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**Metadiscourse in Students' Arabic and English Argumentative
Essays: A Contrastive Rhetoric Study**

The Case of Third Year English Majors at Abbas Laghrour University -Khenchela-

**Thesis Submitted to the Department of English Language and Literature in Candidacy
for the Degree of Doctorate "Es-Sciences" in Applied Linguistics**

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-2024-

Declaration

I, Mebarka ACHI, hereby declare that this thesis presented for the purpose of obtaining a doctorate degree is the product of my own efforts, and therefore all the content of this thesis is original except where reference is made. I additionally certify that this work has not been submitted in any university or institution in order to obtain a degree or qualification.

This research work was conducted and completed at ABBES LAGHROUR University of KHENCHELA, ALGERIA.

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A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'ACHI Mebarka', written over a horizontal line.

Date: September, 7th 2023

Dedication

This work is wholeheartedly dedicated to:

My dear parents for their love, prayers and unwavering assistance

My beloved husband who stood by me in ups and downs till my dream came

true

The apple of my eye, my sons TATA and ADEM, for being the source of my

happiness

My cherished siblings and adorable niblings

My second family 'my in-laws' who supported me throughout my research

journey

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Abstract

The present study attempted to explore the rhetorical transfer that students' first language exerts on their writing output in the target language. More precisely, it investigated the use of metadiscourse, being a fundamental rhetorical feature, in Arabic and English argumentative essays written by Third Year Algerian students of English at Abbas Laghrour University of Khenchela. The study rested on a contrastive rhetoric analysis that sought to identify potential first language transfer of metadiscourse markers' use which would lead to stylistic deviation from Standard English writing norms. Consequently, it is hypothesised that rhetorical differences between Arabic and English have a negative effect on English majors' argumentative essays that are written in English, and that explicit instruction of the appropriate use of metadiscourse will improve their writing quality. To test the underlying hypotheses; the study adopted an explanatory mixed-methods design, in which there was a triangulation of quantitative as well as qualitative research approaches. As such, three research instruments have been employed: a questionnaire administered to 60 students of the selected population, a quasi-experiment made of a pretest/ treatment/ posttest, as well as a focus group discussion. The obtained results showed that the rhetorical differences between the first language and the target one cause writing difficulties, and confirmed that raising students' awareness concerning the differences of metadiscourse markers' employment leads to the improvement of students' written performance, particularly, in the argumentative essay type. This improvement is measured relying on the t-test independent sample comparison of the control group and the experimental one's posttest means. Scores of the experimental group posttest were, by far, higher than their counterparts due to the explicit instruction on metadiscourse (the treatment) they received during the intervention phase.

Key Words: Argumentative writing, Arabic, English as a Second Language, Contrastive Rhetoric, metadiscourse, first language transfer.

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

APA	American Psychological Association
CA	Contrastive Analysis
CAH	Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
CALP	Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency
CARS	Creating a Research Space
CG	Control Group
Covid-19	Corona Virus of 2019
CR	Contrastive Rhetoric
EA	Error Analysis
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EG	Experimental Group
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
FLL	Foreign Language Learners
IR	Intercultural Rhetoric
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
NS	Native Speaker
RH	Research Hypothesis
RQ	Research Question
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Studies
USA	United States of America
WE	Written Expression

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General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Writing has always been the most difficult skill to acquire by students, especially non-natives. This difficulty originates from the complex nature of writing and its different integrative aspects. It incorporates elements, such as content, mechanics, conventions, syntax, and vocabulary. It even tends to be more troublesome in the English as a foreign language (henceforth EFL) context, where students should have a good knowledge of the foreign language rhetorical organisations and appropriate language use or specific lexicon. This is in order to be able to communicate meaning to their readers (Tangpermpoon, 2008).

Add to that, cultural barriers and first language transfer are other possible factors that can hinder students from writing well in the target language, hence, overlooking variation among different languages in terms of stylistic patterns, discourse organisation, and rhetorical devices. Foreign language learners (FLL) are likely to produce modes of discourse preferred in their own culture (Kaplan, 1966; Ostler, 1987). Although each language is unique and definitely has its proper idiosyncratic rhetorical features, foreign language learners write in the target language the same way they do in their mother tongue because they are unconscious of this fact. Hence, their writing performance would be tortured and would not sound native-like due to rhetorical transfer and stylistic deviation.

The leading and referential work on foreign language writing dates back to Kaplan's (1966) Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) study, which states that learners from different cultures transfer rhetorical patterns from their native language to their target language writing. Therefore, they need to be made aware of the variant rhetoric in which they are supposed to write. Nevertheless, CR has taken new directions in Applied Linguistics that are more concerned with pedagogical implications than mere linguistic comparison and analysis of texts from different cultures. The new trend comes to be known as 'Intercultural Rhetoric' (or

IR), an interdisciplinary area of research that incorporates a myriad of disciplines. According to Ulla Connor (1996), the new directions in CR study covers such domains as Contrastive Text Linguistics, Writing as a Cultural Activity, Classroom-based Contrastive study, Genre Analysis, and Ideology Teaching. Both CR and IR are believed to have effective results on the target language writing, and bring innovative views that would inform the study of Writing as a Cultural Activity.

2. Statement of the Problem

The current study has germinated from a very common problem among EFL learners in Algeria, particularly at Abbas Laghrour University of Khenchela, that is struggling with writing essays in English. Those students frequently exhibit a poor writing achievement due to their native language and culture influence. Nevertheless, there are other reasons which motivate the present enquiry.

In Algeria, little research has been devoted to exploring students' writing from a CR perspective. This is because CR, as an area of research, was not adequately explored as other long-standing areas and disciplines. Add to that, conducting CR studies on students' writing is somewhat challenging in the sense that the researcher will not examine students' written output in the target language only; but rather in both languages: L1 and L2. The researcher should depend on a precise taxonomy in the distribution, analysis and contrast of the examined features (in this study, it is Hyland's 2005 Classification of metadiscourse markers that is adopted).

It is worth-mentioning that the few CR studies realised in the Algerian context did not examine the use of 'metadiscourse' in writing. They focused mainly on the use of religious expressions and the CAR's moves, while the investment of metadiscourse markers was rather neglected. Therefore, we believe that investigating the use of metadiscourse features in Algerian students' Arabic and English argumentative essays is a wise research

topic in that it occupies the niche that is found in the existing body of literature on the one hand, and informs future studies in the same field of enquiry on the other.

3. Aims of the Study

Given the above-stated research problem, teachers in charge of ‘Written Expression’ course have better raise their learners’ awareness towards the variance in languages’ discourse organisation starting from metadiscourse markers as a basic rhetorical feature in written discourse. Put differently, formal instruction on argumentative essays’ writing and the appropriate employment of metadiscourse markers is highly recommended because it lessens students’ writing problems regarding this genre, and gives them the opportunity to experience native writers’ craft of persuasion and logic.

Therefore, the present study aims to analyse and compare the use of metadiscourse markers, as a micro-level feature of text rhetoric, in Algerian English majors’ argumentative essays written in their native language (L1) and in English (L2). As such, the goal of this research work is two-fold. First, it seeks to identify the cultural patterns of metadiscourse in both languages and, hence, signal any potential first language rhetorical transfer in students’ pretest essays. Second, the study attempts to identify any improvement in students’ posttest essays which were written after the treatment (instruction of a mini-syllabus).

4. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The following research questions guide this study:

RQ1. What are the similarities and differences in the use of metadiscourse in Arabic and English argumentative essays?

RQ2. To what extent are L2 learners aware of their L1 and L2 cross-cultural writing differences?

RQ3. To what extent does the difference between the two languages ‘cultural patterns of metadiscourse result in students’ poor achievement in the target language?

RQ4. Which of the differences detected are due to L1 transfer and which call for alternative interpretations?

RQ5. Is there a statistically significant improvement in students' L2 writing after the treatment (awareness-raising of metadiscourse features appropriate use)?

On the basis of these questions, this study hypothesises that:

RH1: If Third Year English majors at Abbas Laghrour University are made aware of L1 and L2 metadiscoursal use differences, their L2 writing problems will minimise and their grades will increase significantly.

5. Research Methodology

Due to the nature of the examined problem, that is L2 writing deficiencies, this study adopts an 'Explanatory Mixed-methods Research Approach'. The latter rests on the triangulation of both quantitative and qualitative approaches by which quantitative data would be firstly assembled and scrutinised and then the qualitative one. The purpose behind opting for a Mixed-methods Approach is that it aids the researcher to interpret the obtained results more accurately and permits her to develop a deeper understanding of the investigated phenomenon. In accordance with Explanatory Mixed-methods Research Approach, the researcher made use of the following tools:

- A pre-experiment questionnaire administered to third (3rd) year students at Abbas Laghrour university of Khenchela in order to elucidate their views towards their writing experience in L1 Arabic and L2 English and the writing problems they face as L 2 learners.
- A pre-test/ treatment/ post-test experiment followed by a CR analysis of learners' essays. Two groups are randomly chosen: an experimental (EG) and a control group (CG) from a larger population of third year (3rd) English learners at Abbas Laghrour University of Khenchela. In the pre-test, students are set to write two argumentative essays, one in Arabic and another in English, about the same topic as a preliminary step to accumulate information

that help detect similarities and differences in the use of metadiscourse in Arabic and English by the two groups. Learners in the experimental group receive a two-month treatment in the form of an instructional unit inclusive of a number of lessons highlighting appropriate metadiscourse use in English argumentative essay that would work as an awareness-raising to EFL learners. In the post test, following the same procedure, students are set to write only one essay (in English) always about the same topic. The next step aims at gathering data from both the pre and post-tests to be analysed focusing on metadiscourse, a micro-level feature of text rhetoric, to investigate the rhetorical features and strategies in the two languages. The findings, then, are compared in order to check any improvement made in terms of ‘appropriate use of English metadiscourse markers’ and, hence, ensure no deviation in the English essays rhetorical pattern.

- A post-experiment focus group discussion is conducted for the sake of collecting qualitative data that would help reveal the participants’ insights about the experimental tests (both in Arabic and English) and the instruction they received on metadiscourse use in argumentative essays writing and if they perceive any kind of improvement made.

The present study is based on Hyland (2005) taxonomy of metadiscourse functions, namely interactive and interactional markers. All occurrences of metadiscourse elements are counted and classified. Then, the rate of frequency of occurrence and preference are measured and contrasted in both languages to indicate specific rhetorical and organizational features.

6. Population and Sampling

The data for the study is collected from Third Year majors of English at Abbas Laghrour University of Khenchela. The choice of this population is motivated by the fact that Third Year students have already achieved mastery in writings’ fundamentals and are familiar with essays’ types. This is believed so, since they frequently write academic essays on

different topics and in written expression session or in other modules. Also, due to the unawareness of cultural rhetorical differences, Third Year students' writing is most of the time affected by L1 cultural pattern and linguistic devices preferences.

7. Structure of the Study

The present research is divided into six chapters: The two first chapters are theoretical; the third is purely methodological and the three last chapters are practical in nature. The structure of the present study is clearly expounded in the coming lines.

Chapter One sheds light on the rise of contrastive rhetoric as an area of research concerned with the writing of students from different cultural backgrounds. As such, it provides a brief overview of contrastive rhetoric as an emerging discipline in applied linguistics and traces its origin, development and influential disciplines.

Chapter Two investigates the other variable which this study rests on that of metadiscourse. It starts with an overview of metadiscourse; i.e.; its definitions, identifying principles and classification. Then, it sheds light on the use of metadiscourse in argumentative writing and its importance in stating and contrasting different points of views. Lastly, the chapter reviews contemporary contrastive rhetoric studies on metadiscourse in L2 English and essays written in other native languages among which is Arabic.

Chapter Three starts with a literature review of the basic concepts in research methodology: then, it moves to give an account of the methodology implemented in the present research. Therefore, it represents the focal point of this dissertation since it covers the research experimental study. Additionally, the chapter states justifications concerning the choice of the research design and instruments invested in gathering data. It also indicates the procedures used later on in the analysis and interpretation of the data.

Chapter Four is devoted to the analysis and interpretation of the data gathered from the students' questionnaire. The data are first displayed in the form of tables and then

exemplified in pie charts and line or bar graphs. Subsequent to that, the researcher wraps up the first practical chapter by discussing and interpreting the results and linking them to the aim of the present study.

Chapter Five is mainly a continuity to the previous chapter in that it deals with data analysis of the two other implemented research tools, namely the quasi-experiment and the focus group. As such, it opens with the calculation and representation of the occurrence and percentage of metadiscourse markers used in students pretest, as well as posttest essays. Then, it moves to consider the scores of students' pretest and posttest essays in order to detect any improvement made in their written output. Likewise, a paired t-test sample and an independent sample are provided along with attached comments on the two samples' results. Finally, the chapter closes with the scrutiny and interpretation of the focus group qualitative results.

Chapter Six consists of a summary, conclusion and pedagogical implications. Hence, it presents a recapitulation of the research work with its main findings followed by some research and pedagogical implications of the findings. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the study limitations and suggestions

8. Significance of the Study

We believe that this study is significant for it addresses important issues pertinent to L2 writing practices. Most of the research carried out in the area of Contrastive Rhetoric was characterized by the adoption of descriptive methods by which it explored the linguistic and cultural influence that L1 exerts on L2 students' writing. For this reason, the present study attempts to build on the previous studies' theoretical conclusions on the one hand and backs it up with treatment (or experiment) results on the other. In this manner, students will have a room to practice more the craft of argumentative essay writing and using metadiscourse markers appropriately following Hyland's (2005) taxonomy. Then, the researcher will

measure students' written performance and indicate any improvement made in their rhetorical style which will lead to rising their scores. That is to say, this study puts between teachers and practitioners' hands a 'mini-syllabus' for students' explicit instructions on metadiscourse use in English argumentative essays. This will, in turn, assist in lessening EFL students' writing problems on concrete grounds.

9. Referencing Style for the Thesis

The referencing style adopted when drafting this thesis is the 7th Edition of the APA (American Psychological Association) as it was the most convenient mode to the nature of the current study. Therefore, all the requirements proposed by the said association were utterly respected except for the running head and the "justify" function. Regarding the former, the running head was applied throughout the entirety of the dissertation except for the front page. As for the latter, the alignment of the text in the body of this work was maintained for aesthetic purposes. Both exceptions were made posterior to the agreement between the researcher and the supervisor.

Chapter One: Contrastive Rhetoric: An Overview

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Introduction

Most recently, writing has occupied a significant and fundamental position in countless fields and in different institutional, academic and occupational settings. For that reason, it has been indispensable to develop one's writing skill to meet these differing writing purposes. Yet, in the foreign/second language (L2) context, writing might be challenging and sometimes problematic due to the differences among the writer's native language/culture (L1) and that of the target language. To these ends, CR emerges as a single scientific discipline, in its own right, and take in charge the study and analysis of L2 writing as an attempt to suggest pedagogical implications to relieve L2 writing problems resulting from L1 cultural interference. Accordingly, this chapter presents a brief overview of CR as a field of

study. It first casts light on its birth and origin, then on its significance to other related disciplines and its implication to L2 writing research. Additionally, the chapter traces back the development of the field from its early beginnings until the recent time. Finally yet importantly, the chapter reviews the most influential theories and approaches to CR and clarifies its mutual relevance and common grounds.

1.1 The Birth of Contrastive Rhetoric

Ulla Connor (1996) defines ‘Contrastive Rhetoric’ 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” (p. 5). Connor also states that the field considers writing and language as cultural phenomena because of the outright influence that culture exerts on both. The emergence of ‘Contrastive Rhetoric’ (CR) as a field of study in its own right was, in fact, initiated by a number of theories in linguistics mainly Kaplan’s (1966) seminal work on ESL students’ writing and the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis (1956).

1.1.1 Kaplan’s Model

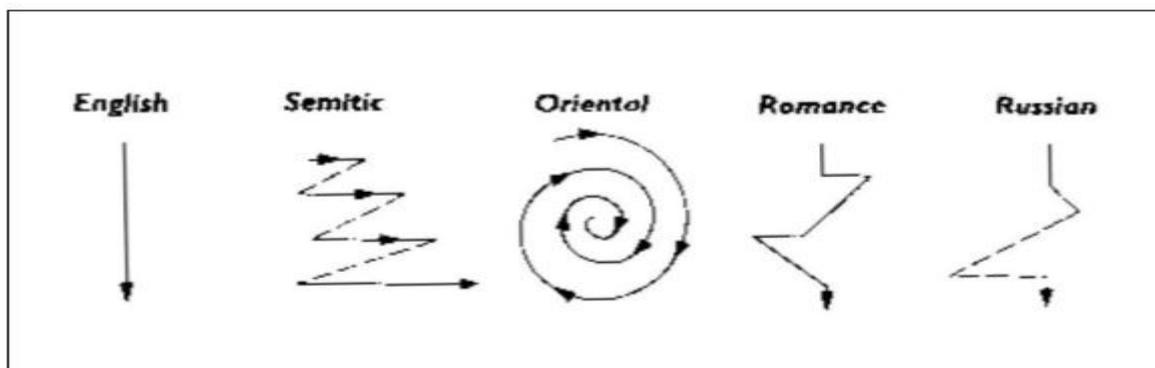
After the 1960’s onwards, the USA universities and institutions noticed a huge number of international students coming from different educational and cultural backgrounds. The latter find it difficult to think and write in a second language that was English. As a professor at one of the USA universities, Robert Kaplan noticed that the composition of his non-native students took different writing patterns that is dissimilar to the organisational pattern used by English native students. As such, Kaplan claimed that the persisting writing problems of ESL students are not solely due to the transfer of structural patterns from their native language (L1), but are also linked to the transfer of rhetorical strategies and patterns.

Kaplan stipulated that the transfer of L1 rhetorical strategies do not meet readers' expectations of the target culture. Hence, L1 interference forms a true obstacle to write well and efficiently in English. Kaplan, further, asserted that the reason behind this failure in communication is the rhetorical structure, and logic on which it rests, which is culturally bound and is "affected by canons of taste within a given culture at a given time" (1966, p. 2). He concluded that languages have their own specific and culturally driven conventions and patterns of writing. Hence, a perfectly logical argument in one culture might be viewed as sophistical or illogical in another.

To test the validity of his theory, Kaplan (1966) analysed more than 600 English expository writings of students from various nationalities, and identified five types of paragraph development, each of which mirrors different rhetorical organisations. These findings led him to the immediate conclusion that "each language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself, and that part of the learning of the particular language is the mastering of its logical system" (p. 14). In his outstanding article "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education", Kaplan claimed that English thought patterns stem of the Anglo-European cultural patterns and follow a Platonic-Aristotelian sequence descended from the philosophers of ancient Greece and shaped subsequently by Roman, Medieval European, and later Western thinkers (1966, p. 3). The findings of Kaplan's (1966) pioneering study is visually represented in the bellow figure.

Figure1.1

Doodles' Model of the Rhetorical Patterns of Different Languages (Kaplan, 1966)



As displayed in ‘Figure1’, the five languages reflect distinguishable rhetorical organisations. According to Kaplan’s (1966) study, at the macro-discourse level, English thought patterns create “a dominantly linear paragraph organization”, hence; English rhetoric is represented in a straight line. Arabic rhetoric, rather, takes the form of zigzags owing to the frequent use of parallelism; whereas, Oriental thought patterns are represented in a spiral since they use an indirect approach to reasoning. Both Romance and Russian rhetoric or thought patterns are depicted in a series of lines moving downward and curving at different angles, in which there is a room to deviate and bring in additional materials. In this respect, Connor (2002, p. 494) gives an account of Kaplan’s model where she maintains that:

Anglo-European expository essays are developed linearly whereas essays in Semitic languages use parallel coordinate clauses; those in Oriental languages prefer an indirect approach, coming to the point in the end; and those in Romance languages and in Russian include material that, from a linear point of view, is irrelevant.

Going back to Arabic, being one of the Semitic languages, Kaplan posited that it “is based on a complex series of parallel constructions, both positive and negative” (1966, p.6) compared to the “linear” rhetoric of English expository paragraph. He believed that Arabs’ writing diverts from the linear and logical norms of English discourse because the logic in

its Aristotelian sense is a foreign concept to Arab people. Add to that, in one of his recent publication, Kaplan (1988) asserted:

The primary focus of writing in Arabic rests on the language of the text, not on its propositional structure. The distinction implied here is an important one. In pedagogic terms, it is unlikely that a learner can acquire a text type that has no reality for him or her; thus there is another argument for teaching composition. The argument is not for teaching only the form of this text type; rather the argument implies that both the form and the ideological process through which one arrives at the form need to be taught. (pp. 289-290)

On the other hand, English Expository paragraph in academic writing generally starts with a topic statement followed by a number of subdivisions of the topic statement, and are backed up by exemplification. As such, Kaplan (1966) called this way of organising thoughts as the deductive method of reasoning. He, further, posited that “the English paragraph may use just the reverse procedure; it may state a whole series of examples and then relate those examples into a single statement at the end of the paragraph, which is the inductive method of reasoning” (p. 4-5).

On the whole, Kaplan’s study on CR was considered by many scholars as influential and original. In this vein, Connor (2008) holds that there were three main reasons behind the “novelty” of Kaplan’s work. First, only few ESL teachers thought much about writing at that time because the prevailing methodology (Audiolingual Method) focused on the oral skill. Second, the focus of linguists and language teachers was on the “clausal” level rather than the “discourse” level. Third, people did not believe that writing could be taught; it was considered as a gift (ibid.).

Nevertheless, Kaplan’s “traditional” contrastive rhetoric did not escape criticism for a number of reasons. First, for being ethnocentric and privileging the writing of native English

speakers (Matalene 1985; Hinds 1983). Second, for dismissing linguistic and cultural differences in writing among the related languages, that is, for including Chinese and Korean students in one “Oriental” group (Hinds 1983). Third, even Kaplan (1987, 1988) called his 1966 article his “doodle” article and suggested that rhetorical differences do not necessarily reflect different patterns of thinking. Instead, “differences may reflect different writing conventions that are learned in a culture” (Connor 1996a, p. 16). On his part, Leki (1991) considers Kaplan’s work as “explanatory and, to a degree, more intuitive than scientific, but valuable and seminal in establishing contrastive rhetoric as a new field in L2 writing research” (p. 123).

According to Connor (2008), at its beginning, the idea of CR was influenced by many areas to language learning such as Contrastive Analysis, Rhetoric, Eedagogy, and most importantly the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis and its doctrine of Cultural Relativism. The latter is “basic to CR” and “regaining acceptability in linguistics and psychology” (Connor, 1996, p.10). Hence, the second point to consider about the origin and birth of CR is the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis as it is thoroughly clarified in the following lines.

1.1.2 The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis

The initial framework of Kaplan’s (1966) CR theory has its roots in what is now commonly called “The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis”, which signals a correlation between language, culture, and thought. Discussing the birth of CR and its emergence as an area of research in its own right, Connor (1996) maintains that “the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity is basic to contrastive rhetoric because it suggests that different languages affect perception and thought in different ways” (p.10). In the same line, Matsuda (2001) relates the origin of CR to the synthesis of three influential traditions in linguistics: contrastive analysis, composition and rhetoric and the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis.

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis was formulated in 1956 by two American linguists, Edward Sapir and his student Benjamin Whorf, and hence the name. It is also known as “the Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis” and “the Negative Transfer Hypothesis” respectively, and is made up of two versions. The strong version of the hypothesis states that language does not only shape the way people think but it completely and strictly determines and controls our thinking patterns, the way we view and think about the world (Connor, 2002). Whereas, the weak version suggests that language only shapes or influences our thoughts and perception of the world. The less similar languages are, the more diverse their conceptualisation of the world would be.

Noticeably impressed by the Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis, Kaplan asserts that one’s L1 influences one’s logic and rhetorical choices among which is the use of metadiscourse devices. As an active researcher and a leading figure in the area of CR, Connor (1996) explains further its birth and relates its origin mainly to the Theory of Linguistic Relativity and to studies examining L1 transfer on L2 acquisition, Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, Error Analysis, and Interlanguage Studies.

Connor (1996, 2002), further, maintains that the very basic notion of early contrastive rhetoric lies in the weak form of the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis as “it suggests that different languages affect perception and thought in different ways” (Connor, 1996, p. 10). Taking the aforementioned claims together, the weak form of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, undeniably, forms an inspiration to Kaplan’s CR theory that is regaining respectability in linguistics and psychology, resulting in renewed interest in the study of cultural differences and the role of transfer (Connor, 1996; Gumperz & Levinson, 1996; Hunt & Agnoli, 1991).

However, Ying (2000) refutes Connor’s claim and argues that Kaplan’s ideas on CR are incompatible with the linguistic relativity hypothesis because the way language affects

thought according to Whorfianism is “diametrically opposed” (Ying, 2000, p. 263) to the way culture affects language and rhetoric according to the CR theory. Ying holds that Kaplan did not perceive language and rhetoric as “determinative” of thought patterns but that he just viewed that language and rhetoric evolve out of a culture. Furthermore, Ying argues that the origins of CR lies in Hymes’s (1962) ‘Ethnography of Communication’ as the rhetorical differences across cultures are similar to the basic principles of the ‘Ethnography of Speaking’ in a way that culture does not influence rhetoric, but rhetoric only develops from a certain culture. According to Ying, Hymes’s (1962) ethnography of communication is “an important historical antecedent for CR” (p. 265)

In response, Matsuda (2001) questions Ying’s arguments based on two reasons. First, Mastuda fails to get the meaning of Ying’s introduced concept of “diametrically opposed relationships”, which is not clear enough. Second, in Mastuda personal communication with Kaplan, the latter himself declared that Hymes had never influenced his theory of CR in any ways; rather, it is the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis that did. Moreover, Apart from the Whorfian Hypothesis, Matsuda strongly believes that Christensen’s (1965) “Generative Rhetoric of the Paragraph” and “Contrastive Analysis” are other inspiring disciplines that have paved the way to Kaplan’s study.

1.1.3 Negative Language Transfer Hypothesis

‘The Negative Language Transfer Hypothesis’ is another crucially significant and prevailing notion upon which the idea of CR is based (Khartite & Zerhouni, 2016). Negative Language Transfer Hypothesis was, first, proposed by Fries (1945) and Lado (1957) in which they argue that syntactic errors by L2 students are due to L1 interference. According to Crystal (1992), negative transfer refers to the errors a speaker introduces into one language due to the contact with the mother language. Most of students’ errors in the target language

results from a negative transfer from L1, mainly, due to a lack of certain levels of proficiency in L2. Although, some of the ESL students exhibit a good assimilation of structural units of the target language, they struggle to organise this gained knowledge into appropriate and coherent structures. This difficulty will generate a niche between the accumulation and the organisation of knowledge.

In discussing L1 interference in L2 writing, Cummins (1981) stipulates that there is commonly underlying cognitive/academic language proficiency (CALP) independent of languages, which makes transfer between L1 and L2 writing possible. He further posits that transfer can solely occur if students achieved a certain threshold level of L2 proficiency. In the same line, Lee (1968) maintains, “the prime cause, or ever the sole cause of difficulty and error in foreign language learning is interference coming from the learner’s native language’ (p. 180). This implies that previously learnt language structures, rhetorical patterns and strategies are highly transferable across languages especially when it comes to writing in the target language.

In the context of L2 writing, Kaplan (1966) considered the undesirable transmission of rhetorical structures from ESL students’ mother tongue into English as a strong evidence of the ‘Negative Language Transfer Hypothesis’, which makes them fail to use the right organizational/rhetorical patterns of the target language. He, further, postulates that “CR has been concerned with such questions as ...what learners bring with them from their own cultures and how what they bring interacts with what they encounter when they undertake to compose in English.” (Kaplan, 1988, p. 294). This evidently confirms the notion of negative transfer in students L2 writing.

As an attempt to draw students far from rhetorical deviation, Kaplan suggests that research in L2 acquisition or learning requires to identify the rhetorical patterns unique to the

native language or culture and to compare them to those preferred in the target one. Therefore, he argued, that ESL teachers are highly recommended to raise their ESL students' awareness towards which rhetorical patterns are acceptable in the English discourse and which are not. Teachers should also show their students the differences in the organisational patterns pertinent to distinctive languages and cultures, as an endeavor to assist them in enhancing their L2 writing performance.

1.2 Significance and Implication of Contrastive Rhetoric

Recently, many scholars and linguists have paid a paramount attention to written discourse over the spoken one due to its focal importance in achieving academic, as well as professional success. With this growing interest in written genres, CR is considered as the first serious attempt to explain L2 writing (Connor, 1996). The focus of this area of research is exploring second language writing (hereafter L2) by comparing and contrasting various written genres of non-native students with the aim of addressing potential deficiencies and difficulties these students may face in their writing experiences.

CR studies how cultural tendencies along with L1 transfer of the linguistic patterns and rhetorical conventions can influence and sometimes distort some features of ESL writing such as rhetorical strategies and content, hence, cause interference (Connor 2002). Doubtlessly, cultures have different preferences for rhetorical structure even though the meaning that writers try to convey is the same. Kaplan (1987) postulates that native speakers of English recognise which modes of organisation to use; whereas, Non-native speakers do not own "as complete an inventory of possible alternatives" and do not recognise "the sociolinguistic constraints on those alternatives" (p.11).

Kaplan's 1966 notion of CR has pertinent pedagogical implications that seek to solve students' problems and related issues in L2 writing through the explanation of the target language organisational patterns relying on linguistic, cultural and educational foundations

(Matsuda, 1997). In this respect, Wang (2006) posits that, when reviewing his original study, Kaplan found that CR can offer more than the analysis of rhetorical differences between languages. It can provide cultural understandings, as well as the right mechanisms that help students overcome their difficulties and produce effective L2 texts.

With the collaboration with Grabe (1996), Kaplan has stretched the aim of CR to address various issues in L2 writing. In doing so, CR now explores the way written passages work in different cultural contexts, the differences between written and spoken discourse, the use of various genres in different languages, the explanation of what counts as evidence in different cultural contexts and the analysis of how evidence is arranged in various genres as they occur in many languages (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996).

Reflecting on the importance of CR in understanding L2 students' composition and its overwhelming outcomes, Connor (2002) attaches much credit to CR for assisting non-native-English-speakers (NNES) to understand how L2 writing operates and in making them aware of the differences they would work through in writing. In her words, CR "has had an appreciable impact on the understanding of cultural differences in writing, and it has had, and will continue to have, an effect on the teaching of ESL and EFL writing". In line with her, Atkinson (2000; in Connor et al. 2008) concedes:

The contrastive rhetoric hypothesis has held perhaps its greatest allure for those in nonnative-English-speaking contexts abroad, forced as they are to look EFL writing in the eye to try to understand why it at least sometimes looks "different" – often subtly out of sync with what one might expect from a "native" perspective. (p. 1)

Another reason that CR is of such a paramount importance is that it emphasises individual and cultural-societal contributions of writers . . . [and] helps celebrate diversity and explains that nonnativeness in writing derives from social and cultural traditions imprinted upon each individual whose writing practices contribute variety to the norm" (Connor, 1996,

p. 26). That is to say, the field acknowledges multiplicity in writing styles and organisational patterns that are related tightly to the varying cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Hence, the acquisition of the writing conventions of L2 does not necessarily imply an underestimation or devaluation of L1 writing convention.

Mostly and more importantly, CR is and will always be conceived “as an excellent resource for advanced or college-level ESL/EFL writing teachers, both for gaining understanding in culturally different writing patterns and for designing writing programs in light of genre, cultural, or rhetorical concerns” (Connor, 1996, p. 378). Therefore, implications from valid research on rhetorical schemata of various languages; within the field of CR, will surely lead to better ESL writing instructional practices for teachers. Consequently, when ESL students are better instructed to meet the expectations of L1 readers in their writing classes, they would surely be in a better position to make informed rhetorical choices when composing in target language (Khartite & Zerhouni, 2016).

1.3 Development of Contrastive Rhetoric

As any other field of research, CR has noticed a series of changes and development with the passing of time. At its early beginning in the 1960, Kaplan’s study was seen as innovative and pioneering in exploring many issues related to L2 writing with an eye towards raising ESL students ‘awareness of rhetorical and linguistic difference and suggesting pedagogical implication to overcome such cultural and linguistic barriers in writing. Yet, the emergence of CR as a single area of research in its own right laid it open to a great deal of criticism because no work is flawless and CR is no exception. These critical comments shifted the focus of CR and expanded its scope to become interdisciplinary area in Applied Linguistics, hence, take up new directions and use different means of research. This shift in interest opened the door for a myriad of linguists and researchers such as Connor, Hinds,

Leki, Matalene, Kubota and Lehrer, Casanave, Ferris and Hedgcock to contribute to the development and refinement of CR starting by a reconsideration of the concept of “culture”.

1.3.1 Traditional Contrastive Rhetoric

Forty years ago, in his study of more than 600 students essays, Kaplan expanded the scope of “contrastive analysis” beyond sentence-analysis level to operate on a much broader level that of text-analysis. In this vein, it is worth mentioning that much of his work was characterised by a heavy reliance on the textual contrastive analysis of cohesion, coherence and the discourse superstructure of texts (Connor, 2002). At first, Kaplan did not use any analytical method when he examined paragraph structures. Later on, he (Kaplan, 1972 cited by Connor, 1996) applied the “discourse bloc-discourse unit” analysis, where *the discourse bloc* refers to the general idea, while *the discourse unit* refers to the supporting ideas in texts. As the research area of text linguistics has developed, novel discourse analytical instruments were designed for the study of cohesion, coherence, and macro text structures. Likewise, a large number of theories about texts’ macrostructures have been widely applied in cross-cultural text analysis such as van Dijk’s (1985) macrostructure analysis, Tirkkonen-Condit’s (1985) superstructure analysis and Toulmin’s (1958) argumentative pattern analysis. While in analysing microstructures of texts, CR studies used other theories like Halliday and Hasan’s taxonomy (1976) of cohesion and Lauttamatti’s (1987) topical structure analysis of coherence.

Kaplan’s 1966 seminal and pioneering study of CR did not escape criticism, which in part pushed the field to take up new directions and use different means of research. Among the received critics is the claim that Kaplan’s study was ethnocentric because it prefers the English written tradition over other languages and cultural written traditions (Matalene, 1985). In addition, Raimes (1991) claims that Kaplan should have considered transfer as a positive strategy rather than a negative one. Yet, it should be acknowledged that Kaplan did

not emphasize that the linearity in composition is the sole textual pattern that all English native speakers use. When he talked about the typical organisational patterns across cultures he said,

It is necessary to understand that these categories are in no sense meant to be mutually *exclusive*. Patterns may be derived for typical English paragraphs, but paragraphs like those described above as being atypical in English do exist in English. By way of obvious example, Ezra Pound writes paragraphs which are circular in their structure...(Kaplan, 1966, p. 14)

A number of researchers believed that Kaplan's work was "more intuitive than scientific" (Leki, 1991, p. 123). They argued that the diagrammes (doodle model) were overgeneralised and too simplistic in taking Oriental languages under one umbrella (Hinds, 1983); and they posited that Kaplan reduced the original Aristotelian five elements (invention, memory, arrangement, style, delivery) of rhetoric only to one element – arrangement (Liebman, 1992; Cho, 1999). Researchers maintained that the English discourse was interpreted from an insider's perspective, while discourses in the other languages were interpreted from an outsider's perspective (Atkinson, 2003) and they assumed CR to be too ethnocentric by privileging the writing of native speakers of English and regarding L1 transfer on L2 writing a negative effect (Raimes, 1991). Another critical comment is that the comparison and analysis of L2 essays was excessively prescriptive in dictating how students should structure their writings and sticking blindly to L2 writing norms.

Regardless to the fierce criticism that Kaplan's (1966) study received for more than four decades, it gave rise to a new interdisciplinary area in Applied Linguistics, with the aid of which we now have a great deal of information about the influence culture exerts on writing (Simpson, 2000). It is considered as a valuable source that informs educationalists and scholars embarking on L2 writing research as it provides them with useful insights into cross-cultural studies carried out in the field of CR.

1.3.2 Modern Intercultural Rhetoric

In his early work, Kaplan focused on the analysis of ESL students' composition starting from paragraphs and then moving to essays. Moving on, Hinds (1983) marked a shift in the field by embarking on the study of a different mode of written discourse that of professional L1 writings (newspaper editorials) while other applied linguists used developmental L1 writings from different cultures (e.g. Bickner and Peyasantiwong, 1988; Purves, 1988). Other researchers considered analyzing texts in specific genres (e.g. Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993).

Throughout the late sixties and beginning of the seventies, Hinds was the first researcher who altered the focus of CR from analysing L2 writing to analysing L1 writing as real representation of certain written traditions of a given language. Hinds (1983) believes that there was a need for contrasting L1 texts to each other. First, earlier studies relied only on the analysis of English L2 texts in order to identify transfer of L1 rhetorical structures and this was inadequate because rhetorical preferences should be examined in its real context of occurrence; i.e., examining writing in students native language or L1. Second, if L2 writers are not highly proficient in English, there will always be a difference between the proficiency levels of English L1 and English L2 writers which results in the use of differing rhetorical patterns.

However, analysing L1 texts proved also to be insufficient in yielding valuable results about cross-cultural rhetorical differences, therefore, its pedagogical implications are inadequate. As such, comparison and contrast of texts took a new direction, which consists of three types of essays: English native speakers (ENS) writing in their L1; English non-native speakers (ENNS) writing in their native L1; and ENNS writing in their L2; i.e., English. Yet, some researchers found that ENS discourse organisational pattern should not always be taken as a norm for ENNS to follow when writing because even though there is "an idealised notion

of what an ideal English paragraph or composition is ... most real texts, even within the American culture, exhibit variation from the idealised pattern(s)” (Kachru, 1999, p. 84). In addition, there is no evidence that ENS can write significantly more proficient paragraphs because “Competence in the organisation of written discourse (L1 English) develops late and that appropriate instruction has an impact on this competence” (Mohan & Lo, 1985, p. 522). Therefore, another paradigm took over and focused on comparing students' L1 and L2 writings and seems to have more insightful findings about similarities and differences of students' native, as well as target language, L1 transfer and L2 writing problems than other types of analysis did.

Noticeably, there was a paradigm shift in which the concept of CR was broadened to cognitive and sociocultural writing variables across cultures (Connor, 1996). That is to say that the field has recently expanded to include different areas of research for different purposes. According to Connor, this shift in focus and orientation resulted in four major areas of research that can be seen in applied linguistics nowadays, and are as follows:

1. Research in contrastive text linguistics: Research in this domain emphasizes linguistic devices comparisons. This domain is best exemplified by the work of Hinds (1983, 1984, 1987, and 1990).
2. Studies of writing as a cultural activity: This domain is concerned with the study of L1 developmental writings and how a given culture is embedded in the writings of its members. Then findings in one culture could be compared with others. Purves (1988) is an example in this domain.
3. Classroom-based research: This domain deals with research based on classroom observations of process writing. This is done usually through observing different cultures as they deal with each other in collaborative projects in addition to their individual products. An example of this area is Nelson and Murphy (1992).

4. Genre-specific research: this area deals with professional and academic writings like the research article (RA). This area is best exemplified by the work of Swales (1990).

The present study falls within the realm of the first area of research in CR that of “Contrastive Text Linguistics”. As such, the researcher would compare and analyse the use of “Metadiscourse Devices” in EFL university students’ argumentative essays written in Arabic and English in Algeria with the aim of identifying cultural patterns of metadiscourse in both languages and detecting any possible L1 rhetorical transfer.

With the dramatic increase of intercultural communication, CR marked substantial developments in L2 writing research. It has taken new directions to cover the area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) through the analysis of ESL students writing in varying academic and professional genres. Written genres may include thesis’ abstracts, reports, book reviews, research proposals, journal articles, business letters, meetings minutes, conferences presentations and so on. According to Connor (2002), following the lead of L1 writing research and pedagogy, empirical research on L2 writing in the 1990s became increasingly concerned with social and cultural processes in cross-cultural undergraduate writing groups and classes. Connor further maintains, “Although largely restricted throughout much of its first 30 years to student essay writing, the field today contributes to knowledge about preferred patterns of writing in many English for specific purposes situations.” (p. 1).

Another noticeable development in contemporary CR is the move beyond studying writing as a product to studying it as a cognitive and culture-bound activity. In this vein, Connor (1996) postulates that the main focus of CR, recently, is drawn far from purely structural analysis to an interest in “cognitive and sociocultural variables of writing in addition to the linguistic variables” (p. 18). In the same line, Grabe and Kaplan (1989) hold that “the mental processes through which the composition is generated have not been, and be,

ignored. Criticisms that claim contrastive rhetoric gives attention exclusively to product issues result from a number of basic misunderstandings” (p. 272).

Moreover, as multidisciplinary area of intercultural research, CR now uses the theories and methods of some related disciplines as Applied Linguistics, Composition and Rhetoric Studies, Anthropology, Translation Studies and Discourse Analysis (Connor, 1996, 2002). Connor, further, reviews the major findings about CR study in the past forty years and admits that the field “has benefited from insights drawn from four domains: text linguistics, the analysis of writing as a cultural and educational activity, classroom-based studies of writing, and contrastive genre-specific studies” (2002, p.497). The below stated table demonstrates the four domains of investigation and the main studies within CR as suggested by Connor.

Table 1.1

Sample Contrastive Studies in Four Domains of Investigation (Connor, 2002, p. 498)

Domain	Purpose	Examples
Contrastive text linguistic studies	Examine, compare, and contrast how texts are formed and interpreted in different languages and cultures using methods of written discourse analysis	Clyne (1987); Connor & Kaplan (1987); Eggington (1987); Hinds (1983, 1987, 1990)
Studies of writing as cultural and educational activity	Investigate literacy development on L1 language and culture and examine effects on the development of L2 literacy	Carson (1992); Purves (1988)
Classroom-based contrastive studies	Examine cross-cultural patterns in process writing, collaborative revisions, and student-teacher conferences	Allaei & Connor (1990); Goldstein & Conrad (1990); Hull, Rose, Fraser, & Castellano (1991); Nelson & Murphy (1992)
Genre-specific investigations	Are applied to academic and professional writing	Bhatia (1993); Connor, Davis, & De Rycker (1995); Jenkins & Hinds (1987); Mauranen (1993); Swales (1990); Tirkkonen-Condit (1996); Ventola & Mauranen (1991)

Regarding the innovation in methodology and change in direction and focus, Connor (2004) suggests a “*new labelling*” that better accounts for the contemporary field of CR, that of “*Intercultural Rhetoric*”. This new naming, which better echoes the vibrant side of the research area, did not crop up haphazardly. Connor (2004) argues that the latter is motivated by a number of influential factors such as the “Changing definitions of written discourse analysis from text- based to context sensitive and of culture from static to dynamic” (p. 302). She, further, explains that the term “intercultural rhetoric” is inclusive of cross-cultural studies as well as the interactive situations in which writers with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds negotiate L2 writing for different purposes (Connor, 2008).

As a true matter of fact, Intercultural Rhetoric shifts its focus from pure contrast and possible stereotyping to the examination of cross-cultural interaction (international communication) in written discourse through analysing how texts are produced and used. In doing so, studies into Intercultural Rhetoric rest, in essence, on the premise of “processes,

contexts, and particular situations” in writing (Connor, 2004, p. 293). This implies that the contemporary CR calls for ‘culture tolerance’ and the elimination of the alleged longstanding view that some languages are superior or more prestigious to another.

As mentioned previously, a growing body of experimental studies contributes constantly to the development and expansion of CR starting from its early beginning with Kaplan’s work on the contrastive-analysis of EFL students’ paragraphs to the new interdisciplinary area of research. It is believed that the development of the field falls into three successive stages as follows: the stage of the composing process, the stage of social construction and the stage of writing as a cultural/social process. In this respect, Connor (2002) better illustrates these stages in her own words:

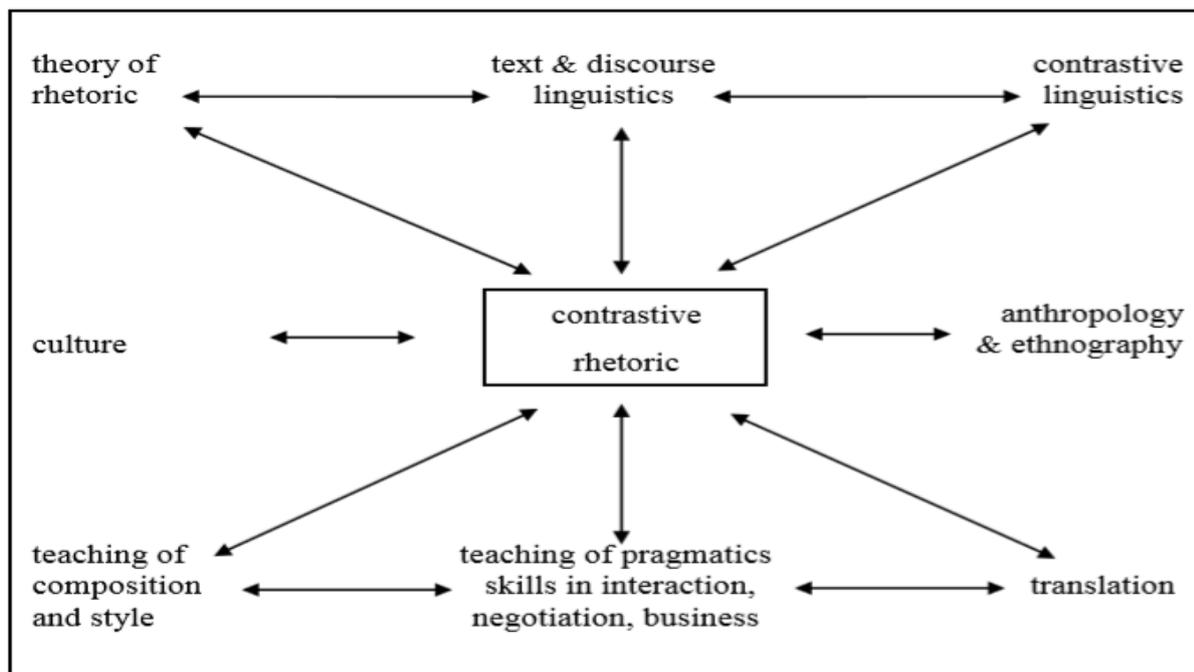
Following the lead of L1 writing research and pedagogy, in which the 1970s were said to be the decade of the composing process and the 1980s the decade of social construction, empirical research on L2 writing in the 1990s became increasingly concerned with social and cultural processes in cross-cultural undergraduate writing groups and classes. (p. 497)

1.4 Influential Disciplines

Throughout the last forty years, a myriad of theories and disciplines has influenced the field of CR in many ways. The latter has drawn insights from these research areas because they share the same objective that of easing and improving L2 acquisition and learning by assisting international learners step over cultural obstacles and its related problems. In this vein, Enkvist (1997) reviews these inspiring disciplines, which informed CR research and provided a source of raw material as demonstrated in the figure below:

Figure 1.2

Contrastive Rhetoric in Relation to its Neighboring Disciplines (Enkvist, 1997, p. 194)



Interfaces with other disciplines is, further, discussed by Connor (1996) who put forward a taxonomy identifying seven research areas that form the corner stone of CR field. According to her, as a banner bearer of the field after Kaplan, CR has developed from earlier research on: Applied Linguistics, Linguistic Relativity, Rhetoric, Text Linguistics, Discourse Types and Genres, Literacy and Translation. More light is cast on these influential disciplines in the coming sections.

1.4.1 Theory of Applied Linguistics

Applied linguistics is conceptualised as “the utilisation of the knowledge about the nature of language achieved by linguistic research for the improvement of the efficiency of some practical task in which language is a central component.” (Corder, 1974, p. 24). That is to say, investing comprehensive knowledge about language to detect problems that learners may encounter during their process of language learning or acquisition. To Grabe (2002), the focus of Applied Linguistics is:

on trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they be learners, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyers, service

providers, those who need social services, test takers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of business clients. (p. 9).

Practically speaking, “Applied Linguistics’ Theory” sustains CR research through casting more light on practical problems and related issues pertinent to L2 learning and acquisition. According to Connor (2002), a huge body of research in CR was accomplished depending greatly on “Applied Linguistics and Linguistic Text Analysis” (p. 496). Such analysis takes into account different micro as well as macro language features like: coherence, cohesion, and discourse superstructure. Undeniably, Applied Linguistics does inform CR research and provide it with a myriad of studies and approaches concerned with ‘transfer research’ namely Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Interlanguage Analysis.

1.4.1.1 Contrastive Analysis

Ellis (1994) believes that the major influence on CR comes from transfer studies that were in the foreground of applied linguistics from the 1950s to the 1980. Precisely in 1945, Charles C. Fries proposed the first pioneering research approach to transfer ‘the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis’ (CAH) which was later on developed by Lado in his book ‘*Linguistics across Cultures*’ around the year 1957. The CAH establishes a comparison of L1 and L2 with an eye towards signaling learners’ L2 potential errors. The hypothesis’ strong version runs the claim that when the elements of L1 and L2 are different they will cause difficulty for learners and, hence, negative transfer will take place. However, scholars and researchers in the field of language teaching find out that transfer cannot account for all students’ errors. According to Ellis (1994), the CAH can only be applied “to explain rather than predict them (errors)” (p. 308). As such, the weak version of the CAH, which claims that only some errors are caused by transfer, gained more credit over the strong one.

The analysis and comparison of languages exerted by Contrastive Analysis Approach operates at various levels: phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis, and so on stressing areas of difference -which equals difficulty- to offer solutions for L2 instruction (Johansson, 2000). In his view, Lado (1957) postulates that L2 learners will find it easy to acquire the elements which are similar to the ones in their mother language; while those which are different will be exceedingly problematic. He, further, explains:

...in the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning....We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be easy for him and those elements that are different will be difficult. (Lado, 1957; in McAllister, 2000, p. 50)

There is a wide consensus that this systematic comparison among languages will result in effective instruction pedagogy if it receives more attention from L2 teachers and practitioners. In this vein, Fries (1945) highly recommends the use of the CAH in which he communicates, “the most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.” (p. 9).

More importantly, the CAH gets its incredible importance from different underlying enquiries which mainly seek to investigate:

- The reason why some features of the L2 are more difficult to acquire than others.
- The presence or absence of the rules in the compared languages

- Which element or class of elements in L1 are equivalent or different from the ones of L2
- The best teaching materials based on Contrastive Analysis to facilitate L2 learning.

It is worth noting that the common ground between CAH and Kaplan's CR lies in the assumption that "difference equals difficulty". For the CAH differences in L2 structures or rules will pose difficulty to students when trying to grasp and acquire them. Similarly, for CR differences in L2 rhetorical organisation will result in a problematic learning situation and will run the risk of rhetorical deviation in students' compositions. In this respect, Lado (1957) maintains:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meaning of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture, both productively and when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture and respectively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by natives. (in Gass and Selinker 1983, p. 1)

Nevertheless, the CAH was criticised for being inadequate in its prediction of L2 learners' errors. According to Wardhaugh (1970, p. 13), the strong version rests on a weak linguistic theory; similarly, the weak version is unsatisfactory because it does not predict anything except its identification of the already occurred errors. In addition, empirical studies carried out during the 1970s indicate that not all errors made in L2 learning are ascribed to interference of L1. Moreover, many errors predicted by Contrastive Analysis are not apparent in interlanguage; i.e.; learners' language. For some exponents, the strong form of the CAH was not grounded on a firm theoretical premise; hence, unrealistic and impracticable. While its weak form stood insufficient to elucidate and explain students' errors.

In view of its underlying hypothetical foundation, Cognitivist attacked harshly the CAH because it was strongly associated with behaviourism in that Lado (1957) assumed that learning a language was like learning anything else and considered language acquisition as a set of habit formation. Another argument that runs opposite to the Contrastive Analysis is put forward by ‘transformational linguists’ who assert that not all languages can be compared for it is quite impossible to categories infinite structures of languages. As a result, these drawbacks and imperfections paved the way for the rise of the second significant transfer research approach known as ‘Error Analysis’.

1.4.1.2. Error Analysis

Error analysis (EA) is an established scientific approach in applied linguistics that studies systematic errors in L2 learners' performance as a way to inform L2 acquisition research. It was developed throughout the 1960's by the researcher Corder S. Pit. As Contrastive Analysis started to decline gradually and lose credibility, EA was considered a good alternative that has its value in the classroom research (Brown 1994). For Khansir (2012), EA emerged to the scene “to reveal that learner errors were not only because of the learner's native language but also they reflected some universal strategies” (p. 1027). That is to say, in part, EA rejects the claim that all errors are attributed to the interference of learners' native language; on the contrary, errors can be entirely explained in relation to L2. In another part, EA links learners' performance to the cognitive processes they use to decipher the input they come across during their acquisition of the target language.

According to Ellis (2000), EA offers a systematic procedure for investigating learners' language and therefore it forms an appropriate preliminary step towards the study of their L2 acquisition and learning. In the same line, Schachter and Celce-Murcia acknowledge that the detailed analysis of errors in L2 learners' performance provides factual empirical data rather

than theoretical speculation for developing a syllabus or a model of second language acquisition (in Robinet & Schachter 1983). In his turn, Brown (1994) describes EA “as the process of observing, analyzing, and classifying the deviations of the rules of the second language and then revealing the systems operated by the learner”. Whereas Crystal (1992, p. 125) posits that “error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics”.

The chief interest of analysts in EA was on the actual error, i.e., the ‘product’. Now there is a shift from the product to the ‘process’ underlying it. A bulk of studies in EA (Corder, 1967, 1974; Dulay & Burt, 1973, 1974; Hatch, 1978; Larsen Freeman, 1975, Ellis, 1994) confirm that the major analysis has been on the reasons and factors leading L2 learners to make errors. As such, errors are no more considered as slips to circumvent, rather as something that should be noted, categorized and analysed carefully. Error analysts differentiate between errors which are systematic and mistakes which are not. Typically, they follow a ‘typology of errors’ that constitute the below-stated steps.

- describing the nature and types of learners’ errors.
- providing evidence of how language is learnt or acquired.
- diagnosing the strategies or procedures the learner employs in the discovery of the language.

In view of students’ errors, Corder (1973) has distinguished two common types: ‘Interlingual errors’ caused by L1 transfer and ‘intralingual errors’; i.e., developmental errors, caused by the creative constructions of language learners. However, Richards and Schmidt (2002) proposed a more detailed ‘taxonomy’ that sorts L2 learners’ error into seven classes as follows:

1. *Overgeneralizations*: errors caused by extension of target language rules to inappropriate contexts.
2. *Simplifications*: errors resulting from learners producing simpler linguistic rules than those found in the target language.
3. *Developmental errors*: those reflecting natural stages of development.
4. *Communication-based errors*: errors resulting from strategies of communication.
5. *Induced errors*: those resulting from transfer of training.
6. *Errors of avoidance*: resulting from failure to use certain target language structures because they are thought to be too difficult.
7. *Errors of overproduction*: structures being used too frequently (Richards and Schmidt, 2002, p. 185).

Incontestably, EA has significantly contributed to the field of L2 teaching and learning, and is deemed as a reliable method to the study of errors (Ellis, 1994; Corder, 1967; Brown, 1994). However, it did not escape criticism for it had its own weaknesses. Ellis (1994) noted that, on the one hand, EA studied only what students did not know and ignored what they already knew. On the other hand, the approach could not explain ‘avoidance errors’ that the majority of L2 students frequently commit. As a result, the ‘Interlanguage Theory’ took over to respond to the number of questions and enquiries left unanswered by the previous approach.

1.4.2 Interlanguage Analysis

The term ‘interlanguage’ was first adapted from Weinreich’s 1953 “Language in Contact”, and then coined by the American linguist Selinker in 1972 (Ellis, 2000). Interlanguage is defined as “a system that has a structurally intermediate status between the native and target languages.” (Brown, 1994, p. 203). In the same line, Selinker (1972) states

that interlanguage refers to L2 learners' language which is "a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a TL norm" (p. 214). Put differently, Interlanguage is neither the system of L1 nor that of L2, but a system that falls in-between. It is a unique system different from both L1 and L2 with its specific grammar and lexicon based on the learner's attempts to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them. Interlanguage reflects stages of L2 acquisition in which errors are indicators of the language learning process.

According to Ellis (1994), a learner's interlanguage is the learner's grammar that is mainly characterised by the addition or deletion of rules, overgeneralizations and transfer errors leading to a reconstruction of L2 whole system. This dynamic system, which constitutes abstract linguistic rules about the comprehension and the production of L2, stands as a proof of students' learning strategies. In the same line, Sárosdy, J. et al. (2006) assert:

Interlanguage refers to the process the learner goes through from the initial stage when he knows very little about the language getting to a final stage when he possesses almost complete fluency. It shows a transitional stage of the learner's development towards L2 competence. It is a system that the learners construct at any stage in their development. (p. 123)

In his theory of 'Interlanguage, Selinker differentiate between L2 'communication strategies' and 'learning strategies'. The former are ways in which the learner uses his linguistic resources to communicate fluently or handle communication problems. Whereas the latter involves "the mechanisms that learners use to (1) notice features in the input, (2) compare these features that are currently part of their mental grammars or interlanguages, and (3) integrate the new features into their interlanguages." (Ellis, 1994, p. 30).

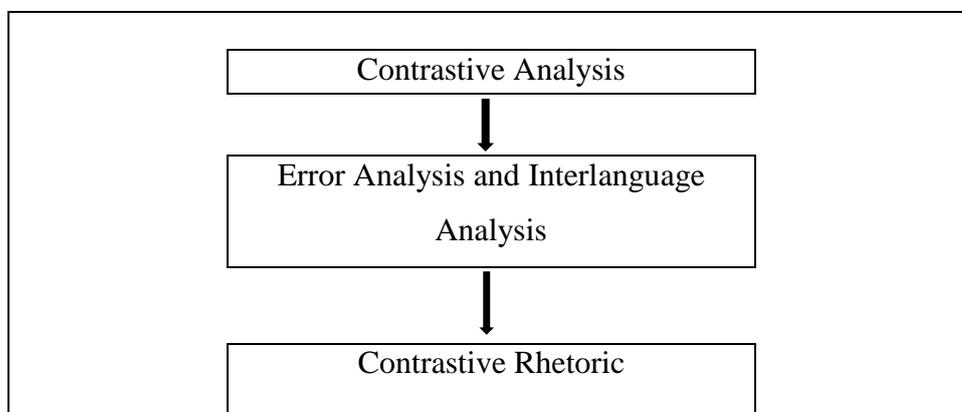
In a related matter, Ellis (1985 and 1989) proposed that interlanguage develops simultaneously in three phases: (1) *innovation*: the acquisition of new forms, (2) *elaboration*:

the use of more complex language as the use of forms in different contexts is discovered. (3) *revision*: the adjustments of language that are made as a result of innovation and elaboration. In respect of Interlanguage Analysis, Connor (1996) explains that it involves a continuum analysis of language learners' linguistic development with reference to L1 and L2 linguistic systems and the transitional competence of L2 learners.

When trying to figure out the common tie among the previously discussed approaches to 'transfer research', we notice that CR ranks last and is informed by the finding and enquiries pertinent to: CA, EA and interlanguage analysis. The below figure clearly illustrates the relationship between L1 interference studies as suggested by Bennui, 2008.

Figure 1.3

L1 Interference Studies Relationship (Bennui, 2008, p. 75)



In the context of L1 transfer research, Bennui (2008) maintains that Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis and Interlanguage Analysis depend on the structural approach of linguistic study in their investigation of L2 acquisition. These approaches classify utterances according to their varying linguistic levels (phonology, syntax, morphology and semantics) to explain learners' errors and negative transfer of L1 rules and structure in the course of learning L2. Nevertheless, the main interest of CR was not to scrutinise language structures

separately but to “compare discourse structures across cultures and genres” (ibid, p. 76). In addition, CR attempts to sustain L2 writing research and raise learners’ awareness towards the influence their mother language and culture exert on their L2 writing performance.

1.4.3 Theory of Linguistic Relativity

Among the pervasive arguments concerned with the relationship between language and culture is the Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis. Given this ostensible inseparability of language and culture, Kramsch (1998) speculates that speakers of different languages may fall into misunderstanding traps due to the fact that “they don’t agree on the meaning and the concepts underlying words.”(p. 13). In the same line, Sapir (1921) speculates:

The world view of a speech community is reflected in the linguistic patterns they use... the ‘reality’ that is categorized in the underlying patterns of a language is an indication of how speakers of that language view the world; and, inversely, how they view the world depends on the language system they have.”(Cited in Seelye, 1993, pp, 6-7)

Taken CR into account, we notice that the above-stated definition of the Linguistic Relativity hypothesis and Kaplan’s definition of CR clearly overlap. Kaplan (1966) hypothesises that rhetoric is mainly concerned with “what goes on in the mind rather than with what comes out of the mouth. 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” (p 16). As such, he asserts that students’ native language and culture affect the target language writing processes and written products at the rhetorical and macro- structural levels. In other words, one’s first language is bound, if not to shape, at

least affect to some extent the logic and rhetorical choices they tend to make when composing in a language other than their first one (Khartite & Zarhouni, 2015).

Overall, the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis has contributed largely to intercultural studies and research on L2 language acquisition and learning. In this vein, Connor (1996) emphasises that “the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity is basic to Contrastive Analysis, Error Analysis, Interlanguage Analysis, and Contrastive Rhetoric because it suggests that different languages affect perception and thought in different ways” (p. 10). Unsurprisingly, Grabe & Kaplan (1987) admit that “contrastive rhetoric frankly derives some but not all of its orientations from the weak version of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis” (p. 197). With its deterministic strong version and moderately accepted weak version the Linguistic Relativity hypothesis constitutes a true source of inspiration to Kaplan’s initial idea of CR that EFL students from different linguistic and cultural background would undoubtedly manifest different writing styles with varying rhetorical patterns due to their L1 interference.

1.4.4 Theory of Rhetoric

The third theory that had a strong impact on CR study, which was Kaplan’s specialty as a doctoral student, is rhetoric (Hamadouche, 2015). Rapp (2010) stated that, in Aristotle’s view, rhetoric is the ability to see what is possibly persuasive in every given case. In this respect, Freese (1926) mentions that the art of rhetoric, or the use of language to impress the hearers and influence them for or against a certain point of view, is as old as language itself and the beginnings of social and political life. It was widespread and greatly esteemed by the Greeks from the earliest times, and its emergence as an art in its own right was in the island of Sicily (p. VII). According to Aristotle, persuasion or arguments must rest on logical *logos*, emotional *pathos*, and ethical *ethos* appeals. In addition, it should follow a Syllogistic reasoning, where a major premise is followed by a minor premise, then a conclusion.

Other scholars such as Kennedy (1998) and Sullivan and Porter (1997) approach rhetoric beyond its classical definition of style, argument and persuasion; they perceive it as an act of communication through utterances made for a purpose (Hamadouche, 2015). In relation, Connor (1966) holds that rhetoric is essentially interested in evaluating the direct or indirect effects of communication on hearers or readers. She further explains that Aristotle's rhetoric involves five elements: invention, memory, arrangement, style, and delivery; nonetheless, Kaplan focused only on the element of arrangement or organization (Connor, 2008).

Kaplan (1967) defines rhetoric as “the method of organizing syntactic units into larger patterns” which is mainly “concerned with factors of analysis, data gathering, interpretation, and synthesis” (p. 11). More precisely, the macrostructure of texts or the rhetorical pattern or overall organisation is conceived as a culturally driven and bound phenomenon than the microstructure itself and this is apparent in Kaplan's quote “Rhetoric is as much a culturally coded phenomenon as the syntactic units themselves are” (Kaplan, 1967, p. 11). Kaplan goes on to add that Logic, which forms the base of rhetoric, is evolved out of culture; and it can never be universal. This implies that rhetoric, in its turn, is not universal either but differs from culture to culture and from time to time within a given culture. This is believed so because rhetoric “is affected by canons of taste within a given culture at a given time” (Kaplan, 1967, p. 12).

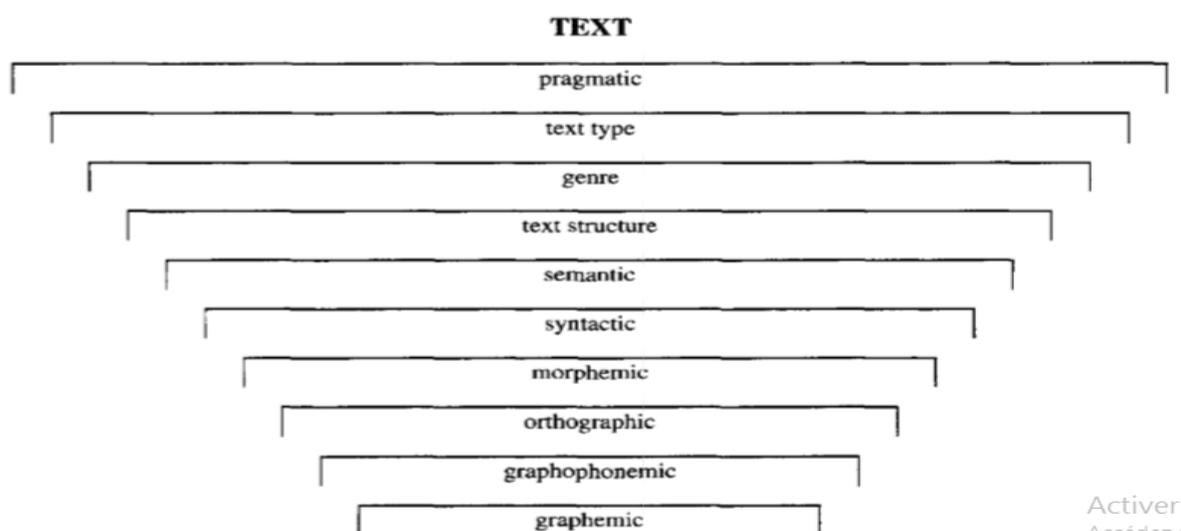
1.4.5 Theory of Text Linguistics

Throughout the 1970's, text linguistics has emerged as a modern approach with the aim of studying and analysing written discourse. Dolník and Bajžíková (1998) define Text Linguistics as the study of text as a product (text grammar) or as a process (theory of text). The text-as-a-product approach is focused on the text cohesion, coherence, topical

organization, illocutionary structure and communicative functions; the text-as-a-process perspective studies the text production, reception and interpretation. It evolved out of pragmatics in that it attaches incredible importance to context in linguistic studies wherein meaning resides in the text or the communicative act and the context of occurrence. In this light, Shaheen (1991) speculates that this newly developed approach in linguistics considers the text as the convenient unit for analysis, and studies meaning in relation to the context and considers the reader as a producer rather than a consumer. In a very real sense, Text Linguistics establishes full understanding of written discourse through highlighting its different interwoven features and aspects such as text type and genre, context or pragmatics of the situation, text organisation and so on as demonstrated in the following figure.

Figure 1.4

Internal relationships among text and the systems of language (Kucer, 2005, p. 43)



The theory of text linguistics is exceedingly important to CR because it provides an account for “textual cohesion, structures of texts, theme dynamics, and metatextual features” (Connor, 1996, p. 11). Leki (1991), Matsuda (1997), and Connor (2002) postulate that CR research used text linguistics or linguistic text analysis as a data collection method that made it possible to quantify certain features like cohesive devices and coherence and discourse of

texts in L1 and L2 writing. Given this paramount importance, Connor further argues, “CR has greatly benefited from methodologies of *text linguistics* in analyzing such text attributes as coherence, narrative structure, or morphosyntactic features” (ibid, p. 377). Notably, the growing body of literature indicates that the CR studies informed by text linguistics have offered insights into differences between L1 and L2 texts as well as among texts of different genres.

1.4.6 Theory of Discourse Types and Genres

Most generally, the CR studies embark on the analysis of different types and genres of texts, be it written for instructional, academic, or professional purposes. Given these apparent variations among written discourse, precisely text, Connor (1996) suggests that the latter is distinguished according to three criteria:

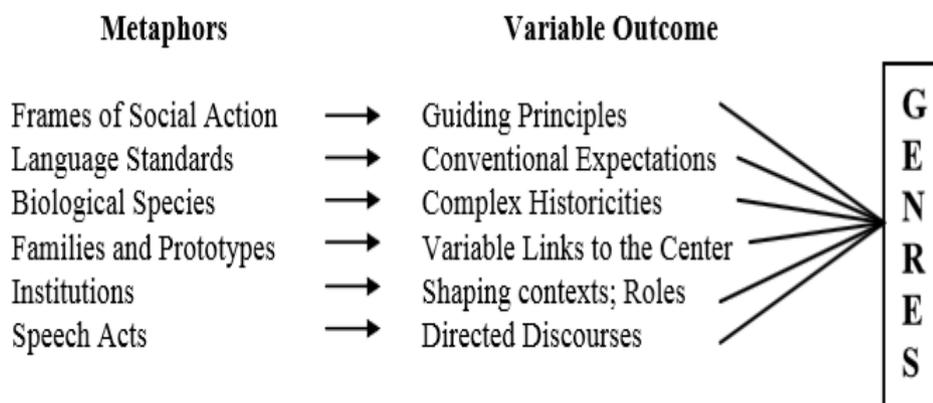
1. Discourse type i.e., the aim of the discourse (e.g. argumentative prose);
2. Text type i.e., the mode of discourse (e.g. narrative passage in an argumentative text);
3. Genre, which refers to the cultural and traditional expectations involved in forming texts for specific purposes and tasks (e.g. research report in biology) (Connor, 1996, p. 11).

According to Swales (1990) genre refers to “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes”(p.58). He further maintains, “these purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and therefore constitute the rationale for the genre” (Swales, 1990, p. 58). In his 2004 book *Research Genres*, Swales holds that when talking about genres he favours the notion of ‘metaphor’ instead of definition. For him, definitions are not always “true in all possible worlds and all possible times” and, hence, may “prevent us from seeing newly explored or newly emergent genres for what they really are” (Swales, 2007, p. 61). For this reason, he proposes, “a metaphorical approach is a viable alternative” (2004, p. 147). Swales (2004, pp.

61-67) makes use of ‘*six metaphors*’ that account for the concept of genres as illustrated in the figure below.

Figure 1.5

Metaphors of Genre Source (Swales 2004)



Unlike Swales’ 1990 definition, which includes only linguistic and sociological factors, Bhatia’s (2004) definition includes an additional psychological aspect. Bhatia’s definition of genres is more comprehensive and draws upon Swales and other scholars’ definitions and is, virtually, relevant to the current cross-cultural writing studies.

Genre essentially refers to language use in a conventionalised communicative setting in order to give expression to a specific set of communicative goals of a disciplinary or social institution, which give rise to stable structural forms by imposing constraints on the use of lexico-grammatical as well as discoursal resources. (P.23)

Genre theories focus not only on the textual features of genres but on the contextual and cultural properties as well. This denotes that understanding a given genre necessarily implies understanding the culture from which it evolves and forms part. In that matter, Miller (1994) perceives genres as a ‘cultural artifact’ for genres are considered as bearers of “knowledge of the aesthetics, economics, politics, religious beliefs and all the various dimensions of what we know as human culture” (Miller, 1994, p.69). From her perspective,

genres are social actions which are socially constructed and mediated by both situation (an external force) and motive (an internal force). Given their mutual relevance and dependency, we deduce that the notion of ‘culture’ is a shared interest to both Genre Analysis theories and CR studies, as it is common to the previously discussed approaches.

After Text Linguistics, Genre Analysis is the more recent approach that used in CR research since the latter has expanded its field of investigation to study different genres. In this regard, Connor (2004) admits that Genre Analysis has drawn increasing attention in recent CR research. According to her, “Genre Analysis has provided methods of analysis that supplement the discourse analysis methods” (p. 2). In doing so, Connor further explains that the Genre Analysis development has been beneficial for CR studies as “it has forced the researchers to compare apples with apples” (Connor, 2004, p. 297). Interestingly, the approach’s development in theory and practice is increasingly significant for CR research in that it widens and enlarges the scope of its studies to incorporate various writing genres written in different languages and echoing diversified cultures and modes of thinking.

A good illustration of the paramount significance of the Theory of Genres to CR research is Connor’s (1996) investigation of the cultural differences among texts of various genres such as cultural essay formulas, research articles, grant proposals, business writing, editorials, résumés, and political discourse. It is not to deny that genre experts’ focus “on generic superstructures and rhetorical functional analysis of specific genres has advanced intercultural rhetoric to other academic and professional genres” (Connor, 2004, p. 297). Differently put, Genre analyses in CR studies mainly focus on generic superstructures and rhetorical functional analyses like Swales’ CARs Model for the analysis of ‘moves’ in native and nonnative writers’ abstracts or research articles

1.4.7 Theory of Literacy

In its broader sense, Literacy underlies more concerns than the study of the two language skills of reading and writing. According to Kern (2000), literacy “conveys a broader scope than the terms ‘reading’ and ‘writing’ and thus permits a more unified discussion of relationships between readers, writers, texts, culture, and language learning” (p. 2). In the same line, Kucer (2005) hold that Literacy is growing as a multidimensional area of research, henceforth, it is conceptualized differently according to the various disciplines it incorporates. In his own word, Kucer explains,

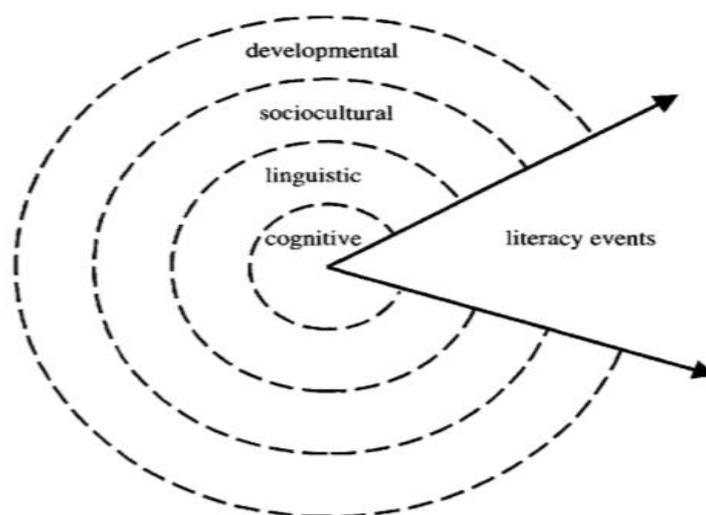
Linguists emphasize the language or textual dimensions of reading and writing. Cognitive psychologists explore the mental processes that are used to generate meaning through and from print. Socio-culturalists view acts of literacy as expressions of group identity that signal power relationships. Developmentalists focus on the strategies employed and the patterns displayed in the learning of reading and writing. (Kucer, 2005, p. 3)

CR is, undoubtedly, pertinent to the Theory of Literacy in that it tracks the improvement of literacies through the study and analysis of L2 students’ composition or written output. In its turn, Literacy studies contribute to and inform CR research by offering insights into languages’ cultural differences and its impact on L2 reading and writing skills. In relation, Connor (1996) believes that Literacy studies do provide contrastive rhetoric with the understanding why certain writing styles are valued more than others in certain cultures and gives information about teaching and learning literacy cross cultures. Not surprisingly, both Literacy Theory and CR share the same concern, namely cultural literacy of the native as well as the target language and its mutual influence in reading and writing. In addition, both of them seek to find solutions to students’ problems arising from cultural differences and eliminating any potential cultural deviation, particularly, in writing. In this vein, Kucer (2005) asserts that “becoming or being literate means learning to effectively, efficiently, and

simultaneously control the linguistic, cognitive, sociocultural, and developmental dimensions of written language in a transactive fashion” (p. 4). The below figure better illustrates the dimensions of literacy as suggested by Kucer.

Figure 1.6

Dimensions of Literacy (Kucer, 2005, p. 5)



1.4.8 Theory of Translation

CR theory draws on ample disciplines and areas including anthropology, pedagogy, linguistics, and translation studies” (Quinn, 2012). The latter is a linguistic activity that undermines a cultural communicative function as well. For Albercht Neubert and Gregory Shreve (1992), translation is diversified since it includes different discourses and perspectives that vary according to cultures. Hence, the translated scripts or texts are another part of ongoing cultural communication, which renders translation an interdisciplinary discipline. As cultural and social standards are in the course of change, the culturist and translation theorist Mary Snell-Hornby (1988) recommends the dependency on culture rather than text as the unit of translation.

Most generally, what matters most when translating a given text is not the word by word meaning, rather, what is not said yet understood that counts more. Therefore, translators are meant to read between the lines as to decode the culturally hidden meaning that is communicated in that written piece. In this respect, James Homes (1978, cited in Hatim, 2001) maintains that unless scholars detach themselves from the sentence level to explore the realism of soft text, no adequate general theory of translation can be established and progressed. In support of this view, Koller (1995), “As a translator, I am also in a position to judge when a source text is unsuitable as a model for a target culture, and to propose to the client the production of a new text for the target culture” (p. 194). In other words, models or genres of discourse are tightly bound to the culture of the language under which the translation is going to be carried out.

For Hatim and Mason (1990), through the process of translation from one language to another, translators are in a direct contact with the intercultural aspects of the target language. As such, a good translator has to be aware of various discourse markers, linking words and the ability of structuring a text. They further asserts, “we can make language teaching intercultural, holistic, experiential ... by using translation tasks we can state that translation is a communicative activity.” (Hatim and Mason, 1990, p. 64). In their shared view, Hatim and Mason believe that the translation task is better redefined as “a process not a product and the meaning of the text as something that is negotiated between producer and receiver and not a static entity” (Hatim and Mason, 1990, p. 65).

According to Connor (1996), Translation studies and contrastive rhetoric have expanded their scopes in the past few years to include more subjects of discussion further than structural analysis and literal translation. The common ground or intersection between these two disciplines is the adoption of culture as the basic unit for their underlying studies and research. CR treats language and writing as cultural phenomena while translators depend

on the target language culture as the unit of the translation activity rather than its system of structures. Therefore, translation would be better thought of as a process of cultural communication wherein the translated piece is an active element of constant cultural communication. Taken all in all, translation and L2 writing are perceived as intercultural undertakings that might be problematic and challenges due to cultural variation among the native language and the target one.

1.4.9 Schema Theory

Schema theory is closely linked to Kaplan's hypothesis of CR due to a number of intersections and common grounds. This theory, which initiates from research in cognitive science, is conceptualised as an "approach to information processing", and it rests on the assumption that "processing a text is an interactive process between the text and prior background knowledge or memory schemata of the listener or readers [as well as writers]" (Carrell 1984, p. 482). According to Carrell, what is called 'formal schemata' incorporate background knowledge of rhetorical structures that govern the reading text and writing processes in the target language, and this makes the Schema Theory relevant to CR hypothesis in many ways.

Studies carried out about Schema Theory indicate that readers and writers need to accumulate necessary knowledge according to which they can read and write appropriately in the target language. In this light, Reid (1988) believes that "novice writers need familiarity and practice with the common rhetorical strategies so that they can make intelligent choices as they select a form for their 'discovered' ideas" (p. 150). Hence, developing relevant rhetorical schemata or "stored plans for creating such format" is very important for novice student writers to step over inconveniencies in L2 writing (Flower & Hayes, 1980, p.29).

In the context of ESL, the tight connection between the Schema Theory and CR lies in the fact that ESL students should be aware of the linear rhetorical pattern of English essays

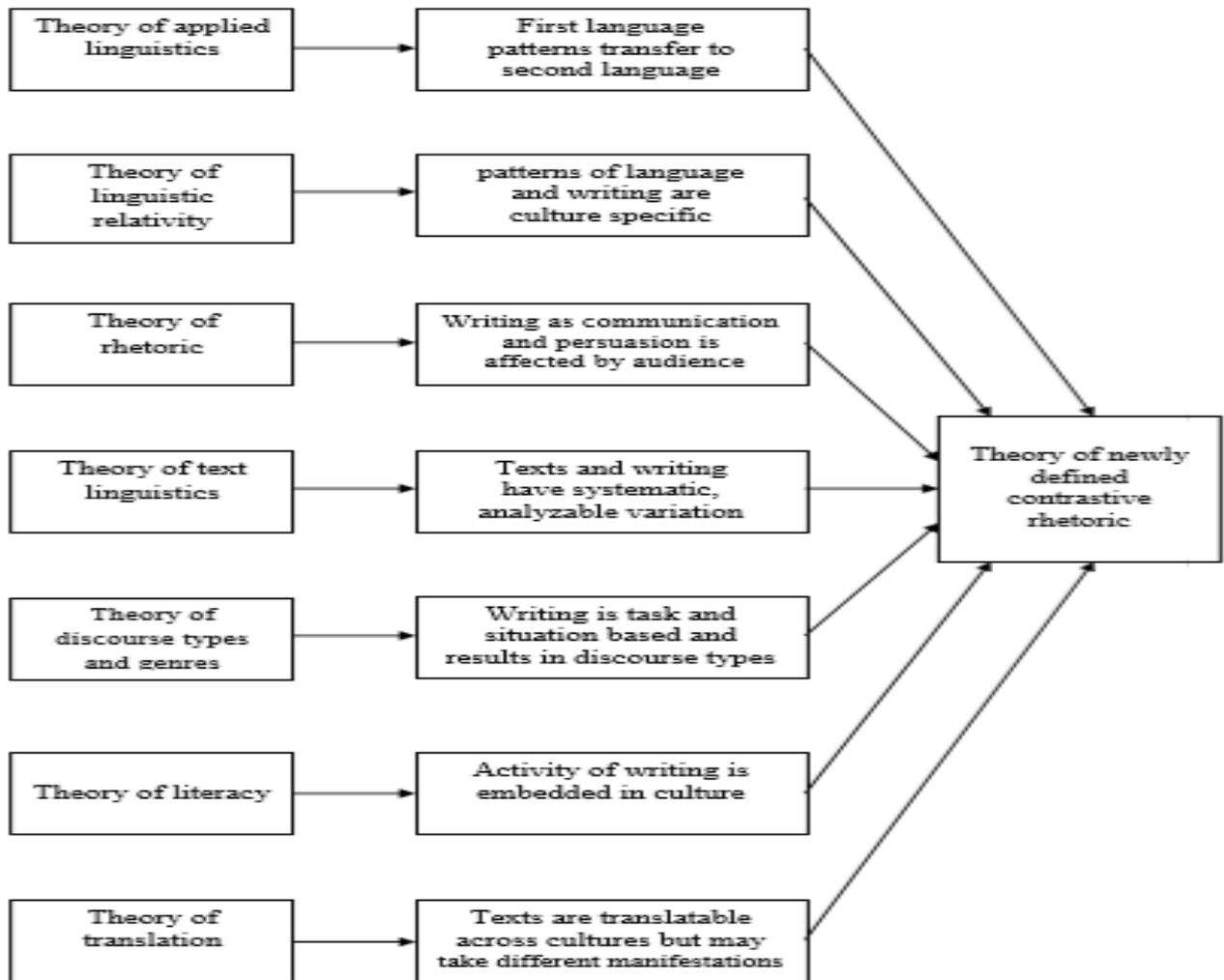
through the exposition to natives' sample texts, which would scaffold their knowledge of English rhetorical conventions. According to Reid (1984), if the schemata of the writing assignment in L2 are convenient, "the students' papers written in the forms anticipated by the professional reader will be more easily accepted and understood". He, further, explains, "a student who feels more comfortable about being able to manage the form will be more able to concentrate on the content of the writing assignment" (p. 156).

In order for students to write "rhetorically appropriate texts", they should first get exposed to such rhetorical schemata in class. Likewise, they would meet the expectations of the target audience just after they are "cognitively and schematically ready" (Reid, 1984). Other factors that are of incredible importance to the development of "L2 rhetorical schemata" are instruction and literacy development. For Zamel (1992), students' inability to write appropriately and with a certain degree of ease in the target language may be a natural result of their prior instruction and literacy practices.

As discussed more fully in this section, a myriad of theories and approaches (namely Applied Linguistics, Linguistic Relativity Hypothesis, Theory of Rhetoric, Text Linguistics, Discourse Analysis and Genres, Literacy, Schemata Theory and Translation studies) have extremely influenced contemporary CR research in many ways. With its impactful influence in mind, Connor (1966) resumes these theories in the next table.

Figure 1.7

Influences on Newly Defined Contrastive Rhetoric (Connor, 1966, p. 9)



It is important to note that Eggington (2004) has recently improved and expounded Connor's illustration of the influential theories and methods to CR research as shown in the below table.

Table 1.2

An Adaptation of Connor's Influences on Contrastive Rhetoric Model (Eggington, 2004, p. 263)

Theoretical foundation	L1 to L2 realization	English to LOTE realization	Implications for contrastive rhetoric studies
Theory of applied linguistics	First languages patterns transfer to second language	In certain genres, second language patterns (English) can transfer to first language	The rhetorical patterns of some languages in some genres are “drifting” toward English based on preferences. Researchers cannot simply assume that the LOTE texts they are studying have not already been influenced by English
Theory of linguistic relativity	Patterns of language and writing are culture specific	An invasive culture (Western/American) can alter patterns of language and writing	“Westernization, Englishization” is resulting in moving rhetorical preferences in many LOTE genres towards English preferences
Theory of rhetoric	Writing as communication and persuasion is affected by audience	With certain genres, the audience predominantly functions in international English	The pervasiveness of international genres is increasing, thus decreasing L1 genre domains
Theory of text linguistics	Texts and writing have systematic, analyzable variation	Variation can be explained by surface level modeling (frequent exposure to patterns results in adoption of those patterns)	More exposure to English-based rhetorical patterns will alter rhetorical preferences in many LOTEs
Theory of discourse types and genres	Writing is task and situation based and results in discourse types	The strength of international discourse communities (Western/English based) influences discourse types in some LOTE genres	Conscious and subconscious pressures on many LOTE genres to move toward English based patterns
Theory of literacy	Activity of writing is embedded in culture	In many contexts, the only overt teaching of writing is modeled on Western/English pedagogies and patterns	English-based rhetorical patterns may be codified in many LOTEs
Theory of translation	Texts are translatable across cultures but may take different manifestations	If sufficient texts from language A are translated in and read in language B, language A linguistic patterns will influence B patterns.	LOTE rhetorical patterns in genres experiencing a high frequency of English translated texts may drift toward English rhetorical preferences.

Conclusion

Throughout this chapter, the history of CR has been made clear, starting from Kaplan's 1966 Doodles Model, moving on to the Sapir Whorf hypothesis and finally the Negative Language Transfer hypothesis. Likewise, the present chapter highlighted the paramount importance of CR research in addressing L2 writing issues and informing contemporary related disciplines and fields of investigations. As well, the chapter brought to the scene all the changes and developments in aim, orientation and focus that CR has undergone until it became a multidisciplinary area, namely nowadays 'Intercultural Rhetoric'. More interestingly, the chapter shed light on a myriad of researchers, scholars and banner-bearers of CR who, hopefully, gave credibility and validity to this chapters' literature review. As a final point, this chapter tried to review the most influential theories and approaches to CR, which in part has contributed largely to its development in theory and practice, and in another part supported its rise to prominence. The next chapter will be devoted to demystifying the definitions, functions and importance of metadiscourse to argumentative essay writing on the one hand, and linking this investigated feature to the theory of rhetoric and ESL learners' writing on the other.

Chapter Two: Metadiscourse and Contrastive Rhetoric Studies

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Introduction

While the first chapter has offered a theoretical framework for the present research, the second chapter expands on this framework through the review of the most prominent cross-cultural Arabic-English rhetorical studies conducted by both Arab researchers, as well as Non-Arab ones. More importantly, the chapter provides an overview of metadiscourse, its definition, and its increasingly crucial role in academic writing. Likewise, the chapter attempts to relate metadiscourse to the theory of Rhetoric, hence, demystify and meanwhile justify the purpose behind opting for ‘metadiscourse’ as one of this study’s variables. It then moves to examine the identifying features of metadiscoursal devices, as well as discussing the variety of its classification taxonomies or models (More light is shed on Hyland’s 2005 classification for it is the model adopted in the present research study). Finally, the chapter closes with the appraisal and consideration of previous studies on metadiscourse, particularly, in argumentative writing.

2.1 An Overview of Metadiscourse

Based on their varying perspectives, a number of scholars have put forward different conceptualisations to the term ‘metadiscourse’. These include: Zellig Harris (1959), Williams (1981), Hyland (2005), Crismore, Makkanen and Steffensen (1993), and Adel (2006). The following sections will tackle, in depth, the definitions given to ‘metadiscourse’ and ‘metadiscourse markers’ successively.

2.1.1 Definition of metadiscourse

The American linguist Zellig Harris was the first who coined the term “metadiscourse” in 1959 to give an account of language in use (Hyland, 2005). Understandably, Harris put forward the term to explain the pragmatic relation between writer

and reader several decades ago (Beauvais, 1989). As a true matter of fact, metadiscourse, as a subject of study, was overlooked during the 1960's and 1970's. Nevertheless, with the beginnings of the 1980's onwards, metadiscourse rose to prominence as many researchers (such as Williams 1981, Vande Koppel 1985 and Crismore 1989) showed a mounting concern in discourse analysis studies that focus on the study of academic writing in general. Therefore, the term 'metadiscourse' is quite new in the area of discourse analysis as illustrated by Hyland (2005) "metadiscourse is a widely used term in current discourse analysis and language education, referring to an interesting, and relatively new, approach to conceptualising interactions between text producers and their texts and between text producers and users" (p.1).

Williams (1981) defines metadiscourse as "writing about writing, whatever does not refer to the subject matter being addressed" (p.226). That is to say, metadiscourse does not add new information or propositional material but assist the readers to "organize, classify, interpret, evaluate and react to such material" (Vande Kopple, 1985, p.83). Vane Kopple further suggests that discourse studies' main interest ought to be directed to metadiscursive functions rather than specific forms that can fulfill those functions, particularly when a single form can accomplish numerous metadiscursive functions.

In a similar fashion, Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993) consider metadiscourse as "linguistic material in text, written or spoken, which does not add anything to the propositional content but that is intended to help the listener or reader organise, interpret and evaluate the information given" (p. 40). Moreover, for Crismore (1985), metadiscourse should be rather looked at as a rhetorical activity that serves social actions.

According to Hyland (2005), metadiscourse is the cover term for the self-reflexive 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 (p. 37). Accordingly, he perceives metadiscourse as the manifestation of “the writer’s awareness of the unfolding text as discourse: how we situate ourselves and our readers in a text to create convincing, coherent prose in particular social contexts” (p. IX).

Additionally, Hyland states that the context of writing, as well as its genre and the speech community to whom this text is addressed are important factors according to which metadiscourse functions operate. As such, Hyland (2005), further, asserts that the value of metadiscourse “lies not in semantic meanings of particular forms but meanings which only become operative within a particular context, both invoking and reinforcing that context with regard to audience, purpose and community” (pp. 194-5).

In her view, Ädel (2006) holds that “Metadiscourse is text about the evolving text, or the writer’s explicit commentary on her own ongoing discourse. It displays an awareness of the current text or its language use per se and of the current writer and reader qua writer and reader” (p. 20). Put differently, Ädel assumes that the objective behind deploying metadiscourse features in writing is two-fold; it first monitors the reader all along the text and second comment on its language.

Given the above-stated views on metadiscourse, we conclude that scholars and researchers manifest an apparent disagreement as they approach the concept from different perspectives. More precisely, William (1981), Vande Kopple (1985) and Crismore (1993) perceive metadiscourse as basically ‘text about text’ or ‘talk about talk’, hence; limit its function to the overall organisation of discourse and neglecting its other purposes. Other analysts such as Kumpf (2002) analyse the term from the angle of visual metadiscourse. Yet, Hyland (2005) and Adel (2006) consider the term from another different perspective. Both of them view metadiscourse as the linguistic and the rhetorical material writers deploy to signal

their presence, reflect their standpoint towards their texts and their readers and scaffold the interaction between the writers and their readers. Additionally, Hyland (2005) argues that these views about metadiscourse are partial and unsatisfactory because language is not solely used to sequence meaning but also to disclose writers' stances, personality and establish interactions with their intended readers.

2.1.2 Definition of Metadiscourse Markers

Many linguists and scholars have given different definitions to metadiscourse makers each of which focuses on particular aspects and functions of metadiscourse. According to Hyland (2005), metadiscourse markers are commonly those linguistic components that signal the presence of the writer or reader in the text whether by referring to the organisation of the text or commenting on the text itself. As such, Metadiscourse markers assist the writer or speaker to negotiate with others and make decisions about the kind of impacts they have on their audience. Concerning its form, Adel (2006) explains that metadiscourse markers can take diverse forms ranging from morphemes, single word forms, phrases, clauses, to strings of sentences.

For Crismore, Markknen, and Steffensen (1993), metadiscourse markers are “a linguistic material in texts, written or spoken, which does not add anything to the propositional content, but that is intended to help the listener or reader organize, interpret, and evaluate the information given” (p. 40). In the same line, Hempel and Degand (2008) emphasise that metadiscourse “concerns the understanding of the ideational meaning and serves to organize the discourse by structuring the propositional content, by introducing sequences or by referring to the source of the propositional material” (p.679). Remarkably, this definition falls short of considering the other functions of metadiscourse markers and

limits it to the overall organisation or arrangement of texts that is mainly achieved through the investment of interactive markers.

Crismore (1983) refer to metadiscourse markers as “the author's intrusion into the discourse, either explicitly or non-explicitly, to direct the reader rather than inform” (p. 2). However, this definition is, to some extent, inadequate because it overlooked the importance of satisfying readers’ requirements who are considered rather passive. On the contrary, metadiscourse markers have very crucial purposes to fulfill like engaging writers and readers in a text than merely organizing and sequencing meaning.

A more comprehensive conceptualisation of metadiscourse markers is put forward by Biry (2017) who states that “Metadiscourse markers frame the propositional content of the text by paving the way for the reader’s comprehension: they remind the reader of earlier ideas, explain new concepts, often a claim, express an opinion and anticipate the reader’s reply”. Yet, many factors influence the amount of metadiscourse markers used in a given written or spoken discourse, namely the context, the purpose of the text as well as the genre of the text. In Craig’s (2008) view, “meta-discourse ranges along a continuum from the relatively blatant verbal framing moves . . . to relatively unconscious cues (such as a slightly noticeable word choice, vocal emphasis, or facial expression) in which meta-discourse may be hardly distinguishable from first-level discourse” (p.3108). Likewise, Craig’s definition is all-inclusive for it highlights the two pervasive and common types of metadiscourse markers in spoken and written discourse which are the verbal and non-verbal signals.

Based on the previously discussed definitions, metadiscourse markers generally fall into two categories: verbal and non-verbal in which verbal metadiscourse markers mainly take the form of words (Hornby, 2010) and is the major focus of the present study. The second type, which is non-verbal metadiscourse markers, does not incorporate “words or

speech” (Hornby, 2010, p. 1037). It rather denotes other distinct types of “visual metadiscourse markers” (Kumpf, 2000, p. 401) that are found in written discourse like the font size, the type of font, italicized terms and so on. According to Craig (2008), in the spoken discourse or speech, non-verbal metadiscourse markers might take other forms such as intonation, stress, voice quality and so on. As such, the following tables provide an illustration of the classification of metadiscourse markers into verbal and non-verbal categories.

Table 2.1

Non-verbal Aspects of Metadiscourse (Crismore et al., 1993, p. 48)

Non-verbal metadiscourse signals	Oral	Paralanguage	Intonation
			Stress
			Volume
			Voice quality
		Proxemics	Orientation
			Touch
	Physical distance		
	Kinesics	Gesture	
		Posture	
	Written	Printing	Binding quality
			Paper quality
			Colour
		Genre and media	Book, letter, postcard
Screen, print, handwriting			
Punctuation		Scare quotes	
		Underline	
	Italics and bold		
	Exclamation markers		
		Emoticons	

Table 2.1 shows that non-verbal metadiscourse signals can take two different forms; oral or written. The oral signals include phonological features (such as intonation, stress, voice quality and volume) as well as proxemics and kinesics features. Whereas the written signals are rather visual like handwriting, underlining, italics and bold forms, punctuation marks, the genre of the written piece (book, letter or postcard)

Table 2.2

Verbal Aspects of Metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005, pp. 49-64)

	Experiential function	Processes	
	Verbal metadiscourse signals	Interactive function	Transition markers
Comparison			
Consequence			
Interactive function		Frame markers	Endophoric markers
			Evidentials
			Code glosses
Interactional function		Hedges	Boosters
			Attitude markers
			Self mention
			Engagement markers
Rhetorical function		Ethos	Pathos
			Logos

Remarkably, Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore, Markknen and Steffensen (1993) conceptualisations and categorisation of metadiscourse markers involve “many overlaps in its subtypes because of the few categories they offer” (Hussein, Khalil & Abbas, 2018, p. 348). As a reaction to the flaws of the previously developed classifications, Hyland (2005) puts forward a taxonomy that is, by excellence, more convenient and free from any overlaps in relation to the functions of metadiscourse markers. Moreover, Hyland’s (2005) taxonomy is valuable to the present study because it targets primarily and precisely academic writing, in which the argumentative essay genre makes part, as noted by Zarei and Mansoori (2011).

2.1.3 Identifying Principles of Metadiscourse

In Ädel’s (2006) view, metadiscourse is a fuzzy term because it runs short of clear boundaries and, at certain times, it could be hard to draw a line between metadiscursive and

non-metadiscursive classifications. For this reason, it is essential to uncover the set of features and principles that render metadiscourse signals easily identifiable in writing. In this spirit, Hyland (2005) points out at three key principles that contribute successfully to the identification of metadiscourse. These principles state that (1) metadiscourse is distinct from propositional aspects of discourse; (2) it refers to aspects of the text that embody writer-reader interactions; (3) it refers only to relations which are internal to the discourse (p. 38). The following sections provide an account of these three main principles.

According to Hyland (2005), metadiscourse is distinct from propositional aspects of discourse in that the propositional material or the 'communicative content' of discourse is completely different from the material which organizes this content and conveys the writer's beliefs and attitudes about it. For Hyland and Tse (2004), the term proposition is generally used to refer to everything which concerns thoughts, ideas or states of affairs in the world exterior of the text. On the other hand, metadiscourse, as defined by Hyland (2005), "is the means by which propositional content is made coherent, intelligible and persuasive to a particular audience" (p. 39). As such, metadiscourse does not add any propositional or ideational meaning, rather it helps organise texts and establish writers' standpoint. It also engages the audience and encourages them to accept writers' stance (Hyland, 2005).

In line with Hyland's distinction between the two levels of language; which are propositional and metadiscoursal; Gholami (2014) believes that the identification of metadiscoursal features depends on whether the text focuses on elements of the ongoing discourse or on external items to the text, i.e., not the world of discourse but the real world. Hence, only devices that are pertinent to the world of discourse and those that address the reader do have metadiscoursal functions to achieve throughout the text.

Despite the distinction between propositional and metadiscoursal material, the two can befall side by side in texts and often in the same sentences, and both elements are important to coherence and meaning (Hyland, 2005). However, as Malinowski (1923 cited in Hyland, 2005) notes, one is not 'primary' and the other is 'secondary' to the meaning of a text. We cannot take it for granted that metadiscourse is *secondary* to the propositional meaning. It is rather *specialized* in the sense that it supports the propositional content and contributes to its overall organisation and rhetorical strategies. In his attempt to highlight the utmost importance of metadiscoursal devices, Hyland (2005) maintains “It is not simply the 'glue' that holds the more important parts of the text together, but is itself a crucial element of its meaning which helps relate a text to its context, taking readers' needs, understandings, existing knowledge, intertextual experiences and relative status into account.

The second key feature that characterises metadiscourse markers is that it establishes interaction between the reader and the writer throughout the text. Hyland and Tse (2004) have disapproved the stringent duality of textual and interpersonal functions initiated in the former models of metadiscourse considering that all metadiscourse is interpersonal since it uses features which take into account the “readers’ knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs and that it provides writers with armory of rhetorical appeals to achieve this” (p. 161).

Interestingly, Thompson (2001) and Thompson and Thetela (1995) identify two main forms of interaction which they label as the interactive and the interactional. As such, the interactive dimension refers to the features writers use to organise texts given their appreciation of their reader’ knowledge and understandings. On the other hand, the interactional features are rather interpersonal and reveal the writer’s explicit interventions to comment on and evaluate texts and engage readers in the construction of meaning.

Additionally, Mauranen (1993) posits that metadiscourse markers are highly recognizable for their explicitness or “the explicit commentary of the text on itself” (p. 158). Interestingly, some researchers and composition specialists do not consider features such as italics and boldface to refer to metadiscourse, as they do not add extra meanings other than the words’ own meaning (Gholami, 2014).

The third key principle that governs metadiscourse markers is that it refers only to relations that are internal to the discourse (Hyland, 2005). Internal ties hold events together in texts and are purely communicative; whereas external ties denote those events themselves. In this light, Halliday (1994) postulates that most of the connectives or conjunctive relations employed in texts have “an *internal* as well as an *external* interpretation; that is, the time they refer to is the temporal unfolding of the discourse itself, not the temporal sequence of processes refers to. In terms of the functional components of semantics, it is interpersonal not experiential time” (p. 325). The following figure demonstrates both internal and external relations of discourse.

Overall, the identification of metadiscourse features or signals and differentiating between its subtypes in writing is sometimes problematic due to the overlaps between metadiscoursal and non-metadiscoursal sets as well as between different subgroups of metadiscourse (Gholami, 2014). For Markkanen, Steffensen, and Crismore (1993), it is most often difficult to figure out, “in what function a writer has used a particular item”

2.2 Classification of Metadiscourse Markers

Many analysts considered Halliday’s (1973) “notion of language” as a starting point for their classification models of metadiscourse markers. Being the case, Halliday contends that language in use fulfill three varying functions. First is the *ideational function* that has to

do with conveying information or propositional content. Second is *the textual function* which refers to the organization of ideas or content. Third is *the interpersonal function* which expresses interaction between the writer/ the speaker and the reader / the hearer based on the appreciation of written or spoken discourse.

Interestingly, the two last dimensions of language; i.e., *textual and interpersonal*, form the basis for earlier models of metadiscourse wherein the main functions of metadiscourse features are to arrange propositional content and maintain readers' involvement and interaction all along the text (Crismore et al 1993). Nevertheless, late models have differentiated between 'interactive' and 'interactional' or 'intra-textual' and 'inter-textual markers' (Hyland and Tse 2004). For Mauranen (1993, 2008), the terms 'text reflexivity' or 'discourse reflexivity' would better denote the metadiscoursal deployment of language. Remarkably, unlike Adel's (2006) classification that does not make use of Halliday's tripartite conception of meta-functions, Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore 1993 and Hyland (2005) depended largely on it. In what follows, models of metadiscourse markers will be appraised and more light will be cast on Hyland's (2005) classification being the model adopted in the present study.

2.2.1 Vande Kopple's (1985) Model

Drawing on Louttamatti's (1978) and Williams' (1981) taxonomies, Vande Kopple (1985) puts forward the first theoretical classification which has been employed by many writers and analysts later on (e.g. Crismore and Farnsworth, 1989, 1990; Intaraprawat and Steffensen, 1995; Cheng and Steffensen, 1996). His taxonomy comprises seven types of metadiscourse marker classified into *textual* and *interpersonal* categories (Hyland, 2005). The subtypes of *textual markers* are text connectives (e.g. *nevertheless, however, first, second*), code glosses (e.g. *this means that*), illocution markers (e.g. *I hypothesize that, to sum up, we*

claim that), and narrators(*according to X, Mrs. X announced that*). On the other hand, the *interpersonal markers* consist of validity markers (e.g. *perhaps, clearly, undoubtedly*), attitude markers (e.g. *surprisingly*), and commentaries(e.g. *you will certainly agree that*)as demonstrated in the following table.

Table 2.3

Vande Kopple's (1985) Classification of Metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005, p. 32)

Textual metadiscourse
Text connectives – used to help show how parts of a text are connected to one another. Includes sequencers (<i>first, next, in the second place</i>), reminders (<i>as I mentioned in Chapter 2</i>), and topicalizers, which focus attention on the topic of a text segment (<i>with regard to, in connection with</i>).
Code glosses – used to help readers to grasp the writer's intended meaning. Based on the writer's assessment of the reader's knowledge, these devices reword, explain, define or clarify the sense of a usage, sometimes putting the reformulation in parentheses or marking it as an example, etc.
Validity markers – used to express the writer's commitment to the probability or truth of a statement. These include hedges (<i>perhaps, might, may</i>), emphatics (<i>clearly, undoubtedly</i>), and attributors which enhance a position by claiming the support of a credible other (<i>according to Einstein</i>).
Narrators – used to inform readers of the source of the information presented – who said or wrote something (<i>according to Smith, the Prime Minister announced that</i>).
Interpersonal metadiscourse
Illocution markers – used to make explicit the discourse act the writer is performing at certain points (<i>to conclude, I hypothesize, to sum up, we predict</i>).
Attitude markers – used to express the writer's attitudes to the propositional material he or she presents (<i>unfortunately, interestingly, I wish that, how awful that</i>).
Commentaries – used to address readers directly, drawing them into an implicit dialogue by commenting on the reader's probable mood or possible reaction to the text (<i>you will certainly agree that, you might want to read the third chapter first</i>).

Although this model is more developed than its antecedents, it was subject to criticism as it contains many overlaps in its subtypes, particularly overlapping functions between the attributors and narrators, validity and illocution markers, and attitude and commentary markers. As a result, this led Vande Kopple as well as other analysts to reconsider this model and propose a revised and adjusted version in 2002. In doing so, Vande Kopple relabeled

validity markers as *epistemology* markers and included *narrators* in this group, stressing their function of offering evidential backing to statements (Hyland, 2005).

2.2.2 Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen's (1993) Model

Given the shortcomings and flaws that Vande Kopple's (1985) model had, Crismore *et al.* (1993) made considerable efforts to improve it and propose a new refined one. In fact, they maintained the same two main categories, namely *textual* and *interpersonal*, but disjointed and reorganised the subcategories whether by adding or omitting classes. According to Hyland (2005), Crismore, *et al.* drops *narrators*, moves some sub-functions to a new category of *textual markers*, and classify *code glosses* and *illocution markers* under another new category of *interpretive markers*.

The new categories render more apparent the textual function of metadiscourse, with *textual markers* reflecting the aspects that assist in the rhetorical arrangement of discourse and *interpretive markers*. These would allow readers to infer and comprehend the writers' ideas, stance and writing policies as manifested in the Table 2.4.

Table 2.4

Crismore et al.'s (1993) classification of metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005, p. 34)

Category	Function	Examples
Textual metadiscourse		
1. Textual markers		
Logical connectives	Show connections between ideas	therefore; so; in addition; and
Sequencers	Indicate sequence/ordering of material	first; next; finally; 1, 2, 3
Reminders	Refer to earlier text material	as we saw in Chapter one
Topicalizers	Indicate a shift in topic	well; now I will discuss ...
2. Interpretive markers		
Code glosses	Explain text material	for example; that is
Illocution markers	Name the act performed	to conclude; in sum; I predict
Announcements	Announce upcoming material	in the next section ...
Interpersonal metadiscourse		
Hedges	Show uncertainty to truth of assertion	might; possible; likely
Certainty markers	Express full commitment to assertion	certainly; know; shows
Attributors	Give source/support of information	Smith claims that ...
Attitude markers	Display writer's affective values	I hope/agree; surprisingly ...
Commentary	Build relationship with reader	you may not agree that ...

However, Hyland (2005) argues that the separation of *textual metadiscourse* into *textual* and *interpretive markers* is pointless; therefore, it will be better to join the subtypes of metadiscourse signals under the same ‘textual’ category. In his own words, Hyland contends, “Organizational features obviously contribute to the coherence of the text and thereby assist the reader in interpreting it. There is also confusion within these categories; for example, the decision to include *reminders*, which refer to matter earlier in the text, as textual markers while *announcements*, which look forward, are seen as interpretive” (Hyland, 2005, pp. 33-34). Add to that, although Crismore *et al.* describe metadiscourse as a material which does not add anything to the propositional content of the text, they consider components which commonly relate ideas, such as *logical connectives*, as metadiscourse. Yet, it seems very plausible that conjunctions responsible for the connection of propositional content might understandably be deemed as part of this propositional content (*ibid*).

2.2.3 Hyland’s (2005) Model

It is worth noting that Hyland is among the pioneering researchers who embarked on the study of ‘metadiscourse’ for about three decades since 1994. Given this quite long experience with metadiscourse, he noted that the development of an analytically reliable and theoretically accurate classification of metadiscourse calls for the reconsideration of the conceptualization and boundaries of metadiscourse (Mohammed, 2015).

As such, Hyland (2005) 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” (p. 37). He further stresses that metadiscourse theoretical aspects can only be realized and found meaningful in their context of occurrence and for that reason metadiscourse analysis should be conducted in terms of “community practices, values and ideals” (p. 37).

Based on his three identifying principles of metadiscourse and the adoption of the *interactive* and *interactional* conception suggested by Thompson and Thetela (1995), Hyland puts forward his “*Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse*”. The latter is centered on “a functional approach which regards metadiscourse as the ways writers refer to the text, the writer or the reader” and “acknowledges the contextual specificity of metadiscourse” (Hyland, 2005, p. 48). It is also worth mentioning that the new model is based on some elements of Hyland’s 1998, 2000, 2001 earlier classifications in which the inclusion of both stance and engagement features is a standing example of such element. As can be seen in “*Table 2.7.*”, Hyland categorises metadiscourse into two broad categories: “*Interactive markers*” and “*Interactional markers*”.

Table 2.5

Hyland (2005) Classification of Metadiscourse (Akbas et al., 2017, p. 256)

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	Help to guide the reader through the text	Resources
Transitions	express relations between main clauses	<i>in addition; but; thus; and finally; to conclude; my purpose is</i>
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	<i>noted above; see Fig; in section 2</i>
Endophoric markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	<i>according to X; Z states</i>
Evidentials	refers to information from other texts	<i>namely; e.g.; such as; in other words</i>
Code glosses	elaborate propositional meanings	
Interactional	Involve the reader in the text	Resources
Hedges	withhold commitment and open dialogue	<i>might; perhaps; possible; about</i>
Boosters	emphasize certainty or close dialogue	<i>in fact; definitely; it is clear that</i>
Attitude markers	express writer’s attitude to proposition	<i>unfortunately; I agree; surprisingly</i>
Self-mentions	explicit reference to author(s)	<i>I; we; my; me; our</i>
Directives	instruct the reader to perform an action or to see things in a way determined by the writer	<i>note; should; important</i>
Shared knowledge	position readers within apparently naturalized boundaries of disciplinary understandings	<i>we know</i>
Reader Pronouns	pronouns and possessive adjectives referring to the readers	<i>you; your</i>
Questions	the main strategy of dialogic involvement	
Personal asides	allow writers to address readers directly by briefly interrupting the argument to offer a comment on what has been said	

2.2.3.1 *The interactive dimension*

The interactive dimension demystifies the ways in which metadiscourse markers are deployed “to organize propositional information in ways that the target reader should find coherent and convincing” (Hyland, 2005, p. 50). More precisely, Hyland states that this dimension sheds light on the writers’ awareness of their target audience knowledge, interests, rhetorical expectations and processing capacities. He further clarifies that the objective behind the use of metadiscourse markers within this dimension is to outline and arrange the content of texts to meet the needs of specific readers so that they can appreciate writers’ intentions and aims. As indicated in the above table, the interactive dimension consists of the following subcategories: transition marker, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, code glosses.

➤ **Transition markers** :are mostly conjunctions and adverbial phrases that assist the audience to understand pragmatic relations steps in an argument. They indicate additive, causative and contrastive ties in the writer's thinking, conveying connections between stretches of discourse. It is of little importance if these items contribute to syntactic coordination or subordination ;however, to act as metadiscourse features they must perform a role internal to the discourse rather than the outside world, helping the audience interpret connections between ideas (Hyland, 2005). Remarkably, *Additive ties* add elements to an argument (furthermore, moreover, by the way, etc.). On the other hand, *Contrastive ties* marks arguments as either similar (similarly, likewise, equally, in the same way, correspondingly,etc.) or different (in contrast, however, but, on the contrary, on the other hand etc.). Finally, *Causative* relations either tell readers that a conclusion is being drawn or justified (thus, therefore, consequently, in conclusion, etc.) or that an argument is being countered (admittedly, nevertheless, anyway, in any case, of course) (Hyland, 2005).

➤ **Frame Markers** : Markers included in this subcategory, in Hyland's words, "function to sequence, label, predict and shift arguments, making the discourse clear to readers or listeners" (Hyland, 2005, 51). They are mainly deployed to sequence parts of the text or to internally order an argument; therefore, offer framing information about elements of the discourse. Frame markers commonly express a more explicit additive relations (first, then, at the same time, next). They can unambiguously label text stages (to summarize, in sum, by way of introduction). They render the discourse goals more clear (argue here, my purpose is, the paper proposes, I hope to persuade, there are several reasons why), and they can signal topic shifts (well, right, OK, now, let us return to) (Hyland, 2005).

➤ **Endophoric Markers** : are words and phrases that denote other parts of the text such as *see Figure 2, refer to the next section, as noted above*. According to Hyland (2005), "these make additional ideational material salient and therefore available to the reader in aiding the recovery of the writer's meanings, often facilitating comprehension and supporting arguments by referring to earlier material or anticipating something yet to come" (p.51). The purpose behind utilizing such markers is to guide the audience all along the argument and assist them to get the gist of the discourse, hence, appreciate it.

➤ **Evidentials** : Thomas and Hawes (1994, cited in Hyland, 2005, p. 51) conceptualize Evidentials as "metalinguistic representations of an idea from another source" which guide the reader's understanding and found an authorial command of the subject. Evidentials state the one responsible for a position or statement; hence, contribute to a persuasive objective. However, it is necessary to be differentiated from the writer's position towards the view, which is considered as an interpersonal feature. Hyland (2005, p. 51) posits, "In some genres this (Evidentials) may involve hearsay or attribution to a reliable source; in academic writing it refers to a community -based literature and provides important

support for arguments”. He goes on to give an instance of evidentials such as “According to X, in Z’s view ...”

➤ **Code Glosses** : are expressions that supply additional information, by rephrasing and explaining what has been said so as to “reflect the writer's predictions about the reader's knowledge base and are introduced by phrases such as *this is called, in other words, that is, this can be defined as, for example, etc.*” (Hyland, 2005, p. 52). As such, code glosses serve to guarantee comprehension of the meaning being transmitted through the texts by the audience.

2.2.3.2 *The interactional dimension*

According to Hyland (2005), the interactional dimension of metadiscourse concerns the ways writers establish interaction by interfering and commenting on the content of their texts on the one hand and engaging readers by allowing them to respond to these texts on the other. He further explains that Metadiscourse, according to this dimension, is basically evaluative and engaging because it echoes solidarity, anticipates oppositions and responds to a made-up discourse with readers. It exposes the extent to which the writer involves the audience to collaboratively construct the text. As such, Hyland speculates that interactional markers “draw the reader into the discourse and give them an opportunity to contribute to it and respond to it by alerting them to the writer’s perspective on propositional information and orientation and intention with respect to that reader” (p. 52). Remarkably, the *interactional metadiscourse* category is divided into five subcategories: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions and engagement markers.

➤ **Hedges**: are words which the writer uses to suggest alternative standpoints to a certain proposition, hence, allows for the negotiation of different positions. Examples of

hedges may include *possible*, *might* and *perhaps*. According to Hyland (2005), hedges “imply that a statement is based on the writer's plausible reasoning rather than certain knowledge” (p.52). That is to say, they aid writers to state propositional meaning (i.e. content) as an opinion rather than a fact or certain knowledge.

➤ **Boosters:** are devices that permit writers to draw far from alternative or conflicting views and standpoints by establishing certainty in a given proposition. Instances of boosters may include words like *clearly*, *obviously* and *demonstrate*. In this vein, Hyland (1999a, cited in Hyland, *ibid*) asserts, “By closing down possible alternatives, boosters emphasize certainty and construct rapport by marking involvement with the topic and solidarity with an audience, taking a joint position against other voices” (p. 53).

➤ **Attitude markers :** signal the writer's affective attitude towards the content of text and ; therefore, may express surprise, agreement, significance, obligation, frustration,...etc. Generally, attitude is conveyed in texts using subordination, comparatives, progressive particles, punctuation, text location, and so on. Nevertheless, it becomes more explicit when signaled metadiscoursally using attitude verbs (*agree*, *prefer*), sentence adverbs (*unfortunately*, *hopefully*) and adjectives (*appropriate*, *logical*, *remarkable*)(*ibid*).

➤ **Self-mentions :** indicate the presence of the writer in the text through the employment of ‘first-person pronouns’ and ‘possessive adjectives’ such as *I*, *me*, *mine*, *we*, *our*, *ours* (*ibid*). Writers’ self-representation in texts is highly appreciated by readers, therefore, they “cannot avoid projecting an impression of themselves and how they stand in relation to their arguments, their community and their readers” (Hyland, 2005, p. 53).

➤ **Engagement markers :** are features that directly address the audience, whether to get their attention or involve them as participants to the argument. Engagement markers

are mainly in the form of questions, directives (*imperatives* such as *see*, *note* and *consider* and obligation modals such as *should*, *must*, *have to*, etc.), reader pronouns (you, your) and interjections (*by the way*, *you may notice*) (Hyland, 2005).

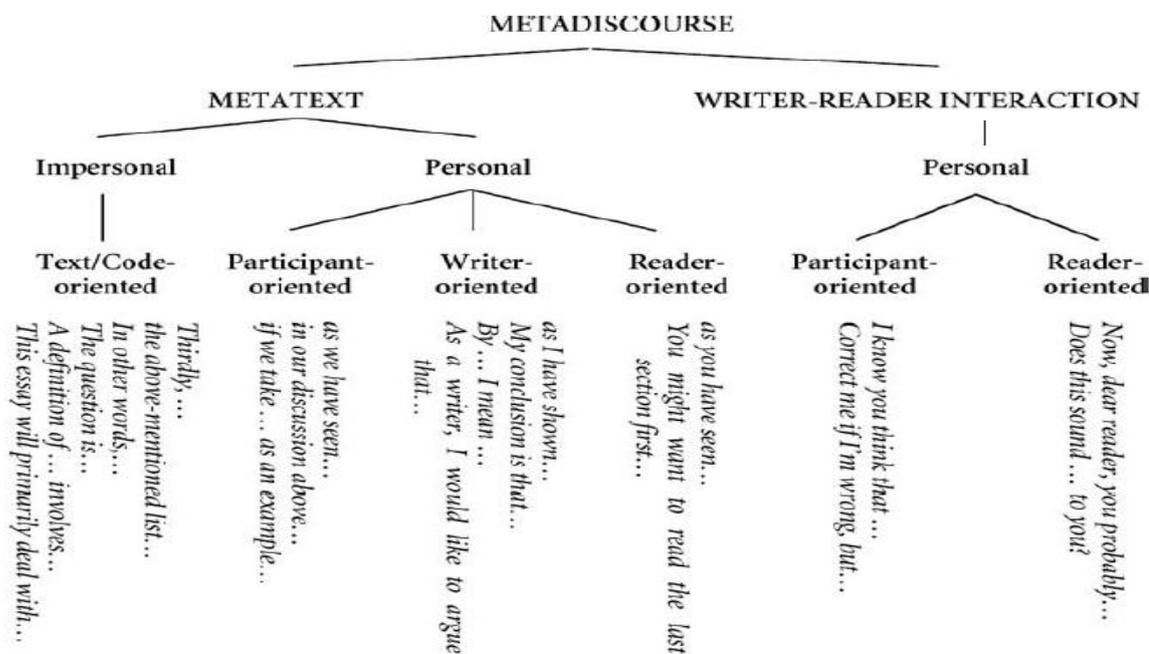
The first version of Hyland's taxonomy known as "*Metadiscourse Schema*" is rather different from his new '*Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse*'. Hyland has continued to use the above model in his following studies. Nevertheless, co-authoring with Xiaoli Fu in their work "*Interaction in Two Journalistic Genres*," Hyland has exerted some kind of revision on late classification wherein he added certain metadiscoursal elements, namely "*directives*" and "*shared knowledge*" under the "*engagement*" subcategory (Mohammed, 2015).

2.2.4 Ädel's (2006) model

In her book *Metadiscourse in L1 and L2 English*, Annelie Ädel declares her reliance on *Halliday's model of language functions* and that of *Roman Jakobson* as the milestone for her own model of metadiscourse. Remarkably, the reflexive triangle of text, writer, and reader that embodies Jakobson's functions of language is significant to Ädel's '*reflexive-model of metadiscourse*'. In this vein, Ädel (2006) clarifies that the reflexive model "takes as a starting point Jakobson's functional model of language. Three of his six functions of language are used: the *metalinguistic*, the *expressive* and the *directive*" (p.17). As such, the below figure better conceptualizes Ädel's metadiscourse markers model.

Figure 2.1

Ädel's (2006) Classification of Metadiscourse Markers



Ädel justifies her choice of Jakobson's notion of language for owing such pros: "(1) it emphasizes reflexivity as a basic feature, (2) including the writer and reader in their roles as writer and reader makes the concept less decontextualized ... and (3) that what we may call the 'proposition problem' is avoided" (p. 182). In her classification, Ädel (2006) identifies two key dimensions of metadiscourse, namely "metatext" and "writer-reader interaction". The first category 'Metatext' comprises two sub-categories: impersonal (text-oriented) and personal (participant-oriented, writer-oriented, and reader-oriented). Metatext expounds the writers' speech act wherein they comment on their own discourse actions. It refers also to the characteristics of the text itself such as its organization, wording, or the writing. The second category 'Writer-Reader Interaction' consist of participant-oriented and reader-oriented subcategories. It represents those linguistic elements employed by the writer to involve the reader. However, expressions like *you might think* and *lets elaborate on it* reflect the writer's

awareness of the existence of the reader and are invested to interact with him (Ädel, 2006, pp.36-37).

For all that has been said, it seems that metadiscourse classifications demonstrate some common features whereas others remain contradictory and differing. In part, this is due to the distinct underlying approaches (linguistic, functional, or rhetorical) embraced by metadiscourse analysts which, in turn, informed their taxonomies in many ways. Notably, many linguists, scholars and even writers consider Hyland's (2005) classification as the most appropriate among all because it builds on the previous models' and draws far from their gaps and overlaps.

Moreover, Zarei and Mansoori (2011) hold that Hyland's model is intended precisely for academic writing in which they put it "a model of metadiscourse in academic texts" (p.45). Given this undeniable dominance and appropriateness, Hyland's Model will be adapted in the measurement, analysis and interpretation of the metadiscoursal findings of the present study.

2.3 Metadiscourse in Argumentative Writing

As a rhetorical feature, metadiscourse plays a focal role in all genres of writing, particularly, the argumentative one. This is partly due to the fact that argumentation is deemed as the most troublesome type of writing in that the writer necessitates having the craft of defending one's stand point as logically and persuasively as possible. The subsequent sections are inclusive of instances about the role of using metadiscourse markers in argumentative writing, and how it relates to the Theory of Rhetoric.

2.3.1 The Role of Metadiscourse in Argumentative Writing

In fact, the investment of metadiscourse in academic rhetoric dates back to the establishment of coherence and logic (Mauranen 1993a). Overwhelmingly, metadiscourse has an overarching role to play in argumentative writing being a prerequisite rhetorical means that writers deploy to interact with their readers through texts and to display their stance, voice and personality. According to Akbas (2012, p. 35), “Recent studies have shown that metadiscourse features are the essential component of academic writing with its priority and utilization to establish the dialogical aspect of a text for the interactions between writer, text and reader”.

For Toumi (2009), metadiscourse “has a considerable importance in academic writing” (p. 64). She believes so, because it conveys social meaning through the reflection of the writer’s personality and identity and through showing how s/he aspires the reader to respond to the ideational material (ibid). In Hyland’s (2004) point of view, the use of metadiscourse markers can help change a dry text into a reader-friendly prose, and show the ability of the writer to supply sufficient clues to assure an understanding and acceptance of the propositional meaning being transferred. In such a manner, the deployment of metadiscourse features has a favorable impact on argumentative writing since it helps establish efficient persuasive interaction between the writer, the text and the audience.

In this light, Hyland (2005) strongly believes in the utility of using metadiscourse markers in academic writing and particularly in the argumentative genre where he maintains, “It allows them (writers) to project the interests, opinions and evaluations into a text and to process and refine ideas out of concern for readers' possible reactions. Because it helps writers to engage their audience, signal relationships, apprise readers of varying certainty and guide their understanding of a text, metadiscourse pursues persuasive objectives” (p. 63). He

further states that metadiscourse features add to the three appeals (rational, credibility and affective appeals) that persuasive writing is famous of since Aristotle's ancient times. In doing so, metadiscourse explicitly links ideas and arguments; establishes the writer's authority and competence and show respect for the readers' standpoint (Hyland, 2005).

Unequivocally, metadiscourse is widely prevalent in argumentative writing in which “authors refer quite frequently to the state of the argument, to the reader’s understanding of it, or the author’s understanding of his own argument” (Crismore, 1985, p. 61). Studies conducted on metadiscourse in academic writing, which generally include argumentation, state that metadiscourse may illuminate problematizing of the events or issues raised in argumentation (Latawiec, 2012). To illustrate, for Bondi (2005), writers use metadiscourse features when they defend or refute a given claim that, consequently, contribute to significance and credibility by indicating the novelty of an issue, linking the claim to debate regarding the discourse community and detecting the incoherence in evaluation of results and conclusions. In support, Crismore’s (1989) study results assert that metadiscursive features’ use in argumentative texts enhances critical thinking in which readers frame their attitudes in relation to the writer’s stance and “follow the author’s indications throughout the text” (Crawford Camiciottoli, 2005, p. 87).

2.3.2 Metadiscourse and the Theory of Rhetoric

Throughout the late 1980’s and beginnings of the 1990’s, the term metadiscourse has marked a turning point by which it detached from theories of linguistics to shift its focus and attention towards the rhetorical theory in particular. Among the leading linguists who investigated metadiscourse as a rhetorically based concept in written mode is Crismore (1983). The latter considers metadiscourse as “a social, rhetorical instrument” (p. 4) that is “embedded in a rhetorical, situational context that determines appropriateness of type, form,

amount, style, aim and function” (90). This implies that metadiscourse involves more than syntactic units responsible for the organisation of propositional meaning; it is rather a rhetorical means responsible for the negotiation of writers’ ideas and claims with their readers in a given rhetorical context. Crismore further argues that this rhetorical triangulation among writers, readers, and the society is significant to metadiscourse and assists rhetoricians and linguists to perceive the term from other angles.

Recently, many scholars attempt to consider metadiscourse from a rhetorically-based theory perspective. In doing so, they contend that metadiscourse features can by no means be pinpointed using particular linguistic criteria (Hyland, 2005), nor by certain linguistic structures (Beauvais, 1989). According to Hyland and Tse (2004), metadiscourse is a functional aspect of language that can be achieved through a wide range of linguistic structures and units including punctuation marks, parts of speech, whole clauses, and even particular sequences of sentences. Hyland (2005) defines metadiscourse as a social act wherein there are no specific linguistic features but rather specific strategies and personal choices writers use in their texts to fulfill certain rhetorical functions. Regarding this multi-functionality of metadiscourse, Hyland strongly argues, “Metadiscourse cannot be regarded as a strictly linguistic phenomenon at all” but as “something that we *do*, a social act through which people carry on a discourse about their own discourse for particular rhetorical purposes” (p. 25).

Interestingly, metadiscourse is more applicable to the rhetoric-grounded research than the linguistic or structural one. For instance, Hyland investigates metadiscourse as being the rhetorical instrument of persuasion that consist of three main elements, namely ethos, pathos, and logos. Likewise, Ethos is related to “the character of the speaker and his or her credibility”; while Pathos revolves around the “affective appeals and focuses on the

characteristics of the audience rather than the speaker”; and finally Logos which refer to “the speech itself, its arrangement, length, complexity, types of evidence and arguments” (Hyland, 2005, pp. 64-65). Based on his discourse analysis of written corpora, Hyland (2005) concludes that writers’ investments of metadiscourse markers provides their readers with substantial information using code glosses and frame markers like in this extract from Hyland’s analysis “*Before discussing this however, I would like to highlight some of the positives*” (p. 76). Writers establish their credibility, authority, and persona through the employment of hedges and boosters like in this instance that he cited “*we firmly believe we are well positioned to become multi-media technology leader*” (pp. 78-79). Add to that, authors involve their readers and ponder their views through their texts by making use of attitude and engagement markers.

As has been indicated above, far from being only a syntactic category, metadiscourse has also a functional aspect which makes of it a good subject for empirical investigation. Likewise, metadiscourse has been widely investigated within the field of CR, which upholds that language and writing are culturally situated (Connor, 1996). Being the case, a growing body of studies has been carried out to test the validity of the hypothesis by examining the use of metadiscourse features in different languages and writing genres. Most notably, a great deal of research studies resort to the English language, being the lingua franca of today’s world, as a common point of reference (El-Seidi, 2000). Such research studies on L1 and L2 metadiscourse features, among which is the present study, seek to investigate the impact of the mother tongue rhetoric on the Standard English rhetoric norms given the rhetorical and multi-functionality aspect of metadiscourse.

2.4 Previous Contrastive Rhetoric Studies on Metadiscourse

Many decades ago, the research on metadiscourse markers employment in writing received little attention, if any, compared to the other rhetorical features. However, recently, a bulk of studies has shown an increasing interest in the exploration of metadiscourse in all academic writing genres, particularly, EFL students' argumentative essays.

2.4.1 Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen (1993)

To begin with, Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen (1993) examined metadiscourse in argumentative writing produced by American and Finnish undergraduate students. In doing so, the researchers targeted the impact of local culture on metadiscourse devices use in two settings, the United States and Finland. The data to be analysed was gathered from a collection of 40 argumentative essays (20 written by Finns and 20 written by Americans). The scrutiny of the results indicated that there are some similarities and differences in the use of metadiscourse devices cross-culturally. Both American and Finnish undergraduates used *all categories and subcategories of metadiscourse*; however, Finnish undergraduates reflected a higher frequency in their use. Regarding the two broad categories of metadiscourse, textual and interpersonal, the two groups paid close attention to *interpersonal* rather than *textual resources*. Most remarkably, certain cultural differences were identified in the application of *subcategories* like *hedges, certainty markers, attributors, and attitude markers*. For instance, Finnish students focused a lot on *hedging* the topic of writing and reflecting a high affective attitude toward their writing and audience by investing *attitude markers*, the American students deployed more *certainty markers* (Khedri, Chan & Tan, 2013).

2.4.2 El-Seidi (2000)

In the same line, El-Seidi (2000) conducted a cross-linguistics study wherein she explored the employment of validity markers and attitude markers in English and Arabic argumentative writing. In doing so, the researcher compared the use of both categories of metadiscourse in L1 and L2 English as well as L1 and L2 Arabic argumentative writing as an attempt to identify differences in their use among four groups of writers. The corpus for this research comprises 160 argumentative essays, 80 were written in English and 80 in Arabic. The English and Arabic groups involve two sets each: (40 essays) were composed by NSs of each language and another set of (40 essays) that were made by NNSs of the language. In order to avoid culture-specific themes, there were four topics of writing as participants belong to differing cultures. The findings of the study indicate that in both their L1 and L2 essays, as El-Seidi (2000) posits, “English and Arabic, NSs used the same categories and largely the same subcategories of the metadiscourse investigated here in mostly the same contexts. Certain differences, however, in the frequency and preferred forms of the three classes of metadiscourse are detected by the comparison of the two native sets as well as by the L1-L2 comparison in each language” (p. 122).

With these results in mind, El-Seidi (2000) maintains that the findings of her study have some significant implications. On the one hand, English NSs employed more hedges than emphatics in both their L1 and L2 essays because their interest to mitigate their arguments is transferred to their L2 writing. On the other hand, Arabic NSs’ tendency to employ emphatics in their L1 essays persists in their L2 essays as well. However, another astonishing finding, which runs as a counterevidence to the transfer hypothesis, is that the English NSs used a larger amount of emphatics in the Arabic L2 essays than that identified in the English L1 essays. This implies that L2 writers attempt to abide by the norms of the target

language. Hence, El-Seidi further proposes that, though different they may be from those of the native language; rhetorical conventions of the target language can be learnt.

2.4.3 Lee and Deaken (2016)

In their cross-cultural investigation of metadiscoursal features, Lee and Deaken (2016) considered *interactional metadiscourse* in successful and less-successful argumentative essays made by Chinese ESL undergraduates, and how these ESL writersequatewithhigh-ratedL1counterparts.Theinvestigationrests on three sets of students' essays:25successfulESLessays,25less-successfulESLessays,and25 successful L1 English papers. The three sets of writing were compared to decide the extent to which successful and less-successful undergraduates' argumentative essays vary in their use of *stance* and *engagement markers*. The analyses of the results made it clear that L1 and L2 successful essays manifest a considerable amount of *hedging markers* than less-successful essays. Concerning *interpersonal markers* like *boosters* and *attitude markers*, no substantial variances were identified. Another remarkable finding is that ESL undergraduates were overwhelmingly reluctant to establish an authorial identity in their writing contrary to their L1 counterparts.

2.4.4 MacIntyre (2017)

In his turn, MacIntyre (2017) embarked on a quantitative study to find out how EFL Japanese learners apply *hedges* and *boosters* in their argumentative texts. As such, the study undertook a fourteen-week writing treatment in form of awareness-raising courses and a corpus of three argumentative essays written by seventeen (17) participants in a Japanese university was collected and coded for hedges and boosters. The overall corpus consisted of 44764 words and was analysed following Hyland (2005) Model of Metadiscourse. Think-

aloud protocols and stimulated-recall interviews were piloted to learn more about the way and the reason these metadiscoursal features were employed. The gathered data disclosed that, unlike native English students writing, EFL Japanese undergraduates invested significant instances of *boosters* and fewer *hedges*. Differences in the employment of metadiscourse devices are partly due “to the transfer from L1, L2 pedagogical materials, and the influence of spoken discourse” (MacIntyre, 2017, p. 57). Noticeably, both groups have employed *hedges* and *boosters* in different ways, for different reasons. Given these illuminating results, MacIntyre (2017) concludes, “Factors such as the way an argument is constructed, the participants’ knowledge of academic writing, and their English proficiency have also contributed to their use in this corpus” (p. 57). Hence, it is necessary to look at the different factors that influence learners’ employment of such a vital feature of academic writing that of metadiscourse.

2.4.5 Hatipoglu and Algi (2017)

In relation to the previous surveys, Hatipoglu and Algi (2017) studied argumentative paragraphs composed by NS of Turkish in their L1 in order to figure out the way *epistemic hedging* is embodied and arranged in particular language (L1Turkish) and in a particular context (argumentative writing); and to demystify the underlying pragmatic functions of the indicated uncertainty markers. The population of the survey consisted of fifty-two (52) NS of Turkish (34 Females and 18 Males) ranging from 18 to 20 years old. The results reveal that *epistemic hedges* in the L1 Turkish are “a rich, multifaceted and multifunctional group of metadiscoursal tools which can assume various and sometimes contrasting pragmatic roles in the different sections of the argumentative text” (Hatipoglu and Algi, 2017, p. 85). Additionally, unlike English and Arabic which use verbs as the most favored *hedging*

markers, NS of Turkish used verbs less frequently as *hedging devices* (Hatipoglu and Algi, 2017).

2.4.6 Tabatabaee, Sarkeshikian and Elaheh (2019)

Another research on metadiscourse in academic writing was carried out by Tabatabaee, Sarkeshikian and Elaheh (2019) in which they aspired to compare the rhetorical models invested by the Iranian and Chinese EFL university students while writing argumentative essays. Being the case, their research attempted to explore the effect of L1 on the use of rhetorical devices, particularly, metadiscoursal features in two diverse cultural backgrounds. The sample of the study was a non-random one and was made up of two nonnative groups of EFL learners from Iran and China consisting of 40 participants each. *Interactional metadiscourse markers* in students' argumentative essays were analysed by resorting to Hyland's (2004) metadiscourse Model, and Mann–Whitney U test was adopted to elucidate the differences in the employment of the metadiscourse markers.

The results obtained showed that Iranian and Chinese learners performed differently in their argumentative essays regarding the employment of *boosters*, *attitude markers*, *engagement markers*, and *self-mentions*; nevertheless, they performed similarly in the employment of *hedges*. Moreover, both groups used all *subtypes* of metadiscourse in their writings, although the use of metadiscourse has different functions depending on the cultural context. Add to that, the significant differences in the employment of the subcategories of metadiscourse by the two groups justify the influence of native culture on writers' use of metadiscourse. Therefore, "the findings can provide a better perspective toward culture-specific variations in writing skill" (Tabatabaee, Sarkeshikian and Elaheh, 2019, p. 2).

2.4.7 Aliyu (2020)

In the same vein, Aliyu (2020) joins the call of research through inspecting Nigerian university students' awareness of metadiscourse and its subcategories while writing under the argumentative genre. Participants of the study were randomly designated and included fifty-six (56) third-grade university students in Nigeria. The study rests on two means of data collection, namely students' composition in L2 English, which were assessed using a validated scale, and a questionnaire was scrutinized using SPSS software. After the analysis and interpretation of results, Aliyu (2020) find out that "the participants have a low awareness of metadiscourse. The findings also reveal that there is a positive relationship between the participants' awareness of metadiscourse and their persuasive writing quality" (p. 40). He further postulates that his study gives insight to researchers and teachers on how to raise the students' awareness and employment of metadiscourse which would ultimately develop writing skill.

Conclusion

All things considered, metadiscourse is in essence a vital rhetorical device that writers cannot do without, especially, in academic genres. As such, metadiscourse is of an incredible importance not only because it contributes to the rhetorical organization of discourse but also because it focuses writers and readers' attention beyond the propositional content to consider textual and interpersonal functions of words, hence, strengthening social and communicative engagement between them as participants of discourse. For this reason, the present chapter highlighted two variables, first is the recent cross-cultural surveys carried up in Arabic and English being the two languages investigated in this study, and second is the concept of metadiscourse being the dependent variable that brings about changes and would; therefore, be explored in the fieldwork.

Being the case, this chapter started by stating the different definitions attached to metadiscourse and metadiscourse devices correspondingly. Then, the chapter shed more light on the central role of metadiscourse in argumentative writing, as it is the genre of writing considered in the current study. After that, it examined the common relationship between metadiscourse and the theory of rhetoric and scrutinized the three identifying principles that serve to distinguish metadiscoursal content from propositional meaning. In addition, the chapter raised a discussion of the diverse classifications pertinent to metadiscoursal devices each of which had its own pros and cons. At last, it wrapped up by reviewing previous enlightening studies on metadiscourse in argumentative writing that aspire to probe the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers cross-linguistically. The following chapter will provide a theoretical background on research methodology components. The latter include: research paradigms in educational research, research approaches, research strategies or designs, data collection methods (tools), data analysis procedures, and finally sampling techniques. The chapter will also cast light on the research methodology and methods adopted in the present study in its second section.

Chapter Three: The Research Methodology for This Study

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Introduction

The present chapter is divided into two main sections. In the first place, it offers a brief account of the fundamentals that form the core of research methodology. More precisely, it opens with an appraisal of the major research paradigms, approaches, designs, data collection instruments, as well as data analysis procedures that underlie educational research. Then, the second section casts light on the research methodology adopted in the present study wherein it unveils the rationale behind the choice of its components. More importantly, this chapter includes a description of the procedures followed to carry out the treatment as well as the structuring, piloting and administration of the questionnaire.

3.1 Research Methodology: Theoretical Background

Most clearly, Stenhouse (1984) describes educational research as a “systematic activity that is directed towards providing knowledge, or adding to the understanding of existing knowledge which is of relevance for improving the effectiveness of education.” (As cited in Welligton, 2000, p. 11). That is to say, a number of underpinning constituents guide educational research and render it a systematic and organised process of investigation that contributes to knowledge enhancement and informs the existing body of literature. As such, this section reviews the adopted methodological framework in this research by which it sheds light on the fundamental components of this framework which are: the research paradigm, approach, design, data collection methods, data analysis procedures, as well as the diverse sampling technique employed in the present investigation.

3.1.1 Research Paradigms in Educational Research

According to Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), research paradigms can be hard to understand due to the differences in their naming and categorisations as well as the degrees of importance attached to them. Given the origin of the term “paradigm”, Thomas Kuhn, an American physicist and philosopher, was the first who coined it in his pioneering article (1970) *The Structure of Scientific Revolution*. For Willis (2011), the concept of paradigm denotes “a comprehensive

belief system, world view, or framework that guides research and practice in a field” (as cited in Taylor and Medina, 2011, p. 8). In the same line, Lather (1986) expounds, “A research paradigm inherently reflects the researcher’s beliefs about the world that s/he lives in and wants to live in. It constitutes the abstract beliefs and principles that shape how a researcher sees the world and how s/he interprets and acts within that world” (as cited in Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017, p. 27).

Likewise, Abdul Rahman and Alharthi (2016) offer a more comprehensive conceptualization of the term ‘research paradigms’ wherein they posit, “A paradigm is a basic belief system and theoretical framework with assumptions about 1) ontology, 2) epistemology, 3) methodology and 4) methods” (p. 51). Understandably, opting for a specific research paradigm is crucial to meet the expectation for conducting a research. In relation, Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) affirm, “It is the choice of paradigm that sets down the intent, motivation and expectations for the research. Without nominating a paradigm as the first step, there is no basis for subsequent choices regarding methodology, methods, literature or research design” (p. 2). As such, it is highly recommended for researchers undertaking educational enquiries to gain useful insights and adequate knowledge about these four concepts, which underlie every research paradigm, before conducting their investigations.

3.1.1.1. Components of Research Paradigm

Before discussing the different types of research paradigms found in the existing body of literature, it is worth mentioning that any research paradigm is made up of a four-component-structure: ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods. The first component of a research paradigm is “ontology”, which is a branch of philosophy concerned with the assumptions the researcher holds about the nature of existence, social entities, or reality (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). It refers to the researcher’s set of beliefs, views, and perceptions about reality, truth, and being (Dillon & Wals, 2006; Taylor & Medina, 2011). In Grix’s (2004) viewpoint, ontology represents the departure point of all research.

The second component of a research paradigm is “epistemology”, “the branch of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge and the process by which knowledge is acquired and validated” (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003, p. 13). Epistemology, by definition, deals with “the nature and forms [of knowledge], how it can be acquired and how communicated to other human beings” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 7). According to Patton (2002), it is the epistemological query that pushes a researcher to discuss and argue “the possibility and desirability of objectivity, subjectivity, causality, validity, generalizability” (p. 134). In this regard, Abd Rehman and Alharthi (2016) assert that following an ontological outlook leads the researcher to certain epistemological assumptions. For that reason, when a particular verifiable truth is assumed, “then the posture of the knower must be one of objective detachment or value freedom in order to be able to discover ‘how things really are’ and ‘how things really work’” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 108).

Reflecting on the true source of knowledge about reality, Empiricists postulate that empirical facts are independent of individual thoughts and that sensory information is the sole basis for knowledge (Tuli, 2010). In view of that, this position is highly objective in essence in that it necessitates the presence of observable evidence and depends largely on hypothesis testing. However, interpretivists hold that knowledge about reality is solely gained from the individual viewpoints of those participating in it (Cohen et al., 2007).

More importantly, the connection between ontology and epistemology is paramount for setting up educational investigations. In this regard, Grix (2004, p. 58) holds that “ontology and epistemology can be considered as the foundations upon which research is built.” It is the researcher’s ontological and epistemological views that underlie the selection of compatible methodology and methods that guide the research.

The third component of a research paradigm is ‘methodology’. Keeves (1997) states that methodology sums up the research process and assists the researcher to find out the type of data required for a given investigation and the appropriate data-gathering instruments regarding the

purpose of the study (as cited in Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). For Crotty (1998), methodology refers to the strategy or action plan that render clear the logic behind the deployment and choice of particular techniques. Simply put, methodology “is concerned with the discussion of how a particular piece of research should be undertaken” (Grix, 2004, p. 32). Hence, the methodology of research does mirror the researchers’ outlook about the nature of both reality and knowledge.

Last of all, the fourth component of a research paradigm is ‘methods’. Cohen et.al (2003) define methods as the “range of approaches used in educational research to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation” (p. 44). According to Abdul Rahman and Alharthi (2016), methods are specific tools used to gather and analyse data, such as questionnaires and open-ended interviews. Notably, the methods used in educational enquiries are mostly contingent upon the research design and the researcher’s theoretical mindset (Abdul Rahman & Alharthi, 2016).

3.1.1.2. Types of Research Paradigm

Considering the classification of paradigms, Dörnyei (2007) points out that the prevailing research paradigms in educational investigations are positivism, constructivism, transformative, and the pragmatic paradigm. The first paradigm “positivism” was prominent during the beginnings of the nineteenth century. Mertens (2005), views it as a "scientific method" that is “based on the rationalistic, empiricist philosophy that originated with Aristotle, Francis Bacon, John Locke, Auguste Comte, and Emmanuel Kant” (p. 8). In addition, positivism echoes a “deterministic philosophy in which causes determine effects or outcomes” (Creswell, 2003, p. 7). Positivists’ investigation relies heavily on quantitative methods such as experimental (cause and effect) and non-experimental in which questions and hypotheses are postulated and lay open to experimental tests (falsification) for verification under well-manipulated circumstances which do not influence the results obtained (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

The ontological assumption underlying the positivistic paradigm is that of naïve realism. Pring (2008) defines realism as “the view that there is reality, a world, which exists independently

of the researcher and which is to be discovered” (p. 58). This implies that reality (the known) is governed by natural laws that are independent and detached to the researcher (knower). Epistemologically speaking, the positivistic paradigm lies beneath a dualist and objectivist perspective wherein the investigator and the investigated exist as independent entities and the former is able to study the object or the investigated without influencing each other (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). As such, the object to be known, which is different from the knower and none of them has an impact on the other, is discovered using scientific methods that obtain quantitative/numerical results. Moreover, this paradigm makes use of an experimental methodology and a beneficent axiology (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). From a methodologically positivistic perspective, a good quality research should have an internal as well as external validity, reliability and objectivity (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Internal validity exists when the influence on the dependent variable is exerted by the independent variable solely and not due to other factors. When the results obtained can be generalised to the rest of the target population, the research can be said to have an external validity. If other researchers conduct the study in different conditions of time, place, sample and instruments and attain similar results, the research is considered reliable. If investigators explore phenomena without contaminating their apprehension, they are deemed to be objective (Abdul Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).

In opposition to positivism stands another research paradigm known as “constructivism” and sometimes referred to as “interpretivism”. The beginning of constructivism is associated with the works of Berger and Luekmann (1967), and Lincoln and Guba (1985), and it holds that the main source to reach an understanding of the phenomenon under research stems from the participants themselves (Creswell, 2009). In essence, the basic principle of Interpretivism/constructivism is that reality is socially constructed (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). Likewise, constructivists believe that the viewpoint of the object of investigation (participant) is increasingly as well as that of the observer (researcher), therefore, reality needs to be interpreted using qualitative strategies. What is distinguishable about this paradigm is that theory follows the

research study and does not precede it because it is based on the findings obtained by the researcher (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). As such, the aim of constructivists is to inductively understand and interpret meanings that individuals have about the world with the aim of developing a theory or a pattern to that meaning (Creswell, 2014).

In principle, Constructivism undertakes a “subjectivist epistemology” by which the researcher sorts meaning out of their findings using their personal interpretation and analysis of the attained data, as well as their experiences or interactions with participants within the studied natural settings (Punch, 2005). Moreover, according to the “relativist ontology” characterizing this paradigm, constructivists assume that there is no single reality but multiple realities that are chiefly approached relying on qualitative methodologies for probing interactions among the researcher and the subjects of the research and participants of the research (Chalmers et al., 2005). To do so, the researcher should adopt “a naturalist methodology” wherein s/he act as a participant observer for collecting useful facts and information using interviews, discourses, text messages and reflective sessions (Carr & Kemmis, 1986). Lastly, this paradigm advocates *a balanced axiology*, i.e., the outcome of the research will replicate the values of the researcher who attempts to put forward a balanced report of the results (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

In relation, another type of paradigms is identified which shares the same worldview as constructivism, namely “the transformative paradigm”. As its name indicates, this paradigm attempts to change the political, social and economic situation of participants to the better and promote social justice. This type of enquiry is also labeled as “the critical paradigm” or “emancipatory research” which is influenced to some extent by particular ideologies like “The Marxist Theory” and “Racial and Ethnic Minorities” which call for emancipatory and transformative societies through group action. According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), the transformative paradigm’s aim is to conduct investigations about “social justice issues” and to address the political, social and economic problems that result in social oppression, dispute, and power structures. Most remarkably, the transformative paradigm involves qualitative studies

where participants take part in research starting from the statement of the problem to the results ‘distribution (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012). Additionally, the transformative paradigm takes up a “transactional epistemology” where the researcher interacts with the participants of study, an “ontology of historical realism” because it revolves particularly around oppression, along with a “dialogic methodology” and an axiology that conforms to cultural norms (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

Another completely different theoretical foundation, which is commonly espoused in investigations and enquiries, is the pragmatic paradigm. The latter was advanced to end ‘Paradigm Wars’ between the two utterly opposed worldviews of positivism and interpretivism/constructivism (Gage, 1989). In a sense, pragmatists contend that approaching reality cannot be attained using one scientific method as promoted by positivists nor it can be socially constructed as referred to by interpretivists (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). That is to say, unlike the previously discussed worldviews that involve one single method of investigation, the pragmatic paradigm relies on the triangulation of methods, which makes it eclectic in essence. Advocates of the mixed methods research argue that the combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods is highly recommended to unravel the complexity and diversity of human behaviour, and therefore would assist researchers to arrive at realistic and logical explanations of it (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017).

According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), the pragmatic paradigm adopts, first, a *relational epistemology* in which relationships in research are identified according to what the researcher believes appropriate to a certain study, and second, *anon-singular reality ontology* which means there is no single reality for individuals have their personal and distinctive interpretations of truth. In addition, pragmatism is contingent upon a *mixed methods methodology* as well as a *value-laden axiology* whereby the implemented study should bring about benefits to people.

As seen in the aforementioned section, the type of research paradigm opted for dictates the methodologies to be followed all along the study. This is believed important “because the methodological implications of paradigm choice permeate, the research question/s, participants’ selection, data collection instruments and collection procedures, as well as data analysis”(p. 38, Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Differently put, each type of paradigms is guided by distinctive and specific worldviews about ontology, epistemology, methodology and methods. For this reason, researchers should have a comprehensive knowledge of the characteristics distinguishing the previously discussed paradigms as to select wisely among the available methodologies only those appropriate ones that would serve the purpose of their studies.

3.1.2 Research Approaches

The methodology of any research consists of a number of procedures, which gives to the study a guiding framework, the first of which is “the research approach”. The latter narrows down the steps of research from general assumptions to specific methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell, 2014). In this vein, it is important to know that any “research approach has corresponding research design which calls for possible methods which in turn provide range of techniques to support the method” (Grover, 2015,p.2). The following figure better illustrates the relationship between research approaches, their underlying philosophical assumptions, as well as their corresponding designs and methods.

Figure 3.1

Interconnection between Philosophical Worldviews, Designs and Methods (Creswell, 2014, p.5).



As demonstrated in the above figure, based on the four philosophical worldviews of positivism, constructivism, transformativism and pragmatism, three research approaches are identified, namely quantitative, qualitative and mixed research approaches. According to Newman and Benz (1998), researchers have better not consider qualitative and quantitative approaches as firm, and distinct classifications or dichotomies. Rather, they are different ends on a continuum, while mixed methods research is located at the middle of that continuum as it combines components of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The following table encompasses a side-by-side comparison of the two approaches whereby a set of key distinguishing criteria related to each approach are emphasized.

Table 3.1

Comparing Quantitative and Qualitative Research Approaches (MacDonald & Headlam, 2015, p. 9)

	Quantitative	Qualitative
Aim	The aim is to count things in an attempt to explain what is observed.	The aim is a complete, detailed description of what is observed.
Purpose	Generalisability, prediction, causal explanations	Contextualisation, interpretation, understanding perspectives
Tools	Researcher uses tools, such as surveys, to collect numerical data.	Researcher is the data gathering instrument.
Data collection	Structured	Unstructured
Output	Data is in the form of numbers and statistics.	Data is in the form of words, pictures or objects.
Sample	Usually a large number of cases representing the population of interest. Randomly selected respondents	Usually a small number of non-representative cases. Respondents selected on their experience.
Objective/ Subjective	Objective – seeks precise measurement & analysis	Subjective - individuals' interpretation of events is important
Researcher role	Researcher tends to remain objectively separated from the subject matter.	Researcher tends to become subjectively immersed in the subject matter.
Analysis	Statistical	Interpretive

3.1.2.1 Quantitative Approach

The quantitative approach involves the description and interpretation of phenomena, issues, events, cases, or situations by collecting verbal / linguistic data using variables pertinent to such type of research like measurement scales as the nominal and ordinal ones (Kumar, 2011). As its name suggests, quantitative approach makes use of figures and numerical data, and is applicable to phenomena that are established in quantity (Kothari, 2004). Advocates of this approach, like Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), assert, “The major characteristics of the quantitative research are focus on deduction, confirmation, theory/hypothesis testing, explanation, prediction, standardized data collection and statistical

analysis” (p. 18). In the same line, Creswell (2014) clarifies that the foremost objective of the quantitative approach is the production of systematic, firmly measured, reliable, and replicable research results that can be generalized to other contexts under similar conditions.

In spite of its utility and effectiveness in conducting scientific research studies, generally relevant to the positivistic and post-positivistic paradigms, the quantitative approach did not escape criticism. Brannen (2005) maintains, “The quantitative approach is overly simplistic, decontextualized, reductionist in terms of its generalization, [...]” (as cited in Dörnyei, 2007, p. 35). Additionally, this approach does not look at individual cases; rather, it depends on the selection of large samples which represents a threat to the generalizability of its results. Due these drawbacks and others, a different approach to research took over, that is “the qualitative approach”.

3.1.2.2 Qualitative Approach

Most often, the qualitative approach is implemented to undertake investigations in the area of social sciences. It was largely developed throughout the mid-half of the nineteenth century as a result of the alleged belief that every component pertinent to language acquisition and use is significantly constructed by social, cultural, and situational factors (Dörnyei, 2007). According to Macdonald and Headman (2015, p. 8), the qualitative approach tries to gain knowledge about “the underlying reasons and motivations for actions and establish how people interpret their experiences and the world around them. Qualitative methods provide insights into the setting of a problem, generating ideas and/or hypotheses”. Following this, the approach attempts to investigate, describe, and interpret subjectively peoples’ attitudes, behaviours, and experiences in a small sample with some flexibility allowing for responsive changes in the study results (Kothari, 2004; Dawson 2007; Hesse-Biber, 2010; Jonker & Pennink, 2010). By choosing small-sized samples, opponents of this approach stress diversity and variance in the study obtained findings. Ostensibly, it is exclusively appropriate to the phenomena

which can be explained in terms of soft data, using words, descriptions, body language, and pictures (Symeou, 2008). For Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), the distinctive features related to qualitative research are “induction, discovery, exploration, theory/ hypothesis generation, the researcher as the primary ‘instrument’ of data collection and qualitative analysis” (p. 18). Given these characteristics, the qualitative approach can be used to imply two similar philosophical worldviews that of constructivism and the transformative paradigm.

As the previous approach to research, the qualitative one did not receive many satisfactory comments. Consequently, this led scholars to question its usefulness whereby they postulate that the subjective outlook of investigators may falsify the results because they will undeniably include their own interpretation and analysis of the problem under scrutiny (Daniel, 2016). Accordingly, unlike quantifiable and numerical findings, the accumulated data from qualitative research may not be deemed credible and precise in all contexts and circumstances. Besides, the approach was highly disapproved because the idiosyncratic nature of smaller samples of participants impedes and weakens the generalisability of the research outcomes. In view of that, the qualitative research approach represents an anti-methodological, an unprincipled, a fuzzy, a labor-intensive, and a time-consuming approach. Given these critics, researchers strived to build on the strengths of each approach by combining the strategies of both the qualitative and quantitative research in one single approach that is known as ‘the mixed research’ (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

3.1.2.3 Mixed-Methods Approach

From the nineteen’s until the present day, the mixed methods approach has noticed a fast progress as it has been adopted in a myriad of research fields. According to Dornyei (2007), the approach is labeled differently as multi-method research, methodological triangulation, and multi-methodological research. The fundamental assumption underpinning this type of approaches, which is pragmatism, calls for the study of any issue or phenomena from

multiple perspectives by using pluralistic research tools and instruments. For Creswell (2014), the triangulation of methods offers a more comprehensive understanding of the problem in question than using each approach alone.

Likewise, to answer the research questions properly, the researcher should assemble and analyse numerical information belonging to the quantitative approach on the one hand, and the narrative data pertinent to qualitative research on the other. In doing so, researchers employ numbers to give more precision to words while words would add meaning to numbers. In this manner, researchers' in-depth analysis of the subject under research, using multiple methods, is believed to contribute successfully to the precision and validity of the obtained results. In this concern, Strauss and Corbin (1998), who studied closely the methodology governing the mixed-methods approach to research, highlight the mutual support and influence of the quantitative and qualitative approaches in which they posit:

Qualitative and quantitative forms of research both have roles to play in theorising. The issue is not whether to use one form or another but rather how these might work together to foster the development of theory [...] The qualitative should direct the quantitative and the quantitative feedback into the qualitative in a circular, but at the same time evolving, process with each method contributing to the theory in ways that only each can. (As cited in Dörnyei, 2014, p. 43)

Nonetheless, Denis (2017) elucidates that the triangulation of methods leads to offsetting the shortcomings and inadequacies pertinent to both of its underpinning approaches. On his side, Creswell (2014) draws researchers' attention to the challenges this approach may pose for them in the long run. These challenges may include thorough data gathering, time-consuming scrutiny of both quantitative and qualitative findings, and adequate knowledge of the basics of quantitative and qualitative approaches to research. Eventually, it is worth mentioning that the appropriate choice of research approaches and its

consistent methods of data collection and analysis would guarantee the validity and reliability of the results obtained. Therefore, after opting for the adequate approach for undertaking a particular research study, now, it is time to select corresponding design or set of strategies to it.

3.1.3 Research Designs / Strategies

Creswell (2014, p.41) defines research designs as “types of inquiry within qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches that provide specific direction for procedures in a research design”. Much in the same way, Denzin & Lincoln (2011) refer to them interchangeably as *strategies of inquiry* (cited in Creswell, *ibid*). In this regard, Kumar (2011) perceives a research strategy as a procedural plan or scheme implemented by researchers for the sake of answering their research questions validly, objectively, accurately, and economically. Table 3.2 is inclusive of the common designs/strategies that are pertinent to the three research approaches.

Table 3.2

Alternative Research Designs (Creswell, 2014, p.41)

Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed-Methods
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Experimental designs · Non-experimental designs, such as surveys 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Narrative research · Phenomenology · Grounded theory · Ethnographies · Case study 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · Convergent · Explanatory, sequential · Exploratory, sequential · Transformative, embedded, or multiphase

3.1.3.1 Quantitative research strategies

From the late 19th and during the 20th century, research designs related to the quantitative approach were those which appealed to the post-positivist worldview originating mainly in psychology. These consist of experimental and non-experimental designs. More precisely, *experimental research* strategies include *true experiments*, *quasi-*

experiments, as well as *applied behavioral analysis or single-subject experiments*, while *non-experimental* ones consist of both *causal-comparative research* and *correlational design* (Creswell, 2014).

To begin with, experimental designs are often identified as ‘the scientific method’ “due to their popularity in scientific research where they originated” (Muijs, 2004,p.13).The cornerstone of such type of designs is the experiment that is implemented under controlled conditions in order to exhibit facts or test the validity of a hypothesis. That is to say, researchers manipulate the environment in which experiments takes place (exactly the *predictor* variable which influences the study results) and focus only on the variables targeted in the study. On the contrary, in non-experimental designs, researchers cannot control extraneous variables which have no relation with the objective of the research study but can affect the dependent variable in many ways (Muijs, 2004). More importantly, apart from the control or manipulation of variables, experimental research has other key underpinning features that are “careful measurement and establishing cause and effect relationships” (Kabir, 2016, p. 271).

The first type of experimental designs is ‘the true experiment’ wherein participants of a study are randomly selected to form an experimental group and a control group (Marczyk, DeMatteo, and Festinger, 2005).According to Dörnyei (2007), the true experimental design should involve at least two groups, the experimental group that receives the treatment and the control group whose utility is to offer a baseline for comparisons. Although randomization would contribute to the validity and credibility of the research outcomes, it is generally not viable in the field of social sciences. Hence, when the principle of randomization is unfeasible, researchers have better implement the quasi-experimental design (Dörnyei, 2007).

Quasi-experimental designs sometimes referred to as ‘pre-post treatment studies’, ‘semi-experimental design’ or ‘as if experimental design’(Dörnyei, 2007). Unlike true-experiments, the conditions of randomization of participants and the high degree of generalizability are violated, hence the name ‘quasi-experiment’. This kind of research designs can take a variety of forms, particularly the one-group pre-test-post-test, the one-group post-tests only, the post-tests only non-equivalent groups, the pre-test-post-test non-equivalent group, and the one-group time series (Cohen et al., 2018).

Typically, quasi-experiments are quite common in research that takes place at educational settings because the researcher may not essentially have a true control group as s/he may work with preexisting constructed groups like classes at a particular school (Quantitative research methods, 2016). Actually, quasi-experimentations are more appropriate and advantageous when random allocation of participants into groups is impossible, impractical or unethical. Following this, the selected control group in a quasi-experimental design should be similar to the experimental group except for the treatment. Therefore, the control group is also called the *comparison group* since it is not a pure control group (Mujis, 2004).

Still in the realm of quantitative research, another type of frequently adopted strategy to research is the ‘non-experimental design’ or ‘ex post facto design’ (after the fact). This kind of designs is retrospective in nature and involves whether a description of a group or merely a study of the relationships between pre-existing groups. In relation, Salkind (2010) mentions that, following the ex post facto design, participants are unrandomly allocated in groups and since the researcher does not control the independent variables, no conclusions regarding the causal relationships between variables in the research study can be deduced or constructed. The non-experimental research, as Creswell

(2014) suggests, falls into two dissimilar research strategies, namely “the correlational research strategy” and “the causal comparative research strategy”.

Originally, the correlational research, also referred to as “associational research”, is another quantitative genre of inquiry which is frequently used in survey-based studies to test the association between two or more variables, and to make predictions (Mackey & Gass, 2005). By principle, while conducting a correlational study, “investigators use the correlational statistic to describe and measure the degree or association (or relationship) between two or more variables or sets of scores” (Creswell, 2014, p. 41). Likewise, Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2000) expound, further, the tenet of this research design in which they posit that it is usually conducted to respond to three crucial questions about the independent and dependent variables involved in the research study. Firstly, is there interdependence between the dependent and the independent variable? Secondly, if yes, then what is the direction of the interdependence? Thirdly, what is the degree of the magnitude?

The second type of non-experimental designs is “the causal-comparative research”. Basically, it implies that “the investigator compares two or more groups in terms of a cause (or independent variable) that has already happened” (Creswell, p. 41). As such, this sort of research designs is employed to define and quantify relationships between two or more variables by observing closely two groups, which receive different treatments, and scrutinizing particular features. According to Bukhari (2011), “Comparative research plays a central role in concept formation by bringing into focus suggestive similarities and contrasts among cases/ subjects. It shapes our power of description” (n.p.).

3.1.3.2 Qualitative research strategies

In history, qualitative research strategies became more prominent and widespread with the beginning of the 21st century where they stemmed from inquiries in “anthropology,

sociology, the humanities, and evaluation” (Creswell, 2014, p. 42). The different types of qualitative designs to research are as follows: “narrative research”, “phenomenology”, “grounded theory”, “ethnographies” and lastly “case study”.

Understandably, “Narrative research”, as clarified by Riessman(2008),is related to the field of humanities whereby scholars examine and probe the lives of particular people and request one individual or more to narrate stories about their lives (cited in Creswell, 2014). According to Clandinin and Connelly (2000), the researcher, then, retell this information into a narrative chronology. Eventually, the story links insights from the participant’s life with those of the researcher’s life in a “collaborative narrative” (cited in *ibid*).

Considering “Phenomenological research”, the second type of qualitative strategies of inquiry, Giorgi (2009) and Moustakas (1994)define it as “a design of inquiry coming from philosophy and psychology in which the researcher describes the lived experiences of individuals about a phenomenon as described by participants”(cited in Creswell, 2014, p.42).In their views, this research strategy rests on solid philosophical foundations and usually includes conducting interviews. Add to that, phenomenology prefers having an account of the “things in themselves” as they are experienced by individuals and, thus, the phenomenologist’s principal goal is to exhibit these experiences in a way which is “faithful to the original” (Denscombe, 2007).

Given the third type of qualitative strategies/designs to research, “grounded theory” is a design of inquiry from sociology in which the researcher derives a general, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the views of participants. This process involves using multiple stages of data collection and the refinement and interrelationship of categories of information (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2007).

Another design adopted in qualitative studies is “ethnography”, which is a strategy of research originating in the fields of “anthropology and sociology in which the researcher

studies the shared patterns of behaviors, language, and actions of an intact cultural group in a natural setting over a prolonged period of time” (Creswell, 2014, p. 43). Methods of data collection used under this strategy are mainly observations and interviews.

Last of all, following Stake (1995) and Yin’s(2009, 2012) conceptualization, “case studies” are a research design where the investigator forms an extensive analysis of a case, which can be a “program, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals” (cited in Creswell, 2014, p. 43). Surprisingly, cases are tied by time and activity as researchers are required to gather thorough information by means of a range of data collection techniques over a continuous period (ibid).

3.1.3.3 Mixed-methods strategies

Mixed-methods or multiple-methods approach to research makes use of pluralistic strategies of inquiry belonging to both quantitative and qualitative approaches with an effort to gather varied forms of data. “Qualitative data tends to be open-ended without predetermined responses while quantitative data usually includes closed-ended responses such as found on questionnaires or psychological instruments” (Creswell, 2014, p. 43). When triangulating or combining methods, it is important that the researcher has a clear idea about both the quantitative and qualitative databases. The latter are summarized in the below table.

Table 3.3

Quantitative, Mixed, and Qualitative Methods Databases (Creswell, 2014, p. 43)

Quantitative Method	Mixed Methods	Qualitative Method
Pre-determined	Both predetermined and emerging methods	Emerging methods
Instrument-based questions	Both open- and closed-ended Questions	Open-ended questions
Performance data, attitude data, observational data, and census data	Multiple forms of data drawing on all possibilities	Interview data, observation data, document data, and audio-visual data
Statistical analysis	Statistical and text analysis	Text and image analysis
Statistical interpretation	Across databases interpretation	Themes, patterns interpretation

3.1.4 Data Collection Methods

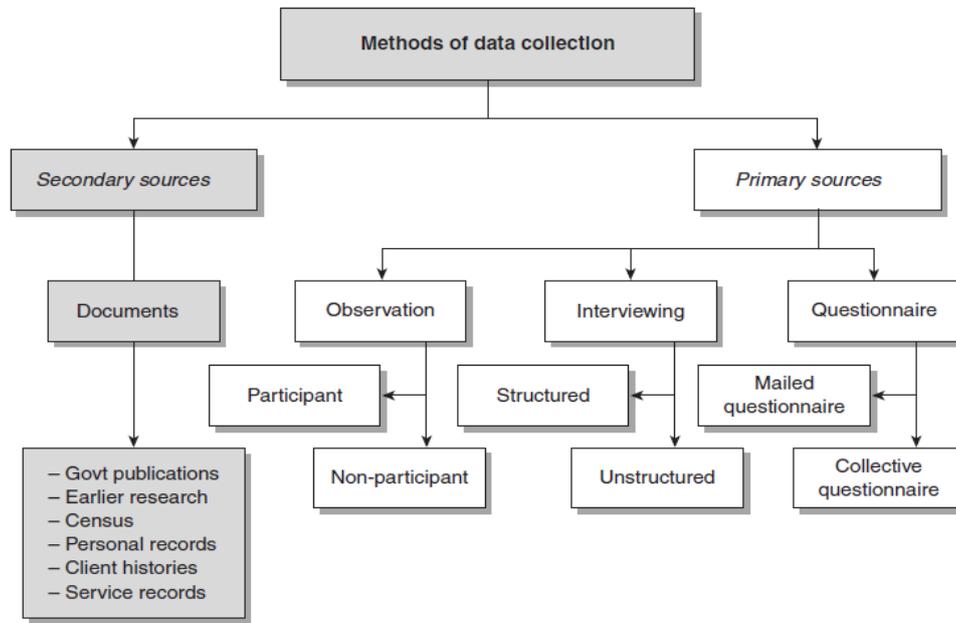
It goes without saying that the collection of accurate and reliable data is the most important step in almost every research study. After the identification of the research gap, the formulation of the statement of the problem, the review of relevant literature and the decision on the underpinning research paradigm and approach, the selection of appropriate data collection methods will automatically follow.

Data collection methods are, by definition, instruments or tools used to accumulate useful data from participants for research purposes. Interestingly enough, the choice of such instruments depends largely on the philosophical epistemology underlying the research approach used to undertake a given study (Kumar, 2011). As shown in the figure below, the data can be extracted from either *primary sources* such as questionnaires, interviewing, focus group, observation or *secondary sources* like documents and records. In this sense, Kothari (2004, p. 95) explains:

The *primary data* are those which are collected afresh and for the first time, and thus happen to be original in character. The *secondary data*, on the other hand, are those which have already been collected by someone else and which have already been passed through the statistical process.

Figure 3.2

Methods of data collection (Kumar R., 2011, p. 139)



Starting with the most versatile data gathering tool in research enquiry, “questionnaires” are defined by Brown (2001) as “any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers” (cited in Dornyei, 2003, p.6).

Questionnaires employ a myriad of question types such as true/false questions, multiple-choice, Likert scale, rating scale, semantic differential scale, and rank order items. Regarding the type of questions used, methodologists differentiate three types of questionnaires, namely the *structured questionnaire* which includes close-ended questions, the *unstructured one* which contains open-ended questions and the semi-structured questionnaire combining both forms of questions (Dornyei, 2003).

Importantly, questionnaires are highly useful in compiling information and easy for researchers to construct, administer and analyse. As such, the advantages of questionnaires can be listed as follows: (a) They can supply considerable amount of research data for relatively low cost in terms of time, money, and materials; (b) They are simple and easy to administer; (c) They provide standardised answers; and (d) They allow the speedy collection and analysis of data (Hoadjli, 2016, p. 45).

Despite of the above-stated advantages of questionnaires and their relative effectiveness, Dörnyei (2003) draws researchers' attention to the various limitations that questionnaires use might incorporate. These can be the simplicity and superficiality of answers, the lack of motivation, literacy issues, and the difficulty to rectify the mistakes made by the respondents.

Another commonly employed data collection method in social and human sciences as well as other fields of inquiry is "*the interview*". According to Burns (1997), the interview is "a verbal interchange, often face to face, though the telephone may be used, in which an interviewer tries to elicit information, beliefs or opinions from another person" (as cited in Kumar, 2011, p. 137). That is to say the interview is a lengthier conversation taking place between the researcher being the interviewer and the interviewee for the sake of obtaining information or gaining insights about a certain research topic. However, unlike everyday conversations, the interview conducted for research purposes is an extremely disciplined tool that has structure, purpose, and form (Anderson and Arsenault, 2005).

Hitchcock and Hughes (1995), distinguish two main categories of interviews: "*standard interviews*" and "*non-standard interviews*". Standard interviews involve structured, semi-structured, and group questions in which the interviewer does not deviate from these questions; while non-standard interviews consist of unstructured, life history, ethnographic, informal, and group interviews. Non-standard interviews are deemed to be less systematic

since the researcher interviews several people at the same time, does not employ any set agenda, and write down information elicited from the discussion without having to ask questions. By and large, the most widely used category of interviews in the educational setting is the standard semi-structured interview for it contains already-formed and arranged questions which facilitate the process of eliciting information and attitudes as they happen in the interview. Besides, as pointed out by Kumar (2011), the likelihood of misinterpretation or assembling irrelevant data in structured and semi-structured interviews is decreased.

In addition to interviews, researchers most often resort to “*focus group discussions*”, also known as ‘*group interviews*’, to gather information relevant to their surveys through interactions among participants about a predetermined topic. In this vein, Dörnyei (2007) maintains that focus groups are sometimes dealt with as a sub-type of interviewing given that both the format and the interviewer’s role are similar to what is going on in the interviewing process. DeMarrais and Lapan (2004) clarify that in focus group discussions, researchers can ask a number of people, usually from seven to eleven participants, to come together in a group in order to discuss a certain topic. A moderator or facilitator, who manipulates the discussion, introduces the topic being investigated, asks precise questions, controls deviations, and prevents irrelevant conversations (Dawson, 2007). One crucial fact about focus group discussions is that during one group interview, focus group moderators can obtain a great number of answers. Furthermore, conducting focus group discussions can rescue participants from inhibitions, particularly if they know one another. As a final point, the group interaction would serve as cooperative resources in the procedure of data analysis (Dawson, 2007).

Apart from the previously mentioned data collection methods, “*tests*” are another common instrument that researchers may rely on in their studies. In the research setting, tests serve to find out whether the independent variable may, in one way or another, affect the

dependent one. Besides, tests are highly efficient in supplying precise and accurate data that is most often numerical. In this respect, Cohen et al. (2007) emphasise, “in tests, researchers have at their disposal a powerful method of data collection, an impressive array of tests for gathering data of a numerical rather than verbal kind” (p. 414).

Regarding their types, tests fall into three different categories, namely the *achievement tests*, *aptitude tests*, and *personality tests*. According to Cherry (2020), achievement tests seek to measure the extent to which participants have developed a particular motor skill or attained a specific knowledge after receiving respective instruction. Equally, in aptitude tests, the researcher tries to assess the examinees’ level of competence, (i.e.), what they are able to learn or do. This type of tests is mainly designed to assess academic potential, career suitability, and cognitive or physical talent in varied fields. On the other hand, personality tests are a set of methodological techniques relied on to diagnose human traits and characteristics. Generally, personality tests are implemented for various reasons, for instance, making clinical diagnosis, manipulating therapeutic interventions, and learning how individuals may react in different situations.

Remarkably, a myriad of data collection methods can be invested in research studies. However, researchers should make wise decisions about which instruments to opt for so that only reliable and relevant data are to be assembled. Undeniably, bearing in mind the pros and cons of each instrument used will increase the quality of research on the one hand, and contribute to the credibility and validity of it on the other.

3.1.5 Data Analysis Procedures

Unquestionably, the analysis of the gathered data and the interpretation of the corresponding results is the most important, yet, difficult step in conducting research studies. Kothari (2004) conceptualises the procedure of data analysis as the process whereby explanation, understanding, evaluation, structure, and order are brought to the mass of

collected data. Technically speaking, regardless of the nature of the accumulated data, be it quantitative or qualitative, researchers rely on the same data analysis steps, namely *editing, coding, classification and tabulation*.

As such, the very first step is to make sure that the “raw data” is proper, that is to say, free from discrepancies, omissions and flaws. This initial operation is referred to as “*editing*” whereby researchers scrutinise “the completed research instruments to identify and minimise, as far as possible, errors, incompleteness, misclassification and gaps in the information obtained from the respondents” (Kumar, 2011, p. 255).

After checking and improving the quality of data, now comes the subsequent step, that of “coding”. In Kothari’s (2004) words, coding denotes “the process of assigning numerals or other symbols to answers so that responses can be put into a limited number of categories or classes” (p. 123). These classes have to be compatible with the research problem being investigated in which there should be a class for every data item. Besides, each particular answer should be classified in one cell in every single category (Kothari, 2004).

The next step of data analysis involves “*classifying*” data into consistent groups based on a set of shared features. The classification process may take two distinct forms, *classification according to attributes or classification according to class-intervals*. In qualitative research, data are said to share descriptive characteristics which cannot be measured quantitatively. Hence, data are classified according to attributes (or characteristics) into two classes; one class comprising items having the same assumed attribute and another containing items which do not own this attribute. Conversely, in quantitative research, numerical characteristics are classified based on class intervals. Every single class has upper/lower limits, magnitude (difference between the two class limits) and frequency (number of items in each class) (Kothari, 2004).

Lastly, researchers are left with “*the tabulation*” operation by which chunks of data are organized into statistical tables for further analysis. This step is crucial and indispensable for a number of reasons. Firstly, it saves space and decreases explanatory information to the least. Also, it makes the comparison process much easier. Moreover, it assists researchers in spotting down inaccuracies and lapses. More importantly, it offers a rich source for numerous statistical computations (Kothari, 2004).

3.1.6 Sampling Techniques

Practically speaking, sampling means the selection of a certain number of items, units or participants from a larger population for the purpose of making inferences and generalisation about the whole population concerning a specific investigated topic. In this light, Kumar (2011, p. 192) defines sampling as “the process of selecting a few (a sample) from a bigger group (the sampling population) to become the basis for estimating or predicting the prevalence of an unknown piece of information, situation or outcome regarding the bigger group”. For Dornyei (2007), a good sample should carefully mirror and represent major characteristics of the whole population, such as age, gender, ethnicity, educational background, and social class.

On the whole, there are two main sampling techniques. In “*Probability sampling*”, participants’ selection is a pure matter of chance which would, certainly, eliminate researchers’ bias and subjectivity. This random selection gives each individual in the population an equal opportunity to be part of the undertaken survey. Examples of probability sampling include: simple random samples, systematic samples, stratified samples, cluster samples, stage samples, as well as multi-phase samples (Dornyei, 2007). On the contrary, in “*non-probability sampling*”, the researcher chooses the participants or items on the basis of personal judgment rather than chance. This would raise the level of bias and would not allow for the generalization of the obtained outcomes to the whole population. Non-probability

sampling techniques include convenience sampling, quota sampling, dimensional sampling, purposive sampling, and snowball sampling (Dornyei, 2007).

3.2. Research Methodology for this Study: Choices and Rationale

This section endeavours to offer a clear and comprehensive account of the research methodology pertinent to the present research study. In doing so, it uncovers the research paradigm, approach, strategy, data collection methods, data analysis procedures, as well as the sampling technique used to accumulate relevant and reliable data that would serve to answer the study questions and , hence, fulfill its underlying aim.

3.2.1. Research Paradigms

The present study adopts a “*pragmatic paradigm*” which allows for the combination of multiple research methods. As such, a triangulation of quantitative as well as qualitative research methods is provided for achieving reliable and precise results that would guarantee the success of the study. Practically speaking, this paradigm offers a *relational epistemology* among the different variable of the topic (L1 Arabic transfer effect on the use of metadiscourse devises in L2 English essays written by third year university students) and is mainly based on *non-singular reality ontology*; *i.e.*; researchers have distinct interpretations of truth. Add to that, it rests on a *value-laden axiology* in which the conducted study should convey benefits to both students and teachers of writing (the pedagogical implications that this study reflects).

3.2.2. Research Approaches

An “*Explanatory Mixed-methods Approach*” is opted for to meet the aims of the study between hands and answer its underlying questions. Undeniably, the nature of the researched topic, that of metadiscourse use in L1 Arabic and L2 English, necessitates the compilation of both quantitative and qualitative data to furnish a deep understanding of the topic. This, in turn, will attach more value to the study compared to similar recent studies

conducted in the field of CR which used only one approach and a relatively limited number of research instruments.

3.2.3 Research Designs / Strategies

Given that this study is contingent upon Explanatory Mixed-methods Approach to research, a different set of quantitative and qualitative strategies of enquiry are wisely and justifiably selected, namely “the instrument-based questions”, “the quasi-experiment” and “the interview data”. These strategies are employed side by side to yield adequate and relevant data about the topic under investigation. In doing so, the *instrument-based questions* addressed to students, for example, assist in accumulating numerical data about students’ writing experiences and habits in both languages Arabic and English. While *the experiment* takes the lion’s part in gathering data whereby valuable information about students’ performance in writing as well as their use of metadiscoursal markers in argumentative essays, always in both languages, is revealed. As a final step, once the quasi-experiment is over, the research strives to gain insights about students’ perception of the instruction received (during the intervention phase) and their overall reaction towards the experiment’s tests and their written output as well as their essays’ marks

3.2.4 Population and Sampling Techniques

The target population in research enquiries designates “the people about whom information will be collected. Typically, in language programs these will be language learners or potential language learners” (Richards 2001, p. 57). As for the current study, the population selected is *third year majors of English at Abbas Laghrour University of Khenchela*. The choice of this population is motivated by the next reasons:

-Third year students are more advanced and qualified compared to first and second year students. They have already been introduced to writing different types of essays wherein the argumentative essay genre is no exception.

- Third year students have an ample of time, in comparison with Master one and two students, to take part in the field work, namely the questionnaire, the experiment and focus group.

-The writing problem of transferring strategies, conventions and rhetorical organisation from L1 Arabic to L2 English is rather common in third year students compared to Master students that are on the verge of graduating and should reflect a good command of the writing skill in the target language.

On the other hand, *sampling* represents to “the process of selecting and surveying a small portion of a larger group. The assumption is that the sample has the same type of persons as occur in the larger population” (Griffiee, 2012, p. 67). The sample selected from the target population includes 60 third year students divided into two groups: EG and CG. Since third year students in the academic year 2020-2021 are distributed into three groups with a total number of 145 students, selecting 60 participants is inevitably representative. According to Borg and Gall (as cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007), causal-comparative and experimental methodologies require a sample size of no fewer than fifteen cases.

Concerning the sampling technique, the *non-probability purposive sampling* technique was followed in the selection of participants. This was thought convenient because in experiments, which take place at educational settings, the researcher may not essentially have a true control group as she may work with preexisting constructed groups like classes at a particular university. As such, the principle of randomization was impracticable. Another reason for non-randomisation of participants is that the selected control group in a quasi-experimental design should be similar to the experimental group except for the treatment. Therefore, the control group is also called the *comparison group* since it is not a pure control group.

3.2.5 Data Collection Methods and Procedure

In view of the current study, three research instruments are employed in the process of data accumulation. These include *the pre-experiment students questionnaire, two aptitude tests (pre-treatment test and posttest), and the focus groups interviews (or discussions)*. A more detailed account of the data collection methods selected and their implementation is provided under the following headings.

3.2.5.1 The students' questionnaire

As has been stated above, the questionnaire was administered to a precise sample selected from the target population (third year English majors at Abbas Laghrour university of Khenchela) before the implementation of the experiment. That is to say, participants had to fill in the questionnaire before sitting for the pretest and prior to receiving any instruction about the investigated topic.

3.2.5.1.1 Structure and aim

The questionnaire consists of 35 questions, which vary in form including open-ended, close-ended and multiple-choice questions. As such, the semi-structured questionnaire is divided into five main sections: background information, writing experience in L1 Arabic, writing experience in L2 English, metadiscourse awareness in writing, and finally further suggestions. Each section has a different aim while the major aim or tenet of the questionnaire is to gauge the awareness as well as appropriate employment of metadiscourse features in L1 Arabic and L2 English essays by third year English majors at Abbas Laghrour university of Khenchela.

Section One: Background Information (Q1 to Q5)

The purpose of the first section is to collect general information about the study participants such as age, gender, years spent in studying English, type of Baccalaureate, and the reason behind studying English at university. The information gathered in this section

helps to find out whether the selected sample is representative in the sense that it shares the same major characteristics of the target population so that the obtained findings can unquestionably be generalised to the rest of it.

Section Two: Writing Experience in L1 Arabic (Q6 to Q14)

This section aims to investigate students' writing experiences in their mother tongue Arabic. Being the case, the second section attempts to measure students' awareness of the rhetorical differences that distinguish Arabic from other languages, precisely English, and if they think these differences may ever affect their writing performance in English. Some other questions were meant to accumulate information about thinking in Arabic and its negative transfer while writing in English. The last question, in this section, is rather indirect in that it seeks to find out if students believe that establishing a certain level of writing mastery in Arabic would necessarily result in establishing the same level when writing in English and vice versa.

Section Three: Writing Experience in L2 English (Q15 to Q29)

In the third section, the researcher tries to demystify crucial information about what goes on in and out of the English "written expression's sessions". For instance, the type of activities dealt with in class, purpose and frequency of writing in English, sufficiency of the allocated time to write in class, teacher supply of feedback and guidance while writing, and the use of authentic reading samples prior to the drafting phase in class. Interestingly, the rest of the questions are intended to illicit students' perceptions towards more important writing matters like the adequacy of the written expression course in allowing L2 students to write well in English, the difficulties and writing problems encountered when writing in English, and the possibility of improving students writing skill through writing different types of essays in other modules apart from WE. This section closes up with a question on the potential qualities of a good English essay according to students own perspectives.

Section Four: Metadiscourse Awareness in Writing (Q30 to Q34)

Interestingly, the fourth section casts light on the investment of metadiscourse markers in writing essays, be it in English or Arabic. Students have to answer five questions each of which reflects their awareness of the concept of metadiscourse in general and the extent to which they employ metadiscoursal markers in their Arabic and English essays in particular. More precisely, some of these questions seek to investigate the frequency of metadiscourse markers use and the most used type of it (whether interactive markers or interactional). The last questions reflects students views about the use of such markers and their effects on their essays' writing quality (whether they think metadiscourse markers employment will in one way or another improve their writing skill in both languages).

Section Five: Further Suggestions (Q35)

This last section is inclusive of only one question which gives a room to students' personal comments, suggestions or any addition that may serve the aim of the questionnaire. Students can write down any ideas they think are important to our study or that are not addressed in the questionnaire, yet, they are pertinent to writing habits, strategies, L1 transfer, and metadiscourse devices use in essays. Remarkably, students most often escape responding to such type of questions or answer it superficially.

3.2.5.1.2 Piloting and administration

In order to guarantee the relevance of the questionnaire content to the aim of investigated topic on the one hand and the clarity of its questions and instructions to the participants on the other, the researcher conducted a pilot study one month before the main questionnaire had been administered. As a preliminary step, 30 students excluding the study participants have answered the questionnaire. Then, after considering the students' responses, the researcher reduced the questions number from 42 questions to 35 whereby seven irrelevant questions were deleted and other unclear questions were reformulated. It was very

essential that the researcher should be present during the pilot study as to explain briefly the two concepts of contrastive rhetoric and metadiscourse because they were daunting to students.

Following the piloting stage, the questionnaire has been administered to sixty third year students belonging to the department of English at Abbas Laghrour university of Khenchela in the first semester of the academic year 2020-2021. Remarkably, students who took part in responding to the questionnaire are the same students (or sample) who participated in the experiment and focus group discussions. The researcher was present during the administration of the main questionnaire to provide further explanations (about questions types or questions content) and to make sure that the participants have provided full answers to all questions without escaping any of it.

3.2.5.1.3 Analysis Procedure

As to this matter, the researcher depended on a Content-based analysis procedure to scrutinise the information captured from the students' questionnaire. Essentially, the questionnaire was deliberately used for it would help determine some relevant facts that would not had been attained using other research instruments (Dörnyei, 2007). As a first step in the analysis procedure, the researcher familiarised herself with the whole database. Then, she defined the units of meaning that should be coded and arranged them into concepts based on a given set of rubrics for coding. As a last step, she went through every answer, documented all pertinent data in the appropriate corresponding categories, and set on probing the related data to draw on conclusions.

3.2.5.2 The Treatment (or Experiment)

The current study depends largely on the experiment for it fits perfectly its context (educational setting) and purpose (comparing and contrasting students' metadiscourse markers use in L1 and L2 essays). Moreover, it permits the researcher to yield relevant and

important data that makes it possible to answer the research guiding questions and confirming its underlying hypothesis. The quasi-experiment is made up of three subsequent phases: the pretest phase, the treatment or intervention and the posttest phase. These phases are thoroughly described in the following lines.

3.2.5.2.1 The Pretest

The pretest took place in the first semester of the academic year 2020-2021. As such, participants in the two groups, one control group (CG) and another experimental group (EG) were asked to write a one-sided argumentative essay in L2 English on the following premise: *“Some people think that learning foreign languages is increasingly important especially nowadays while others think that this may lead to a loss of one’s native culture and identity.”* A whole written expression session (made up of one hour and a half) was devoted to administering the pretest. Noticeably, the choice of the writing prompt was motivated by the fact that students have useful ideas about the topic since they are foreign language learners so that they can argue their stand point successfully.

Following the same procedure and under the same conditions of time and place, the participants were set to write another one-sided argumentative essay on the same above-stated topic but this time it was in L1 Arabic. It is necessary to clarify that the English essays were written first in order to exclude any potential of negative transfer from the mother tongue to the English essay. Hence, the Arabic essays were left to be composed after a break of 30 minutes. It was alright if students developed the same ideas in both essays because the purpose and focus of the pretest was to examine students’ use of metadiscourse in English essays and if it was affected by students’ mother tongue.

3.2.5.2.2 The Treatment Phase

During the treatment phase, participants in both groups received a thorough instruction on using metadiscoursal devices appropriately in their English compositions. The

major aim of the treatment was to improve students' writing by raising their awareness of Arabic metadiscourse transfer and training them on writing effective argumentative essays that meet the English writing norms and standards. In what follows, a set of learning objectives is listed according to the order of lessons included in the mini-syllabus.

3.2.5.2.2.1 Learning Objectives of the Treatment

By the end of the mini-syllabus instruction provided on metadiscourse devices employment in both one-sided and two-sided English argumentative essays, students will be able to:

- Recognize the rhetorical organisation of arguments in the English language.
- Establish coherence and cohesion in argumentative essays using appropriate metadiscourse markers.
- Establish a writer-authority using self-mentions.
- Engage readers using interactive metadiscourse markers.
- Revise and edit argumentative essays using an analytical checklist.
- Learn from writers' crafts and techniques of argumentation.
- Gain insights about the academic writing style.
- Examine the correct use of mechanics in sample essays.
- Raise students' motivation by reading and responding to sample essays.
- Interact with the FL culture using authentic sample essays.

3.2.5.2.2.2 Materials Used in the Treatment

For the sake of designing a mini-syllabus to teach the appropriate use of metadiscourse in argumentative essay writing, the researcher made use of different materials and resources in conjunction. An array of resources was invested in planning the mini-syllabus lessons, sample essays, activities and assignments. These materials are inclusive of

important educational content and are of various types, namely university writing textbooks, grammar books, English language dictionaries, teaching writing books, books on teaching reading, and electronic websites and so on and so far. Resources that were used in planning the mini-syllabus, which was realized during the two-month treatment phase, are listed in ‘Appendix III’. Nevertheless, some references were recurrently consulted. These include:

Achi , M. (2018). *Teaching writing through reading: A text-based approach to teaching the argumentative essay genre. The case of second year students at the ENSC.*
Unpublished Magister Thesis.

Anker, S. (2010). *Real writing with readings: paragraphs and essays for college, work, and everyday life.* USA: Bedford/ St Martin’s.

Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing.* London, UK: Continuum.

Wyrick, J. (2011). *Steps to writing well with additional readings, 9th ed.* Wadsworth, Cengage Learning

3.2.5.2.2.3 Description of the Treatment

Outstandingly, metadiscourse markers, which are the most essential rhetorical devices for arguing standpoints and views, constitute the focus of this course. Therefore, raising students’ awareness of the appropriate employment of metadiscourse features or resources prove to be very useful especially in L2 writing context.

Practically speaking, this course is designed to assist students use appropriately metadiscourse makers in their L2 argumentative essays according to the English language norms. This course will focus on the structure of argumentation following the Toulmin’s

Model (1958), introducing the concept of metadiscourse and its importance in academic writing, namely argumentative essay genre, recognizing and differentiating between the different metadiscourse markers pertinent to Hyland's (2005) Model and practising what have been learnt in class.

This course comprises twelve (12) lessons, as demonstrated in the below table, which would offer a framework for understanding what metadiscourse is, how it is used and what it adds to the writing piece. In doing so, this course interweaves theory and practice in which it adopts a text-based (genre) writing approach that sets students to analyse sample essays, first, and then write in-class essays to consolidate the explicit instruction of metadiscourse. Hence, the course will use a combination of lectures, class discussions, and writing assignments.

Table 3.4

Course Outline

MINI-SYLLABUS		
Explicit Instruction of Metadiscourse Use in Argumentative English Essay Writing		
WEEKS	TEACHING CONTENTS	
ONE	Lesson 1	Introducing argumentative writing
	Lesson 2	Structuring an argument using the Toulmin Model (1958)
TWO	Lesson 3	Introducing the concept of Metadiscourse in academic writing
	Lesson 4	Types of metadiscourse markers: I. Interactional metadiscourse markers
THREE	Lesson 5	II. Interactive metadiscourse markers
	Lesson 6	Using an analytical checklist for revising and editing argumentative essays.
FOUR	Lesson 7	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation I
	Lesson 8	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation II
FIVE	Lesson 9	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation III
	Lesson 10	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation IV
SIX	Lesson 11	Writing a one-side argument essay in-class
	Lesson 12	Writing a two-side argument essay in-class

The assessment of students' argumentative essays rests on the use of '*an analytic scale*' wherein it focuses mainly on *five* writing criteria: voice, organization (coherence), cohesion and elaboration of evidence, language and vocabulary, conventions as demonstrated in 'Appendix III, table 3'. More importantly, special attention is paid to students' employment of metadiscourse markers (*interactional* and *interactive markers* and their sub-categories) meant to be invested appropriately as studied throughout this mini-syllabus. Essays are organized according to the analytic assessment rubric into four distinct types that moves from well-written to less-effective essays as follows: Excellent (or outstanding) essays, good essays, average (or acceptable) essays and below-average (or limited essays).

The choice of using an *analytical assessment* scale instead of a holistic one was due to the fact that this type of assessment is more specific in focus as it sets criteria according to which written output is rated. Interestingly, Weigle (2002) posits that analytic scoring is exceedingly advantageous and effective in assessing students' compositions given its numerous benefits. The latter are listed as follows:

- It gives us a diagnostic view about the writing abilities of the students.
- It is more useful especially to novice teachers because they can recognize its application.
- It is useful for second language learners who differentiate their language aspects level.
- It is considered reliable than holistic scoring (Weigle, 2002, p. 120).

Concerning the CG, no instruction on the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers in English essays was received. This is to make sure that any improvement made in the EG English written essays is due to the awareness raising and training on using metadiscourse markers that was provided during the two-month treatment phase and not the result of any other extraneous or unmanipulated factors.

3.2.5.2.3 The Posttest

After the treatment phase (formal instruction of eight weeks), students in both groups (CG and EG) were assigned the posttest under similar conditions of time, place, and type of assignment as in the pretest. As such, they were required to write a two-sided argumentative essay on the following prompt: *“The widespread of Covid-19 has promoted the idea of e-learning such as Google classrooms, Google questionnaire forms, and online continuous evaluation and examination activities.” As a university student and a witness of this epidemic, do you think that online or e-learning is a blessing or a curse?* This time, the participants were asked to write only one essay that was in English, no Arabic essays were required since the focus of the current study is L2 essays. Accordingly, the posttest results are meant to confirm if L2 students have got rid of Arabic transfer and can invest metadiscourse markers appropriately following the English language norms or not.

3.2.5.2.4 Analysis Procedure

In order to analyse the pretest and posttest results, the researcher opted for the *t-test* since it is the mostly employed statistical test in enquiries. Evidently, the *t-test* is the most powerful analytic tool in comparison with the Mann-Whitney and the chi-square tests since it is the most reliable and valid test in detecting significance when it is present in data (Miller, 1984). The *t-test* is essentially used to ascertain that the difference in the results of the CG and EG is not due to chance but rather to the independent variable (the treatment). That is to say, it targets to confirm the hypothesis underlying the study, specifically if there is a statistically significant difference in the means of the two groups. An *independent sample t-test* and a *paired sample t-test* were opted for to calculate the alteration in marks in the EG and CG. The paired samples *t-test* was applied to measure the pretest and posttest outcomes of the same group; however, the independent sample *t-test* would measure the difference in scores between the two groups.

Unquestionably, the employment of the t-test necessitates the use of null and alternate hypotheses that justify the difference in participants' marks. The null hypothesis is a statistical hypothesis which stresses that no relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables and that "The differences arise because of purely chance fluctuations in the two groups of scores" (Miller, 1984, p. 43). On the contrary, the alternate hypothesis suggests that "The differences are caused, at least in part, by the independent variable [...]" the alternate hypothesis, therefore, corresponds to the experimenter's prediction and is sometimes called the experimental hypothesis" (Miller, 1984, p. 43).

3.2.5.3 The Focus Group

Since the current study adopts an Explanatory Mixed-methods Approach, it was mandatory to use a qualitative data collection instrument next to the other previously implemented quantitative research tools. The qualitative research instrument opted for was the focus group discussions (also called focus group interviews).

3.2.5.3.1 Structure and Aim

The focus group is inclusive of eight unstructured open-ended questions that are aligned with the study underlying aim. Notably, close-ended questions were avoided for they would not promote interaction nor would permit to generate other relevant points that the researcher might have not addressed in the predetermined questions. In view of that, different interwoven objectives guide these discussions as to gain a deeper understanding of the topic under study. However, the main aim is to investigate participants' views about the instruction they received during the treatment phase. The researcher, through her students' interactions, attempted to figure out if the designed course on metadiscursive markers' use was successful and benefited the participants in that it is one way to scaffold their argumentative essays writing skill and metadiscourse markers appropriate use.

3.2.5.3.2 Administration

After participants have sat for the posttest and the treatment was over, the researcher conducted focus group discussions for the sake of collecting useful qualitative data that would inform on the study. It is worth noting that only students who belong to the EG have taken part in the group discussions because students in the other group (i.e. CG) did not receive any treatment and, hence, could not respond to the questions raised in the class-discussions. On the whole, one group made up of 12 participants was selected. This optimal size would keep the participants focused on the topic of discussion and would provide a comfortable atmosphere.

The researcher, while in charge of the WE module, asked the participants to come together in their respective small group in order to discuss some issues concerning their writing skill, and one hour was the time devoted to each group discussion. In order to facilitate monitoring and interaction between the participants; meanwhile maintain direct eye contact, students were sat in a “U” shape in front of the teachers’ desk. The researcher acted as a facilitator in the sense that she manipulated the discussion, introduced the topic being investigated, interrogated precise questions, controlled any deviations made and prevented irrelevant conversations. The discussions were recorded; nevertheless, the researcher took important notes and paid attention to observing the participants’ body language and tone while expressing their point of views. As the discussion or interview came to an end, the researcher started straightaway analysing the elicited information.

3.2.5.3.3 Analysis Procedure

The researcher relied on thematic analysis of the data gathered from the focus groups for it is qualitative in nature. In doing so, she made use of Miles and Huberman’s (1954) ‘interviews’ analysis procedure’ to scrutinize the focus group interviews on a firm basis.

Miles and Huberman maintain that the procedure of data analysis (or data reduction) consists of the subsequent steps:

Step one: Listening to the recording and transcribing the discussion.

Step two: Reading the transcripts several times so that the interviewer familiarise herself with what is being said.

Step three: Coding the interview. Coding entails reading the transcript until certain themes become apparent. Identifying each theme with a short word or phrase. This word or short phrase is the code. The interviewer defines these codes in order to be consistent in coding across multiple interviews.

Step four: writing a summary for the decoded data.

Step five: the interviewer writes a memo that ties together the discussed themes and highlights the points learnt out of the interview. (Cited in Griffie 2012, p. 165)

Conclusion

As has been previously discussed, this chapter has first offered a brief review of the research methodology practices and their underpinning principles in general, then, referred to the most important steps of methodology executed in the present study in particular. Accordingly, it shed the light on the research design, data collection methods, target population and sampling techniques, as well as data analysis procedures. Moreover, it provided the rationale behind the selection of certain data collection strategies and methods over a myriad of research instruments to be applied in the field work. Following this, a triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative research methods was decided on. This was necessary to gain a deep understanding about students' writing performance in the target language and their attitudes towards the treatment they received. The subsequent chapter will be devoted to data analysis, display and interpretation.

Chapter Four: Data Analysis of the Students' Questionnaire

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4.2 Display and Analysis of the Questionnaire Results	133
4.3 Discussion and Interpretation of the Questionnaire Results	175
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Introduction

It is worth mentioning that the students' questionnaire was the first research instrument to be used for assembling relevant data to this study. Prior to implementing the experiment, the participants had to fill in the questionnaire as carefully and honestly as they can. As such, the present chapter sheds light on the manifestation, analysis and interpretation of the findings that were obtained from this questionnaire.

4.1 Restatement of the Aim and Structure of the Questionnaire

The students' questionnaire was administered to the third year English majors at Abbas Laghrour university of Khenchela. The aim of this research tool is twofold; it attempts to first gather quantitative data about students' writing experience in their L1 Arabic and L2 English and second gauge their awareness of the appropriate use of metadiscourse in writing. The questionnaire consists of 35 questions which vary in form including open-ended, close-ended and multiple-choice questions. It is divided into five main sections: Background Information, Writing Experience in L1 Arabic, Writing experience in L2 English, Metadiscourse Awareness in Writing, and finally Further Suggestions.

4.2 Display and Analysis of the Questionnaire Results

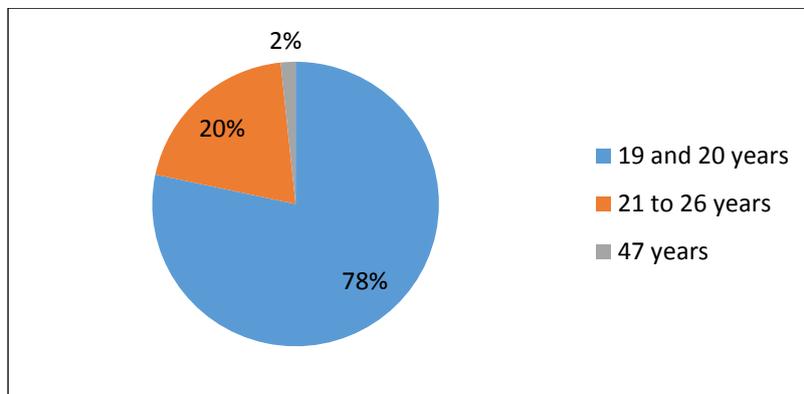
Section One: General Information

Question One: How old are you?years old.

Table 4.1

Students' Age

Age	Number of Students	Percentage
19 and 20 years	47	78 %
21 to 26 years	12	20 %
47 years	01	02 %
Total	60	100 %

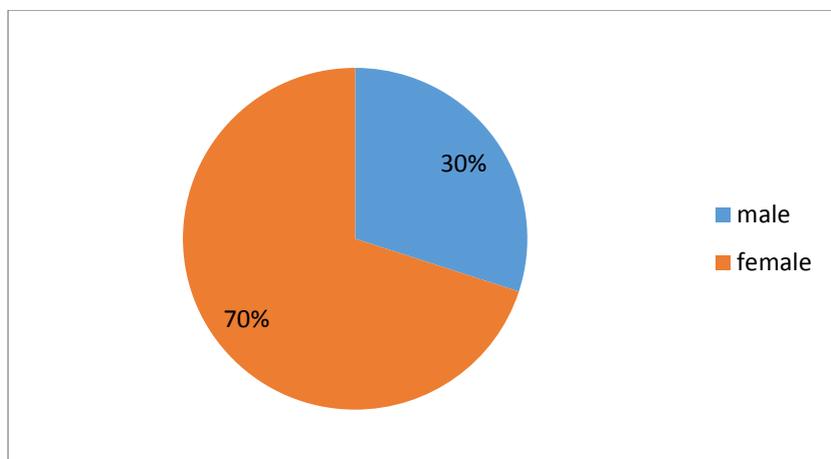
Figure 4.1*Students' Age*

As shown in Table 4.1, most of the participants, who form 78 % of the whole sample, are nineteen (19) and twenty (20) years old. The second category includes those who are aged between twenty-one (21) and twenty-six (26) with a percentage of 20%. The third category, which is made up of only one student aged 47, represents 2%. Mainly, the bulk of the participants share the same age factor as being young adults. This implies that age would not affect their writing output since they belong to relatively similar age categories except for one participant.

Question Two: Please specify your gender: a) Male b) Female

Table 4.2*Participants' Gender*

Options	Number	Percentage
a. male	18	30%
b. female	42	70%
Total	60	100%

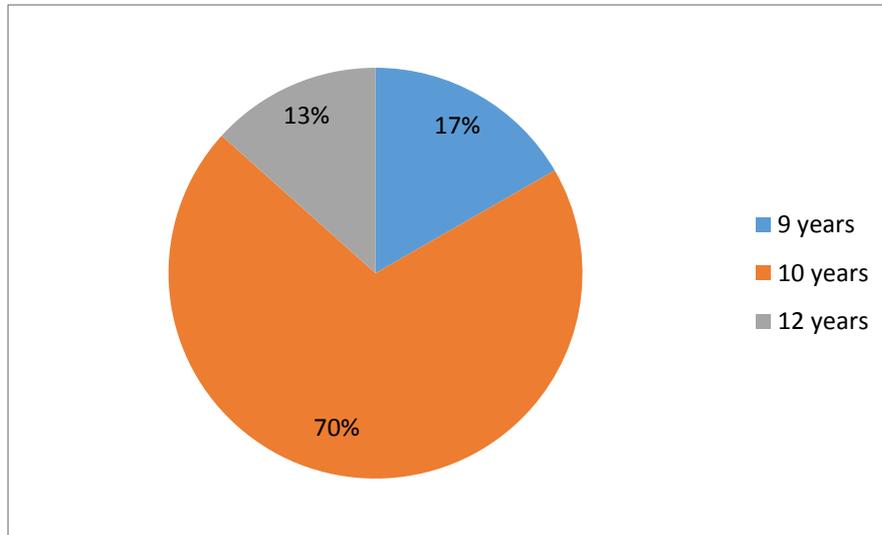
Figure 4.2*Participants' Gender*

According to Table 4.2, 70% of the participants are females; whereas 30% are males. Based on the participants' gender, we conclude that the sample of this study is a representative one in the sense that it includes both sexes though with uneven distribution.

Question Three: How long have you been studying English as a foreign language? (Including middle, secondary and higher education)years.

Table 4.3*Years Spent in Studying English*

Options	Number	Percentage
09 years	10	16.66%
10 years	42	70%
12 years	08	13.33%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.3*Years Spent in Studying English*

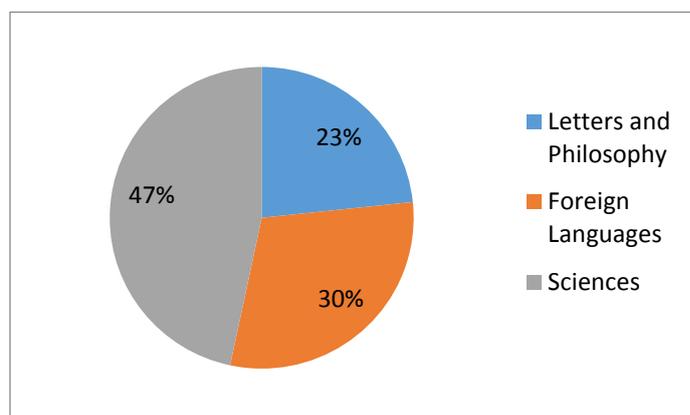
As to ‘question three’, the participants’ statistics reveal that they have been studying English for a period that ranges from nine to twelve years starting from the middle school (sometimes the primary level) and reaching to the higher education. The majority of them (70%) have been studying English for ten years, 17 % for nine years and 13% for twelve years. This indicates that the participants master the basics of the English language which allows them to write according to its norms. Add to that, this quite good level in English would permit them to share their insights about the writing skill in general and their writing habits in particular.

Question Four: What type of Baccalaureate do you hold?

- a. Letters and Philosophy b. Foreign Languages c. Sciences

Table 4.4*Type of Baccalaureate Held by the Students*

Options	Number	percentage
a	14	23 %
b	18	30 %
c	28	47 %
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.4*Type of Baccalaureate Held by the Students*

Concerning their Baccalaureate streams, the participants belong to three different streams: letters and philosophy, foreign languages and sciences. Roughly half of the sample (47%) represents students who belong to the scientific stream, while foreign languages students rank second (30%) and then letters and philosophy with 23 %. We notice that there is a variety in the sample selected which is highly advantageous for the topic under study. Yet, we should not neglect the fact that the majority has come from the scientific stream which implies that they are in a dire need to receive more instruction about the divergences or rhetorical differences of writing in the mother tongue and the target language.

Question Five: Is studying English at the university your.....choice?

- a. Personal b. Advised c. Imposed

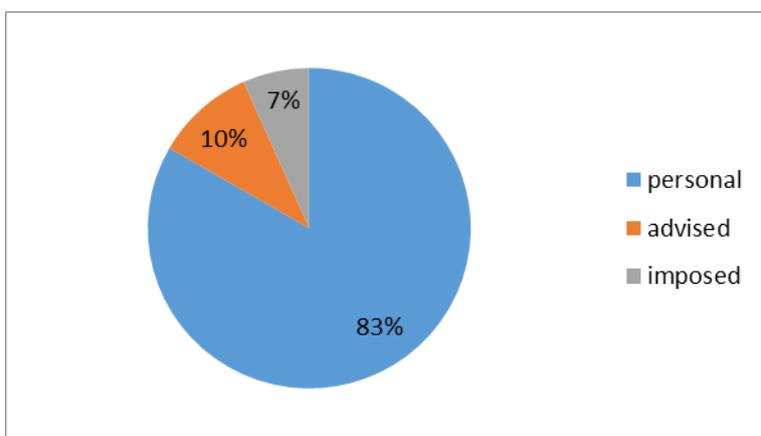
Table 4.5

The Choice of Studying English at University

Option	Number	Percentage
a	50	83.33%
b	06	10%
c	04	6.66%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.5

The Choice of Studying English at University



As exposed in Figure 4.5, the great majority of learners stated that studying English at university was their personal choice. To a lesser degree, learners who were advised to study English form only 10 % of the sample while those who were forced by their parents to do so are 7%. Noticeably, most of the learners are willing and motivated to study English at university be it intrinsically (personal) or extrinsically (advised). This means that they have a favorable attitude towards the target language and would furnish further efforts to improve their actual level. Therefore, the participants are expected to be

committed and interested in the instruction that they will receive during the intervention phase.

Section Two: Writing Experiences in L1 Arabic

Question Six: How long have you been writing in Arabic? years.

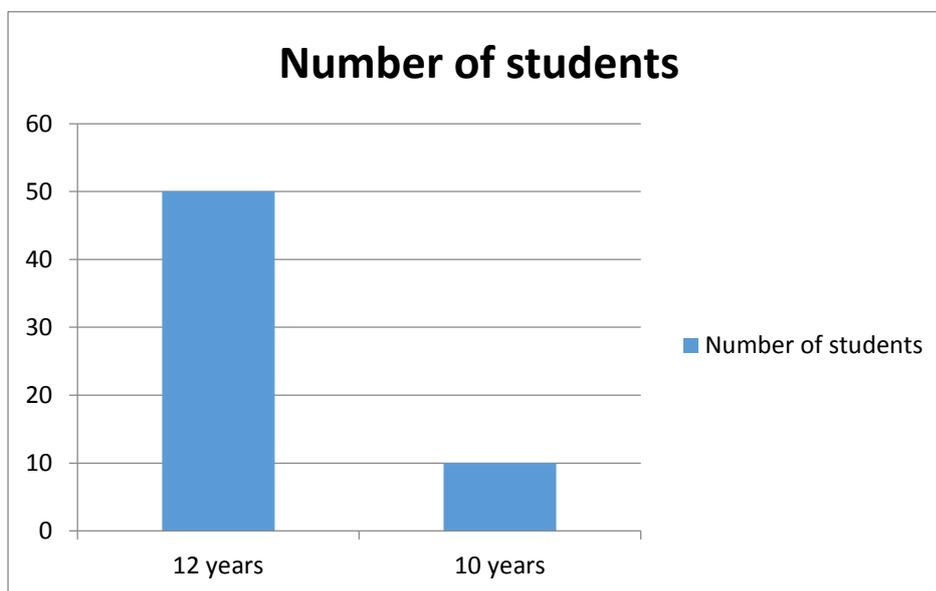
Table 4.6

Years Spent in Writing in Arabic

Options	Number	Percentage
12 years	50	83.33%
10 years	10	16.66 %
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.6

Years Spent in Writing in Arabic



According to Figure 4.6, 50 participants out of 60 have been writing in their mother tongue Arabic for 12 years since the primary school. However, ten of them stated that they started writing in Arabic fairly later and now they have accomplished ten years of writing in their L1. On the whole, these finding approves that the participants have quite a long

experience of writing in Arabic which enables them to achieve mastery of the different written genre in their L1 among which is the argumentative essay.

Question Seven: How often do you write in Arabic?

- a. Frequently b. Sometimes c. Rarely d. never

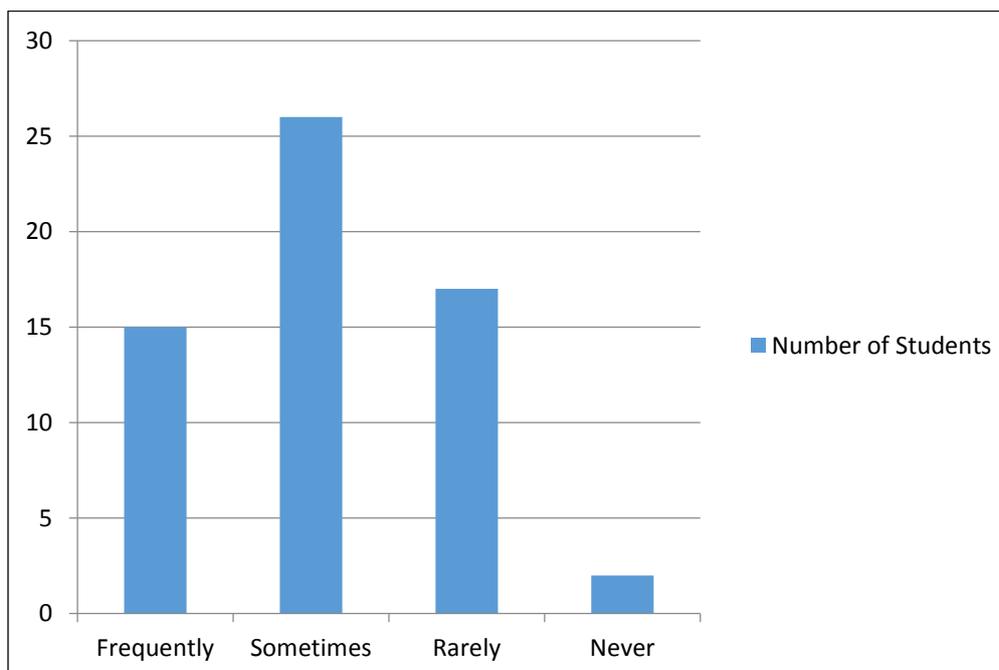
Table 4.7

Frequency of Writing in Arabic

Options	Number	Percentage
a	15	25%
b	26	43.33%
c	17	28.33%
d	02	03.33%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.7

Frequency of Writing in Arabic



When asked how often do they write in Arabic, the majority of the participants (26 participants) replied that it was sometimes, while 17 of the whole sample said rarely and other 15 held that it was frequently. However, few of them (two participants) admitted that for the time being they never write in their L1. The fact that the participants did not draw far from writing in their mother tongue suggests that their L1 would influence their future written output in other languages in many ways. A great deal of Arabic writing strategies and rhetorical conventions would undergo a process of negative transfer to the target language, namely English.

Question Eight: For what purposes do you write in Arabic?

- a. Academics b. Pleasure c. Other, please specify.....

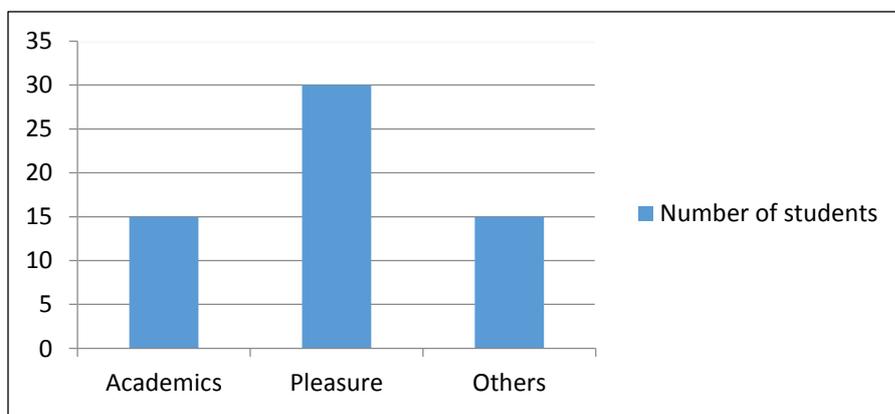
Table 4.8

Purpose of Writing in Arabic

Options	Number	Percentage
a	15	25%
b	30	50%
c	15	25%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.8

Purpose of Writing in Arabic



The participants' purpose of writing in Arabic is twofold: for academics and pleasure. Half of the sample writes in Arabic only for pleasure like keeping diaries or writing poems and short stories or even corresponding with key friends. 15 of the participants write in Arabic only for academic purposes like at work or in formal deals; whereas the other 15 participants use their mother tongue for both purposes. We intended to ask this question to determine the extent to which participants use their mother tongue 'Standard or Classical Arabic' because mainly it is the colloquial version of Arabic that is spoken in everyday conversations. And it is worth mentioning here that 'classical Arabic' is the variety we are interested to investigate in the present study.

Question Nine: How do you rate your writing ability in Arabic?

- a. Excellent b. Good c. Average d. Below average

Table 4.9

Rating Students' Writing Ability in Arabic

Options	Number	Percentage
a	18	30%
b	26	43.33%
c	10	16.66%
d	04	06.66%
Total	60	100%

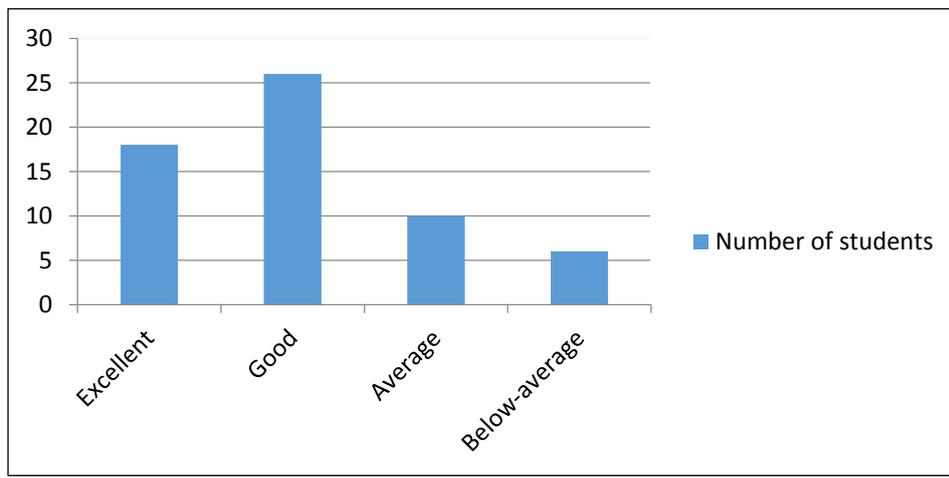
Figure 4.9*Rating Students' Writing Ability in Arabic*

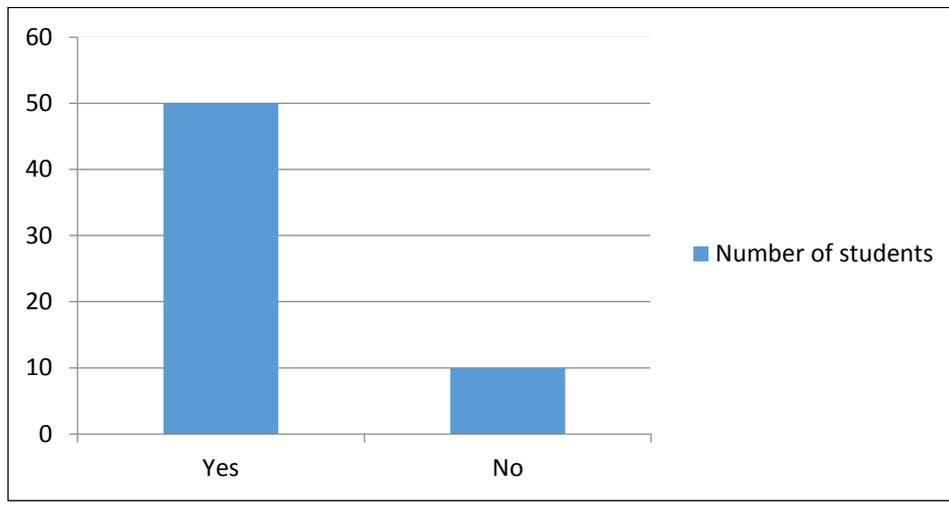
Figure 4.9 displays the level of students' writing ability in Arabic. Likewise, the greater part of the sample encompasses those who are good writers (43.33%), followed by excellent writers (30%), then average writers (16.66%) and below-average writers (06.66%) respectively. Remarkably enough, most of the participant do master writing in their mother tongue which is a great indicator of L1 transfer in writing in other languages. We believe there is such a correlative relationship between writing well in one's mother tongue and the possibility of L1 transfer while using other languages.

Question Ten: Do you ever think in L1 Arabic while writing in L2 English?

- a. Yes b. No

Table 4.10*Thinking in L1 Arabic while writing in L2 English*

Options	Number	Percentage
a	36	60%
b	24	40%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.11*Awareness of the Rhetorical Differences between Arabic and English*

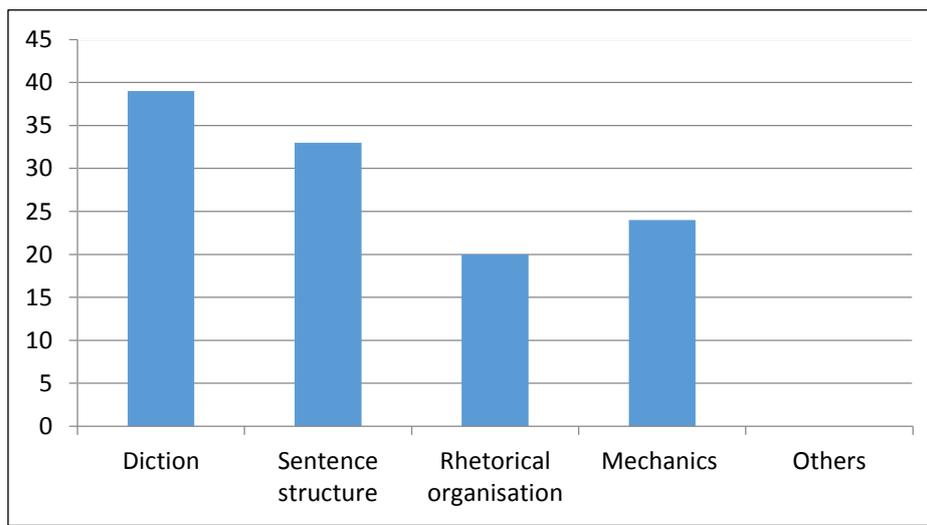
Unexpectedly, the bulk of the participants (83.33%) stated that they were aware of the rhetorical differences between Arabic and English. Nevertheless, when they were asked the next question (question twelve), the participants failed to provide the correct answer. This leads us to the conclusion that although participants know that there should be some rhetorical differences that set the two languages apart, they were not aware enough what may these differences include.

Question Twelve: These rhetorical differences are mostly about: (you can select more than one option)

- a. Diction/word choice
- b. Sentence structure
- c. Rhetorical organization
- d. Mechanics of writing
- e. Other, please, specify.....

Table 4.12*Aspects of L1 Arabic and L2 English Rhetorical Differences*

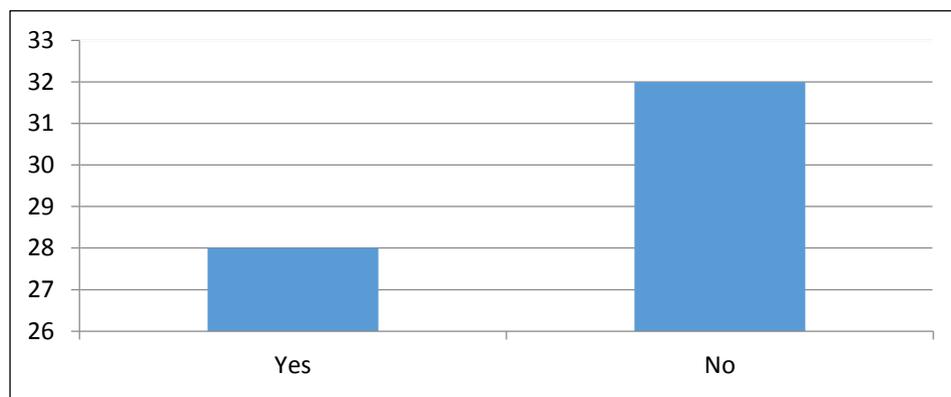
Options	Number	Percentage
a	39	33.62%
b	33	28.44%
c	20	17.24%
d	24	20.68%
e	00	00%
Total	116	100%

Figure 4.12*Aspects of L1 Arabic and L2 English Rhetorical Differences*

When asked about L1 and L2 rhetorical differences, the participants stated that the two languages differ chiefly in their diction or word choice, then in sentence structure and to a moderate extent in the use of mechanics while the rhetorical organisation is the least disparate writing aspect.

Figure 4.14

Students' Views about the Reciprocity of being a Good Writer in L1 Arabic and L2 English



When asked if a good writer in L1 Arabic is necessarily a good writer in L2 English, most of the students (53.33%) answered no while some of them (46.66%) answered yes. This time, the participants reflected a wise outlook about writing in two different languages. In fact, being a good writer in one's native language does not essentially imply that s/he is a good writer in a second or foreign language because L1 writing differs widely from that of L2. In addition, proficiency in L2 writing can be solely attained through extensive reading in that language and not reading a lot or writing well in L1.

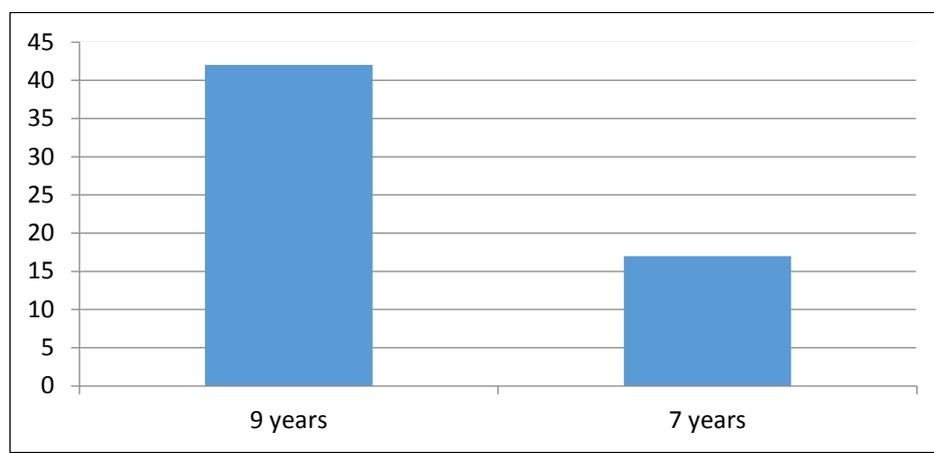
Section Three: Writing Experiences in L2 English

Question Fifteen: How long have you been writing in English?years

Table 4.15

Years of Writing in L2 English

Options	Number	Percentage
09 years	43	70 %
07 years	17	30 %
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.15*Years of Writing in L2 English*

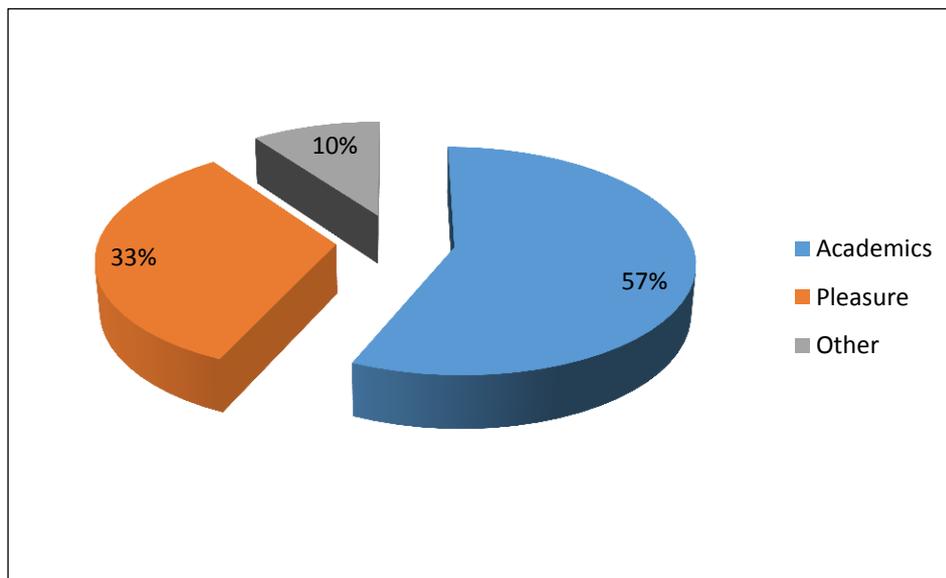
As to the number of years spent in studying English, 70% of the participants have been studying English for nine (09) years and 30 % for seven (07) years so far. This represents reasonably a good period which emphasizes that the participants of this study are well-prepared to write in L2 English since they experienced the writing skill starting from the middle school onwards. We can say that, at least, most of them know about writing basics or ABCs such as structure, coherence, cohesion, mechanics and genre conventions.

Question Sixteen: For what purposes do you write in English?

- a. Academic b. Pleasure d. Other, please specify.....

Table 4.16*Purposes of Writing in English*

Options	Frequency	Percentage
A	34	57 %
B	20	33 %
C	06	10 %
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.16*Purposes of Writing in English*

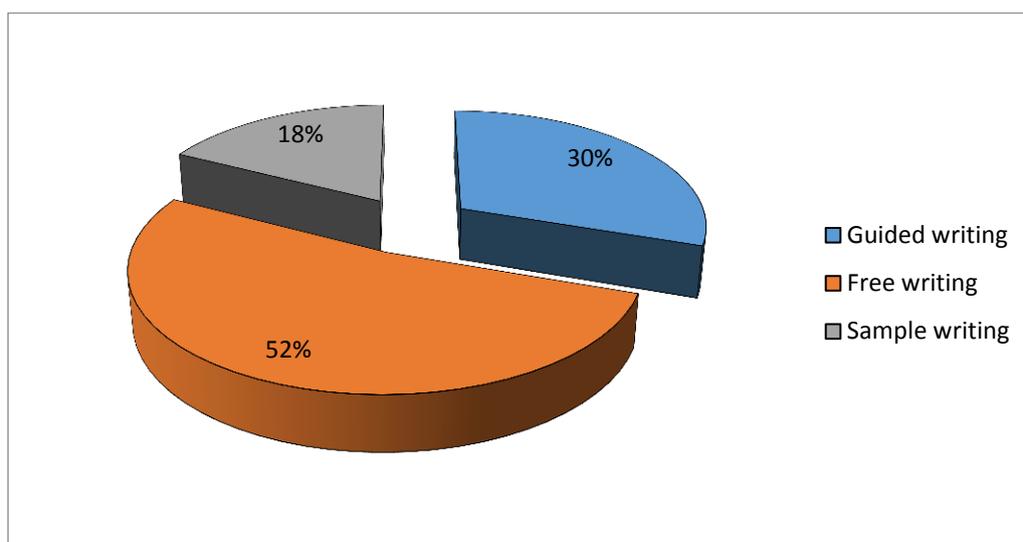
As pointed out in Figure 4.16, the purposes of writing in English are diverse. However, the participants mainly write in L2 for academic purposes like doing homework, class assignments and at exams or tests. Additionally, they write in L2 English for pleasure like keeping dairies, writing short stories and poems. Only a few percent of the participants would write for other purposes such as maintaining relations with key pals via correspondence in English or for other commitments like carrying out business deals or transactions for those who have been enrolled in business. The aim behind posing such a question was to assure that the participants have already been involved in academic writing which is the milestone upon which the present study rests.

Question Seventeen: What kind of writing activities does your teacher use in the “Written Expression” course? (You can tick more than on option)

- a. Guided writing b. Free writing c. Text-based/ sample writing

Table 4.17*Types of Activities Used in the Written Expression Course*

Options	Frequency	Percentage
Guided Writing	26	30 %
Free writing	45	52 %
Sample writing	15	18 %
Total	86	100%

Figure 4.17*Types of Activities Used in the Written Expression Course***Figure 4.17:** Types of Activities Used in the Written Expression Course

The aim of the seventeenth question is to find out if students have an access to authentic materials at class. It is believed that student writers cannot experience the craft of writing in L2 English unless they read authentic materials such as sample texts before they are set to produce their own compositions. Numerical results pertinent to this question point out that the greatest type of writing activities assigned at class was ‘free writing’ (52%) and to a lesser extent ‘guided writing’ (30%) followed by ‘sample writing’ (18%). Accordingly, the

participants did not practice enough analysis of sample texts by which the latter are closely scrutinized in order to highlight the rhetorical organisation and genre conventions that adhere to the norms of written Standard English.

Question Eighteen: How often does your teacher assign you writing tasks?

- a. Frequently b. Sometimes d. rarely

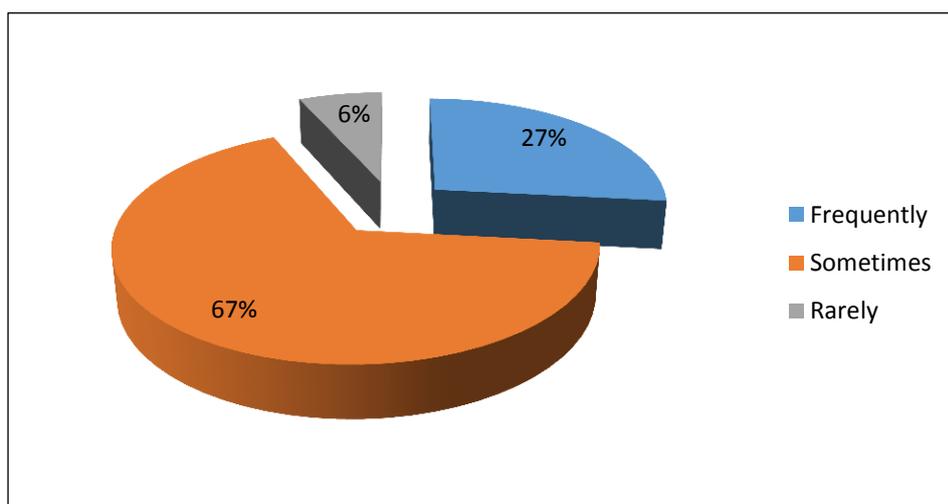
Table 4.18

Frequency of Writing Assignment

Options	Number	Percentage
Frequently	16	27%
Sometimes	40	67%
Rarely	04	06%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.18

Frequency of Writing Assignments



when covid19 hit, and then it turned to be taught onsite as well as online. Only, 30% of the participants were satisfied with this limited time-volume since they consider that, as a skill, writing should be rather practiced at home and not at class.

Question Twenty: How often does your teacher provide guidance and feedback during writing tasks?

- a. Always b. Most often c. Sometimes d. Never

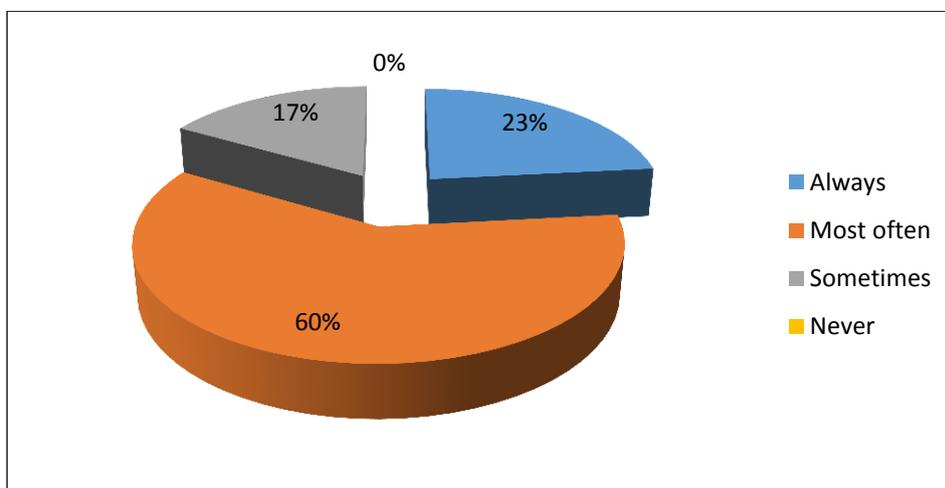
Table 4.20

Teacher's feedback during the Writing Task

Options	Number	Percentage
Always	14	23 %
Most often	36	60 %
Sometimes	10	17 %
Never	00	00%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.20

Teacher's feedback during the Writing Task



As to the twenty-first question, Figure 4.21 shows that 83% of the participants proof read what they write while 17% do not. Pedagogically speaking, this is a highly motivating step towards improving students' final drafts and making sure that their compositions abide by the form and content of L2 written genres.

Question Twenty-Two: Does your teacher highlight the differences in writing conventions and rhetorical organisation across English and Arabic?

- a. Always b. Sometimes c. Rarely d. Never

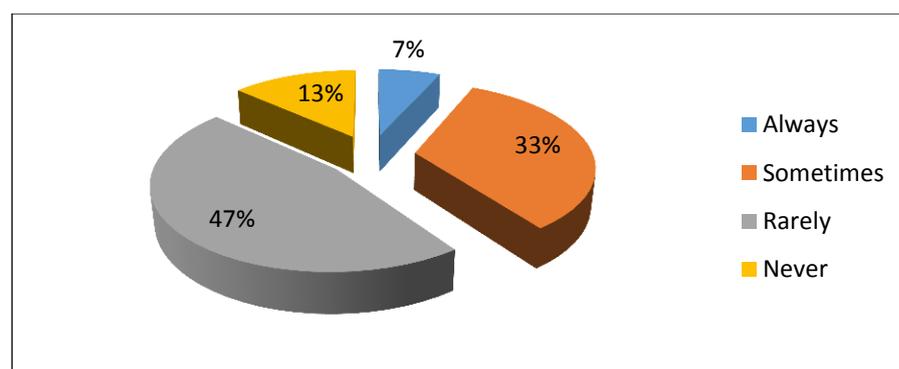
Table 4.22

Highlighting the differences in writing conventions and rhetorical organisation between English and Arabic

Options	Number	Percentage
a	04	07 %
b	20	33 %
c	28	47 %
d	08	13 %
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.22

Highlighting the differences in writing conventions and rhetorical organisation between English and Arabic



Given the differences across English and Arabic, almost half (47%) of the participants claimed that their teachers rarely highlighted the common differences in conventions and rhetorical organisation. On the other hand, 33% of them asserted that these differences were sometimes addressed, 7% said this was always while 13% said it had never been the case. Although students' responses to this question were disparate, the greater part of them insisted that their written expression teachers overlooked, to some extent, to address and highlight the writing differences across English and Arabic. This, in one way or another, would justify students' writing deficiencies in the target language.

Question Twenty-three: Do you agree that the more you read in L2 English (authentic materials) the more your writing quality will improve?

- a. Strongly agree b. Agree c. Disagree d. Strongly disagree

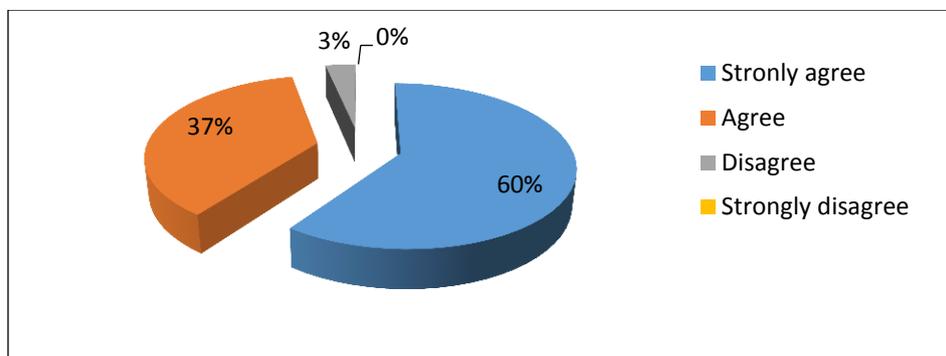
Table 4.23:

Reading authentic materials in L2 English and its Effect on Students' Writing Quality Improvement

Options	Number	Percentage
A	36	60 %
B	22	37 %
C	02	03 %
D	00	00 %
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.23

Reading authentic materials in L2 English and its Effect on Students' Writing Quality Improvement



As to the above-stated question, the majority of the participants (60%) have strongly agreed that the use of English reading materials in class would positively affect the writing quality of their compositions. To a lesser extent, 37% of them have agreed about this undeniable fact while 3% showed an unjustifiable disagreement. This leads us to the conclusion that the majority of the study participants are extremely aware of the impact of reading and analysing authentic samples on their writing performance.

Question Twenty-Four: Do you think the content of “The Written Expression” course is adequate to allow EFL students to write well in English? a. Yes c. No

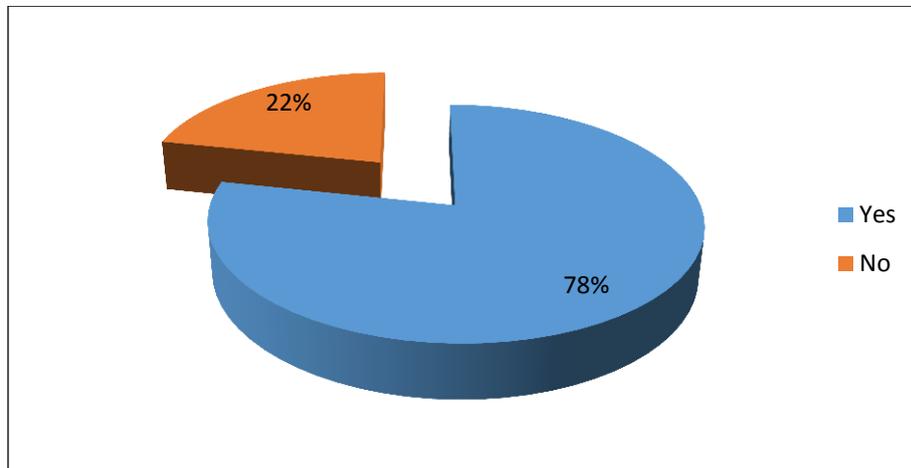
Table 4.24

The adequacy of the Written Expression Course Content

Options	Number	Percentage
a	47	%
b	13	%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.24

The adequacy of the Written Expression Course Content



When asked about the adequacy of the content of the written expression course, 78% of the participants answered that it was adequate. However, 22% of them said it was not really adequate due to the below-stated reasons.

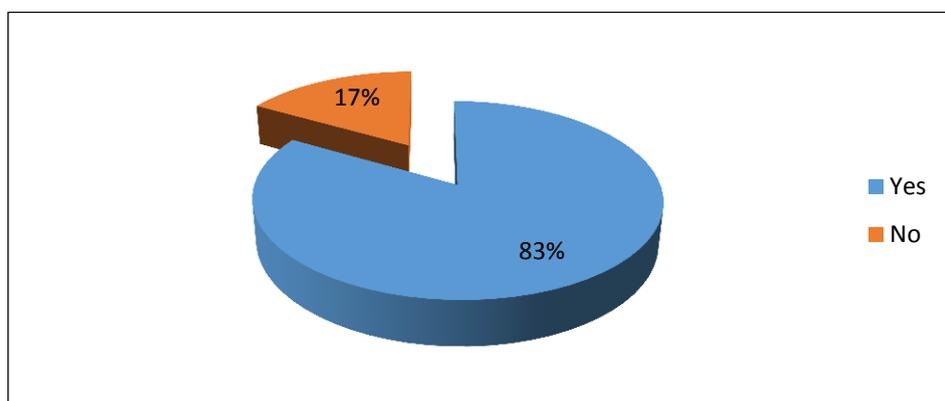
Question Twenty-five: If no, why do you think so?

Those who answered ‘No’ represent the minority of the sample. The main reason which they put forward to justify the inadequacy of the content of the ‘written expression’ course was that the session’s time is not sufficient to address all writing-related matters. For them, they need more time to get their writing difficulties unveiled and alleviated. Another plausible reason that students stated was that they should not really rely blindly on what they study in class during the written expression sessions. On the contrary, they ought to scaffold their writing skill through reading more books and other useful materials at home and practicing writing on their own.

Question Twenty-Six: Apart from “The Written Expression” course, do you write essays in other subjects? a. Yes b. No

Table 4.25*Writing Essays in other Subjects*

Options	Number	Percentage
a	44	%
b	16	%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.25*Writing Essays in other Subjects*

As shown in figure 4.26, 83% of the study participants stated that they were used to write essays in other subjects or modules while 17% said the opposite. This is contradictory because students were introduced to essay writing, according to the written expression syllabus of the English department at Abbas Laghrour University, starting from their third year and the second one. Yet, if this was the case, we can say that the participants have abundant chances to experience academic writing, particularly argumentative essay writing being the main assigned type of essays. As such, students are required to show their skill of argumentation through defending their claims and backing them up with logical evidence and exemplification on the one hand and considering counterclaims on the other. All this is achieved by means of investing previously acquired knowledge in these subjects.

Question Twenty-Seven: In which aspect do you frequently encounter difficulties when writing in English? (You can select more than one option)

- a. Vocabulary b. Grammar c. Style and coherence d. Relevant ideas
 e. Mechanics. Other, please specify

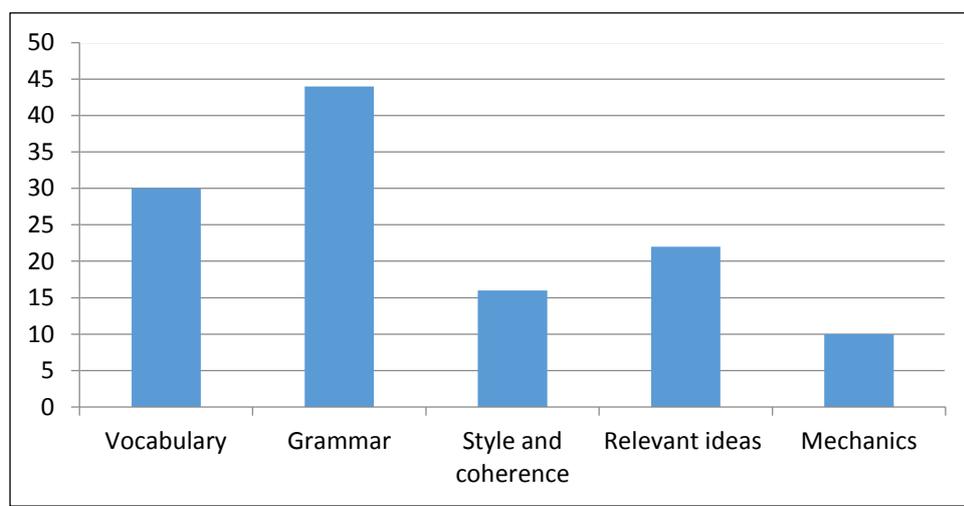
Table 4.26

Aspects of Writing Difficulties in L2 English

Options	Number	Percentage
a	30	24 %
b	44	36 %
c	16	14 %
d	22	18%
e	10	08 %
Total	122	100%

Figure 4.26

Aspects of Writing Difficulties in L2 English



In view of students' L2 writing difficulties, grammar is ranked first (36%) followed by vocabulary (24%) and relevant ideas (18%), then style and coherence (14%) and finally mechanics (08%). Again, we notice that students perceive the writing act as being made up two main features that of grammar and vocabulary. Unfortunately, the answers to this question prove that students are unaware of the importance of the relevance of their ideas (propositional meaning) and the overall organisation of it to their writing piece. Although students may use correct grammar and appropriate vocabulary, their writing output cannot be highly effective unless they establish unity and organisation at the level of the developed ideas.

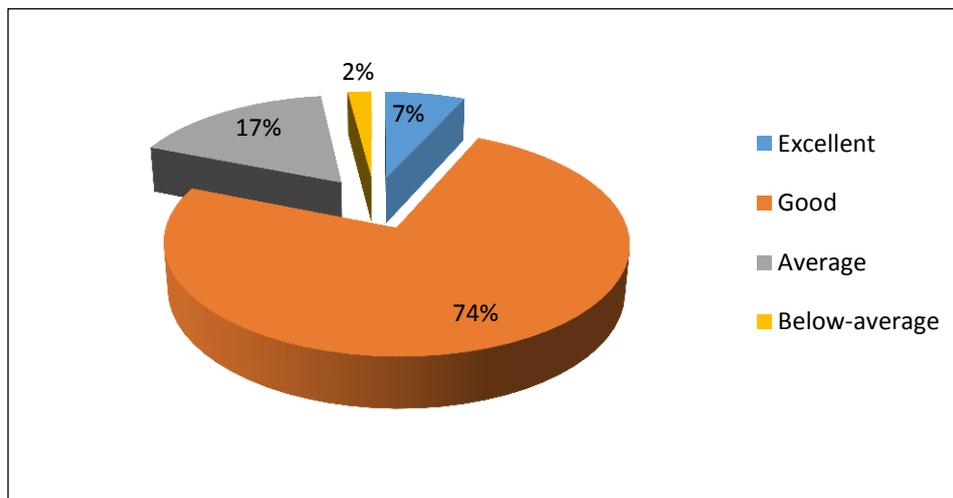
Question Twenty-Eight: How do you rate your writing ability in English?

- a. Excellent b. Good c. Average d. Below-average

Table 4.27

Rating Students' Writing Ability in L2 English

Options	Number	Percentage
a	04	%
b	44	%
c	10	%
d	02	%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.27*Rating Students' Writing Ability in L2 English*

Regarding question twenty-eight, most of the participants (74%) had a good level of L2 writing proficiency while some of them (17%) were average, few of them (7%) were excellent and only 2% were below-average. These findings suggest that the participants' level is not deteriorating at all; on the contrary, this would facilitate the treatment phase and leaves a room to focus more on metadiscourse employment in L2 argumentative essays.

Question Twenty-Nine: In your opinion, what are the features of a GOOD English essay?

(Please, order the options from 1 to 6)

- a. Correct grammar
- b. Good writing style
- c. Word choice (appropriate vocabulary)
- d. Coherence of ideas
- e. Appropriate use of mechanics
- f. Correct layout/format of essay genre

Table 4.28*The Features of a Good English Essay*

Options	Rank1	Rank2	Rank3	Rank4	Rank5	Rank6
Correct grammar	18	16	12	06	06	00
Good writing style	6	10	14	10	00	12
Word choice	04	16	06	16	10	06
Coherence and ideas	12	14	18	10	06	02
Appropriate use of mechanics	00	00	00	10	28	28
Correct layout	28	22	10	00	00	00

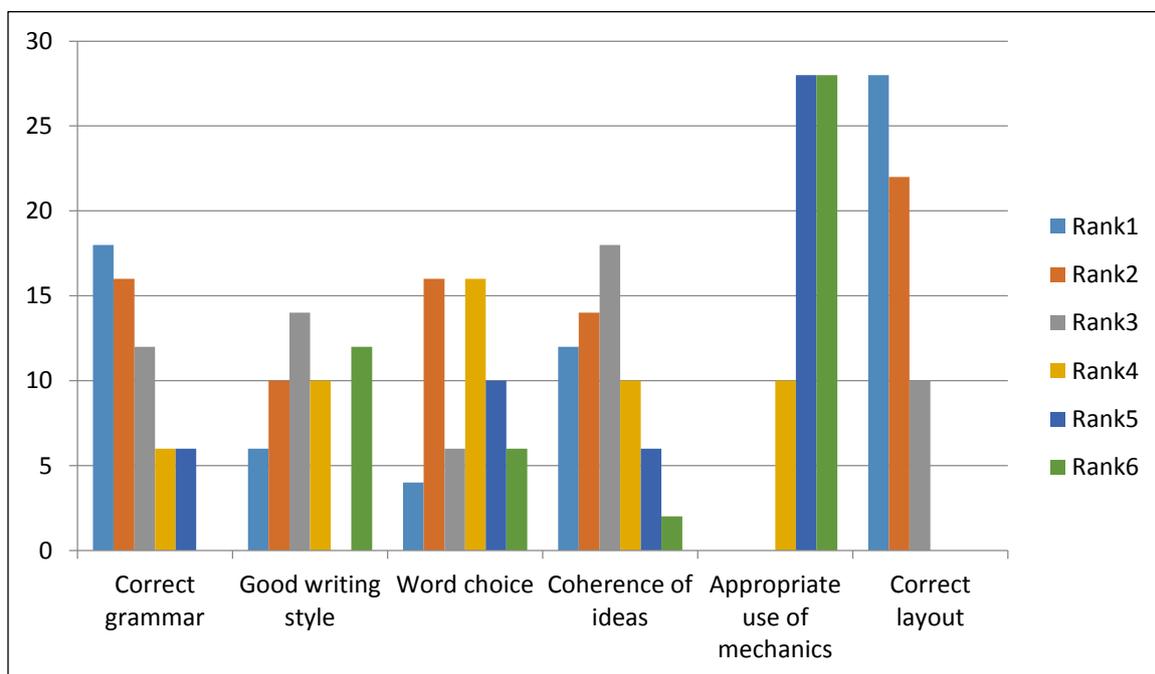
Figure 4.28*The Features of a Good English Essay*

Table 4.29 is inclusive of the rank of the features of good English essays according to the participants' point of view. In the first rank, correct layout is on the top of the features for being the most important one with a frequency of twenty-two (28) times followed by correct

grammar (18 times), coherence and ideas (12), good writing style (6 times), word choice (4 times) and lastly appropriate use of mechanics (00). Conversely, in the last rank, appropriate use of mechanics is the least important feature (mentioned 28 times) followed by good writing style (12 times), word choice (06 times), coherence and ideas, correct grammar and correct layout (00 times each).

According to the participants' answers, opting for the correct layout, achieving coherence and using correct grammar are what constitute effective writing while mechanics, writing style and diction hold a secondary position. This is totally right except for the writing style which should hold a primary position rather than a secondary one. Metadiscourse, being the focus of this study, would contribute to the clarity of students' writing style as well as the organisation and coherence of their ideas. Therefore, the participants were advised during the treatment phase to pay close attention to these two features for they would affect the quality of their written compositions and; consequently, their marks.

Section Four: Metadiscourse Awareness in Writing

Question Thirty: Do you know the meaning of the concept "metadiscourse"?

a. Yes

b. No

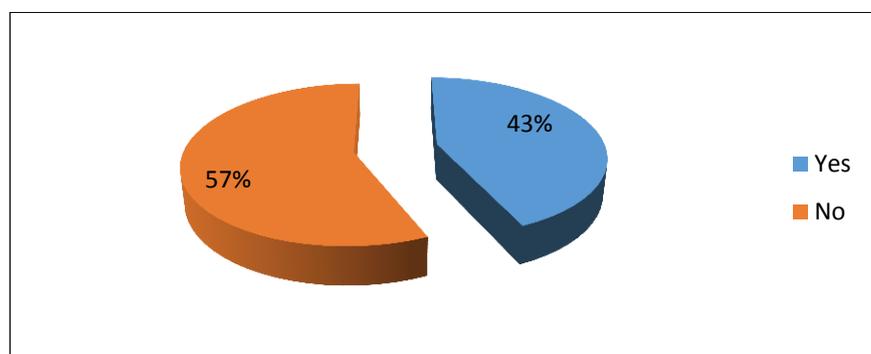
Table 4.29

Students' Knowledge of the meaning of 'Metadiscourse'

Options	Number	Percentage
a	26	43%
b	34	57%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.29

Students' Knowledge of the meaning of 'Metadiscourse'



Since metadiscourse is the target of investigation in this study, it was essential to probe students' perception of it. Unfortunately, the greater part (57%) of the participants said that they have never come across this concept before; therefore, they did not know what it exactly means. On the other hand, 43% of them alleged that they know its meaning and can postulate what it is all about. The participants' unawareness of metadiscourse was the motivating reason to carry out the experiment and to devote the greater part of the treatment (the instruction of the mini-syllabus) to unveil this concept's underlying meaning and uses in L2 writing.

Question Thirty-One: If yes, do you pay much attention to use metadiscourse markers when writing in L1 Arabic and L2 English? a. Yes b. No

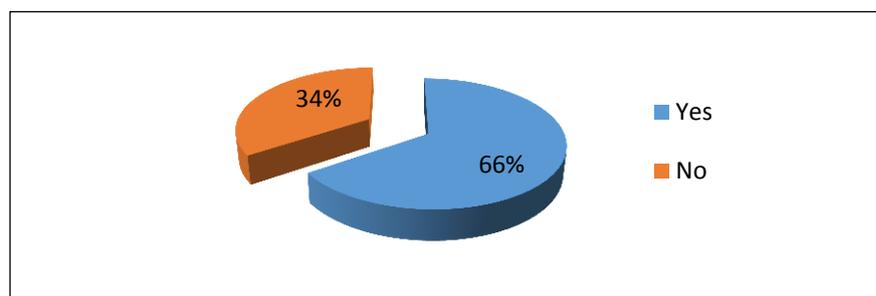
Table 4.30

Students' Use of Metadiscourse Markers in L1 Arabic and L2 English

Options	Number	Percentage
A	19	66 %
B	41	34 %
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.30

Students' Use of Metadiscourse Markers in L1 Arabic and L2 English



The thirty-first question is tightly related to the previous one in that it also examines the participants' awareness of metadiscourse. This question is about metadiscourse markers use in students' writing, be it in their L1 Arabic or L2 English. In doing so, only 34% of the participants claimed that they tend to employ metadiscoursal devices or markers in writing in the two languages while 66% posited that they do not. In fact, it is not plausible at all that the participants did not employ metadiscoursal devices in their written compositions because, for example, conjunctions, sequencers, linking expressions are features of metadiscourse. This implies that the participants might have used metadiscourse resources but they were not really aware that these are different forms of metadiscourse markers.

Question Thirty-Two: Do you think there are differences in the use of metadiscoursal markers in L1 Arabic and L2 English? a. Yes b. No

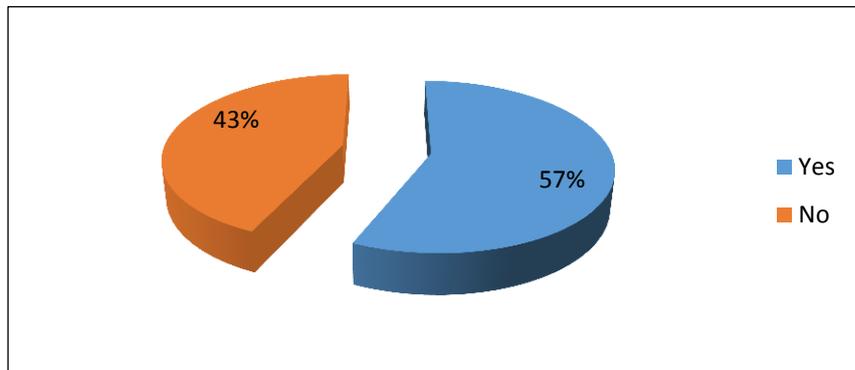
Table 4.31

Differences in the Use of Metadiscoursal Markers in L1 Arabic and L2 English

Options	Number	Percentage
a	34	%
b	26	%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.31

Differences in the Use of Metadiscourse Markers in L1 Arabic and L2 English



When the participants reached the section of metadiscourse, they started to ask the teacher for more explanation and illustration of the concept so that they can carry on responding to the rest of the questions. For that reason, the teacher gave them hints about the definition of metadiscourse and how it functions in written discourse. The teachers' intervention at this stage assisted the participants to express their opinions about the above-stated question. As indicated in figure 4.32, most of the participants (57%) believed that there exist some differences in the use of metadiscourse devices in L1 Arabic and L2 English; whereas less than half of the sample (43%) thought there were no specific differences.

Question Thirty-Three: Please choose numbers 1-4 to indicate how often you use the following expressions when writing essays in L2 English:

1– always

2– sometimes

3– rarely

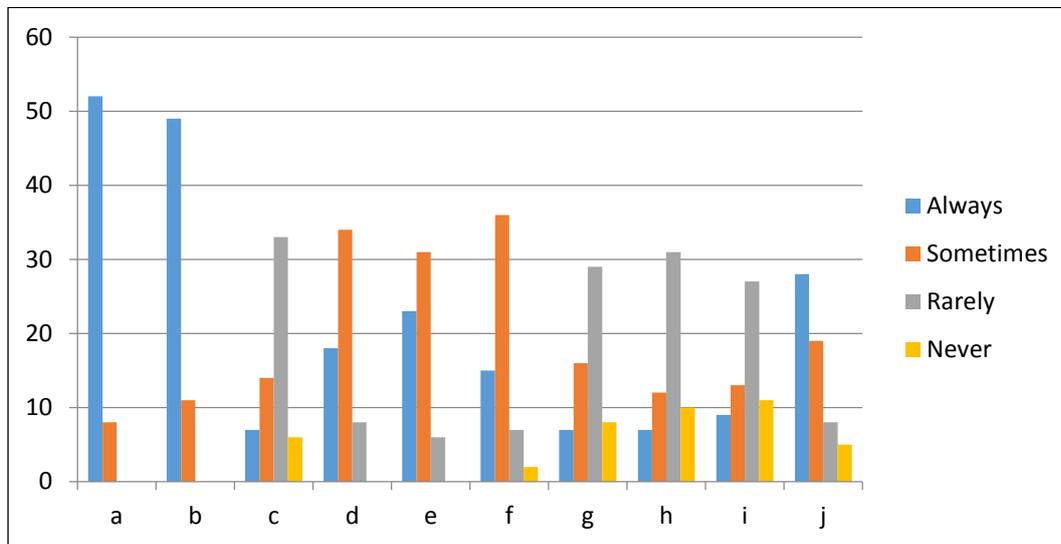
4– never

Items	1	2	3	4
<p>a -Expressions that indicate semantic relation between main clauses (but, therefore, and)</p> <p>b-Expressions that contribute to the writing organization, express sequence, label text stages (finally, to conclude, first, next, then)</p> <p>c-Expressions that refer to information in other parts of your writing (noted above, see Fig., in section3)</p> <p>d-Expressions that refer to information from other source (according to X, in Z's point of view)</p> <p>e-Expressions that elaborate and explain information (that is to say, such as, in other words)</p> <p>f-Expressions that withhold your full commitment to the information (might, perhaps, possibly, approximately)</p> <p>g-Expressions that establish the writer's certainty towards the information stated (in fact, definitely, it is clear that)</p> <p>h-Expressions that outrightly express your attitude as a writer towards the content of the text (unfortunately, I agree, surprisingly)</p> <p>i-Expressions that mark your readers' involvement in the text (consider, note that, you can see that)</p> <p>j-Expressions that explicitly signal your presence as a writer (I, we, me, our)</p>				

Table 4.32

Frequency of Using Metadiscourse Markers in L2 English Essays

Options	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
a	52	08	00	00
b	49	11	00	00
c	07	14	33	06
d	18	34	08	00
e	23	31	06	00
f	15	36	07	02
g	07	16	29	08
h	07	12	31	10
i	09	13	27	11
j	28	19	08	05

Figure 4.32*Frequency of Using Metadiscourse Markers in L2 English Essays*

With regard to the use of metadiscourse markers in L2 English essays, the participants gave the following frequency to the options displayed above:

- a. Expressions that indicate semantic relation between main clauses (but, therefore, and) → **Always**
- b. Expressions that contribute to the writing organization, express sequence, label text stages (finally, to conclude, first, next, then) → **Always**
- c. Expressions that refer to information in other parts of your writing (noted above, see Fig., in section3) → **Rarely**
- d. Expressions that refer to information from other source (according to X, in Z's point of view) → **Sometimes**
- e. Expressions that elaborate and explain information (that is to say, such as, in other words) → **Always**
- f. Expressions that withhold your full commitment to the information (might, perhaps, possibly, approximately) → **Sometimes**

- g. Expressions that establish the writer's certainty towards the information stated (in fact, definitely, it is clear that)→**Rarely**
- h. Expressions that outrightly express your attitude as a writer towards the content of the text (unfortunately, I agree, surprisingly)→**Rarely**
- i. Expressions that mark your readers' involvement in the text (consider, note that, you can see that)→**Rarely**
- j. Expressions that explicitly signal your presence as a writer (I, we, me, our)→**Always**

We notice that the participants make a frequent use of logical connectors, frame markers, code glosses and self-mentions. Conversely, they occasionally use evidentials and hedges, and rarely employ endophoric markers, boosters, attitude markers and engagement markers. This suggests that students' investment of metadiscourse markers is exclusive wherein certain metadiscourse subcategories are preferred over others. The preference and frequency of metadiscourse markers use can be, in most cases of students' writing, affected by L1 transfer. Knowing that each language has its own rhetorical organisation, metadiscourse employment and distribution would definitely differ across languages based on these languages' norms of written discourse.

Question Thirty-Four: Do you agree that the use of metadiscourse markers would enhance your writing quality, be it in Arabic or English?

- a. Strongly agree
- b. Agree
- c. Disagree
- d. Strongly disagree

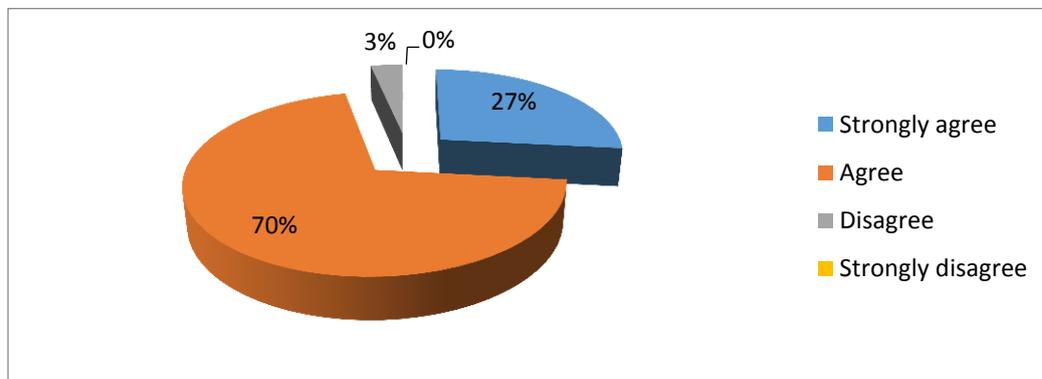
Table 4.33

Students' Perception about the Use of Metadiscourse Markers and Writing Quality Improvement

Options	Number	Percentage
a	16	27%
b	42	70%
c	02	03%
d	00	00%
Total	60	100%

Figure 4.33

Students' Perception about the Use of Metadiscourse Markers and Writing Quality Improvement



The last question in 'section four' has to do with students' perception about the employment of metadiscourse markers and its effect on the quality of their writing, particularly in English. The results of this question show that 70% of the participants did agree that metadiscourse markers employment would improve their writing performance especially in the target language. Some participants (27%) strongly agreed about this

improvement while only 3% did not agree about it. All in all, the participants are gradually made aware of the focal role that metadiscourse plays in their written performance.

Section Five: Further Suggestions

Question Thirty-Five: Please, write down any suggestions, comments or ideas that we have not addressed; yet, you may consider pertinent to the objective of the questionnaire.

Among the feedback that we received from the participants who took part in answering the questionnaire are the following notes:

- Frankly speaking, the questionnaire will yield positive results only if we apply its content on concrete grounds. Here, I mean that we should truly address L1 transfer issues and L2 writing concerns right now starting from our classrooms.
- Every student should pay attention to small details like the use of metadiscourse markers for it assists in organising one's ideas.
- The chief writing problem that students struggle with is the nature of the topics or writing prompts assigned in writing tasks. Students' limited knowledge about such topics prevents them from proceeding quite well in the development of the parts of the essays they are asked to write.
- The choice of the writing-task topic itself is what motivates us to write a good essay. If the topic is not interesting or not frequent to the extent that we do not have many ideas about; then we literally cannot do well in our written output.
- The more students read in the target language and about its culture, the more their writing ability will improve.
- We are in need of a monitor or a guider who would take by our hands and help us enhance our writing skill in English.

4.2 Discussion and Interpretation of the Questionnaire Results

Drawing on what has been stated above, the responses assembled from the participants in the first section of the questionnaire are adequate and informative in that they give a clear account of the participants' gender, age, years spent in studying English, their streams at the high school as well as the reason behind choosing to study English at university. On the whole, the sample, which is made up of sixty (60) students, is representative for it forms almost half of the population (133 students) and encompasses both genders (females and males). Regarding the period that the participants have spent in studying English, this ranges from nine years to 12 years starting either from the primary school or the middle one until the present day. This is quite a good period of time which echoes the participants' ability to exchange their views about writing matters pertinent to the two languages.

It is highly necessary to mention, here, that the participants belong to all the different secondary school streams, be it the scientific streams or the literary ones. This amalgamation would eliminate any bias that may affect the obtained data for the study. The last concern of the first section of the questionnaire was about students' choice to study English, and not any other language, at the university. Answers to this inquiry indicated that it was students' personal choice. This is a positive thing which, again, leads to disregarding any potential bias that may threaten the truth of the results.

As to the second section of the questionnaire, indispensable information about students' writing skill in L1 Arabic was elicited. Most of the participants admitted that they tend to think in their mother tongue while writing in the target language, namely English. Whenever they fail to express their ideas and communicate a given meaning, they resort to translating their ideas from Arabic to English. This reliance on L1 transfer of writing conventions, style and strategies affected negatively students' performance,

particularly in writing. Moreover, according to their answers, the participants stated that there are some rhetorical differences that set the two languages apart. However, in the following questions, they posited that they do not really know what these differences are mainly about and the extent to which they may impact their written performance in L2 English. Accordingly, we conclude that the participants' awareness of the rhetorical differences that lie between Arabic and English and their effect on their writing is very limited. This fact calls for teachers' intervention to raise their students' awareness about such rhetorical differences.

In section three, which investigates the participants' writing experience in English, exceedingly significant findings were acquired. The first investigated concern was for how long students have been writing in English and the purpose behind writing in this target language. Responses to this question reflect that all the participants have fulfilled over 10 years of writing in English wherein their drive of writing was mostly for academic purposes. The second concern was about teachers' practices in the 'written expression sessions'. The majority of the participants communicated that the mainly practiced activities were 'free writing' and to a lesser degree 'guided writing' while the analysis of authentic sample essays before the drafting phase was limited.

This implies that the participants did not experience enough English writing by natives and did not have the opportunity to know more about how Standard English norms govern the written mode. Another focal point that is raised along this section was the time devoted to the 'WE course' and the adequacy of its underlying program. As such, most of the participants were satisfied with the WE program but not the time devoted to it. Three (3) hours per week were insufficient neither for practicing the craft of good writing nor in addressing students' writing problems. Additionally, this section shows that the participants have a good level of writing proficiency; yet, they sometimes struggle with

correct grammar, appropriate vocabulary and investing relevant ideas. The last question in this section displays that the majority believe that choosing the correct writing layout, maintaining unity along the writing piece and using correct grammar are what constitute effective writing.

The subsequent section, that is section four, represents the most important part of the questionnaire, for it uncovers vital information about the variable guiding this study which is metadiscourse. The data yielded, in this part, relates straight to the aim of the present study and to the treatment. First and for most, the participants of this study exhibited unawareness of the meaning and use of metadiscourse markers in writing. This is partly due to WE teachers' failure to draw their students' attention to such an important rhetorical writing feature. After explaining the meaning of metadiscourse and giving students hints about its categories and uses in writing, the participants agreed that there would be differences in the employment of metadiscourse markers across L1 Arabic and L2 English. Second, the participants acknowledged that they make a frequent use of logical connectors, frame markers, code glosses and self-mentions. On the contrary, they sometimes employ evidentials and hedges, and hardly use endophoric markers, boosters, attitude markers or engagement markers. This proposes that students' employment of metadiscoursal markers is limited in which particular metadiscourse subcategories are preferred over others, and this is mostly affected by L1 transfer.

Reaching to the last section, number five, the participants were offered a room to add any comments or suggestions that match the underlying aim of the questionnaire. On the whole, the participants appreciated and welcomed this tool of investigation for they target a very sensitive topic which is the effect that L1 exerts on writing in another language. We all know that students do not dare to admit that their mother tongue restricts their thinking in other languages. Therefore, they seized this opportunity to communicate

that they do not read a lot in English and this would affect their writing under its norms and enhance their dependency on thinking in Arabic. Another raised point was the topics assigned for writing (writing prompts) which, if not chosen wisely, would contribute to students' lack of relevant ideas and appropriate vocabulary. Lastly, the participants stressed the fact that, on the one hand, they need their teachers' assistance in raising their awareness of the common rhetorical differences between the two languages and their regular feedback on their written output on the second.

Conclusion

Taking everything together, students' questionnaire findings indicated that the participants were in a dire need to know more about metadiscoursal devices and their employment in essays, particularly; argumentative essays for they represent the most assigned genre of academic writing. Moreover, the questionnaire findings specified that students most often struggle with L1 Arabic transfer while writing in L2 English which led them to not consider the rhetorical differences between the two languages.

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Introduction

Chapter five encloses the demonstration, analysis and interpretation of the data that was collected from the treatment (pretest and posttest), as well as the focus group. It, first and for most, starts with identifying the types and sub-categories of metadiscourse markers used in students pretest and posttest essays, then it highlights those devices that were mostly used. In the second place, this chapter displays the statistical analysis of the treatment results, particularly, paired and independent T-test samples of both the control group and the experimental one. As a final step to wrap up the practical part, the chapter reports and interprets the qualitative data that was elucidated from the focus group discussion.

5.1. Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in Students' Pretest and Posttest Essays

Subsequent to assembling participants' pretest and posttest argumentative essays, the researcher embarked on calculating the number of the employed metadiscourse devices and categorising them according to Hyland's (2005) Model which participants in the EG dealt with during the treatment stage. Accordingly, the analysis of the metadiscourse markers' use is exceedingly vital for it is one of the premises upon which the present study rests.

5.1.1. Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest Arabic Essays

The following tables reveal the total number and categories of metadiscourse markers utilised in the pretest Arabic and English essays in both groups.

Table 5.1*Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest Arabic Essays (CG)*

Essays	Interactive Metadiscourse Markers					Interactional Metadiscourse Markers				
	Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
01	11	02	00	00	04	01	00	01	01	01
02	13	03	00	00	00	02	00	00	00	00
03	09	09	00	00	00	04	00	00	01	00
04	10	03	01	00	06	02	01	01	01	00
05	07	02	00	00	01	00	04	02	00	00
06	14	01	00	00	01	02	05	02	00	00
07	08	03	00	00	01	02	00	00	01	00
08	06	00	00	01	03	02	01	00	01	05
09	05	03	00	02	01	02	01	00	00	00
10	08	00	00	00	01	00	01	01	00	01
11	06	03	00	00	03	02	00	02	00	00
12	02	02	00	00	04	01	00	00	00	05
13	05	01	00	00	01	00	01	01	01	01
14	10	01	00	01	00	00	01	01	00	01
15	06	01	00	02	02	02	00	02	01	04
16	04	02	00	01	00	03	01	01	01	00
17	05	03	00	00	04	04	02	00	02	04
18	05	02	00	00	05	02	03	00	00	02
19	02	00	00	01	01	00	00	00	00	01
20	03	05	00	00	00	05	00	00	00	05
21	07	04	00	00	00	03	02	01	00	01
22	09	01	00	01	04	03	01	00	02	05
23	06	00	00	00	01	01	00	01	00	00
24	06	05	00	00	01	02	00	00	06	04
25	07	02	00	00	03	05	04	01	03	06
26	05	01	00	01	01	00	01	00	01	01
27	05	06	00	00	01	01	05	01	02	00
28	02	01	00	00	01	01	00	00	02	01
29	04	02	00	00	00	02	00	00	01	00
30	07	02	00	00	00	02	01	01	01	04

Table 5.2*Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest Arabic Essays (EG)*

Essays	Interactive Metadiscourse Markers					Interactional Metadiscourse Markers				
	Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
01	11	03	00	02	01	01	01	03	00	00
02	12	04	01	00	01	03	02	01	04	06
03	08	03	00	01	03	03	03	00	03	01
04	10	01	00	00	01	01	00	01	01	00
05	07	01	00	00	02	00	00	00	05	02
06	08	01	00	01	00	00	02	00	02	00
07	09	00	00	00	02	02	01	00	00	07
08	06	03	00	00	00	09	01	00	01	09
09	12	03	00	00	00	01	00	00	00	08
10	09	02	00	01	00	03	00	00	00	02
11	05	00	00	00	00	03	00	00	00	00
12	05	00	00	01	01	00	01	00	00	01
13	06	04	00	00	01	01	02	01	00	08
14	09	02	00	01	02	05	02	01	00	08
15	03	03	00	00	02	02	00	00	02	01
16	08	06	00	01	00	00	01	02	00	01
17	03	01	00	01	01	02	00	00	02	06
18	08	02	00	00	03	01	01	01	00	00
19	07	04	00	00	00	06	00	00	00	05
20	06	03	00	00	04	03	02	01	02	05
21	07	02	00	01	00	04	01	01	02	00
22	05	03	00	00	03	07	04	01	03	05
23	10	01	00	01	00	00	02	01	00	03
24	05	06	00	00	03	07	00	00	05	02
25	10	03	00	00	03	07	00	00	05	00
26	06	02	00	00	02	03	02	02	05	02
27	07	03	00	00	02	03	00	00	03	02
28	09	06	02	00	03	03	00	02	00	04
29	04	03	00	00	00	03	00	00	03	02
30	08	03	00	00	00	04	02	02	03	05

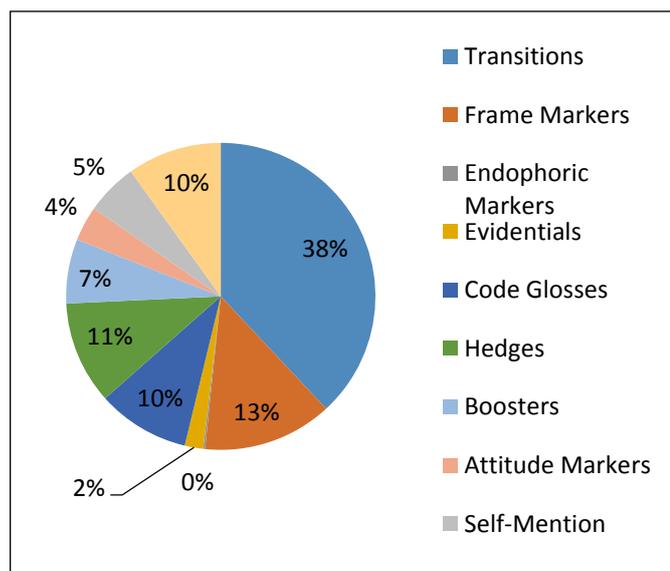
Table 5.3

Total Number of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest Arabic Essays

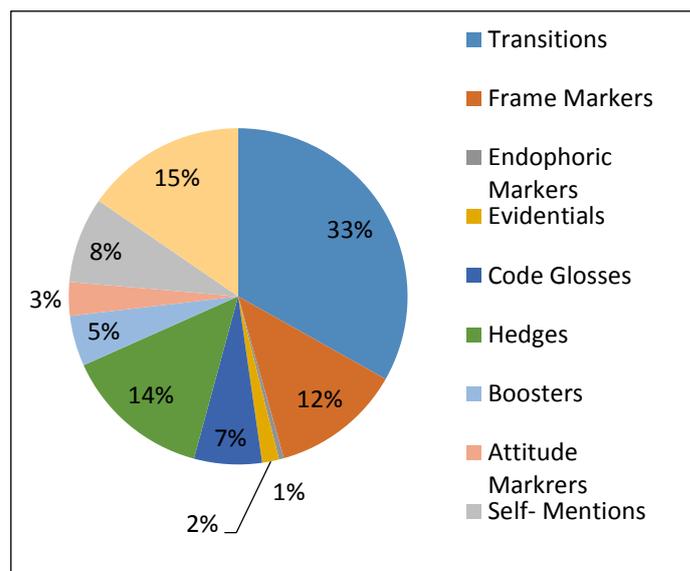
Control Group									
Interactive Markers 328 (63.44%)					Interactional Markers 189 (36.55%)				
Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
197 (38%)	70 (13.53%)	01 (0.19%)	10 (1.93%)	50 (9.67%)	56 (10.8%)	35 (6.76%)	19 (3.67%)	28 (5.41%)	51 (9.86%)
Experimental Group									
Interactive Markers 335 (54.20%)					Interactional Markers 283 (45.79%)				
Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
205 (33.17%)	77 (12.45%)	03 (0.48%)	10 (1.61%)	40 (6.47%)	87 (14.07%)	30 (4.85%)	20 (3.23%)	51 (8.25%)	95 (15.37%)

Figure 5.1

Representation of the Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest Arabic Essays (CG)

**Figure 5.2**

Representation of the Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest Arabic Essays (EG)



Given the above-stated findings, we note that students in both groups used the two categories of metadiscourse markers, namely interactive and interactional markers along with all their sub-categories. Most remarkably, interactive resources were used more than interactional ones in both groups with percentages of 63.44% in the CG and 54.20% in the EG. 'Transitions' ranked higher compared to the other sub-categories with percentages of 38% and 33%, and it was followed by 'frame markers' (13.53% and 12.45%) and then 'code glosses' (9.67% and 4.47%). This indicates that participants paid paramount importance to their essays' overall coherence and cohesion over interactional purposes. Another noticeable feature was that participants in both groups employed greater instances of 'hedges' and 'engagement markers'; whereas, the other sub-categories such as 'boosters', 'self-mentions' and 'attitude markers' were moderately used. This implies that participants preferred to express their uncertainty towards the propositional content of their Arabic essays rather than exhibiting more commitment and responsibility towards their claims. For 'endophoric markers' and 'evidentials', they were barely invested with percentages of 0.19% vs. 0.48% and 1.93% vs.1.61% respectively.

In what follows, there are two tables that illustrate some of the frequently exploited metadiscourse resources in students pretest Arabic essays.

Table 5.4

Instances of Interactive Metadiscourse Markers Used in Students' Pretest Arabic Essays

INTERACTIVE METADISOURSE MARKERS				
Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses
-منذ -الا انه -ولهذا -الا ان -كذلك -لكن -لكي -يؤدي الى -على اثرها -كما ان -بالاضافة الى -ان -حيث -قد / لقد -لذا /لهذا -ايضا -لهذا السبب -كنتيجة -نتيجة ل -الي جانب -كما ان -بل -اذ ان -يهدف الي - زد علي ذلك -علاوة على ذلك -فضلا على ذلك -في المقابل -وبالتالي -مقارنة مع -في نفس الوقت -بغض النظر عن -يترتب على ذلك -من جهة اخرى -يرجع ذلك الى -على عكس -في المقابل -في ان واحد	-نستنتج ان -اما بعد -وفي الاخير -وفي الختام -اولا /ثانيا/ثالثا -في خلاصة القول -نستخلص -السؤال الواجب طرحه -في الاسطر القادمة -فيما يلي -بخصوص -بالنظر الى -في هذا السياق -هناك نقطة اخرى -سبب اخر يتمثل في -بدء/ في بداية -هلامر/ الموضوع -لخيرا و ليس اخرا -من ناحية اخرى -السبب الاول/ الثاني/ الثالث/ الاخير -من اهم هذه الاسباب -في الفقرات التالية -ومن هنا نطرح التساؤل التالي -ومن هنا نستنتج ان -من جانب اخر -والان نصل الى -كما نوضح في هذا المقال -اما بعد -في الختام -في النهاية	-كما ذكرنا سالفنا -كما اشرنا في سابقا -المذكور اعلاه -كما اشرنا سابقا -كما تحدثنا سابقا -كما هو مذكور اعلاه	-قال صلى الله عليه وسلم -قال احد الفلاسفة -كما يقول المثل -يقول رئيس جنوب افريقيا نيلسون منديلا -وفقا لما تشير اليه الابحاث -اخر الدراسات تؤكد -ووفقا للامم المتحدة -انطلاقا من الحديث الشريف	-مثلا/ كمثال على ذلك/ على سبيل المثال -ك/ مثل -هذا يعني -مايسمى -بالاخرى -هو بمثابة -خاصة -هذا لا يعني -ان صح التعبير -بصيغة اخري -بالاخص -في الحقيقة -ان صح التعبير -في الواقع -اي ان -كمثال على ذلك

Table 5.5

Instances of Interactional Metadiscourse Markers Used in Students' Pretest Arabic Essays

INTERACTIONAL METADISOURSE MARKERS				
Hedges	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Boosters	Engagement Markers
-نلاحظ ان	-يجب	-نحن/ انفسنا	-بدون شك	-طرح سؤال او عدة
-لا يمكن ان ننكر	-واضحا	-لنا	-فعلا	-اسئلة (مع وضع
-يعتبر	-اوافق	-الضمير المتصل 'نا'	-حقا	-علامة الاستفهام?)
-في بعض الاحيان	-يلزم	-انا	-في الحقيقة	-لك
-نادرا	-كان حتميا	-شخصيا	-تماما	-فانت
-نوعا ما	-بشكل ملحوظ	-بالنسبة لي	-دائما	-انت
-يعتبر	-من المستحسن	-من وجهة نظري	-في الواقع	-انتم
-يفند	-لا بد	-نلاحظ	-بالتاكيد	-نفسك
-يوافق	-نحن نؤيد	-نستطيع ان نقول	-وهذا ما يؤكد	-دعونا
-بيدوله	-وجب عليك	-كل منا	-كما تظهره الابحاث	-الضمير المتصل 'ك'
-سوف	-انا مع فكرة انه....	-استطيع القول	-من المعروف ان	(منك/ عليك/ تشغلك)
-على الاغلب			-لايمكن انكارها	-الضمير المتصل
-الاغلبية			-لاغنى عنه	'كم' (منكم/ عليكم/
-البعض			-هذا يدل على	تشغلكم)
-ربما				
-يرفضون				
-اعتقد				
-تشير الى				
-اظهرت				
-يتعارض				
-كل الاشخاص				
-لعل				
-قد				
-البعض يظن ان				

5.1.2. Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest English Essays

After participants have written their first pretest argumentative essays, which were in their L1 Arabic language, they were then asked to write a second pretest argumentative essay but this time in their L2 English language. Likewise, the below-attached tables and figures exemplify better in numbers and percentages students' individual and collective use of interactive as well as interactional metadiscourse markers.

Table 5.6

Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest English Essays (CG)

Essays	Interactive Metadiscourse Markers					Interactional Metadiscourse Markers				
	Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
01	04	04	00	00	01	02	01	00	03	02
02	06	05	00	00	03	00	03	01	23	03
03	02	03	00	00	01	00	01	00	02	14
04	01	01	00	00	00	06	01	00	04	00
05	04	08	00	00	02	02	00	02	04	07
06	03	03	00	00	00	00	01	00	04	18
07	03	01	00	00	01	01	01	00	02	07
08	06	03	00	00	04	00	00	00	09	04
09	04	00	00	00	01	00	01	00	00	01
10	07	02	00	00	01	00	00	00	06	08
11	03	02	00	00	00	02	01	00	13	05
12	03	01	00	00	01	00	00	00	12	01
13	05	02	00	00	00	00	00	00	04	17
14	02	03	00	00	02	04	00	00	04	00
15	04	03	00	00	01	01	00	00	01	10
16	08	03	00	00	01	03	01	00	08	20
17	02	04	00	00	05	03	01	00	05	06
18	05	03	01	02	00	01	00	00	10	00
19	04	01	00	02	06	01	01	00	00	06
20	05	01	01	00	00	01	01	00	04	14
21	04	04	00	01	00	00	00	00	04	01
22	01	01	00	00	01	05	00	00	03	01
23	05	03	00	00	02	02	01	00	08	02
24	04	02	00	01	00	02	02	00	02	04
25	00	01	00	01	01	01	01	00	04	12
26	07	02	00	00	00	06	02	00	02	10
27	07	03	00	00	00	00	00	00	02	00
28	04	03	00	01	00	02	01	00	03	05
29	09	03	00	00	03	11	02	02	01	18
30	03	02	00	00	03	00	04	00	03	00

Table 5.7*Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest English Essays (EG)*

Essays	Interactive Metadiscourse Markers					Interactional Metadiscourse Markers				
	Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
01	07	05	00	02	05	02	02	00	02	09
02	10	00	02	00	00	03	02	00	00	08
03	06	02	00	00	04	02	01	00	05	12
04	09	01	00	00	03	01	02	00	01	08
05	09	02	00	01	03	03	04	00	02	01
06	04	05	00	00	00	02	03	00	01	05
07	02	03	00	01	02	01	00	00	03	11
08	10	04	00	01	01	01	03	00	04	05
09	03	05	00	00	01	01	01	00	05	03
10	07	04	00	00	02	03	03	00	06	19
11	04	06	00	00	01	03	02	00	04	07
12	03	02	00	00	01	02	03	00	00	06
13	13	04	00	01	01	02	03	00	06	04
14	06	03	00	00	01	01	01	00	10	07
15	05	02	00	00	05	06	03	00	00	14
16	02	02	00	00	02	03	00	00	03	07
17	07	02	00	00	03	04	03	00	06	07
18	06	01	00	00	03	00	02	00	03	17
19	03	02	00	00	01	02	02	00	07	10
20	04	02	01	00	01	00	00	00	03	15
21	04	04	00	00	00	02	00	00	00	09
22	05	05	00	00	04	06	02	00	03	01
23	02	05	00	00	00	01	01	00	07	03
24	08	03	00	03	02	01	00	00	01	05
25	11	02	00	00	05	00	02	00	07	00
26	03	03	00	00	02	01	00	00	02	00
27	08	04	00	00	02	04	03	00	03	14
28	05	00	00	00	03	00	00	00	04	14
29	11	06	00	00	01	00	06	00	03	02
30	05	03	01	00	02	03	00	00	00	00

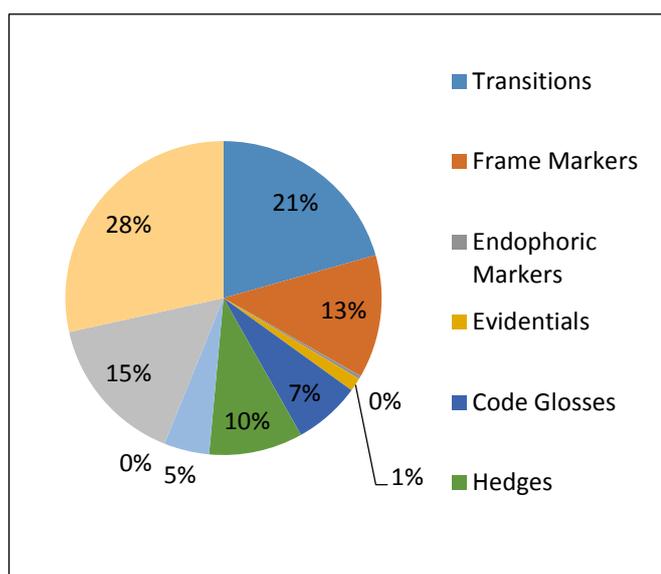
Table 5.8

Total Number of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest English Essays

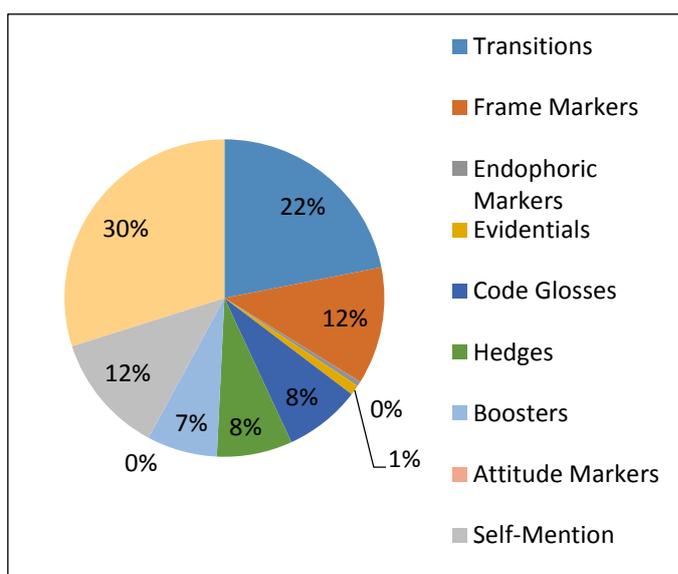
Control Group									
Interactive Markers 244 (41.85%)					Interactional Markers 339 (58.14%)				
Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
120 (20.58%)	74 (12.69%)	02 (0.34%)	08 (1.37%)	40 (6.86%)	56 (9.60%)	27 (4.63%)	00 (0%)	90 (15.43%)	166 (28.47%)
Experimental Group									
Interactive Markers 339 (43.12%)					Interactional Markers 447 (56.87%)				
Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
172 (21.88%)	94 (11.95%)	04 (0.50%)	08 (1.01%)	61 (7.76%)	60 (7.63%)	56 (7.12%)	00 (0%)	96 (12.21%)	235 (29.89%)

Figure 5.3

Representation of the Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest English Essays (CG)

**Figure 5.4**

Representation of the Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Pretest English Essays (EG)



Considering the total number of metadiscoursal markers used in the pretest English argumentative essays of both groups, we conclude that participants made use of predominantly three sub-categories, which are ‘engagement markers’, ‘transitions’ and ‘self-mentions’ with the following percentages respectively 30%, 21% and 16% vs. 13%. This time, students’ focus shifted, firstly, to engaging the reader in the propositional content of their essays through the use of the personal pronoun ‘you’ and the reflexive pronoun ‘yourself’, and secondly establishing authority by means of the heavy use of the subject personal pronouns ‘I’ and ‘we’ as well as the personal object pronouns ‘me’ and ‘us’.

As to ‘endophoric markers’ and ‘evidentials’, fewer use was signaled, yet both sub-categories were invested evenly by students in both groups (0.34% and 0.50%). Surprisingly, in some of students’ essays, the reader was not addressed at all (0 engagement markers as indicated in the tables above). Much in the same way, a total absence of ‘attitude markers’ was detected in both groups’ pretest English essays. Noticeably, ‘boosters’ and ‘hedges’ were roughly used on an equal footing in the EG’s essays (7.63% and 7.12%); while in the CG, there was a disparate use of the two categories (9.60% and 4.63%). The most frequently used ‘hedges’ were of three sorts: the probability adverbs ‘maybe’, ‘sometimes’, ‘mainly’ and ‘perhaps’; epistemic verbs ‘might’ and ‘suggest or claim’; and eventually epistemic expressions like ‘in most cases’.

Again, we notice that students were affected by the conventions of their L1 Arabic rhetoric that was manifested in neglecting the investment of ‘boosters’ and ‘attitude markers’ in favour of ‘hedges’, particularly in the CG essays. This can be interpreted as an instance of authors’ indirectness and uncertainty towards the claims they put forward in their argumentative essays. The same remark should be said about ‘endophoric markers’, which were hardly ever employed by students in both groups with the following percentages 0.34% and 0.5. % each. According to Hyland’s 2005 Model, endophoric markers are of genuine

importance to the writing piece because they guide the audience all along the argument and assist them to get the gist of the discourse, hence, appreciate it, and this was not the case in students' pretest English essays.

Now, we shall consider the individual employment of metadiscourse markers in students pretest English essays. As such, in some essays 'hedges' were barely employed (01 or 0 markers). In addition, students used two markers, which sometimes belong to different metadiscoursal sub-categories, side-by-side such as 'but because of', 'so as a result', 'in brief to conclude', 'and although' and so on and so forth. Some of them used two 'frame markers' together at the beginning of paragraphs like 'to conclude, all things considered' or two 'hedges' together like 'to my mind, I personally believe that'. More remarkably, in some essays, students wrongly started their sentences with the transition marker 'but' instead of 'although', 'nevertheless' or 'however'. Finally, there were few essays wherein the concluding paragraph was not provided at all. Rather, participants favoured to conclude their essays using only one sentence or two, at their bests, which neither sums up the topic being discussed nor wraps it up successfully.

5.1.3. Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Posttest English Essays

Moving to consider the posttest English essays, the subsequent tables, in turn, uncover students' individual, as well as total investment of metadiscourse resources. The findings relevant to both groups are, then, represented in pie charts for more precision.

Table 5.9*Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Posttest (CG)*

Essays	Interactive Metadiscourse Markers					Interactional Metadiscourse Markers				
	Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
01	06	04	00	00	01	05	00	03	02	00
02	13	03	00	01	06	02	01	01	04	02
03	06	07	00	00	02	01	01	00	06	00
04	04	07	00	00	01	01	02	00	04	01
05	11	04	00	00	03	03	01	02	03	01
06	04	01	00	00	02	03	00	02	00	01
07	06	01	00	00	03	01	00	01	03	01
08	09	04	00	00	02	05	01	00	02	00
09	07	03	00	00	04	02	01	00	00	00
10	07	02	00	00	00	03	01	00	01	00
11	06	02	00	00	00	08	00	00	02	06
12	06	04	00	01	01	01	03	00	01	06
13	06	05	00	01	01	00	00	00	01	01
14	03	07	00	00	01	03	00	00	03	02
15	14	03	00	00	00	01	01	00	04	02
16	07	02	00	00	02	00	00	00	02	00
17	04	03	00	01	04	03	00	01	01	00
18	08	06	00	00	01	01	00	00	01	01
19	19	00	00	00	01	00	01	00	00	01
20	09	03	00	00	02	03	01	01	01	01
21	10	03	00	01	03	01	00	00	07	02
22	05	03	00	00	01	03	01	01	01	03
23	07	03	00	00	02	03	00	00	01	02
24	08	08	00	00	01	04	01	01	07	01
25	05	02	01	00	00	03	00	01	04	06
26	08	01	01	01	01	07	01	00	07	00
27	04	01	00	00	00	05	01	00	00	01
28	05	05	00	00	03	01	00	00	03	01
29	05	04	00	00	01	01	00	00	01	03
30	06	04	00	01	01	04	01	00	00	01

Table 5.10*Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Posttest (EG)*

Essays	Interactive Metadiscourse Markers					Interactional Metadiscourse Markers				
	Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
01	09	03	01	05	04	09	05	02	03	01
02	08	03	00	00	02	04	00	01	00	01
03	08	03	00	00	01	00	00	00	00	06
04	05	07	00	00	03	01	00	01	04	01
05	11	07	00	00	03	10	02	01	01	04
06	06	00	00	00	03	04	00	00	00	01
07	12	07	00	00	03	02	00	03	00	02
08	13	09	00	00	04	00	03	02	04	01
09	09	07	00	00	02	08	02	01	03	01
10	10	07	00	00	03	04	02	00	04	00
11	07	03	00	00	03	02	02	00	00	00
12	12	05	00	00	04	01	03	00	02	00
13	07	07	00	00	06	06	00	01	01	00
14	08	00	00	00	05	02	00	00	00	01
15	05	06	01	00	05	06	00	00	03	01
16	14	08	00	02	09	09	01	03	07	04
17	10	05	00	00	04	03	01	00	00	00
18	12	02	00	00	04	03	00	00	05	00
19	09	09	00	02	05	04	02	01	06	00
20	09	03	00	00	06	01	03	02	00	00
21	14	04	00	00	06	03	02	01	01	01
22	10	03	00	00	02	09	07	02	04	02
23	08	03	00	00	03	03	02	02	00	00
24	19	04	00	00	04	05	03	01	01	01
25	15	02	00	00	02	03	04	01	00	00
26	11	02	00	00	00	06	01	00	01	00
27	16	09	00	00	04	05	01	01	01	01
28	18	00	00	00	04	06	03	00	01	02
29	09	08	00	00	05	11	03	01	03	01
30	05	04	00	00	01	00	05	01	02	01

Table 5.11*Total Number of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Posttest*

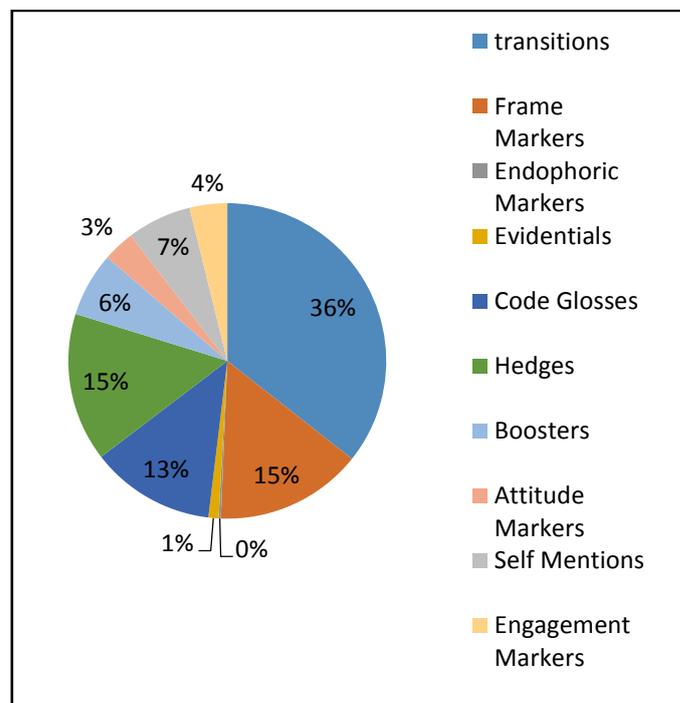
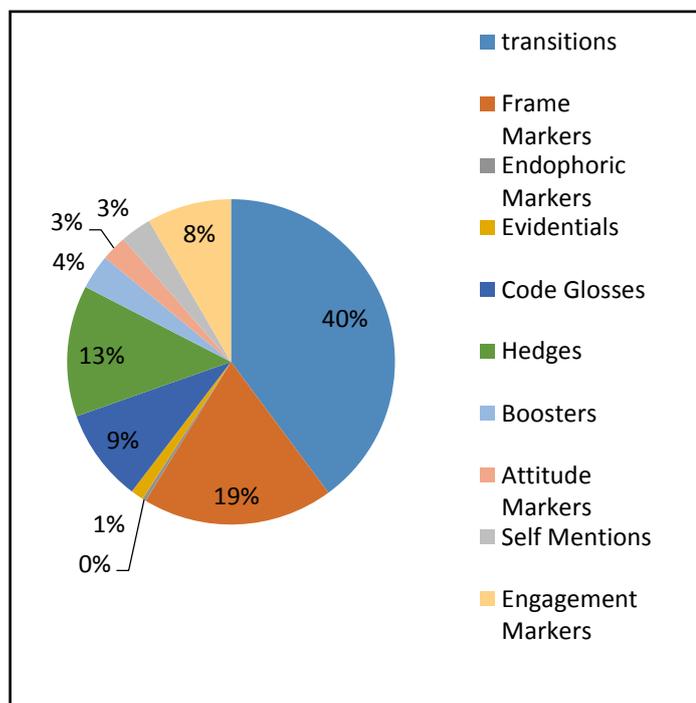
Control Group									
Interactive Markers 384 (69.56%)					Interactional Markers 168 (30.43%)				
Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
220 (39.85%)	104 (18.84%)	02 (0.36%)	07 (1.26%)	51 (9.23%)	72 (13.04%)	19 (3.44%)	14 (2.53%)	17 (3.07%)	46 (8.33%)
Experimental Group									
Interactive Markers 560 (64.56%)					Interactional Markers 307 (35.40%)				
Transitions	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
309 (35.64%)	130 (14.99%)	02 (0.23%)	09 (1.03%)	110 (12.68%)	132 (15.22%)	57 (6.57%)	28 (3.22%)	57 (6.57%)	33 (3.82%)

Figure 5.5

Representation of Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Posttest (CG)

Figure 5.6

Representation of Types of Metadiscourse Markers Used in the Posttest (EG)



As can be seen from the preceding tables and figures, the overall occurrence of metadiscoursal devices used in L2 English posttest essays (552 devices in the CG and 867 devices in the EG) is largely higher than that in the pretest Arabic and English essays (583 devices in the CG and 786 devices in the EG English essays, and 517 vs. 618 in the Arabic essays). Regarding the types of metadiscoursal devices employed, there are differences in the preferred sub-categories which vary from the pretest to the posttest. When comparing the two tests essays, we found out that, unlike the pretest, in the posttest written output participants paid more attention to employing ‘frame markers’, ‘code glosses’, ‘boosters’ and ‘attitude markers’. The latter were overlooked at the expense of using a greater rate of ‘transitions’, ‘hedges’ and ‘engagement markers’.

Building on what has been said, compared to the pretest English essays, more ‘frame markers’ were used in the EG posttest essays. As such, the use of ‘frame markers’ offered a smooth transition from the introduction to the body paragraphs reaching to the conclusion. Consequently, this rendered the overall structure of the essay more salient and explicit to readers. The commonly utilised ‘frame markers’ were *first of all, second, third, there are many reasons for..., the purpose of this essay is, to conclude, and in brief*.

As to ‘Code glosses’, their frequency in the EG posttest essays exceeds that in the CG (9.23% vs. 12.68%). Code glosses are expressions that supply additional information, by means of rephrasing and explaining what has been said; therefore, serve to guarantee comprehension of the transmitted propositional meaning by readers. Some examples of the invested code glosses in students posttest essays comprise: *also known as, that is to say, in other words, put differently, that is, is defined as, and for example*.

Interestingly enough, participants in the EG attached equal importance to employing ‘interactional resources’, which they have seen in the explicit instruction they received. This was essential as to engage readers and allow them to take part as well as respond to the

content of the essays. In doing so, EG participants made use of greater instances of ‘booster’ to establish certainty towards their claims by way of intensifiers such as *definitely, undoubtedly, of course, surely, prove that, found that* and *realize*. On the contrary, the CG participants reflected a lower rate of ‘boosters’ use, to be precise 3.44%.

In relation, the occurrence of ‘attitude markers’ boosted as well in the EG posttest compositions. Such devices are deemed excessively crucial for they signal writers’ affective attitude towards the content of their written output, these include expressions relevant to Hyland’s 2005 metadiscourse classification like ‘*attitude verbs*’ (*agree, disagree, prefer*), ‘*sentence adverbs*’ (*unfortunately, hopefully, surprisingly*) and ‘*adjectives*’ (*more appropriate, better than* and *important*). Additionally, both groups made reasonable use of ‘self-mentions’ with varying percentages 3.07% in the CG and 6.57% in the EG. This means that the EG essays were far better in establishing writers’ authority and indicating their presence through the use of *I, we, us, our* and *ours*.

Considering students individual use of metadiscoursal resources, we can say that students in the CG manifested an excessive repetition of the personal pronoun ‘*you*’ being the solely ‘engagement marker’ invested. Unexpectedly, instead of sticking to one personal pronoun, students mingled two pronouns when addressing the reader in the same essay; theses were ‘*inclusive we*’ and ‘*you*’. Apart from that, there were some frequently used metadiscourse markers in most of students’ posttest essays. To illustrate, these include transitions such as ‘*so, but* (sometimes ‘*however*’), *as a result, also, for example, and, because*’, and ‘frame markers’ mainly ‘*first, second, third, finally* and *to conclude*’.

Drawing on what has been discussed in this section, the use of metadiscourse resources in the CG and EG English essays did not really match Hyland’s 2005 classification. This is partly due to the transfer of L1 Arabic rhetorical conventions while writing in L2 English. More importantly, in the EG posttest argumentative essays, participants did their

best to adhere to the norms of the target language (English) and lessen L1 transfer. This, therefore, leads us to the conclusion that the rhetorical conventions of the target language, among which is metadiscourse, can be explicitly learnt by means of formal instruction in educational institutions.

The following tables include mainly most of the metadiscoursal verbs, adverbs, adjectives and expressions used in students' posttest essays. To clarify, a larger portion of it was invested by the EG students; while students in the CG relied on the use of a small sample of frequently encountered markers.

Table 5.12

Interactive Metadiscourse Markers Used in Students' Pretest and posttest Essays

Interactive Metadiscourse Markers				
Transition	Frame Markers	Endophoric Markers	Evidentials	Code Glosses
-but, however, conversely, on the contrary -and, also, in addition to, besides, add to that -on the other hand, nevertheless -rather -similarly -so as to -thereby -leads to -thus, so, as a result, consequently, therefore -yet, whereas, while, again -alternatively -equally -even tough, although -at the same time, meanwhile, -by the same token -accordingly/ additionally -because, due to, caused by	-my purpose is -first, second, third -in conclusion -to begin with -first and foremost -subsequently -then, last, so -all in all, overall, on the whole, to sum up, to conclude -by far, now, -in brief, in short -this essay discusses/focuses on -moving to, another argument/reason -regarding, with regard to, as for	-mentioned above -as follows -in the following lines -in this essay -mentioned previously	-according to -x states that -to quote x -names of scholars, writers and famous personalities -references (books, articles, surveys...)	-in other words -this means -such as -for example -Namely -like -in terms of -which is -is defined as -as a matter of fact -known as -put another way -especially

Table 5.13*Instances of Interactional Metadiscourse Markers in Students' Essays*

Interactional Metadiscourse Markers				
Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-Mentions	Engagement Markers
-may, might, could, would	-in fact	-should, have to	-I, we, my,	-imperative form
-perhaps, possible	-definitely	-agree	we, our	-you can see that
-some	-should	-surprisingly	-exclusive we	-inclusive we
-sometimes/ often	-must be	-essentially	-the author	-questions (?)
-generally	-never	-unfortunately	-the writer	-exclamation marks (!)
-likely, could be	-always	-admittedly		-by the way
-seemingly	-in fact, actually	-hopefully		-do not
-probably	-indeed	-amazingly		-let's
-almost	-clearly	-appropriately		-imagine
-presumably	-highly	-astonishing		-one's responsibilities
-kind of/ sort of	-most, very	-importantly		-remember that
-somehow/ somewhat	-truly	-fortunately		-you, your
-doubt	-beyond doubt,	-even x		-think of
-assume/ argue/ claim	undoubtedly	-interestingly		-suppose
-almost	-definitely	-strikingly		
-approximately	-evidently	-remarkably		
-to a certain extent	-obviously	-prefer		
-essentially	-of course	Preferably		
-fairly	-undeniably			
-feels like	-really, sure			
-frequently	-certain,			
-from my perspective	certainly			
-mainly/ largely	-indisputably			
-in most cases	-demonstrate -			
-in my opinion	indicate			
-plausibly	-Show			
-relatively, roughly	-prove			

5.2. The Treatment Results

5.2.1. The Control Group Pretest vs. Posttest Results

The next table exhibits the CG pretest and posttest results as well as gain scores. It is worth-noting that the scores are out of twenty points.

Table 5.14

Pretest vs. Posttest Scores of the CG

Participants	Pretest Scores	Posttest Scores	Gain Scores	Participants	Pretest Scores	Posttest Scores	Gain Scores
Participant 01	13	11	02	Participant 16	14	15	01
Participant 02	15.5	16	0.5	Participant 17	14	12	-02
Participant 03	13	14	01	Participant 18	12	14	02
Participant 04	13	13	00	Participant 19	15	13.5	-1.5
Participant 05	14	14.5	0.5	Participant 20	14	11	-3
Participant 06	10.5	11.5	01	Participant 21	12.5	14.5	02
Participant 07	13	11.5	-1.5	Participant 22	13	13	00
Participant 08	12.5	12	-0.5	Participant 23	16	15	-01
Participant 09	09	12.5	-0.5	Participant 24	15	16	01
Participant 10	11	11	00	Participant 25	10	10	00
Participant 11	08.5	8.5	00	Participant 26	16.5	13	-3.5
Participant 12	07	09	02	Participant 27	12	10	-2
Participant 13	10	09	-01	Participant 28	08	09	01
Participant 14	13	12	-01	Participant 29	16	16	00
Participant 15	12	12.5	0.5	Participant 30	14.5	11	-3.5

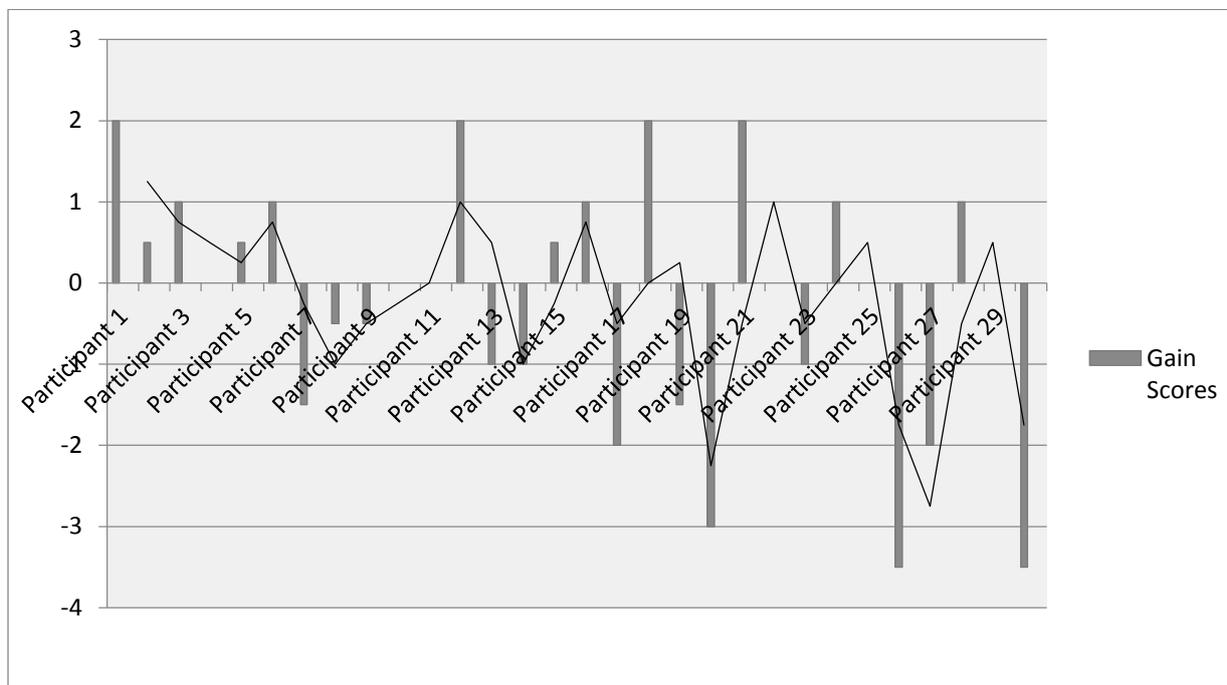
Figure 5.7*Representation of the CG Gain Scores*

Figure 5.7 indicates that students' gain scores are disparate and noticeably insignificant. The gain scores pertinent to the CG participants range from 2 to 0 point with the presence of some regressive points. The greatest gain score is 2 points with the frequency of four times, then 1 point is gained four times, 0.5 point is noted thrice and no gain score (0 point) has been recorded for six times. Remarkably enough, the lowest regressive score is -3.5 and is recorded twice. Consequently, given the regressive scores, we ought to say that not all of the CG participants' scores have increased in the posttest.

In order to find out if there is a significant improvement in students' scores or not, a paired sample t-test was calculated as displayed in the below tables.

Table 5.15*Paired Sample Statistics of the CG Results*

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pretest	12,5833	30	2,45330	,44791
	Posttest	12,3667	30	2,19692	,40110

Table 5.16*Paired Sample Correlations of the CG*

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 pretest & posttest	30	,744	,000

Table 5.17*Paired Sample Test of the CG*

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95 % Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair1 pretest - posttest	,21667	1,67992	,30671	-,41063	,84396	,706	29	,486

According the above statistical description of the CG pretest and posttest results, we note that the pretest mean equals 12,58 with a standard deviation of 2.45; whereas, the posttest mean is 12.36 with a standard deviation of 2.19. The correlation between the pretest and posttest scores represents 0,74. The difference between the two tests scores' mean is 0,21 with paired differences standard deviation of 1,67; whereas, the t value of this pair equals 0.70 with 29 degrees of freedom. Since the $p = 0,48 \geq \alpha = 0,05$, we can say that the results are

not statistically significant. That is to say, since the mean of the posttest scores is lower than the mean of the pretest, we approve that the participants reflected no considerable improvement in their writing output.

5.2.2. The Experimental Group Pretest vs. Posttest Results

‘Table 5.52’ below unveils the EG pretest and posttest results, as well as gain scores. It is tailed by figure ‘5.52’ which, in turn, exemplifies the frequency of the group gain scores.

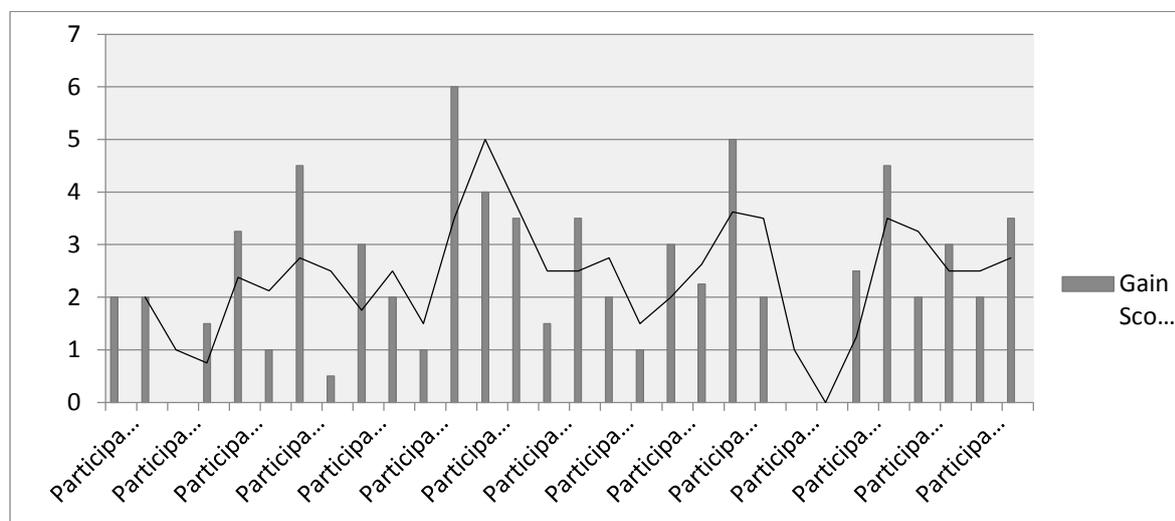
Table 5.18

Pretest vs. Posttest Scores of the EG

Participants	Pretest Scores	Posttest Scores	Gain Scores	Participants	Pretest Scores	Posttest Scores	Gain Scores
Participant 01	16	18	02	Participant 16	12.5	16	03.5
Participant 02	13	15	02	Participant 17	15	17	02
Participant 03	14	14	00	Participant 18	13	14	01
Participant 04	14.5	16	01.5	Participant 19	12.5	15.5	03
Participant 05	14.75	18	03.25	Participant 20	14	16.25	02.25
Participant 06	16	15	01	Participant 21	09	14	05
Participant 07	11	15.5	04.5	Participant 22	16	18	02
Participant 08	16	16.5	0.5	Participant 23	12	12	00
Participant 09	13	16	03	Participant 24	16	16	00
Participant 10	15	17	02	Participant 25	11.5	14	02.5
Participant 11	12	13	01	Participant 26	09	13.5	04.5
Participant 12	11	17	06	Participant 27	16	18	02
Participant 13	11.5	16.5	04	Participant 28	13	16	03
Participant 14	12	15.5	03.5	Participant 29	15	14	02
Participant 15	13.5	15	01.5	Participant 30	10	13.5	03.5

Figure 5.8

Representation of the Experimental Group Gain Score



Compared to the CG results, the EG has demonstrated a remarkably higher ratio of gain scores. The gains fluctuate from six points as a highest degree with the frequency of one time to zero as a lowest degree recorded for three times. The other gains are scattered as follows: four points recorded thrice, three points with the frequency of four times, two points gained for nine times, one point for five times and finally 0.5 to 00 gained for four times. We conclude that there are no regressive gains in the participants' scores of the EG.

Table 5.19

Paired Sample Statistics of the EG Results

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 2 pretest	13,2583	30	2,10550	,38441
posttest	15,5250	30	1,59788	,29173

Table 5.20

Paired Samples Correlations of the EG

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 2 pretest & posttest	30	,573	,001

Table 5.21*Paired Sample Test of the EG*

	Paired Difference					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95 % Confidence Interval of Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair2 pretest – posttest	-2,26667	1,76890	,32296	-2,92719	-1,60615	-7,018	29	,000

Table 5.21 displays the EG paired sample t-test statistics. The EG pretest mean is 13.25 with a standard deviation of 2.10 while the posttest mean equals 15.52 with a standard deviation of 1.59. The correlation between the pretest and posttest scores equals 0,573. Giving the SPSS spreadsheet table, the difference between the group pretest and posttest means is -2.26 whereas the standard deviation of the means difference is 1,76. This implies that participants in the EG showed a significant improvement in their writing production. The t value associated with this pair is 7.018 with 29 degrees of freedom. It is worth-noting that if the p value is less than or equals the alpha level, then the null hypothesis can be rejected. As such, the two-tailed p value of this pair equals 0.000 ($p=0.000 \leq \alpha=0,05$), therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and an existing relationship between students' writing performance improvement and the treatment (the instruction of the mini-syllabus on metadiscourse markers appropriate use) is confirmed.

5.2.3. The Control Group vs. Experimental Group Posttest Result

Considering the CG and EG posttest results, the following table is inclusive of the t-test statistical data relevant to both groups successively.

Table 5.22*Group Statistics*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 3 posttest CG	30	12,3667	2,19692	,40110
posttest EG	30	15,5250	1,59788	,29173

Table 5.23*Independent Samples T-test*

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variance		T-test for the Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	DI	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95 % Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
scores									
Equal Variance Assumed	3,368	,072	-6,368	58	,000	-3,15833	,49597	-4,15113	-2,16554
Equal Variance Not Assumed			-6,368	52,974	,000	-3,15833	,49597	-4,15314	-2,16353

The independent sample t-test compares the means of the CG and EG posttest scores. By doing so, a significant difference in the means of the two groups is signaled. The mean of the EG (15.52) is considerably higher than that of the CG (12.36). Moreover, the *t* value of this pair independent sample equals -6.36 which is less than the value of alpha $p = -6.36 \leq \alpha = 0.05$. As a result, these outcomes offer adequate proof to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative/ experimental hypothesis, which assume that the increase in EG participants' scores is due to the treatment (independent variable) and not to chance.

The below-shown figure will visually elucidate the difference in the two groups' posttest results, in the interim; point out the distributional parameter of the two disparate variables.

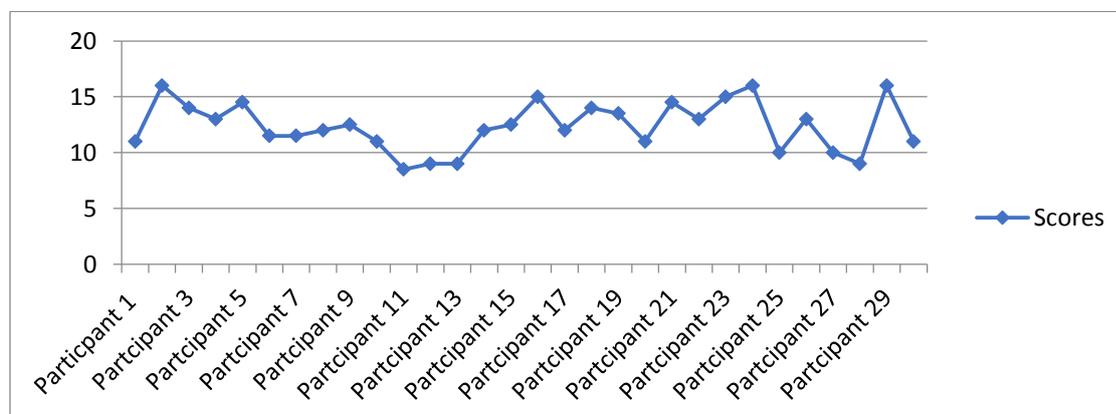
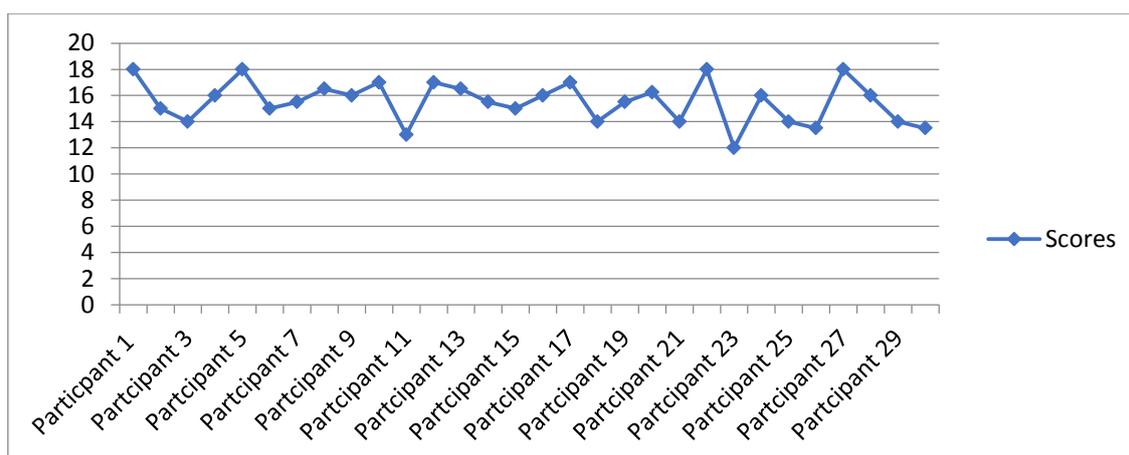
Figure 5.9*Posttest Scores of the CG***Figure 5.10***Posttest Scores of the EG*

Figure 5.9 and 5.10 illustrate ‘the normal distribution curve’ to the output of the two samples posttest scores. The line graphs display clearly that the scores and their distributional difference approximate a normal distribution.

5.4. Focus Group Findings

Once the treatment was over, the researcher used another data collection method to gauge the usefulness of the mini-syllabus that was taught during the intervention phase. As such, a ‘focus group’ has been formed in which 12 students were randomly selected from the experimental group. The aim of the focus group was to elicit students’ varied views and

insights towards the treatment and its efficacy in improving their writing skill, precisely, the appropriate use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in argumentative essays.

In doing so, the researcher, who was the teacher in charge of the 'Written Expression' course, had organised a focus group discussion, which took a whole session (one hour and a half). The focus group method was kind of an extended form of the interview wherein participants interacted together and took part in responding to eight unstructured open-ended questions that revolve around the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers and how useful was this awareness raising treatment to their writing skill. The researcher depended on recording the whole session's discussion and then highlighting important and painstaking details. As a last and significant step, she used the method of 'Thematic Analysis' to scrutinize the collected qualitative data in order to attain reliable results.

The first question aspired to find out if it was easy for students in the experimental group to grasp the meaning and function of each type of metadiscourse markers, namely the interactive and the interactional markers. The majority of the participants (eight students) believed that it was easy to grasp the two types of metadiscourse markers along with their underlying sub-categories. However, two participants stated that some devices were easy to comprehend while others were kind of hard like 'boosters, hedges and endophoric markers. On the other hand, one student maintained that, at first, it was somehow difficult to apply them. Nevertheless, by practice, the participant managed to use metadiscoursal devices appropriately as suggested in the treatment.

The second question was meant to elucidate students' perception of the importance of using metadiscoursal devices in writing. All the participants had exhibited a favourable attitude towards the employment of metadiscoursal markers in writing which highlights its paramount importance in establishing coherence and unity in their essays. To quote some of

the responses for this question, one participant argued that “using metadiscoursal devices is highly significant for writing well-developed essays. They serve as a tool for making writing more coherent and cohesive and making its content more patterned which would, in turn, facilitate the reading process for the teacher”. Another participant posited that “the use of the different metadiscoursal devices contribute to the clarity and organisation of the writer’s ideas and render the piece of writing more professional and academic”. “For writing proficiently in English”, said another participant, “We should use connectors, boosters, hedges and so on and so forth to join information together within a sentence or among sentences. Using them appropriately will help in elaborating arguments successfully”. On the whole, the participants had linked the investment of metadiscoursal devices with the improvement of their writing quality and the boost of the effectiveness of their essays, especially, the argumentative type.

The third question aimed to uncover the type of metadiscoursal devices that students have used most in their posttest essays and the reason behind their choice of some sub-categories over others. Surprisingly, only two participants had declared that they made use of both types of metadiscourse markers on an equal footing, the interactive and the interactional markers. In her own words, a participant stated: “I don’t think I use any type more than the other since this depends entirely on what I’m writing and what I need while writing. So, it is totally random”. On the other hand, seven participants held that they have used ‘the interactive markers’ the most, simply because they assist student writers to organise the content of their essays and link its different parts together cohesively. The mostly used interactive markers, according to the participants in this category, were ‘transitions’, ‘frame markers’ and to some moderate extent ‘code glosses’. Opposed to this category, there were three participants who maintained that they were concerned more with employing ‘interactional markers’ because, as one of them had said, “the use of interactional

metadiscourse markers allow me to address readers and keep them engaged. Also, they demonstrate the writer's viewpoint towards the propositional content".

The fourth question concerned the frequency of metadiscourse markers employment (i.e.) whether students made use of a variety of metadiscursive devices or limited themselves to only few sub-types. The majority of the participants (nine students) indicated that they made use of a variety of metadiscoursal devices. In this vein, one of them has argued: "I do not limit myself to a specific sub-category. In my essays, I use a variety of markers because it shows the reader that my language is more fluent". Accordingly, the majority believe that investing different markers is twofold. It assists them to avoid repetition on the one hand and enriches the lexical content of their essays on the other. Conversely, the minority (three students) admitted that they limited their use of metadiscoursal markers in that they depended largely on employing frequent and more common markers. To cite some responses, a participant specified: "to be honest, I limited myself to use few of them but, by practicing more, I will master the use of them all".

The fifth question seemed to find out if the use of metadiscourse markers help students defend their point of view, back it up with evidence, consider the counter argument and wrap up their essays successfully. Interestingly enough, no disparate answers have been recorded. All the members of the focus group advocated the employment of interactional as well as interactive metadiscourse devices in writing under the argumentative essay type. The twelve participants assumed that such devices made their writing a way better. According to the participants, metadiscourse markers allow writers to express their stand point clearly, back up their claims successfully through illustration and exemplification and establish authority through the whole essay. To quote some replies pertinent to this question, "metadiscoursal markers clarify our view points for the reader, maintain the smooth flow of

our ideas and render our arguments stronger. Simply, we cannot do without them”, said a participant eagerly.

The sixth question was if students have the intention to use metadiscursive devices in other types of essays apart from the argumentative one. Undoubtedly, all the participants agreed that they should extend the use of metadiscourse markers to other types of essays. One convincing and conclusive point of view was “Definitely, metadiscourse markers are not exclusively used in the argumentative essay type. I, personally, use it in different writing genres among which are the exam and assignment papers”.

The seventh question sought out to unravel the other important aspects of writing which contribute, along with metadiscursive devices, to establishing proficiency in students’ writing. According to the participants’ opinions, the other crucial aspects which would improve students’ writing quality and effectiveness are correct grammar, rich vocabulary, relevant ideas, appropriate punctuation, formal style and diction. More importantly, the members of the focus group asserted that, for their writing to be effective, they ought to utilize metadiscourse markers appropriately as suggested in the mini-syllabus. That is to say, they had better avoid the misuse or over use of these markers. A participant contended, “In writing, there is certainly more than one way to sound academically proficient; meanwhile, abide to the norms of standard written English”. He, further, added, “As writers, we should be also aware of the requirements of the different essay types”.

The last question attempted to find out if students recommend the employment of metadiscourse markers in other genres of writing such as book reviews, theses’ abstracts, research articles, academic letters and reports. It was quite certain that the entire focus group participants would perceive the overriding significance of applying metadiscourse markers in their essays. In doing so, they highly recommended the integration of metadiscoursal devices in every writing genre regarding their importance to academic writing as a whole.

“Irrespective of the academic genre and discipline according to which we write, metadiscourse as a notion must be apparent. That is to say, the use of metadiscoursal markers is fundamental across all writing forms”.

Conclusion

This chapter displayed, analysed and discussed the results that were obtained by means of two research instruments which are the quasi-experiment and the focus group. It first exhibited the study findings in terms of tables and figures. Then, it relied on both statistical and thematic analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data correspondingly. Afterwards, the chapter attempted to interpret and discuss the findings by relating them to the study's underlying questions and hypothesis. As to the treatment outcomes, the t-test paired and independent samples' statistical results have showed that there was a difference in the participants' scores in the pretest and posttest which was marked by a significant increase in the scores of the EG. The EG posttest essays were of a good quality owing to the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers and persuasive style which participants were instructed during the intervention phase.

Hence, the present study's hypothesis, which states that formal instruction of the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers following Hyland's 2005 Model will lessen L1 rhetorical transfer of this feature and, therefore, will improve the writing quality of students' argumentative essays, is confirmed. Finally, the data collected from the focus group have indicated that students in the EG were satisfied with the formal instruction and greatly appreciated the close analysis of authentic sample essays for it raised their awareness of using metadiscoursal devices according to the norms of L2 English.

Chapter Six: Summary, Limitations and Pedagogical Implications

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Introduction

This chapter culminates the research study between hands. As such, it opens with a summary of the main findings that were presented and discussed in the two previous practical chapters. Additionally, it aspires to propose a number of pedagogical implications and recommendations pertinent to the present study. The chapter also details the study limitations and offers some suggestions for further research that can be carried out in the field of CR.

6.1 Summary of Main Findings

This section revisits the research questions stated previously in ‘the general introduction’; meanwhile, summarises the main findings of this study that were obtained following three successive phases: the pre-experiment phase (by means of the questionnaire), the quasi-experiment phase (the pretest, the treatment and the posttest) and post-experiment phase (the focus group).

The following research questions guide this study:

Q1. What are the similarities and differences in the use of metadiscourse in Arabic and English argumentative essays?

Q2. To what extent are L2 learners aware of their L1 and L2 cross-cultural writing differences?

Q3. To what extent does the difference between the two languages ‘cultural patterns of metadiscourse result in students’ poor achievement in the target language?

Q4. Which of the differences detected are due to L1 transfer and which call for alternative interpretations?

Q5. Is there a statistically significant improvement in students’ L2 writing after the instruction/intervention phase (awareness’ raising of metadiscourse features appropriate use)?

English majors at Abbas Laghrour University are unaware of the rhetorical differences between L1 Arabic and L2 English; precisely, at the micro-level of text organisation which is 'metadiscourse'. Since the employment of metadiscourse markers in argumentative essays written in English is tightly linked to the norms and cultural patterns of L2 English, students should be taught the appropriate use of metadiscourse following Hyland 2005 classification.

The aim of the present study was to analyse and compare the use of metadiscourse markers, as a micro-level feature of text rhetoric, in Algerian English majors' argumentative essays written in their mother tongue Arabic (L1) and in English as a target language (L2). As a result, the aim of this research work is two-fold, it attempts first to identify the cultural patterns of metadiscourse in both languages and second to indicate any potential first language rhetorical transfer found in students' essays.

By relating the second research question (Q2) to the students' questionnaire findings, we first found that the participants were unaware of metadiscoursal markers' appropriate use in writing, particularly; in argumentative essays being the focus of this exploration. Besides, the questionnaire findings indicated that students do frequently struggle with L1 Arabic transfer when composing in L2 English which led to overlooking potential rhetorical differences which set the two languages apart. To illustrate, according to students' answers of the questionnaire's fourth section questions, their investments of metadiscoursal devices in written discourse is limited wherein specific metadiscourse subcategories are preferred over others, and this is typically affected by the rhetoric of their L1.

Additionally, results of the experiment demystify a number of valuable and illuminating conclusions; meanwhile, answer three of the research guiding questions, namely Q1, Q3, Q4 and Q5. To begin, after scrutinizing closely the use of metadiscourse devices in students pretest and posttest argumentative essays, we reached the following results:

- That the total frequency of metadiscoursal devices used in L2 English posttest essays is higher than that in the pretest Arabic and English essays.
- Concerning the types of metadiscourse markers employed, there are differences in the preferred sub-categories which vary from the pretest to the posttest.
- The comparison of the two tests' essays showed that, contrary to the pretest, participants reflected a greater use of 'frame markers', 'code glosses', 'boosters' and 'attitude markers' in their posttest essays. The latter were overlooked at the expense of using a greater rate of 'transitions',
- More 'frame markers' were used in the EG posttest essays. Their employment served as a smooth shift from the introduction to the body paragraphs moving to the conclusion. As a result, the overall organization of essays was made clear and explicit to readers.
- For 'Code glosses', their occurrence in the EG posttest essays exceeds that in the CG. Code glosses are expressions that supply additional information, by means of rephrasing and explaining what has been said; therefore, serve to guarantee comprehension of the transmitted propositional meaning by readers.
- Participants in the EG attached equal importance to employing 'interactional resources' which they have seen in the explicit instruction they received. This was essential as to engage readers and allow them to take part as well as respond to the content of the essays.
- EG participants made use of greater instances of 'booster' to establish certainty towards their claims by way of intensifiers such as *definitely*, *undoubtedly*, *of course*, *surely*, *prove that*, *found that* and *realize*. On the contrary, the CG participants reflected a lower rate of 'boosters' use.

- The occurrence of ‘attitude markers’ boosted as well in the EG posttest compositions. Such devices are deemed excessively crucial for they signal writers’ affective attitude towards the content of their written output.
- Both groups made reasonable use of ‘self-mentions’ with varying percentages (3.07% in the CG and 6.57% in the EG). This means that the EG essays were far better in establishing writers’ authority and indicating their presence through the use of *I, we, us, our* and *ours*.

To conclude, the use of metadiscourse resources in the CG and EG English pretest essays did not really match Hyland’s 2005 classification owing to the transfer of L1 Arabic rhetorical conventions while writing in L2 English. Notably, in the EG posttest argumentative essays, participants obeyed the norms of L2 English and minimized L1 transfer. Consequently, we deduce that the rhetorical conventions of the target language, among which is metadiscourse, can be explicitly learned through formal instruction.

As to the t-test results, the t-test paired sample proposed that, for the CG, the results were not statistically significant since the $p = 0,48 \geq \alpha = 0,05$. Given that the mean of the posttest scores was lower than the mean of the pretest, the participants reflected no considerable improvement in their writing output. For the EG t-test paired sample, participants in the EG showed a significant improvement in their writing production. The two-tailed p value of this pair equals 0.000 ($p = 0.000 \leq \alpha = 0,05$), therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and an existing relationship between students’ writing performance improvement and the treatment (the instruction of the mini-syllabus on metadiscourse markers appropriate use) is confirmed.

The independent sample t-test compared the means of the CG and EG posttest scores. A significant difference in the means of the two groups was indicated. The mean of the EG (15.52) was considerably higher than that of the CG (12.36). Additionally, the *t* value of this

pair independent sample was equal to -6.36 which was less than the value of alpha $p = -6.36 \leq \alpha = 0.05$. Consequently, these results provided concrete evidence to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternative/ experimental hypothesis, which assumed that the increase in EG participants' scores is due to the treatment (independent variable) and not to chance. Results of the t-test independent sample provide a clear answer to Q5 that there is a statistically significant improvement in students' L2 writing after the instruction/intervention phase.

Post to the quasi-experiment, the focus group discussion has as well donated evidence and contributed to the worthiness and merit of the present study. Firstly, all the participants displayed a favorable attitude towards the use of metadiscoursal markers in writing for being an important rhetorical feature contributing to coherence and unity in their essays.

Secondly, all the participants of the focus group supported the employment of interactional as well as interactive metadiscoursal markers in writing argumentative essays because it assisted them avoid repetition and deepened the lexical content of their compositions. Giving the participants' points of view, metadiscourse markers permitted writers to express their stand point clearly, back up their claims successfully through illustration and exemplification and establish authority through the whole essay.

Thirdly, all the participants agreed that they ought to employ metadiscourse resources in all types of essays and not exclusively in argumentation. Moreover, the members of the focus group asserted that, for their writing to be effective, they ought to utilize metadiscourse markers appropriately as suggested in the mini-syllabus. That is to say, they had better avoid the misuse or over use of these markers.

More importantly, most of the focus group members have perceived the overarching significance of investing metadiscourse markers in writing. For them, the integration of metadiscourse markers in the different writing genres was a must vis-à-vis their importance to academic writing.

6.2 Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study can have implications for EFL learners, teachers, curriculum designers, material developers and researchers.

Starting with implications directed to EFL students, the present study aims at raising students' awareness towards the rhetorical differences that L1 and L2 incorporate in their written mode. This, in turn, draws students' attention to an important fact which is the influence that their cultural and linguistic backgrounds exert on their writing. This suggests that EFL students should stick to the norms and rhetorical conventions of the language they write in. Therefore, extensive reading of L2 English authentic materials would decrease L1 rhetorical transfer on the one hand and give learners an overview of how English works in written discourse, precisely, in academic writing on the other.

Moving to teachers in general and WE teachers in particular, this study is inclusive of a valuable resource for teachers of English that can be exploited in the classroom, which is the mini-syllabus. The latter focuses on the informal teaching of the argumentative essay type and the appropriate employment of metadiscoursal devices under this type of essays. As such, by making use of the mini-syllabus, teachers can fulfill two learning objectives. First, they can follow the different steps detailed in the mini-syllabus to teach the argumentative essay structure; and second rely on Hyland's 2005 classification of metadiscourse markers to teach the appropriate use of metadiscourse in essays. Moreover, a myriad of authentic sample texts is provided within the mini-syllabus and is meant to be closely analysed by teachers and learners prior to the writing phase. In this way, students will be provided with a theoretical background about the argumentative essay structure and the taxonomy of metadiscourse categories and subcategories. Nevertheless, this theoretical part is backed up by sample essays and follow up exercises, which will, in turn, leave a room for students to experience

the craft of proficient writing following the norms and rhetorical conventions of Standard English.

The potential implications that this study can suggest for syllabus designers and material developers is that EFL learners need to be instructed about two main features, ‘the rhetorical differences between L1 and L2’ as well as ‘the use of metadiscourse’; particularly, in written discourse. These two notions can be included as part of the WE syllabus designed to second and third year LMD students. Concerning material developers, authentic materials, which echo the written conventions of the target language, should be designed and dedicated to EFL students’ instruction. This can include all the subjects which make use of reading materials in class like WE, civilization, literature, reading techniques and so on. In this way, raising students’ awareness towards the use of metadiscourse resources is extended to a wide range of subjects or disciplines other than WE.

6.3 Study Limitations

The current study has undergone a number of constraints which might have affected its development in one way or another. The first limitation concerns the scarcity of relevant resources on CR. Most of the available references are research articles while books are so rare. Few books were edited and put forward by two leading figures in the field of CR; these are R. Kaplan and U. Connor. The same thing can be said about books that tackle Arabic language rhetoric, these were even fewer. Conversely, ample resources: especially, books about metadiscourse and research methodology are available and accessible in the world of academia. The limitation of accessing significant literature had its effects on the time devoted to research. As such, many gaps in literature were identified; these can form a starting point to future research within this comparatively newly-developed discipline.

The second limitation pertains to the special condition under which the fieldwork of this study was implemented, namely the widespread of covid-19. The pandemic not only affected higher education on an international scale but also affected the nature and advancement of experimental research as well. As such, online learning took over and replaced usual on-site learning which led to diminishing teaching sessions' allotted time span. Later on, as blended learning has gradually been adopted, more time was devoted to meet students face-to-face instead of behind screens. As a result, this special condition impacted the present research work at the level of two main aspects: the time scheduled to teach the mini-syllabus during the 'intervention phase' and the availability of student who took part in the quasi-experiment and the focus group since absences tended to rise at the period of pandemic. For the questionnaire it could have been administered online, however, the researcher believed it would be wiser and more reliable to administer it during WE regular sessions. In fact, the teacher preferred to be present during the questionnaire submission in order to monitor and assist participants while responding to the questions; especially, those about metadiscourse.

The third limitation has to do with writing argumentative essays in L1 Arabic. Some of the participants asked about the reason of writing in Arabic and, for a second, seemed demotivated to do so. Therefore, the researcher was obliged to tell them that this will be in their favor and will serve the aim of investigating issues related to L2 writing practices. Also, during the administration of the questionnaire some of the students skipped a number of questions that were left unanswered. They reconsidered those questions only as the teacher walked by and recognized the skipped questions; therefore, insisted that all the questions should be answered.

The last limitation to the present study was; probably, restricting the investigation of written essays to include Algerian students' L1 and L2 essays and eliminate those written by native English speakers. The reason for not considering L1 essays written by English students is surely plausible. It was difficult; especially as the pandemic reached its climax, to have a direct access to native-English speakers' written texts. Even the corpus of essays available online was not representative because it did not belong to the same population and; hence, was considered unreliable for empirical research scrutiny. Consequently, to make it up for this shortcoming, a thorough review of previous studies on features of English rhetoric, precisely metadiscourse, has been presented on top of which is Hyland's focal books and articles. Moreover, more English essays written by natives were used during the treatment or instruction.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

Future research may examine the use of metadiscourse markers in other genres of writing such as reports, grant proposals, research articles, theses' introductions, abstracts or general conclusions. Besides the argumentative essay, other types of essays like the descriptive and expository ones can be a worthy and rich area to explore. On the other hand, research may take another direction wherein it targets different proficiency levels; for instance, investigating postgraduates' written output rather than undergraduates. This would give the researcher an opportunity to deal with more advanced levels of writing which leads to obtaining different results than the present study.

Future research may well examine and compare the use of metadiscourse markers in two different disciplines, soft vs. hard disciplines. Undoubtedly, the nature of the fields examined would affect the use of metadiscourse markers in terms of occurrence or frequency,

preference and distribution. This would unveil the variance in employing metadiscourse resources along the two disciplines, namely natural sciences and social sciences.

Additionally, the same study can be undertaken in two different educational contexts: home country Vs. English speaking countries. That is to say, instead of studying Algerian EFL students' writing the researcher would study the writing of Algerian students who reside far from their home country; particularly, in English speaking countries like USA, UK, Canada and so on. Getting in a daily touch with English native speakers is a plus that would lessen L1 transfer effects be it in the spoken mode or the written one and this would, in turn, lead to yielding new research results that add to the present one.

Another suggestion for future studies has to do with enlarging the scope of CR to include a three-way comparative study instead of two. The same study can make use of L1 Arabic essays, L1 English essays and L2 English essays. In doing so, more reliable and precise results would be gained because native speakers of English are our one and only dependable reference that we resort to when comparing and contrasting particular rhetorical features in students' compositions.

Furthermore, the study between hands used a relatively small sample size due to some previously stated limitations. Conversely, future undermined studies can employ larger sample size and detect if the synthesized conclusions would be identical to the present study or not. By definition, opting for larger sample size would result in a change in the conclusions reached only if there was a bias in the conducted small sample studies wherein research steps would not have been implemented and progressed properly.

Lastly, further research can rely on examining only one type or category of metadiscourse; for example, the use of '*interactional markers*' exclusively. It also can

scrutinize closely more features other than metadiscourse. More research variables to examine can be the following: conjunctions, phrasal verbs, idiomatic expressions, religious expressions, influence of French (being the second spoken language after Arabic in Algeria which notices a dominant use in everyday life) as well as models of argumentation such as the CAR's model.

Conclusion

To conclude, this final chapter relates the study findings to underlying research questions and guiding aim. First of all, the research questions were revisited and evidence from the students' questionnaire, the quasi-experiment as well as the focus group was put forward. Subsequent to the summary of the obtained results, a number of pedagogical implications and recommendations for EFL students, teachers and researchers were proposed. The present chapter also addressed the constraints and challenges that faced this study; hence, make of it a valuable research work. Last but not least, the chapter closes by providing suggestions that may guide the direction of future research in the field of CR.

General Conclusion

Writing a good paper is, by far, the utmost concern of many academics and students equally. However, this essential skill can be challenging, especially, when writing in another language that is totally dissimilar to one's mother tongue. In fact, this perceived difficulty instigates from the complex nature of writing and the diverse aspects it incorporates such as content, style, mechanics, conventions, syntax, vocabulary and rhetorical structure. Additionally, students' cultural and linguistic backgrounds are other potential factors that may affect as well their writing in the target language and lead them to disregard variation among L1 and L2 pertinent to stylistic patterns, discourse organisation, and rhetorical devices.

Undeniably, although the fact that every language is unique and has its proper distinctive rhetorical features, EFL learners tend to write in English the same way they do in their native language. For that reason, their written output would deviate from the norms that govern English written style. This certainly implies that the majority of EFL learners are unaware of this critical fact. Students' persistent problems of L2 writing paved the way for the emergence and development of a very significant discipline that came to be known as CR. The early beginnings of CR were marked by Kaplan's (1966) seminal work on international students' writing. According to him, students from different cultures transfer rhetorical patterns from their native language to the target language writing; consequently, they need to be made aware of the variant rhetoric in which they are set to write.

Nonetheless, CR has taken new directions in applied linguistics that are more concerned with pedagogical implications than the ordinary linguistic comparison and examination of compositions written by students with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Since then, CR has enlarged its scope and altered its directions which made of it an interdisciplinary area of research referred to as "Intercultural Rhetoric" (IC). In this

respect, Ulla Connor (1996), a pioneer in the field of CR, posits that the new directions includes more disciplines such as contrastive text linguistics, the study of writing as cultural activity, classroom-based contrastive study, genre analysis, and teaching of ideology. This amalgamation of interrelated disciplines discusses researchers' innovative perspectives towards the exploration of writing as a cultural act and offers pedagogical recommendations to treat L2 writing issues.

Arabic represents one of the five languages that Kaplan's (1966) article "Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education" has tackled. He assumed that Arabs' writing diverts from the linear and logical norms of English discourse for the reason that the logic, in its Aristotelian sense, is a foreign concept to Arab people. Moreover, Kaplan emphasized that teachers should not focus on teaching texts' forms only; rather, they should draw their students' attention to the ideological process which leads to the overall structure of texts' types. As a true matter of fact, Kaplan's investigation gave rise to a number of related studies which focused on exploring other features of cross-cultural differences. The latter are grouped under three main types: conventional, stylistic and cultural dissimilarities.

As far as the present enquiry is concerned, a CR study of Arabic and English has been conducted with regard to two main aims. First, it seeks to identify the cultural patterns of metadiscourse in both languages and, hence, signal any potential first language rhetorical transfer in students' essays. Second, the study attempts to identify any improvement made in students' written performance after the treatment (instruction of a mini-syllabus). In order to realize the aims underlying the present enquiry, the researcher first provided a theoretical framework in which she reviewed relevant literature to the study by focusing on four main issues: the field of CR, the concept of metadiscourse, an overview of the argumentative essay type and recent Arabic-English CR studies on metadiscourse. Second, the study compromised a practical part, which backed up its theoretical one, and relied mainly on three research tools

to assemble the required data. The employed quantitative and qualitative research instruments were namely the students' questionnaire, the quasi-experiment and the focus group.

The first phase of the fieldwork endeavored to gauge students' awareness of the concept of metadiscourse in general and the use of its markers in their writing in particular. Students' questionnaire findings indicated that the participants were unaware of metadiscoursal devices and their employment in writing. Additionally, the questionnaire findings detailed that there were a number of factors that led students to overlook the rhetorical differences between Arabic and English when writing in English, these are: L1 transfer of writing strategies, conventions and style, lack of WE teachers' feedback on these differences, the inadequate use of authentic sample essays and the inadequate L2 reading practices by students outside the classroom.

The second phase was marked by the implementation of the quasi-experiment. The t-test paired and independent samples' statistical results have showed that there was a difference in the participants' scores in the pretest and posttest which was marked by a significant increase in the scores of the EG. The latter manifested a good quality essays due to using metadiscourse resources, which participants were instructed for two successive months and; therefore, improving their persuasive style. These results confirmed the present study's hypothesis, which states that formal instruction of the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers following Hyland's 2005 Model will lessen L1 rhetorical transfer of this feature and will effectively improve the writing quality of students' argumentative essays.

The last phase of the fieldwork was conducting focus group discussions. Findings of the focus group pointed out that students in the EG were satisfied with the formal instruction of the mini-syllabus and appreciated the close analysis of authentic sample essays because it raised their awareness towards the employment of metadiscourse markers conforming to the

norms of L2 English. However, it was not that easy for them to draw the difference between some overlapping subcategories such as ‘endophoric markers’ and ‘frame markers’ or ‘self-mentions’ and ‘attitude markers’. Besides, the distribution of markers in essays was more challenging than in theory (i.e. in Hyland’s 2005 classification) because students were required to show a good understanding of markers’ appropriate context of use.

All in all, the study between hands has contributed, in one way or another, to the existing body of literature on CR studies; especially those which focused on the investment of metadiscourse in writing. Nevertheless, it might have incorporated some shortcomings which would be the starting point for future research in the same area of investigation. New studies would build on this one and may well arrive at different conclusions given the selected sample, the methodological approach adopted, the level of the comparative study, the rhetorical feature emphasised and the genre of writing investigated.

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Appendices

Appendix One: Students' Questionnaire

Appendix Two: The Pretest and Posttest Writing Prompts

Appendix Three: The Mini-Syllabus Lessons

Appendix Four: The Focus Group's Questions

Appendix Five: Samples of Students Essays

1. Samples of the Pretest Arabic Essays
2. Samples of the Pretest English Essays
3. Samples of the Posttest English Essays

Appendix One

Students' Questionnaire

Students' Questionnaire

Dear student,

We would be very grateful if you accept to fill in the following questionnaire. The information you will provide us with will serve our research that would investigate «*the awareness as well as appropriate employment of metadiscourse features in writing in two different languages, namely L1 Arabic and L2 English by third-year university English majors at Algeria*».

Your answers are highly significant as they would provide reliability and validity to our research. Therefore, we would like that you respond with as much honesty, precision and care as you can to the questions henceforth.

To fill in this questionnaire, you are required to put a cross (x) next to the chosen option. Some questions will require you to arrange statements (from 1 to 6), while you have to write full answers to other questions in the space provided.

May we thank you in advance for your time, collaboration and help.

Mrs. Mebarka ACHI

Department of Letters and English Language

University of Abbas Laghrour, Khenchela.

SECTION ONE: BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. **How old are you?**.....years old.
2. **Please, specify your gender:** a. Male b.Female
3. **How long have you been studying English as a foreign language? (Including middle, secondary and higher education)**.....years.
4. **What type of Baccalaureate do you hold?**

22. How often does your writing teacher use “reading samples” during “The Written Expression” course? a. always b. sometimes c. rarely d. never

23. Does your teacher highlight the differences in writing conventions and rhetorical organisation between English and Arabic?

- a. Always b. Sometimes c. Rarely d. Never

24. Do you agree that the more you read in English (authentic materials) the more your writing quality will improve?

- a. Strongly agree b. Agree c. Disagree d. Strongly disagree

25. Do you think the content of “The Written Expression” course is adequate to allow EFL students to write well in English? a. Yes c. No

26. If no, why do you think so?

27. Apart from “The Written Expression” course, do you write essays in other subjects?

- a. Yes b. No

28. In which aspect do you frequently encounter difficulties when writing in English? (You can select more than one option)

- a. Grammar b. Vocabulary c. Relevant ideas d. Style and coherence
e. Mechanics. Other, please specify

29. How do you rate your writing ability in English?

- b. Excellent b. Good c. Average d. Below-average

30. In your opinion, what are the qualities of a GOOD English essay? (please, order the options from 1 to 6)

- g. Correct grammar
h. Good writing style

- i. Word choice (appropriate vocabulary)
- j. Coherence of ideas
- k. Appropriate use of mechanics
- l. Correct layout/format of essay genre

SECTION FOUR: METADISOURSE AWARENESS IN WRITING

31. Do you know what the concept of “metadiscourse” means?

a. Yes

b. No

32. If yes, do you pay much attention to use metadiscourse markers when writing in Arabic and English?

a. Yes

b. No

33. Do you think there are differences in the use of metadiscoursal markers in Arabic and English?

a. Yes

b. No

34. Please choose numbers 1-4 to indicate how often you use the following expressions when writing in English:

1 – always

2 – sometimes

3 – rarely

4 – never

Items	1	2	3	4
<p>-Expressions that indicate semantic relation between main clauses (but, therefore, and)</p> <p>-Expressions that contribute to the writing organization, express sequence, label text stages (finally, to conclude, first, next, then)</p> <p>-Expressions that refer to information in other parts of your writing (noted above, see Fig., in section3)</p> <p>-Expressions that refer to information from other source (according to X, in Z's point of view)</p> <p>-Expressions that elaborate and explain information (that is to say, such as, in other words)</p> <p>-Expressions that withhold your full commitment to the information (might, perhaps, possibly, approximately)</p> <p>-Expressions that establish the writer's certainty towards the information stated (in fact, definitely, it is clear that)</p> <p>-Expressions that outrightly express your attitude as a writer towards the content of the text (unfortunately, I agree, surprisingly)</p> <p>-Expressions that mark your readers' involvement in the text (consider, note that, you can see that)</p> <p>-Expressions that explicitly signal your presence as a writer (I, we, me, our)</p>				

35. Do you agree that the use of metadiscourse markers would enhance your writing quality, be it in Arabic or English?

- a. Strongly agree b. Agree c. Disagree d. Strongly disagree

SECTION FIVE: FURTHER SUGGESTIONS

36. Please, write down any suggestions, comments or ideas that we have not addressed; yet, you may consider pertinent to the objective of the questionnaire.

.....
.....

Appendix Two

The Pretest and Posttest Writing Prompts

The Pretest

Write an argumentative essay in which you develop your standpoint regarding the below-stated premise.

“Some people think that Learning foreign languages is increasingly important especially nowadays while others think that this lead to a loss of one’s native culture and identity.” As an EFL university student, which argument do you support?

The Posttest

Write an argumentative essay in which you develop your standpoint regarding the below-stated premise.

“The widespread of Covid-19 has promoted the idea of e-learning such as Google classrooms, Google questionnaire forms, and online continuous evaluation and examination activities.” As a university student and a witness of this epidemic, do you think that online or e-learning is a blessing or a curse?

Appendix Three

The Mini-Syllabus Lessons



People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Abbas Laghrou University -Khenchela -
Faculty of Letters and Languages
Department of English Language and Literature

**EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION OF METADISOURSE
 USE IN ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAY WRITING**

Instructor: Mrs. ACHI Mebarka

Class Meeting Days: Monday and Tuesday

Class Meeting Time: Gr.1: from 12:00 to 13:30 / Gr.2: from 13:30 to 15:00

Grade: Third year

Groups: 1 and 2

Term: First

Academic Year: 2020/2021

Course Description and Mini-Syllabus

1. Course description

It is an indisputable matter of fact that writing is the very basic skill for students to master in order to achieve academic success in a variety of subjects. As the rhetorical pattern of texts differs widely according to the various writing genres, it was highly advisable to instruct students on the conventions, rhetorical organisation and the techniques or crafts of argumentation. As such, metadiscourse markers, which are the most essential rhetorical devices for arguing standpoints and views, constitute the focus of this course. In this vein, El Seidi (2000) posits that raising students' awareness of the appropriate deployment of metadiscourse features or resources may prove very useful especially in L2 writing context. In her book chapter entitled "*Metadiscourse in English and Arabic Argumentative Writing*", El Seidi recommends that:

Students need to be acquainted with the concept and various classes of metadiscourse. They should also learn the appropriate contexts of every class of metadiscourse. They need to learn the various expressions of each class which are available in the target language. It is necessary to train the students in the purposeful use of metadiscourse as a rhetorical device. Guided reading of authentic texts which demonstrate the effective use of metadiscourse may prove useful in this respect.(ibid, 2000, p. 124)

Practically speaking, this course is designed to assist students use appropriately metadiscourse makers in their L2 argumentative essays according to the English language norms. This course will focus on the structure of argumentation following the Toulmin Model (1958), introducing the concept of metadiscourse and its importance in academic writing, namely argumentative essay genre, recognizing and differentiating between the

different metadiscourse markers pertinent to Hyland's (2005) Model and practicing what have been learnt in class.

This course would offer a framework for understanding what metadiscourse is, how it is used and what it adds to the writing piece. In doing so, this course interweaves theory and practice in which it adopts a text-based (genre) writing approach that sets students to analyse sample essays, first, and then write in-class essays to consolidate the explicit instruction of metadiscourse. Hence, the course will use a combination of lectures, class discussions, and writing assignments.

2. Course Outline

MINI-SYLLABUS		
Explicit Instruction of Metadiscourse Use in Argumentative Essay Writing		
WEEKS	TEACHING CONTENTS	
ONE	Lesson 1	Introducing argumentative writing
	Lesson 2	Structuring an argument using the Toulmin Model (1958)
TWO	Lesson 3	Introducing the concept of Metadiscourse in academic writing
	Lesson 4	Types of metadiscourse markers I: Interactional metadiscourse markers
THREE	Lesson 5	Types of metadiscourse markers II: Interactive metadiscourse markers
	Lesson 6	Using an analytical checklist for revising and editing argumentative essays.
FOUR	Lesson 7	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation I
	Lesson 8	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation II
FIVE	Lesson 9	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation III
	Lesson10	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation IV
SIX	Lesson11	Writing a one-side argument essay in-class
	Lesson12	Writing a two-side argument essay in-class

3. Teaching Objectives and Learning Outcomes

By the end of the term, students will be able to:

- Recognize the rhetorical organisation of arguments in the English language.
- Establish coherence and cohesion in argumentative essays using appropriate metadiscourse markers.
- Establish a writer-authority using self-mentions.
- Engage readers using interactive metadiscourse markers.
- Revise and edit argumentative essays using an analytical checklist.
- Learn from writers' crafts and techniques of argumentation.
- Gain insights about the academic writing style.
- Examine the correct use of mechanics in sample essays.
- Raise students' motivation by reading and responding to sample essays.
- Interact with the FL culture using authentic sample essays.

4. Assessment Procedure

This course will be assessed by means of writing tests (a pretest and a posttest) as well as in-class writing assignments. Remarkably, most of the sample essays annotated and the in-class writing prompts discuss and argue different issues related to the field of "education". It is strongly believed that when writing about a familiar topic or premise which students have plenty of ideas about will keep them focused much more on the smooth flow of ideas and how to organize reasons and evidence, introduce illustrations or back up their position using citations, proverbs may be and saying. That is to say, when students have adequate and relevant ideas about the topic of writing, their first priority will be directed to the rhetorical organisation of their writing, which the investments of useful metadiscursive devices would contribute to. Each time the students submit their essays, the teacher is going to evaluate them using an analytical

assessment scale pertinent to argumentative writing only and takes into account the appropriate use of metadiscourse features being the focus of the writing task.

5. Course Materials

For designing a mini-syllabus to teach the use metadiscourse in argumentative essay writing, the researcher made use of the following materials and resources:

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LESSON 1	Introducing argumentative writing
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will be able to identify features of argumentative writing. -Students will be able to distinguish the argumentative essay from the other academic writing genres.
DURATION	1 hour and a half

1) Understand What an Argument Is

An argument is writing that takes a position on an issue and gives evidence to support that position. Stating an argument influences the reader to adopt a point of view, accept an idea, act in a certain way, and take a course of action. Argument/Opinion writing includes speeches, editorials, reviews, proposals, letters, advertisements, and any sharing of a discrete opinion.

2) Definition of Argumentative Essay

Unlike other genres of essays, the argumentative one is written for the purpose of arguing about a given issue focusing on facts and evidence to persuade the reader. It also addresses counterclaims fairly in order to present a complete argument. In such type of essays, students ought to establish and maintain a formal style unlike the other forms of argumentative writing.

3) Features of a Good Argument

- A GOOD argument takes a strong and definite position.
- Gives good reasons and supporting evidence to defend the position.
- Considers opposing views

4) Instances of an Argument

When trying to argue your point of view, you should bear in mind that you address an audience who would argue against your position.

Here are some examples:

- *Argue for or against applying the negative system in standardized tests. (In college)*

- *Persuade your boss to give you a raise (At work)*

- *Argue for or against smoking restrictions. (Everyday life issues)*

Practice: read the following statements carefully, and then indicate which ones that are argumentative (debatable) and which that are not (non-debatable).

1. The issue of bullying should be addressed by schools and not left to parents only.
2. Nelson Mandela made many great contributions to maintain peace in the world.
3. Knowledge gained from experiences is more beneficial than knowledge gained from books.
4. The world has witnessed many ancient civilizations.
5. Computers and automation increase unemployment
6. Only students who obtain higher grades could pursue higher education studies like Ph.D.
7. Australia has some of the most venomous snakes in the world.
8. Plants produce oxygen that the world needs to sustain life.

LESSON 2	Structuring an argument (Using the Toulmin Model)
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will be able to identify elements of written argument. -Students will be able to consider logical models for building an argument (The Toulmin Model).
DURATION	1 hour and a half

1) An Overview of Toulmin’s Argument Model (1958)

“*Stephen Toulmin*” has put forward a widely adopted model for written argument wherein he identified six key elements that form the layout of argument.

- **Claim:** is an assertion/premise or conclusion put forward by the writer to which he seeks to achieve merits
- **Data:** the facts or evidence the writer appeals to explicitly as a foundation for the claim (i.e.) to strengthen the ground on which the argument is constructed
- **Warrant:** the implicit and logically driven link or relationship between data and claim
- **Backing:** the additional support for the warrant
- **Qualifier:** explicit reference to the degree of force which data confer on claim in virtue of warrant
- **Rebuttal:** acknowledgment of counterarguments/ opposing views

2) Identifying elements of a written argument:

PRACTICE 1: Read the sample text below and identify elements of the argument as suggested by the Toulmin Model.

A Sample Essay

Should Teens Have a Full-Driving License!

During their first year of driving, between one-third and one-half of teen drivers will be involved in accidents. California has considered enacting a limited licensing program, which would restrict teens to driving on surface streets during daylight hours with only one

teen passenger. After two years of a limited license, teens can then receive a full license. [California should adopt a limited license program for the safety of teen drivers as well as others.] *Claim*

[Having a two-year limited licensing policy would increase the safety for teen drivers.] *Ground1* [One of the most difficult and dangerous things for a new driver is freeway driving. Under the proposed, teens would be restricted to driving surface streets, thus eliminating freeway driving. This will allow teens to develop their driving skills and gain experience before driving on freeways.] *Warrant*[Another difficult aspect of driving for teens is night driving. It is difficult to see at night when you are an inexperienced driver. The new license policy would restrict teens to driving only during daylight hours eliminating night driving altogether. Consequently, teens would be allowed to gain experience before driving at night.] *Warrant*[Both of these restrictions on teen drivers will lead to fewer accidents and fatalities. This will be extremely beneficial to all of the teen drivers in system California.] *Backing.*

[In addition to increasing safety for teen drivers, the limited licensing program will also benefit drivers with full licenses.] *Ground2*[Under this program, teens will be gradually eased into driving. Until the time the teens receive their full license, they will be experienced, safer drivers. The normal drivers will be involved in fewer accidents due to the fact that everyone on the road is a more qualified and experienced driver.] *Warrant* [The restriction of only having one teen passenger in the car will also increase safety.] *Warrant* [For example, there will be fewer people to be hurt and killed in an accident involving teen drivers with passengers.][Also, having only one passenger means that there will be fewer passengers talking to and distracting the teen driver from driving. As a result, this distraction can often times lead to accidents.] The passengers and all of the drivers on the road will benefit from the provisions of the limited licensing systems.] *Backing*

[Many arguments can be made for issuing a full license to sixteen-year-olds.]

Rebuttal[One of these arguments is that teens are limited to where they can go and when.]

Ground1[Teens cannot take the freeway or drive at night, restricting them greatly to where they go and when. In addition, teen cannot give more than one other teen a ride, limiting the passengers. Also, it can be argued that teens are robbed of their independence and freedom.]

Warrant[People argue that teens would have to depend too much on adults and be limited to what they can do].*Backing*[Another argument that can be made is that this limited licensing system will be ineffective in the fact that teens will break the laws to do as they please.]

Ground2

Although these are all valid arguments against the limited licensing program, the positives that would come from it greatly outweigh the negatives. Saving lives is far more important than giving teens the full privileges of driving. Teens can live with a few small inconveniences if it means saving others' lives as well as their own.

Source: from Moore.B. Cited in: "The district writing performance assessment, 1998".

Practice 2: Now make an OUTLINE of the essay highlighting the major tackled ideas:

Claim: The government should implement limited-driving license for teens.

Arguments:

1-This will increase driving teens' safety:

- a-** Restriction on driving in freeways.
- b-** Restriction on driving at night.

2-This will benefit full-license drivers:

- a-** Fewer accidents.
- b-** The restriction of having one teen passenger in the car

Opposing claim: Teen drivers have the right of full-driving license.

Arguments:

1-Limited-license takes away teens’ freedom.

2-Teens will break the laws to do as they please.

3) Types of the Argumentative Essay

Considering the rhetorical structure (organisation) of argumentative essays, scholars and writing experts have distinguished two types, namely “the one-side argument” and “the two-side argument” essays as illustrated in the below figures.

Figure 1

One-side Argument Essay Structure (Achi, 2018, p. 160)

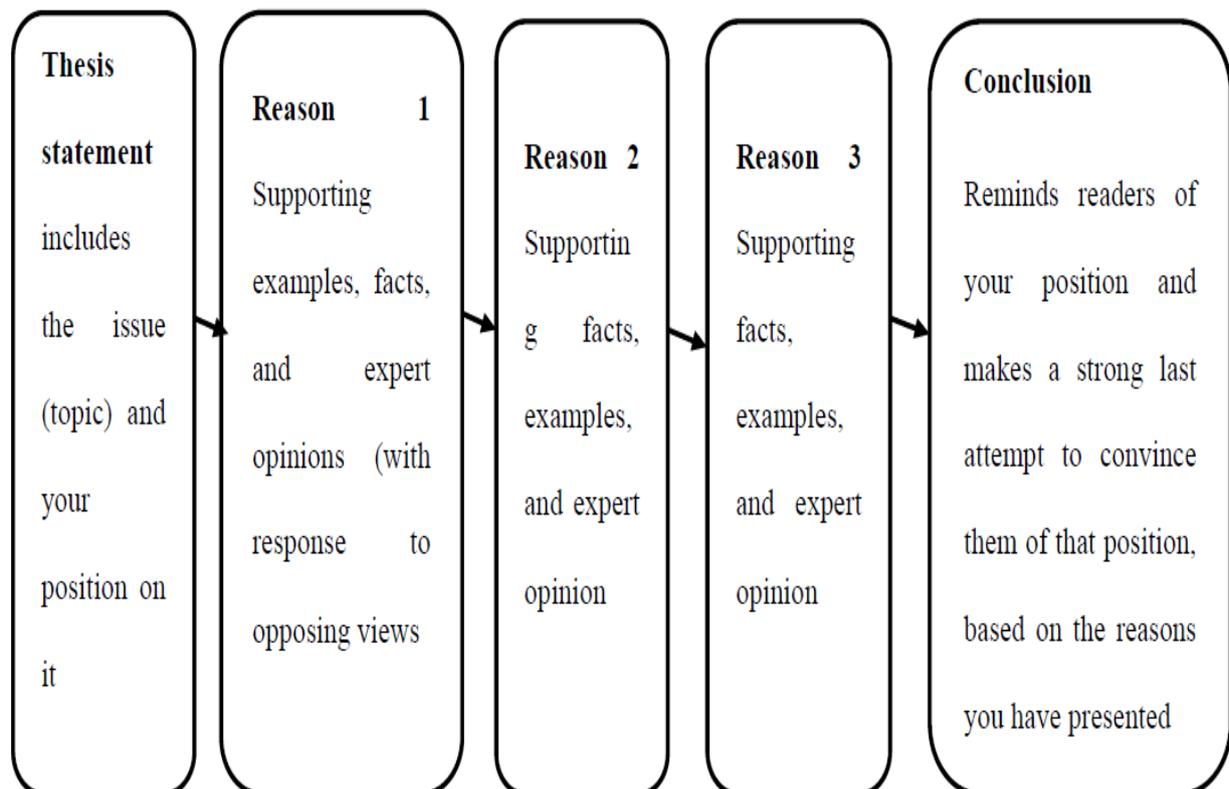
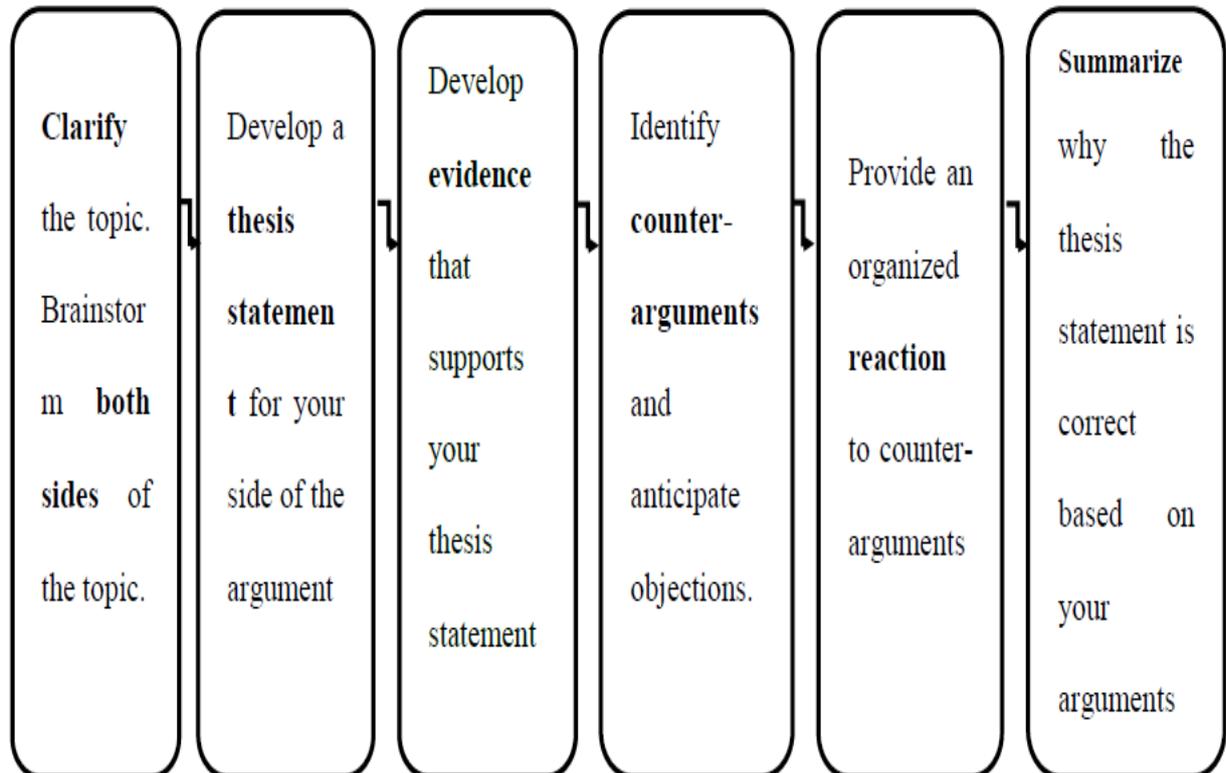


Figure 2:

Two-Side Argument Essay Structure (Achi, 2018, p. 163)



LESSON 3	Introducing the concept of Metadiscourse in academic writing
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will be able to figure out what the concept of metadiscourse mean. -Students will be able to recognize the paramount importance of metadiscourse in academic writing, particularly, in the argumentative essay genre.
DURATION	1 hour and a half

1. Definition of metadiscourse

The word metadiscourse is made of two parts “meta” meaning “self” and “discourse” referring to speech or text (be it written or spoken). Taken together, the two parts form one word that means discourse about discourse (itself). In a more precise conceptualization of the term, Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993) define metadiscourse as “linguistic material in text, written or spoken, which does not add anything to the propositional content but that is intended to help the listener or reader organize, interpret and evaluate the information given” (p. 40).

That is to say, metadiscourse do not add new or additional information. It has a functional value rather than an informative one. As such, metadiscourse serves basically to organize the content of texts (rhetorical pattern), signals the presence of the writer using self-mentions (I, we, our), establish doubts and certainty towards the argument being discussed using adverbials (undoubtedly, certainly...etc.), monitors readers all along the text using referentials (as indicated above, as can be seen in table 3...etc.) and engages them in such arguments.

2. Definition of Metadiscourse Markers

According to Hyland (2005), metadiscourse markers are commonly those **linguistic elements** that signal the presence of the writer or reader in the text whether by referring to the organization of the text or commenting on the text itself. Concerning its form, Adel (2006)

explains that metadiscourse markers or features can take **different forms** ranging from **morphemes, single word forms, phrases, clauses, to strings of sentences and expressions.**

For Biry (2017), Metadiscourse markers “frame the propositional content of the text by paving the way for the reader’s comprehension: they remind the reader of earlier ideas, explain new concepts, soften a claim, express an opinion and anticipate the reader’s reply”. Researchers have identified two categories of metadiscourse in written mode/writing: **verbal** and **non-verbal metadiscourse markers.** The first type which is verbal metadiscourse markers mainly take the form of words (Hornby, 2010). The second type, which is non-verbal metadiscourse markers, does not incorporate “words or speech” (Ibid, p.1037). It rather denotes other distinct types of “visual metadiscourse markers” (Kumph, 2000, p.401) that are found in written discourse like the **font size, the type of font, italicized terms** and so on.

3. Importance of Using Metadiscourse Markers in Argumentative Writing

Hyland’s (2004) argues that the use of metadiscourse markers can help change a dry text into a reader-friendly prose, and show the ability of the writer to supply sufficient clues (markers) to assure an understanding and acceptance of the content or information transferred. In this way, the use of metadiscourse features has a favorable impact on argumentative writing since it helps establish efficient persuasive interaction between the writer, the text and the audience.

Metadiscourse, as suggested by Hyland (2005), allows writers to scheme their point of view into a text and refine ideas to meet readers' possible reactions. It helps writers to involve their audience, signal relationships, apprise readers of varying certainty and guide their understanding of a text. Metadiscourse fulfills persuasive purposes. It explicitly links ideas and arguments; establishes the writer's authority and competence and show respect for the readers' standpoint (ibid).

Metadiscourse is widely prevalent in argumentative writing in which “authors refer quite frequently to the state of the argument, to the reader’s understanding of it, or the author’s understanding of his own argument” (Crismore, 1985, p. 61). Moreover, the use of metadiscursive features in argumentative texts enhances critical thinking in which readers frame their attitudes in relation to the writer’s stance and “follow the author’s indications throughout the text” (Crawford Camiciottoli, 2005, p. 87).

The uses of metadiscourse markers in argumentative essays are classified in the following points:

- Links ideas and arguments in the essay.
- Organizes and sequences the propositional content (information) of the essay
- Displays the writer’s opinion or attitude clearly
- Promotes a better understanding of the content of the essay
- Allows readers to frame their attitudes in relation to the writer’s stance
- Establishes the writer's authority and competence
- Guides the reader throughout the whole essay
- Expresses certainty and uncertainty/doubts towards given arguments
- Introduces illustrations and exemplification
- States the source of information and introduces citations
- Refers to previous parts of the text and signals upcoming ones
- Indicates a shift in topic
- To label the essay stage

LESSON 4	Types of metadiscourse I: interactive metadiscourse markers
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will be able to recognize Hyland’s 2005 classification of metadiscourse markers. -Students will be able to differentiate between the two categories of metadiscourse markers starting by the first type (interactive markers)
DURATION	1 hour and a half

1. Hyland’s (2005) Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse

There are different classification models of metadiscourse markers starting from Lauttamatti’s (1978) and Williams’ (1981) taxonomies to the more recent ones of Hyland (2005) and Adel (2006). Hyland’s model, which is going to be adopted in this mini-syllabus, is centered around “a functional approach which regards metadiscourse as the ways writers refer to the text, the writer or the reader” and “acknowledges the contextual specificity of metadiscourse” (ibid, 2005, p. 48). As can be seen in the below table, Hyland classifies metadiscourse into two broad categories: “*Interactive markers*” and “*Interactional markers*”.

Table 1

Hyland’s Classification of Metadiscourse (2005, p. 49)

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

1. Types of Metadiscourse Markers

1.1. Interactive Markers

Interactive metadiscourse markers are used “to organize propositional information in ways that the target reader should find coherent and convincing” (Hyland, 2005, p. 50). The function of interactive markers is to outline and arrange the content of texts to meet the needs of specific readers so that they can appreciate writers’ intentions and aims. The category or type of interactive markers consists of the following subcategories: transition marker, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, code glosses.

Transition markers : are mostly conjunctions and adverbial phrases that assist the audience to understand pragmatic relations between steps in an argument. They indicate additive, causative and contrastive ties in the writer's thinking, conveying connections between stretches of discourse. *Additive ties* add elements to an argument (**furthermore, moreover, by the way**, etc.). *Contrastive ties* marks arguments as either similar (**similarly, likewise, equally, in the same way, correspondingly**, etc.) or different (**in contrast, however, but, on the contrary, on the other hand** etc.). Finally, *Causative* relations either tell readers that a conclusion is being drawn or justified (**thus, therefore, consequently, in conclusion**, etc.) or that an argument is being countered (**admittedly, nevertheless, anyway, in any case, of course**)

Frame Markers :Markers included in this subcategory, in Hyland’s words, “function to sequence, label, predict and shift arguments, making the discourse clear to readers or listeners” (ibid, 51). They are mainly deployed to sequence parts of the text or to internally order an argument; therefore, offer framing information about elements of the discourse. Frame markers commonly express a more explicit additive relations (**first, then, at the same time, next**). They can unambiguously label text stages (**to summarize, in sum, by way of**

introduction). They render the discourse goals more clear (**argue here, my purpose is, the paper proposes, I hope to persuade, there are several reasons why**), and they can signal topic shifts (**well, right, OK, now, let us return to**) (ibid).

Endophoric Markers : are words and phrases that denote other parts of the text such as *see Figure 2, refer to the next section, as noted above*. According to Hyland (2005), “these make additional ideational material salient and; therefore, available to the reader in aiding the recovery of the writer's meanings, often facilitating comprehension and supporting arguments by referring to earlier material or anticipating something yet to come” (p.51). The purpose behind utilizing such markers is to guide the audience all along the argument and assist them to get the gist of the discourse, hence, appreciate it.

Evidentials :Thomas and Hawes (1994, cited in Hyland, ibid, p. 51) conceptualize Evidentials as “metalinguistic representations of an idea from another source” which guide the reader's understanding and found an authorial command of the subject. Evidentials state the one responsible for a position or statement; hence, contribute to a persuasive objective. However, it is necessary to be differentiated from the writer's position towards the view, which is considered as an interpersonal feature (ibid). Hyland (2005) posits, “In some genres this (Evidentials) may involve hearsay or attribution to a reliable source; in academic writing it refers to a community-based literature and provides important support for arguments” (p. 51). He goes on to give an instance of evidentials such as “**According to X, in Z’s view, X claims that**”.

Code Glosses : are expressions that supply additional information, by rephrasing and explaining what has been said so as to “reflect the writer's predictions about the reader's knowledge base and are introduced by phrases such as *this is called, in other words, that is, this can be defined as, for example, etc.*” (Hyland, 2005, p. 52). As such, code glosses serve

to guarantee comprehension of the meaning being transmitted through the texts by the audience.

LESSON 5	Types of metadiscourse markers II: interactional metadiscourse markers
TEACHING OBJECTIVE	-Students will be able to differentiate between the two categories of metadiscourse markers moving to the second type (interactional markers)
DURATION	1 hour and a half

2. Interactional Metadiscourse Markers

Interactional metadiscourse markers unveil the ways writers establish interaction by interfering and commenting on the content of their texts on the one hand and engaging readers by allowing them to respond to these texts on the other (Hyland, 2005). As such, interactional markers “draw the reader into the discourse and give them an opportunity to contribute to it and respond to it by alerting them to the writer’s perspective on propositional information and orientation and intention with respect to that reader” (Ibid, p. 52). Noticeably, the *interactional metadiscourse type or category* is divided into five subcategories: **hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions, and engagement markers.**

Hedges: are words that the writer uses to suggest alternative standpoints to a certain proposition, hence, allows for the negotiation of different positions. Examples of hedges may include *possible, might* and *perhaps*. According to Hyland (2005), hedges “imply that a statement is based on the writer's plausible reasoning rather than certain knowledge” (p.52). That is to say, they aid writers to state propositional meaning (i.e. content) as an opinion rather than a fact or certain knowledge.

Boosters: are devices that permit writers to draw far from alternative or conflicting views and standpoints by establishing certainty in a given proposition. Instances of boosters may include words like *clearly, obviously* and *demonstrate*. In this vein, Hyland (1999a, cited in Hyland, ibid) asserts, “By closing down possible alternatives, boosters emphasize

certainty and construct rapport by marking involvement with the topic and solidarity with an audience, taking a joint position against other voices” (p. 53).

Attitude markers: signal the writer's affective attitude towards the content of text and; therefore, may express surprise, agreement, significance, obligation, frustration...etc. Generally, attitude is conveyed in texts using **subordination, comparatives, progressive particles, punctuation, text location**, and so on. Nevertheless, it becomes more explicit when signaled metadiscoursally using **attitude verbs** (*agree, prefer*), **sentence adverbs** (*unfortunately, hopefully*) and **adjectives** (*appropriate, logical, remarkable*) (ibid).

Self-mentions: indicate the presence of the writer in the text through the employment of ‘first-person pronouns’ and ‘possessive adjectives’ such as *I, me, mine, we, our, ours* (Hyland, 2005). Writers’ self-representation in texts is highly appreciated by readers, therefore, they “cannot avoid projecting an impression of themselves and how they stand in relation to their arguments, their community and their readers” (ibid, p. 53).

Engagement markers :are features that directly address the audience, whether to get their attention or involve them as participants to the argument. Engagement markers are mainly in the form of **questions, directives** (*imperatives such as see, note and consider and obligation modals such as should, must, have to, etc.*), **reader pronouns** (*you, your*) and **interjections** (*by the way, you may notice*) (Hyland, 2005).

The following table is inclusive of some useful words and expressions that illustrate “metadiscourse markers”, targeted in this study, in their context of occurrence; i.e.; as employed by writers in different writing genres like “argumentative essays”.

Table 2

List of Metadiscourse Expressions (Hyland, 2005, pp. 218-24)

INTERACTIVE Metadiscourse Markers		INTERACTIONAL Metadiscourse Markers	
<p>Code Glosses As a matter of fact Defined as For example For instance In fact In other words Indeed Known as Namely Put another way Specifically Such as That is to say That means</p> <p>Endophoric Markers In this part This example shows that The below figure indicates that The above statement/sayings means that the above results to the questions above</p> <p>Evidentials To cite/ quote X According to X In X view X states that For X</p>	<p>Frame Markers In this Part/paragraph Finally First/ Firstly First of all Last/Lastly Next/then Second/Secondly Subsequently Third/Thirdly To begin/to start with By far In brief In conclusion On the whole/Overall</p> <p>Transition Markers Accordingly Additionally Alternatively Although At the same time Because Besides But/By contrast By the same token Likewise/Moreover Nevertheless Nonetheless On the contrary On the other hand Similarly Since</p>	<p>Attitude Markers The exclamation mark (!) Admittedly I agree that It is astonishing that Dramatically Essentially As Expected Hopefully An Important matter Importantly Remarkably Surprisingly unfortunately</p> <p>Boosters I believe that Certain/Certainly It is clear/obvious Definitely Undoubtedly It is a true matter of fact that Evidently Of Course This proves that Without Doubt Truly Undeniably Should/ must be (1) Indeed In fact/actually</p> <p>Self -mentions I/We /Me My /Our /Mine/Us In my opinion For most of us The writer holds that</p>	<p>Engagement Markers Questions (one of the techniques to engage readers is to raise a question without answering it, leaving a space for readers to give their own responses). By the way Consider the following Note that Have to/Do not Let's Suppose that Take a look at You/Your Take as an example Think about/Of</p> <p>Hedges Apparently/seemingly Approximately/almost Argue about/arguably Sometimes/generally Mainly/in general Often/most often/usually Sort of/kind of/somehow Likely/could/could be Possibly/perhaps/probably Might/may be Presumably To my knowledge From this perspective In this view Tends to Supposedly In some cases Will not/Would not</p>

LESSON 6	Using an analytical checklist for revising and editing argumentative essays.
TEACHING OBJECTIVE	-Students will be able to revise and edit their final version using an argumentative essays checklist.
DURATION	1 hour and a half

1-Revising/ Proof Reading

After students finish writing their essays, they should revise what they have composed before handing it to the teacher. The revision stage is the most thoughtful and critical phase in the writing process because when revising students have to consider their writing from readers' perspectives, i.e., spot any mistakes made and set up to correct it afterwards.

As such, students should make use of the below '*Argumentative Essays Analytical Checklist*' before editing their essays. Remarkably, the checklist stresses the employment of useful "*metadiscourse devices*" as to contribute to the writing's overall organisation, efficacy in arguing standpoints and addressing readers appropriately. This would eventually boost students' writing performance and assists them in achieving academic success.

Table 3*Argumentative Essay Analytical Checklist*

Criteria	Elements
Content	<p>1-Does the introduction engage the reader and include a well- defined thesis (one that makes a clear and knowledgeable judgment)</p> <p>2-Does the introduction establish a purpose for writing?</p> <p>3-Does the writer provide details, reasons, and examples, arranging them effectively by anticipating and answering reader concerns and counter arguments?</p> <p>4-Is the essay organized into well-developed paragraphs that support the purpose of the essay?</p> <p>5-Does the conclusion pull the piece together and leave the reader with a sense of closure?</p>
Conventions	<p>6-Does the essay include well-chosen and appropriate language?</p> <p>7-Does the essay use effective “<i>interactive metadiscourse markers</i>” such as “transitions”, “endophoric markers” and “frame markers” that move the writing smoothly along and contribute to the coherence of the text’s rhetorical organisation?</p> <p>8- Does the writer use “<i>interactional metadiscourse markers</i>” such as “attitude markers”, “self-mentions”, “boosters”, “writer-oriented hedges” and “engagement markers” to reflect standpoints, signal his/her presence, establish certainty over arguments and facts, engage readers and guide them all along the text?</p> <p>9-Does the writer use a variety of sentence structures?</p> <p>10-Does the writer use mechanics correctly? (Punctuation, capitals, indentation)</p>

LESSON 7	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation I
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will be able to identify the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers in their natural context of use. -Students will be able to recognize the rhetorical organisation of argumentative essays in the English language.
DURATION	1 hour and a half

ACTIVITY 1: Scan through the sample essay below, then do the activity.

1. Double-underline the **thesis** statement of the essay
2. How many **reasons** does the writer use to support his/her main point?
3. Circle the **metadiscourse markers (transitions and frame markers)** the writer uses to move readers from one reason to the next.
4. What are the **code glosses** employed to provide clarification and illustrations in the essay?
5. Does the writer of the essay consider an **opposing** view? If yes, what type of **metadiscourse markers** did the writer use to consider the opposing view?
6. Is the writer present in the essay? If yes, what are **the self-mentions and attitude markers** that signal his/her presence?
7. What is the type of the **metadiscourse marker** used to **conclude** the essay?
8. Do the argument of this essay follow the basics of **Good** Argument? Why or why not?
9. Extract all the **metadiscourse markers** invested in the text, then classify them according to their sub-category (whether interactional or interactive) and indicate their types following Hyland's (2005) Model.
10. Make an outline of the essay.

SAMPLE ESSAY**"A GOOD CITIZEN VOTES IN EVERY ELECTION."**

Let us consider a good citizen to be someone who does more than merely obey all laws and causes no offense to others, but who also contributes to the common good of society by organizing civic groups, for example, or by giving time and money to charities. Voting contributes to the common good. It is participation in the decision-making process that creates our laws and elects our government officials. The passive, law-abiding aspect of good citizenship and the active, social-involvement aspect of it together reflect an ideal that exceeds the legal definition of being a natural-born or naturalized citizen. Some people, in fact, might be called "good citizens" even when they are legally not citizens at all, because their public behavior marks them so obviously as good neighbors and assets to their community.

Clearly, then, saying "a good citizen votes in every election" does not mean that voting in every election is a special kind of behavior which by itself automatically confers the label of "good citizen" on any individual who performs it. That is, it cannot be true that if one votes in every election, then by definition one is a good citizen, because it is possible to imagine individuals of a strikingly uncharitable or non-law-abiding character who might still make it to the polls every election without fail (perhaps because of some compulsive personality trait). Instead, it seems more reasonable to read this statement as saying the reverse: if one is a good citizen, then one will very likely demonstrate that innate goodness by voting in every election, among other worthy deeds one might do that contribute to the public welfare.

When might a good citizen not vote? Many examples suggest themselves: The elderly immigrant who never became a naturalized citizen, but who raises funds for the local library.

The 16-year-old candy striper hospital volunteer who is too young to vote (and many candidates win their elections with the help of the youthful campaigners not old enough to cast a ballot for them). The paroled felon who coaches late-night basketball games to keep kids in his old neighborhood off the streets and out of the crack wars that sent him to jail. The individual who is deprived of even a write-in protest option expresses disgusts with a field of ineffective or corrupt candidates by refusing to give any of them their voter's seal of approval. What about the citizen who has made every effort to educate themselves about the candidates and issues in an upcoming election, but who still feels so confused that they fear they might make the wrong choices in the voting booth, causing more harm than good? Some good citizens cannot read, and some are mentally disabled. Finally, there is the good citizen who usually does vote, but who suddenly falls ill on election day, too late to file for an absentee ballot.

In each case just described, some obstacle prevents the individual from voting: A legal limitation arising from citizenship status, or age, or paroled criminal status; a limitation of conscience or inadequate knowing; a physical limitation. To the extent that a good citizen is free from such limitations and able to participate, we find that generally they do vote in every election, or at least in most of them, because it is in their nature to contribute willingly and regularly to the common good.

Taken from: Sample essays: Introduction to MCAT essay composition, essay topic statements for writing, practice essays with commentary (n.d). The Berkeley Review
Specializing in MCAT Preparation.

LESSON 8	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation II
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will be able to identify the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers in their natural context of use. -Students will be able to recognize the rhetorical organisation of argumentative essays in the English language.
DURATION	1 hour and a half

ACTIVITY 1: read the sample essay below then answer the following questions:

1. What is the **main issue** discussed in the essay?
2. What is the **thesis statement/main premise of** the essay? Is it debatable?
3. How many **arguments** does the writer present in the essay?
4. What type of **interactive metadiscourse devices** does the writer use to list the *supporting* statements? Exemplify.
5. What **transition** does the writer use to mark *the opposing* argument?
- 6- Is the opposing argument *convincingly* developed and supported?
- 7- Underline the **evidentials** the writer use to cite people's views.
- 8- Double-underline **the boosters** that the writer used to establish certainty in the elaboration of evidence to the argument.
- 9-What is the **frame marker** used to conclude the essay?
- 10- Identify other **interactional and interactive metadiscourse devices** deployed by the writer and then find out the functions they express in the text.

SAMPLE ESSAY**“SMOKING ROOMS AT WORK”**

Among the widespread phenomena, nowadays, is working or dealing with smokers at work hours. Therefore, some people argue that smoking rooms *should* be set up in workplaces to allow people to smoke indoors, while others think that this should not be.

Jane Black, the spokesperson for Smokers for a Democratic Society, asserts that there should be smoking rooms at work because forbidding smokers from pursuing their habit in public places is an infringement of their democratic rights and is discriminatory. This position goes on to argue that banning smoking in all public places is another example of the way the government uses health and safety issues as a cover for introducing increasingly tight control over people's lives. Public buildings, so this argument goes, are places where all members of the community should have equal access. In addition, it is claimed that people should be free to do what they like so long as it does not harm other citizens.

On the other hand, other people contend that smoking rooms *should not* be set up in workplaces and people should not smoke indoors. *As Rugby (1989) states*, setting aside rooms for smokers does not necessarily mean that the harmful effects of smoking are limited to smokers alone. Public buildings are air conditioned and this means that any harmful tobacco smoke that is produced in one room will certainly spread to other rooms through the air conditioning system. *Moreover*, because we rightfully have a universal health insurance system in this country, the costs of treating tobacco-related illnesses are shared by all the community, smokers and non-smokers alike. Undoubtedly, these illnesses create a terrible and expensive burden on our health system. To illustrate, they increase the overall cost of medical services and use up scarce medical resources.

On the whole, the issue of smoking rooms at work remains a matter of controversy among the two parties as discussed above. Yet, it may be obvious that human health and safety call for understanding and respecting each other's rights in the first place.

Adapted from: Daly B. (1997). *Writing argumentative essays*.

LESSON 9	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation III
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will be able to identify the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers in their natural context of use. -Students will be able to recognize the rhetorical organisation of argumentative essays in the English language.
DURATION	1 hour and a half

Activity 1: Scan through the sample-text below, then do the activity.

1. Double-underline the **thesis** statement of the essay
2. How many **reasons** does the writer use to support his/her main point?
3. Circle the **interactive metadiscourse devices** the writer uses to move readers from one reason to the next. Then, indicate their types.
4. What are the **self-mentions** and **attitude markers** used to indicate the writer's authority in the essay?
5. Does the writer of the essay consider an **opposing** view? If no, how do we call such type of essays?
6. Does the writer make use of **boosters** and **hedges** in the essay? If yes, give examples from the essay.
7. Do the argument of this essay follow the basics of **Good** Argument? Why or why not?
- 8- Underline other **metadiscourse devices** found in the essay, and then classify them according to their category and sub-category.
- 9- Give examples of **metadiscourse devices** which have the same function as those already invested in the essay, hence, can replace them.
- 10- Make an outline to the text.

SAMPLE ESSAY**STUDENTS, TAKE NOTE!**

At school today, students, professors and administrators were arguing about class taking-notes by students like never before. They are fighting over this issue because professional note-taking services in town are applying for permission to sit in on large lecture courses and then sell their notes to the students in those classes. Although the prospect of having “canned” notes looks inviting to many students, our administration should nevertheless ban these services from campus. Not only do such businesses give certain students unfair advantages and discourage class attendance, but they also prohibit the development of students’ important learning skills.

What is bothersome for many of us about the professional-notes services is our sense of fair play. In today’s classes, all students undeniably have an equal opportunity to come to class, take notes, study, and pass or fail on their own merits. Nevertheless, the expensive professional notes may give those with plenty of money some advantages that poorer students, for instance those on scholarships or with families who just cannot afford. In addition, the notes may be available only to those students who take certain sections of a course and not others, thus giving some students an extra advantage. The same is true for students who satisfy a requirement by taking one course that has notes available rather than another that has not.

Another reason that runs against ‘professional taking-notes’ is that the availability of notes will encourage many students, especially the weaker ones, to cut classes, assuming that they have all the material necessary for understanding the lecture, discussion, or lab. However, anyone who has ever had to use borrowed notes knows something vital is not there. Someone else’s interpretation of the information is often hard or impossible to follow, especially if you must understand complex relationships and problems. Moreover, skipping

class may mean missed opportunities for students to ask questions or to participate in experiments or in-group discussions. Not seeing visual aids or diagrams in person can also result in problems understanding the material.

Students should be learning how to develop their own note-taking, organizing, and thinking skills rather than swallowing ready-made notes of professionals. Memorizing professionals' notes is not as valuable in the long run as learning how to think about the material and use it to solve problems or come up with new ideas later. Taking your own notes teaches you how to listen and how to spot the important concepts; organizing your own notes, teaches you how to pull ideas together in a logical way, all skills students will need in other classes, on jobs, and in life in general. Having memorized ready-made notes but not really mastered the thinking skills will not help the medical student whose patient's symptoms vary from the textbook description or the engineer whose airplane wings suddenly fail the stress test for no apparent reason.

By appealing to students who believe professional notes will help them accomplish their educational goals easier and quicker, a variety of note-taking services now have franchises across the country. Despite the fact that professional note-taking services may appeal to students, our school should not allow them to move in. Students need to recognize that the difference between the services' definition of "learning" and the real learning experiences which college can provide is of notable importance.

Taken from: Wyrick, J. (2011). *Steps to writing well with additional readings, 9th ed.* Wadsworth, Cengage Learning

LESSON 10	Analyzing sample essays for consolidation IV
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will be able to identify the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers in their natural context of use. -Students will be able to recognize the rhetorical organisation of argumentative essays in the English language.
DURATION	1 hour and a half

Read the text below, then, answer the following questions.

SHOULD STUDENTS GET INVOLVED IN SERVICE WORK?

Even for the busiest student, getting involved in service organizations is worth the time and effort it takes. At one point, after I had returned from Iraq, was homeless, and was experiencing post-traumatic stress disorder, I was referred to Veteran Love, a nonprofit organization that helps disabled ex-soldiers, and they helped when I needed it most. When I was back on track, I knew that I wanted to help others. I was working and going to school with very little extra time, but getting involved has been important in ways I had not expected.

One reason to get involved is that you meet many new people and form a new and larger network of friends and colleagues. You also learn new skills, like organization, project management, communication, teamwork, and public speaking, among others. I have learned many skills that will be great for what I want to do: run a nonprofit organization. The practical experience I have now is more than I could have gotten from a class, and I have met people who want to help me in my career.

Another reason for doing service work is that you help other people and learn about them. You feel as if you have something to give that is valuable. You also feel part of something larger than yourself. So often students are not connected to meaningful communities and work, and service helps you while you help others. The most important reason to get involved is that the work makes you feel better about yourself and your abilities.

I have developed confidence and know that I am a competent person. I have passed all of my classes and am getting great recommendations from instructors. What I am doing is important and real, and I feel better than I ever have because of my service involvement.

To conclude, as you have seen in my personal experience, getting involved in service work while studying is definitely incredible and beneficial in the short and long run. If you get involved with community service of any kind, you will become addicted to it. You get more than you could ever give. So, take a chance and never hesitate.

Source: Anker, S.(2010). *Real writing with readings: paragraphs and essays for college, work, and everyday life*. USA: Bedford/ St Martin's.

After-Reading Questions

- 1- What is the **main issue** discussed in the essay?
- 2- What is the **thesis statement** of the essay? Is it arguable?
- 3- What is the writer's **main argument**? Is it logically supported?
- 4- Does the writer consider the **opposing view** to his argument? If no, how do we call the argumentative essay that discusses only one standpoint/ view?
- 5- Does the writer make a **smooth shift** from one paragraph to another? How is this?
- 6- Is the writer present in the essay? If yes, what are **the self-mentions** used to signal his/her presence?
- 7- Does the writer address readers and involve them in the argument? Which **engagement markers** can prove that?
- 8- Does the conclusion logically follow? Which **transition or frame marker** proves that?
- 9- Read the text again, then extract other **interactional and interactive metadiscourse markers** used in the text and indicate their functions.
- 10- Make an outline of the essay

LESSON 11	Writing argumentative essays: Practice I.
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will reinvest previously learnt points, particularly the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers, to write a one-side argument essay. -Students will practice in-class writing and appreciate collaborative atmosphere and benefit from the teacher's feedback and guidance.
DURATION	1 hour and a half

Writing Assignment

Students write a ONE-SIDE argument essay discussing and arguing the following statement: *“Higher education, like college or university, should not be available only to good students but to all of them”*.

Procedure

1- Brainstorming Ideas Phase

The teacher interacts with her students to generate supporting reasons/evidence to defend and argue successfully their position or standpoint:

- I think that a college or university education should be available to all students because every person has the right to choose the way to self-perfection.
- every person should have the chance to get a higher degree, gain new knowledge and experience.
- preventing some students from carrying on higher education is like making unavailable traveling for one who does not have IQ high enough.
- some young people do not do well at school but they have great personality and ability to learn. They are self-confident, persistent and patient. With these qualities they can get higher grades than their classmates who are talented but lazy.
- it is a discrimination against students to make available higher education only for good ones.

2- Drafting Phase

Students are set to do the following writing steps:

- Develop the statement in italics using the supporting reasons/evidence.
- Draw an outline of the essay: introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion.
- Make use of the necessary ‘interactive metadiscursive devices’ (connective words and expressions) to link the different ideas.
- Address their readers explicitly, using interactional metadiscursive devices, to get them focused on the issue and involved.
- Employ ‘boosters’ to convince others with their standpoint as well as ‘attitude markers’.
- Use ‘self-mentions’ to signal their presence as writers and establish authority in the essay.

3- Editing Phase

- The teacher provides feedback on students’ first draft to help improve the quality of their argumentative writing.
- Students use persuasive writing analytical checklist to revise the content and conventions of their writing piece before writing a final draft.
- Students hand their final draft of essays and the teacher chooses some as students’ best sample essays to be read aloud in class.

LESSON 12	Writing argumentative essays: Practice II.
TEACHING OBJECTIVES	-Students will reinvest previously learnt points, particularly the appropriate use of metadiscourse markers, to write a two-side argument essay. -Students will practice in-class writing and appreciate collaborative atmosphere and benefit from the teacher's feedback and guidance.
DURATION	1 hour and a half

Writing Assignment

Students are asked to write a TWO-SIDE argument essay on the following Issue:

“Nowadays, education overseas has become more accessible; therefore, many people send their children to study in other countries. However, this trend has its detractors”.

Procedure

1-Brainstorming Ideas Phase

The teacher interacts with her students to argue and discuss both sides (standpoints or position) of the issue/premise in italics.

Supporting Arguments	Opposing Arguments
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. One of the greatest advantages is that the children learn to be independent. Having to cook, clean, and pay bills instills this in them. 2. Often they have to work part-time to make ends meet, and this impresses upon them the importance of work and money management. 3. They will be exposed to different cultures and ways of thinking. They will become more open-minded and tolerant and are likely to become more adaptable individuals. 4. A foreign education is regarded as 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Without parental supervision, the newfound freedom children experience may lead to harmful practices such as drug taking and drinking. 2. Reluctance or inability to reintegrate into their mother country is another drawback of studying abroad. 3. A lot depends on the age of the learner, if the latter is of a minor age, it would be a negative and daring experience rather than a pleasant one. 4. Religious principals would be threatened especially if the host country embraces a different religion.

<p>something desirable and helpful in getting a decent job. It enhances their employment prospects and opportunities.</p> <p>5. Living in a foreign country may lead to fluency in a second language, which is another selling point for prospective employers.</p> <p>6. Many companies are keen to recruit people with a global outlook.</p>	<p>5. Studying abroad is very expensive and not all families can afford its fees.</p> <p>6. The bulk majority of students who study abroad refuse to come back home and serve their country, as they prefer to stay in foreign countries regarding the good and inviting living conditions.</p>
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2-Drafting Phase

Students are set to do the following writing steps:

- Develop the statement in italics by SUPPORTING and then REFUTING it.
- Draw an outline of the essay: introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion.
- Make use of the necessary ‘interactive metadiscursive devices’ (connective words and expressions) to link the different ideas and provide a smooth transition between paragraphs.
- Use metadiscursive devices to get readers focused on the issue and involved from start to finish.
- Employ ‘evidentials’ to express certainty over their arguments and convince readers with both sides of the issue.
- Use ‘self-mentions’ to signal their presence as writers and establish authority in the essay.

3- Editing Phase

- The teacher provides feedback on students’ first draft to help improve the quality of their argumentative writing.
- Students use persuasive writing analytical checklist to revise the content and conventions of their writing piece before writing a final draft.

- Students hand their final draft of essays and the teacher chooses some as students' best sample essays to be read aloud in class.

Argumentative Essay Analytic Assessment Criteria

The assessment of students' argumentative essays rests on the use of '*an analytic scale*' wherein it focuses mainly on *five* writing criteria: voice, organization (coherence), cohesion and elaboration of evidence, language and vocabulary, conventions as demonstrated in 'table 3' below. More importantly, special attention is paid to students' employment of metadiscourse markers meant to be invested appropriately as studied throughout this mini-syllabus.

Table 3

Argumentative Essay Analytic Assessment Rubric (MAISA (n.d). Persuasive essay: Grade 5, writing unit 3, p.54)

Score	Voice	Organization	Content and Elaboration of Evidence	Language and Vocabulary	Conventions
Excellent/ Outstanding Essay (18-16 pts.)	<p>-The reader always feels involved in the argument through writer's <i>skillful use of varied "engagement markers"</i>.</p> <p>-The reader feels writer's strong commitment to the claim through <i>the effective use of "writer-oriented hedges"</i>.</p> <p>-the reader always feels the writer's attitude towards the claim through <i>the purposeful use of "attitude markers"</i>.</p>	<p>- The essay has <i>clear</i> organizational structure by a <i>skillful and varied use</i> of "frame markers", "endophoric markers" and "transitions".</p>	<p>- The essay contains convincing support / evidence for the writer's position (use of sources, facts, and details).</p> <p>-The writer always connects the ideas of the argumentation using a <i>skillful and varied "metadiscoursal markers"</i> to make the argument cohesive and for readers.</p>	<p>-Use of persuasive vocabulary that is <i>clearly</i> appropriate for the audience and purpose.</p>	<p>-Effective and <i>consistent</i> use of punctuation, capitalization, and spelling.</p>

<p style="writing-mode: vertical-rl; transform: rotate(180deg);">Good Essay (15-13 pts.)</p>	<p>-The reader <i>often</i> feels involved in the argument through writer's "<i>engagement markers</i>".</p> <p>-The reader feels writer's <i>adequate</i> commitment to the claim with the use of <i>some</i> "<i>hedges</i>", "<i>boosters</i>", "<i>self-mentions</i>" and "<i>attitude markers</i>".</p> <p>-the reader feels the writer's attitude towards the claim through <i>the adequate use of</i> "<i>attitude markers</i>".</p>	<p>-The essay has a <i>recognizable</i> organizational structure by <i>appropriate</i> use of "transitions", "frame markers" and "endophoric markers".</p>	<p>-The essay contains <i>adequate</i> support/evidence for the writer's opinion (use of sources, facts, and details)</p> <p>-The writer connects the ideas of the argumentation using <i>adequate</i> "<i>metadiscoursal markers</i>" to make the argument cohesive and clear for readers.</p>	<p>-Use of persuasive vocabulary is <i>generally</i> appropriate for the audience and purpose</p>	<p>-<i>Adequate</i> use of punctuation, capitalization, and spelling.</p>
<p style="writing-mode: vertical-rl; transform: rotate(180deg);">Average/Acceptable Essay (12-10pts.)</p>	<p>-The reader <i>is trying to be</i> involved in the argument due to writer's <i>inadequate</i> use of "<i>engagement markers</i>".</p> <p>-The writer's commitment to the claim is <i>reduced</i> through using few "<i>writer-oriented hedges</i>".</p> <p>-the reader feels <i>slightly</i> the writer's attitude towards the claim due to <i>the inconsistent use of</i> "<i>attitude markers</i>".</p>	<p>-The essay has an <i>inconsistent</i> organizational structure due to the <i>inadequate</i> use of "transitions", "frame markers" and "endophoric markers".</p>	<p>-The essay includes <i>uneven, cursory</i> support/evidence for the writer's position (partial or uneven use of sources, facts, and details)</p> <p>-The writer tries to connect the ideas of the argumentation using <i>some</i> "<i>metadiscoursal markers</i>".</p> <p>-Readers <i>understand the argument to some extent</i>.</p>	<p>-Use of persuasive vocabulary that may at times be <i>inappropriate</i> for the audience and purpose.</p>	<p>-<i>Inconsistent</i> use of punctuation, capitalization, and spelling</p>

Below average/Limited Essay (>10 pts.)	<p>-The reader does not feel involved in the argument.</p> <p>-The writer <i>does not use</i> “hedges”, “boosters”, “self-mentions” and “attitude markers”.</p> <p>-The writer lacks attitude, confidence and authority in writing.</p>	<p>-The essay has <i>little or no discernible</i> organizational structure. There is <i>no use</i> of “transitions”, “frame markers” and “endophoric markers”.</p>	<p>-The essay contains minimal support/evidence for the writer’s stand/claim (<i>little or no</i> use of sources, facts, and details)</p> <p>-The writer <i>rarely</i> connects the ideas of the argumentation. There is <i>no use of “metadiscoursal markers</i> which makes it difficult for readers to follow the argument.</p>	<p>-Use of <i>limited</i> language or persuasive vocabulary which may have <i>little sense</i> of audience and purpose.</p>	<p>-Errors are <i>frequent</i>, and meaning is often obscured (<i>lack of command</i> of conventions)</p>
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Appendix Four

The Focus Group Questions

1. Was it easy to grasp the meaning and function of each type of metadiscourse markers (interactive and interactional markers)?
2. After being taught the concept of metadiscourse, how do you perceive the importance of its use in writing?
3. Which type of metadiscourse devices did you happen to use most? And why so?
4. Concerning the frequency of its employment, did you make use of a variety of metadiscursive devices or limited yourself to few sub-types?
5. Did the use of such devices help you defend your point of view, back it up with evidence, consider the counter argument and wrap up your essay successfully?
6. Do you have the intention to use metadiscursive devices in other types of essays apart from the argumentative one?
7. In your opinion, are there other important aspects of writing which contribute, along with metadiscursive devices, to establishing proficiency in students' writing?
8. Do you recommend the employment of metadiscourse markers in other genres of writing such as book reviews, theses' abstracts, research articles, academic letters and reports?

Appendix Five

Samples of Students Essays

English Pretest Essays

Essay 01

We live in a multilingual world that is always developing. This constant change makes learning a foreign language a need, and because English is the lingua franca of the modern world, learning it becomes almost a necessity.

First of all, learning a foreign language can enhance your career and open many doors for you. A lot of job applications are now demanding a second or even third language because more and more companies are working on an international level with the current globalization, and with more than one language in your application you will get better opportunities.

Also, learning another language, especially English, will make it easier when searching for a specific book or trying to figure out how to fix something because English is the language of technology and knowledge, moreover, if you do not know English you will be missing a lot of valuable information.

Another reason to learn a foreign language is the benefits your brain will get. Recent studies showed that when a person learns a new skill or language, his neural pathways become stronger and this leads to a better memory and a greater capacity of solving problems.

In conclusion, learning a foreign language has a very positive impact on individuals and modern society, also it will help you in your personal and professional life.

Essay 02

The Language is a mean and a connection of communication with others, and without Language we can't make a connection with others. So we need it, Language to communicate, and Learning a new language such as foreign Language is very beneficial and helpful to communicate with others.

First, Learning a foreign language is very important for us in our study life such as Spanish, English, and French, and when we learn those foreign language we can get a chance for work.

Second, when some one wants to work or gets a job in a foreign company for example, he needs to learn this foreign Language because he can't make a connection or contact with the employers in the company, so he is obliged to speak and make a relationship with them when he learned this Language.

Third, when some one has a chance to Travel in a foreign country, He must learn Language to make a relationship with foreign friends and meet a new people and all that by learning the Language. So here Learning a foreign Language is very helpful to connect with others.

Finally, In my opinion, I totally agree with Learning a Foreign Language, because every body of us needs a language to make a connection and contact and meet a new friends with Language. So Learning a foreign Language is very important for us and specially in our daily life, so everyone needs a language in his daily life.

Learning foreign language is very useful for young people today it known by everyone that nowadays English is the most common language in the world. for that reason it is extremely important for young people to improve their skills and to learn as much they can this important language.

To begin with speaking another language allows you to travel where ever you want without any problems. if you are visiting a place far away probably it might be useful for you to know a little bit of the language which used there. for example if you get lost in a stranger country you could ask somebody some information without any problems.

However, there are a few disadvantage of learning foreign language as the cost of the language courses and the time it requires. Learning a foreign language can be expensive, especially if you take college courses, also isn't useful to some people, if you can't afford to travel to countries you might never get to speak the language with native. for instance, during the initial period learners can be overwhelmed by the amount of new words it has, they may be puzzled and as a discouraged to learn languages. further more, parallel texts (the technique) don't give the explanation of grammar, therefore, it will be impossible for beginners to create a compound sentence on their own.

Other wise, having a good knowledge of English could help you to find jobs. In these days is always more common to find business which are looking for good English speaker. In addition it could be important for you to learn this language if you are interested on studying abroad. Also, this can be great for you to learn about other cultures,

Another important point to take in consideration is that knowing foreign language helps you to make new friends and meet some interesting people. It is becoming really common to find fascinating social network where you can interact among other people coming from different countries.

To conclude, to my mind learning English is becoming more and more useful for teenagers and people who are interested on meet other cultures. All things considered I believe that it very important to improve our English skills if we want to keep up with the times.

Essay 04

Over the past decades our world has become more interdependent and new technologies have allowed us to work in close contact with people all over the world. As relationships with countries grow, and from this we can say that learning a foreign language or many languages is the best thing in our time. Let me explain the rational behind my reasons why you should learn foreign language.

First of all, foreign language provide a competitive edge in career choices, will improve your chance of getting a job. we can say also foreign language study enhances listening skills and memory. your marketable skills in the global economy are improved if you master another language.

Secondly, foreign language study offers a sense of the past. Culturally and linguistically, the study of foreign language tongue improves the knowledge of one's own language. English vocabulary skills increase also teaches and encourages respect for other people. it fosters an understanding of the interrelation of language and human nature.

Moreover, Foreign languages expand one's view of the world, liberalize one's experiences and make one more flexible and tolerant, also expand one's world view and limit the barriers between people. barriers cause distrust and fear.

Finally, we can say as summarization the many cost cognitive benefits of learning languages are indeniable.

people who speak more than one language have improved memory, problem-solving and critical-thinking skills.

enhanced concentration ability to multitask and better listening skills.

Conclusion, why is it important to learn a foreign language? Basically and as we said at the first the advantages of learning foreign language have ability to set you up for success in nearly every aspect of your life.

Essay 05

Today the world speaks over than 7117 language. Dogens of applications are sent daily to attend private schools to learn foreign language. Many people think that learning a new language is limited to the requirements of work or study only. Otherwise it is a waste of time. But foreign language study creates more positive attitudes and less prejudice toward people who are different. So the foreign language learning serves as a means of (expendient) expediency connecting people across the globe. So in this essay we will consider (the arguments that) some arguments that support this idea.

Firstly, every minute new things are discovered, (and) art and book...etc that are visued, that will benefit humanity and learn foreign languages open door to learn, discover new things around the world. For instance the book of "the Prince", it is one of the most well-known books and influencing human comociousness and it remains a human heritage, the most recent tremendous shift in the system of administraction, governmente and the establishment of states.

Secondly, learning a second language also opens additional doors to opportunities for studying or working abroad because traveling as a speaker of the local language can revolutionize a trip abroad. While monolingual travelers are capable of visiting the same places, travelers who know more than one language are more easily able to navigat outside the tourist bubble and to connect and interact with the place and its people in a way that is often inaccessible to those without the language. And that reflect also on the opportunities for jobs and study, so as long as the one is able to speak more than languages he may find more than job chance.

In conclusion, learning a foreign language give humanity the chance to learn more and more, and to share and recieve knowledge, it also help us to see the world and boost persons's career opportunities.

Essay 06

Learning is one of the main and important areas that a person must do. It is also an activity aimed at acquiring skills and obtaining new knowledge, as it affects human behavior and changes and modifies it. There are many fields of learning including: mathematics, physics, natural sciences, human and social sciences, and foreign languages learning, which has become a must. In different societies around the world, people's opinions and points of view differ about the importance of learning foreign languages, there are those who see it necessary, and there are those who disagree and see it as a secondary thing in life.

Personally, I think that learning foreign languages is very important, as it is a first-class factor for increasing culture. It is also a way to learn about the world and the environment. How can foreign languages increase the personal culture? And how can they be an indicator of knowledge?

First of all, it has become imperative to master foreign languages in order to communicate with others around the world, especially in the field of employment, (most companies around the world, most of the public institutions in economics, trade communication, etc. require a high level of proficiency and mastery of languages). Most companies around the world impose on their employees mastering more than one language and it is considered a basic condition of employment and this is to facilitate dealing with the other companies and the matter applies to the labor market in Algeria, the fact that most public institutions in economics, commerce, communication and so on, require a high level of mastery of languages, especially French, and English is desirable because it is the language of the world. It is certain that you will not get a job if you only master the Arabic language.

Secondly, language and culture are intertwined. a particular language usually points out to a specific group of people. When you interact with an other language, it means that you're also interacting with the culture that speaks the language. you cannot understand one's culture without accessing its language directly. when you learn a new language it not only involves its alphabet, the word

arrangement and the rules of grammar that also learning about the specific societies, customs and behaviors. When learning or teaching a language, it's important that the culture where the language belongs be referenced because language is very much ingrained in the culture.

Moreover, if you think that learning a foreign language will only help you find a distinguished job or ease of travel abroad, then you are wrong. A group of international studies have proven that learning a second language makes you more intelligent, decisive as it strengthens your mother tongue as well. Studies have indicated that learning a second language makes you smarter and develops various functions by challenging it to search for and comprehend the meanings in a foreign language and that those who speak more than one language, especially children, have a skill to switch between two systems of speech and writing, a skill that makes them able to take on multiple tasks simultaneously.

To conclude, languages are so important tools in communication (as it is between people around the world), it makes us able to know different cultures and customs and also to be able to speak fluently and deal with people with their language in companies, this makes learning foreign languages essential in our lives.

Essay 7

The importance of learning foreign languages

Language by definition is the use of a system of communication (words, symbols, sounds, ...) by people to convey meaningful messages. The most amazing thing here is that our brain has the ability to learn many languages; we've heard that a lot of people don't want to learn or struggle while just starting. The question here is: being bilingual or learning many languages is important and beneficial? The truth is in today's increasingly interconnected and interdependent world, proficiency in other languages is a vital skill that gives you the opportunity to engage with the world in a more immediate and meaningful way.

Being a bilingual or multilingual has a super power in boosting your confidence and changing your personality. While speaking in another language your gestures and your body language will change for example you'll be more funnier or more calm. Talking with a different language than your mother tongue may let you feel special within your colleagues. The upside is the amazing sense of accomplishment you'll feel when conversing with someone in their native language will give you sense of belonging, and so moving outside your comfort zone.

Talking in many languages and learning them will make your world bigger which will affect your economy, state and career. Jobs opportunities will increase because languages are among top 8 skills required for all occupations, no matter what sector. Also, the demand of bilingual professionals is rising exponentially. Moreover, in many instances language skill

lead to hiring bonuses and increased salaries especially in the US

Studies shows that learning many languages and speaking them will feed your brain and strengthen your decisions making. Our brain is like a muscle that needs to workout and be activated, so language learning will make it flexible for example, improve memory, problem-solving, critical thinking, concentration, ability to multitask, etc. Also, speaking different languages will empowers your access to different information which will feed your mind for example, navigate through net easily. In addition, switch languages will make you rational and your decisions will become more reason-driving and systematic ones.

In conclusion, He who knows no foreign languages knows nothing of his own. Languages is not just words, they represent a whole culture, tradition, unification, history. So, being a multilingual can be traced in so many fields, connection on the bigger world, deeper connection with other cultures, advance your career. Without forgetting the impact on the human brain as many neuroscientist had shown.

Essay 08

The world is full of diversities and the one of many is the languages' variety. As we are living in a multilingual world, we find that there are some people who were raised as polyglots and some other who know only their mother tongue. The thing is that there are those who are with learning foreign languages, willing to do so and totally open about it, however, in some other part of the world, we find a different kind of people with a totally different perspective about learning new languages and they think that it is not as beneficial as it sound to be. So here's the question to be asked = is learning foreign languages worth it?

First of all, a flourished economy is related to a good international relationships, and by talking about such as, the only way for a good one is through language. International relationships open up for people opportunities and job offers. An example for this is that if an engineer applies for a job at a famous company that is trying to expand all over the world (one of the multinational corporations), being a multilingual would higher the chances of getting the job. While applying for any kind of job, there would always be requirements and additional skills that would give the person a plus, where comes the benefits of mastering different languages. As an Algerian, I know very well

that people are suffering from the lack of job offers, though there are opportunities overseas. The sad Truth is that they always require a high level a English, German, French or any other language depending on the company or the institution. ~~Second~~ Second of all, studying translation and interpretation does not happen without mastering other languages, and the same goes for exchanging the different sciences and databases. Science guide the humanity to a delightful futur, and it is known that English is the language of science, so without acquiring this language, the non-speaking English won't get any closer to what the developed nations reached from science and technology. ~~Third~~ Third of all, the brain is a muscle that needs to be trained just as any other muscle of the body, and learning new languages is one of many ways to develop it. By reading books in different languages, a person will be way more cultivated and knowing about other cultures and nations teaches and encourages respect for other peoples, besides it fosters the understanding of the interrelation of language and human nature.

Finally, for ambitious students and learners who want study in a field that is not available in their country, schools, colleges and universities require a certain level at the language of teaching for international students, such as a C1 level at IELTS test, TOEFL, TCF SO, ... etc. For those who do not have

Essay 09

We live in a multilingual world that is becoming increasingly globalized and it is therefore very important to know more than one language. I'm sure that languages can help us progress in our career, gain an awareness of other cultures, and increase our understanding and knowledge of our own language.

Foreign language study is all about learning how to truly communicate and connect with others, an incredibly important life skill that can only be cultivated by interacting with people. When you master a language, you can exercise your new superhuman power of being able to understand what someone is saying, recall the proper vocabulary and grammar and put them into proper context.

To begin with, speaking different languages allows you to travel wherever you want without any problems. If you are visiting a place far away probably it might be useful for you to know a little bit of their language. For example if you get lost in a stranger country you could ask somebody some information without any problems.

Furthermore, more and more business work closely with other countries. They need many different kinds of workers who can communicate in different languages and understand

other cultures. No matter what career you choose, if you have learned a second language, you will have a real advantage. A technician who knows Russian or German, the head of a company who knows Japanese or Spanish, or a salesperson who knows French or Chinese can work successfully with many more people and in many more places than someone who knows only one language.

Communicating directly with new clients and companies in their native language is one of the first steps to find a stable international business relationship. Being able to do this automatically puts any multilingual person miles ahead of his or her peers in the competition for jobs and high-prestige positions.

Another important point, is that foreign languages help you to make new friends and meet some interesting people coming from different countries. Apart from this, if you love travelling, the only way to know other cultures and peoples is to talk with them.

To conclude, in my opinion, learning foreign languages is becoming more and more useful for teenagers and people who are interested or meet other cultures. All things considered I believe that it is very important to improve our skills in different languages if we want to keep up with the times.

Essay 10

Name:

Group:

Learning a foreign language increase your mind capacity. Learning a foreign language will increase your chances to meet new and interesting people. So, I am with learning new language because of many purposes.

First, learning a language can increase yourself confidence and happiness, and can help you to better decision maker. It more important in our communication by doing it like a daily habit.

Second, learning a language can improve your memory and can increase your attention span so it can improve your ability to multi-task. It should exist on our daily life when we learn a words that are relevant to us by using a note book wherever we go.

Also, learning language can help you to increase your perceptual sensitivity and you can improve your cognitive abilities when you are learning a language and to learn more language faster by doing more resources that are just one level above your own.

As I mentioned, learning a foreign language can help you to improve your first language (mother tongue) and it can help you with faster stroke recovery. For example to practice it well turn your language setting on your phone to a foreign language.

However, learning a foreign language can improve your creativity and increase your volume of brain.

Essay 11

Name :

Group :

There are two different opinions about learning foreign languages nowadays, people who support it and people who are against it. Though they know that we live in the age of communication and it is so important to learn other languages.

First of all, we've people who take traveling as a hobby or lifestyle. Discovering new places and new cultures ^{requires} learning from them requires having the ability of speaking at least one world wide language such as English.

Second, There's no country without economy and business deals with other countries, so being able to speak the languages of certain countries gives better chances to get the deals approved. Same for companies and schools and factories.

Finally, learning new things is so important to keep up with the developments nowadays, especially when it comes to technology, that's why being able to speak some languages is important for our daily life basis. Also, there are millions of articles about literally everything on the Internet in so many languages and in the world wide one. So again it is necessary to master one of them.

In conclusion, The world now isn't the same as before, this enhancement through many fields put the humanity against understanding obstacles and these obstacles can be solved only by learning foreign languages, in order to keep up with the whole world and the other nations.

Arabic Pretest Essay

Essay 01

اللغة هي مفتاح كل حضارة، ثقافة، بلد، أو أي مجتمع.
 في الوقت الحالي نعلم أي لغة أجنبية هوشية فتع باب
 إلى العالم. ولهذا السبب هي مهبة لأي شخص يثبت قدمنا
 ومهارتنا في التعلم.

تسمح لنا دراسة أي لغة أجنبية في تسهيل عملية السفر بجولة
 مع ومديح وسول لكل مسار يعلم لغة البلد العساقر إليه،
 أيضا تجعلك مطلع على ثقافة ذلك البلد من خلال الإطلاع
 على الكتب والاستفسار وطرح أسئلة على ما تريد الوصول
 إليه أو ما تريد معرفته. الأكثر من ذلك تجعلك تحسن
 من ذاكرتك واتقن الحقل من خلال إضافة معلومات
 جديدة وأفكار تعوي الذاكرة. وما يجعلنا أكثر
 استنادة من تعلم لغة ثانية هو سهولة العثور على أي
 عمل هرووق في مكان جيد، كذلك تجعلك أكثر
 واجتماعية من السابق من خلال الحصول على أصدقاء و
 أشخاص جدد من بلدان أخرى وذلك للتقرب و
 الاستطلاع على ما كان مجهول لنا في السابق و
 في الأمر تعلم اللغات له تأثير قوي في المدى البعيد
 على أي شخص من خلال كسب مهارات (معددة) هرفية
 مهمة للغاية، كالتقريب من إصابتنا الإنسان بالخوف
 والزهايمر من خلال الأبحاث والدراسات.

في خلاصة القول يمكن أن نقول أن تعلم اللغات
 يجعلنا نجعلنا لسر الحاجز الاجتماعي و نحسن من ذاكرتنا
 من خلال الإطلاع على العالم الأخر المجهول بالسنة لنا
 لأنه (تقليد معارفنا) إذا تحدثنا لغة مختلفة سنرى
 عالمنا آخر مختلف عن ما كنا نعرفه، لأن حدود معرفتنا
 يعطي حدود عالمنا.

Essay 2

لقد أصبح تعلم اللغات الأجنبية من أهم متطلبات الحياة
العصرية. بل أصبح أمراً ملجأً بعد انتشار التكنولوجيا وانتشار
مواقع التواصل الاجتماعي التي أدت إلى مشاركة الناس
عبر مشاركاتهم ومناقشتهم، وإثباتهم عن اهتمامهم
بمعرفة اللغات الأجنبية والرقى بمداركهم، لكي يتمكنوا من حركته
بشكل واقعي.

إن تعلم اللغات أصبح للفرد العرقي والثقافات الجديدة،
ويتمكن من تبادل الخبرات والمعرفة بينه وبين الآخرين بأفضل
بعض الوعد الثقافي، وعن طريق الثقافة يتمكن الشخص من
بناء علاقات مع الناس من مختلف مناطق العالم، إلى جانب
تعلم أصوات القيم والأعراف والثقافات المختلفة، والتمكن
من الاستماع للأفلام الأجنبية والموسيقى والأدب بلغات
الأجنبية، والتعرف على تاريخ بلدان جديدة، كما يمكن
للشخص أن يعيد النظر بثقافته أيضاً، فبعض طرق جديدة

إن السفر إلى إحدى البلدان الأجنبية خلال العمل أو
الزيارة سيكون أكثر سهولة عند إتقان عدة لغات، حيث
يستطيع الشخص من قراءة الصحف والخبر، وطلب الطعام
الذي يفضله بسهولة، كما يسجد أن السكان المحليين أكثر
حفاً وترحيباً به نتيجة قيامه بالتحدث بلغتهم وإيدائه
الاهتمام والتفهم بتاريخهم وثقافتهم.

أما فوائد الشخصية فتتضمن أن تصبح مقدرة الفرد
على التواصل والتواصل مع الآخرين أفضل كما أنها تساعده
على مواجهة من فرص العمل، إلى جانب ازدياد الثقة
بالنفس وفرص الدراسة في دول مختلفة حول العالم.

Essay 3

يُعتبر التعليم عن بعد نظاماً يَبْتَنِيهِ الدولة إجراء حدوث
 طارئٍ صحبيٍّ عَجِيزٍ مَجْرَى الحياة وهو ظهور الفيروس المستجد
 "كوفيد 19" الذي أدى إلى علق المؤسسات التعليمية، فحاولت
 الدولة تدارك التأخيري الدراسي عبر هذا النظام، فما مدى
 فعالية هذا النظام؟ وما مدى تقبل الناس له؟
 لعلَّ التعليم عن بعد دعماً من قِدة من الطلبة وذلك
 لأهم لقوقيه العديد من الإيجابيات لأنه يعتمد على التكنولوجيات
 الحديثة وذلك من خلال المواقع أو باستخدام تطبيق الإيميل،
 ويعد هذا النظام فعالاً وذلك لأنه يسمح بتلقي المعلومة في
 ظروف ملائمة وريح الوقت كذلك، كما أنه يتيح لهم الفرصة
 للبحث عن معلومات جديدة وأخذ الوقت الكافي لاستيعابها
 كما أنه يُتَّخَذُ لك العوائق التي قد تواجه الطلبة أو تضطرهم
 إلى دفع الأموال واللجوء للمدارس الخاصة.
 إلا أنه في الجهة الأخرى قِدة رافضة لتطبيق هذا
 النظام وذلك لما له من سلبيات منها، أنه يلغي تكويت و
 تطوير العلاقات الاجتماعية ويقللها، كما يمنع مشاركة
 المعلومة مع الغير عبر إقامة مسابقات فكرية وغيرها ما
 لم تاقه إلى أنه من المشائل التي تعيق نجاح هذا النظام
 هي عدم توفر شبكة الانترنت خاصة في المناطق

النائية والمتفرقة التي تتعدم فيها شبكة الانترنت -
 هنأما يمكننا القول بأن التعليم عن بعد لعمه ونقمة
 في نفس الوقت إلا أنه أصبح حتمية لداو حيد على
 الطلبة التعود عليه والتركيز على جوانبه الإيجابية لأنه أصبح حتمية

Essay 04

نص تعلم اللغات الأجنبية من أهم الخطوات التي يجب على الفرد أن يتقنها و أن يتعلمها رغم صعوبة و اضطرابها على بيئة و ثقافة الأصلية، فمن تمكن الفرد من تصنيص مستوى الدراسات اللغوية و الفكري و التطلع على الثقافات الأخرى و معرفتها لتوسيع ثقافتها و تفكيرها. إذاً أهم الجوانب الإيجابية لتعلم اللغات الأجنبية؟

في العالم تم حواري 5.5 مليار لغة و هي تعد كهدية يجب على الفرد أن يمتلكها في الواقع يبدو ذلك صعباً للغاية لكن مع الصبر و العزيمة تحقق المستحيل كما قال أحد الفلاسفة، الإنسان محدود لغته في حدود حياته و هذا يدل على أن توسيع فكرنا و ثقافات أخرى و تطور حياتنا في أي الأفضل و توسيع قدراتنا الفكرية بصفة لغات مختلفة عبر العالم.

بالإضافة إلى أن تعلم لغات جديدة يحسن من قدراتنا الفكرية و العقلية و يجعلنا أكثر تنوعاً و يوسع آفاقنا و كلمات جديدة و قواعد جديدة بالإضافة إلى أنه قد يجعلنا أكثر تنوعاً اللغوية الأخرى أقوى من خلال التوجه و لأن لكل لغة لديها قواعد و كلماتها و مفرداتها الخاصة فقام بالتفكير عن الأصوات و فهمه و تطويره زادنا الصبر في سيكون عملية صعبة خاصة لبعض الناس الذين يظنون صواب قليلة و قدرات غير مؤهلة سيقوم تعلم لغات جديدة بتطوير ذاتهم من خلالهم فزادت كتب و الاستماع إلى أغانى أجنبية.

تالياً للكثير من الناس يحبون التبول حول العالم و اكتشافه و معرفة (أحوالها) كما أن في العالم

Essay 05

تحب الناس في أيامنا هذه حول العالم تعلم لغة ثانية مع لغتهم الأم ، ذلك يرجع ربما إلى كون اللغات الأجنبية تغذي ثقافتهم ، كما أنها قد تساعد في دراسة تخصصاتهم فيما لو كانت لديهم الرغبة في العبور من أجل تحصيل مستوى عالٍ من الدراسة في تخصصاتهم . لكن هناك البعض ممن يعتقدون أن تعلم تلك اللغات قد يفتح عندهم صياع ثقافتهم وهو غيرهم ، لذا يجب أن ندرس وجهة النظر هذه بطريقة جيدة .

حول العالم ، يصير تعلم لغة أجنبية هو فعل أمر مفيد لأنه لا يساعدنا فقط في سفرنا ، بل ويسمح أيضا بتطوير قدرات عقلية كثيرة ، كما هو أول لغتي عقلك وهذا قد يذكر سالفاء ، والثاني هو أنه سيسرع تفكيرك ويجعلك أكثر قوة ، أما ثالثا : فهذا قد يساعدك في اتخاذ القرارات ، كما يمكنك من ذلك إجراء دراسات في بلد آخر ، بالإضافة لذلك كلغة ، فإن تعلم لغة أجنبية سيساعدك في التواصل مع الأصدقاء عبر وسائل التواصل الاجتماعي ، أو عندما تذهب إلى الخارج لدراسة العالم .

لأن تعلم اللغات سيساعد في تطوير مهارات معرفية قوية ، على حساب الحقائق ، تشكيل مفهوم أفضل وصدرة عقلية ومهارات الاستماع متعدد المبرهات ، كما أنه يوفر حلولاً للمشاكل . بالإضافة إلى أن الأشخاص الذين يرغبون في الاستكمال دراستهم ، فقد يكون من المهم بالنسبة لهم تعلم لغتي ، أخرى لأن كفاءة تعلمهم بالدراسة في الخارج .

لقد عرفنا كل الأسباب التي تدفعنا لتعلم لغات أجنبية أخرى ، والحقيقة هي أنه في ظل الترابط وتشتت العالم المتزايد ، فإن إجادة تلك اللغات هو مهارة سيوية التي قد توفر لنا فرصة الترابط والتواصل مع العالم بشكل فوري ودو مغزى ، لذا فإنه من الأفضل تحضير أنفسنا للثقافات والنجاح في البرق صناد العالم .

هذه خلق الله تعالى للإنسان وكرمهم بالعقل
 ومنحه أعلا درجات من بين جميع خلقه وامتدحه
 في الأرض ومنحه الصبر والإرادة المطلقة كما
 اختاره لسطر في الضيق والشد أو بالأحرى تكلمها
 إلا أنه وهبها هبة أخص، ألا وهي اللغة التي
 يبلغ من العمق عن الأرض فبذلك خلق الله
 في الأرض والسموات عال إنشائي جوعاً وكرمها
 فالسعا آتينا طائفتين فصلت بينهما
 اللغتان طائفتان جدت عن بداية الخلق والتشابه
 كرم دليل على اللغتين هو كلام الله سبحانه وتعالى
 عن طين السوف أن اللغتين

وعلم التاريخ والسموات والخبير الأجسام والاصحاح
 طوال هذه الصفة كذلك اللغة أيضاً تغيرت و
 طرقت عليها العديد من التطورات وأصبحت إليها
 العديد من الفروع لضبطها وأصبحت ذات شأن وأهمية
 كبيرة حيث صارت من أهم أساسيات الوجود والفكر فأصبح
 الإنسان مهووساً بالبحث والاستكشاف لئلا يتخلف
 هذه القابلية ليرتد عن التطور على ثقافات أخرى و
 الترحال إلى مختلف شعاع العالم لئلا هذا العقل يستلزمه
 تعلم لغة ثانية وثالثة ورابعة لكي هذه الأهمية
 ظهر على أشكالها المتنوعة من التقاد والجار صيرن الذين
 يتمحور منطورهم على أن تعلم لغة ثانية عن اللغة
 الأم التي اعتاد لسانها بالبور لها والتجاول بها يؤدي
 إلى التدهور تام في معجمنا الأول بعض تلك الصبغ
 التي من المفردات والعبارة ورثاكة التعيين
 اصنافاً على خمس شئ أنواع الفروع التصوبية والصرفية

أما لغة لا يمكن أن تنكر صحتها هذا الموقف لكن الأفة
 به أيضاً بعد مهزلة فتعلم لغة مختلفة بدون أي
 شك أو اعتراض هو فرصة رائعة لتغذية العقل و
 اكتساب مهارات وفترات هائلة مع تطور الوعي
 الإنسانية وتوجيه نحو الأفق وتفتح نافذة الإبداع و
 الاستكشاف والتطلع على مختلف العلوم والمفاهيم
 لمختلف شعوب العالم كما أن التلميح لتعلم لغة أخرى هو
 خاصية العقل البشري التي تفتح المبدع

وفي الأخير معرفة اللغة صرياً بالعلم
 والإعطاء فتعلم لغة مختلفة هو توجه إلى
 نظرة وبصيرة مختلفة من خلالها يتبع التسميات
 روح معنوية ذات نفع وفائدة كما أن جميعنا المهتمين
 صل الله عليه وسلم أو صابنا بتعلم اللغات لكي نحقق نفعاً فرادها

Essay 08

اللّغويّ عن بعد و سلبية لظهوره في مفهومها على وجود مسافة
 بين المتعلم والمعلم و قد ظهرت هذه الفكرة في الفلسفة جامعات أمريكا و
 أدروبية ، إذ كانت ترسل البرناج التعليمي للطلاب (كتب و مواد صوتية
 و فيديو هاتم) لتقدم شراعت المواجه التعليمية ، و الكفاءة الجمور
 الطلبة إلى الامتحانات لتخيه مدهقته .
 لكن في ظل و فناء العالم التي يعيشها العالم مع تخشبا و بقاء كورولا و مدهقته
 الدول أمام تحد جديد ما تباع أسلوب التعليم عن بعد ، أو التعليم عبر وسائل
 التواصل الحديثة . بوجه الشكر أن هذه الدول كانت باهنة لهذا النوع
 التربوي الجديد أم لا . فالتعليم عن بعد له مميزات و أخطار ، أمهنا إشكال إطار
 تعليمي . لهذا الكنتج بالذات و إشكال البيئة التعليمية التي تختم
 على وجود أجهزة حديثة و خطوط الإنترنت و عدم إتاحة التعليم الإلكتروني
 و اعتماد الحزبة العادية لجميع الطلبة في السلك في إطار تخشبا فيرون
 كورولا و كلاساته الكه مادية و الاجتماعية . فمثل التعليم عن بعد نعمة أم
 رقمة ؟ و كيفية آخذ حل لميزاته أكثر من سلبياته و مدهقته ؟
 لتغير العالم من بعد بعد من الحزبا حشبا ، أنه يلا سبب كل الأزد
 سواء الرها له أو الكحاز ، و يتبع سرعة و سهولة التواصل مع المعلم .
 سواء بالصوره عن طريق الرسائل الصوتية أو الصورة و الصورة عن طريق
 أجهزة متعددة . مثل منصة Zoom و كذا عند طريق الرسائل أو بالذ
 متعددة كما البريد الإلكتروني ، كما يتبع الطلاب إدارة وقتهم
 و الكفاءة منه بطرق متعددة و لتعمل حوله على المادة التعليمية
 كلما احتاج إليها كما كما هنارة المسئلة ، كما يدفع الطلاب إلى
 الاعتماد على نفسه بشكل كامل ، و ليخبره على الكفاءة في جهازاته
 ، ما حشبا .

رغم أن الجائيات والبيانات التحليلية من بعد كثيرة - إلا أن هناك
 صعوبات و سلبيات كثيرة . تتمثلت أهمها عينا بـ أمان المواقع
 الإلكترونية . ناهيك عن مصداقية المعلومات ، كما أن اقتلاع الجهات
 المختصة بأن هذا النوع من التحليل يحتاج إلى سيرة حثية و هي ماثلة في
 حفظ الدول الوعيرة و ارتخاع الكلفة المادية لها في حين توفرها .
 و هو ما يندف ههنا الصعق التقنيا في بعض الدول . كما أن الجانب
 الدخيل في الأمر سلبي . فالسور و البرمجيات الدراسية بسبب عينا بالمتاحات
 الجارية و الحوار بين المتعلم و المعلم يخرق من هذا نتاجه العزدي
 المأخوذ إلى المعلم في السجاية و رد الطلاب أو المعلم على بعض
 الاستفسارات .

رغم الجائيات و سلبيات التحليلية من بعد و بالنتيجة إلى
 كامل . في أنه من تخير الطلبة على التحصيل العلمي و الشار
 أكثر من الكورسات و تحصيله للعز و قات العزدية بين الطلاب
 و إتاحتها كصك لينة الدراسة و العمل في نفس الوقت بالسنية
 لبعض الأساطير - إلا أن حقيقة أنه حولة من أمرا سلبيات خاصة
 بالسنية كإحباب الحقيقة الإلكترونية الوعيرة .

أخيرا ، الجائيات التحليلية من بعد قد خطت على صفحها سلبيات
 لكن بقيت أمور يجب أخذها بعين الاعتبار و ألا يكون لها التأثير السمي
 المطلوب و حقوق المساوات بين جميع الأبناء . حتى غير السنية
 الآتية اللازمة من شبكة الإنترنت و أجهزة متطورة خاصة
 بالسنية التي تتخطى الحاجز المادي و تخاطب في ريادة خالدة
 خاصة التحليلية من بعد . فكلوا حذرا من العجز و الوقت للتعلم
 و المعلم . و يفتح مجال جديد إلى الأبد .

Essay 09

التعليم عن بعد هو طريقة لتدريب الطلاب أو تلاميذ سنه يتي
 ارسال المحاضرات و الواجبات الدراسية عبر الانترنت وخصر الطلبة
 محاضراتهم من المنزل بكل من المتاحه لتدريبه . و نتيجة الحاجة
 كورونا ، انه تبنى استراتيجيات التعليم عن بعد ، المستعمدة عادة في
 الجامعات الكليات ، وفي المدارس ، الأساسية والثانوية أيضا .
 فالحد من المدارس مضطرة ، لأن لتوجيه فرعا تعليمي عن بعد وتطبيقه
 هذه الاستراتيجيات كفاءة وفعالية .

التعليم عن بعد سهل الكثير من الصعوبات ومان صعوبة وصل
 بين الطالب والمدرس ولعب دورا فعالا في الحد من تفشي فيروس كورونا ما
 وتراجع الحال ان شكل ملحوظ محارته بالدول ، لتباعدات التعليم
 مضموريا ، كما انها زادت محرفه ، الطالب بالبحث و هو من التجارب
 بالبرامج الناجحة ، والاستزادة منها لمعلومات قيمة ، أيضا زرع حس
 المسؤولية لدى الطالب حيث انه أصبح لمسؤول الأول عن محترفه وتوقفه
 التعليم عن بعد له شروطه أهمها استاء ، اكار ، التعليمي لصا
 المنهج بالانك و استاء ، لنية التحية التقنية ، لتي تعتمد على
 وجود الأجهزة الحديثة و قطره ، لانتنت و عدم انقطاع التيار
 الكهربائي و عطاء ، لفرصة ، احادله لجميع ، الطلبة في العالم وهذا
 ماقتعته الدول ، العربية . كما انه حظا ان التعليم عن بعد حقق
 فكة ، لاهتمام بالتكنولوجيا والبرمجية ، بالبرامج المختلفة و التفاعل
 معها و الثورة ، لتكنولوجيا ، البرمجية ، لتيزاد ان أهميتها في زمن كورونا
 و كة لك حرية ، التعليم ، الاستماع إلى معلومات لانهاية و غير حصريه
 بالبحث و المراسلة عبر الانترنت لذلك أصبح التعليم عن بعد من
 سمات العالم الحديث .
 وقد ساهم أيضا في رفع المستوى ، الثقافي والعلمي و أصبحا على لدى

مع الحدس، و الأوتار، والسيب، للرئيس، الذي أقدم على قتل
 لعلبي عن بعد، والذي هو وجود مشاكل في حوض موجة، كترنك
 وسرعتها، ومنه، كحكمة، أن سيء قدم، لهالة، شبكة، كترنك
 الخاصة، بالهاتف، كترنك، والتي لا تتجاوز سرعتها 33,6 كيلوبايت،
 إلا أن الكابل تحتاج لسرعة أكبر، لمشاهدة، كترنك، على شاشة
 حامل، ودون صوت، تقطيع، بالصورة، والصوت.

لقد أصبح، للعلبي، عن بعد، وسيلة، أساسية، خاصة مع
 ظهور، الخاصة، للملاحة، للتأقلم، والتكيف، مع، لاوهناع، كحالة، التي
 سيء، كحالة، في يومنا هذا، نتيجة، انتشار، فيروس، كوفيد 19.

Essay 10

١٥ التقدم التكنولوجي - لتحويل العالم لبارق جديدة هذا السوق غير الأتمتة
 إلا أن تقييداً على الجامعات ولابد التكنولوجيا دوراً قد افزع المهنة. (١٦)
 لا تحتاج إلى السفر لشراء أي شيء أو وصول إلى اللد. غير الأتمتة ليتم
 الحصول على ما تريد، فزاد هناك طرفين أو حوارية خاصة الأتمتة الأولى
 الجاهزة والثاني سلباً فالجانب الخال للتكيف، وهو يبيع الطلاب حريته
 أحياناً وهو الأتمتة وقتاً للعلم وله إمكانية الوصول السريع، فتمتعه
 العلم الأتمتة وتربطها للتفاعل مع النظراء لاستخدم قدرته وحققه.
 ثالثاً مشروع نزيان الأتمتة والتعليم فيها لا تكون بأسعار محولة مسبوقة
 وقد تستلزم كافة الطلاب كالمعرفات حين وساكورونا وضع الكثير من الناس في
 الأزمات المالية فقد قامت وظائف الشركات علقها أرباحاً لتلا فالاتمته
 تسهل على الطلاب بسبب التكلفة المنخفضة، والسعي الإيجابي الأتمتة أن تكون
 الأتمتة تحلوا منها لغيره إلا أن هناك من يتوجب سبباً وهذا العكس لتلا

في استمرته تقدم العديد من الجاهل حين ارتضى البراهنج في وقت صكها
ووقت الفهم المطلوب

السطر الثاني وهو سليمان التلميذ عن الاستمرته : اول شي وهو عن
التفاعل وبعدها لوجه وبعدها هم غير هي انها لا يفهم اي تفاعل حسي
الدهم من ان الاستاذة يوفون للفرد مرضه الصانته والهل في ومن
ويشبه اقترانها وثاني شي سليمان انه هناك حاده للتخلص فقط
لتح الفهم اليه استمرته فوجه وحين ان يحدث اي طاريون سابق اي ان
تلك شي وهو عدم الازمياط والافح بيبي فقا حسا المتاعضه ولا يشبه
الغاي بالتحريح والشبه السليله الرابع انها كثر نظريا من العله
غير مقاطع العنيدو والصم وليس بالتحريم . الشبه الخبير وهو ان
فرضه شباك تحمل جوده فكون التلمع عن الاستمرته فوصافه ليله او معدونه
للواصل .

ومن وجهه اخرى فان التلمع عن الاستمرته له سليمان وذلك لان
صعاده تعضا في التلمع المنطقي وان المعلومات الموقرة في الاستمرته
تختلف صا اي معلومات منطقيه اخرى لان الشبكه مستشه وعبر
صلايه منطقيه وصعبه و سيدارضا قضاء المنطقيين وقتا طويلا
فمن البحث عن الاستمرته عن مواضع مشه مما يؤدي الى عدم الاكتر مع
على الموضوع الاصليه وبعده يحصل من خلال البحث في الشبكه في الوصول المتعلم
اول معلومات لا تتفق وبعدها انه الينيه او الوميه وبعدها من معاداته
وتقاليه

وعبر الحاله لجه لوصف الفهم انه من السهل صفاته بالتلمع عن يوم التلميذ
لانه مريح لهم بالوقاه بسبب لياق احدي ويري الوجه الاخر انه غير متوثق
له ويجدون صوبه في تصغير الفهم بناء على بنحضره الفرد واهل افراد
المعديه المساعدة للليل المتاصل كما هو مذكور اعلاه كينسلا الاستمرا
الفهم المستحيله الناجح .

Essay 11

Name :

Group : Gp. 1

1- عال منا الحياييسير تدريصيا فوالا ثقافا الشهور على
 ثقافات بعضها الاجنبي والتماون في شتى العالما حيث
 اصبح التطور التكنولوجي والاعلميا من بين المحفزات لتعلم
 اللغات الاجنبية. ايضا الى زيادة انتشار وسائل التواصل
 الاجتماعي التي تسهل الاطلاع على حاجات وثقافات دول
 العالم. ولهدان تعلم عدة لغات عدما اللغة الامم قد اصبح
 امرا ضروريا وحمية لا مفر منها.
 هذا الحقيقتة هناك عدة اسباب تبرز ضرورة تعلم اللغات
 الاجنبية ومن بينها: التقدم والسياسة. اللذان يستعيان
 باقان اللغات المستقلة. اعلمى الاقل اللغة الانجليزية
 ريفتها الاكثر شيوعا واستعمالا في عصرنا الحالى. ثانياً يساهم
 الاشارة الى من لم يتعلم أكثر من لغة عند البحث عن عمل
 حيث اذا ايقان اجنبي من اللغات يزيد في احدث ما لى التوظيف
 خاصة في الشركات الحاسوبية او ذات ما علم عال في اللغات. ثالثاً من
 المصروفات خلق التكنولوجيا الحديثة فتجعل اللغة الجدية
 مثل الانجليزية. ولعدا توحي باقانها خاصة عند افاقتنا من منتج
 او اجهزة ذات صفة غير محلية والى عادة ما تكون صرفة بلعيل
 استعمال اللغة الانجليزية او الفرنسية مثلاً. كذلك فلا ضار
 ان اغلبت المراجع والكتب مدونة باللغة الانجليزية مما يستدعي
 على الطالب او الباحث افاقتنا وعدم اللجوء للترجمة كي لا يفقد
 محتوى او مفهوم هذه الكتب الكثير من معانيها.
 وفي الاخير كما حثنا رسولنا الكريم صلى الله عليه وسلم افاقتنا
 قوم. اصبى تعلم «بمعناه» انك لا مفر لنا من تعلم اللغات
 الاجنبية وتعلمها الاضبار القادمة لماقت صفة هذه الاضربة
 من منفعة شخصية وعالمية وانفتاح وافتحار على ثقافت
 الشعوب الاخرى.

Essay 12

لا شك في أن عصرنا الحالي هو عصر العولمة
 الشاملة في جميع المجالات ولها دين الثقافية والمناخية والعلوية
 والتكنولوجية حيث أصبح لتفتح الشعوب على بعضها البعض أثر
 ضروري لتشارك ثقافتهم ومتنوعاتهم العلمية والتكنولوجية
 وهذا لا يمكن تصحيحه إلا بالاعتناء بلغات حية متنوعة من أجل
 استعمالها في التواصل بين مختلف الشعوب حيث تتيح اللغة الإنجليزية
 على رأس قائمة هذه اللغات الحية التي يجب على الأستخدام بشكل
 درجاتهم العلمية والعرفية أن يتعلموا إتقانها من العرفية .

لا نجد تطرقنا لهذا الوضو الملحوظ حول ضرورة تعلم
 اللغات الأجنبية تشبع في سرد تفصيلي لأهم هذه الأسباب حيث
 يأتي في المقام الأول وخاصة في مجتمعنا الجزائري إيجاد طريقة
 للتواصل مع بقية الشعوب خاصة عندما نقرر الهجرة والاستقرار
 في بلد يوفر مستوى معيشي أفضل أو عندما نقرر (الرجوع)
 إلى أمتنا بلدان جديدة وثقافات أخرى فمن طرق السفر
 بالإضافة إلى أن تعلم لغة جديدة يمكن من الإطلاع على
 كتابات ومقالات بلغاتها الأصلية من دون الرجوع إلى الترجمة
 وما قد ينجم عنها من ذاتية وضعيف أتمتكم رؤيتهم الكتاب الأصلية
 كما أن تعلم اللغات الحية يجعل من الشخص مرحباً به من قبل أرباب
 العمل ويعطيه مميزات أكثر من ذلك بالإضافة إلى
 زيادة فرصه الإلتحاق بالجامعات العالمية من مختلف دول العالم
 بالإضافة إلى أن تعلم لغات حية أجنبية يؤهلنا بالزيارة المستوية
 الثقافية والعرفية والفكرية للشخص الذي يتعلمها مما يؤدي إلى زيادة
 درجة الوعي عندنا ونجرب على زيادة الوعي لدى الآخرين .

لا وفي المقام الثاني كما ذكرنا أن تعلم اللغات الحية قد أصبح
 أمر ضروري وحيوي لأن عصرنا الحالي هو عصر الإتصال والتواصل
 بين مختلف الأقطار من مختلف الدول لأن العالم أصبح يتحد
 يوماً بعد يوم وبصفة متسارعة ليصبح قرية صغيرة كونية

حيث تضمنت العقود السياسية بين الدول وتوقيع المعاهدات والاتفاقيات
 الدولية ويصبح العالم هو هذا الاتفاقية فقط باستهلاكية بلغة واحدة
 ولغويًا يجعل اللغة الإنجليزية لغة عالمية للتواصل بين الشعوب
 وهذا ليس دورها في إطار التسعة الدول لإنشاء نظام عالمي جديد
 وهذا النظام الذي أصبح أمر لا مفر منه وهذا وجب على كل شخص أو
 ما يسمى بالمواطن العالمي أن يأخذ بنظام اللغات العالمية الحديثة والتي
 تأتي اللغة الإنجليزية على رأسها من أجل ضمان بقائه في مستواه
 فكري بعدة عن تزييل البرجات القوية لهذا العتق العالمي الذي
 لا يرحم من لا يأخذ بنظام أموره.

Essay 13

Khechana Amna Gr 1

Anabic Version:

اللغة هيا مصطلح واسع وشامل . فكلما تغيرت اللغة بين المجتمعات ، فهناك تغير بين الأشخاص وتتمثل هذه التغيرات في اللهجات و كلنا أنواع اللغة ، إذ نجد اللغة المصرية و الشفهية . حاليا أو في هذه الأيام ، تعلم لغة جديدة أصبح عادة جد متداولة بين الناس لاستغلال وقت الفراغ ، مبر قد نجد فتاة في لندن العاشرة تجيد ثلاث لغات أو أكثر ، وقد نجد أيضا شيخا في الستينات يجيد عشر لغات أو أكثر . لذلك هذه الهواية أو الموهبة ليست محصورة بين فئة عمرية محددة . وبالتأطير ، أنا مع هذه العملية حيث أنها طالبتة فيا تشبهت الأدب الانجليزي في الجامعة احفز على تعلم اللغات اجنبية .

تعلم لغة جديدة يعزى توسيع أفق رؤيتك و كلنا معرفتك أكثر و أكثر لأنه ~~من~~ أثناء التعلم مستطع على ثقافة تلك اللغة والعادات التي يمارسها المتكلمون و كلنا أمثالهم الشخية وكيف يستعملون بعض العبارات . وبالتالي ، ستجد نفسك تستعمل أمثالهم وعباراتهم شيئا فشيئا وهذا ما يسهل لك التعبير عن نفسك ، افكارك و مشاعرك . و كذلك سيكون لك صزون لا ينضب من المصطلحات .

هذه العملية تطور و تهقل مهارات التواصل لديك . فحين تعلم لغة جديدة ستشعر بالقبول حول حداثتهم ، دولتهم أو حتى إن كانت قبيلة صغيرة . وستعرف بالتواصل بأحد من المعيلين و النظم معهم . و على هذا الأساس فإن تواصلك الاجتماعي سيتطور حتى مع أشخاص من نفس دولك . تعلم لغة جديدة هو وسيلة جد مهمة و عملية ~~ل~~ لغناء وقت الفراغ . حتى أن الأطباء النفسيون يظهرون بها كوسيلة لعلاج الأستجاب . قد يقول البعض إن تعلم لغة اجنبية يؤثر على لغتك و طريقة تفكيرك . أجل نوعا ما ولكن بطريقة ايجابية يؤثر على لغتك و حتى في تلك اللغة كلما و حتى نفسك تستعمل عباراتها فتتأثر

أنا اتعلم اللغة العوريتة فيه اوقات فراغى و احد نفسه
 استعمل عباراتهم اللطيفة و المؤدية يوما بعد يوم . وهذا
 تقدم رائع فيه الواقع . ولطرح لنتقول ان تعلم لغة جديدة
 يؤديه لشيان اللغة الأم فهذا مستحيل و مناف للمنتق .
 فكيف يصطو ~~ل~~ احد ما ان يسهل اول شيئا تعلمه منذ ولادته .

لاستخدام من ، تعلم لغة جديدة ينفع كل من الجانب
 النفسى و التثقيفى للسنتمس . فهذه العملية هي عبارة عن
 صلاح نعت ساهرتك ستخدمه أينما ما طار و وقت ما طار .

English Posttest Essays

Essay 01

Online learning is a form of distance learning that takes place over the internet and it includes online courses, exams and so on. Majority of people say it is beneficial whereas others argue that online education has disadvantages as well, so is it the online learning blessing or curse?

First, online learning is blessing because it is a convenience. A human can use a computer access and internet connection anywhere for example at home, out door, or even on bus. online learning can also allows people to learn in their own style at their own speed which helps them absorb more information. If someone needs more time with a particular topic, they can through it as slowly and as many times they need.

On the other hand, online learning has negative, to begin with The inability to have a face-to-face chat with your tutor is just one negative aspect of online learning. Difficulties seen to arise when student can't ask questions, receive verbal instructions or obtain immediate feedback from their tutors.

In my opinion I think that online learning is most of popular methods, this manner can develop and promote the education system, in addition to develop student's skills and competencies.

In conclusion, we said that online learning has advantages and negatives but we should work with this method because it is necessary for humans due to it relieves and accelerates a method to deepen themselves skills.

Essay 02

Recently the way of learning has changed and based on technology and online learning which become more comfy and easy at the majority of people than previous.

Online learning is not that difficult and different from the classroom classes because they both offer to us the same things, lessons and tasks, this thing make us study in comfy environment that we choosed. This method has many advantageous reasons. First of all, it is very convenience and this is important for people who live in a far places or in remote or rural areas and cannot attend to school.

On the other hand, this method offer to the majority of people who cannot get a chance to interact directly with the teachers, Moreover, it give them the chance to improve their skills and perform better averagely compared to the classroom. Also, it allow to us to look for more information and ideas regarding to the topic which is so different from classroom studies.

Another important thing which is Online learning make us more productive (and) in doing our researches and tasks in a very short time also, the teaching techniques are

different from the classroom teaching, because we mainly use videos, activities and researches to enhance our thoughts and skills.

Finally, every thing have an advantages and disadvantages as online learning for example: in school we learn how to make friends, discuss, compete between colleagues and be patient and benefit from our mistakes. Also online courses can not cope with many of students ~~they~~ that they try to have the lessons and joins the online classes.

So conclude, online learning has both cons and pros in our life; So, in my opinion it is necessary for us to improve our capabilities and skills in the use of technology and especially the online learning.

Essay 03

Since our century (21st) has witnessed a huge and remarkable development, especially in technology and inventions. Online studying is one of the (most) domains that have become largely flourished, in other word it has become a modern approach that eliminated the need for the student and the teacher to be at the same place together.

To begin with, people are in search for many ways of learning and one of the most popular methods is online learning. Studying using the Internet can be helpful for many reason. one reason is that it is more cheaper than the traditional way, so student (it) can take their classes without paying any money, this way they are allowed to use some free websites and applications. another reason is that it allows students to attend their classes from any location of their choice. such as: the bus, home, out doors, &.....

First of all, at school students learn how to make new relationships like friendship, they became more sociable and more open to deal (to) with each other. Second of all, class is the place where the child learn how to compete with his colleagues, also when students spend most of their day in class they learn how to be more patient and the right way to manage time.

Based on my experience as a student who is doing his classes online, it is more convenient because sometime I don't have any day time to study, so eventually I will be obliged to do my homeworks and attend my lessons at night, also, considering the distance between my home and my university (at) and the time it takes me to arrive at time and attend, I prefer to stay at home and follow my lessons easily. In addition considering this disease (Corona Virus Covid-19) and to avoid being exposed to it it is better to stay at home and study then to go out and eventually risk your self. This method has helped me and made it easy for me. because (it) all it takes is an Internet Connection and a Computer.

Essay 04

Online studying has existed for a quite long period in some parts of the world. People who have issues attending classes choose to study at home, which would serve their educational experiences way better. People graduated, got job offers, started working and they were home-educated, as there are others who attended schools, yet could not help it till graduation. Online studying has happened for the first time in Algeria as a consequence of the pandemic that the world is facing so far. Thus some people say that online learning was not a blessing as other think.

First of all, attending online classes means spending longer time than the usual in front of a laptop or whatever device the person uses, which may lead to some issues, such as: headaches, ear issues, eyestrain, bad posture and other physical issues, and it may even cause insomnia. Another point to be discussed is that a blue screen can never replace a teacher. People in general learn a lot just by being around others; unfortunately, online learning take that advantage that students might have by simply being around other students which opens some kind of interactions, discussions and debates that develops their critical thinking. Besides, it creates a lot of distraction for many people and end up scrolling up and down on different applications, watching movies and series, playing video games or listening to music instead of learning. In this way, it will be a waste of time, the time that should be used

to acquire some knowledge and learn something beneficial.

Second of all, online learning requires a high internet connection which is not available in our country, and without that, teachers will not be able to go live for virtual learning on different platforms, such as Zoom application. There are many issues that students and teachers might face when it comes to online learning, and one of many is technical issues as many people are not aware of technologies and computer.

On the other hand, if we look at online learning from a different angle, it is not at all as bad as it seems to be. On the daily basis, people go to university and follow a specific schedule for everyone; though, when it comes to online learning, students may log into the course material whenever it suits their own schedule. As long as they make a good schedule for their learning, know how to manage their time in a good way, and they are disciplined enough to follow it, there would be no doubt that online studying gives the students not only the ability to manage their studying schedule, yet to get themselves other occupations.

The main reason for making such a decision and start taking online classes instead of going to schools, colleges, universities was the spread of the recent virus. This decision was shared by almost the whole world, so that the authorities can take control over this lethal virus. Imagine there were one person who has the virus in a crowded class such as ours. Going to schools or whatever institutions under such circumstances would have caused

a bigger catastrophe. We would have seen our fates for sure.

Studying online is still a better decision than dropping the whole year. There are many people who are visual learners more than listeners and vice versa, depending on how the person likes to study or which method of learning is effective in their case. Online learning gives the students the right to choose what works better for them, have the time to figure what is best for their learning and helps to develop their learning skills.

In conclusion, online learning has both advantages and disadvantages, yet this doesn't prove anything. Since, at the period of the spread of covid-19, all that one could think of is surviving. The human race was about to vanish and I personally see that online learning was indeed a good decision that was taken by the government under such circumstances. Because, we had no options except for carrying on studying like nothing really happened and face our fate, dropping the year and wait till everything go back to normal, or starting online learning as the government takes control of the virus.

Essay 05

Nowadays, online learning turns out to be more and more practiced. Especially on the Covid-19 confinement period. Many traditional universities started to share their courses online for free. It represents an easy and comfortable method to achieve knowledge in almost every field, from law and accounting, to human sciences, such as psychology and sociology or history. Even if online learning is one of the most new methods of learning but it has not only advantages but also disadvantages.

Online methods of education are advantageous for many reasons. First of all, it is very convenient. A human can use a computer access and Internet connection anywhere, for example, at home, outdoor or even on a bus. This benefit is especially important for people who live in remote or rural areas and can't relocate or commute to school. However, it is also useful for parents who want to study young children at home or any student who prefers to work in the comfort of their own home or coffee. Moreover, online learning is more cheaper than traditional classroom academic or trade course. These courses are unpaid. Students can save money. For example, they do not have to pay for course of fees. Also, online learning is so effective because students can finish their homework quickly, leaving them the freedom to choose the time for study, and there is more time left for hobbies or for finding a job.

On the other hand, online learning has the negative aspects. To begin with, limited social interaction prevents to study how much time an individual wants. Always online programs give people a possibility of limited to use their programme. Later students will have to pay money

if they want to continue a course further. **Furthermore**, the only methods of communication of online learning is through e-mail, chat room or discussion groups. People can not interact with others face to face. It is the unnatural communication way. Humans do not see and feel relationship with classmates and feedback. **So**, students can not learn how to make friends, be patient, get rid of disappointment, and especially to compete. Competition between colleagues can be very stimulating and students will only benefit from it. Online learning cannot offer all that. **Another disadvantage** refers to the fact that online courses can not cope with thousands of students that try to join discussions. **Also**, it can be difficult, if it is meant for disciplines that involve practice.

In Conclusion, online manner of education has both pros and cons. **In my mind**, online learning is necessary for humans due to it ~~rel~~ relieves and accelerates a method to deepen to themselves skills. But It should be seen as a complement and extension of classical forms of learning. Not even the best online course can fully replace the personal contact with a teacher or the human relationships that develop in a group. **So**, traditional classes should not be replaced with online learning.

Essay 06

The spread of the new Coronavirus has put the whole world in a very hard situation, not only with the need for face masks, but also with the quarantine situation in a lot of countries. In order to continue the educational process, many Institutions adopted the "new normal" or the use of online learning. However, I think this type of learning can be a blessing and a curse at the same time.

The first obvious advantage of e-learning is safety. Online learning allows us to take classes without breaking the social distance restrictions or even leaving our houses which will reduce the possibility of the virus transmission.

Another major benefit of online education is that the students have more flexibility to choose the best time to study, for example, if you are a night person you will not need to wake up super early to catch the bus and go to university, in fact, you can study anytime anywhere.

A third positive thing about this type of learning is it encourages shy people to work and participate because they will feel more confident in their comfortable home environment.

However, online learning also has disadvantages. The challenge in applying this type of learning is the fact that not all students can go online. Some students do not have their own laptop or smartphone, others do not have wifi at home and they have been relying on cyber cafes to type their research papers given in a normal university day.

Another disadvantage is the huge amount of distractions because

it lacks the classroom setting where the teacher can control the students' actions, moreover, you can be distracted by almost everything from a sudden loss of connection to your mother yelling or simply leaving you work to play online games or check your social media accounts.

While every learning type has its pros and cons, it is clear that with the current pandemic and the developing technology online learning is forming an important part of the educational process. I think we can make the best of it with some dedication and responsibility from both students and teachers.

Essay 07

"Tell me and I forget, teach me and I may remember, involve me and I learn". Nowadays traditional forms of learning have been developed new technologies. Consequently more and more people are choosing to improve skills using online learning. So, is it a blessing or a curse?

Online learning is the future of education and it is happening right now all around us. First of all, being physically present in a classroom isn't the only learning option anymore with the rise of internet and technologies. At least, nowadays you have to access to a quality education whenever and wherever you want because research has shown that students in online learning performed better than those receiving face to face instruction, but it has to be right. Second, studying online teaches you vital time management skills, which makes finding a good work easier. Moreover, with online learning; your learners can access content any where and any time. They don't need to take time out from their job to attend classes. As a conclusion, Online learning is the more effective option for students to rise the quality of education all over the world.

Online Learning has always a long phenomena to those students who don't have internet especially who live in countryside. On the one hand, In an online learning, no one can hear you scream. And that causes discomfort for some online students. On the other hand, studying online alone with only the computer can be terrifying. Since, you will not get remarks from your teacher also of no commanding presence at the front of classroom pleading for everyone to listen. Next, you are responsible for your learning

The teacher can't force it on you. or and make you study
he just share a little knowledge and experience. Zoo, he show
you a few tools and hope get it. Finally,

In opinion, it's much better situation for the student.
By the time a student enters a community college, they want to be
independent. They don't want someone telling them what to do
all the time. they want their freedom. (at least, that's how I was
when I went to college.)

To conclude, the idea of online classes during this
period of Covid-19 is definitely a good one, but as it seem that
there are many dangers attached with it. So, it is necessary
to take all the precautions which are required. The students
who are very young for theme it is the responsibility of the teachers
and parents to keep them safe while online and also to educate
them safe so that they can gain the best of benefits from it.

Essay 08

Conventional learning is evolving with the help of computers and online technology. New ways of learning are now available, and improved access is one of the important benefits available. People all around the world are experiencing improved mobility as a result of the ~~free~~ freedom and potential that online learning provides and as academic institutions and learning organisations adopt online learning technologies and remote-access learning, formal academic education is becoming increasingly legitimate. This essay argues the contemporary benefits of online learning, and that these benefits significantly outweigh the issues, challenges and disadvantages of online learning.

Online learning is giving people new choices and newfound flexibility with their personal learning and development. Whereas before, formal academic qualifications could only be gained by participating in a full-time course on-site, the internet has allowed institutions to expand their reach and offer recognized courses on a contact-partial or totally virtual basis. Institutions can do so with

relatively few extra resources, and for paid courses, this constitutes excellent value, and the student benefits with greater educational access and greater flexibility to learn and get qualified even when there lots of other personal commitments to deal with.

The biggest argument that raises to doubt over online learning is the quality of online courses in comparison to conventional courses. Are such online courses good enough for employers to take notice? The second biggest argument is the current reality that faces many people from disadvantaged backgrounds, despite the improvement made in this area in recent years - they do not have the level of basic ~~course~~ access needed to benefit from online learning.

There is another argument that is very difficult to dispel, and that is response of different types of students to the online learning paradigm. Evidence shows that there are certain groups of students that benefit from college distance learning much more than ^{other} groups. In essence students must be highly motivated and highly disciplined ^{if} they are to learn effectively in their own private environment.

Essay 09

Many sectors, including the education sector, have been slow to adopt technology. There have always been concerns on the effectiveness of online communication, work and education compared to their traditional counterparts. It has long been regarded that in-person interaction is best, but has this notion been accurate?

Covid-19 has forced the hand of many to adopt new ways of communicating, working and learning. Zoom and other online platforms have allowed many to enjoy virtual interaction with little impediment. Even older generations, with a little training, were able to pick up the new technology relatively easily.

The blessing of online education:

There are many benefits of online education. Technology has come a long way, and now there are educational technologies that allow for high quality learning. Despite the general dogma being that most people are visual learners, doing seems to be the best way to solidify theoretical concepts in a memorable way. Examples can be drawn to software that allows students to manipulate certain systems and see immediate effects on screen. There is also some efficiency that comes about from reduced travel. This allows for greater mental clearance and time to prepare for material.

Moreover, online education has paved a path for students that cannot attend school in the future to still join their classmates in learning from the comfort of their own homes. This may help improve attendance and academic success. Much like university style learning management systems, the push for online education for high school students has accelerated online systems that can help students stay organized and on top of their homework. The use of these tools can also streamline plagiarism checks and can help prevent cheating.

The curse of online education:

Kids are very impressionable, especially in their early years. Interaction through technology is not the same as face to face interaction, and it has been documented that such interaction in large amounts leads to antisocial behaviour and anxiety when engaging in the real world.

This, in addition to the already online skewed reality of teenagers can lead to a generational lack of empathy and emotional intelligence.

It is also well observed that Technology reduces the quantity and quality of engagement and distraction when facing a screen than when you are in a classroom. There are more excuses that can be made and quite frankly the stakes are low for constructive interaction. Perhaps something that is neglected when making the decision to study online rather than in-person are the friendship and often lifelong bonds that are created.

Essay 10

Recently traditional forms of learning have been developed new technologies. Consequently, people start using internet and the modern available technologies to master new skills and gain knowledge. Majority of people say that it is beneficial whereas others argue that online learning has disadvantages as well.

Online learning advantageous for many reasons. First of all it is considered as a blessing because of flexibility so students can study wherever feasible in the appropriate environment with internet access and they have the freedom as well because they are not tied down to a fixed schedule that's why most of people prefer this mode of learning as it gives them power and makes them feel responsible over how they will organize their time to do different projects.

Second thing Online education reduces costs because it costs less due to variety of reasons for example: there is no costs for transportation, or to buy the materials. those costs don't affect the Online student who only needs a phone and the internet access.

Thirdly it is very beneficial for less intimidating students who are less or who are not comfortable at all speaking in classroom or in public for them it can be much easier to share thoughts with others. also you can ask your teacher anytime you want because teachers can also hop online at night or during intermissions, while at university talking to a teacher after class is very challenging with too many students waiting for attention.

apart from numerous advantages the online method of the study also presents certain disadvantages and considered as a curse. the various risks can be listed as follows:

firstly an Unprecedented rise in screen-time due to long hours of online classes. students are forced to use their laptops and their phones for long hours which harms their eyes and it is harmful to health.

In the second place, Network issues which most of Algerian students faced and due to connectivity they miss their classes.

furthermore, the lack of face to face interaction so the absence of face to face communication makes students feel lazy to study also they may not have their problems and questions solved by teacher or their classmates as in the traditional class. The physical presence of the teacher keeps students excited to learn more. as a result, it makes it easy to procrastinate.

moreover, Unfortunately, one of the biggest disadvantages is cheating through many methods. students cannot be directly observed during assessments. making cheat detection during online assessments is more complicated than for traditional testing procedures.

as a result Online education is an actual blessing since you can get an education sitting at home but it cannot and will never replace the traditional learning which makes the knowledge gets stuck in your head. for me Online education is a curse while traditional learning holds high values than Online learning. Especially with the face to face aspect which enhances skills development among learners.

Essay 11

Learning (distance) is a growing phenomenon around the world and many people are interested to know about it. Some encourage it but others are against each one has his personal point of view and his own judgments.

Starting by whom are with this kind of learning, they encourage it because any one can learn from anywhere and any time. They can easily get access to course material if they are citizens of other countries. It offers flexibility of time it means students can learn at any time which is suitable for them. Learners who don't prefer communication with others because may be they are not sociable or outgoing each one has his own personal features. It is very good for those who work it won't create obstacles for them to achieve their job. I personally appreciate it it is really a gift. It helped me a lot in this specific period of "Corona virus".

For other people it is not beneficial because they may miss human aspect. They are only engaging with the technology machine. social mingle with their friends and the enjoyment of normal college life. Those who have any doubt have to clear themselves without taking help from teachers or friends. Another factor which is lack of seriousness, competition and learning environment... they may face jobless because job markets do not accept online degree. Not all know can be learnt or taught through distance. format of courses not suitable for every one. Internet availability.

I really adore it personally it was very beneficial because I

I faced annoying obstacles last year because I didn't arrive at a suitable coherence between job and studying. I wish this later condition "Corona virus" may be a good background in our life to make our achievements better and more practical not just to be victims of this illness.

■ Concluding all this it may be harmful for some and beneficial for others but it is still a field of research and studies for pedagogues and researchers who try to make it better for future generation. It is really phenomenon of modernism.

Résumé

Cette étude vise à explorer l'interférence rhétorique négative que la langue maternelle des élèves exerce sur leurs productions écrites en langue étrangère. Cette étude examine l'utilisation des signes de métadiscours, comme caractéristique rhétorique essentiel, dans les essais argumentatifs en arabe et en anglais chez les étudiants de la troisième année du Département des Lettres et de la Langue Anglaise à l'Université de Abbas Laghrour, Khenchela, Algérie. Cela se fait à travers une analyse rhétorique contrastive qui cherche à déterminer l'effet de la langue maternelle sur l'utilisation des signes du métadiscours, ce qui conduirait à une déviation du style rhétorique par rapport aux normes d'écriture en anglais. Ainsi, on émet l'hypothèse que les différences rhétoriques entre l'arabe et l'anglais ont un impact négatif sur l'écriture en anglais et que l'instruction des étudiants à l'utilisation appropriée des signes de métadiscours améliorera la qualité de leur écriture. Pour tester la validité de ces hypothèses ; Trois outils de recherche ont été utilisés : un questionnaire mené auprès d'une soixantaine d'étudiants de l'échantillon sélectionné, une recherche expérimentale consistant en un pré-test suivi d'une phase de traitement et d'un post-test en plus d'un groupe de discussion. Les résultats obtenus ont montré que les différences rhétoriques entre la langue maternelle et la langue étrangère entraînaient des difficultés d'écriture et une déviation du style rhétorique, et ont confirmé qu'éduquer les étudiants sur les différences dans l'utilisation des signes du métadiscours conduit inévitablement à améliorer leur performance écrite dans l'essai argumentatif en particulier. Cette amélioration a été mesurée par la comparaison d'échantillons indépendants et appariés du 't-test' du groupe témoin et celle du groupe expérimental. Les résultats du post-test du groupe expérimental ont démontrés un progrès statistique significatif par rapport le groupe témoin grâce à l'utilisation appropriée des signes du métadiscours appris lors de la phase de prise de conscience thérapeutique.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة الى استكشاف التداخل البلاغي السليبي الذي تمارسه اللغة الأولى للطلاب على مهاراتهم الكتابية باللغة الاجنبية. حيث تبحث هذه الدراسة في استخدام علامات ما وراء الخطاب ، باعتباره سمة بلاغية أساسية ، في المقالات الجدلية باللغتين العربية والإنجليزية لطلاب السنة الثالثة بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة عباس لغرور،خنشلة، الجزائر. و هذا من خلال إلى اجراء تحليل بلاغي مقارنة يسعى إلى تحديد تأثير اللغة الام على استخدام علامات ما وراء الخطاب و الذي من شأنه ان يؤدي إلى انحراف في الأسلوب البلاغي عن معايير الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية. وبالتالي ، يُفترض أن الاختلافات البلاغية بين العربية والإنجليزية لها تأثير سلبي على الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية وأن توعية الطلاب حول الاستخدام المناسب لعلامات ما وراء الخطاب ستحسن جودة كتابتهم. لاختبار صحة هذه الفرضيات؛ تم استخدام ثلاث أدوات بحث رئيسية: استبيان تم إجراؤه على ستين طالبًا من العينة المختارة ، بحث شبه تجريبي متكون من اختبار قبلي متبوع بمرحلة علاجية واختبار بعدي بالإضافة إلى حوار مجموعة التركيز. أظهرت النتائج المتحصل عليها أن الفروق البلاغية بين اللغة الأولى واللغة الأجنبية تسبب صعوبات في الكتابة وانحراف في الاسلوب البلاغي، وأكدت أن توعية الطلاب حول الاختلافات في توظيف علامات ما وراء الخطاب يؤدي حتما إلى تحسين أدائهم الكتابي ، خاصة في المقال الجدلي. حيث تم قياس هذا التحسن بالاعتماد على مقارنة العينة المستقلة لاختبار t-test للمجموعة الضابطة والاختبار البعدي الفردي التجريبي. كانت نتائج الاختبار البعدي للمجموعة التجريبية ، إلى حد بعيد ، أعلى من نظرائهم بسبب دراستهم للاستخدام المناسب لعلامات ما وراء الخطاب خلال المرحلة العلاجية التوعوية.