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METADISCOURSE IN THE ACADEMIC WRITING OF EFL AND ESL

ARABIC-SPEAKING IRAQI GRADUATE STUDENTS

A Masters Thesis

Presented to

The Graduate College of

Missouri State University

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Arts, English

By

Mohammed Hamdi Kareem Al-Rubaye

December 2015

METADISCOURSE IN THE ACADEMIC WRITING OF EFL AND ESL

ARABIC-SPEAKING IRAQI GRADUATE STUDENTS

English

Missouri State University, December 2015

Master of Arts

Mohammed Hamdi Kareem Al-Rubaye

ABSTRACT

Metadiscourse is a universal rhetorical aspect of languages embodying the notion that the purpose of writing is not only informative; rather, it is a social act enhancing a writer-reader interaction and building effective communicative relationships, thereby creating a reader-friendly text. This thesis examines metadiscourse in L2 academic writing of Arabic-speaking advanced English learners. It investigates the effect of different environments, English as a foreign language (EFL) versus English as a second language (ESL), as well as the effect of time in the development of writers' metadiscourse. Results were mixed. Quantitatively, the EFL group was closer to the Control group of native speakers in their overall metadiscourse, but the ESL group was closer to the Control group in more than half of the subcategories. Qualitatively, the ESL group was closer to the Control group in four categories, which helped them to establish their ethos and logos. However, both EFL and ESL writers failed to employ other metadiscourse markers to express their attitudes clearly and engage their readers. To bridge the rhetorical gaps in L2 writing, this thesis asserts that explicit instruction in the rhetorical features of English academic writing is not only needed, but also should be required at early stages of writing instruction. Practices, such as identifying metadiscourse markers and their functions in well-written texts, were reported as effective by the case study group in raising their awareness of how metadiscourse can serve the rhetorical functions.

KEYWORDS: metadiscourse, contrastive rhetoric, English academic writing, Arabic rhetoric, L2 writing, EFL versus ESL environment

This abstract is approved as to form and content

_____
Dr. Christina M. Biava
Chairperson, Advisory Committee
Missouri State University

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I dedicate this thesis to those teachers who have devoted all their existence and have sacrificed their lives to enlighten ours and to teach us the meaning of life, humanity, freedom, and respect.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

This thesis examines metadiscourse in academic research papers written by non-native English-speaking graduate students pursuing their master's degrees in English with an emphasis on TESOL, linguistics, and literature. The study explores the effect of the environments in which English is taught, either as a second language (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL). In addition, the study investigates the development of metadiscourse in the writings of a case study group throughout their academic programs in the U.S.

In the emergence of applied linguistics and its subfields in 1950s and 1960s (Hinkel, *Second Language* 4), a growing interest in exploring rhetorical differences and textual aspects in English academic writing and English as a second language (L2) writing emerged as well. Rhetorical differences among languages, such as the responsibilities and expectations of the writer and reader, the writer's voice and attitudes, and many other rhetorical features peculiar to languages, have contributed to the development of a relatively recent field called "metadiscourse." According to Ken Hyland, metadiscourse reveals how writers from different cultures have different preferences in conveying their ideas (*Metadiscourse* 115). Metadiscourse focuses on how writers compose their texts, express their attitudes, consider their readers' knowledge, and provide necessary transitions thereby facilitating communication and helping readers follow and engage with the text easily. Metadiscourse embodies the notion that communication is not only "the exchange of information," but also involves attitudes, assumptions and personalities of those who communicate (3). Examples of metadiscourse

can be seen in the first paragraph on page 1 in this thesis (*This thesis examines* and *the study explores*) where the writer intends to announce the goal of the study so that the reader will have a clear idea about the project. Other examples can be seen in this paragraph, such as *According to Hyland,* where the writer cites a reliable source to support his argument so that the writer can establish credibility with his readers; *such as,* where the writer elaborates on what is mentioned by giving examples that help reader better understand the proposition; and *in this paragraph*, so that the reader knows where to find the information.

A review of studies examining metadiscourse across different modes (speaking and writing), genres (academic, business, media, etc.), and cultures and languages (Arabic etc.) shows that huge efforts have been exerted in exploring the concept. However, a gap in the research can be clearly seen. Until recent times, no study has been carried out that examined the use of metadiscourse markers by a group that shares the same mother tongue and speaks English as a second or a foreign language, but pursues their academic studies in different environments. None of the previous studies examined the effect of these two environments, ESL and EFL. In addition, there has not been a longitudinal study examining the development of metadiscourse in a case study.

This thesis attempts to fill in these two gaps in the research by analyzing the writings of three groups of graduate students who are pursuing their master's degrees in English. The study design uses two approaches, cross-sectional and longitudinal. In the cross-sectional approach, comparison is made between 10 Arab advanced university learners of English in Iraq (EFL environment) and 5 Arab advanced university learners of English in Iraq in the U.S. (ESL environment). The two groups' metadiscourse is

compared to that of their English native-speaker counterparts (the Control group). At the longitudinal level, the researcher investigates the development of metadiscourse in the writing of the ESL students over a period of two years, starting from their first production of writing in an intensive language institute, then during their academic programs, and finally in their final or semi-final semesters.

The study draws on both "contrastive rhetoric" (CR) theory and metadiscourse theory. CR represents the general methodological framework of the study, and its recent principle of comparison is adopted. This principle of comparison states that a contrastive study of texts will be reliable only if it is conducted on data from the same genre, and written under similar conditions, for similar goals (Swale 65; Connor, *Contrastive Rhetoric* 24). Furthermore, metadiscourse theory is the focus of this thesis. As a growing theory that still needs a theoretical rigor, Hyland's definition and model of metadiscourse is adopted in the present study for many theoretical and practical reasons explained in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

In the field of second language acquisition, many theories and disciplines examine writing as well as other language skills to find the best way to teach second language learners how to write and meet the expectations of the readers. It was once believed that mastering grammar and acquiring rich vocabulary were the keys to good writing. For decades, following Bloomfield's view, linguists prioritized the sentence as "the basic unit of syntax" (Kaplan, *Anatomy* 2). Accordingly, pedagogical practices of language teaching directed their attention to the sentence level, ignoring the broader set of skills required to create a coherent text. In fact, writing a coherent essay involves mastering not only sentence structure, but also cognitive, rhetorical, cultural, and sociocultural skills.

In the early 1960s, with the increasing number of international students in the U.S. and U.K., linguists started questioning the reasons behind the constant "foreignness" clearly shown in the writing of ESL learners. What brought attention to that deficiency was that even advanced English students still showed that foreignness in their writing. Moreover, advanced English learners, who had spent years pursuing their academic programs in the United States, did not conform to the conventions of Anglo-American academic writing (Hinkel,"Simplicity" 297). Proponents of teaching sentence structure were unable to account for that foreignness as it was beyond the sentence level. The challenging question was why the ESL students' texts, written in very correct sentences, did not meet the expectations of native English readers.

The second half of the twentieth century witnessed a fundamental departure from the dominance of the "sentence-oriented approach" in teaching ESL composition, and

within the framework of rhetoric, ESL composition instruction moved from the sentence-level to discourse-level (Martin 1-2). In his pioneering 1966 study "Cultural Thought Patterns in Inter-Cultural Education," Robert B. Kaplan initiated a new path to exploring teaching English writing beyond the horizon of the sentence level by establishing the field of "contrastive rhetoric" (CR). Kaplan's main argument is that languages stem from different cultures and, therefore, have different rhetorical preferences that can clearly appear in the logical organization of thought ("Cultural Thought Patterns" 20-21). He illustrates the correlation between rhetoric, logic, and culture: logic, which is the "basis of rhetoric," emerges from culture (12). He argues that since culture is not universal, rhetoric therefore "is not universal either, but varies from culture to culture and even from time to time within a given culture," and that change takes place due to the influence of "canons of taste." (12). Kaplan's conception of rhetoric and its correlation with culture is based on the notions of Robert T. Oliver who, in turn, argued Aristotle's definition of rhetoric being narrow (ix). Oliver conceived that

> rhetoric is a mode of thinking or a mode of "finding all available means" for the achievement of a designated end. Accordingly, rhetoric concerns itself basically with what goes on in the mind rather than what comes out of the mouth…. Rhetoric is concerned with factors of analysis, data gathering, interpretation, and synthesis…. what we notice in the environment and how we notice it are both predetermined to a significant degree by how we are prepared to notice this particular type of object… Cultural anthropologists point out that given acts and objects appear vastly different in different cultures, depending on the values attached to them. Psychologists investigating perception are increasingly insistent that what is perceived depends upon the observer's perceptual frame of reference. (Oliver x-xi; Kaplan, "Cultural Thought Patterns" 11)

With the rapid changes in the fields of linguistics, applied linguistics, and composition theory in the 1950s and 1960s and with the emergence of three domains of research, "contrastive rhetoric, text linguistics, and corpus linguistics" (Hinkel, *Second*

Language 4), rhetoricians have started perceiving rhetoric differently from its classical concept. Ulla Connor asserts that the "new rhetoric" has a broader view when contrasted to classical rhetoric, which was mainly concerned with the "logic of an argument and its persuasiveness," where readers were viewed as passive participants (*Contrastive Rhetoric* 6). In light of broadening its perspectives and aims, Daniel Fogarty argues that the new rhetoric needs to widen its goals and go beyond "teaching the art of formal persuasion but include[s] formation in every kind of symbol-using" (130). With this expansion in the scope of rhetoric, Fogarty adds that it is essential for new rhetoric to modify itself in conformity with recent social and psychological studies of communication (130).

Contrastive Rhetoric (CR)

In the second half of the twentieth century, a growing interest in English academic writing has emerged in the United States. This interest can be attributed to many reasons, but most importantly to three factors: first, the English language's status as the lingua franca of science, business, education, and literacy (Crystal 110-11; Connor, *Contrastive Rhetoric* 55); second, the increasing number of international students in U.S. universities who need more writing practice (Kaplan, "Contrastive Rhetoric" 276); third, the neglect of writing for decades because of the dominance of the Audiolingual approach, which prioritized listening and speaking for teaching English (Kaplan 276; Connor 5). These three factors among many others have made clear the need to reconsider teaching writing in light of the cultural and linguistic differences between the Anglo-American writing conventions and those of international students. Since Kaplan's 1966 landmark article (which evoked connections to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis as well as other ethnographic

and sociocultural theories), CR has emerged as an attempt to account for writing challenges encountered by ESL learners. Its central focus is on analyzing the writing of ESL learners and finding patterns of deviation those students show because of their first language (L1) interference.

Connor defines CR as "an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers and, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them" (*Contrastive Rhetoric* 5). Clayann Gilliam Panetta refers to CR as a relative and recent field in the scholarly literature and composition community that focuses on ESL writers' presentational, organizational, and linguistic choices that show differences from the writing by native English speakers (3). Following Kaplan's pioneering work as well as his successive works, CR has achieved remarkable growth as an interdisciplinary field.

Tracing the roots of CR before Kaplan's first article, Connor (*Contrastive Rhetoric* 10) and Martin (3) argue that CR is highly influenced by the weak version of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis in the theory of linguistic relativity, which states that language influences thought. However, other scholars argue that the "ethnography of communication approach" proposed by Dell Hymes is what initiated CR (Ying 259). But Connor, for example, argues that Hymes' system is about communication not language ("New Directions" 495). Other researchers, including Kaplan himself, state that CR emerged from Kaplan's synthesis of three intellectual fields: the Sapir-Whorf's hypothesis, contrastive analysis, and rhetoric and composition (Matsuda 260; Connor, "New Directions" 495).

The formulation of CR theory has raised controversies about its theoretical scope and methodological approaches. Martin points outs that CR is the most influential yet controversial notion used to analyze L2 writing (1). Some scholars completely reject the whole idea of CR, while others question its theoretical foundation and methodology (Martin 14). Hinds, for instance, argues that Kaplan's research design is flawed in three areas ("Contrastive Rhetoric" 185). First, he points out that Kaplan based his analysis on the final products of his subjects, ignoring their interlanguage errors (186). The second criticism Hinds makes pertains to Kaplan's overgeneralized categorization for languages, such as categorizing Korean, Thai, and Chinese under one group, "Oriental," and overlooking the cultural, linguistic, and rhetorical differences among these languages (186). The third important criticism centers on Kaplan's ethnocentric description of English writing being straight "linear" in developing the line of reasoning and thoughts whereas other language families were depicted in his doodles as "digressive" and "circular" (185- 7).

Criticism of CR continued into the 1990s and 2000s when scholars like Yamuna Kachru, and Ryuko Kubota and Al Lehner criticized CR's methodological approach, concentrating on identifying what the CR researchers need to compare. Kachru noted that CR often examined an idealized English style from textbooks rather than actual English texts, and then compares this idealized rhetoric with general rhetoric features of other languages (25). Kubota and Al Lehner argued that traditional CR tended to compare "a contemporary English style with classical styles of other languages, thereby constructing an exoticized prototype of the rhetoric of the Other" (11). In other words, the researchers criticized CR's comparison between unequal parties, such as classic versus modern

rhetoric, and idealized writing versus students' actual writing samples. However, CR has found supporters who call for further empirical research. Among those supporters are many ESL teachers who find that CR provides a good explanation for phenomena and challenges they encounter in their students' writing (Martin 14).

Kaplan responded to these claims and attempted to remedy CR's theoretical flaws through incorporation of relevant disciplines and interdisciplines for five decades starting from his works in 1970s and 1980s, and very recently in his 2014 article "Contrastive Rhetoric and Discourse Analysis: Who Writes What to Whom? When? In What Circumstances?" He has gradually modified his views about textuality and cultural thought patterns (Kaplan, *Anatomy* x; Kaplan, "Cultural Thought Patterns Revisited" 10). In his successive works, for example, he has approached his claims from different perspectives, namely pedagogy and second language acquisition in 1972, psychology in 1976, and methodology and exploratory in 1983, 1987, and 1988 (Martin 13-14). Moreover, in his 1980s works, he started to perceive a written text as "an extremely complex structure," that is not only "a product but also a process" (Kaplan, "Cultural Thought Patterns Revisited" 1). Since then he has realized the need to further examine the text's multi-dimensional complexities, which involve "at least syntactic, semantic, and discoursal features," in addition to factors of "schematic structure of audience, and of the sociolinguistic functions of a given text" (Kaplan, "Contrastive Rhetoric and Second Language Learning" 279). Eventually, he has called for incorporating rhetorical differences among languages in the pedagogy. Examples of the differences that he called for are writer versus reader responsibility, the purpose and audience of a particular piece of writing, the shared knowledge between the writer and the reader, so that ESL learners

can be aware and manage English writing conventions (291-7). His main concern is "to provide practical applications rather than theoretical positions" ("Cultural Thought Patterns Revisited" 2). The most significant modification for the description of the rhetorical patterns used in his original article is that Kaplan has come to believe that all these patterns "are possible in any language" ("Cultural Thought Patterns Revisited" 10). This conception reflects a fundamental alteration from his first hypothesis, which stated that English rhetoric is linear and direct while other languages' rhetorics are not.

In the 1990s, thanks to the constructive criticism that questioned its conceptual and methodological deficiencies, CR has essentially come to an increasing maturity. Importantly, Connor illustrates the theoretical framework of this interdisciplinary scholarly field and its relation with other disciplines that contribute to and interact with CR's theoretical underpinnings (*Contrastive Rhetoric* 9) (see Fig. 1). In terms of a CR model, applied linguistics approaches have had a great influence on the CR methodologies, with error analysis, contrastive analysis, and interlanguage studies dominating the field (13).

Recently, Connor has suggested the term "intercultural rhetoric" to broaden the theoretical framework of the CR field. She points out that the new term is "interdisciplinary in its theoretical and methodological orientation" ("Intercultural Rhetoric" 292), and that, although intercultural rhetoric still draws on the same theories that CR utilizes, new theories from anthropology and second language acquisition have been incorporated into its theoretical foundations. Within this context of exploring writing in a broader scope, intercultural rhetoric calls attention to the social situation in writing. While it was seen as a cultural and linguistic phenomenon in the early

beginnings of the field, writing is increasingly perceived as a social situation where purpose, audience, and relationship with the reader are highly considered (Connor, "Intercultural Rhetoric" 293; Kaplan, "Contrastive Rhetoric" 297).

Theory of applied linguistics	→	First language patterns transfer to second language
Theory of linguistics	→	Patterns of language and writing are culture specific
Theory of rhetoric	→	Writing as communication and persuasion is affected by audience
Theory of text linguistics	→	Texts and writing have systematic, analyzable variation
Theory of discourse types and genres	→	Writing is task and situation based and results in discourse types
Theory of literacy	→	Activity of writing is embedded in culture
Theory of translation	→	Texts are translatable across cultures but may take different manifestations

Theory of newly defined contrastive rhetoric

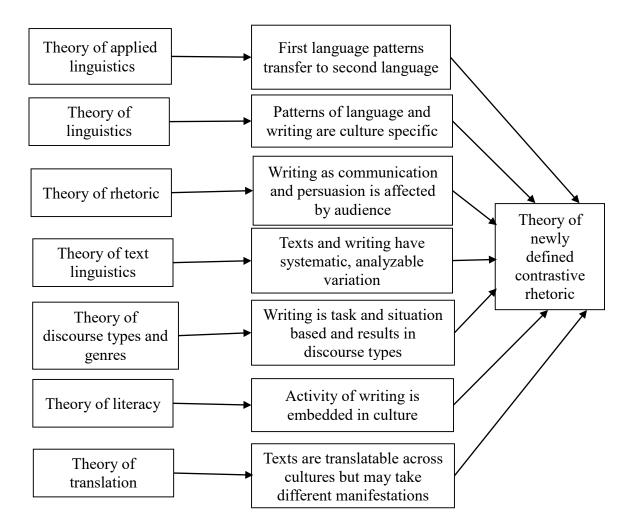Fig. 1 "Influences on Newly Defined Contrastive Rhetoric" (Connor, *Contrastive Rhetoric* 9).

Rhetoric as well as CR studies have focused on the organizational patterns of discourse across languages for decades; however, in recent decades, researchers have taken further steps and have explored other rhetorical differences across languages and cultures (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 63). Examples of research conducted on the other

rhetorical features of Anglo-American English conventions can be seen in John Hinds's study "Reader versus Writer Responsibility," Roz Ivanič and David Camps' "I am How I Sound," and Avon Crismore and Rodney Fransworth's study "Mr. Darwin and his Readers." Hinds points out that in some cultures and languages, as in English, it is the writer and the speaker who are mainly responsible for successful communication, following the aphorism "Tell 'em what you're going to tell'em, then tell'em what you told'em" ("Reader" 65). On the other hand, it is the opposite in other languages, such as Japanese, where responsibility depends on the listener and reader (65). He asserts that the responsibility of the writer is not an absolute rule, as there are conditions where the rule is the opposite, or in other circumstances, it becomes a shared responsibility between both parties (65). Ivanič and Camps examine the cultural differences and their influence on the writer's voice in the text. They investigated many lexical and syntactical aspects that writers from different cultures used to express their voice and identity. Examples of these features are using personal and impersonal ways in reference, using active versus passive voice, using present tense and state verbs, etc. (14-18). Crismore and Fransworth's study investigated metadiscourse markers used by Darwin and his effective employment of metadiscourse markers, such as hedges, emphatics, attitude and engagement markers, in establishing the rhetorical means, ethos, pathos and logos.

Since the present study is based on CR principles and is concerned with examining metadiscourse in the English academic writing of Arab students, it is useful to have a review of the rhetoric of both languages, English and Arabic, before reviewing the literature about metadiscourse history, definition, theories, and models.

English Academic Writing. A better understanding of English can be obtained by reviewing its rhetorical origins. Kaplan points out that English and its rhetorical patterns "have evolved out of the Anglo-European cultural pattern" ("Cultural Thought Patterns" 12). Its sequence of thought essentially follows the Platonic-Aristotelian thought sequence that originated from the ancient Greek philosophers; Romans, Medieval Europeans, and later Western thinkers all contributed to the study of English rhetoric (12). Like all other languages, English was primarily an oral language some time ago, and accordingly its rhetorical pattern and syntax were characterized by rhythmic balance and repetitive parallels with a preference for subordination and ellipsis (Ostler 171). However, what was considered desirable in old English has become unfavorable in modern English (Ostler 172; Kaplan, "Cultural Thought Patterns" 15).

The rhetorical features of modern English, especially those of writing, seem to be different not only from old English but also from other languages' rhetorical features. In order to make one's point, many languages tend first to establish a relationship with the reader and listener before making the main point, which usually comes at the end (Hinkel, "Culture and Pragmatics" 402). Unlike those languages, English rhetoric tends to start with the main point early and directly (402). Kaplan points out that paragraph development in English starts with a thesis statement that is subdivided afterward into a string of subordinating statements (*Anatomy* 10). Each of these statements is followed by illustrations and examples that develop the central idea of that paragraph and connect it with other main ideas of other paragraphs in the essay (10). Flowing in one direction, all these topic statements and subordinations are employed to prove, support, or refute an argument (10). This line of reasoning is presumably the typical organization of

developing a coherent essay that follows the conventions of modern English academic writing, with other conventions imposed by various genres and discourse communities. In general, Hyland points out that "Anglo-American academic English" tends to:

- Be more explicit about its structure and purposes;

- Employ more, and more recent, citations;

- Use fewer rhetorical questions;

- Be generally less tolerant of asides or digressions;

- Be more tentative and cautious in making claims;

- Have stricter conventions for sub-sections and their titles;

- Use more sentence connectors (such as *therefore* and *however*);

- Place the responsibility for clarity and understanding on the writer rather than the reader. (*Metadiscourse* 117)

Coinciding with the cultural perspective, research in writing has started to view texts as "socially mediated" and "socially negotiated products" (Berkenkotter, Huckin, and Ackerman 11). Carol Berkenkotter, Thomas N. Huckin, and John Ackerman show that recognizing and mastering the rhetorical and linguistic conventions of writing is "only a part of the difficulty" that student writers encounter in their academic programs (10). These student writers need to be members of their disciplinary community by becoming aware of its "written conversation" (Bazerman 657). Practices, issues, concerns, and research methodologies of discourse communities are all essential for writers to be aware of in order to be integrated into that community (Booth, Colomb, and Williams 14). A "discourse community" is defined as a group of people sharing values, standards, and assumptions about employing language for specific purposes (Weigle

223). In some of these discourse communities, the traditional notion that English academic writing should be impersonal and objective is no longer seen as effective (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 65). Rather, academic writing nowadays is perceived as a persuasive attempt promoting a social interaction between writers and their readers (65). Indeed, in light of the new directions in English academic writing to produce effective conversation, writers need to establish an appropriate level of social interaction that complies with the requirements of their discourse community.

Rhetorical patterns, cultural roots, and social contexts seem to be universal factors that shape the writing process in general. Differences in these factors among languages often result in different writing styles. Certainly, writers' individual differences (such as their academic level, linguistic proficiency, cognitive skills, and stylistic taste) have a significant role in producing diverse styles. However, thanks to the in-depth and empirical research conducted by the pioneers and their successors in the field of writing, the three above-mentioned factors with their subcategories appear to be the pillars that constitute the final product of writing across languages.

Arabic Rhetoric and Writing. Very little available linguistic research examines Arabic rhetorical features in writing (Abdul-Raof 15; Ostler 176). Most of the existing contrastive studies rely on some misleading works that describe Arabic as redundant, over-exaggerating, and repetitive, such as that of Eleanor Shouby written in 1951, which "amounts to nothing more than reverse ethnocentrism or gratuitous self-criticism" (Koch, "Comments" 543). In addition, such works have based their arguments on inadequate and limited writing samples produced by students needing training and practice in the rhetoric of their mother tongue in order to prevent negative transfer issues (Sa'adeddin 36-37).

This section briefly reviews the salient features of Arabic as a written language, its origin and development, and the impact of the Qur'an. It analyzes rather than historicizes the rhetorical features of Arabic writing and the assumption of their transference into English. More specifically the focus will be on the parameters that influence Arab writers to adopt certain rhetorical modes in their L1 and L2 writing.

The Arabic language is "the youngest of the Semitic family of languages" (Kaplan, *Anatomy* 34-35), spoken by more than 250 million people as a native language in the Arab world across the Middle East and North Africa (Brustad, Al-Batal and Al-Tonsi "sec. Culture"). Arabic is also spoken as a religious language by approximately one billion Muslims ("sec. Culture"). In each country of the Arab world, a diglossic phenomenon exists where there are at least two dialects of Arabic spoken: Classical Arabic, used in written communication, lectures, media, and education; and Colloquial Arabic, with numerous regional varieties that are learned first and used for everyday communication (Thompson-Panos and Thomas- Ružić 609). Arabic is central to the identity of Arabs and Muslims as they consider it not only the language of the Qur'an, but also the language of heaven and the language of God (Robin 1; Koch, "Presentation" 55).

In Arabic, rhetoric functions similarly as in English, i.e., to regulate the relationship between the "text producer" (i.e., speaker or writer) and the "text receiver" (i.e., reader or listener) (Abdul-Raof 1). However, the three fundamental disciplines of Arabic rhetoric, "ilm al-maani (word order, i.e., semantic syntax), ilm al-bayan (figures of speech), and ilm al-badi (embellishments)" (2), do not exactly match those of English. Arabic rhetoricians define rhetoric as "the compatibility of an eloquent discourse to

context … and is attributed to cognition and to elegant discourse" (Abdul-Raof 16). Compared with the dynamic definition of English rhetoric that is now broadened to incorporate many recent disciplines, such as the social and psychological studies of communication (Fogarty 130), Arabic rhetoric seems to be static and relies heavily on the eloquence and aesthetic effects of language.

Researchers trace Arabic's rhetorical roots back to the pre-Islamic and Islamic eras. In the pre-Islamic times, the verbal art of poetry was dominant in shaping the rhetorical features and aesthetic effects of Arabic, while in the Islamic era poetry became the secondary source for learning rhetoric, the favorite of which was the Qur'an (Chejne 450). The nomadic life and environment of early Arabs left little space for Arabic to develop as a written language (Kaplan, *Anatomy* 34). During the Islamic era, the Qur'an has had an immeasurable influence on the growth of Arabic writing and on the development of its rhetoric (Kaplan, *Anatomy of Rhetoric* 35). Strongly influenced by the verbal art of poetry (Chejne 450) and the revelations of the Qur'an (Kaplan, *Anatomy* 35), Arabic rhetoric is seemingly characterized by the oral culture of presenting ideas (Koch, "Presentation as Proof" 53).

In his influential contrastive study, Sa'adeddin introduces a theoretical concept of "aural" versus "visual" modes of textual development. The aurally developed text is a text meant to be listened to and is characterized by repetition, implicitness, abstract generalizations, lack of coherence, additive structure, parallel structure, limited lexicon and syntax, and lack of "textual self-awareness" (48-49). On the other hand, visually developed text is meant "for the eye" (38) and is characterized by explicitness and explication, linearization, coherence, economy of language (i.e., redundancy and

repetition are stigmatized), richness of syntactic structures and stylistic features, and awareness of textual development (49). In fact, the mode a writer chooses is not unconditioned. Rather, it is the result of certain factors, such as the interactive function and the social relationship that the writer creates with the reader, the degree of solidarity and power between writers and readers, as well as writers' and readers' mutual preferences of mode based on their shared knowledge within specific social contexts (46). These factors may change from one language or discourse community to another.

Sa'adeddin argues that languages in general have both modes of text development; however, some languages prefer one mode over another, as is the case with the aural mode in Arabic and the visual mode in English (49-50). For native English-speakers, "An ideal written text is a surface orthographic representation of a linearly-developed, logically coherent, and syntactically cohesive unit of sense. It is an encoded message which he prefers to appreciate in isolation, in a noise-free setting, and in an environment which respects his conventions regarding social distance" (39). According to Sa'adeddin, this mode preference is not the same in Arabic:

> It differs by its aural mode of text development, which native Arabic producers utilize to establish a relationship of informality and solidarity with the receivers of the text. This is typically achieved by perceiving the artifacts of speech (while ensuring that they are grammatically well-formed) in their written text on the assumption that these are universally accepted markers of truthfulness, self-confidence, and linguistic competence (in the popular sense), as well as intimacy and solidarity. (39)

Therefore, Sa'adeddin concludes that the deviation from the English conventions found in the texts written by ESL/EFL Arab learners is not caused by the mistaken idea of transfer of Arabic thought patterns to English texts; rather, it is caused by the writers'

neglect of their readers' sociolinguistic expectations. Accordingly, those writers choose the inappropriate mode in developing the text (49).

However, regardless of the oral roots and aural mode of developing a text in Arabic, anthropological linguistics approaches the rhetorical differences in languages from another point of view, that is, that the type of society determines the type of argumentation and textual development. Koch argues that the correlation between "truths" and argumentation determines the mode of writing, i.e., argumentation will take the shape of "presentation" if truth is considered clear and universal, but if not, it will take the shape of "proof" when there is a need to prove and support the truth (53-54). In hierarchical societies, "where truths are not matters for individual decisions," presentation becomes the dominant means of argumentation, whereas in a democratic environment, "there is room for doubt about the truth, and thus for proof" (55). Unlike the proof mode of developing a text, presentation is characterized by repetition, parallelism, and the exposition of ideas with a prioritization of language over the logic it carries (55).

Koch argues that the Arabic rhetorical model is molded by anthropological and social factors represented by the Arab hierarchical societies (55), but just because Arabic is characterized by certain features associated with orality rather than literacy, such as coordination, parallelism, and repetition, does not mean that Arabic rhetoric is shaped only by the influence of oral roots (53). Affected by the "universal truths of the Qur'an," the historical roots of hierarchal society represented by Arab Caliphs, religious leaders, and, lately, colonial powers, Arabic argumentation is structured, therefore, by presentation (55). This hierarchical societal factor may account for the Arab students'

habit of writing in authoritative tones and with a strong presence of voice in both their L1 and L2 writings.

Metadiscourse

Languages have different techniques to make effective arguments. What is persuasive in one language does not necessarily mean that it is in other languages. English, influenced by the Aristotelian standard of proof, favors subordination in promoting ideas. Arabic, on the other hand, influenced by the verbal art of poetry, the Qur'an, the oratorical history in the pre-Islamic and Islamic eras (Abdul-Raof 3), and mainly by the hierarchal society norms, prefers presentation of ideas (Koch 55). In the light of these contrastive rhetorical roots, parameters, and features of English and Arabic, the phenomenon of metadiscourse as an aspect of rhetoric is supposedly affected in each language and especially when writing in second language.

The relative newness of metadiscourse, as is the case with any new theoretical field of study, has its own strengths and weaknesses. When a new concept appears, many scholars explore it and attempt to be pioneers in that field. On the other hand, their studies take them in different directions, which may lead to different reasoning and conclusions and, therefore, result in different terminologies for the same notion or vice versa, a matter that may confuse those interested in the subject. The definitions and boundaries of metadiscourse exemplify these different views, resulting in a lack of unanimity among scientists, which ultimately leaves the field without a theoretical rigor that can stand up to scrutiny. Until recently, the pioneering names associated with metadiscourse theory acknowledge that there is still controversy surrounding the

fuzziness of the concept and its lack of theoretical rigor (Vande Kopple, "Metadiscourse" 94; Hyland, *Metadiscourse* ix-x; Ädel 157; Swales 188). What is more interesting is that the fuzziness and different interpretations of metadiscourse functions seem to extend to readers and audiences. According to Walter Nash:

> The word 'metadiscourse' may have a reassuringly objective, 'scientific' ring, but its usage suggests boundaries of definition no more firmly drawn than those of, say, 'rhetoric' or 'style'. One reader may perceive a clear stylistic intention in something which another reader dismisses as a commonplace, 'automized' use of language. (100)

The following paragraphs review the literature of this interesting field and probe into its meaning, emergence, and development. In addition, the review will cover the theoretical underpinnings of the concept, and how it can best be conceptualized, i.e., linguistically versus rhetorically. In other words, can metadiscourse be best explained by linguistic or rhetorical theories? Finally, the review explores whether there is a single uniform model or a variety of metadiscourse models that have been produced.

Early Appearances of the Term. The term "metadiscourse" was originally coined by the American linguist Zellig Harris (Beauvais 11; Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 3); however, its functions had been utilized in written and oral discourse throughout history (Crismore, *Talking with Readers* 7). The term first appeared in a paper titled "Linguistic Transformations for Information Retrieval" presented at the International Conference on Scientific Information in 1959. In categorizing information status, Harris referred to metadiscourse as language "kernels" "which talk about the main material" (464), a "statement about discourse to the discourse itself" (608). In fact, what has brought metadiscourse to prominence is the growing interest in discourse analysis studies. In the attempts of analysts to decode language and identify information status, metadiscourse

has been identified as a level of writing that is "directive" rather than informative and serves the purpose of presenting writing as an "interpersonal interaction" (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 14).

In the 1980s, Metadiscourse witnessed a significant growth and was developed by many linguists, most prominently Deborah Schiffrin, Joseph M. Williams, John Sinclair, William Vande Kopple, Avon Crismore, and Paul j. Beauvais. Their research provided a considerable impetus that brought light to the concept and moved it forward towards the establishment of theoretical foundations (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 8). Interestingly, all researchers of metadiscourse, to a certain degree, share the same general starting point that Harris asserts: that metadiscourse is language about language. However, each has further examined the concept, identified its linguistic properties, and conceptualized it within a variety of theoretical frames, planes, levels, and functional categories. In the following, we briefly view their contributions to the concept.

In the late 1970s, Liisa Lautamatti categorized a text's features as topical (propositional) and non-topical (metalinguistic) (96) in her study about the effect of topical and non-topical features on readability. Lautamatti referred to metadiscourse as "non-topical linguistic material" that is not directly relevant to the discourse topic, but is still important in text in other ways, such as organizing discourse, expressing the writer's attitude, etc. (75-6). However, Schiffrin's study appears to be the first empirical research in the field. She manifests the organizational and evaluative functions of "meta-talk," which is the notion that language is not used only to convey information, but also to create social interactions (231). Williams defines Metadiscourse as the language used to write about the topic content (40). When writers refer to their acts of arguing and writing,

(such as *we will describe, argue, suggest, etc.*), they are using metadiscourse to distinguish these elements from the discoursal ones that are concerned with the core content (such as *we examine, compare, discover*) (40-41). He also listed a number of metadiscourse functions, such as "hedges and emphatics, sequencers and topicalizers, and attributors and narrators" (126-29).

John Sinclair provides a probing dynamic vision of language by drawing a clear distinction between the functions of discourse. He proposed two planes of discourse: the interactive and the autonomous planes (71-72). The former operates at the plane of the world outside the language, and the latter functions within the world of language (72). Giving authentic examples, he illustrates how different purposes of the writer and different types of genre can affect prioritizing one of the planes over the other (73-74). After centuries of focus only on the propositional content of language, following the view of the philosopher Locke, Sinclair's contribution to metadiscourse is of high importance as he was almost the only voice in the early 1980s who called attention to the significance of interactional features in language (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 7-8). Jennifer Coates' research refers to the tendency of focusing on the referential and informative functions of languages at the price of all other functions, which has prevailed among philosophers, linguists, and semanticists, as a "dangerous tendency" (113). Coates and Sinclair argue for studying the essential roles of non-referential linguistic expressions and meanings in order to evaluate the rhetorical features of metadiscourse (Vande Kopple, "Metadiscourse" 92).

Metadiscourse and Linguistic Theories. As mentioned earlier, metadiscourse initially emerged from the discourse analysis field, which in turn emerged from linguistic

theory. Therefore, it has been influenced by and examined within the context of linguistic theories, most importantly John Searle's Speech Act theory and Michael A. Halliday's Functional Linguistics Theory. It is worth mentioning that these two theories do not address metadiscourse directly, but rather provide a theoretical framework that other researchers and scholars have drawn on to account for metadiscourse phenomenon. Among those who have adopted Halliday's functional approach have been Vande Kopple, Crismore, Markkanen, and Stefenssen, and Hyland in his early works (such as "Persuasion"); Paul J. Beauvais adopted the speech act theory in (1989). Lately, Ädel adopted Roman Jakobson's theory of language functions as the foundation of his model of metadiscourse.

Halliday's view that language is "social behavior" (*Explorations* 40) has given language a broad context beyond the linguistic phenomenon. He argues that, in a social structure, language can perform three generalized functions: the ideational, interpersonal, and textual as follows:

> [T]he first set, the ideational, are concerned with the content of language, its function as means of the expression of our experience, both of the external world and of the inner world of our own experience... The second, the interpersonal, is language as mediator of role, including all that may be understood by the expression of our own personalities and personal feelings on the one hand, and forms of interaction and social interplay with other participants in the communication situation on the other hand. The third component, the textual, has an enabling function, that of creating a text ... it is in this component that enables the speaker to organize what he is saying in such a way that it makes sense in the context and fulfills its function as a message. (58)

The majority of metadiscourse theorists have adopted the interpersonal and textual functions in Halliday's model as the theoretical foundations for their definitions and models of metadiscourse (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 26).

With Vande Kopple in 1985, metadiscourse moved to a mature level of establishing theoretical underpinnings. Drawing on Williams's book *Style*, Lautamatti's article "Observations," and Halliday's *Explorations*, Vande Kopple produced the first theoretical model of metadiscourse ("Some Exploratory" 83). The interpersonal and textual functions represent the core stone of his model ("Some Exploratory"85; "Metadiscourse" 92-93). That is, under the interpersonal level, he lists metadiscourse categories of "illocution markers, validity markers, narrators, attitude markers, and bits of commentary" ("Some Exploratory" 87). And under textual markers, Vande Kopple suggests that text connectives (e.g., *therefore, however, moreover*, etc.) and code glosses (e.g., for example, *in other words*, etc.) are included ("Some Exploratory" 87).

In contrast, Paul J. Beauvais's study "A Speech Act Theory of Metadiscourse" argues against the functional view of metadiscourse (13), and attempts to overcome its conceptual flaws relating to the distinction between what is propositional and what is metadiscoursal by redefining the concept of metadiscourse "within the context of speech act theory" (26). Beauvais questions the imprecise definition and function of metadiscourse set by previous research "discourse about discourse" that "indicates an author's attempt to guide a reader's perception of a text" (11). Utilizing speech act theory, Beauvais distinguishes between a statement that conveys the proposition and a statement that conveys "an illocutionary act" (15-16); Beauvais' argument was based on Searle's distinction: "Stating and asserting are acts, but propositions are not acts. A proposition is what is asserted in the act of asserting, what is stated in the act of stating. The same point in a different way: an assertion is a (very special kind of) commitment to the truth of a proposition" (Searle 29). Regardless of the progress achieved towards

remedying the previous flaws in the theory of metadiscourse, Beauvais's argument still

constrains metadiscourse to illocutionary acts (*I doubt, I believe*, etc.), and does not

include other linguistic structures that reflect the writers' stances and viewpoints (Hyland,

Metadiscourse 20).

Apparently, until Vande Kopple's article, metadiscourse definitions seem to be

broad, imprecise, and limited. Scholars simply define it as "talk about the main material"

(Harris 464), "an author's discoursing about the discourse" (Crismore, *Metadiscourse* 2),

"writing about writing" (Williams 40), "discourse about discourse or communication

about communication" (Vande Kopple, "Some Exploratory" 83). In addition, these

definitions perceive metadiscourse as a secondary and supportive level to the primary

level (the propositional one) (Harris 464-66; Crismore, *Metadiscourse* 2; Vande Kopple,

"Some Exploratory" 83), and that metadiscourse function is to "<u>direct</u> the reader rather

than <u>inform</u>" (Crismore, *Metadiscourse* 2). Still, even with these functions assigned to

metadiscourse being secondary to the primary level of propositional content, the

distinction between what is propositional and what is metadiscoursal has not been totally

determined. Only the obvious functions and expressions of metadiscourse were identified

in the above works, such as some statements expressing connectives, code glosses, and

some of the writers' attitudes and commentaries.

Metadiscourse and Theory of Rhetoric. In the late 1980s and early 1990s,

conceptions of metadiscourse witnessed a turning point and moved from theories of

linguistics towards the rhetorical theory in general. As argued by Crismore,

metadiscourse is "a social, rhetorical instrument" (*Talking with Reader* 4). Constructing

the rhetorical-based theory of metadiscourse, Crismore examined the term in light of

linguistic disciplines as well as others. Linguistically, he employs psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, speech act theory, and functional grammar. He also utilizes other disciplines, such as semiotics, philosophy, speech communication, and rhetoric (*Talking with Readers* 50). Crismore surmises that although the term was understood and viewed differently by these disciplines (50-97), they all agree that metadiscourse exists in both oral and written communication, and they all share significant areas of agreement about metadiscourse (89-92). Crismore considers metadiscourse a different level from the primary one, that is the "propositions and referential meaning," and it is "embedded in a rhetorical, situational context that determines appropriateness of type, form, amount, style, aim and function" (90). Crismore's contribution in constructing the rhetorical-based theory is substantial, especially in viewing the concept of metadiscourse within the modern view of rhetoric, which she says "can be best described as sociological" (102). Moreover, the rhetorical triangle about the relationships and dominant roles among authors, readers, and the world, as illustrated by Crismore (100-130), has become central to metadiscourse and has paved the way for rhetoricians and linguists to conceptualize the term from different points of view.

Conceptualizing metadiscourse in terms of theory of rhetoric has been supported and followed by later scholars. They argue that metadiscourse cannot be identified by specific linguistic criteria (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 25), nor by certain linguistic structures (Beauvais 13). In fact, metadiscourse is a functional aspect of language that can be achieved through a wide range of linguistic structures and units including but not limited to punctuation marks, parts of speech, whole clauses, and even particular sequences of sentences (Hyland and Tse 157). Hyland describes metadiscourse as a social act in which

there are no specific linguistic features but there are specific strategies and personal choices writers make at certain points in their writing to serve certain rhetorical purposes (*Metadiscourse* 25).

In contrast to applying metadiscourse to linguistic studies, it is easily applied into rhetorical research. Hyland explores it in light of serving the rhetorical means of persuasion (ethos, pathos, and logos). Ethos "concerns the character of the speaker and his or her credibility"; Pathos "concerns affective appeals and focuses on the characteristics of the audience rather than the speaker"; and Logos "concerns the speech itself, its arrangement, length, complexity, types of evidence and arguments" (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 64-65). He explores how metadiscourse resources are used to achieve three purposes in CEO letters. He finds that by using metadiscourse markers, writers show their readers significant information by using code glosses and frame markers, as in the example he quoted from his data: "Before discussing this however, I would like to highlight some of the positives" (76); they establish their credibility, authority, and persona by using hedges and boosters, as in the example he quoted: "we firmly believe we are well positioned to become multi-media technology leader" (78-79); they engage their readers and consider their attitudes by using attitude and engagement markers. An example he cited shows how Elec and Eltek company chose to directly address their shareholders: "As we enter the third era, your company can be counted upon to play an important part …" (82-84). In fact, Hyland's study on CEO letters, especially the authentic examples he illustrates, is illuminating as it shows the direct relationship between metadiscourse and rhetorical purposes.

Another great study of exploring metadiscourse in light of rhetoric is "Mr. Darwin and his Readers" by Crismore and Fransworth. They analyze and show how effectively Darwin utilizes metadiscourse resources to create the ethos to which his great success in the *On Origin of Species* is attributed (110). Their study reveals how a distinguished scholar like Darwin utilizes these linguistic tools for many functions: to create a respectable interaction with his readers, to express probability or certainty, and to hedge his claims in order to establish his ethos. They have found that although hedges (*may, might, it could be*) dominate his discourse, many other pragmatic and contextual functions have been remarkably achieved by the use of modality and attitude markers (110). An example of Darwin's effective use of metadiscourse can be seen in this quote: "This view, I may add, was first suggested by Andrew Knight. We shall presently see its importance; but I must here treat the subject with extreme brevity, though I have the materials prepared for an ample discussion" (Darwin qtd. in Crismore and Fransworth 96. Underline added). In these two sentences, one can see how interpersonal resources are utilized to mitigate the argument in one part of the proposition and to express necessity in others. Following Halliday, Crismore and Fransworth conclude that to achieve educational and rhetorical success, scholars, teachers, and students need to consider that controlling the expression of interpersonal relations in writing is as important as controlling the expression of the propositional content (110).

Controversies Surrounding Metadiscourse. In addition to the arguments regarding definitions and theoretical foundations of metadiscourse, there are others regarding its external and internal boundaries. External boundaries distinguishing discoursal meaning from metadiscoursal meaning has been problematic since the

appearance of the concept. This blurred picture is caused by conceptualizing writing as separate levels of meaning, i.e., a primary level that communicates the propositional content, and a secondary level that directs and helps readers. This distinction, which is also referred to as "transactional" in that it carries information, and "interactional" in that it carries the affect (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 6), has affected the status and understanding of metadiscourse. Vande Kopple argues that what makes him consider metadiscourse a different level from the primary level is that metadiscourse tools "do not expand the propositional information of the text. They do not make claims about states of affairs in the world that can be either true or false. They do not carry a message" ("Some Exploratory" 85). Viewing metadiscourse as a separate level from the discourse level seems to be one of the areas of agreement about metadiscourse, yet some scholars have another viewpoint. For example, Hyland strongly argues against the concept of separate levels and claims that a text is a completely integrative and communicative unit, and not a list of propositions, and the meaning of any text "depends on the integration of its component elements, both prepositional and metadiscoursal, and these do not work independently of each other" (*Metadiscourse* 23). He also adds that the ways of presenting information and reflecting the writer's stance and attitudes towards the argument can be as important as those that convey the propositional content itself (20).

While many theorists have drawn distinctions between metadiscourse (interpersonal and textual) and discourse (ideational), Halliday himself believes in the integration of these functions. He asserts that whenever language is used to convey human experience, "there is something else going on" and language is "always" performing the speaker or writer's social and personal relationships with an audience

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(*Halliday's Introduction to Functional grammar* 54-6). He also emphasizes the multi-functional principle, that is, that one theme may have more than one function. For example, a theme could be ideational for some reasons and at the same time interpersonal for other reasons (*An Introduction to Functional Grammar* 56). This notion is also emphasized by Crismore who points out that "what is metadiscourse in one situation may be discourse in another" (*Metadiscourse* 49). It seems that the line between propositional meaning and metadiscoursal meaning is sometimes clear, but sometimes stretches very thin. Only context can determine whether a linguistic item is a discourse or metadiscourse. For instance, *in contrast* in (1.a) is propositional, as the writer uses it to compare the features of Asian and Western cultures; (1.b) is metadiscoursal, as it alters readers' thoughts about what has already by been set forth by previous assertions, and leads them to a new logical proposition in the argument (Hyland 46):

1.a "In contrast to Western culture, Asian societies put emphasis on an interdependent view of self and collectivism" (textbook, qtd. in Hyland 46).

1.b "In contrast, these findings were not found among the low collectivists" (PhD dissertation, qtd. in Hyland 46).

The second argument about internal boundaries of metadiscourse is found within its subcategories and stems from the different views of theorists and analysts through their adoption of different approaches (e.g., functional, linguistic, or rhetoric). However, there are considerable areas of agreement among analysts regarding some metadiscoursal functions and categories, especially textual functions, such as code glosses and transitions. On the other hand, areas of disagreement can be seen in the interpersonal functions, especially among attitudinal, evaluative, and commentary metadiscourse

(Hyland 33). Swales refers to how difficult it is to establish metadiscourse boundaries in practice compared to how easy it is to accept them in principle (188). He illustrates that the word *therefore* can function as a connective, or lexical familiarization, and sometimes as a code gloss (188). Illustrating some commentary expressions, he questions whether these expressions function only as commentary, express authorial attitudes, or advise the readers (118). Because of these indefinite external and internal boundaries, taxonomies of metadiscourse have emerged, to a certain extent, with a variety of different categories that reflect these different views.

Metadiscourse Models. As mentioned earlier, metadiscourse theorists seem to have different visions about the definitions, theoretical foundations, and external and internal boundaries of metadiscourse and, therefore, produce models with different categories and functions. These convergences and divergences in the categories and their functions are also attributed to the approaches adopted by theorists, especially the functional approach —adopted by Vande Kopple and his followers— and the rhetorical approach — adopted by Crismore and her followers. In the following the emergence and development of metadiscourse models will be reviewed.

Starting with the principle that language performs multi-functions, Sinclair proposes two planes of discourse, the autonomous (ideational) and the interactive (metadiscoursal). Under the metadiscourse plane, he lists six categories: predictions (e.g., *there are two kinds of …*), anticipations (e.g., *usually* in "Fruit drinks usually contain high quantities of sugar"), self-reference (e.g., *This article is*), discourse labelling (e.g., "*Heat is defined as*"), cross-reference (e.g., "*see Roe, 1977*"), and participant intervention (e.g., "*we allow a wide margin of error*") (74-75). He states that by using

language, "we make text by negotiating our affairs with each other. At any point, the decision about what effect utterances should aim at, what acts they should perform, or what features of the world they should incorporate, are decisions of interactive plane" (72). Thus, his six categories reflect these interactive functions. Williams in his book *Style* suggests the following types: hedges and emphatics, sequencers and topicalizers, and attributors and narrators (126-128). Williams' categories of metadiscourse seem to be very broad and overlapping. For example, he defines the metadiscourse categories of "attributors and narrators" as they "tell your reader where you got your ideas or facts or opinions," and he gives examples that reflect only attitudinal expressions, such as "*I was concerned with," "I attempted,"* and *"I think*" (128).

Drawing on Williams and Lautamatti and adopting Halliday's functional approach of language ("Some Exploratory" 83-85), Vande Kopple proposes the first theoretical taxonomy of metadiscourse that has been followed by many analysts in the field (Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 32). The taxonomy consists of seven subcategories classified under two main categories, textual and interpersonal (see Table 1).

This model has been utilized by analysts since 1985; however it has been subjected to many revisions and modifications by theorists including Vande Kopple himself. Hyland points out some conceptual and practical flaws in this taxonomy, especially those of overlapping functions between the attributors and narrators, validity and illocution markers, and attitude and commentary markers (32-3). Avon Crismore, Raija Markkanen, and Margaret S. Steffensen make considerable modifications and revisions, which Vande Kopple considers when revising his own model in 2002.

Table 1. Vande Kopple's 1985 Model of Metadiscourse. (All information, definitions, and examples are quoted from Vande Kopple's original work, "Some Exploratory" (83-86).)

Metadiscourse categories	Definitions and Examples
Text connectives	Guide readers as smoothly as possible through our texts and to help them construct appropriate representations of them in memory. - Sequences *(first, next, in the third place)* - Logical or temporal relationship *(however, nevertheless)* - Reminders *(as I noted in Chapter One)* - Announcements *(as we shall see in the next section)*.
Code glosses	Help readers grasp the appropriate meanings of elements in texts. Some-times we judge that we should define or explain a word, phrase, or idiom.
Illocution markers	Make explicit to our readers what speech or discourse act we are performing at certain points in our texts, for example (*I hypothesize that, to sum up, we claim that*).
Validity markers	Express our view of the validity of the propositional material we convey. Some of these are: - Hedges *(perhaps, may, might, seem)* - Emphatics *(clearly, undoubtedly)* - Attributors *(according to Einstein)*.
Narrators	Let readers know who said or wrote something. For example, (*according to James, Mrs. Wilson announced that*).
Attitude markers	Allows us to reveal our attitudes toward the propositional content. For example, (*surprisingly, I find it interesting that, and it is alarming to note that*).
Commentary	Address readers directly, often appearing to draw them into an implicit dialogue with us. For example, (*you might wish to read the last chapter first*).

Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen propose a model of metadiscourse, which is a modified version of Vande Kopple's. They retain the two main categories, interpersonal

and textual, but they reorganize, dissemble, and separate the subcategories (46). The main modifications involve dropping the subcategories of "temporal connectives" and "narrators"; renaming the category of text connectives as "textual markers"; shifting announcements, illocution markers, and code glosses to a new category named "interpretive markers" because they are used to assist the reader to better understand the writer's intended meaning (46-47). For the second main category, interpersonal metadiscourse, validity markers are separated into three distinct subcategories: hedges, attributors, and certainty markers (46). Narrators are combined with attributors since they both are utilized to persuade and inform readers about the sources of ideas (46), as shown in the following list:

Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen's 1993 Revised Model of Metadiscourse

I. TEXTUAL METADISCOURSE (used for logical and ethical appeals)

1. Textual Markers
- Logical connectives
- Sequencers
- Reminders
- Topicalizers

2. Interpretive Markers
- Code glosses
- Illocution Markers
- Announcements

II. INTERPERSONAL METADISCOURSE (used for emotional and ethical appeals)

3. Hedges (epistemic certainty markers)
4. Certainty Markers (epistemic emphatics)
5. Attributors
6. Attitude Markers
7. Commentary

(Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen, "Metadiscourse in Persuasive Writing" 47).

Vande Kopple's taxonomy has been constantly revised by others, such as Nash who suggests two main categories: Tactical metadiscourse and lexical metadiscourse (100-01), which seem to be parallel to the textual and interpersonal categories in Vande Kopple's taxonomy with differences in the terms and some examples of subcategories. Hyland's first model in "Talking to Students" also retains the two main categories but adds and changes many subcategories, for example, "frame markers," "endophoric markers," and "evidentials" were added to the textual category, and "relational markers" and "personal markers" were added to the interpersonal metadiscourse (7). Interestingly, Vande Kopple himself revises his taxonomy in his study "Metadiscourse, Discourse." In the revised taxonomy, validity markers were renamed "epistemology markers" with a slight difference in the definition. Hedges and emphatics were combined under one category, "Modality markers". Attributors and narrators were also melted in one category, "Evidentials". He also emphasizes that analysts need to be aware of the multi-functionality feature of metadiscourse that items can function as discoursal in some contexts and metadiscoursal in others (Some Exploratory 94).

Working on metadiscourse for more than two decades since 1994, Hyland has found that in order to propose an analytically reliable and theoretically accurate taxonomy of metadiscourse it is necessary to reconsider the definition and boundaries of metadiscourse. Hence, he redefines metadiscourse as "the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community" (*Metadiscourse* 37). He emphasizes the fact that metadiscourse theoretical aspects can only be realized and found meaningful in the context they occur

in, and therefore metadiscourse analysis should be conducted in terms of "community practices, values and ideals" (37). Co-authoring with Polly Tse ("Metadiscourse in Academic Writing" 159), he sets three key principles to reconsider the theoretical underpinning of the concept and to settle down the long-standing controversies surrounding metadiscourse. The principles are as follow:

1. "That metadiscourse is distinct from propositional aspects of discourse" (159). Following Malinkowski's notion that "language in its primitive function and original form has an essentially pragmatic character; that it is a mode of behaviour, an indispensable element of concerted human action" (316), Hyland argues that metadiscourse is not secondary to the primary level, nor a separate level, it is simply a "specialized" level of discourse (*Metadiscourse* 39). He asserts that metadiscourse need not to be seen as merely the "glue" that connects propositions in texts, or only "commentary" on content; rather, it is an essential element of the text meaning that helps "relate text to its context" by taking into consideration the reader's needs, existing knowledge, understandings, relative status, and intertextual experiences (41).

2. "That metadiscourse refers to aspects of the text that embody writer-reader interaction" (159). This point announces a departure from Halliday's three functions of language and their influence on the metadiscourse models. The interpersonal and textual functions proposed by Halliday have been the underpinning for all the metadiscourse models proposed by researchers including Hyland in his early works. However, Hyland and Tse later argue that all metadiscourse functions are interpersonal, as they should embody the interactions needed for effective communication ("Metadiscourse in Academic Writing" 161-164; Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 41). To illustrate this, Hyland

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shows how previous models do not tell how to distinguish between the ideational and

textual functions of Connectives (*Metadiscourse* 41-42). He argues that what

distinguishes between these two functions is the interpersonal intent and choices of the

writers who consider their readers' needs and knowledge. Therefore, they are

interpersonal rather than textual in that they connect or reorganize propositions, a

function that overlaps with the ideational category (*Metadiscourse* 41-42). The textual

category of metadiscourse is therefore part of interpersonal aspects of discourse (45).

> 2.a "A marketing research project is undertaken to help resolve a specific marketing problem, but <u>first</u> the problem must be clearly defined" (Marketing textbook, qtd. in Hyland 42),

> 2.b "<u>First,</u> preheat the oven to 190 degrees C. Lightly grease 10 muffins cups, or line with muffin papers" (banana muffin recipe, qtd. in Hyland 42).

In these two examples, Hyland shows that in (2.a) *first* functions "ideationally," whereas

in (2.b) it functions "interactionally" (42).

3. "That metadiscourse refers only to relations with which are internal to the

discourse" (159). Linguistic items are metadiscourse as long as they serve internal

relationships to the argument rather than external (experiential) activities and processes

(Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 46). In other words, Additives can be used with external

meaning to add activities, but with internal meaning to add arguments (51). The same can

be said about Consequence markers, which are used with external meaning to explain

how and why things happen, but with internal meaning to counter arguments or draw

conclusions (51).

By drawing on the three above principles that, to a certain degree, remedy some

conceptual flaws in the previous models, and by utilizing the interactive and interactional

terms proposed by Thompson and Thetela (106-7), Hyland proposes his "Interpersonal

Model of Metadiscourse" (see Table 2)

Table 2. Hyland's 2005 Model of Interpersonal Metadiscourse (*Metadiscourse* 49).

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	Help to guide the reader through the text	Resources
Transitions	Express relations between main clauses	*In addition; but; thus; and*
Frame markers	Refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	*Finally; to conclude; my purpose is*
Endophoric markers	Refer to information in other parts of the text	*Noted above; see fig; in section 2*
Evidentials	Refer to information from other texts	*According to X; Z states*
Code glosses	Elaborate propositional meanings	*Namely; e.g.; such as; in other words*
Interactional	Involve the reader in the text	Resources
Hedges	Withhold commitment and open dialogue	*Might; perhaps; possible; about*
Boosters	Emphasize certainty or close dialogue	*In fact; definitely; it is clear that*
Attitude markers	Express writer's attitude to proposition	*Unfortunately; I agree; surprisingly*
Self mentions	Explicit reference to author(s)	*I; we; my; me; our*
Engagement markers	Explicitly build relationship with the reader	*Consider; note; you can see that*

What distinguishes this model from the earlier ones is that it consists of only two main categories, interactive and ineractional. Interactive metadiscourse markers are utilized to organize the propositions and to maintain information flow so that the reader will find a text coherent and readable (*Metadiscourse* 50). For these resources to perform their functions, it depends on the writer's knowledge about his audience, and his assessment of what they need to have elaborated, illustrated, and clarified so that they can fully understand the text (*Metadiscourse* 51). Interactional resources involve both writers and readers, i.e., writers can establish relationships with their readers by displaying their personas, expressing their views, and altering the readers' perspective (*Metadiscourse* 52). To establish a social relationship that meets the norms of a particular discourse community, these resources are used to acknowledge the readers' uncertainties, focus their attention, and guide them to conclusions and interpretations (*Metadiscourse* 52).

Hyland's first version of his metadiscourse model, called *Metadiscourse Schema* presented in his study "Talking to Students" is not quite similar to the present-day model, "An Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse," in Table 2. Hyland has continued to use the above model in his following studies (e.g., "Metadiscourse: Mapping Interactions in Academic Writing"). However, co-authoring with Xiaoli Fu in their study "Interaction in Two Journalistic Genres," Hyland has made a very slight modification on the model by adding some resources, "directives" and "shared knowledge" under the "engagement" subcategory (128).

Annelie Ädel in her book *Metadiscourse in L1 and L2 English* announces her departure from the Halliday model of language functions and her adoption to Roman Jakobson's model of language functions as the basis for her alternative model of

metadiscourse (13). Ädel rationalizes her choice of Jakobson's theory as having the following advantages: "(a) that it emphasises reflexivity as a basic feature, (b) that including the writer and reader in their roles as writer and reader makes the concept less decontextualised … and (c) that what we may call the 'proposition problem' is avoided" (182). The reflexive triangle of text, writer, and reader, which represents Jakobson's functions of language (metalinguistic, directive, and expressive) (44), and the notion of language reflexivity are central to Ädel's "reflexive-model" (17). (See Fig. 2).

	METADISCOURSE		STANCE	PARTICIPATION	
WORLD OF DISCOURSE	Guiding the reader and commenting on the use of language ("Metatext")	Interacting with the imagined reader ("Writer-reader interaction")	Expressing opinion and attitudes to phenomena in the real world	Narrating personal experience of the real world	REAL WORLD

Fig. 2. Ädel's Reflexive-Model of Metadiscourse (Ädel 17).

The first category, "Metatext," includes two sub-categories: impersonal (text-oriented) and personal (participant-oriented, writer-oriented, and reader-oriented). The second category, "Writer-Reader Interaction," consists of participant-oriented and reader-oriented subcategories (38). The third and fourth categories also include the same reader, writer, and participant- oriented markers of stance and of participation (38).

Metadiscourse models appear to be convergent in some points and divergent in others. The different foundational approaches (linguistic, functional, or rhetorical) adopted by theorists have a dominant influence on their models. Hyland's model appears

to be the most convenient one since it identifies and remedies the fundamental flaws that accompanied metadiscourse theory for a while. Therefore, it is adopted for analyzing data in this study.

   Previous Studies of Metadiscourse in Research Articles. Studies exploring metadiscourse have had a variety of purposes and adopt different methodologies. For example, some studies examined metadiscourse to prove its relationship to linguistic theory, such as Beauvais's study, others to prove its relationship to rhetoric, such as Crismore and Farnsworth's study "Mr. Darwin and his readers," and Hyland's "CEO letters." Other studies explored the concept either within a particular genre, or across genres. Examples of studies within a single genre are Elisabeth Le's study "Active Participation within Written Argumentation," which investigated metadiscourse in the newspaper *Le Monde* to construct active engagement and participation within the newspaper editorials' argumentation. Other examples of investigating metadiscourse within a particular genre are Hyland and Tse's study "Metadiscourse in Academic Writing;" and Fu and Hyland's "Interaction in two Journalistic Genres." Studies of metadiscourse across genres are found in Hyland' book *Metadiscourse* (144,145, and 162).

   Metadiscourse studies that use contrastive rhetoric and examine the use of metadiscourse across cultures are growing and focusing on pedagogical implications for EFL and ESL students. Examples of these studies are Hinkel's book *Second Language Writers' Text* and her study "Hedging, Inflating and Persuading" in which she investigates rhetorical features that are inherently metadiscoursal such as hedges, emphatics, personal pronouns, and engagement and illocution markers. Huaqing Hong

and Feng Cao's study "Interactional Metadiscourse" investigates the use of metadiscourse by Polish, Chinese, and Spanish learners of English as a foreign language (EFL). The study found significant differences in the use of interactional markers among the three participant groups (201) and between the two types of essays, argumentative and descriptive (214-15). Herriman's study "Metadiscourse in English and Swedish Non-Fiction Texts and Their Translations" examines metadiscourse use in two corpora, Swedish and English, as well as in the translation of each sample into the opposite language. The study shows, for example, that the high frequency of boosters in the Swedish texts tends to be replaced with hedges when translated into English texts (1). She attributes the difference in employing metadiscourse functions to the differences in the writing conventions of each language (1). In their study "A Cross Cultural Analysis of Textual and Interpersonal Metadiscourse Markers," Abbas Mehrabi Boshrabadi, Reza Biria, and Zahra Zavari examine the textual and interpersonal metadiscourse employed in economic news reports written by American and Iranian writers. They found that while American writers employ more interpersonal resources than Iranian writers do, Iranians use textual metadiscourse more frequently than their American counterparts do. They attributed these differences to the different cultural and organizational backgrounds of the two groups of authors (59).

Metadiscourse studies are essentially corpus-based studies concentrating on written texts; however, recently more attention has been paid towards examining metadiscourse within the spoken mode. For example, Lundell's study "Cross-platform Television" explores the influence of metadiscourse on creating a new type of sociability through metadiscourse and how this can direct audience orientation. Beata Latawiec's

dissertation, *Metadiscourse in Oral Discussions and Persuasive Essays of Children exposed to Collaborative Reasoning*, focuses on how children use metadiscourse features in discussion with their peers and also in writing. Marta Aguilar's book *Metadiscourse in Academic Speech* examines the metadiscourse used in the spoken academic genre among novices, peers and experts in the engineering field (149-152). Lee and Subtirelu's study "Metadiscourse in the Classroom" examines the use of metadiscourse by teachers in academic lectures and English for academic purposes (EAP) classes.

In regard to methodology, researchers adopt different models of metadiscourse and different types of analysis. Hyland's and Vande Kopple's models are the most frequently used in metadiscourse studies. Some analysts run software programs, especially with huge corpora, e.g., Ädel's study; others prefer the manual tagging as they believe that it is the context that determines what is metadiscourse or what is not, or what function is intended in that situation, e.g. Hinkel studies.

The Arabic-English contrastive rhetorical studies of metadiscourse are of two types: those that examine for general or particular rhetorical features in English texts written by Arabic speakers, and those that focus directly on metadiscourse categories and functions. Examples of the former are: Mousa A. Btoosh and Abeer Q. Taweel, Hinkel, Aisha Mohammed-Sayidina, among others. Examples of the latter are: Maha El-Seidi, Khalid M. Al Wahibee, and Abbas H.J. Sultan.

Aisha Mohammed-Sayidina examines a particular type of metadiscourse, additive transitions. She finds that Arab learners of English use additives significantly more than the other kinds of transitions, such as causative and adversative. She argues that this overuse of this particular type of transition is attributed to the influence of a speaker's

first language rhetoric (263). The same results about overuse of certain metadiscourse resources and underuse of others are found in the studies of Btoosh and Taweel, and Hinkel. They investigate the use of hedges and intensifiers, and find that due to the rhetorical pattern of classic Arabic, Arab students writing in English overuse intensifiers as a technique of persuasion and, accordingly, do not utilize hedges (Hinkel, "Hedging" 33; Btoosh and Taweel 205). Btoosh and Taweel rely on Sa'adeddin's description that Arabic text is written to be delivered and received aurally, in contrast with the English text that is developed to be reader-friendly (Sa'adeddin 39). They argue that it is because of these different purposes for which texts are written that metadiscourse is employed differently (209).

El-Seidi mainly focuses on the validity markers (hedges and emphatics) and attitude markers in Arabic and English argumentative texts written by native and non-native speakers of the two languages. The corpus of her study consists of 160 essays: Arab participants wrote 40 argumentative texts in English and 40 in Arabic, and the same number and types of texts were written by the English-speaking participants. The findings show that Arab writers use more emphatics than hedges in both texts they produced (122), while English native speakers use higher frequency of hedges than emphatics in the English and Arabic texts they produced (123). According to El-Seidi, these findings strongly support the rhetoric transfer hypothesis; however, another phenomenon found in the results could provide a counterevidence to the rhetoric transfer hypothesis. She found that English native speakers employed more emphatics in their Arabic texts than in their English texts. Explaining this phenomenon, El-Seidi argued that

the English writers were trying to conform to the conventions of the second language (123).

Al Wahibee compares the use of metadiscourse in three groups of compositions, English texts written by native speakers and Arabic speakers, and Arabic texts written by the same Arabic speakers. The only significant difference found in the study was that in the Arabic texts written by Arab students, text connectives were used 59% more than in the other two types of compositions (77). He points out that the overuse of text connectives in Arabic texts is attributed to the use of three Arabic prepositions, which are all equivalent to the English conjunction *and* (77). Excluding the organization of the texts, he finds no evidence of transfer from Arabic rhetoric to English texts (97) as Arab students used metadiscourse features in a similar way as did the speakers of other languages (93). Abbas Sultan in his study "A Contrastive Study of Metadiscourse in English and Arabic Linguistics Research Articles" finds that Arabic-speaking researchers use more interactive metadiscourse, whose main function is organizing discourse (Hyland 49), than English researchers do (Sultan 38). This means that Arab writers care more about the textual aspects than they do about interactional aspects (Sultan 38), whose main function is organizing the writer-reader relationship (Hyland 49-50). Sultan also argues that the Arab writers' overuse of metadiscourse markers in general is attributed to the higher attention they pay to the formality of the text than to its content (38).

Most of the abovementioned contrastive studies, focusing on Arab learners of English, appear to be general rather than specific in showing results. Most of these studies deal with the categories and subcategories without going deeper into the actual use, i.e., the quality and quantity of items and expressions used in these categories. For

example, they did not show what hedges or boosters are used, or what variety of repertoire the writers employ. Instead, they deal with quantitative analysis, and provide and compare only numbers and percentages. Of course, there are exceptions to this generalization that can be seen in some illuminating works that deeply probe into metadiscourse categories and analyze its use, such as in the studies of Ädel, Hyland, Crismore, and Hinkel.

The above findings show both similarities and differences. On one hand, one can see some common results, such as the universality of metadiscourse across languages, the broad similarity in the quantitative use of metadiscourse markers in general, the employment of more interactive or textual categories than the interactional or interpersonal categories, and the use of more boosters than hedges. On the other hand, these studies reveal some contradictory results, especially in regard to supporting or refuting the rhetorical transfer hypothesis. Some researchers argue for rhetorical transfer (Btoosh and Taweel 205; Hinkel 33; Mohammed-Sayidina 263), others find no evidence for transfer (Al Wahibee 97; El-Seidi 123; Sultan 38). Another area of differences is the quantitative results of metadiscourse. Although all the mentioned studies analyzed texts sharing the same background, written by students in academic fields, they show different quantitative results. These different results may be attributed to the different factors of the study design, such as which model is adopted, which methodology is involved (software tagging vs. manual tagging), or what statistical test is used.

Studies that examined metadiscourse in the writing of ESL/EFL Arab learners appear to be few and limited in the scope of comparing the ESL/EFL Arab learners' metadiscourse with the native speakers' one. None of these studies examine the effect of

learning environment (i.e., ESL vs. EFL environment), or the effect of the time factor

(i.e., using a case study). Such research can be of high importance to help understand

what other factors may affect second language learners' metadiscourse.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

Participants and Corpus

To accomplish the two tasks set forth in this study, i.e., comparing the use of metadiscourse between EFL and ESL groups, and observing the progression of metadiscourse use in a case study group, the researcher collected data from three groups of participants. The whole number of participants included 25 advanced students sharing almost the same background factors with only two variables under question: NSs versus NNSs, and the environment of study of the NNSs (EFL and ESL). The 15 NNSs are Arabic speakers from Iraq, and 10 are American NSs of English. Below are the details of the three groups:

1. EFL group: 10 Iraqi students pursuing their master's degrees in English with an emphasis in linguistics, TESOL, and translation in Iraq at the University of Baghdad and Al-Mustansiriya University.

2. ESL group: 5 Iraqi students pursuing their master's degrees in English with an emphasis in TESOL or English literature in the U.S. at Missouri State University, English Department. This group is also the case study group whose research papers were analyzed over the period of two years.

3. Control group: 10 American students pursuing their master's degrees in English with an emphasis in TESOL, or English literature in the U.S. at Missouri State University, English Department. Data from this group was used as a benchmark for comparing and contrasting the use of metadiscourse by the two Iraqi groups.

The data collected were research papers written by the participants as a class requirement in their academic programs. The whole corpus consists of 35 research papers with a total of 150,793 words. One research paper was collected from each participant in the EFL group and the Control group during their second or third semester. For the ESL group, one research paper was collected from each of the 5 participants at three stages

over a period of two years. In the first stage, data was collected from their papers in the exit level of graduate students (502) at the English Language Institute (ELI); in the second stage, data was collected from their papers during the first semester of their academic programs at MSU; and in the last stage, data was collected from their papers during their final or semi-final semester at MSU.

It is important to mention that selecting those three groups and their papers was based on criteria that ensure accurate results. According to Swale and Connor, conducting a contrastive study of texts will be effective only if it is conducted on data of similar genre, written under similar conditions, for similar goals (Swale 65; Connor, *Contrastive Rhetoric* 24). Thus, the first criterion in this study was choosing participants sharing the same academic background, i.e., all of the participants are graduate students pursuing their Master's degrees in English with emphasis in TESOL, linguistics, or English literature. The second criterion is that all papers were written as part of a class requirement, evaluated by the professors, and given at least a B-. The only two variables were the mother tongue of participants between the first two groups (Iraqi ESL and EFL students) and the third group (American students- Control group), and the environment of study between the first group (EFL in Iraq) and the second group (ESL in the U.S.). The first variable is intended to examine the difference of use between native and non-native speakers of English. The second variable is intended to examine the differences in using metadiscourse between ESL and EFL environments.

Prior approval for this project was obtained from the Missouri State University IRB (February 25, 2015; Approval # 15-0332). After completing the Institutional Review Board (IRB) training at MSU, the researcher collected the papers personally from

participants in the second and third groups, and through email from the first group. All

subjects voluntarily participated in the study and signed consent forms.

Hypotheses

1. Based on the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis that L1 cultural conventions and rhetorical features affect L2 writing, Arab advanced learners of English in EFL and ESL environments will use metadiscourse markers quantitatively and qualitatively different from those of the American student writers.

2. Based on the different feedback and proofreading received from native English - speaking professors and non-native English-speaking professors, Arab advanced learners of English in the ESL environment will show more conformity to the Anglo-American conventions when using metadiscourse markers in establishing ethos, pathos, and logos than their EFL counterparts do.

3. According to the results of previous studies conducted on Arab learners of English, the influence of Arabic rhetorical patterns on both ESL and EFL advanced Arab English learners will be dominant in only particular categories of metadiscourse, namely boosters, self mentions, and evidentials.

4. The ESL case study group's metadiscourse will undergo a significant quantitative and qualitative change because of their exposure to the Anglo-American academic writing conventions throughout the program.

Research Questions

To test the above hypotheses, the study seeks to answer the following research

questions:

1. By using metadiscourse markers, in which environment, EFL or ESL, does the writing of advanced Iraqi English learners show conformity to English academic writing conventions?

2. Is there any evidence of transfer of metadiscourse from Arabic rhetoric into the students' English texts?

3. Compared to the Control group's use of metadiscourse, does the ESL case study group show development and greater conformity to English academic writing conventions over time?

Model of Metadiscourse and the Expressions Targeted

Hyland's model "An Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse" mentioned in the literature review in Table 2 (see p. 39) was used for analyzing the data. The main reason for adopting this model is that it overcomes the conceptual flaws in the understanding of metadiscourse, especially those of external and internal boundaries of metadiscourse. For pedagogical practices, Hyland's model appears to be applicable and straightforward, with clear definitions and many examples for each category provided in the appendix of his book *Metadiscourse* (218-224).In addition to the clear borders between categories and the more than 500 metadiscourse items provided in the appendix of the book, researchers can easily apply the definitions and examples provided in each subcategory. See the Appendix, for the list of more than 500 metadiscourse expressions targeted in the study (taken from *Metadiscourse* 218-24).

Procedures

The same analytical procedures were used for both phases of the study, the cross-sectional phase — comparing the use of metadiscourse markers between ESL (final semester) and EFL Iraqi learners in contrast with the Control group's use— and the longitudinal phase – observing the metadiscourse use by the ESL case study group. To carry out the first step of analysis, all 35 research papers were printed out and read carefully. A second reading of each paper included manually highlighting the metadiscourse items and identifying in which category and subcategory they belong. Excel software with the list of more than 500 metadiscourse items from Hyland's *Metadiscourse* appendix was prepared for each group. The highlighted items were

categorized, counted, and totaled across participants. These procedures were done for each participant's paper individually, to carefully determine the real meaning of the items according to the contexts in which they occur. Metadiscourse markers found in quotations were excluded, as they did not reflect the students' use.

There were strong reasons to tag the metadiscourse items manually instead of using a concordance software program. First, almost all metadiscourse markers can be propositional or metadiscoursal, according to their use in the text, and the present study only looked at the latter. Second, according to the context, the same metadiscourse marker could function in more than one category (for example, *in fact* can function as a code gloss when it elaborates a propositional meaning, or it functions as a booster when it emphasizes certainty). Finally, metadiscourse markers may be employed by the writer not to explain his stance, but to indicate others' stances. Concordance programs, therefore, cannot read the context and determine which items are being used as metadiscourse and which are not, or in which category each item belongs.

To obtain accurate results, three statistical procedures were conducted. First, after labelling and sorting all the data, Excel applications, such as summation and computation, were run to find initial frequency totals and percentages. Following Hyland's methodology in his studies (*Metadiscourse*, CEOs' letters 74; "Persuasion" 445-6), the frequencies of occurrence for each category of metadiscourse were calculated per 1000 words of the total number of words in all the papers of each group. For example, the total occurrences of "transitions" in the writing of the EFL group were 430, the total words of all 10 EFL papers were 40335, and thus the transitions frequency of occurrence is 10.7 per 1000 words.

Second, the percentages were computed for each category over the total use of metadiscourse. For example, if the EFL group used a total of 40.5 metadiscourse markers per 1000 words, and the "transitions" subcategory represented 10.7 per 1000 words, the percentage was calculated as follows: 10.7/40.5= 26%.

Third, to test whether the amount of metadiscourse varied significantly among the three groups (Control, EFL, ESL), a Chi-square (χ^2) distribution was used to compare the proportion of metadiscourse to non-metadiscourse items across groups for each metadiscourse category. The results were deemed meaningful at $p < .05$. The same method was used to compare the three essays written by each participant in the case study group over the span of three time points, initially at the ELI, then during the first semester, and the final or semi-final semester.

The last procedure of the study was evaluating the qualitative use of metadiscourse by the ESL and EFL groups in comparison with the Control group. In fact, there are no well-established criteria for such a qualitative examination and, therefore, such an evaluation would be subjective rather than objective. Therefore, the researcher chose to discuss the metadiscourse items lexically (for example, examining what vocabulary and phrases were used, and what their choice of words indicated). Three categories were selected for the lexical test: transitions, hedges, and boosters. The reason behind selecting these categories is that other categories rely mainly on punctuation marks, syntactic structures, and implied meaning and pronouns, which makes it hard to categorize metadiscourse items under the lexical repertoire criteria, such as simple vs. sophisticated, or rich vs. limited use of words.

Finally, the study explored the distribution of metadiscourse items within paragraphs in the students' writings to see whether particular patterns would emerge or not. These two examinations, the lexical choices and metadiscourse markers distribution, were testable and could complement the quantitative tests.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

In this chapter, the quantitative results of the three analytical procedures, the frequency of occurrence per 1000 words, the proportional percentages of metadiscourse categories to the total use, and the Chi-square test (χ^2) will be displayed. The results of the cross-sectional study of Control, EFL, and ESL groups will be demonstrated first, followed by the results of the longitudinal study of the ESL case study group.

Cross-Sectional Comparison of EFL and ESL Students

Table 3 shows the frequency rates per 1000 words and the percentages of each category to the total metadiscourse. Speaking broadly, the frequencies of the overall metadiscourse markers were different among all the three groups. The EFL group's metadiscourse (40.5) was closer to that of the Control group (35.3) than to that of the ESL group (21.9). However, all three groups used more interactive metadiscourse markers (Control 21.6, EFL 27.7, and ESL 15.3) than interactional markers (Control 13.7, EFL 12.8, and ESL 6.7). Compared to Control group's use, EFL and ESL were similar in using categories of frame markers (Control 1.1, EFL 1.3, and ESL 1.0), and self mentions (Control 0.7, EFL 0.6, and ESL 0.5). Both EFL and ESL used fewer markers than the Control group did in three categories: endophoric markers (Control 2.2, EFL 0.6, ESL 0.6), hedges (Control 7.2, EFL 4.6, ESL 3.3), and attitude markers (Control 1.7, EFL 0.7, ESL 0.4). The only category in which both ESL and EFL used more than the Control group was booster (Control 1.6, EFL 4.4, ESL 1.9), which indicates an aspect of the rhetorical differences between English and Arabic writing features.

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Of the subcategories most frequently used, transitions were most frequently used by all three groups (Control group 9.3, EFL 10.7, and ESL 5.9). In the writings of the control group, hedges were the second category most frequently used (7.2), a pattern that reflects the cultural preference of the Anglo-American writing conventions. EFL writers employed evidentials as the second category (7.8), and code glosses as the third frequent category (7.4) in contrast with the ESL writers who used hedges (3.3) most frequently after transitions and evidentials (4.5). The higher frequencies of hedges (3.3) than boosters (1.9) in the ESL papers represent a counterevidence to the rhetorical transfer hypothesis and, at the same time, suggest that ESL students incorporated an important aspect of the English academic writing conventions. In terms of which group was similar or closer to the control group's use, no clear pattern appeared. The EFL group showed similarity to the use of the control group in employing four subcategories –transitions, frame markers, self mentions, and engagement markers— while ESL showed similarity or closeness to the native speakers' use in other four subcategories: evidentials, frame markers, code glosses, and boosters.

Next, percentages of each category to the total percentage of metadiscourse show different and interesting results. Similar use between Control and both EFL and ESL groups was found in only two categories: transitions (Control 26%, EFL 26%, ESL 27%) and self mentions (Control 2%, EFL 1%, ESL 2%). Both EFL and ESL percentages were higher than the control group in the categories of evidentials (Control 14%, EFL 19%, ESL 20%), code glosses (Control 12%, EFL 18%, ESL 15%), and boosters (Control 4%, EFL 11%, ESL 9%). On the other hand, EFL and ESL percentages were lower than those of the Control groups in four categories: endophoric markers (Control 6%, EFL 1%, ESL

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3%), hedges (Control 21%, EFL 11%, ESL 15%), attitude markers (Control 5%, EFL 2%, ESL 2%), and engagement markers (Control 7%, EFL 6%, ESL 3%). ESL metadiscourse was closer to that of the Control group in six categories: transitions, endophoric markers, code glosses, hedges, boosters, and self mentions. Papers written by the EFL group seem to be closer to the control groups' papers in employing three categories only: transitions, frame markers, and engagement markers (See Table 3).

Table 3. Frequency of Metadiscourse Markers in Research Papers of Control, EFL, and ESL Groups.

Categories	Examples	Items per 1000 words			% of total Metadiscourse		
		Control Group	EFL	ESL	Control Group	EFL	ESL
1. Interactive							
Transitions	*however*	9.3	10.7	5.9	26%	26%	27%
Frame markers	*finally*	1.1	1.3	1.0	3%	3%	5%
Endophoric markers	*(see Fig.)*	2.2	0.6	0.6	6%	1%	3%
Evidentials	*Z states*	4.8	7.8	4.5	14%	19%	20%
Code glosses	*such as*	4.2	7.4	3.2	12%	18%	15%
Total of Interactive		21.6	27.7	15.3	61%	68%	70%
2. Interactional							
Hedges	*May*	7.2	4.6	3.3	21%	11%	15%
Boosters	*definitely*	1.6	4.4	1.9	4%	11%	9%
Attitude markers	*fortunately*	1.7	0.7	0.4	5%	2%	2%
Self mentions	*I, we*	0.7	0.6	0.5	2%	1%	2%
Engagement markers	*Note*	2.6	2.5	0.6	7%	6%	3%
Total of Interactional		13.7	12.8	6.7	39%	32%	30%
Total Markers		35.3	40.5	21.9	100%	100%	100%

An interesting pattern in the findings is the use of boosters and hedges by all three groups. The use of hedges by the control group (21%) and boosters (4%) clearly reflects the Anglo-American rhetorical traditions, which favor the mitigated, not the authoritative, voice in expressing attitudes and claiming a proposition. The use of boosters and hedges by the EFL students, on the other hand, appears to reflect a mixture of Arabic and English rhetorical traditions, where writers employed equal percentages of boosters (11%) and hedges (11%) in an attempt to modify their voice towards the English academic writing conventions. ESL writers showed more movement towards the English academic writing conventions by using more hedges (15%) than boosters (9%), a pattern that showed a significant difference from their early papers at the English language institute (more about this progress is in the longitudinal section).

The results of the χ^2 test shown in Table 4 indicate significant differences among all groups in using most of the metadiscourse markers. Concerning interactive metadiscourse, significant differences between both ESL and EFL groups and the Control group were found in three categories: transition, endophoric markers and code glosses. EFL also used evidentials significantly different from that of Control group. Under the interactional categories, results show significant differences of both EFL and ESL groups from those of Control group in using hedges and attitude markers. EFL writers and the Control group differed significantly in the use of boosters, while ESL writers and the Control group differed significantly in the use of engagement markers.

Table 4. χ^2 Values among Control, EFL, and ESL Groups (all df = 1).

	EFL/Control	ESL/Control	EFL/ESL
1. Interactive Metadiscourse			
Transitions	4.26*	25.72**	45.15**
Frame Markers	.20	.19	.81
Endophoric Markers	39.15**	29.02**	.01
Evidentials	31.25**	.45	30.58**
Code Glosses	39.83**	3.95*	53.25**
Interactive Total	34.02**	39.60**	123.37**
2. Interactional Metadiscourse			
Hedges	25.68**	51.26**	6.93*
Boosters	62.11**	.99	33.65**
Attitude Markers	17.02**	23.49**	1.49
Self-Mentions	.10	1.18	.41
Engagement Markers	.01	39.09**	36.55**
Interactional Total	1.34	85.69**	65.18**
Total	16.09**	114.64**	191.65**

*p < .05, **p < .001*

According to the three analytical procedures (frequency of occurrence, proportional percentage, and χ^2 test), the first part of the null hypothesis No. 1 (p. 51) is partially supported. Although, in the first two analytical procedures, both groups show some closeness to the Control group in some categories, the χ^2 test shows significant differences among the three groups in the total of metadiscourse and almost all categories except for the frame markers and self mentions.

The second hypothesis must be examined qualitatively as a check on the quantitative analysis (see following chapter). However, the quantitative analysis shows that, in terms of frequencies and percentages, the ESL group conformed to the conventions of English writing rhetoric more than the EFL group did. This conformity can be seen in the use of hedges, boosters, and self mentions. But χ^2 test shows that both groups, EFL and ESL, used the overall metadiscourse markers significantly different from that of the Control group.

Results of the frequency and percentage procedures in Table 3 partially support the third hypothesis regarding the part of the EFL group only, where students used evidentials and boosters more frequently than the Control group did. But ESL students, on the other hand, employed evidentials, boosters, and self mentions approximately similar to that of the Control group. Both ESL and EFL expressed their attitude less frequently than the Control group, which appears to be a counterevidence to the hypothesis of rhetorical transfer. Results of the χ^2 test, on the other hand, confirm the above findings that only EFL writers used evidentials and boosters significantly different from those of the Control group. These results, especially the closeness between ESL and Control groups in using boosters, hedges and self mentions indicate that ESL writers show partial conformity to the Anglo-American writing conventions.

Longitudinal Results of the Case Study Group

The data in Table 5 show the results of the case study group at three different points: ELI, first semester, and the final or semi-final semester. Table 5 indicates interesting results regarding the increased occurrences of some subcategories and the

decreased occurrences of others. Speaking broadly, all subcategories, except transitions and boosters, increased slightly in the first semester and decreased slightly in the final semester. The distinguishing feature in the results of the last semester is the drop in the use of all subcategories of metadiscourse except for hedges and engagement markers, which increased slightly. One explanation for this phenomenon is the length of paragraphs in the essay and the number of ideas within a paragraph. One of the distinguishing features found in the study is that ESL students in the ELI started writing essays with short paragraphs and condensed ideas. To connect these ideas and to quickly move from one paragraph to another, they employed more metadiscourse to keep the text coherent. On the other hand, their papers in the last semester demonstrated a significant difference in developing paragraphs with clear ideas that needed only the necessary metadiscourse resources to connect. Another explanation for the phenomenon of more metadiscourse markers in the early papers of ESL students is that students paid more attention to the linguistic, aesthetic, and stylish aspects of their writing than to its content. They employed more cohesive devices, adverbs, and adjectives that could be eliminated without affecting the core content. But in their final semester papers, writers utilized some discoursal techniques, such as given/new information, implicit attitudes and engagement (e.g., rhetorical questions), and emphatic syntactic structures (e.g., cleft sentences), which can also serve the metadiscourse functions without using its explicit markers.

Table 5. Frequency of Metadiscourse Markers in Research Papers of ESL Case Study group at Three Time Points.

Categories	Examples	Items per 1000 words			% of total metadiscourse		
		ELI	1st semester	Final semester	ELI	1st semester	Final semester
1. Interactive							
Transitions	*therefore*	10.5	9.8	5.9	37%	33%	27%
Frame markers	*finally*	0.5	1.6	1.0	2%	5%	5%
Endophoric markers	*(see Fig.)*	0.0	1.5	0.6	0%	5%	3%
Evidentials	*Z states*	4.5	5.4	4.5	16%	18%	20%
Code glosses	*such as*	2.6	3.0	3.2	9%	10%	15%
Total of Interactive		18.2	21.3	15.3	64%	71%	70%
2. Interactional							
Hedges	*might*	3.0	4.3	3.3	11%	14%	15%
Boosters	*definitely*	6.0	3.0	1.9	21%	10%	9%
Attitude markers	*I agree*	1.2	0.7	0.4	4%	2%	2%
Self mentions	*I, we*	0	0.1	0.5	0%	0%	2%
Engagement markers	*consider*	0.2	0.4	0.6	1%	1%	3%
Total of Interactional		10.4	8.5	6.7	36%	29%	30%
Total Markers		28.6	29.9	21.9	100%	100%	100%

Although occurrences of transitions decreased slightly in the first semester and even more in the final semester, these devices were still the most frequently used during the three semesters (10.5, 9.8, and 5.9). Use of boosters decreased from 6.0 at the ELI to 3.0 in the first semester, and to 1.9 in the final semester. This decrease emphasizes that students were incorporating an important aspect of the English rhetorical traditions while leaving out their L1 influence of writing with authoritative tones and a strong presence of voice. Evidentials followed transitions in the number of occurrences and increased from 4.5 at the ELI to 5.4 in the last semester, and then decreased to 4.5 in the final semester.

Next, percentages show that transitions (37%, 33%, and 27%) and evidentials (16%, 18%, and 20%) together represent approximately half of the metadiscourse resources employed in the students' texts in all three semesters. In contrast, percentages of subcategories of frame markers (2%, 5%, 5%), endophoric markers (0%, 5%, 3%), attitude markers (4%, 2%, 2%), self mentions (0%, 0%, 2%), and engagement markers (1%, 1%, 3%) were the markers used least, even though they showed a slight increase in the first academic semester. A distinguishing feature is the increased employment of hedges from one semester to another (11%, 14%, 15%) in contrast with the decreased use of boosters (21%, 10%, 9%).

The χ^2 results in Table 6 show significant differences in total metadiscourse use between the ELI and the final semester, especially for the interactional metadiscourse. However, in terms of individual subcategories, significant differences were found between ELI papers and first semester papers with respect to frame markers, endophoric markers, and boosters. Significant differences between the papers written at the ELI and

those written in the final semester were found with respect to transitions, endophoric markers, boosters, and attitude markers.

Table 6. χ^2 Values for ESL Case Study Group over Time (all df = 1).

	1st Semester/ELI	Final Semester /ELI	Final Semester/ 1st Semester
1. Interactive:			
Transitions	.25	20.311**	24.79**
Frame Markers	5.00*	1.32	3.09
Endophoric Markers	12.72**	4.56*	9.42*
Evidentials	1.00	< .001	2.22
Code Glosses	.32	.90	.18
Interactive Total	3.41	3.12	26.33**
2. Interactional:			
Hedges	2.56	.12	3.28
Boosters	14.37**	40.95**	6.47*
Attitude Markers	1.54	5.58*	1.01
Self-Mentions	.23	3.06	3.31
Engagement Markers	.41	1.54	.45
Interactional Total	2.24	12.54**	5.88*
Total	.45	12.53**	32.28**

*$p < .05$, **$p < .001$*

Quantitative results partially support hypothesis 4 of the study, since the use of metadiscourse markers by the ESL students showed a significant change in the total of metadiscourse, and particularly in the use of interactional metadiscourse. The code

glosses, evidentials, self mentions and engagement markers, on the other hand, did not show significant differences. The changes in their use of metadiscourse markers, however partial, indicate a positive progression towards the native speakers' use.

The above quantitative results are important for contrastive studies as they show how similarly or differently students utilize rhetorical items. However, such results do not reveal the quality and appropriateness of students' uses. Three decades ago, while establishing the theoretical basis for metadiscourse theory, Vande Kopple raised critical questions about the criteria for using metadiscourse markers ("Some Exploratory Discourse" 88). What metadiscourse is appropriate, in what quantity, and based on what, were Vande Kopple's questions for researchers and analysts. Unfortunately, because of the nature of corpus-based studies, most of the previous studies on metadiscourse were highly focused on the quantitative results, with some discussion of selected features only.

Therefore, in the following chapter of discussion, some important aspects of students' qualitative use will be highlighted. In an attempt to fill in another research gap, and in addition to discussing the patterns that emerged in the analysis, metadiscourse lexical choices, employed by the EFL and ESL groups, will be discussed and compared to the Control group's choices. In addition, the distribution and collocation of metadiscourse markers in the students' writings will be discussed to see whether the distribution and collocation reflect particular patterns or flow arbitrarily.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Discussion

This chapter focuses on how students in the three groups qualitatively use metadiscourse markers, and what main changes occurred in the writings of ESL students during their academic program. The concentration will be on general facts and patterns that emerged in the analysis, and on the lexical repertoire of the three categories: transitions, boosters, and hedges. In addition, the distribution of metadiscourse items within paragraphs in the writings of the students will be discussed. Discussion will be supported by authentic examples from the students' papers, and some tables that illustrate the lexical repertoire employed by students.

Challenges. One of the main challenges found in the study is to differentiate the metadiscoursal from the propositional items. As discussed in the literature review, the same metadiscourse items could function as propositional as in example 3.a or could function as metadiscoursal as in 3.b.

3.a "The trouble with this is manifold. First is the possibility, **<u>however remote</u>**[1], that certain aspects of Swish, the characteristic lilt in particular, are involuntary and perhaps even biological" (Control Group, Participant 1, p 6).

3.b "Finally, the line between dialects of one language and separate languages is somewhat arbitrary. **<u>However</u>**, wherever we draw the line, three points should be clear." (EFL, Participant 3, p 19).

Another challenge was identifying the category to which some items belong. For example, *in fact* in 4.a performs the function of a code gloss, not a booster, as it

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[1] Bold and underline added here and in the following examples to highlight the expressions in question.

elaborates the previous proposition by providing additional information. However, the same item functions as booster in 4.b since it emphasizes a proposition.

4.a "It is, **in fact**, a beautiful island with warm temperatures and is surrounded by bright blue waters" (Control Group, Participant 2, p. 1).

4.b Thus, the musical insertion plays a great role in the aestheticism of the poetic lines because, **in fact,** poetry is a linguistic music; it proves the power of the words by showing the musical impact on it. (ESL, participant 1, p. 1)

Context is essential for interpreting data, especially in identifying the internal borders of metadiscourse. Examples 5.a and 5.b illustrate how the first-person pronoun when collocated with different verbs can serve different metadiscourse functions. In 5.a "we intend to" denotes an engagement marker, while "we must foster" in the second clause of the same sentence is an example of a booster. The pronoun *I* in 5.b is also an example of a booster and attitude at the same time, since the writer emphasizes his/her stance by choosing the verb "assert".

5.a "Therefore, if **we intend to** require students to engage in empathetic awareness of their audience, **we must foster both** their capacity for imagination and their ability to set themselves aside" (Control group, participant 4, p.)

5.b "Yet, **I assert that**, when writing within one's own familiar field of study, even this internal audience which is an ingrained part of the self is a representation of one's actual audience" (Control group, participant 4, p.)

An important issue related to the components of metadiscourse resources have been noticed in the analysis. While the metadiscourse appendix provided by Hyland relies heavily on lexical items and some punctuation marks, syntactic metadiscourse has not been referred to as a metadiscourse resource. In the study, many syntactic structures that can function as metadiscourse, especially that of interactional meaning were found.

For instance, in 6.a the structure *do+* verb in a statement gives the emphatic impression, a function of boosters in the metadiscourse model. Also, the structure of stative verbs+ predicative adjective with an absolute meaning as in 6.b is also used to emphasize a proposition, which is the function of boosters as well.

6.a "It **does demonstrate** substitution of whatever item is being counted" (Control group, participant 5, p. 13).

6.b "The pragmatic and semantic importance of modals **is unquestionable** in discourse" (ESL, participant 5, p. 6).

   Lexical Repertoire. Probing into the lexical items used under each category and subcategory can provide valuable insight as to how writers craft their texts. To illustrate this, Table 7 shows the lexical items categorized as transitions that are employed by the students in each group. The results show that the most frequent transitions used by the Control group and the ESL students were *although, but, because, and, however, therefore, while* and *yet*. The EFL students, on the other hand, most frequently used *and, but, however, since, because,* and *so*. A clear pattern emerges that the Control group and, to a certain degree, the ESL group used subordinates much more (Control 90%, ESL 87%) and additive conjunctions much less (Control 10% , ESL 13%); by contrast, EFL students used subordinates 60%, but additive conjunctions 40%. This difference of use reflects the different rhetorical patterns of English and Arabic described by contrastive rhetoric; that is, English is characterized by subordination, while Arabic style is characterized by additive and parallel structure. In the ELI papers, the ESL students' use of transitions was quite similar to that of the EFL students, but in the first and last semesters they gradually replaced the additives with subordinates.

Table 7. Occurrences of Lexical Choices of Transitions by Control, ESL and EFL Groups

Transitions	Control Group	EFL	ESLx2[2]
Additives Conjunctions			
in addition	0	0	16
additionally	0	0	14
also	0	14	0
and	33	48	0
furthermore	0	13	0
moreover	0	12	10
On the other hand	0	13	0
similarily	0	11	0
so	0	19	0
Though	0	17	0
Totals	33 (10%)	147 (40%)	40 (13%)
Subordinates			
although	19	22	30
because	39	28	22
but	61	70	32
hence	0	0	10
since	0	38	24
therefore	35	0	48
however	72	26	72
thus	18	22	22
whereas	0	12	0
while	43	0	10
Yet	20	0	0
Totals	307 (90%)	218 (60)	270 (87%)

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[2] Since ESL students are only 5 in comparison with 10 in other two groups, their use is multiplied by 2 in Table 7 and 8.

Hedges and boosters are key rhetorical features that help writers establish their ethos when employed properly. While the main purpose of using boosters is to emphasize certainty and close down other alternatives (Hyland 53), hedges serves as mitigating and softening propositions, reflecting the writers' awareness of their readers and allowing for other possible alternative views and opinions (52). The results in Table 3 show that hedges were the second most frequently used items by American students and represent 21% of their total metadiscourse, the third category used by ESL students (15%), and the fourth category used by EFL students (11%). Boosters, on the other hand, were almost equal to the use of hedges as the fourth category used by EFL students (11%), but fifth category by ESL students (9%), and seventh category by the American students (4%). That use clearly reflects the cultural preferences of students in employing hedges and boosters. Hinkel observes that unlike Anglo-American rhetoric, other cultures consider overstatements and exaggeration as proper means of persuading (*Second Language Writers' Text* 126). However, this rhetorical tradition of favoring boosters changed significantly for ESL students throughout their academic program. In their first papers at the ELI, the ESL students employed twice as many boosters (6.0 per 1000 words) as hedges (3.0); in the first academic semester, they used boosters (3.0) and hedges (4.3); in the final semester, they utilized hedges (3.3) and boosters (1.9) (see Table 5). Their progression in employing more hedges and fewer boosters may represent the environment's significant role in incorporating the new rhetoric of their second language (see Table 8).

Table 8. Most Frequent Occurrences of Lexical Choices of Boosters and Hedges by Control group, ESL and EFL Groups

Boosters	Control group	EFL	ESLx2
actually	7	0	0
in fact	5	0	0
indeed	8	0	0
always	0	16	16
clear	0	5	24
highly	0	15	0
most	0	27	22
must	0	9	0
very	0	26	0
Hedges			
about	6	0	0
appear	0	0	8
could	39	17	22
generally	6	0	0
likely	12	0	0
may	44	37	24
maybe	14	20	6
might	8	16	14
often	20	10	0
perhaps	17	0	0
possible	11	0	0
possibly	6	0	0
probably	7	0	0
seem	16	6	31
should	12	0	0
sometimes	0	8	0
would	76	33	8

Table 8 shows interesting results about the students' lexical choices of boosters and hedges. The results of qualitative lexical choices evidently support the quantitative results shown in Table 4, where native English speaking students used not only a higher frequency of hedges and fewer boosters, but they also employ more lexical choices for hedges and fewer for boosters. The qualitative results also support the quantitative results with respect to the EFL students, who used more boosters than hedges, and employed more lexical choices of boosters than those of hedges as compared to the ESL students.

As for the metadiscourse use by the ESL students during the academic program, the major change occurred in transitions and hedges. Their use of additive conjunctions was drastically reduced in favor of the increase of subordinates, such *as although, but, hence, however, therefore,* and *while* in the first and final semesters. Boosters also showed some lexical changes represented by the disappearance of *highly* and *very* in the final semester, and incorporation of expressions like *its clear that* and *obviously*. With the increasing use of *may, might, and would*, students in the final semester incorporate *it seems that, and it appears* into their use of hedges. These significant changes in the three categories support hypothesis 4 and partially 2 as they show more conformity to Anglo-American rhetoric in establishing ethos and logos.

Distribution of Metadiscourse within Paragraphs. Employing metadiscourse markers properly to accomplish the writer's purposes and to meet the reader's expectation is what makes writing effective. Like overuse, misuse of metadiscourse will certainly affect the communication and result in weak writing. Quantitative results aside, the following discussion will focus on the distribution of metadiscourse by the three

groups to see the patterns of how effectively they distribute and collocate metadiscourse throughout the texts emerged.

Compared to the Control group and ESL group usage, the EFL writers overuse a particular category of metadiscourse in one paragraph, such as transitions as in 7 or engagement markers as in 8 and 9 yielding monotonous paragraphs that are hard to follow. Instead of being signposts that guide the readers through the text and ease their task to follow the flow of information, such overuse can negatively affect the text and distract the readers' attention.

7. **"Additionally**, as it seen earlier that the derivational rule is more important than the inflection one, **and** it is invoked by blocking. **But**, the inflectional morphology also invoked by blocking" (EFL, participant 2, p. 19)

8. "First, if **we** had to give a summary of what this text is about, **we** might say something like "teens driving a car were killed in crash" using these repeated words **we** just picked out from the text, **we** can get the main idea of the text in using these few repeated words" (EFL, participant 5).

9. "Argument can be seen in other ways than a battle, but **we** use this concept to shape the way **we** think of argument and the way **we** go about arguing" (EFL, Participant 10).

Another aspect of misusing the metadiscourse items found in the writings of EFL students is their use of hedges. Hedges are supposedly used to mitigate the writer's proposition and make space for alternatives. However, examples 10 and 11 show that the hedge expression *perhaps* is directly followed by boosters which contradict with the function of mitigating the claim. Another improper use of hedges found in the writing of EFL is introducing clear facts by unnecessary hedges as in 12.

10. **"Perhaps** the **most important** difference between the two is that slang has always an air of novelty about it whereas dialect has its roots in the past as firmly as has Standard English" (EFL, participant 3)

11. "Consequently the affix has become far less productive, **perhaps completely** unproductive" (EFL, participant 3)

12. "The Chomskyan approach **would** employ the notion of UG which **<u>could</u>** define the classes of all possible human languages" (EFL, participant 9, p.9)

Pathos, the affective factor in writing that involves writers in perceiving their writing from their readers' perspective, addressing their interests and engaging them in the text, can be effectively established by employing attitude and engagement markers with utilization of the self mention category (*Metadiscourse* 81-82). Expressing the writer's attitude and voice, activating the reader's role, and transforming a dead text into a live dialogue can only be done through the appropriate use of metadiscourse and the skillful collocation of its categories.

The writer's attitude is an important aspect in academic writing as it represents his voice in the discourse community. One of the important patterns noted in the analysis is the correlation of evidentials with attitude among the control group writers, and the absence of writer's attitude in the writings of both EFL and ESL students. The main rhetorical purposes of evidentials in academic writing are either to introduce knowledge based on previous literature or to support the writer's view or argument (Hyland 51). Most of the writings of EFL Iraqi students and the early papers of the ESL students utilized citing many scholars as evidentials within the same paragraph to introduce knowledge without expressing their stance clearly. Example 13 is typical for EFL students, as they start and end the paragraph by referring to others' ideas and notions without signaling their attitudes by discussing, agreeing, or disagreeing with these notions. This pattern of heavy citation with the absence of the text writer's voice is found not only in the literature review section of the study but continues in the discussion section and, in some papers, into the conclusion section.

13. **Saussure (1966: 9) describes language** as "both a social product of the faculty of speech and a collection of necessary conventions that have been adopted by a social body to permit individuals to exercise that faculty". **He also says**: "Because the sign is arbitrary, it follows no law other than that of tradition, and because it is based on tradition, it is arbitrary" (**ibid. 74**). **Saussure offers the example**: "The idea of "sister" is not linked by any inner relationship to the succession of sounds s-o-e-u-r which serves as its signifier in French (**ibid. 67**). (EFL, participant 10, p.10)

On the other hand, most American writers tend to employ the metadiscourse

resources of evidentials and attitude properly (see example 14).

14. "Nonetheless, **Halliday and Hassan point out** that the transition word or conjunction is not actually cohesive in nature but its placement within the sentence indicates cohesion between the elements (226). **Therefore, plugging in the wrong word accomplishes nothing and renders that list of transition words useless to the students**. Indeed, **I have found** …" (Control group, participant 5, p.2).

In this example, the writer introduced a notion by scholars, and immediately in the

following sentences, she added her voice and connected the whole idea with a personal

experience in a way that supports her thesis. The difference between 13 and 14 reveals an

important aspect of writing theory, as we can clearly see that the writer is active in 14 and

therefore her reader will be active as well. On the contrary, the writer of example 13 is

totally absent in this paragraph and in others which may lead to a disconnection with his

readers.

Personal pronouns play a significant role in textual cohesion (Hinkel, *Second*

Language Writer's Text 83) and in establishing authorial identity (Hyland, *Metadiscourse*

53). Hinkel reports that in rhetorical conventions other than the traditions of Anglo-

American rhetoric, using the "first-person singular pronouns" is considered unacceptable

and inappropriate as it reflects the individual identity and opinion rather than the

collective one (84). However, she adds that in Arabic and Indonesian writing, affected by

the Qur'anic rhetoric, the use of "first- person plural pronoun *we*" is common (84). In this

study, the Iraqi EFL students' usage of the plural personal pronoun *we* is frequently common and matches what Hinkel mentioned about this cultural preference. On the other hand, ESL students employ different lexical items to refer to themselves, such as (the researcher, the author, the study). In addition to the lexical items used by the ESL students, the Control group students used the first-person singular pronoun *I* quite frequently in the introduction and conclusion sections.

Engaging the readers in the text and activating their role is a key feature for successful writing, and is central to metadiscourse especially in a reader-centered culture. In Table 4, results show that EFL students were quantitatively closer to the Control group in engaging the reader. Both groups utilized the plural pronoun *we*; punctuation, particularly the question mark; and some engaging verbs, like *see*. The Control group used more engaging verbs, such as *note* and *consider*, and modals collocated with the second-person pronoun, like *you need to, you must*.

In practice, metadiscourse categories are interrelated, e.g., the first-person plural pronoun (*we*) and second-person pronoun (*you*) collocated with engagement verbs were used to engage the reader, and the first-person singular pronoun (*I*) collocated with hedges or boosters were used to express the writer's attitude. These correlations were not utilized by both EFL and ESL students who appear to overuse certain items within a certain category (see 15), or to write a whole paper without expressing the explicit attitude of the writer.

15. "The number of unknown words is also an important element **that should be taken into account** by teachers when choosing the reading passage. The use of unknown words **should be reasonable**. If the reading passage has too many unknown words, the success students have making lexical inferences **will be negatively affected**" (ESL, participant 3, p.5).

The native speaker writers of 16 and 17, on the other hand, utilized variety of metadiscourse resources such as hedges, boosters, engagement markers, and pronouns to engage the reader as in 16, or to express an attitude by inviting the reader to take the proposition as in 17.

16. "In many parts of London, **you may sometimes wonder** whether you are still in England or if **you have somehow** arrived Bangladesh, China, or Poland" (Control group, participant 8, p 4).

17. "To begin to understand how ESL students acquire contractions differently **one must examine** how **it may be** interpreted differently among students" (Control group, participant 7, p.7)

In distributing metadiscourse throughout the text, and collocating variety of resources to establish pathos, it seems that both EFL and ESL writers fail to achieve this rhetorical aspect. Iraqi students in both environments did not distribute and collocate metadiscourse resources to create dialogue with their readers, tell them explicitly what their (the writers') attitudes are, or invite them to respond to their propositions. These rhetorical aspects are central to converting a dead text into a living dialogue. A text without proper metadiscourse may seem like a portrait without finishing touches, where spectators cannot tell what the painter's message is or what their real impression is. Similarly, in a text without appropriate metadiscourse, the content must stand alone without emphasis on its main points, its strengths, its intentions, etc. Readers cannot decode everything implied in the text; they need to understand the writer's attitude towards his/her evidentials, they need to understand how certain or uncertain the writer is about his/her propositions, and they also need to feel their presence as an active party in this written conversation.

The environment of the study has proven its impact in the writing of ESL students only in the particular areas of logos and ethos. The ESL environment could reduce the influence of cultural preferences, especially in the categories of transitions, hedges, boosters, and self mentions. Yet, other essential rhetorical aspects that establish pathos have not witnessed a significant positive change in both environments.

Conclusion

In the western rhetorical tradition, readers feel more comfortable with friendly text, where the writer's attitude is explicit, her voice is tentative not authoritative, and her propositions are easy to follow and interact with. Utilizing metadiscourse markers appropriately definitely helps achieve this type of text. Metadiscourse is essential in creating a lively text and a vivid written conversation. The same statement may take different directions and allow different interpretations and readings. It can be emphasized or mitigated, condensed or elaborated, pejoratively or positively delivered. It is the writer who takes her reader into account and decides in which direction she intends to take the argument. The tool to achieve these purposes is metadiscourse.

In theory, metadiscourse seems to be clear with obvious categories and functions, but in practice and analysis, it involves some theoretical and methodological challenges. An important theoretical problem encountered in this study was that metadiscourse functions can be performed through implicit linguistic and rhetorical features. However, because metadiscourse models provide only "explicit" markers, analysts target these explicit items (Hyland 58), overlooking the many linguistic and rhetoric features that have the meaning of metadiscourse implicitly. This issue was what affected the results of

the ESL writers' metadiscourse. Another difficulty encountered was found when the writer used a marker that belonged to a particular category but, according to the context, serves a different function. Self mentions were clear examples found in the papers where they were used to engage readers rather than referring to the author. The first problem of explicit and implicit markers was theoretical and can be solved by viewing metadiscourse through its functions as well as its linguistic forms. The second problem of functioning in more than one category was methodological, and it called attention to the importance of context in deciding what function was intended. Therefore, the fact that a concordance soft program cannot read the context will definitely affect the results of studies adopting concordance programs.

The present study focused on the effect of learning environment, EFL versus ESL, on using metadiscourse makers in the L2 academic writing of EFL and ESL Iraqi graduate students, and on the effect of time in the development of ESL writers' metadiscourse. Results were mixed, with some support for the rhetorical transfer hypothesis that Arab EFL writers use boosters more than hedges, and prefer additive and parallel structure more than subordination, in contrast to what the ESL students used. Some results provided counterevidence to the transfer hypothesis, as was the case with ESL students, whose writing showed a decrease in boosters in favor of an increase of hedges, as well as more subordinate transitions than additives. The results of the ESL group supported hypothesis 2 that the ESL environment, the feedback from native speaker professors, and the awareness of English rhetorical conventions (through core classes such as "Introduction to Research Methods") assist students to use the appropriate

metadiscourse markers in incorporating important rhetorical conventions of English academic writing.

Qualitative analysis is as important as quantitative procedures, as it reveals the appropriate use and distribution of metadiscourse markers. It seems more effective to examine not only how often a writer uses a metadiscourse marker, but also what she adds to the argument by making that choice. Quantitatively, findings show that the EFL group was closer to the Control group in their overall metadiscourse. However, the ESL group was closer to the Control group in using more than half of the metadiscourse subcategories. The χ^2 test, on the other hand, indicated significant differences among all the three groups in using most of the metadiscourse markers. However, significant differences were fewer between the ESL and the Control groups. Qualitatively, the ESL group was closer to the Control group in four important aspects (transitions, self mentions, hedges, and boosters), which helps them to establish their ethos and logos. But it seems that both EFL and ESL writers failed to employ attitude markers, engagement markers, and evidentials to express their attitudes clearly, support their claims, and engaged their readers, thereby establishing their pathos. By contrast, their native speaker counterparts tend to collocate metadiscourse markers and distribute them appropriately so that their readers can find a friendly text addressing them adequately.

Pedagogical Implications. Metadiscourse can be utilized as a window to explore the rhetorical aspects in L2 writing. A great deal of research has explored the rhetorical aspects separately, such as the organizational patterns, hedges and intensifiers, the writer's voice, personal pronouns, transitions and logical connectors. Metadiscourse

theory can be utilized as an umbrella theory covering these aspects and providing L2 instructions with accessible definitions and examples.

L2 writers may not have the expected awareness of their mother tongue rhetoric (Sa'adeddin 37), nor do they have awareness of their second language rhetorical conventions (Hinkel, "Hedging" 46). Anna Mauranen attributes this lack partially to the writing instruction practices, which have not paid attention to these rhetorical and textlinguistic features (Mauranen 1-2; Hinkel "Hedging" 47-48). Hyland emphasizes this phenomenon in his studies in which he found that ESL writers use metadiscourse markers "very differently" in comparison with their native speaker counterparts (*Metadiscourse* 176). Their different use is attributed mainly to the languages' different conventions that L2 writers may or may not be aware of as well as to the neglect of teaching metadiscourse by teachers and textbooks (178). Therefore, explicit instruction in the key rhetorical features of English writing is not only needed but also is required in early stages of teaching writing.

Teachers can effectively make use of reading practices to call students' attention to metadiscourse. An example of this would be to have students identify metadiscourse markers and their functions and interpretations in well-written texts, such as in academic journal articles. The case study group reported that what called their attention to these devices was reading practice. The professor in their "Introduction to Research Methods" class had asked them once to read some paragraphs from an article and identify particular rhetorical features through metadiscourse markers, such as identifying the direction of argument through transitions, and identifying the writer's voice and certainty through her use of boosters and hedges. Such practice can help students understand and interpret the

metadiscourse functions as well as provide them with the insight and tools to craft their texts professionally thereby meeting their readers' expectations.

Further Research. The study concentrates on the analyzing metadiscourse used in the students' texts in light of at the effect of different environments (EFL and ESL) and ongoing study of English on Arabic-speaking writers' use of metadiscourse, but does not investigate other reasons behind their choices. Instruction, textbooks, teachers' feedback, and the reading and writing connection are key factors in shaping students' choices, and are worthwhile to investigate in each environment. It would also be useful to conduct a case study on the EFL group to observe what progress is achieved throughout the academic program.

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX

List of Metadiscourse Expressions Targeted in the Study (Taken from Hyland, *Metadiscourse* 218-24).

INTERACTIVE METADISCOURSE

Code Glosses
-
()
As a matter of fact
Called
Defined as
E.g.,
For example
For instance
I mean
I.e.,
In fact
In other words
Indeed
Known as
Namely
Or X
Put another way
Say
Specifically
Such as
That is
That is to say
That means
This means
Viz
Which means

Endophoric Markers
(In) Chapter X
(In) Part X
(In) Section X
(In) the X chapter
(In) the X part
(In) the X section
(In) This chapter
(In) This part

(In) This section
Example X
Fig. X
Figure X
P. X
Page X
Table X
X above
X before
X below
X earlier
X later

Evidentials
(Date)/(Name)
(To) Cite X
(To) Quote X
[Ref. No.] / [Name]
According to
Cited
Quoted

Frame Markers
A) Sequencing
(In) Chapter X
(In) Part X
(In) Section X
(In) the X chapter
(In) the X part
(In) the X section
(In) This chapter
(In) This part
(In) This section
Finally
First
First of all

Firstly
Last
Lastly
Listing (a, b, c, etc.)
Next
Numbering (1, 2, 3, etc.)
Second
Secondly
Subsequently
Then
Third
Thirdly
To begin
To start with
B) label stages
All in all
At this point
At this stage
By far
For the moment
In brief
In conclusion
In short
In sum
In summary
Now
On the whole
Overall
So far
To conclude
To repeat
To sum up
To summarize
C) Announce goals
(In) this chapter
(In) this part
(In) this section
Aim

Desire to
Focus
Goal
Intend to
Intention
Objective
Purpose
Seek to
Want to
Wish to
Would like to
D) Shift topic
Back to
Digress
In regard to
Move on
Now
Resume
Return to
Revisit
Shift to
So
To look more closely
Turn to
Well
With regard to

Transition Markers
Accordingly
Additionally
Again
Also
Alternatively
Although
And
As a consequence
As a result
At the same time
Because
Besides
But
By contrast
By the same token
Consequently
Conversely
Equally

Even though
Further
Furthermore
Hence
However
In addition
In contrast
In the same way
Leads to
Likewise
Moreover
Nevertheless
Nonetheless
On the contrary
On the other hand
Rather
Result in
Similarly
Since
So
So as to
Still
The result is
Thereby
Therefore
Though
Thus
Whereas
While
Yet

INTERACTIONAL METADISCOURSE

Attitude Markers
!
Admittedly
Agree
Agrees
Agreed
Amazed
Amazingly
Appropriate
Appropriately
Astonished
Astonishing

Astonishingly
Correctly
Curious
Curiously
Desirable
Desirably
Disappointed
Disappointing
Disappointingly
Disagree
Disagrees
Disagreed
Dramatic
Dramatically
Essential
Essentially
Even x
Expected
Expectedly
Fortunate
Fortunately
Hopeful
Hopefully
Important
Importantly
Inappropriate
Inappropriately
Interesting
Interestingly
Prefer
Preferable
Preferably
Preferred
Remarkably
Shocked
Shocking
Shockingly
Striking
Strikingly
Surprised
Surprisingly
Unbelievable
Unbelievably
Understandable
Understandably
Unexpected

Unexpectedly
Unfortunate
Unfortunately
Unusual
Unusually
Usual

Boosters
Actually
Always
Believe
Believed
Believes
Beyond Doubt
Certain
Certainly
Clear
Conclusively
Decidedly
Definite
Definitely
Demonstrate
Demonstrated
Demonstrates
Doubtless
Establish
Established
Evident
Evidently
Find
Finds
Found
In Fact
Incontestable
Incontestably
Incontrovertible
Incontrovertibly
Indeed
Indisputable
Indisputably
Know
Known
Must (Possibility)
Never
No Doubt
Obvious

Obviously
Of Course
Prove
Proved
Proves
Realize
Realized
Realizes
Really
Show
Showed
Shows
Sure
Surely
Think
Thinks
Thought
True
Truly
Undeniable
Undeniably
Undisputedly
Undoubtedly
Without Doubt

Self Mentions
I
We
Me
My
Our
Mine
Us
The author
The author's
The writer
The writer's

Engagement Markers
(
?
(The) reader's
Add
Allow
Analyze
Apply

Arrange
Assess
Assume
By the way
Calculate
Choose
Classify
Compare
Connect
Consider
Consult
Contrast
Define
Demonstrate
Determine
Do Not
Develop
Employ
Ensure
Estimate
Evaluate
Find
Follow
Go
Have To
Imagine
Incidentally
Increase
Input
Insert
Integrate
Key
Let X=Y
Let Us
Let's
Look At
Mark
Measure
Mount
Must
Need To
Note
Notice
Observe
One's
Order

Ought	Assume	Ought
Our (inclusive)	Assumed	Perhaps
Pay	Broadly	Plausible
Picture	Certain amount	Plausibly
Prepare	Certain extent	Possible
Recall	Certain Level	Possibly
Recover	Claim	Postulate
Refer	Could	Postulated
Regard	Couldn't	Postulates
Remember	Doubt	Presumable
Remove	Doubtful	Presumably
Review	Essentially	Probable
See	Estimate	Probably
Select	Fairly	Quite
Set	Feel	Rather X
Should	Feels	Relatively
Show	Felt	Roughly
Suppose	Frequently	Seems
State	From the perspective	Should
Take (A Look/ As	From our perspective	Sometimes
Example)	From this perspective	Somewhat
Think About	Generally	Suggest
Think Of	Guess	Suggested
Turn	Indicate	Suggests
Us (Inclusive)	Indicated	Suppose
Use	Indicates	Supposed
We (Inclusive)	In General	Supposes
You	In most cases	Suspect
Your	In most instances	Suspects
	In my opinion	Tend To
Hedges	In my view	Tended To
About	In this view	Tends To
Almost	In our opinion	To my knowledge
Apparent	In our view	Typical
Apparently	Largely	Typically
Appear	Likely	Uncertain
Appeared	Mainly	Uncertainly
Appears	May	Unclear
Approximately	Maybe	Unclearly
Argue	Might	Unlikely
Argued	Mostly	Usually
Argues	Often	Would
Around	On the whole	Wouldn't