

Characteristics of Newspaper Editorials: ‘Chouftchouf’ in ‘Almassae’ Moroccan Newspaper as a Case Study

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Abstract

Newspaper editorials seem to be neglected in media discourse research compared to the abundant work conducted on other newspaper texts, especially the news. Given their rhetorical nature, newspaper editorials are distinguished by certain characteristics in terms of their structure, the types of opinions used and their positioning in the editorial, as well as the language used in them. Given these facts, and since newspaper editorials are directed to mass audiences with the aim to opinions, they deserve more consideration in media discourse research. This situation seems to apply to newspaper editorials in Arabic language and in the Moroccan context specifically. This article, thus, tries to cover up some of these features in ‘Chouftchouf’ Editorial published in the ‘Almassae’ Moroccan newspaper. This editorial started to be published since the launching of ‘Almassae’ Newspaper in 2006 and has known a tremendous success since then. This editorial is characterized by the variety of its structural organization, the types and positioning of the opinions used as well as the language employed. The structure varies between including or excluding a conclusion, a background part in the beginning of the intermediate section, or just following the three part structure: an introduction, an intermediate section, and a conclusion. As far as opinions are concerned, the types vary between the using opinions based on popular beliefs, emotions, facts and evaluations. The positioning of these opinions also vary between inserting prominent opinions in the beginning of the article and including less prominent opinions in the end or vice versa. As for language, ‘Chouftchouf’ editorial is a rich source of language-based argumentative strategies from which it gets some of its influencing power. In this editorial, at least nineteen argumentative strategies that are language based are used.

Keywords: structural organization- language power- opinion types

Introduction

The present article tries to cover some important notions on newspaper editorials in general and in the Moroccan context in particular. Because of their nature as opinion texts and ,consequently, being argumentative and persuasive, editorials might have more chances to influence the thinking of the reader than any other newspaper text type. Furthermore, the argument and information have become the nerve of our life and they are strongly present in all domains of human communication according to Alaoui (2010:1). Editorials are, then, automatically credited a strong presence in the newspaper as argumentative texts written mainly to influence the opinions of large audiences.

In spite of this importance, editorials seem to be neglected in research. Ansari and Babaii (2005:271) state in this regard: “*print journalism opinion discourse has been and still is considered by many a neglected genre, especially if it is compared with the abundant existing work on other newspaper text types....*” One of the important reasons for the necessity to consider editorials in research is based on their familiarity. According to Van Dijk (1996 in Greenburg 2000:520), they “*are probably the widest circulating forms of opinion discourse*”. Boeyink (1993: 28) supports the aforementioned claim for newspaper editorials stating that research on editorials is often limited to identifying the topics and classifying the arguments as supporting or opposing a position. Also, Van Dijk (1996: 1) claims that “*there are visually no book-length studies, and rather few substantial articles*”.

Needless to say that similar situation seems to apply to Editorials in Arabic language, since research on argumentation in general is overlooked. Alaoui (2010:1) states that argumentation studies are still among the specialties which did not receive the expected care in the Arabic culture, and that research in Arabic Rhetoric is so little and it does not give satisfactory answers about rhetoric without going back to western research. The purpose of this article, thus, is to disclose the importance of newspaper editorials by describing their characteristics, and demonstrating their roles in the newspaper taking ‘chouftchouf’ editorial published in ‘Almassae’ Moroccan newspaper as a case in point.

This article will be structured as follows: After defining newspaper editorials, it will describe some of their characteristics. It will specifically describe the types and the organization of opinions used and then, the different editorial structures. After that, the article will reveal some of the important roles and diverse functions newspaper editorials have in the newspaper. It is important to notice that the sources of their strong presence in the newspaper come from their nature as opinion texts and the power they gain through the language used in

them. The section following editorial structure will elaborate on this notion of power in relation to newspaper language in general and newspaper editorials in particular. These notions seem to be important to get more understanding of the content and the form of these opinion texts as a background step to introduce Moroccan editorials, with which the last section of this article will be concerned taking ‘chouftchouf’ as a case study.

1. Editorials

An editorial is a type of newspaper opinion texts “*intended to persuade the reader*” (Biber 1988: 148 in Belmonte 2007:1). Sinclair (1995 in Hasan and Babaii 2005: 276) define an editorial as “*an article in a newspaper that gives the opinion of the editor or publisher on a topic or item of news. They are restricted to between “200 and 500” words and “appear at a fixed place in the paper”*”. It can be inferred from these definitions that an editorial expresses the opinion of its writer and aims to persuade the reader to embrace this opinion. What characterizes editorials according to (Richardson 2007: 86) is that they are “*opinion articles and... will never qualify as ‘objective reporting’*”. That means they always express an opinion. They are also described as “*rhetorical*” (Billing 1991 in Van Dijk 1995: 7), because they occur in interaction contexts. That is to say, their objective is to convince the recipient with the legitimacy or invalidity of ideas. Van Dijk (1996: 23) categorizes them as “*public-mass communicated types of opinion discourse par excellence*”. Thus, they are newspaper texts expressing opinions directed to a large public and consequently, their aim is to persuade and convince.

Editorials include: *leading articles*, *letters to the editor*, and *personal editorials* (Koubali 2007:31). Koubali (2007:31) explains that *leading articles* or *institutional editorials* are regularly written by members of the editorial board, and so reflect the ideology of the newspaper. *Letters to the editors* are usually received by the newspaper from the readers as answers or comments about a particular issue already published in the newspaper. *Personal editorials* on the other hand, can be written by individual authors approaching and taking sides on different issues that were not necessarily published a priori. Thus, while *leading articles* follow the opinion of the newspaper, *letters to the editors* reflect those of the mass public, which might be the case for *personal editorials* as well. (Belmonte 2007:2) supports this conclusion.

Being a *leading article*, a *letter to the editor* or a *personal editorial*, an editorial remains an opinion text where the writer aims to convince the reader with a certain idea. Consequently, the construction of editorials at the levels of content and form usually follows an argumentative scheme. The next section will describe some characteristics of this construction.

2. Characteristics of Newspaper Editorials

Newspaper editorials make use of diverse types of opinions and structures. This section will describe the nature and the positioning of opinions used in editorials. It will then describe the different structural designs of editorials as suggested by researchers.

2.1. Opinion

In media research, the notion of newspaper opinion has been approached from different angles. Van Dijk (1995: 2-6) has elaborated on newspaper editorials opinions through the angle of beliefs which “*feature an evaluation ... and are the result of a mental judgement*”. In other words, the evaluations and judgements presented in editorials come from what the writer believes to be right or wrong. Van Dijk (1995: 3) adds that an opinion can be an ‘evaluative belief’ or a ‘factual belief’. The former implies that an opinion can be true or false because as Van Dijk (1995: 3) states: “*opinions.... Are associated to individuals, deemed to be subjective in the sense that they are what someone thinks to be true, but which I or others know or believe to be false or at least not justified*”. In other words, an opinion as an evaluative belief can be limited to individual thinking and not necessarily shared by others. And in that case, Van Dijk (1995:3) emphasizes, this opinion needs to be justified in order to be accepted by others. He illustrates the idea by the following example: “*Yeltsin is a democrat*”. He explains that we believe that the statement is true but others may not agree with us.

A factual belief on the other hand is related to real events and facts. Van Dijk (1995:3) in this regard says that factual beliefs are socio-culturally based. That is to say, a factual belief is judged and justified according to the socio-cultural norms of a specific community. For example, a criminal, a person who commits crimes, is a fact (factual belief). This statement does depend on common sense, and the condemnation of criminals depends on the laws and norms established by communities: a person who kills with the intention to kill can be sentenced to death in one community but be only put in Jail for years in another community. However, the condemnation is somewhat universal.

A closely related opinion characteristic in this regard is the one suggested by Walton (2000: 387-388) who believes that opinions can also come from popular belief of a society and this source is what constitutes its reasonability: because it is used in a particular context where this opinion is taken for granted as true regardless of the argument used to support it. Walton did not specify whether this notion on opinions is evaluative or

factual but it can be deciphered that it is closely related to factual belief since a popular belief should be shared by a specific cultural community in order to be called ‘popular’.

Another angle through which newspaper opinions are considered is when they are related to emotions. Van Dijk (1995: 6) says that: “the evaluation of events or other people may be accompanied by feelings of well-being, anger, shame, jealousy or resentment, and the verbal expression of such emotions at the same time may express an opinion”. Van Dijk illustrates the idea by the following example: “you are wonderful” and “he is a creep”. These two sentences imply emotion and opinion at the same time. ‘wonderful’ and ‘creep’ express the emotions of the person stating that he likes or does not like the person he/ she talking about, and at the same time express what this person thinks about the person he/she is referring to. Thus emotions and opinions are strongly related. However, van Dijk (1995:6) says that emotion expressions may not express opinion all the time. He gives the following example: “I hate him”. This statement shows the emotions a person has towards another but it does not express an opinion about him.

Opinion in editorials seems to be a complex notion in the sense that it is related to many elements varying from facts to feelings and to the social and cultural contexts: evaluations, beliefs, and socio-cultural norms. These varied sources might define the degree of opinions’ strength and, consequently their positioning in editorials. In this regard, Van Dijk (1995: 13) categorizes opinions into prominent and less prominent opinions saying: “prominent opinions may be expressed first, or in other prominent positions... at the beginning of clauses, sentences... headlines, headers or initial summaries”. In other words, the main and the strongest opinions are situated in positions which attract the attention of the reader before he/she goes on with the scanning process of reading the article details; Positions such as headlines and initial summaries are initial elements in the article in the sense that the reader looks at these parts first before reading the whole article. Van Dijk (1995: 13) adds that when (major) opinions are expressed initially, they “(...) may influence understanding, interpretation, and evaluation of later information in the text”. And this is the objective of editorials.

A similar suggestion may apply to arguments supporting stated opinions. Gauthier (2007: 324) specifies that “an argument is composed of a proposition and a support”. ‘Proposition’ in this context refers to an idea, a claim or a statement expressing an opinion, while ‘support’ refers to the proof used to establish the (in)validity of the proposition. Shahri (2010: 59-99) mentions that arguments are classified in a text depending on the degree of their strength. He means that stronger arguments may be stated first followed by less strong ones or vice-versa. That is, it is possible to start with less prominent arguments as well. The purpose of this organization might be a strategy to keep the reader attracted to the article till the end in order to cover these prominent opinions. Since an argument should entirely be formulated, the proposition and its support would usually go together. One can deduce then that strong opinions or propositions can also be positioned at the end of the editorial.

Another characteristic of newspaper editorials is their schematic organization. There have been various research suggestions on the structures of these texts. The following section will describe these suggestions.

2.2. Structure

Editorials, functioning as opinion-articles, reflect a specific opinion-organization and therefore a specific structure. Editorials may share some characteristics with other types of newspaper articles like the news as the use of headlines and conclusions. But editorials seem to follow different body structures. Wikipedia (2008) mentions some examples of these body structures: An editorial might follow chronology structure of events, cause-effect which refers to reasons and results, classification of items in terms of comparison, question answer, or lists. Van Dijk and Kintsch (1978 in Condit 1999:6-7) described the superstructure of editorials as situation, problem, and solution. Within each of these three macro structure sections, we can also find micro situation and problem sections. It can be illustrated as follows:

Pro sit pro sit pro sol
Situation problem solution

The *situation* introduces the general context of the problem. The *problem* exposes the crisis or an issue or a person standing for or against. The *solution* may suggest ways to work out the problem. In relation to what is stated before, this global superstructure can incorporate the different body structures of chronology, question/answer, etc....

Van Dijk (1992 in Katajamaki and Koskela 2006: 2) gave a bit different description. The three sections are as follows: the first section ‘introduction’ describes the event and exposes the problem. The second section which he calls the ‘intermediate section’ shifts to the consequences of the event and analyzes them through giving reasons, examples and solution. The third section ‘coda’ summarizes the event and gives a moral. The moral for van Dijk is an optional element.

Introduction intermediate section coda

Variations of this description exist, though. Katajamaki and Koskela (2006) in their study of editorial

structure in English, Swedish, and Finnish business newspapers found that these business newspapers seldom present a direct solution and moral for the critical issue tackled. Compared to the superstructure aforementioned, the differences may hold at some levels. The ‘problem’ for Van Dijk and Kintsch (1978 in Condit 1999:6-7) is exposed in the second macro-section, while for Katajamaki and Koskela (2006) it is exposed in the introduction section. In addition, in the first description the conclusion is not mentioned to include a moral which differs from the one in the second description, even though it is optional.

Koubali (2007: 77-78) suggested that (institutional) editorials particularly are structured as follows:

Situation>evaluation>conclusion

The situation describes and summarizes the event. The evaluation gives explanations with arguments for or against, and the conclusion gives recommendations about what should be done and expectations about future development, based on the evaluation and it might also present predictions. The conclusion part is “*a very important element of the overall structure*”, Koubali (2007: 83), While the situation part “*does not express the most important in formation of the text but merely recapitulates the events or focuses on specific actions or actors*”, Koubali (2007: 83). Thus, according to this structure, the conclusion part is the essential part in the overall structure because it voices the writer’s opinion more clearly after listing the arguments for and against in the ‘evaluation’ part.

Koubali’s (2007) suggested structure seems to be closer to the one suggested by Van Dijk (1992). In both, the ‘introduction’ and the ‘situation’ expose the problem, while for Van Dijk (1978), the ‘introduction’ just sets the context for exposing the problem in the ‘intermediate’ section. Also, in Koubali’s (2007), and Van Dijk’s (1992) suggestions, the ‘coda’ and the ‘conclusion’ seem to be the most important parts of the editorial because they both incorporate the perspective of the writer, either as a ‘moral’ for Van Dijk (1992), or as ‘expectations’ for Koubali’s (2007).

Ansary and Babaii (2005) worked on rhetorical features and linguistic structure of English newspaper editorials through the systemic functional perspective of Halliday and Hasan (1989 in Ansary and Babaii (2005: 271). The study focused on the macro-structural level of 30 editorials taken from the electronic version of *The Washington Times*). The results showed that editorials use the following macro-structure:

- 1- 100% of the editorials use a ‘Run-on headline’ which states its theme and summarizes their main ideas.
- 2- 100% of the editorials use ‘Addressing an issue’ which “*served as a motivation for the editorial. In other words, it indicated that there existed an issue that must be debated*” (Ansary and Babaii 2005: 280). In short, this section usually sets the scene for later development of the topic.
- 3- 6% of the editorials ‘provide background information’ which Ansary and Babaii (2005: 2008) consider as a ‘rhetorical element’ that gives the reader some basic information about the issue to be argued for or against.
- 4- 100% of the editorials use ‘argumentation’. This term is used to refer “both to the process of argumentation and the arguments produced in that process” (Ansary and Babaii 2005: 281). More specifically, the process of argumentation is as follows: it starts initiating argumentation by presenting the available arguments one after the other, and ending by ‘closure of argumentation’.
- 5- 100% of the editorials ‘articulate a position’. This element identifies the writer’s opinion about the issue tackled. It summarizes the whole editorial and comes as a consequence of the arguments provided beforehand. Iedema et al (1994:2-3) suggests the same category they named: ‘reiteration of the thesis’.

Ansary and Babaii (2008) suggestion seems to be more detailed compared to the editorial structures aforementioned. It included a ‘run on headline’ before the introduction and ‘background information’ included in the ‘intermediate’ section. Iedema et al (1994:2-3) add a ‘byline’ category after the headline and it refers to the name of the writer.

Morley (2004) proposed modes of persuasion used in quality and popular British newspaper editorials. Following this mode, editorials are structured in the following way:

- 1- *What is the case*: this is usually the beginning of the editorial where the writer describes the actual situation or event. The writer usually makes use of ‘definition’ and ‘explanation’
- 2- *What should be the case*: the writer at that level ‘evaluates’ the situation suggesting solutions and better ways to deal with the problem. Reed (in Morley 2004: 2) calls this a ‘normative argument’ and states that this type of arguments is common in newspaper editorials; he says: “*newspaper editorials often make a case for what should happen with respect to some hot topics*”.
- 3- *What will happen in the future*: the writer makes predictions about the future on the basis of prior explanation and evaluation of the situation or event.

These suggested structures seem to match with minor differences. There is an introduction which either sets the context for the problem or exposes it directly. Then, there is an intermediate section which exposes the problem (Van Dijk and Kintch 1978), describes the consequences of the problem (Van Dijk 1992), presents arguments (Ansari and Babai 2005, and Koubali 2007) or even presents recommendations, (Morley 2006). It might include a background information part as suggested by Ansary and Babaii (2005). The last section summarizes the event (Van Dijk 1992), suggests solutions (Van Dijk and Kintch 1978), future expectations (Morley 2004), or recommendations (Koubali 2007).

These editorial structures seem to fall within 'through argumentation' category suggested by Hatim (1991 in Abbadi 2002:3) as one type of argumentation. It usually starts with a 'thesis' which initiates the problem, followed by 'substantiation' which provides arguments to support the thesis, and ends with a conclusion. The second argumentation type Hatim (1991 in Abbadi 2002:3) suggests is 'counter argumentation' where the "stand point of an opponent is initiated followed by an opposition". In other words, an editorial starts by stating the opposite of what is going to be argued for, followed by the stand point of the writer; then, there is the 'substantiation' part to support the stand point of the writer, and finally a 'conclusion'.

Regarding the use of these argumentation structures in different languages, Hatim (1991 in Abbadi 2003:1) claims that: "*there is a noticeable tendency in English towards counter argumentation, but still through-argumentation is evident*". In other words, English editorials tend to follow both argumentation type structures but they opt more for the counter-argumentation. As for editorials in standard Arabic, the tendency seems to go towards 'through argumentation'. In a study conducted by Abbadi (2002) on Arabic and English newspaper editorials to investigate their structures, he found out that Arabic editorials tend to use through argumentation with the final part of the editorial text presenting the author's evaluation of the whole situation (Abbadi 2002: 9).

The suggested editorial structures and variety of opinion use in these texts seem to suit their objective in conveying argumentative and persuasive messages to mass audiences. These characteristics seem to make newspaper editorials considerably important in maintaining communication with the reader and this definitely suggests that editorials play diverse and significant roles in the newspaper. The next section will elaborate on this point.

3. The Roles of Editorials in the Newspaper

Unlike news stories and articles which appear in the first pages of the newspapers, -and except for institutional editorials, editorials are usually situated in the editorial page in the form of 'letters to the editor', 'columns of opinion' and 'editorial cartoons' (Paul 1991: 445). Historically speaking, editorials appeared a little after the newspaper became part of everyday life in the 18th century (Park 1923: 281) and according to Paul (1991: 446) one of the earliest uses of the term 'newspaper editorials' was in 1836 by James Gordon Bennett who published "New York Herald" where he devoted some pages to his opinion articles. Later, Horace Greeley in 1850's set one opinion page in 'The New York Tribune' (Gartner 2005: 75). Even though editorials were born after the newspaper was established, they seem to constitute a very important part of the newspaper may be because they are directly and strongly related to opinion.

Among the main functions of editorials is to express opinions of the newspaper and those of their editors. Van Dijk (1992: 243) says: "*It is the function of editorials to formulate the opinions of newspaper editors(...),such opinions are usually supported by a series of arguments, which are overall intended to contribute to the persuasive function of the editorials*". Another function of editorials was suggested by Gartner (2005: 75) who emphasized the immense importance of editorials in establishing the strength of the newspaper itself. Park (1923: 281) also supports this idea by saying: "*the power of the press (...) is the editor and the editorial rather than the reporter and the news of which these writers are thinking*". Albright (2006: 70) even goes further to take editorials as a way to change the world, especially with the available new technology. Among the reasons for such importance might be the fact that editorials make a direct bonding with the reader because they give him/her the opportunity to express his/her own opinion.

Van Dijk (1996); Le (2004); and Murphy (2005 in Belmonte 2008:2) have given a more detailed function of editorials: "*editorials and comment articles (...) play a definitive role in the formation and altering of public opinion, promote social interaction among journalists, readers and the rest of participants in the language event, and influence social debate, decision making and other forms of social and political action*". In other words; editorials can provide knowledge to the reader to form or change an opinion and strengthen the interaction between the reader and writer, in addition to giving the reader the opportunity to participate in decision making. Van Dijk (1995: 1) emphasizes the role of editorials in the formation of public opinion stating: "*for those people who read them, they help to make up their mind about the events of the world*".

Van Dijk (1992: 244) suggests that in addition to editorial function as a way to communicate and interact suggested above, editors "*try to reproduce their own (group) attitudes, and ideologies among the public at large with the aim to legitimize the dominance and power of a specific group*". In other words, an editorial is a means to spread a certain ideology among the public as a way to exert some power on it. Editorials can play the

same role but in the other way round. Instead of speaking for the opinions of newspaper, they can speak for the ordinary citizen as Greenberg (2000:1) specifies: “(...) Editorials (...) assume an important communicative function by offering newspaper readers a distinctive authoritative voice that will speak to them directly”. ‘Them’ here refers to newspaper professionals: editors and journalists in general. Hallock (2008:23) states that editorials are shaped by what governments require from their newspapers and editorial writing particularly, and that is why “editorial writers must keep up the long tedious battle on behalf of the public interest”. The battle here refers to the idea of always trying to be the voice of citizens and ordinary people instead of being in the hands of persons in power positions using editorials to serve their own interests.

Editorials can serve as advice as well. Newsome and Wollert (1985: 381 in Goldzwing and Sullivan 1995) talked about eulogy editorials which function as therapy for the public. These editorials usually come after a loss of a great social figure, and they urge the public to positively accept this loss and even take action. Another function of Editorials is that they represent rich texts to explore the coverage of a historic event and public opinion by historians. Jones (2005: 11) says, “*They are a means of exploring what issues were important during a time period...*” Editorials are also ethical according to (Boeyink 1993: 33) who states that editorials “*argue for what ought to be done*”. Ethical values thus play a vital role in these editorials whether explicit or implicit.

To wrap up, editorials seem to display diverse roles in newspapers. Thanks to these functions, editorials might play an essential role in maintaining the strength of the newspaper, through promoting and maintaining communication with its audience, and leading the newspaper to take part in possible social change. This is why editorials can be considered an important component of the newspaper. These important functions seem to be gained through their argumentative nature and also through the language used in them. The next section will elaborate on the language of newspaper editorials as another characteristic of these articles and will explain how the language of editorials can be a source of their power.

4. The Language Power of Newspaper Editorials

Research on language generally speaking seems to agree on the power language has through message transmission. For instance, Kress and Hodge (1976:6 in Albright 2006: 70) define language in general and in relation to power as “*an instrument of control as well as of communication. Linguistic forms allow significance to be conveyed and to be distorted. In this way, hearers can be both manipulated and informed, preferably manipulated while they suppose they are being informed*”. Thus, language has two roles: informing and influencing the readers with a preference to influence more. Van Dijk (1998: 19) supports this idea of language influence by stating: “*verbal communication influences other people*”. Barthes (in Mrini 2010:55) supports the influencing side of language as a controlling element, stating: “*language in its nature has very strong depriving relations and it is used for control in the first place*”. Taiwo (2008:1) also believes that language is never neutral and it always “*carries the power that reflects the interests of those who speak or write*”.

In the context of newspapers generally speaking, language use seems to be vital in transmitting the intended messages, because it takes more space than pictures. Richardson (2007: 10) has been more detailed in specifying the role of language in the newspaper by identifying four functions for it: First; it represents, produces and reproduces social life, so it is always related to a social context. In other words, language pictures the context that it is linked to in the way it actually is and this is ‘representing’ the context. As for the ‘producing’ role, language can be a means to picture a reality that is not necessarily identical to the real one. Reproducing this picture means presenting it to the public repeatedly. Second, language is linked to the identity of the writer since he/she is the one responsible for what is written. In other words, a written text is usually fingerprinted by the writer’s personality, thoughts, etc. Third, Language is active in the sense that it can be used to inform, expose or argue, and fourth language has the power, especially when it is related to claims and opinions of people with high credibility in society. Thus, in addition to the informing and influencing role of language aforementioned in this section, and which Richardson mentions in the first and fourth roles, he adds two more language related roles through which it gains its power, namely being linked to the writer’s identity (the second role) and being related to a social context of use (the first role).

In opinion- articles particularly, Hudgson (1996: 36) emphasizes the importance of language in persuasion, “*the choice of words is vital in the process of persuasion and presentation... the writer uses words to play on the sensations of the readers, to give color and rhythm. The length of the words and the use of ... adjectives help the writer to inject either pace or languor into the writing*”. According to Hudgson, the writer can use language to reach the audiences’ emotions or to play with the language in accordance with the desired goals. Thus, language in opinion articles particularly seems to be of vital importance in the process of persuasion.

It seems that language, having all these functions, is an important component in newspapers and opinion articles because it is almost the only means in this mass medium to claim the newspaper’s existence. It can be used to inform and update the reader’s knowledge through news articles and stories and be powerful enough to attempt to persuade readers to take or change an opinion through opinion articles.

The last three sections in this article presented a general overview on editorials in terms of their content, structure and the immense importance they have in the newspaper generally speaking; an importance they gain through their argumentative nature and through the language used in them aiming at persuading in the first place. Moroccan newspapers and newspaper editorials do not seem to be out of this circle of editorial characteristics. Among the oldest editorials in the Moroccan history is /ʔalḥaqi:qa ʔaʔda:i3a/ (the lost truth). It appeared in 1965 as a weekly editorial, (Bellaji 2000). For lack of references on the emergence and historical development of Moroccan editorials, the coming section will be limited to presenting some examples and characteristics of some of these editorials.

5. Moroccan Editorials

There seem to be no articles written particularly about Moroccan editorials but there are few writings about editorials in the Arab journalism. For examples, Elhaoui (2009), Adaghir (2007), and Adwan (2010) specify some characteristics of newspaper editorials in the Arab media. They state that an editorial is usually written by a known journalist, expressing his/her personal opinion about a specific issue and the editorial appears regularly with the same headline. Regular appearance can be daily or weekly. The editorial's content can be independent of the ideological orientation of the newspaper. In addition, the editorial uses popular language with a sarcastic touch sometimes. Another characteristic of editorials according to Elhaoui (2009), Adaghir (2007) and Adwan (2010), is that they present new information but only as background knowledge to help in the process of persuasion as aforementioned in the section on editorial structure. Finally, the editorial in the Arab journalism uses idioms, wise statements, jokes and quotes as a basis to tackle the intended issue. It is important to notice here that Elhaoui (2009), Adaghir (2007) and Adwan (2010) use the term 'column' /ʔamu:d/ instead of an editorial /ʔiftita:hiya/ as it is called in Arabic and which refers to the editorial published in the first page by the editor of the newspaper. Based on the characteristics they identify, they seem to refer to 'personal editorials' because whether being called a 'column' or 'a personal editorial', both are written by an author expressing his own opinions regardless of the newspaper ideology.

'Chouf Tchouf', which is the main concern of the present article, might be categorized, more specifically, either as a personal editorial and or a column because even though it is usually written by a member of the editorial board on a regular basis, which is the case for institutional editorials (Wikipedia 2008), it does not usually express the opinion of the newspaper, but it expresses the writer's personal opinion as personal editorials/columns are defined in wikipedia (2002). Another distinction between the institutional and the personal editorial as Westin and Geisler (2002: 7) suggest is that personal editorials are "*by-lined with the writer's name*" while "*institutional editorials (...) are not*". Thus 'Chouf Tchouf' which is always by-lined by the writer's name can be considered a personal editorial or a column.

Moroccan editorials seem to appear in a big number of newspapers today. Some of them have been successful and won a great popularity among readers. Some of the examples of these famous editorials are:

-/maʔa ʔaʔb/ (with people), is a daily editorial written by Abdelkrim Ghallab in 'Alalam' newspaper the voice of 'Istiqlal' political party, (Bellaji 2000). This editorial tackled the daily concerns of citizens and used a structure full of sarcastic images, jokes, proverbs and wisdom statements taken from the Moroccan oral culture (Bellaji 2000). It was considered the talking tongue of the ordinary Moroccan citizen (Elmrini 2011). Another example of famous Moroccan newspaper editorials is /na:fida/ (window) written by Abderafii Aljawahiri in 'Alitihad Alichtiraki' Newspaper. This editorial was concerned mainly with political events, especially the Golf War of 1993, (Bellaji 2000). Similar to the previously mentioned editorial, /na:fida/ used sarcastic images and that is why it also attracted a big number of readers' interest (Bellaji 2000). It is said that this editorial which appeared every Wednesday was liked a lot by different categories of Moroccan readers, (Jahbid 2010).

Another famous editorial is /ʔaynu ʔalʔaql/ (the eye of the mind) written by Achaari in the 1990s in 'Alitihad Alichtiraki' Newspaper. According to (Bellaji 2000), it tackled national and international issues and used wisdom statements and sarcastic style. There is also /min yawm liʔa:ʔar/ (from one day to another) by Mustapha Quarchaoui in 'Alitihad Alichtiraki' Newspaper. According to (Bellaji 2000), this editorial covered national political, economic, social, and cultural issues and used proverbs and wisdom statements to support its opinions. Another famous editorial according to (Bellaji 2000), is /bilmi:za:n/ (with a balance) with unknown writer, appeared every Friday in 'Alitihad Alichtiraki' Newspaper and tackled mostly social issues like corruption. Bellaji (2000) adds that it also drew on the Moroccan oral culture. Then, there is /ʔalʔaqi:qa ʔaʔʕa:iʔa/ (the lost truth) previously mentioned as one of the oldest editorials. It is written by 'Mustapha Alaoui' in the newspaper 'Alousbou Assahafi'. Alaoui is also the editor of this newspaper which is politically independent.

There are other successful editorials published in the recent years by 'Nini' the journalist who writes 'Chouf Tchouf' editorial and with which the present article is concerned. This journalist started an editorial in 'Assabah' newspaper in the beginning of 2000. The editorial was also called 'Chouf Tchouf' according to Ziraoui and Alaoui (2008:48). This editorial they add was characterized by the use of Moroccan and standard

Arabic, popular style and tackled poor/ rich discrepancies as a main issue. This editorial according to Ziraoui and Alaoui (2008:48) increased the sales of the newspaper from 16000 to 50000. After this editorial stopped, the journalist started a new one in 'Aljarida Aloukhra' Newspaper named 'Avec Rachid Nini' (with Rachid Nini) (in Ziraoui and Alaoui 2008:48) and which followed the same path as that of 'chouftchouf' in 'Assabah' Newspaper.

Moroccan editorials mentioned above seem to share some of the characteristics of Arab media editorials which Elhaoui (2009), Adaghir (2007) and Adwan (2010) identified. According to them, first: the editorial is usually written by a known journalist or a person. This applies to most of the examples of editorial writers previously mentioned. Most of these persons are famous journalists or famous political figures. Second, the editorial is published continuously or regularly. This applies to some of the editorials but not for others. For example Achaari's /ʔaynu ʔalʔaql/ was not regular while 'Chouf Tchouf' was. Third, the editorial presents personal impressions and opinions, uses popular language and sarcastic images. This is the case for some editorials like /na:fida/(window) but not for /ʔaynu ʔalʔaql/ (the eye of the mind).

After presenting a general overview on the characteristics of newspaper editorials (opinion, structure, roles in the newspaper, and language power), and listing some examples from the Moroccan context, the next section will take 'chouftchouf' editorial (in Almassae Newspaper) as a case study to illustrate some of these characteristics.

6. 'Chouftchouf' Editorial as a Case Study

'Chouftchouf' started to be published along with Almassae Newspaper in 2006 and has been very popular since its launching and which has maximized the newspaper success (World Association of Newspapers: 2003). It is published daily, longer in content and language compared to some other newspaper editorials: some articles can get to 1312 words. Alaoui (2010:32) states that nobody can deny the great ability of this young man (referring to Nini) in attracting people's attention in such a few years by writing a daily long editorial that no human or journalist in the history of international journalism could ever write similarly. This implies that 'Chouf Tchouf' is the first editorial, with such a length published daily and attracted big number of readers in a short time. Like the previously mentioned editorials written by Nini, this editorial is also characterized by the use of simple language (using Moroccan Arabic a lot) and popular style. It tackles issues of concern to the Moroccan citizen in different fields. Nini states (in Ziraoui and Alaoui 2008:49) that his column is read by highly educated as well as by less educated persons, rich and poor. This means that this editorial is directed to all categories of Moroccan people. These facts about 'Chouftchouf' can be considered a strong motive to take it as a case study in this article. The next sub-section will elaborate on the organizational structure, the nature and positioning of opinions in this editorial.

6.1. Structures and Opinion in 'Chouftchouf Editorial'

In a study carried out to investigate language argumentative strategies used in 68 editorial texts of 'chouftchouf' selected between 2008 and 2009 (Elyazale: 2012), it was noticed that most of them follow an organizational structure similar to the ones suggested on the section on editorial structure. There is usually a headline, then a byline followed by an introduction where the writer initiates the problem or the situation. Next, there is an intermediate section where the writer proceeds into arguing for or against the problem by stating facts or using examples. After that, there is the conclusion which summarizes what was stated before, or where the writer suggests his own recommendations in relation to the issue or problem. As for opinions and their use, it is noticed that different types are used and they vary in prominence. Generally speaking, 'Chouftchouf' editorial articles start with less prominent opinions and end with more prominent opinions. The following sample illustrates the general structure mentioned above and this opinion prominence:

آش خصكم أمالين الكاريان التيران أمولاي

Introduction

في إيطاليا تنشر شركات التدبير المفوض للنظافة إعلانات في الشوارع وعلى واجهات الحافلات وفي محطات المترو تقول «أزبالكم تهننا». فالقمامة كانت دائما تجارة مربحة **opinion 1** ، ولذلك ربما يربط المغاربة بينها وبين الثراء عندما يقولون عن الثروة الكبيرة «زبالة فلوس» أو عن الرجل الفاحش الثراء أنه «خانز فلوس».

في كاريان طوما، حيث تغرق آلاف العائلات هذه الأيام وسط الأوحال والأوساخ، لا أحد بين هؤلاء اليوساء يعرف أن «الكاريان» الذي يعيشون فيه ويتوارثون براريكه منذ ليوطي إلى اليوم، سوف يتحول قريبا إلى ملعب ضخم لكرة القدم يستوعب ثمانين ألف مقعد بغلاف مالي يصل إلى مئات الملايين من الدراهم. ففي الوقت الذي كان ينتظر فيه هؤلاء العاطلون والمقصيون مشروعا صناعيا يسترون فيه أنفسهم ضد البطالة والفقر والتهميش، قررت الدولة أن تبني لهم ملعبا في حجم ملعب «ويمبلدن» بالمواصفات العالمية. «آش خصكم أمالين الكاريان

التيران أمولاي» **opinion 2**

Intermediate Section

Part 1

ولاختيار أحسن المشاريع الهندسية فتحت وزارة التجهيز عبر مديريةية التجهيزات العمومية، مباراة في وجه مكاتب المهندسين المغربية والأجانب لكي يتقدموا بتصاميمهم للتباري حول صفقة العمر. وهكذا فإذا كان منتهى طموح ساكنة كاريان طوما هذه الأيام هو أن لا تطير سقوف براريكهم بسبب الرياح العاتية التي تهب على المغرب هذه الأيام، فإن طموح المهندسين المغربية المشاركين في مباراة تصميم ملعب

كاربان طوما هو أن لا يطير من بين أيديهم هذا المشروع الضخم ويحط بين أيدي مهندسين أجانب. فيبدو أن وزارة كريمة غلاب لا تريد أن تتعلم احترام القانون. فهي مصرة على تكرار خطأ مشروع الرادارات الذي أدخل وزير المالية عائداته في ميزانية 2009 قبل أن يصادق عليه البرلمان، وانتهى الأمر بالطعن في هذا البند من الميزانية من طرف المجلس الدستوري، وعادت «صفقة» الرادارات من جديد إلى ردهات البرلمان 3 **opinion**. وليس هناك ما يفيد أن الرادارات التي غرسها غلاب في بعض مدن المغرب ستستغل هذه السنة.

ويبدو والله أعلم أن هوية غلاب وزير النقل والتجهيز هي وضع العربة أمام الحصان، أو «تسابق العصا قبل الغنم» كما يقول المغاربة. فهو يوافق على مشاريع وينشر بلاغات بخصوصها ويفتح طلبات لتلقي العروض ويختار الشركات التي سيتعامل معها ويدفع تكاليف المشروع، لكي يكتشف في الأخير أن العملية التي قام بها برمتها ليست دستورية، وأن عليه أن يرجع إلى القوانين المنظمة لكي يصحح أخطاءه القانونية.

Part2

في مشروع الملعب الكبير لكاربان طوما، فتحت وزارة التجهيز مجال التباري حول الصفقة في وجه المهندسين المغاربة والأجانب على حد سواء. وهكذا أصبح مسموحاً للمهندسين الأجانب الذين لا يمارسون الهندسة في المغرب، بالمشاركة في المباراة بشكل فردي ودون حاجة للمرور عبر وساطة مكاتب المهندسين المغاربة. في تناقض واضح مع قوانين الهيئة الوطنية للمهندسين المعماريين التي تمنع على المهندسين الأجانب غير القاطنين بالمغرب الممارسة الهندسية بالملكية **opinion 4**. أكثر من ذلك، فأحد شروط وزارة التجهيز لقبول ملفات المهندسين في المباراة هو ضرورة التوفر على تجربة سابقة في بناء ملاعب رياضية تتوفر على سبعين ألف مقعد. وفي المغرب ليس هناك مكتب هندسي لديه مثل هذه «السوابق» المعمارية. مما يعني إقصاء المهندسين المغاربة من الفوز بهذه الصفقة لصالح مكاتب هندسية أجنبية. تعفيها وزارة التجهيز من المرور عبر وساطة مكاتب الهندسة المغربية **opinion 5**. وهكذا في حالة حصول مكاتب هندسية عالمية على صفقة الملعب «كاربان طوما»، فإن دور مكاتب الهندسة المغربية سيقتصر على وظيفة واحدة هي التوقيع، بحكم أن الوزارة لا توافق سوى على التصاميم التي تحمل توقيع أحد المهندسين المغاربة المنضوين تحت لواء الهيئة الوطنية للمهندسين المعماريين. إذا ليس هناك سوى مهندسين أجبيين اثنين تقبل الوزارة توقيعهما على التصاميم قبل منحها رخصة البناء، بحكم أقدميتهما في المغرب. أما الباقي فجميعهم محتاج إلى توقيع مهندس مغربي مقبول في الهيئة الوطنية للمهندسين. وقد تعود بعض المهندسين المغاربة على «كراء» توقيعهم لتصاميم مهندسين أجانب مقابل نسبة مئوية من أرباح المشروع، فيما تنفرد شركة المهندس الأجنبي ببقية الأرباح. هذه المرة أيضا ارتكبت وزارة التجهيز أخطاء قانونية منذ الإعلان الأول عن المباراة. فهي لا تفرق بين المباراة الوطنية التي لا يسمح فيها بالمشاركة سوى للمهندسين المسموح لهم قانونيا بالممارسة داخل المغرب، مع احتمال لجوء هؤلاء المهندسين لمكاتب الدراسات والخبرة الأجنبية للمساعدة على إنجاز مشاريعهم عند الحاجة، وبين المباراة الدولية التي تخضع لقوانين «الاتحاد العالمي للمهندسين» الذي يضم مهندسي العالم بأسره. ويبدو والله أعلم أن وزارة التجهيز سيحدث لها مع مشروع الملعب الكبير ما حدث لها مع مشروع الرادارات التي غرسها غلاب في الشوارع قبل أن يصادق البرلمان على قانونها، فوكلت له في عنقه. وهاهي الوزارة تعيد نفس «الزبلية» في مشروع ملعب «كاربان طوما» وتخرق القوانين التي تسير عليها الهيئة الوطنية للمهندسين المعماريين. هكذا قد نسمع من يطعن في هذه المباراة بعد منح الصفقة لمكتب هندسة دولي، بسبب خرق الوزارة لبنود القانون المنظم لمهنة الهندسة في المغرب. «فأللي سكت على اللي ضرو، الشيطان غرو»، خصوصا وأن صفقة كاربان طوما فيها «زبالة فلوس».

Part3

وبالنظر إلى الأزمة العقارية التي تجتاح العالم فإن قطاع الهندسة وصلت له للعظم **opinion 6**. وأصبح المهندسون يسمعون كل يوم عن إلغاء مشاريع سياحية كبرى أو تأجيلها إلى أن تصفو الروية. وحتى الوزير حجيرة، الذي يقول أنه قضى على مدن الصفيح في ثلاثين مدينة من ضمنها تالسينت وفيكيك وبني تجديت وآيت بومرير، مع أن هذه المدن لا توجد بها أصلا مدن للصفيح، أحس بالأزمة العقارية تزحف على وزارته، فلجأ إلى المستثمرين البحرنيين واستقبلهم في أحد فنادق الدار البيضاء المصنفة للحديث عن استثماراتهم السياحية والعقارية بالمغرب. ويبدو أن هؤلاء المستثمرين قد خرجوا بصورة واضحة عن الاستثمار في المغرب، خصوصا عندما خرج أحدهم من غرفته بجناحه الخاص وعاد فوجد أن حاسوبه المحمول حيث يخزن تصاميمه ومعلوماته قد طار من مكانه. وإلى حدود الآن لازالت الشرطة العلمية تبحث عن اللص الذي قد يتسبب في تغيير هؤلاء المستثمرين للعبة والتوجه بأموالهم إلى دول أخرى يستطيع المرء في فنادقها أن يأمن على حاسوبه. طبعاً نقول أن هؤلاء المستثمرين العرب سيتوجهون بأموالهم إلى دول أخرى على افتراض أنهم يأتون معهم بأموال. فالمعروف في المغرب أن أغلب هؤلاء المستثمرين العرب يأتون إلى المغرب بالزيرور الذي فوق رؤوسهم فقط، أما الأموال فيقترضونها من البنوك المغربية، فيما الدولة تفوت لهم أراضيها بأبخس الأثمان، وفي الأخير يجمع بعضهم حقيبتهم الصامصونية ويغادر المغرب تاركا أطلال مشاريعه السياحية والعقارية في عنق البنوك.

Conclusion

الدرس الذي يجب استخلاصه من وراء هذه القصص الواقعية هو أن وزارة التجهيز والإسكان يجب أن يتقوا في المهندسين والمستثمرين المغاربة، وأن يعتمدوا على الطاقات المحلية أولا **opinion 7**. فالغيرة على مصلحة الوطن يشعر بها أبناء الوطن، وإذا لم نجد الخير في «ولد البلاد» فلن نجده حتما في «البراني».

Feb 5th, 2009

This article tackles the issue of project constructions in Morocco. It criticizes the way these projects are processed. It is structured as follows:

Introduction: the article begins by comparing the conception of Moroccan and Italian people have about the relationship between rubbish and money. Then, the writer relates these two conceptions to the problem of the 'incorrect' ways of money investment and its management. That is to say, in the Moroccan context, money worth rubbish when it is not managed according to the needs of its people. The writer presents this problem through an example. It is about the construction of a huge stadium in a very poor neighborhood in casa city. And this was, according to the writer, contradicts the expectations of the people living in the neighborhood. The writer explains the uselessness of such a project regarding its location since it does not offer those people opportunities to have a better life.

Intermediate section: the text specifically criticizes the Moroccan Ministry of Building and construction and the ministry of transport for the wrong management of projects like letting foreign engineers in charge of those projects instead of Moroccan ones, and attracting foreign investors who usually leave the

projects unfinished.

Part1: the writer presents another example of the wrong management of projects. He criticizes the way contests for big projects supervision are carried out in the ministry of transport. He also criticizes the ministry for the mistakes it usually commits in this regard.

Part2: the writer explains in details the contradictions as an illustration of wrong management of projects in the ministry of transport mentioned in part 1, by complaining about the fewer opportunities Moroccan engineers have compared to foreign ones. This is an elaboration on the example mentioned in part 1 as the first argument illustrating his point.

Part3: the writer describes the real estate crisis in the country which the ministry of building and construction participated in making it bigger by attracting foreign investors who usually start projects and leave the country before they finish them. This is the second example the writer presents as an argument for the problem mentioned in the introduction.

Conclusion: the article ends by suggesting the lessons to be learned from the mistakes of the ministries.

As far as opinions and their use in this article are concerned, it can be noticed that there is a variety, (referring to the underlined parts of the article). In the introduction, two expressed opinions can be noticed. The first is located in the first paragraph where the writer compares 'wealth' and 'rubbish' using some Moroccan Arabic expressions based on popular belief as an elaboration on his statement that rubbish trading has always been a successful business. So, this opinion can be considered as coming from popular belief. The second opinion is located at the end of the second paragraph where the writer makes up a new proverb based on one that is popular in the Moroccan culture and that refers to the necessity to consider priorities in a situation before taking luxuries into account. This same opinion is expressed in the title. Since the opinion is based on proverb meaning taken from the Moroccan culture, it can also be considered as an opinion coming from popular belief.

Part 1 of the intermediate section comprises one noticeable opinion: the writer believes that the ministry of transport is committing the mistake of constructing a big stadium in a poor neighborhood through reminding the reader with a similar mistake done by the ministry before. This opinion can be considered a factual belief since it is based on a similar act conducted before by the ministry and proved to be wrong.

In part 2 of the intermediate section, there are two opinions. The first seems to be a factual belief because the writer states a fact (foreign engineers can apply for the competition without reference to the Moroccan offices of engineering) and compares it to the law that determines the possible ways to apply for projects in order to clarify the contradiction between the law and the fact. The second opinion in the intermediate section is also a factual belief: the writer starts with describing facts concerning the conditions for accepting architects' files for the construction projects: that the architecture office should have prior experience. The law contradicts the fact that this office does not have such an experience and automatically the Moroccan architects are excluded from the competition. So, the writer here exposes the law statement and compares it to what actually happens to show the contradiction.

Part 3 of the intermediate section includes one main evaluative belief: the writer describes how the world economic crisis is affecting the economic situation in the country: many expected touristic construction projects were postponed. It is an evaluative belief because the writer uses "architects hear today...". Such expressions are used when an opinion is based on what people hear or say, rather than on concrete facts.

The conclusion includes one evaluative belief as an opinion: the ministry of habitation should have confidence in Moroccan architects and investors to work on projects in the country believing that Moroccans will be more concerned with the benefit for the country because they are Moroccans.

As for opinion prominence, and considering the main idea of the article that is situated in the conclusion, both opinions stated in the introduction are not prominent. In addition, the opinion expressed in the first part of the intermediate section seems also to be less prominent. These opinions so far (the wrong actions of the Ministry of transport done in the past and one example of the wrong actions of this ministry in the present) can be considered an introduction to ask for encouraging Moroccan investors and architects in the conclusion. The two opinions expressed in part two and part three of the intermediate section seem to be more prominent because they bring up the law statements to reveal the contradictions with the facts which the writer considers as wrong actions of the office of architecture and some Moroccan ministries. The last opinion expressed in the conclusion and which is the main evaluation and the explicit statement of the writer is the most prominent.

It is noticed that opinions are expressed following a certain order: the less prominent opinions are expressed first while the more prominent ones are expressed later in parts two, three and in the conclusion of the article.

The second selected editorial is structurally bit different from the first one. It includes a background knowledge part in the beginning of the intermediate section while the conclusion is absent.

الكالبيان

Introduction

إذا كانت القبائل المتوحشة التي تلتهم لحوم البشر تسمى «الكانيبال»، فلدينا نحن في الدار البيضاء نوع من مستهلكي الصوصيص يمكن أن نطلق عليهم «الكاليبان» نسبة إلى لحوم الكلاب التي يصنع منها هذا الصوصيص **opinion1**. ولم يكن ممكنا اكتشاف هذه القبيلة من أكلة صوصيص الكلاب لولا اعتقال شبكة مكونة من ستة أشخاص وجزار وقاصر يقومون باصطياد الكلاب الشاردة في الدار البيضاء وذبحها وسلخها ثم فرم لحومها وتحويلها إلى كفتة لحشو منات الأمتار من الصوصيص.

Intermediate Section

Part1

الغريب في أمر هذه العصابة هو أنها كانت تعيش في منطقة تحمل اسم «التقلية». وهو اسم أكلة شهية يتم تهيئتها انطلاقا من أحشاء الخرفان والبقر. لكن الجزار والمتورطين معه وصيد الكلاب الضالة عدلوا من مقادير هذه الأكلة وغيروا لحوم الأغنام والأبقار بلحوم «المجاهيم» التي يستعمل صانداها طريقة ذكية لاجتذابها إلى حنفها الأخير، مستعملا تقنية «الشمة». وهي تقنية تعتمد على ترفيد منديل في بول إحدى الكلبات، ثم التجول به في الشوارع التي تعرف كثافة كلبية ملحوظة. وبمجرد ما يشتم الكلاب الذكور، أو ما يعرف بـ «الصارف» رائحة الأنتى يخرجون من كل فج عميق ويتبعون مصدر الرائحة. إلى أن يصل بهم الصيد إلى البيت الذي حوله الجزارون إلى مسلخ عمومي بدون علم والوالي القباچ الذي طار من منصبه أمس.

هكذا لم يعد صياد النعام وحده الذي يلقاها يلقاها **opinion 2**، بل أيضا صياد الكلاب. والذي صيد بالإضافة إلى الكلاب آلاف المواطنين الذين كانوا يصطفون في «الدوزيام بوزيسون» في شارع محمد السادس وسباتة ودرب السلطان وقبصارية الحفاري لاقتناء ربع أو «نصيص» محشو بالصوصيص الكلبية. عندما اعتقل الأمن قبل سنة أحد باعة الصوصيص المحشو بلحم الحمير، اعترف للمحققين أن أول زبانه كانوا هم من رجال الأمن أنفسهم. ففي كل مساء كانت تقف صطافيط البوليس بجانب كروسة الشواي لتتسلم ساندويتشات محشوة بالنفاق الحميرية. وفي أيام إدريس البصري، عندما اندلعت فضيحة بيع لحوم الحمير في الدار البيضاء، اعترف الجزار الذي كان يذبح الحمير وبيعه أنه لم يكن يبيع لحوم الحمير لزبانه الذين كانوا يدفعون ثمن ما يشترونه، فهؤلاء الزبانه كان يبيعهم لحوم الخرفان والأبقار. بينما كان يخصص لحوم الحمير للمسؤولين الأمنيين وموظفي العمالة الذين كانوا يعثون كل يوم خدمهم لملء القفة بكيلوات الكفتة بالمجان. وقد ظل الجزار يطعم هؤلاء المسؤولين كفتة الحمار لسنوات طويلة قبل أن ينكشف أمره. وشخصيا وجدت أن ذلك أعذاره مقنعة، فمثل هؤلاء المسؤولين الذين يستغلون نفوذهم للعيش على ظهور التجار الصغار «لحم الحمار ويزاف عليهم» **opinion 3**.

Part2

وتخيلوا لو أن كل مسؤول يرسل إلى دكان الجزار خادمته لكي تأتبه بالكفتة مجانا، فكيف سيستطيع الجزار المسكين ضبط حساباته عند نهاية الشهر بدون الاستعانة ببعض الحمير. فالحمير الحقيقية ليست تلك التي يذبحها الجزار وبيعه لحومها، بل أولئك المسؤولون الذين يريدون تربية «الحناك» بالكفتة بدون وضع أيديهم في جيوبهم **opinion4**. هذا طبع لا يعطي الجزار الحق في اللجوء إلى الاستعانة بالحمير لحل مشاكله مع هؤلاء المسؤولين الجشعين. المشكل يوجد بين الجزار والسلطة، «أش دخل الحمير بيناتهم». فالحمير يجب أن تظل في منأى عن السلطة، لأنها إذا اقتحمتها فإن نسبة «التاحيماريت» تزداد فيها بشكل كبير. ولعل ذروة نشاط باعة الصوصيص تبدأ بعد الثانية عشرة ليلا، عندما تغلق محلات بيع الساندويتشات أبوابها. فيضطر الخارجون من الحانات و«الحفاري» إلى اللجوء نحو كراريس باعة الصوصيص لملء بطونهم قبل العودة إلى البيت للنوم. ولذلك يحدث أن يطرد سكير ثمل النوم عن درب بكامله بصراخه أو بادانه لإحدى الأغاني على طريقة الطرب «الهرناطي». وهو معذور في ما يقوم به، لأن قوة الهرمونات التي في الكفتة الحميرية لا تتركه سلام **opinion 5**. «داك الشئ اللي فيه ما هنا». فيضطر السكير من أكلي صوصيص الحمار أو الكلب إلى إصدار أصوات حيوانية مزعجة.

part3

وإذا كان من شيء إيجابي في تجارة الحمير والكلاب هذه، فهي أنها ساهمت في إنجاح برامج محاربة الحيوانات الضالة في المدن الكبيرة **opinion 6** حتى ولو أنها ساهمت من جهة أخرى في «كلبنة» و«حميرت» العادات الغذائية لشرائح واسعة من المواطنين.

Part4

والكلاب في المغرب أصناف وأنواع، هناك الكلاب المدللة مثل «كانيش» ليلي بن الصديق الذي حملته مربيته بين ذراعيها محاولة إخفاء عينيه حتى لا يرى تسعة من مستخدميها مرميين فوق الأرض بعد أن داستهم ليلي بسيارتها، فيصاب بمرض «الستريس». وهناك كلاب البيبول الشرسة التي يستعملها بعض المراهقين والشباب في تهديد المواطنين من أجل سرقتهم، وأحيانا يلقونها على كلاب البوليس لتأكلها كما وقع قبل شهر. ثم هناك نوع آخر من الكلاب تضربها النفس على الوضعية المأساوية التي تدفع بعض المغريبات الشابات إلى الزواج بأجانب في خريف أعمارهم.

وقبل مدة جاء أحد المواطنين الإسبانين برفقة زوجته المغربية الشابة إلى مقر القنصلية الإسبانية بالرباط لاستكمال ملف الزواج. وعندما خرجا لينتظرا قليلا في الحديقة المقابلة للقنصلية، استغل الإسباني الذي يبدو عليه أنه يخطو نحو السبعين، الفرصة لكي يداعب رفيقة عمره الشابة فوق أحد مقاعد الحديقة، حيث يجلس المواطنون، منهم من ينتظر موعدا مع الفيزا، ومنهم من ينشر أطرافه تحت أشعة الشمس بانتظار وصول موعد غرامى. وفجأة وقف «الصبليوني» وذهب تحت الأشجار ليتبول. وهنا جاءت اللقطة «الخايبة» في الفيلم، فبينما صاحبنا مستسلم لتلك النشوة الداخلية إذا بأحد الكلاب يهجم عليه ويضربها له بعضة «فوحدة من ليمولي الغلاض ديالو». ورغم أن «الصبليوني» متقدم في السن فقد أبدى مقاومة كبيرة أمام الكلب وحاول بكل ما أوتي من قوة أن يخلص «موليته» من بين أنياب «المجحوم»، لكن بدون جدوى. فقد جرحه الكلب «تجرجيرة ديال الكلاب»، ومرغه في تراب الحديقة ولم يطلق سراحه حتى كاد يقتل «هيرة» محترمة من رجله. وربما ظن «الصبليوني» أنه في مدينة آمنة وداخل منطقة منزوعة الأنياب، إلى أن رأى بأمر عينه، أو بأمر رجله في الحقيقة، روحه وهي تكاد تزهر منه بسبب هذا الكلب الغيور الذي ضربته النفس ربما وهو يرى كيف أن بعض الأجانب لا يحترمون تقاليدنا عندما يحلون علينا ضيوفا، فيتصورون أنه باستطاعتهم أن يتصرفوا مع رفيقاتهم في الأماكن العمومية كما لو أنهم في أوروبا.

أحد الواقفين أمام القنصلية بانتظار مواعده مع فرصة العمر علق قائلا بعد انتهاء المعركة التي جمعت المواطن الإسباني بالمجحوم

المغربي :

- «تلقاه غير معروفش وصافي، مع الريحة ديالهم ماشي بحال ديالنا»...

فأجابه جاره في الصف :

- «بحال والو يكون تغالط ليه مع شي رجلة ديال العجل، مع الرجل تبارك الله على خير»...

- «خليه نيت يدي معاه شي سوفونير من البلاد، باش اللي جبد عليه حس المغرب يعري ليه على المولي ديالو، شفتو المغرب

ها المغرب، كلشي فيه كايئتف، الديوانة تنتف، البوليس ينتفو، الموظفين ينتفو، وحتى الكلاب ديالهم كايئتفو»...

25th, jan 2009

This article tackles a social issue related to food. The writer evokes the problem of food stroller owners who sell dog meat to people.

Introduction: the article introduces the problem by exposing the news of arresting food strollers and by comparing the issue to wild tribes which existed in the past and then states the main issue: strollers that sell dog meat to people.

Intermediate section: the writer comments on the event and brings up similar examples to support his opinion.

Part1: the writer presents some background information about the strollers: the origin of these food strollers' owners and how they proceed into their illegal operation to deceive people. He also brings up similar events happened in the past.

Part2: the writer criticizes persons in power positions who use their power for their own personal benefit and consequently participate in making the problem bigger and more difficult to solve. The criticism also reaches ordinary people from those who get drunk often and buy food from these strollers.

Part3: the writer sarcastically sites the advantages of this business as an argument for being against this habit.

Part4: the writer sarcastically lists other uses of dogs in the Moroccan community. The text ends by developing an example about one of the uses of dogs in the community.

As far as opinion use is concerned, the article seems to include evaluative believes mostly. In the introduction, there is one noticeable opinion: the writer names the strollers in the streets of Casablanca on the background of wild tribes that existed in the past and ate human flesh. The purpose of this naming is to express his negative opinion about these strollers and it is evaluative because the naming is purely based on the thinking of the writer.

In the intermediate section and specifically in the second paragraph of part one, the writer expresses the idea that strollers who sell illegal meat are always caught by the end. To express this opinion, the writer uses a proverb from the Moroccan culture that expresses the same meaning. This is why this opinion can be considered as coming from popular belief. In the last paragraph of part one, the writer uses a past event similar to the issue he brings up about strollers and butchers who sold donkey meat to customers among who people in power positions would not pay for what they ate or bought. The writer here sympathizes with the illegal selling on the part of the butcher. The point is to express a negative opinion about these customers who abuse their power for their own personal benefit. Sympathizing with the strollers and butchers at this point can be evaluative belief because the writer uses the expression 'what I personally think' while his negative opinion about persons in power position can be factual belief since it is based on a fact: these customers bought meat from butchers without paying for long years.

In the first paragraph of part two of the intermediate section, the writer expresses his negative opinion about persons in power positions referring to them as 'real donkeys' based on what is stated in part one of this section. Even though the negative opinion is based on facts but the name reference he uses to label them is still a personal thinking because it just expresses his own degree of hatred or disgust from these persons, in the sense that not every reader will express the same degree of hatred for instance. This is why this opinion can be considered an evaluative belief.

In the second paragraph of part two in the intermediate section, the writer shifts to another side of the issue: the ordinary customers (drunk people specifically) as victims of the strollers. According to the writer, when these persons behave in the wrong way, they can be forgiven because the cause is the dog or donkey meat sandwiches these persons eat. This sympathy as an opinion can be considered an emotional belief since sympathy is related to feelings.

Part three of the intermediate section includes one opinion which may be considered evaluative: the business of donkeys and dogs meat selling has an advantage, that it decreased the number of homeless animals in big cities. This opinion is evaluative since it describes the writer's sarcastic view on the issue.

For opinion prominence and unlike the previous editorial article, the opinions expressed in this one vary from more prominent in the beginnings to less prominent by the end. The main purpose of the article is to express the writer's negative opinion about food strollers in Casablanca. Thus, the opinion expressed in the introduction directly expresses the writer's negative stand concerning the strollers since it names the strollers after wild tribes famous for eating human flesh. The second opinion expressed in part one of the intermediate section also directly expresses this negative opinion stating that persons who do such acts are always caught. The next two opinions expressed in the end of part one can be considered less prominent because they are about another side of the issue: the customers who are in power positions. Also, the two opinions expressed in part two of the intermediate section are less prominent because they are also about the customers of the strollers. The last opinion expressed in this article is less prominent because it mentions an advantage of the issue even if it is sarcastically used, but it does not directly expresses the writer's negative opinion about strollers.

The third editorial tackles a social issue related to accidents' victims and dignity of the Moroccan citizen. Unlike the second editorial but similar to the first one, the writer presents his standpoint in the conclusion. However, what makes this article different is that there is a standpoint of the opponent in the introduction.

موسم التخفيضات على الجثث

Introduction

أحسن شيء يمكن أن يصنعه الذين يتسببون بأخطائهم في قتل المواطنين هو أن يلقوا أفواههم ويمتنعوا عن إعطاء التصريحات للصحافة، حتى لا يزيدوا الطين بلة. **opinion 1** وكل من قرأ البلاغ الذي نشرته شركة حافلات «مدينة بيس» تشرح فيه كيف اقتحمت إحدى حافلاتها المجنونة باب مدرسة بسيدي مومن ودهست النساء والأطفال وقتلت من قتلت وعطبت من عطبت، شعر بأن مالكي هذه الشركة يضحكون على ذقون المغاربة.

فحسب البلاغ لا يتعلق الأمر سوى بحادثة عادية لا دخل لمصالحها التقنية في مسؤوليتها. فالحافلة خضعت للفحوصات المعتادة، والحادثة قدرها الله على عباده. وختمت الشركة بلاغها بأية كريمة تقول «ويش الصابرين الذين إذا أصابهم مصيبة قالوا إن الله وإن إليه راجعون»، ويعودون إلى بيوتهم راضين مرضيين لأنه لن يصيبنا إلا ما كتب الله لنا. يعني أن هؤلاء الضحايا الذين دهستهم حافلة شركة «مدينة بيس» ما عليهم سوى أن يصبروا على مصيبتهم وأن يدفنوا موتاهم وهم يرددون إن الله وإن إليهم راجعون. والشيء نفسه قاله ابن صاحب المعمل الذي احترق داخله حتى الموت خمسة وخمسون مواطنا مغربيا. فقد قال بأن ما وقع قضاء وقدر، وأن الله هو الذي أراد ذلك. أما هو فلا مسؤولية له فيما وقع، لأن المسؤول هو العامل الذي كان يدخل داخل المعمل، ويتقاسم المسؤولية مع رجال المطافئ الذين جاؤوا متأخرين بساعة ولم يستطيعوا الدخول إلا بعد ساعة أخرى من وصولهم بسبب النوافذ الحديدية. **opinion 2**

ونسى ابن صاحب المعمل أن يشير إلى أن الذي جعل دخول رجال المطافئ مستحيلا إلى المعمل إلا بعد لجونهم إلى تحطيم الجدار، هو وضعه لإطارات حديدية في النوافذ، في تجاوز صارخ للقانون. لكن بما أن ما وقع كله من عند الله فلا مانع من أن يقول ابن صاحب المعمل ما يحلو له. **opinion 3**

Intermediate Section

arP1

وأحسن شيء يمكن أن يصنعه المسؤولون المحليون والسلطات الإقليمية بعد حدوث كوارث مثل هذه هو أن يمتنعوا عن تقديم مساعدات للضحايا، إذا كانت هذه المساعدات تقترب من التشفي أكثر منها إلى التضامن. **opinion 4**

وقد شعرت بالخجل من كوني مغربيا **opinion 5** عندما رأيت محمد ساجد عمدة أغني مدينة في شمال إفريقيا يسلم عائلات الضحايا الخمسة والخمسين مبلغ عشرة آلاف درهم للعائلة. هل وصلت الروح المغربية إلى هذا الحد المنحط من التسعيرة. **opinion 6** وكان هذه الأوقات العصيبة التي يجتازها المغاربة تتحول عند البعض إلى موسم للصلو، يعلنون فيها عن تخفيضات مغربية في الأرواح البشرية. عشرة آلاف درهم عن كل جسد احترق حتى الموت غدرا في معمل يتحمل مجلس المدينة مسؤوليته في التجاوزات القانونية التي كان يشتغل فيها. هل هذا هو ثمن التعويض الذي يراه مجلس المدينة مناسبا لكل أولئك الشباب والشابات **ionopin 7** الذين اغتصب الطمع والجشع والظلم أعمارهم الطرية في واحدة من أفظع حرائق المغرب المعاصر. لم تكن نعرف أن الضرر يمكن أن يقدر بكل هذا «الرخص»، نحن الذين رأينا كيف طالبنا القاضي العطي بدفع 600 مليون سنتيم كتعويض عن الضرر لأربعة نواب وكلاء الملك، بسبب مقال لم نذكر أحدهم فيه بالاسم. إذا كان الضرر الناتج عن كلمة يفوق منات المرات الضرر المسبب للقتل، فإن لوائح التعويضات في المحاكم يجب أن يشملها التعديل. **opinion 8** فلا معنى لأن يكون الضرر الذي تتسبب فيه السنة الصحافيين أخطر وأعلى من الضرر الذي تتسبب فيه السنة اللهب. لقد كنت أنتظر أن ترفض عائلات الضحايا تسلم هذا المبلغ الحقيق وأن يعيدوه إلى صندوق المجلس، حفظا لما تبقى من كرامة أمواتهم. لكن فيح الله الفقير، وقبح الله الذين يستغلون هذا الفقر لكي يظهر في نشرات الأخبار في التلفزيون يسلمون هذه المبالغ التافهة بافتخار لعائلات الضحايا. **opinion 9** مع أنهم يعرفون أن عشرة آلاف درهم التي يقابضون بها روح كل من احترق بسبب إغماضهم العين عن كوارث المناطق الصناعية، لا تكفيهم حتى لحصة تدخين السيجار الفاخر في جلسات الأتس.

Part2

وإذا كان مجلس مدينة الدار البيضاء، الذي وصلت مداخيله السنة الماضية إلى 198 مليار سنتيم، قد حدد تسعيرة الروح البشرية في عشرة آلاف درهم للروح، فإن مجلس العمالة الذي يضم كل عمالات الدار البيضاء والذي يترأسه الوالي القباچ، لم يصرف للضحايا حتى نصف المبلغ الذي صرفه عمدة المدينة. واختار أن يمنح لكل عائلة منكوبة خنشة من الطحين وبيدوزة من الزيت وعلبة من الشاي وقوالب السكر. تخيلوا كيف يجبر الوالي القباچ خاطر ضحايا أخطر محرقة في تاريخ المغرب. بالزيت والشاي والقوالب. وعندما انتقد البعض هذا الاحتقار الذي تعامل به مجلس العمالة مع الضحايا، قال أحد الفاهمين الذين لا نعدم وجودهم في كل عمالة، بأن المخزن يريد أن يعزى الضحايا على الطريقة المغربية التقليدية، التي قوالب.

وعندما نتأمل قليلا من الراجح من وراء هذه الصفقة التي صرف من أجلها مجلس المدينة ميزانية مستعجلة، نعثر على شركة للزيوت اسمها «لوسبور كريستال» وشركة للسكر اسمها «كوزيمار»، وشركات أخرى تابعة لمجموعة «أونا» التي يسهر منير الماجدي على تسمين أرباحها. وهي الشركات نفسها التي تتكفل بتوفير الصدقات الغذائية المكونة أساسا من المواد الغذائية للمحتاجين والمنكوبين عبر كل تراب المملكة الشريفة. لذلك فالمبالغ التي تسلمتها عائلات الضحايا من يد العمدة والوالي هي إهانة لأرواح أبنائهم وبناتهم الذين احترقوا تحت أعين مسؤولي

التعمير بمجلس المدينة الذي يرأسه العمدة ومجلس العمالة الذي يرأسه الوالي. **opinion 10** ولذلك فأقل ما يمكن أن تفعله هذه العائلات المفجوعة في فذات أكبادها هو أن تعيد هذه الصدقات إلى أصحابها، وتستمر في المطالبة بحاسبة جميع من تسبب في المحرقة، وتقديمهم إلى العدالة. فالمسؤولية عما وقع تبدأ من صاحب المعمل وتنتهي في وزارة الداخلية.

opinion 11

conclusion

يجب أن يتعلم المغاربة معنى الكرامة والشرف، وعدم الخضوع للمساومات. والأهم من ذلك أنه يجب عليهم أن يختاروا بين أن يكونوا آدميين كما خلقهم الله وكرمهم، وبين أن يكونوا مجرد «بخوش» كما يعتبرهم بعض الذين يتحكمون في خبزهم اليومي. **opinion 12** وإلا فما على وزارة الداخلية التي تبشر هذه الأيام حملة إصدار بطاقات هوية جديدة سوى أن تفكر في إصدار بطاقات بلون وردي لأبناء العائلات الكريمة، بينما تخصص لقوم «هبش» بطاقات بلون قهوي أو حمري يشبه وجوههم الكالحة. هكذا بمجرد ما يفتقر أحد أبناء العائلات الكريمة جريمة أو يتورط في محرقة كمحرقة «ليساسة»، يتم إخلاء سبيله على الفور بعد تفقد هويته الوردية، حتى لا تضيق الشرطة القضائية والعدالة

وقتها، وتضيق معها وقتنا في متابعة مسرحيات وتمثيلات مقرفة.

May 15th, 2008

This article was written to comment about the event of the Casablanca factory burning. The aim of the writer is to show the low value of the ordinary poor Moroccan Citizen has in the eyes of persons in power positions.

Introduction: the article starts with the writer's opinion in relation to media comments on the issue the he is going to tackle later in the introduction. The writer then evokes a similar event related to the problem he is concerned with in this article. The example is related to a bus accident where the company in charge did not claim its responsibility for the accidents and thus, the victims received no compensations. Then the writer exposes the article problem related to the burning of the Casablanca factory.

Intermediate section: the writer exposes more ideas related to the problem by commenting on the details of the event and criticizing the persons responsible for the incident and its results.

Part1: the writer begins this part by stating his own opinions concerning the problem: urging responsible not to help victims of accidents as an introduction to criticize the compensation amounts given by the mayor to the families' victims. This can be considered as an argument to support his opinion.

Part2: the writer develops on the criticism directed to Casablanca Mayor and other persons responsible for helping the victims by explaining the sneaky ways those persons follow to provide a nice picture about themselves, while in fact the writer states that even in trying to help the victims, those persons are always looking for satisfying their own financial personal benefit. This also can be considered as a second argument to support the main opinion of the article mentioned in part three.

Part3: the writer expresses his own opinion concerning the compensations as being a humiliation to the victims' dignity. It is also an argument to support his opinion: he is against the authorities managements of this kind of catastrophes.

Conclusion: the writer recommends the Moroccan citizens to live with dignity. He then sarcastically explains the consequences in case the ordinary Moroccan citizen who would fall in trouble does not follow the writer's recommendation: urging the ministry of interior Affairs to make the difference between low and high social classes more apparent.

As far as opinion use in this editorial is concerned, it is noticed that evaluative beliefs are the mostly used. The introduction includes three opinions: the first in sentence one is directly expressed: asking persons who cause the death of the citizens not to give comments to the media. This can be considered an evaluative belief since it is an individual evaluation of the event.

The second opinion represents the opponent' opinion: understanding the incident through the media is a way for the people responsible of the death of Moroccan citizens, to make the public understand the event the way these people want the ordinary citizen to understand it: that these persons have no responsibility in this death. The third opinion in the introduction is found in the end where the writer expresses his disagreement with the factory's owner for violating the law and this opinion can be considered a factual belief because the opinion is based on the fact of law violation.

Part one of the intermediate section includes six opinions. The first is expressed in the first sentence where the writer urges persons who have responsibility over the city to stop 'helping' victims since, according to him, the kind of help provided is inappropriate for the situation. This opinion can be considered evaluative since the 'help' so far is based solely on what the writer thinks. The second opinion is expressed in the second sentence where the writer expresses his 'shame' for the little money given to the victims' families. It is an 'emotional belief' because it expresses the feeling of shame. The next opinion is in the middle of part one and where the writer indirectly urges for the compensations' increase based on a similar story the writer brings up in order to express some contradiction and let the reader deduce the same idea of the writer. This opinion can be considered evaluative even if it is based on a real story as a fact, but the deduction the writer mentions as his opinion is based on his personal evaluation of the issue. The last opinion in this part is expressed in the last two sentences where the writer damns poverty and those who use poor people to make their images in media heroic. This opinion can be considered as coming from popular belief since the poverty damning in the Moroccan culture is strongly related to religion.

Part two of the intermediate section includes two noticeable opinions. The first one is a factual belief situated in the first part of the paragraph and where the writer expresses his despising for the kinds of compensations given to victims basing his opinion on the following fact: the source of these compensations is a company that specializes in providing alms to the poor and in the conditions of natural disasters and not in catastrophes caused by humans. The second opinion is expressed in the last two sentences of the paragraph and where the writer urges families' victims to give back the alms in order to preserve their dignity and to ask for fair judgments. This opinion can be considered evaluative since it is the writer's deduction of the fact he explained before: the source of compensations. The conclusion includes one noticeable evaluative opinion which is a recapitulation of the last opinion expressed in the intermediate section: urging Moroccans to live with dignity

honor and as human beings.

As far as the opinion prominence is concerned, it is noticed that this article moves from less prominent opinions to the more prominent ones by its end. It can be considered that the resolution of the writer in the conclusion as the most prominent opinion since it represents his recommendation for future actions. On this basis, the opinions expressed in the introduction are less prominent because they expose one side of problem: accusations to persons responsible for the incidents mentioned, and a presentation the opponents' view on the issue: that the incidents are only a matter of fate. The intermediate section follows the same pattern. The writer keeps exposing other sides of the problem: his feeling of shame for the kinds of compensations given to victims so as to show how cheap is the Moroccan citizen in the eyes of those who rule the country. This is to come to the conclusion that Moroccans should behave with more self-esteem and dignity and this is his evaluation expressed by the end of the article.

In conclusion, studying the three editorials reveal different important points in terms of their structural organization and the positioning of opinions. The structures of the sample editorials seem to vary: the first text follows the structure suggested by most researchers aforementioned. There is an introduction that sets the context or describes the problem. Then, the intermediate section that presents arguments for or against, and finally the conclusion that presents the evaluation of the writer. The second article is similar to the first one in terms of structure except for the conclusion which is absent; whereas the writer's evaluation is mentioned in part three of the intermediate section. The third text has also the three structural components of newspaper editorials: an introduction, an intermediate section, and a conclusion. The introduction, however, includes a description of the opponent's opinion and this is a characteristic of editorial structure in English language as aforementioned.

As for the nature of opinions used, the analysis reveals that there is a variety in the three editorials: factual, evaluative, emotional, and opinions based on popular beliefs. Opinion positioning seems to vary as well: the first and the third editorials suggest that opinions are generally structured from less prominent in the beginning of the editorials (including mostly facts and examples or similar events in the past) to more prominent ones by their ends (expressing directly the writer's opinion). This can be explained by the fact that the personal evaluation of the writer comes as a logic deduction after listing other opinions throughout the article and probably for providing more suspense to the reader to go through the entire editorial. The second editorial on the other hand, begins with more prominent opinions and ends with less prominent ones. In this case, starting with personal evaluation or recommendation of the writer can be an attracting element for the audience to read the editorial.

Structure, opinion type and positioning are important components of editorials because they play an important role in fulfilling the aims of these opinion texts: to influence and convince the reader. Another important component in this regard is the language used as has been mentioned. It is important to notice that the choice of the most suitable vocabulary and expressions to communicate an idea in the appropriate context is the means through which the editorial is appropriately structured and the opinions are appropriately expressed. The following section will elaborate on the language use in 'chouftchouf'.

6.2. The language power of 'Chouftchouf' Editorial

It has been aforementioned (in section 4) that language use in 'chouftchouf' editorial is particular because it is the longest daily editorial that has ever been written and received such success in terms of number of readers. According to world Association of Newspapers (2003), Thanks to this column which covers different issues in a critical way, the newspaper has maximized its success. The language use in this editorial seems to be the main element through which the editorial gains its power and success in attracting readers' attention. In a study I (Elyazale 2012) conducted to investigate language-based argumentative strategies used in this editorial (68 editorial selected between 2008-2009), I found out that this editorial uses quite and varied language strategies that follow a pattern of use: There are some argumentative language strategies which were used with high frequency and in all the selected editorial articles. They included

Emphasis expressions: they are suggested by Aljazim and Amine (2003: 180) as argumentative strategies used in Arabic, stating that those expressions are used to attract the attention of the recipient to specific parts of speech or written sentences by emphasizing these parts. Examples Aljazim and Amine (2003: 180) suggest are: /I'na/ (it is), /?a'na/ (that) and the strategy of 'repetition' (underlying and explicit). Explicit repetition refers to repeating words used in the same sentence or other words with same meaning. Underlying repetition includes expressions such as /koul/ and /jami:3/ (all). Since repetition is one way to emphasize a point, it was included with emphasis expressions. The other sub-category Aljazim and Amine (2003: 180) include under emphasis expressions were focus phrases (one egg instead of an egg) and demonstratives like: /ha:0:/ (This) and /0:lika/ (that). Another sub-category Aljazim and Amine (2003: 180) include is: expressions such as: /laysa faqat...bal/, /laysa faqat... ?I'nama:/ (not only... but also) and /ma:0+ verb or adjective, (what is+adjective). Zarazmouni (2006) Mustapha (in Hassana 2008) and Wikipedia (2009) also categorized emphasis expressions as argumentative strategies. Expressions of emphases have been considered as important in argumentation in most

languages by Pearlman (in Toulba 2010:197) like expressions of swear. ‘Chouftchouf’ Editorial comprises a big and a varied number of emphasis expressions such as the examples mentioned in this paragraph.

Key words: Suggested by Morley (2004), they are usually used to create harmony with the reader. The example he mentions is the word ‘our’ which he believes comprises the sense of sharing. That gives the reader, in Morley’s opinion, a sense of sharing ideas, feelings, values, etc, with the writer. Fowler (1991: 212 in Morley 2004: 11) says: “*our* is a word used to create consensus with the reader”. Alaabd (2010:31) suggests the use of ‘us’ and ‘our’ for strengthening the picture of the text producer.

In the context of ‘Chouftchouf’, some expressions might fall within the category of Key words since they are elements the reader and the writer share. The writer uses the religious glossary with which the Moroccan reader is familiar and which is strongly related to the Moroccan culture, like /ʔalhamdulil’ah/, (Thank God) . Other expressions that might be included within this sharing concept is the use of Moroccan Arabic, and addressing the reader directly like /ʔanta/ (you).

Attributes: They refer to expressions used to describe a noun or an event. Attributes have been considered by Pearlman (in Toulba 196) as an important linguistic tool for argumentation. Attributes according to Bentham (in Qoutal 2010:151) categorize the event and apply a judgment to it. In ‘Chouftchouf,’ attributes are used very often to describe the evaluation of the writer concerning a situation or a person. For instance, the writer uses ‘**luxurious**’ wedding to denote his negative stand on money wasting rather than spending in these events .

Denial and Exception: suggested by Azzaoui (2010: 64), they include words like: /l’nama:/ (just) and /l’la: / (except). Denial specifically was considered by Pearlman (in Toulba 2010:197) as having an important argumentative role. The same idea is supported in Wikipedia (2009) and Bouquera (2005). In ‘Chouftchouf’, they are very often used through expressions like /la:/ (no) or (don’t), /lam/ (did not), /lan/ (will not), /laysa huna:ka/ (there is no), (la: yusma^hu...siwa:/ (it is allowed only...).

Modality: it refers to attitudes and judgments expressed in newspaper texts and is characterized by the use of **modal verbs (can, should, might, must, etc.)** and **adverbs (certainly...)**. Modality has been categorized as a language argumentative strategy by Pearlman (in Toulba 2010:197). Pearlman suggests two types of modalities. The first **Truth Modality** which varies along a scale. Fairclough (1995 in Richardson 2007) gives the following example: ‘this *can* be stopped if...’. In other words, there are certain conditions that should be available in order for something to happen. The second **Obligation Modality** is related to future events and the degree of assumption the writer has about an action to be done or a decision to be taken, like using (ought to, necessarily).

Morley (2004) included **necessity modality, probability** and **prediction** as argumentative strategies used in editorials specifically. Probability refers to models such as: can, could, may and might, While prediction encompasses the use of: shall, will and would. He also included phrasal models such as: be able to, had better, be going to, have to, ought to, used to, etc. Furthermore, Biber (in Abbadi 2002) analyzed modality in Arabic and English editorials. Unlike Fairclough who classifies modality into truth and obligation, Biber (like Morley 2004) mentions models which express **necessity** such as ‘must’, ‘should’ in English and /yatawa’jabu/ /yajibu/ in Arabic. There are models which express **prediction** such as ‘will’ ‘would’ in English and the morpheme /sa/and /sawfa/ in Arabic. Biber adds Finally there are models which express **possibility** such as ‘can’, ‘may’, ‘could’. Westin and Geisler (2002) also suggested prediction and necessity models as argumentative strategies used in editorials. In ‘Chouftchouf, there are similar modality examples found: verbs like /yajibu/ (must), or /sa/ (will), in addition to adverbs expressing similar meanings to that of models like /mina ʔalmumkin/ (it is possible).

Intensifiers : Intensifiers strengthen the validity of the events and ideas occurring in the text, by using expressions such as: /bi’taʔki:d/ or /ʔatman/ in Arabic and ‘certainly’ in English, in addition to cognate adverbs as intensifiers and they refer to the process of using the same form of the verb and the object /wa sa’limu: tasli:ma:/. This strategy was suggested by (Aljazim and Amine 2003). Cognate adverbs exist only in Arabic language. Intensifiers usually include focus adverbs (only/just, even) and emphasis adverbs: (simply/very/any), (Fedoriachenko 2004: 67 and Al-Shurafa 2005). In ‘Chouftchouf’, intensifiers are used with high frequency. Examples of focus adverbs used in the selected articles are (/ʔaʔat/ and /siwa:/ just or only, /ʔa’ta:/ (even) , and emphasis adverbs found are: /bibasa:ta/ simply, /ka’i:ran/ very, and /ʔa’yi/any. Intensifiers used in ‘Chouftchouf’ also include cognate adverbs like: /tu3a’limu ta3li:man ja’yidan/ (she teaches well).

comparatives/ superlatives: They are adjective forms used to compare two or more things, ideas, values, persons, etc. these forms are categorized as language instruments for argumentation according to Shahri (2010: 120) and Mustapha (in Hassana 2008). ‘Chouftchouf’ includes expressions like /ʔakʔar/ (more), /ʔa^hsan/ (better), /ʔalʔa^hsan/ and /ʔalʔafdal/ (the best). The aim behind using these expressions seems to urge the reader to follow the choice the writer suggests.

The following table summarizes the use of these strategies:

Argumentative Strategies	Mean	Percentage%
Emphasis Expressions	45,92	100
Key words	17,76	100
Attributes	16	100
Denial/exception	13,52	100
Modality	11,75	100
Intensifiers	9,72	100
Comparatives/Superlatives	4,6	100

Table 1: Argumentative Strategies used in all the Selected ‘Chouftchouf’ Editorial Articles

The table reveals that even though these strategies are used in all the editorials, they can be ordered through the mean. The most frequently used strategies are emphasis expressions followed by key word, attributes, denial/exception, modality, intensifiers and finally comparatives/superlatives as the least frequently used in this first category. The other category of strategies includes the ones used in more than half of the editorial articles and they include:

Metaphor: It refers to using a word or an expression in its symbolic sense far from its literary meaning. Sola (2010: 42) suggests that metaphor is used to build a simile relation between familiar and new information. That is to say, metaphor reduces the bridge between the familiar information and the unfamiliar one so that the recipient understands it easily. Sola (2010: 42) adds that from an argumentative point of view, using ‘A’ instead of ‘B’ is kind of judgmental: ‘he is a lion’ refers to the idea that ‘this person is courageous’. Sola (2010: 42) states that it is possible to disagree with the second statement but never with the ‘fact’ that a lion is courageous. Metaphor is also considered as very rhetorically efficient in producing the meaning intended by Shahri (2010: 136). Loujirin (1991: 87-88 in Shahri 2010:137) confirms this idea by stating that the argumentative strength in words metaphorically used is more powerful than what we feel when we use the same words in their literal meaning. Metaphor for Mouden (2010: 258-259) is among the strategies that influence the emotional side of the recipient because it carries weirdness and comes in one statement rather than in details. Weirdness can refer here to building a relation between two things which do not normally get together. It comes in ‘one statement’ means it comes in one picture where all the details are included. Metaphor was considered by Alaabd (2010:31) and Mustapha (in Hassana 2008) as a language strong means because it presents a clearer picture of the idea compared to when this idea is literally expressed. In ‘Chouftchouf’ the use of metaphor is frequent. For example, the writer uses the expression ‘something in the neck of banks’ to refer to one of the banks’ responsibilities as an institution, or ‘something stuck in someone’s throat’ to refer to a big problem a person fell in.

Linking Words: They are suggested by Azzaoui (2010:63-65) in Arabic as well as in other languages. Azzaoui (2010:63-65) emphasizes the importance of words which link the argument to the result. Those words usually gain their argumentative characteristics when used in this sentential context, not in themselves. He suggests the following linking words: /la:kin/ (but), /bal/ (rather), /i^oan/ (so, thus), /^hat’a:/ (even, and, till), /la:siyama:/ (especially), /?i^s/ (and, as, then), /bima: ?a’na/ (since), /ma^a ^oa:lika/ (in spite of), /I’nama: / (only, but, however). Azzaoui (2010: 63) adds that these words can link arguments with different degrees of strength. Linking words were also suggested as argumentative strategies by Bouquera (2005:3) and Zarzamouni (2006).

Shahri (2010: 101-102) suggested linking words as instruments for linguistic argumentation under the logic tools. In addition to the words suggested by Azzaoui above, Shahri adds /layasafa^aasb bal/ (not only..... but also), /ma:.....i’la:/,(whatonly). It is important to notice here that the structure (what.... only) and (not only... but also) were categorized as emphasis expressions by Fedoriachinko (2004) as mentioned above. Since Fedoriachinko’s (2004) claim was based on expressions specifically used in editorials, similar structures found in ‘Chouftchouf’ were also categorized as such. Shahri (2010: 101-102) specified that linking words in general mean nothing in themselves, but can be assigned an argumentative role when used in a context. He provides the following example for illustration: a- why do you lie when you are interrogated? B- I did not lie, but I did not know what to say. The word ‘but’ is used to deny what was stated before ‘lying’ and moves up to give an argument in favor of ‘not lying’. Pearlman (in Toulba 2010:197) also suggested linking words as important argumentative tools. In ‘Chouftchouf’, linking words in argumentative contexts were often used. Examples include: /ha:ka^a:/ (this way), /wa/ (and), /la:kin/(but).

Cause Expressions: They refers to using expressions like ‘because’ /sabab/ /li?a’na/. The consequence then becomes an introduction to a new result which itself becomes a cause for another consequence. Cause was identified by Bellenger (in Qoutal 2010:139) and Iedema et al (1994: 5) as an argumentative strategy. ‘Chouftchouf’ makes use of varied cause expressions but the most used one is /li?a’na/ (because).

Numbers: Numbers were suggested by Van Dijk (1988: 144) as argumentative strategies. Van Dijk (1988: 144) specified that they usually come from quotations from participants, direct observations of the events, interviews from eyewitnesses, and from official reports received from persons and institutions with high and

powerful political status. Van Dijk(1988: 114) adds that “*the use of numbers suggests precision of information and indicates its seriousness*”; thus numbers seem to be a strong rhetorical feature. Numbers were also categorized by Shahri (2010: 116) as a linguistic tool for language argumentation. Shahri (2010: 116) states that numbers are used to prove the strength of the argument. In ‘Chouftchouf’, number use is usually identified as statistics especially when the writer evokes what he calls ‘big problems’ or ‘catastrophes’ in order to demonstrate their seriousness.

Sarcastic Expressions: According to Sola (2010: 52), when similes and metaphors are used in contradiction to the related picture, they become sarcastic expressions. He illustrated the idea with the following example: ‘what a lion he is!’ this statement can be used to show the high degree of a person’s cowardness when it is used to make fun of a person. Thus, instead of using it in a sole metaphoric or simile meaning to refer to the braveness of that person, it, then, refers to its counterpart meaning: that ‘this person is not courageous’. The use of sarcasm in ‘Chouftchouf’ seems to be used as an attraction element for the reader and as a means to criticize as well.

Conditional: Conditional sentences usually mark the conditions needed for an event to or not to take place and the consequence of these conditions. Abbadi (2002: 6) suggests the expressions /ʔiʔa:/ (if) and ‘ʔiʔa: lam/ (unless) as the beginning of conditional clauses in Arabic. Conditional clauses have also been identified in Wikipedia (2009), by Pearlman (in Toulba 2010:197), and Iedema et al (1994:5) as argumentative strategies. Conditional sentences in ‘Chouftchouf’ include expressions like /law/(if)..... /fa/ (then) or /ku'lama:/ (whenever). These expressions seem to be used for the purpose of leaving no other choices for the reader except the one suggested by the author as the only possible result for the condition.

Concession: concession includes expressions such as the use of ‘though’ and ‘although’ in English and /raʔma/ and /maʔa ʔaʔna/ (in spite of) in Arabic. Abbadi (2002:6) suggested concession as an argumentative strategy in a study he conducted on editorial argumentation in Arabic and English newspaper editorials. ‘Chouftchouf’ includes similar expressions suggested.

Naming/Reference: This strategy means naming or referring to a person in a way that presents a value judgment. Persons praised or criticized in a (an opinion) newspaper article can be referred to differently depending on the kind and degree of the praising or the criticism. Praising and supporting a person is usually characterized by positive naming or reference, while criticizing or arguing against a person is characterized by negative naming. Fairclough (1995 in Richardson 2007) referred to this strategy as a way to indicate a ‘social status’; that is to say, a positive self-presentation and negative presentation of the other. ‘Naming and reference’ was categorized by Shahri (2010: 88) as linguistic tools used in argumentation. In ‘Chouftchouf’ editorial, this strategy is often used to reveal the stand of the writer concerning a person or a situation. Some examples include the reference: /ʔabna:ʔ Lefu:sh/ (spoiled children) to refer to children of rich persons, /ʔalʔaliʔba/ (high social class) to refer to rich people, and /ʔalmiski:n/ (the poor) as a naming strategy refers to someone the writer sympathizes with.

Stance Adverbials: They can be adverbs or expressions playing the role of adverbs. They are usually used to comment on or to express the writer’s attitude on the issue or situation advocated (Biber et al. 1999: 853 in Morley 2004: 10). According to Morley (2004: 10), there are many sub-categories of stance adverbials, but he focused on ‘**doubt and certainty**’ and ‘**actuality and reality**’ as more relevant for newspaper editorials. The former sub-category includes adverbs such as: certainly, definitely, may be, of course, perhaps, and probably. The latter includes adverbs and adverbials like: really, in fact, especially and actually. Toulmin (1958:13) suggested adverbs like: possibly, probably, certainly, etc as argumentative strategies. It is important to notice here that some of adverbs and adverbials especially the ones which express certainty are considered as intensifiers. To resolve this problem, the context was used to identify if these expressions are intensifiers or stance adverbials. ‘Chouftchouf’ includes a considerable number of adverbs and adverbials which the writer uses when he wants to reveal his attitude towards an idea or a piece of information like: /ʔosʔ:ʔsan/ (especially) and /fi: ʔalʔaqi:qa/ (in reality).

Rhetorical Questions: They are questions used to express one’s opinion and may not be answered because their rhetorical function is to ask them. They may be used to blame for example, (Mustapha in Hassana 2008). Shahri (2010:85) states that these questions are the most effective linguistic expressions in argumentation. For Pearlman (in Toulba 2010:197), questions have an important role in argumentation because a question requires a topic through which a possible agreement is expected and answering this question comes to emphasize this agreement. ‘Chouftchouf’ includes rhetorical questions but they are not used very frequently. They are defined rhetorical depending on the context of their use. One of the example can be taken from the third editorial presented in this article in part one of the intermediate section: The writer asks: /hal wasalat ʔaʔrʔ:ʔ ʔalmaʔribiya ʔila: ha:ʔ: ʔalʔad ʔalmunʔat mina ʔaʔtas3:ira/? (Has the Moroccan soul reached that degrading price?) in order to express the degree of his sorrow about the worthlessness of this soul.

The following table summarizes the use of these strategies:

<u>Argumentative Strategies</u>	<u>Percentage %</u>
Linking Words	98,5
Metaphor	98,5
Cause Expressions	97,1
Numbers	95,4
Sarcastic Expressions	80,9
Conditional	77,9
Concession	76,5
Naming/Reference	75
Rhetorical Questions	73,5
Stance Adverbials	72,1

Table 2: Argumentative Strategies Used in More Than 50% of the Selected ‘Chouftchouf’ Editorial Articles

The table indicates that there is a variety of use of argumentative strategies that are found in more than half of the selected editorial articles. They are ordered from the most frequent starting with ‘linking words’ and ending with the least frequent ‘stance adverbials’. The next set of strategies was used in about half of the editorials selected and they included:

Comparison: It refers to comparing two situations with the aim to help the reader see which situation is better and consequently lead him/her to take a stand, or to help him/her understand the situation or the problem better. Sola (2010: 51) mentions that Quran is based on a lot of examples of comparison. Comparison was categorized as an argumentative strategy by Mustapha (2008), Shahri (2010: 139) and Zazamouni (2006). Bellenger (in Qoutal 2010:129) states that this strategy is easy to understand for non-intellectual public. The most frequently comparison expressions used in ‘Chouftchouf’ are: /fi.ma:/ (whereas), and /fi lwaqti ‘la δ:/ (at the time when).

Exaggeration: It refers to overstating an idea. Exaggeration was categorized as an instrument for linguistic argumentation in the Arabic Language by Shahri (2010: 120) and Suchan (2010: 14). This also includes ‘hyperbole’ which refers to extreme exaggeration of an event in order to produce a strong rhetorical effect especially of humor (Abbadi 2002:7). In ‘Chouftchouf’, this strategy is usually used when the writer refers to a situation which he considers a problem. Expressions used are ‘festival’ to refer to a huge wedding ceremony, and when he advocates the rain issue, the writer states that a person needs a ‘submarine’ to cross a tunnel to criticize the bad infrastructure of Casablanca City.

Suasives: They are expressions that show the extent to which the writer tries to convince the reader with the desirability or probability of an event. Suasives were categorized as an argumentative strategy in editorials by Westin and Geisler (2002). Examples they included are mostly verbs such as: agree, arrange, beg, command, decide, insist, and propose. In ‘Chouftchouf’, suasives are not very often used. Most of them are not necessarily verbs but parts of sentences expressing the same meanings of suasive verbs. They include verbs or sentence chunks like /ʔalʔa’qu/, (having the right) or (agree), /ʔasbaʔa mina ʔa’daru:ri/, (becomes a necessity).

Quotes: Quoting means reporting on weighty persons in a social, political, economic, etc context to strengthen the position taken. Shahri (2010:128) refers to quotes as ‘proofs’ or ‘prepared arguments or witnesses’. According to him, they are among the supports of strong argumentation since they are reported and do not belong to the text producer; that is why they exceed the ordinary text (produced by the author) one level. Shahri (2010:128) adds that this process helps in elevating the person of the text producer into a higher rank because he/she gains a certain power from this reporting. Some examples of ‘prepared arguments’ Shahri mentions are: religious texts, proverbs, wisdom statements. Alarwi (2001:66 in Shahri 2010:132) states that wisdom statements are organized forms that some contexts require with the aim to influence, prove something and convince. As for proverbs, they are used to strengthen the truthfulness of the arguments included, (Shahri 2010: 132). Mouden (2010:254) adds that proverbs have a beautifying role in the language and stimulate imagination as well, and consequently contribute in the process of argumentation itself. Wisdom statements and proverbs are considered very important in argumentation by Pearlman (in Toulba 2010: 197). Proverbs and wisdom statements for Bellenger (in Qoutal 2010:152) guarantee the wisdom of the world, its progress and its ongoing existence... they are categorized among morals and thus, they justify the morality of the text. In the Arabic language specifically, Quotes from Quran verses and ‘sayings’ of the prophet are used as argumentative strategies. Mouden (2010:253) in this regard categorizes Quran among the strongest quotes in the Arab and Islamic culture because its power does not belong to one person. Quoting as an argumentative strategy was also suggested by Mustapha (in Hassana 2008) and Bouquera (2005). ‘Chouftchouf’ includes variety of quotes from public speeches of weighty persons (who are not necessarily famous but they are usually related to the issue tackled) to religious verses from the Quran or the prophet’s sayings.

Argumentative Factors: They were suggested by Azzaoui (2010: 64) who specifies that they are used to limit the direction of the argument to one possibility. He suggests expressions like: /taqri:ban/, /ka:da/(almost), /kaØi:ran/ (a lot) , /qali:lan/ (few, little). Argumentative factors were also suggested by Bouqera (2005: 3) as argumentative strategies. ‘Chouftchouf’ includes similar examples.

It is + evaluative adjective+ that/to: This structure was suggested by Morley (2004) as a rhetorical device used in quality and popular British newspaper editorials like: it’s plain that, it’s fitting that. In ‘Chouftchouf’, this strategy usually takes the form: what is supposed to be the case: /mina lmafrːd/ (it is supposed).

The following table summarizes the use of this set of strategies as used in ‘Chouftchouf’:

<u>Argumentative Strategies</u>	<u>Percentage %</u>
Comparison	58,8
Exaggeration	57,4
Suasives	50
Quotes	45,6
Argumentative Factors	45,6
It is + evaluative adjective+ that/to	41,2

Table 3: Argumentative Strategies Used in About 50% of the Selected ‘Chouftchouf’ Editorial Articles

The percentages indicate that these strategies are used frequently since they are found in about half of the editorials selected. Comparison and Exaggeration come first in this set, while quotes, argumentative factors and ‘it is + evaluative adjective+that/to are less frequently used. As for the strategies which were rarely used, they included:

Neologism: it refers to inventing new words or assigning new meanings to old words. Fairclough (1995 in Richardson 2007: 70) gives examples like the suffix ‘-gate’ which refers to a scandal and using ‘google’ as a verb to mean ‘search’. Another form Fairclough (1995 in Richardson 2007) suggest is merging two existing words, such as ‘brunch’ for ‘breakfast+lunch’. In ‘Chouftchouf’, the writer would create new words based on familiar ones like using the word /ka:li:ba:n/ to refer to food strollers selling dog meat, in relation to the word /ka:niba:l/ which is a tribe in the history said to have lived on human flesh.

Puns: They are often used in newspaper editorials according to Richardson (2007: 70). Richardson (2007: 70) categorizes them into three sub-categories: homographic, ideographic, and homophonic. Homographic refers to a word which has multiple meanings. Ideographic refers to alternating words of parallel sounds but which are not exactly identical, such as ‘Merry’ and ‘Marry’. Homophonic, on the other hand, refer to substituting words of the same sound with different meanings, such as ‘raise’ and raze’. In ‘Chouftchouf’, puns are not used very often and they include vocabulary taken from the Moroccan culture like the word: /qwa:lːb/ which refers to ‘tricks’ and ‘sugar’ in Moroccan Arabic.

Switching position of words: This strategy was suggested by Sola (2010: 46), Fedoriachinko (2004), and Zarzamouni (2006). It refers to changing the original position of a sentence component: a verb, noun, phrase, etc in order to emphasize this part or to direct the reader to think about the issue in a specific way. Examples Sola (2010: 46) suggests are: using the question form ‘am I not your father?’ instead of a sentence: I am your father. Sola also suggests the example of using a question ‘how can I shake hand with him and he was unjust to me’ instead of ‘I will not shake hand with him’. A question according to Sola (2010: 47) makes the recipient obliged to answer into the direction of what the question draws. In ‘Chouftchouf’ for instance, the writer uses the expression: /waːdahum ?aːʕaːya:/ (the victims by themselves) instead of /?aːʕaːya: waːdahum) to emphasize the idea that the victims have done some work by themselves with no help.

Antithesis: It means using the word and its opposite in the same sentence or clause: ”**And that He it is Who make the laugh, and make the weep, And that He it is Who give the death and give the life;** (anajm 44-43). In this example from Quran, Sola (2010: 46) states that the aim is to show the absolute power of the creator. Shahri (2010: 139), Zarzamouni (2006) and Wikipedia (2009) also suggested antithesis as an argumentative strategy. In ‘Chouftchouf’, the writer usually uses antithesis in the same clause or in two clauses as part of one sentence like: /ka:nat huna:ka qa:3a lil?afra:ː taːtaʕinu ?atra:ːa ?almuwa:teni:n/, (there was a party room witnessing a sad event).

Unnecessary Prepositions: They are prepositions suggested by Zarzamouni (2006), and which are not necessary for the meaning but used only for emphasis such as /min/ (from), letter /b/, and /k/ in examples like: /laysa ka mielihi ʕay?/ (there is nothing like him), (Zarzamouni 2006). In ‘Chouftchouf’, this strategy is very rarely used. Most of the instances are used with the structure suggested before: it is + evaluative adjective. For example: /?iːnahu lamina ?al3a:ri/ (it is a shame that). The /l/ is the unnecessary preposition.

The following table summarizes the use of this last set of strategies:

Argumentative Strategies	Percentage %
Puns	27,9
Neologism	27,9
Switching Position of words	16,2
Antithesis	13,2
Unnecessary Prepositions	5,9

Table 4: Argumentative Strategies Rarely Used in the Selected ‘Chouftchouf’ Editorial Articles

The percentages reveal that the suggested strategies in this set are used in less than 30% of the selected editorials. Puns and neologism are the most frequently used, while unnecessary prepositions are the least frequently used.

In short, the study conducted on ‘Chouftchouf’ editorial has given evidence on the rich use of language strategies in terms of number and variety. Nineteen language strategies have been used in the 68 editorial articles that vary in frequency. These results seem to confirm the immense important role of language in editorials. However; these findings remain descriptive and further research is needed to deeply analyze language argumentation in this editorials and in other Moroccan newspaper editorials.

Conclusion

The aim of this article was to modestly contribute in revealing the importance of newspaper editorials because they have received little attention in media research generally speaking and in the Moroccan context in particular. Their rhetorical nature provides them with enough power to possibly influence the public opinion on different issues; issues that can even be critical to a community or a whole country. Therefore; editorials deserve more consideration in media research than they actually receive. This article can be considered a preliminary step towards deeper research in Moroccan newspaper editorials in terms of their structural organization, the types of opinions used and their positioning, and in terms of language use as well. This is because the present article presents only a sample of three articles from one editorial to illustrate the aforementioned points. At the level of language use specifically, even though the article brings empirical evidence on the rich language argumentation use in newspaper editorials, the study still focuses on one editorial and further research is needed to give more enlightenment and empirical evidence on the characteristics of newspaper editorials.

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