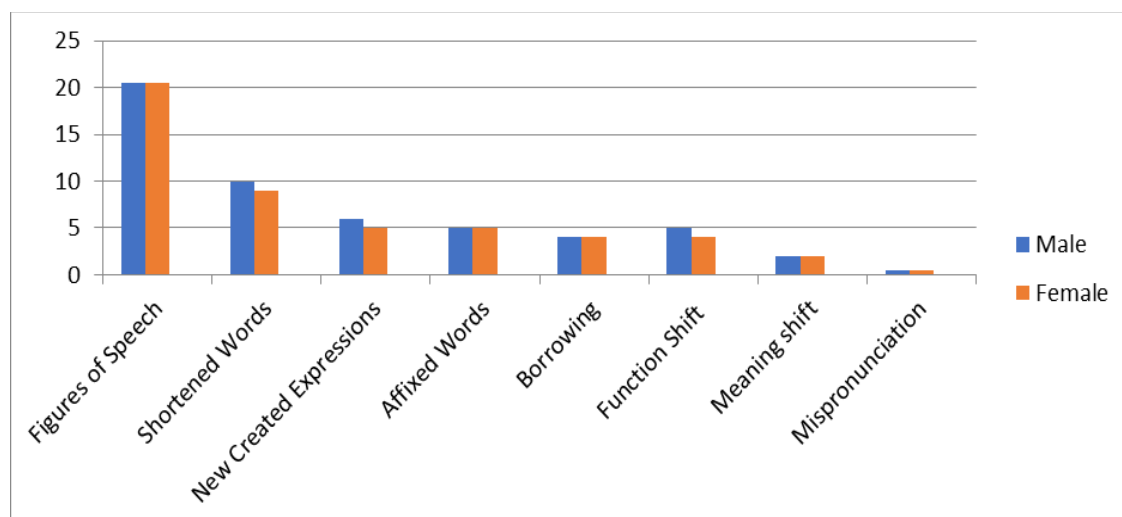
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	-Prevail	- 17 Times	- 10 Times
	-Buckle	-7 Times	- 5 Times
Function Shift	-Written	-30 Times	-25 Times
	- How to undertake research?	-2 Times	-3 Times
	-You like it or dislike it.	-11 Times	-13 Times
	- So far so good	-	-
	- Miss Good	-12 Times	- 9 Times
	-Super	-2 Times	-2 Times
	- You search	-17 Times	-14 Times
	-Be Cautious	- 3 Times	-4 Times
	-Bit it	-1 Times	-2 Times
		-7 Times	-
Borrowed Words	-Traduction	-7 Times	-5 Times
	- Communication	- 3 Time	-2 Times
	- Bakak	- 20 Times	- 23Times
	-Khabach	- 33 Times	- 28Times
	- Psycho- peda	-4 Times	-2 Times
	-Grammaire	-6 Times	-3 Times
	-Didactique	- 3 Times	-2 Times
Affixed Words	-Smarty	- 10 Times	- 12Times
	- Smarts	- 11 Times	- 9 Times
	- Brainiac	- 7 Times	- 6 Times
	- Failit	-25 Times	- 29 Times
	-N'examinou	- 33 Times	- 36 Times

New created Expressions	- Black Lit	-10 Times	-13 Times
	- To have credit	-35 Times	-30 Times
	-To close the year	- 55 Times	-47 Times
	-Flunk	- 9 Times	-5 Times
Mispronounced words	-Speaking	-4 Times	-4 Times
Irony	-Mad	- 12 Times	- 7 Times

Table 5.1 The Frequency of Slang Terms and the Variables used among Male and Female Master's Students for Academic Concerns

The analysis of the data in the previous table reveals that English language Master's students at Mostaganem University use a variety of slang constructions to address their academic issues, such as: irony, personification, metonymy, metaphor, meaning shift, function shift, borrowed words acronym, clipping, mispronunciation, and new created expressions. More importantly, the degree of their use varies between males and females as represented in the following chart:



Graph 5.1: The Frequency of Slang Variables among Males and Females for Academic Concerns

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From the graph, it is obvious that female and male Master's students employ some slang types more recurrently than others. There is an evident use of metonymy with the percentage of 12% for both female and male students. Male students coin new expressions more than female ones to meet their communication needs with the estimate of 6% and 5%, respectively. There is a shift in both the meaning and function of words, with male-related terms outnumbering female-related ones, as represented in the chart. As part of slang variables, shortened forms are adopted by males 9% slightly more than females 8%. There is a similar use of borrowing, affixation throughout males and females with the percentages 4%, 5%, and 2%, respectively. There is infrequent use of mispronunciation and irony congruently for both male and female students. This is the representation of slang features that both female and male master's students resort to for their academic concerns.

5.3.2. Slang Variables' Frequency among Males and Females for Non -Academic Concerns

After describing slang terms used by Master's students in non-academic concerns, the present part revolves around determining their variables and their variations according to gender.

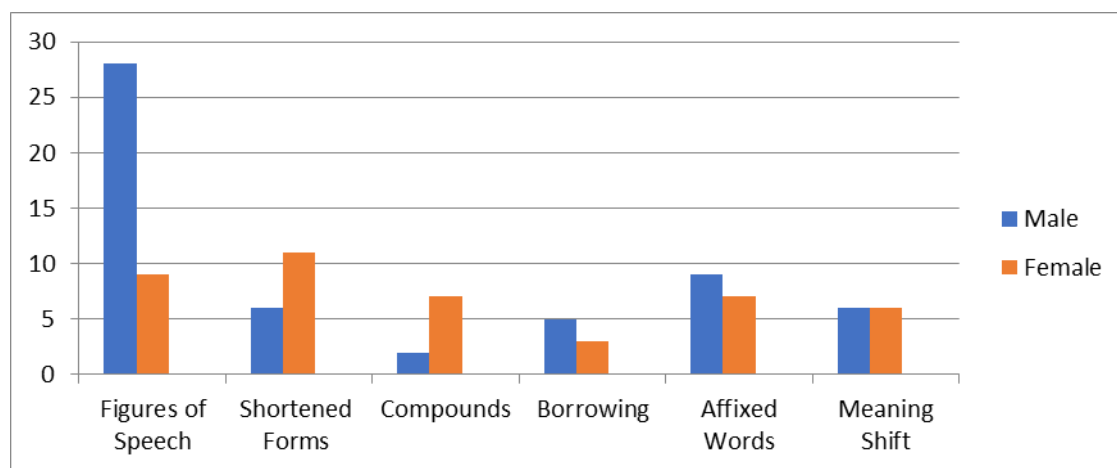
Slang Types	The Terms	Males	Females
Affixed Words	-L'boys	-50 Times	
	-L'girls		-40 Times
Clipping	-Sis		-40 Times
	-Bro	-33 Times	
	-B		-20 Time

Meaning Shift	-My Husband		-35 Times
	-Boss	- 40 Times	
Metonymy	My Heart		-25 Times
Metaphor	-My Cat	-29 Times	
	-My Box	-27 Times	
	-Bomb	-21 Times	
	-Box	-17 Times	
	-Bird	-21 Times	
	-Beast		-22 Times
Compounds	-Babemagnet	-	-20 Times
	-Butterface	-15 Times	-
	-Dreamboat	-	-19 Times
Borrowed Words	-Mi Chica	-31 Times	
	- Chérie		-15 Times

Table 5.2 The Frequency of Slang Terms and the variables used among Male and Female Master Students for Non- Academic Concerns

From the previous table that describes the slang types that Master's students of English at Mostaganem University employ for their non- academic concerns, it is noticeable that they resort to multiple formations like compounds, affixation, borrowing, meaning shift, and figures of speech (metonymy, metaphor). All the slang features differ from males and females as the prospective chart illustrates:

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Graph 5.2. The Frequency of Slang Variables among Males and Females Master 's Students for non- Academic Concerns

According to the chart which depicts the slang aspects employed for non- academic concerns, there are some features more noticeable than others. There is an outstanding use of figures of speech by male students 28% compared to female ones 9%. Females haunt to shortened forms 11% than males 6%. While females overstep males in their use of compounds 7%, males haunt more recurrently to borrowing 5% and affixed words 9% than them. Female master's students shift words' meaning 7% less than males 6%. These are the features that female and male Master's students resort to in their slang formation for non-academic situations.

5.3.3. Slang Variables' Frequency among Males and Females for Multiple Situations

This part deals with categorizing slang terms used by Master's students of English in different academic and non academic concerns - which were not determined in the first and the second part of the interview- according to the linguistic variables they belong to. It looks at their frequency among female and males students.

Slang Features	The Terms	Males	Females
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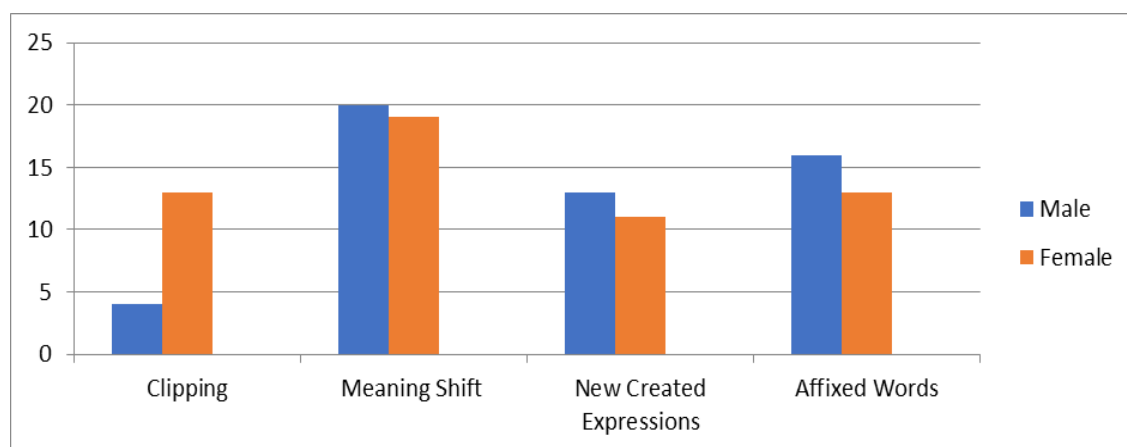
Affixed Words	-Tbahdilation	-44 Times	-49 Times
	- Gasration	-35 Times	-21 Times
	-Doitha	-37 Times	-29 Times
	- N'attendou	-55 Times	-48 Times
	-N'eatou	-60 Times	-57 Times
Meaning Shift	-Chill	-30 Times	- 37 Times
	- Ace it	-34 Times	-29 Times
	-Cram	-11 Times	-16 Time
New Created Expression	-What's up?	-55 Times	-49 Times
	-What is with you?	-5 Times	-12 Times
	-Everything goes up in smoke.	-28 Times	-30 Times
	- Cut Class		
	- Hold your horse	-20 Times	-13 Times
	-Revision beard	-25 Times	-17 Times
	-Cognitively Fucked	-20 Times	
	-Hit the book	-11 Times	-8 Times
	- Have the Blues	-14 Times	-18 Times
	-It's dead	-6 Times	-14 Times
		-15 Times	-9 Times
Clipping	-Dorm	-46 Times	- 49 Times
	- Recap	-20 Times	-11 Times

Table 5.3: The Frequency of Slang Terms and the variables used among Male and Female

Master's Students for Multiple Situations

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Though the third table and the fourth one account for slang features used in academic and non-academic concerns, the terms are restricted to certain circumstances. There are other situations for which Master's students of English at Mostaganem University opt for slang. The preceding table tackles slang construction types for various situations. Accordingly, there is a conspicuous occurrence of clipping, affixed words, meaning shift, and new coined expressions. The subsequent graph demonstrates the disparity of slang aspects between males and females.



Graph 5.3: Slang Variables' Frequency among Males and Females Master's students in Multiple Situations

According to the preceding chart, the use of clipping for both females and males is commensurate with the estimate 4%. To fulfill the needs of certain situations, they create certain expressions that are used to by males 13% than females 11%. Distinguished from males, females shift the meaning of words less than them (Shown above). They also construct affixed words from their own perspective. Accordingly, male students use them more frequently 16% compared to female students at 13%. These are the slang constructions that both female and male students opt for in the various situations they engage in.

In all concerns that the frequency of slang variables is diversified throughout males and females. Unlike the remaining aspects which are egalitarian among males and females,

acronyms, coined expressions, function shift, and meaning shift are more frequently resorted to by males than females for academic concerns. For non academic concerns, male students go about utilizing affixed words, metaphors, meaning shift, and borrowed words more than females who have a frequent recourse to clipping, metonymy, and compounds. According to the data analysis, it is noticeable that there is a similarity between males and females students in the use of clipping especially for some other circumstance as well as the discrepancy between them in terms of the obvious employment of affixed words, coined expressions, and meaning shift by male students. Male students outscore female students in the use of slang in both academic and non-academic interests as Kasmawati (2017) claimed, in her analysis of slang in relation to gender by English language students at *UIN Alauddin Makassar*, that male and female students use different slang types with distinctive frequency as males use slang more than females.

5.3.4.Slang Function for Male and Female Master's Students The present research manifests that Master students employ slang for various reasons that are determined in the interview questions

Functions	Male students	Female students
Exclusion	0	0
Easiness of Communication	25	25
Humour	35	15
Solidarity	17	33

Table 5.4: Slang Function according to Males and Females Master's Students

As the table shows, no student opts for the exclusion function of slang as both female and male students assert that they do not need to be secret among themselves. This aligns

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with the definition of slang by Labov (1992) and Eble (2004) as a non-standard variety used by youngsters to assist them identify with themselves, as a means of inclusion. All male and female master students claim that they use it for the ease of communication because it helps to break the bonds of Standard English.. This idea is supported by Stenstrom, et al (2009) by claiming that slang reduces the degree of formality so that people can communicate easily by disregarding the rules of the formal language. Relatively, its use facilitates the task of expressing their emotions and feelings Unlike twenty-seven females, forty-five males opt for humour. More deeply, it is considered as a means of laughing and creating new uses of the standard words, or creating words that are infeasible in Standard English. This can be seen through the use of figures of speech as *encyclopedia* for outstanding students, or through affixed words like *gasration*. However, the number of females who consent for solidarity function of slang (33 students) exceeds males one (17 students). To explain more, it is deemed to be a tool to ease the distance as well as to unite them, respectively. From the table description, one can notice that there are some males and females students assent to all slang functions, disregarding exclusion motive.

5.5. Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, the researcher attempted to answer the following questions: How do gender-based differences manifest in slang usage (in both features and frequency)? What motivates Master's students to employ slang?

Males and females Master's students of English in Mostaganem University resort to diverse slang construction kinds like borrowed words, compounds, affixation, meaning shift, function shift, figurative language (metaphor, metonymy, personification, irony), and mispronounced words for different concerns and situations they engage in. Those features

are employed among both males and females Master's students to label various academic and non- academic interests with diversified frequency

When being asked about the functions of slang use, Master's students provide distinguished point of views. All males and females disagree about group-exclusion function. While the majority of male master's students opt for humour, most females select solidarity reason for slang existence. Relative to their answers, all female and male students agree about communication easiness reason of slang use. All students think that slang help them to break the norms of standard language.

It can be inferred that both males and females Master's students of English, Mostaganem University, use several features as borrowing, compounds, affixation, meaning shift, function shift, figurative language (metaphor, metonymy, personification, irony), and mispronounced words mainly for communication easiness. More importantly, its usage is more frequent among males than female students. Hence, the results approve the hypotheses.

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General Conclusion

General Conclusion

There is a dialectical relationship between language and context. Language is constrained by the nature of context. Accordingly, this leads to the emergence of various varieties- formal or informal- in different situations. The change of one situational parameter shifts the style of language to be used. Moreover, context is the process. It might be determined from the linguistic environment. More deeply, the way words are put and the nature of words used help to determine the situation of interaction. Gender is one of the components of context.

Gender has an impact on language use according to multiple studies. It has been claimed that men and women employ different linguistic features. Relatively, it has been approached distinctively by scholars. Under the deficit approach, female linguistic features are deficit to that of males by their use of hedges, super-polite expression, to mention but few, according to feminist linguists. Other researchers deem that men language is dominant to women one from the dominance perspective. They explain it from the angle that language is man-made. To explain more, they mention that men tend to lead discussion and interrupt women more recurrently than women do among themselves. Though, the difference approach advocates assert that men language is neither superior nor dominant than women linguistic style. They are rather different as they belong to disparate sub-cultures. However, the social constructionist approach proponents claim that gender is not acquired, but is reproduced and performed according to the situational circumstances. In other words, they relate gender to context. Males and females opt for distinctive varieties according to context.

Research concerned with slang variety used by students where English is a second or a foreign language has been the interest of several linguists. However, few inquiries have been undertaken on slang features and its relation to slang. The present thesis attempted to

General Conclusion

address the discourse of Master's students of English at Mostaganem University to fulfill five objectives. The first aim is drawing out the disparity of slang in terms of specialty among first year Master's students. The second goal is picking out the slang features used by Master's students across levels. The third objective is withdrawing the slang features first and second year Master's female students use. The fourth one is identifying the recurrence of slang among male and female Master's students. The remaining purpose is looking at the attitude of students towards the use of slang.

In line with the first aim, interactions of first year Master's students of English at Mostaganem University are recorded outside classroom context. Data collected are transcribed and analysed. Following the community of practice perspective, results show students, belonging to different specialties engage in some joint activities for which they construct a shared repertoire reside on slang variety. Though the terms are distinct throughout first year Master's options, the findings also indicate that students resort to the same slang features. Therefore, the first hypothesis that first year Master's students in the department of English at Mostaganem University are constructing distinct communities of practice, according to their specialty, through creating varied slang is disconfirmed. More importantly, variance in slang terms does not affect the coherence of the community as students haunt to the same slang aspects.

With regards to the second purpose of this research, discussions of first and second year Master's students of English at Mostaganem University are recorded and transcribed. A comparison has been conducted between the two levels. Findings disclose that second year Master's students employ multiple slang terms that are diverse from the expressions used by first year Master's students. Though, the slang features used by the two Master's degrees are

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symmetrical. Therefore, the hypothesis that First year Master's students' slang is dissimilar to second year Master's students' one is disconfirmed.

Taking into consideration the third and fourth goal, semi-structured interviews were scheduled with female and male Master's students of English at Mostaganem University. Results reveal that both female and male students go about using multifarious slang aspects as compounds, affixation, meaning shift, function shift, borrowed words, mispronounced words, figurative language (metaphor, personification, irony, metonymy) for different situations –academic and non-academic- they engage in. Nevertheless, the frequency of the features used is dissimilar among males and females. More deeply, acronyms, coined expressions, meaning shift, and function shift are more frequently used by males than females for academic interests. Unlike females who have recourse to affixed words, borrowed words, clipping, and affixed words for academic concerns, male students have more recurrently to clipping, compounds, and metonymy. For non-academic concerns, female students have a reiterated use of metaphors borrowed words, and meaning shift rather than female who frequently ply clipping, metonymy, and compounds. Though it is apparent that female and male Master's students of English at Mostaganem University employ identical slang features, males utilize slang more than females. Consequently, the hypothesis is proved. Data analysis also manifests that slang is used for various purposes such as exclusion, humour, solidarity, and easiness of communication. More explicitly, all male and female students disapprove the function of group inclusion-exclusion. Notwithstanding the fact that the impulses of slang use are unlike among them, female and male Master's students of English concur in the easiness of communication for the employment of slang. Therefore, the hypothesis is confirmed.

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With regards to the fifth aims, questionnaires are distributed and filled in by eighty Master's students of English at Mostaganem University. Data gathered is coded and interpreted. Being asked about their attitude via slang, most students reject the idea of slang as anti-language and an outcome of language deficiency. However, the majority of them agree with creativity as the output of slang. Ultimately, the pre-formulated hypothesis is confirmed.

Overall, this thesis demonstrates that Master's students form one community of practice through using slang. They rely on the same slang features to fulfill different situations' needs when interacting with their mates. Findings also indicate that male students resort to slang more frequently than their females counterpart. The recurrent impulse behind the employment of slang is breaking the standard bonds for the easiness of communication. Having the feature of orality, Master's students assert that slang does not shift to the academic writings. In addition, students deem slang as the output of created words, they might create when interacting with their mates.

Like any research, the present study is not invulnerable to some methodological and findings blemishes. It focuses only on Master's students of English in Mostaganem University. More deeply, participants are first year and second year Master's students who belong to different specialties with gender equalibrium rather than English language students in all levels.

Being a methodological tool for data gathering, recording has its flaws. This can be attached to Labov's (1972) issue: 'observer paradox'. The latter is defined as the change of the participants' behaviour due to the observation task. The presence of the researcher among them could have raised the feeling of distraction and hesitancy from their part. The recording kit may have increased such feeling. Thus, students could have felt that their linguistic

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proficiency is to be evaluated. Moreover, students rarely stay at university after their classes because of their full schedule. All these circumstances can be elucidated by the restricted number of the recorded discussions.

The semi-structured interview was useful to investigate the students' slang types and their variation among female and male students. Nevertheless, the academic and non-academic concerns were restricted by the researcher rather than by the participants. Hence, the corpus of slang terms formation is limited so that some other students' interests might be missed.

Though the questionnaire as a methodological tool for data collection has its own benefits; it is liable to some limitations. While it can be filled in unaccompanied by the researcher, research target informants sometimes request elucidations. They may be misled by the questions. Thus, they might be answered from the way they personally approach them disrespecting their limits. They may also overlook nebulous and ponderous questions especially open-ended ones.

Further studies may address a mixture of students from first year to Master's degree to apprehend slang linguistic patterns in all levels to find out probable difference in terms of aspects and expressions. Further research may discern other slang features by extending both students' records. Moreover, research could enclose Master's degree students of English from another university to single out, through comparison, the aspects exclusive to the master's students of English in each university. Other research could use an alternative method to gather data from outside and may possibly picture out distinct results. Relatively, other researchers undertaking the same investigation may avoid the issue of reactivity through making themselves acquainted to the students through establishing relationships.

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Other research may include all students of English in Mostaganem University to obtain probably diverse outcomes in terms of slang formation aspects and its functions of use. Other researchers may supply additional academic and non- academic activities and might results in more slang terms with distinct constructions. To accomplish the same objective, different researchers may extend the corpus or resort to diversified tools and reach divergent conclusions.

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Appendix 1: Transcription conventions

Conventions of transcription are based on Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson (1974) and Chafe (1994)

. full stop marks final falling intonation of a sentence.

and, Comma as a continuation marker .The speaker has not finished; marked by fall –rise.

... Half-second pause.

word? Question mark depicts a rising intonation.

= Speaker's talk proceeds and second speaker talk is latched onto the first without a notable stop.

: Colons represent an extras lengthening of a sound.

(0.1) Numbers within round brackets indicate pauses in seconds (the example shows 1 second)

() Inintelligible speech.

((laugh)) Aspects of utterance such as laughter and whispers are indicated with double parentheses.

[and so-]

[why] her? Square brackets on successive lines mark the beginning and end overlapping talk.

{ points at board} Braces indicate non-verbal behavior such as movements and looks.

/ indicates where another speaker interrupts or cuts in.

/ /

slashes indicate speech is softer than surrounding discourse

Appendix 2: Transcription of Master Students Interactions

A- First Year Master Students' Interactions

1- Sociolinguistics and Gender Studies

(1)S1: What's up **fellas**?

(2)S2: **Pissed** off...uh much lectures and resea:rch=

(3)S1: **Gender** told us to [What?] search about language and gender.

(4)S3: **Yea::p**... (0.2) this year **nworko** very hard uh as if [we **wanna** become **Chomsky**].

(5)S4: () I wish we **close the year**.

(6)S2: ((Laughing)) **the make-up is calling** from now=

(7)S1:= we search about it.

(8)S3: Me also...uh(0.2) I **tryнна** read different theories of language and gender.

(9)S2: **Damn** those studies... uh (0.1) my mind excludes those things.

(10)S4: Oh! We have a lecture now=

(11)S1: We **gonna** sleep in the class.

(12) S3: Let's go [**yeap** it's time.]

2- Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches

(1)S1: **Exams are calling**.

(2)S2: **Si:::s** uh... What do we have now?

(3)S1: I think uh (0.2) **Black Lit** [ask one the **Brainiacs** we have]

(4)S3: { nodding} Iam thinking of its Exam (0.3) I heard you never get the average in it=

(5)S4: **yea::p** uh **welcome to the make-up**.

(6)S2: **Discourse** said that she is absent next week=

(7) S4: **Fantabulous**=

(8) S3: we have **lala time**.

(9) S1: I am leaving.... (0.2) **home is calling**/

(10) S2:/don't you attend=

(11) S1: I **cut class** of this afternoon=

(12) S2: Ah ok ... So/

(13) S1: See you.

3- English Language and Linguistics

(1) S1: **What is with you?**=

(2) S2: Have you seen that **Linguistica**[yeap] uh ... I don't know from where they are bringing/

(3) S1:/ just stop talking of this **bakak**=

(4) S3: Oh!! Stop please... (0.1) I understand nothing when she starts talking.

(5) S4: **cause** of her I was **bombed** in **psycho** and/

(6) S1: Stop talking of that (0.2) I **have blues**

(7) S2: I **gonna** eat now I/

(8) S4: **Hold your horse**... **Neato** all of us.

(9) S3: I go to the **dorm**=

(10) S1: Don't you go with us?=
(11) S3: No no I am tired.

4- Didactics and Applied Linguistics

(1) S1: Have you seen that **beast**?=

(2) S2:= **Yea:p** (0.1) Why?=
(11) S3: No no I am tired.

(3)S3:= Don't you know [no] she is his X.

(4)S2: you are no/

(5)S1: Don't ask me. I became **pissed off** when I see her.

(7)S4: What's up?

(8) S3: We missed your **gasration**=

(9)S2: We need to laugh uh ...(0.2) we are **cognitively fucked** .

(10)S4: ((laughing)) you are having a **revision beard**.

(11)S2: I flunk it in **psycho peda** uh/

(12)S3:/ We still have exams=

(13)S1: don't be pissed off.

5-Didactics of Foreign Languages

(1)S1: **Didactique** is absent today=

(2)S2: Oh really! At least we **chill** some/

(3)S3: **Yea:p** {nodding} uh ... (0.2) but we have **Metho**/

(4)S1: Oh what a hell!

(5)S4: What about **Socio**[I didn't catch a word]

(6) S2: I'm getting tired of that () new notions ... new studies uh I got tired of that.

(7)S1: What is new with you?

(8)S3: nothing ... (0.1) **it's dead**. I'm alone uh ... and I **gonna** be alone.

(9)S1: You right.

6- General and Comparative Literature:

(1)S1: How much in **Written** ?

(2)S2:Don't ask me [wh:y] I got seven=

(3)S1: =oh ! me too...Uh (0.2) we can make it up by **Brit Civ** and/

(4)S3: **Brit Civ gonna** give you thirteen! [I know that make-up is calling]

(5)S2: I go to the **dorm**.

(6)S1: See you **sis**.

(7)S4: We have X tomorrow=

(8)S1:**yea:p** ... (0.2) I like watching videos [at least we **chill**]

(9)S3: It's time for home=

(10)S4: talk to you on facebook.

7-Civilisation and Literature

(1)S1: look look **Mr Jefferson** is here=

(2)S2: oh really !!

(3)S1: We **gonna** have an exam with him/

(4)S3: Only the **bakak** will work [I'll try to make it up with **Metho**]

(5)S2: Those **khabach** can answer [and **close** it]

(6)S4: **Metho** and **DA** are for tomorrow [**recap** reca:p!!]

(7)S3: Where you bring that?=
(8) S4:=they told us.

(9)S2: we are **fucked off**.

8- Applied Linguistics and Communication

(1)S1: You have the summary of **HRD**?

(2)S2:No uh...(0.1) I'm searching to bring it from other students/

(3)S1: They will give us!

(4)S3: I have a document of last year ... Uh (0.1) I'll bring /

(5)S2: Oh really! Thanks=

(6)S1: What about **ESP**?

(7)S4: **ESP** ... Uh I have its summary=

(8)S2: we have to meet and work together=

(9) S3:**Yea:p** ...(0.2) we'll meet tomorrow.

(10)S4: I'm **cognitively fucked** of those/

(11)S1: We **wanna** exchange summaries to revise=

(12)S2: and uh(0.2) **to close the year**.

B-Second Year Master Students Interaction

1- Sociolinguistics and Gender Studies

(1)S1:Have you done ... (0.2) the analysis of the novel?

(2)S2:Oh yea:h **Flit**.

(3) S3: I **gonna** research on the net about it.

(4)S2: We have **powerpoint** tomorrow for our viva.

(5)S1: I'll see on the net tonight.

(6)S2: Much things to be ... (0.2) memoire... **Flit** uh (0.1) I'm **cognitively fucked**=

(7)S3: I know we cannot close the year uh/

(8) S4: It's the last year ... (0.1) and we chill.

2- Literature and Interdisciplinary Approaches

(1)S1: you see that **babemagnet**?

(2)S2: Oh **yea:p** ... I know him uh why?

(3)S1: He was **my heart** uh...() we loved each other and now?

(4)S3: don't be upset ...uh ((laugh)) you look for another=

(5) S1: One of the **beasts** took him ... (0.2) when I remember uh I become like...

(6)S2: Don't think of him/

(7)S3:/He does not deserve you.

(8) S4: Are you talking of **Af Civ**?

(9)S3: No , uh [but you reminded me of something]

(10)S2: Don't tell me ...uh we **gonna** have a make up session=

(11)S4: =((laugh))we have it next week for **Am Civ**.

(12)S2: I have my sis marriage uh ... I **cut class**/

(13) S1: /She finds it ... congratulations.

. 3- English Language and Linguistics

(1)S1: What's new with you?

(2)S2: **It's dead**.

(3)S1: I **have the blues**/

(4) S2:/ I'm **cognitively fucked** of that...

(5)S1: From what?=
=

(6)S2: =studies... uh much to do=
=

(7)S3: What shall we do? ... We finish it to close the year (0.1) and **nchillou**/

(8)S4: /You said **chill** ((laughing)) Job jo:b is waiting=
=

(9)S2: =or Doctorate
=

(10)S4: ((Laughing)) What are you saying?=
=

(11) S1: =We aren't **linguistic** to study it.
=

4- Didactics and Applied Linguistics

(1)S1: You have a **revision beard** ((laugh))

(2)S2: Those **examania** are killing us=

(3)S3: =**Yea:p** ... I wish **we close the year...**/

(4) S4: Oh.... I **ace** it in **DFL**/

(5)S1: Who tells you?

(6) S4: It's posted/

(7)S2: I'll see/

(8)S1:you see for me, plea:se=

(9) S3: **Hold your horse** uh ... to come with you.

(10)S2: I **dropped** the /

(11)S1:What about me?

(12)S2: you **prevail** it uh ... don't/

(13)S1: Rea:lly! I **closed** it...(0.2) uh/

(14)S4: We spend days and nights studying as **bakak**.

5- Didactics of Foreign Languages

(1)S1:Hey... uh hey, aren't you looking?

(2) S2: I miss you boss. I'm blind of **cramming**=

(3)S1: =You **cram** for what?

(4) S2: for the memoire uh ... (0.1) I have a problem/

(5)S1: Oh rea:lly! Why/

(6)S2: /for the survey (0.2) they did not want to answer my questionnaire=

(7)S3: For me uh...**everything goes in smoke for me**=

(8) S1: How/

(9)S2: you look tired uh .. you have to **chill** [you look having the blues]

(10)S3: **Nchilli!!** Are you ok /

(11)S1: /tell us what=

(12)S3: I lost what I wrote and you know (0.1) time is runni/

(13)S4: hey, **what's with you?**

(14)S1: He lost his **memoire**=

(15)S4: there is an application ... (0.2) with which you can take back what you lost=

(16) S3: tell me about it on facebook uh ... I can't write twenty five pages/

(17) S4: /Remind me and stop **having blues**.

(18) S1: I wrote nothing [problem of survey]

(19): you feel as if (0.1) we are asking for charity.

6-General and Comparative Literature

(1)S1: **What's up Bro?**

(2)S2: Nothing uh ... I didn't have lectures of **Brit Civ**.

(3)S1: I **gonna** take photos of them uh ... and send you in facebook.

(4)S2: Thank you

(5) S1: **LTP** told us(0.2) that we have a test next week.

(6) S2: oh ! uh ...I'm catching a word.

(7)S3: Look at that **dreamboat** he is really handsome

(8)S2: Don't tell me (0.1) you are in love!

(9)S3: ((laughing)) why? (0.2) some to me and Some to God.

(10)S4: you right.....uh (0.1) he is really a **cheese** where did you catch him?

(11) S1: ((laughing)) we have to be careful to be caught.

(12)S2: I have ((laughing)) **my girl**.

(13) S1: Before forgetting (0.2) the test of **LTP** for next week.

(14) S4: I know ... Thank you.

7- Civilisation and Literature

(1) S1: I have not seen you for a long time!

(2) S2: My mother is ill...uh I couldn't come

(3) S3: Oh...uh God Bless her.

(4) S2: Thanks (0.1) **I wanna** attend but I need the courses.

(5) S1: Last time uh... There was strike [we had only one session for each module.]

(6) S2: I missed **gasration** and **tbahdilation** with you=

(7) S3: I'll bring you the courses tomorrow (0.2) I **gonna**/

(8) S2: /**Hold your horse** ... today **n'eato** together and I pay.

(9) S3: I'm comi::ng just a minute=

(10) S4: Hurry up [to come for **Brit Lit**]

8- Applied Linguistics and Communication

(1) S1: Are you advancing ... any news?

(2) S2: No news uh... what about you?=
=

(3) S1: Wellah a letter uh...(0.1) full days/
/

(4) S2: we can't work=
=

(5) S3: As today, uh ... we have **ICC** , **HRM** and ... till 5pm [how can you work]

(6) S4: now ... (0.1) I must **n'eati** now.

(7) S2: ((laugh)) we fill the belly for the mind to sing=
=

(8) S1: **Yea:p** uh... we don't have time after

Appendix 3: Interviews with Master students

Question One: To which master degree do you belong?

Question Two: What is the specialty you are studying?

I want to ask you genially to answer some questions about the in-group terms that you construct to communicate among yourselves as master students of English language.

Part One: Academic Concerns

Question One: I know that you have various modules to study, would you site how you call each one?

Question Two: Having various modules means having many teachers as well. Would you provide the name that you construct for each one of them?

Question Three: In any class, there are some outstanding students, what are the words that you create to stand for them?

Question Four: During the year, you sit for exams. So, what are the words that you use among yourselves to express this event?

Question Five: As any exam ends with passing or failing, what are the expressions that you construct to stand for both?

Part Two: Non-Academic Concerns:

Question One: What are the expressions that you create to stand for your mates from same the sex?

Question Two: What are the words that you use among yourselves to stand for the other sex?

Question Three: What are the expressions that you construct to call your beloved?

Part Three: Multiple Situations

Question One: Life is full of situations, you may use other expressions for both academic and non- academic concerns, would you provide them?

Part Four: The Function of Use

Question One: Do you think that you use these words for secrecy?

Question Two: Do you think that you utilize it for easiness of communication among your group?

Question Three: Do you employ it for solidarity among yourselves?

Question Four: Do you use it for humour?

Appendix 4: Students' Questionnaire

Dear students,

I would like to ask you kindly to read and fill in this questionnaire. You are requested to contemplate about your daily experience as master students learning different specialties .Please, reply carefully to these questions to supply possible answers that would be used in a doctorate thesis . Your responses are going to be anonymous.

1- Are you:

First year master students

Second year master students

2-Sex: Female

Male

3-Is there a difference between formal and informal variety of language?

1-Yes

2-No

Explain

.....
.....
.....

4-Do you use the formal variety outside classroom?

1-Yes

2-No

Explain

.....
.....
.....

5-Do you think that students create a special code to communicate with their mates?

1-Yes

2-No

Explain

.....
.....
.....

6-Slang as a variety, how do you consider it?

.....
.....
.....

7-Can slang be used in your oral conversations?

1-Yes

2-No

Explain

.....
.....
.....

8-Can it be used in written production?

1-Yes

2-No

Explain

.....
.....
.....

9-Do you consider slang as an anti- language?

1-Yes

2-No

Explain

.....
.....
.....

10-Do you consider its use as a result of language deficiency?

1-Yes

2-No

Explain

.....
.....
.....

11-Do you consider slang as a result of creativity?

1- Yes

2-No

Explain

.....
.....
.....

Summary

The present dissertation examines how Master's students of English use slang and how gender, specialism and level influence its usage. Focusing on first and second-year Master's students of English, the study explores the sociolinguistic patterns of slang, aiming to understand whether students form distinct communities of practice based on their language use.

Using a mixed-methods approach, the researcher collected data through surveys, semi-structured interviews, and observation to analyze attitudes toward slang, gender-related differences in usage, and the linguistic diversity within student groups. Purposive sampling was used for interviews and recordings to target slang users, and a random sampling was used for the questionnaire to ensure equal representation of students. While content analysis was used to interpret the qualitative data, descriptive statistics and chi-square tests were used to evaluate the quantitative data in order to identify usage patterns. It offered quantitative as well as qualitative insights into gender-based patterns, slang types, and functions.

The findings show that, while slang is commonly used across genders and academic years, male students use it more frequently. Although slang is frequently used, it does not form discrete in-groups based on specialization or level, but rather serves as a way of informal communication and identity signaling. Slang is often regarded positively by students, who see it as a kind of linguistic innovation and social cohesion.

This study contributes to the field of sociolinguistics by shedding light on the relationship between language variety, gender, and student identity in academic settings, stressing the importance of slang as a social and linguistic phenomenon.

تتقصى هذه الأطروحة الاستعمال اللغوي للغة العامية لدى طلبة الماستر في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية، محللةً تأثير الجندر في هذا الاستعمال. تركز الدراسة على طلبة السنتين الأولى والثانية ماستر لغة الإنجليزية، وتستكشف الأنماط السوسiolغوية للغة العامية بغرض البحث فيما إذا كان الطلبة يشكلون جماعات ناطقة متميزة بناءً على خياراتهم اللغوية.

اعتمد الباحث منهجية بحثية مختلطة، جمع من خلالها بيانات عبر استبيانات، مقابلات نصف موجهة، وملاحظات؛ وذلك لتحليل المواقف اللغوية تجاه اللغة العامية، و تباينات الاستعمال ذات العلاقة بالجندر، والتنوع اللغوي داخل المجموعات الطلابية.

استُخدمت عينات قصدية للمقابلات والتسجيلات بهدف استهداف مستعملي اللغة العامية، بينما استُخدمت عينات عشوائية للاستبيان لضمان تمثيل متناسو للطلبة. في حين استُخدم تحليل المضمون لتفسير البيانات النوعية، وظفت الإحصاءات الوصفية واختبارات مربع كاي لتقييم البيانات الكمية بهدف تحديد بنى الاستعمال. قدمت الدراسة رؤى كمية وكيفية حول البنى القائمة على الجندر، وأنواع ووظائف اللغة العامية.

تكشف النتائج أنه على الرغم من أن اللغة العامية شائعة الاستعمال بين مختلف الأجناس والمستويات الجامعية، فإن الطلبة الذكور يستعملونها بوتيرة أكبر، و بالرغم من شيوع استعمال اللغة العامية، فإنها لا تؤدي إلى تشكيل جماعات ناطقة متميزة بناءً على التخصص أو المستوى الدراسي، بل تعمل بمثابة وسيلة تواصل غير رسمية وعلامة دالة على الهوية. غالباً ما ينظر الطلبة إلى اللغة العامية نظرة إيجابية، معتبرين إياها شكلاً من أشكال الابتكار اللغوي والتماسك الاجتماعي.

تساهم هذه الدراسة في حقل اللسانيات الاجتماعية من خلال إبراز العلاقة بين التنوع اللغوي، الجندر، وهوية الطلبة في الوسط الأكاديمي، مؤكدةً على أهمية اللغة العامية كظاهرة اجتماعية ولغوية .