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College of Arts



**Department of English
Language & Literature**

Transitions in the Writing of Learners of English as a Foreign Language: a Corpus-based Analysis

**A Thesis submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of MA
in Applied English Language Studies**

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Dedication

To the sun and moon of my life, my lovely parents

Mohammed and Nawal

Abstract

The study investigates the differences in the use of metadiscourse markers in the writings of upper-intermediate and master learners of English. It aims to investigate how language proficiency influences the use of metadiscourse markers, the relation between the number of tokens and the types used, and the types used by both levels. The methodology used is analysis of a corpus of a random sample of the conclusion section of 40 students' writings of two different levels of education (upper intermediate level represented by 20 undergraduate students and advanced level represented by 20 MA students). The data were analyzed using Stephen Bax's Text Inspector software. One important and possible contribution that the study is expected to make is that the results can be used as a source of information about the student's competence in using transitions and as a source for further studies. The results demonstrated that the number of both types and tokens is higher in the upper-intermediate than the master level. However, the master level students were more creative and diversified in using different types with the same meaning, indicating high level of language proficiency.

Declaration

I declare that this work, which I submitted to the University of Bahrain, contains my own investigation. This research has not been previously accepted for any degree and is not currently considered for any other degree at any other university.

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Table of Contents

Topic		Page No.
Defense Committee's Approval		A
Dedication		B
Abstract		C
Acknowledgments		D
Table of Contents		E
List of Tables		H
List of Figures		I
CHAPTER ONE		
Introduction		
1.0	Introduction	1
1.1	Statement of the Research Problem	4
1.2	Research Questions	4
1.3	Objectives of the Study	5
1.4	Significance of the Study	5
1.5	Definitions of Terms	5
1.6	Organization of the Thesis	5
1.7	Summary	6
CHAPTER TWO		
Theoretical Framework and Literature Review		

2.0	Introduction	7
2.1	Theoretical framework	7
2.1.1	Concept of Metadiscourse Markers	7
2.1.2	Models of Metadiscourse Markers	8
2.2	Review of Literature	20
2.3	Summary	24
CHAPTER THREE Methods and Procedures		
3.0	Introduction	25
3.1	Research Design	25
3.2	Research Population and Sample	25
3.3	Research Instruments	25
3.4	Data Collection and analysis Procedure	26
3.5	Summary	26
CHAPTER FOUR Findings and Discussion		
4.0	Introduction	27
4.1	Results of the Upper Intermediate Level	28
4.1.1	Interactional Metadiscourse Markers	30
4.1.2	Interactive Markers	35
4.2	Results of the Master Level	43
4.2.1	Interactive Markers	44

4.2.2	Interactional Markers	51
4.3	Comparison Between the Upper-intermediate and Master Writings	56
4.3.1	Interactive Markers	58
4.3.2	Interactional markers	68
CHAPTER FIVE		
Conclusion		
	Conclusion	77
REFERENCES		
ABSTRACT TRANSLATED TO ARABIC		

List of Tables

No.	Table	Page No.
1	Vande Kopple's (1985) Model of Metadiscourse	9
2	Vande Kopple's (1997) Metadiscourse Taxonomy	12
3	Crismore's 1993 Revised Model	13
4	Hyland's (2005) Metadiscourse Taxonomy	14
5	Discourse Functions of Ädel's (2010) Taxonomy	18
6	Statistics and Lexical Profile	27
7	Metadiscourse Markers of the Upper-intermediate Level	28
8	Metadiscourse Markers of Master Level.	43
9	Total of Metadiscourse Markers Used in Upper-intermediate and Master Writings	57
10	The Interactive Markers Used in Upper-intermediate and Master Writings	58
11	The Interactional Markers Used in Upper-intermediate and Master Writings	68

List of Figures

No.	Table	Page No.
1	Types of Interactive Markers in Master and Upper-intermediate Levels	59
2	Frequencies of Interactive Markers Used by Upper-intermediate and Master Levels	60
3	Types of Interactional Markers in the Master and Upper-intermediate Levels	69
4	Frequencies of Interactional Markers Used by Upper-intermediate and Master Levels	70

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.0. Introduction

Writing holds a unique position among language skills, mostly due to its inherent literariness. Jayakaran (2003) states that writing is a system of human intercommunication by means of conventional visible marks. In line with Jayakaran, Rogers (2005) states that writing is the use of graphic marks to represent specific linguistic utterances. It is based on the history of human life that, a long time ago, writing was used as a device to record speech. As time goes by, writing develops as a crucial device for communication, with many features that help people understand each other easily. When comparing the writing process to spoken interaction, it becomes evident that written interaction places higher demands on the text due to the absence of quick feedback as a guiding tool. The writer must consider the potential responses of the readers and generate a written piece that fits Grice's (1975) Cooperative Maxims. Based on these principles, the writer is obligated to try to produce a piece of writing that is clear, appropriate, veracious, helpful, attractive, and memorable. Nevertheless, acquiring proficiency in writing is a challenging task.

The act of writing encompasses more than just acquiring vocabulary and understanding the grammatical structure of a language, or the mechanical manipulation of form. It can be an art form that

necessitates education and practice in several techniques to achieve good written communication. The act of writing, especially in one's mother tongue, is not merely a process of transcribing spoken words onto paper. It encompasses more than a mere mechanical reproduction of oral communication. It is not that easy for those who write in their first language as well as those who learn English as a second language.

Proficiency in writing is highly essential for those who are acquiring English as a second language. However, due to English not being their primary language, many university students may encounter errors in their writing. According to Brown (2004), writing is considered to be the most intricate language skill due to its multifaceted nature. It encompasses various components that necessitate mastery, including spelling, syntax, and punctuation, as well as the coherence and arrangement of ideas. Among the five components, the task of organizing ideas proves to be challenging.

The concept of cohesion refers to the semantic connection that is present within a given text (Halliday and Hasan, 1990:4). According to Halliday and Hasan (1990:7-8), coherence relations are not primarily concerned with structures. However, it is important to note that coherent links can be observed within a sentence as well as between sentences. Furthermore, cohesion is observed when the interpretation of a certain element within the discourse is dependent on another element. In the field

of writing, a text can be considered of high quality when its concepts are well structured, interconnected, and cohesively contribute to the overall unity of the paragraph.

When we write, it is common to write at two distinct stages of writing. The first stage includes the propositional content, which serves as the primary focus of the text. Meanwhile, the second level contains a metadiscourse that aids readers in comprehending, planning, interpreting, and navigating the written material. The use of rhetorical devices, specifically metadiscourse markers, is regarded as a noteworthy and important feature of writing.

Metadiscourse, in its broad meaning, is rooted in the perspective that writing is a form of social interaction where writers express their opinions and convictions by actively inserting themselves into their discourse (Hyland, 2005). Metadiscourse features are rhetorical devices used to enhance the reader-friendliness of a text, thereby facilitating effective communication between the writer and the audience. The concept of metadiscourse was initially introduced in the field of applied linguistics approximately twenty years ago and has since received consistent attention from scholars.

Metadiscourse refers to the act of a text's producer providing comments during the process of speaking or writing. This concept holds significant relevance in contemporary discourse analysis and language

teaching. The term "metadiscourse" relates to the idea that writers need to acquire the skills to effectively structure their writings, actively involve readers, and convey their attitudes toward the content and the intended audience (Hyland, 2005a, p. ix). According to Hyland and Tse (2004), it offers an exploration of how writers express their perspective towards the content and audience of a document by presenting themselves in their discourse (p. 156).

1.1. Statement of the Research Problem

Transitions are very important in making the text more cohesive for the reader, and for some writers, this is considered a challenging stage where they become confused about what the best transitions are to be used in their writings, and some of them may misuse them.

1.2. Research Questions

This study aims to provide empirical answers to the following questions:

- What types of metadiscourse markers are used by the upper-intermediate learners of English in their writings, compared to the advanced learners, the master students?
- How language proficiency affect the use of metadiscourse markers?
- How does the use of tokens relate to the use of types of metadiscourse markers?

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The first aim of this study is to investigate how language proficiency influences the use of metadiscourse markers; to investigate the relation between the number of tokens and the types used, and to investigate the types used by both levels by comparing them.

1.4. Significance of the Study

The significance of the study lies in the fact that it will fill in a knowledge gap, as there is no account of such a study conducted in Bahrain before in the literature review. Another contribution is that the result can be used as a source of information about the students' competence in using transitions and as a source for further studies.

1.5. Definitions of Terms

Endophorics: used to refer to data in other parts of the text. *Hedges*: used to open dialogue. *Boosters*: used to emphasize certainty or close dialogue. *Attitude markers*: used to express the writer's attitude. *Engagement markers*: used to build relations with the reader. *Frame markers*: used to refer to acts, sequences, or stages

1.6. Organization of the Thesis

This thesis is structured in five chapters, of which this introduction is the first. The introduction chapter provides a brief background information. It presents the research problem, followed by the research questions and the objectives of the study as well. After that comes the

significance of the study. Finally, the definitions of the most important terms in the research are provided. The second chapter contains the literature review, which offers the theoretical framework and previous studies. The third chapter provides a detailed description of the research methodology. It starts by describing the research design and then explaining the research sample and the instruments used. The chapter then ends by providing the procedure for the collection of the data, as well as the data analysis. The fourth chapter presents the results and discussion, as well as the answers to the questions. Finally, chapter five chapter provides the conclusion and summary of all that has been discussed previously, with recommendations for future studies, implications, and limitations of the research.

1.7. Summary

This chapter provides a comprehensive summary of the research topic, including the problem statement, primary research questions, and aims. Furthermore, this chapter provides insight into the significance of the present study, followed by the primary definitions of the related terms.

CHAPTER TWO

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

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Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

2.0. Introduction

This chapter offers an in-depth overview of the theoretical framework of the topic of study as well as a review of previous research relevant to the main study.

2.1. Theoretical Framework

2.1.1. Concept of Metadiscourse Markers

The topic of metadiscourse appears to have gained significant attention, while its definition remains complex and open to various interpretations. The word was initially presented by Zelig Harris, a prominent structural linguist, in 1959. However, it was not until the mid-1980s that the phrase gained significant attention in the field of applied linguistics due to the contributions of Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore (1989), and Williams (1981). Metadiscourse has been consistently acknowledged as essential for persuasive writing (Hyland, 1998b; Thompson, 2001). Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993) define metadiscourse as linguistic devices that assist readers in organizing, interpreting, and evaluating material presented. Furthermore, metadiscourse markers can be defined as a term that refers to how writers use language to customize their arguments to their audience's requirements and expectations.

Central to the concept is the perspective that language serves not only as a means of referring to the external world and facilitating the exchange of diverse information but also as a tool for self-reference. It includes elements that aid readers in structuring, comprehending, and assessing the content being communicated. Metadiscourse pertains to the usage of language with the intention of accommodating the readers or listeners, taking into account the assessment of how someone might effectively facilitate their understanding and assimilation of his message. It is a recipient design filter that aids in clarifying the writer's intended message by providing a continuous remark on it. The significance of drawing attention to the text demonstrates the writer's awareness of the reader and their specific requirements for further explanation, clarification, direction, and engagement.

2.1.2. Models of Metadiscourse Markers

A number of models for classifying metadiscourse markers have been proposed based on function. Metadiscourse markers have two functions. The first function examines the textual level, which establishes coherence among the concepts within the texts in order to identify conjunctive, additive, adverbial, causal, and temporal connections present in the text (Schiffrin et al., 2003, p. 55). The second function relates to the interpersonal level, which signifies the writer/speaker's emotions toward the subject matter of the text or the text itself (Bax et al., 2019, p. 3). As

previously mentioned, scholars in the field of metadiscourse hold varying perspectives on the definitions, theoretical foundations, and bounds, both external and internal, of metadiscourse.

Consequently, they develop models that encompass distinct categories and functions of metadiscourse markers. Analysts that follow either a broad or narrow approach in defining and classifying metadiscourse have proposed taxonomies that are consistent with their respective research objectives. This section begins by examining various classifications of metadiscourse, which are categorized based on a broad approach. These taxonomies include those proposed by Vande Kopple (1985, 1997), Crismore et al. (1993), and Hyland (2005). Additionally, there are more specific taxonomies within the narrow approach, such as the one developed by Ädel (2006, 2010).

Table 1 Vande Kopple's (1985) Model of Metadiscourse - adapted from
Al-Rubaye (2015)

Metadiscourse Categories	Definitions and Examples
-----------------------------	--------------------------

Text connectives	The primary objective is to facilitate an easy reading experience for the audience and help them construct accurate representations of the text in their memory, such as: - Sequences - Logical or temporal relationship - Reminders - Announcements
Code glosses	Help the readers comprehend the intended meanings of elements inside written works.
Illocution markers	The reader should be provided with clear indications of the specific speech or discourse act performed at different points in the texts, such as (I hypothesize that, in summary, we claim that).
Validity markers	Express our perspective on the validity of the propositional content we convey. Several examples include: - Hedges (perhaps, may) - Emphatics (undoubtedly) - Attributors (according to..)
Narrators	Let readers know who said or wrote something.

Attitude markers	Allow individuals to express their perspectives on the propositional content, (happily, luckily, unfortunately, etc.)
Commentary	A direct address to the readers creates an impression of an implicit interaction between the author and the audience.

As presented in Table 1 Vande Kopple (1985) proposed a taxonomy of metadiscourse that includes two different categories, textual and interpersonal. Textual metadiscourse refers to the manner in which individual propositions are connected in order to establish a coherent textual structure. On the other hand, interpersonal metadiscourse allows writers to convey their different personalities and responses to the propositional content. According to Kopple (1985), text connectives and code glosses were classified as examples of textual metadiscourse. On the other hand, validity markers, narrators, illocution markers, attitude markers, and comments are categorized as interpersonal metadiscourse. In 1997, Vande Kopple updated his taxonomy of 1985 by dropping validity markers, introducing epistemology markers, and including modality markers and evidential markers as their own sub-categories. (See table 2)

Table 2 Vande Kopple's (1997) metadiscourse taxonomy

Interpersonal Metadiscourse	Textual Metadiscourse
Illocution markers, such as (we claim that, to sum up, for example, etc.)	Text connectives, such as (first, next, at the same time, with regard to, etc.)
Epistemology markers: commonly employed to express the writer's position regarding the epistemological nature of the conveyed referential material, such as (not unlikely, perhaps, I believe that, it sounds like, etc.)	Code glosses, such as (in other words)
Attitude markers, such as (I agree, surprisingly)	
Commentaries, such as (you, we)	

Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993) use Vande Kopple's (1985) model as a basis for the classification of their model of metadiscourse markers. Their model classified the textual metadiscourse into two primary categories: textual markers, which help organize a work, and interpretive markers, which aid the reader in understanding the writer's point. Interpersonal metadiscourse contains several linguistic devices, such as hedges, certainty markers, attributors, attitude markers, and commentary. (see table 3)

Table 3 Crismore's 1993 revised model, adapted from Al-Rubaye (2015).

Interpersonal Metadiscourse	Textual Metadiscourse
Hedges	Textual markers: -Logical connectives -Sequencers -Topicalizers -Reminders
Certainty Markers	Interpretive markers: -Code glosses -Illocution Markers -Announcements
Attributors	
Attitude Markers	
Commentary	

Hyland's (2005) classification of the 'interpersonal model of metadiscourse' is constructed based on those previous metadiscourse models developed by Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore et al. (1993), and Hyland (1998, 2004). Hyland presents his model of metadiscourse by drawing upon the interactive and interactional terminology put out by Thompson and Thetela (year, p. 106-7). The primary distinction between this model and the ones before it lies in its structure, which contains mainly two principal categories: interactive and interactional.(see table 4)

Table 4 Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse taxonomy

Interactive Metadiscourse	Interactional Metadiscourse
Transitions: used to express relations between main clauses (but, and)	Hedges: used to open dialogue (perhaps, might)
Endophorics: used to refer to data in other parts of the text.	Boosters: used to emphasize certainty or close dialogue (in fact, definitely)
Evidentials: used to refer to information from other texts.	Attitude markers: used to express the writer's attitude (I agree, surprisingly)
Code glosses: used to elaborate propositional meanings (such as, in other words)	Self-mentions: used to explicitly reference to the writer.
Frame markers: used to refer to acts, sequences, or stages (my purpose is, finally)	Engagement markers: used to build relations with the reader (you can see that, note)

The use of interactive metadiscourse in this context explicitly indicates the structuring of a text for the readers. This is achieved through the use of signaling sequences, which serve to highlight transitions between topics, provide previews or reviews of information, and perform similar functions. The interactive metadiscourse category is divided into

five subsections.

1. Transitions

These markers refer to conjunctions and adverbial phrases that serve as indicators of additive (such as "and" and "moreover"), causal (such as "thus" and "therefore"), and contrastive (such as "however" and "in contrast") links as perceived by the writer. These markers are used to establish connections within discourse, as discussed by Hyland and Tse (2004).

2. Endophoric

Markers such as this serve the purpose of directing the reader's attention towards additional ideational content, allowing them to uncover the intended meaning of the writer. (Hyland, 2005).

3. Evidentials

These markers present a function that is similar to endophoric markers, as they depend on attributing propositional information to an external source inside the present context (Hyland & Tse, 2004).

4. Code glosses

According to Hyland (2005), these markers serve the purpose of assisting readers in comprehending the intended message of the writer. They achieve this by offering more information through methods such as rephrasing, explaining, or expanding upon the content that has been presented (p. 52).

5. Frame markers

According to Hyland and Tse (2004), these markers serve as indications of text borders or components of schematic text structure (p. 168). Various roles are performed by these elements, which have the ability to influence the way information is presented in a text. This concept is illustrated by Hyland (2005) as follows:

- Indicating additive or enumerative relations within a text can be achieved through the use of transitional phrases such as "first," "next," "then," and "at the same time."
- The process of summarizing and introducing different stages of a text can be facilitated by employing appropriate labels.
- Discourse goals can be effectively announced by employing phrases such as "the purpose of this paper is" and "I argue here."
- To indicate a shift in topic, phrases such as "turning now to" and "well" can be utilized.

On the other hand, interactional category markers serve to involve readers in the argument by indicating the writer's position towards the propositional information and the readers themselves (Hyland, 2005). Like interactive markers, the interactional metadiscourse category is divided into five subsections.

1. Hedges

These markers are devices such as "might" or "possibly," which are

used by writers to communicate their hesitancy in presenting information definitively (Hyland, 2004). They are employed to convey a degree of uncertainty about the propositions being put forth.

2. Boosters

In contrast to hedge markers, Hyland (1999) provides a definition of boosters as linguistic devices, such as "clearly" or "obviously," that serve to express certainty and reinforce the strength of propositions. Boosters encourage the development of a shared understanding of trust and agreement between writers and readers. Examples of boosters include phrases like "in fact," "clearly," and "undoubtedly."

3. Attitude markers

Markers, such as "unfortunately," "prefer," and "appropriate," are used by writers as instruments to convey their evaluation of the propositional information. These markers serve to indicate many feelings, including surprise, agreement, importance, and obligation (Hyland & Tse, 2004)

4. Self-mention markers

The markers, such as I, me, mine, us, and our, are indicative of the degree to which the writer is present in the text, as they are first-person pronouns and possessives (Hyland, 2004, p. 140).

5. Engagement markers

According to Waller (2015), these markers direct references to the

reader. The text either directs the attention of readers or engages them as active participants through the use of second-person pronouns (e.g., you and your), imperatives (e.g., consider), or a question form.

Ädel (2010) proposes a revised taxonomy of metadiscourse in spoken and written English in her publication. She states that metadiscourse is a discourse-functional category that can be expressed through many forms and structures. According to Ädel (2010), There are a total of twenty-three discourse functions that can be categorized into four distinct groups: metalinguistic comments, discourse organization, speech and labels, and references to the audience.

(see table 5)

Table 5 Discourse Functions of Ädel's (2010) Taxonomy

Discourse Function	Role
Repairing	refers to changes made in order to correct a previous statement.
Reformulating	refers to the offering of an alternative term or expression, not due to the previous contribution being considered incorrect but instead because of the additional value it brings.
Commenting on linguistic	Metalinguistic references pertain to the discussion or analysis of linguistic form, word selection, or

form/meaning	semantic significance.
Clarifying	Considers the audience since it entails the use of examples of the addresser to clarify their intended message and avoid misinterpretation.
Managing terminology	Offering interpretations for the concepts that relate to a particular phenomenon.
Introducing topic	Open the topic.
Delimiting topic	States how the topic is restricted.
Adding to topic	Add comments to the topic.
Concluding topic	Close the topic.
Marking asides	Opens or closes a ‘topic sidetrack’.
Enumerating	shows how various parts of the discourse are structured in relation to one another.
Endophoric marking	Indicates a certain position within the ongoing conversation or written text.
Previewing	Points forward within the ongoing conversation or written text.
Reviewing	Points backward within the ongoing conversation or written text.
Contextualising	Comments and contains traces of the production of the discourse.
Arguing	arguing for or against an issue.

Exemplifying	Presents an examples.
Other speech act labelling	refers to speech acts that are not sufficiently frequent.
Managing comprehension/ channel	Ensures that the addresser and addressees have a shared understanding.
Managing audience discipline	When the audience is fully engaged and commonly provided with instructions to perform a specific action.
Anticipating the audience's response	anticipates the response of the audience to the conveyed information.
Managing the message	The fundamental message delivered is emphasized.
Imagining scenarios	asks the audience to adopt a particular viewpoint in order to perceive something.

2.2. Reveiw of Literature

This section deals with previous studies that have examined metadiscourse markers from different perspectives. Dastjerdi and Shirzad's (2010) study aimed to examine the effects of providing explicit instruction on metadiscourse markers on the writing performance of advanced, intermediate, and elementary (EFL) learners. The survey included a total of 94 undergraduate students at the University of Isfahan.

The results of the study suggest that providing explicit instruction on metadiscourse markers has a considerable positive impact on the writing proficiency of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. It was also found that learners at the intermediate level demonstrated much more improvement compared to those at the advanced and primary levels.

Furthermore, a study conducted by Noble (2010) examined the utilization of metadiscourse by undergraduate L2 business students in essays that received good and low scores. The primary goal of this study was to identify acceptable models and methodologies that might facilitate teachers in the analysis of metadiscourse within the context of academic literacy. The results demonstrated significant differences in the types of text-structuring markers used and their range.

Besides, a study by Ozdemir and Longo (2013) examined the differences in the utilization of metadiscourse markers in English-language MA thesis abstracts among Turkish and American postgraduate students, focusing on cultural variations. The findings indicated that there were variations in the types and quantity of metadiscourse observed within the two cultural groups.

Based on the classification of metadiscourse markers proposed by Hyland (2005), Yaghoubi and Ardestani (2014) conducted a study that is similar to Dastjerdi and Shirzad's (2010) study, which aimed to investigate the impact of explicit or implicit instruction of metadiscourse

markers on the improvement of writing skills. This study involved the establishment of two distinct experimental groups. Experimental group A got explicit training in metadiscourse markers, while experimental group B got implicit training. The researchers employed both a pretest and a posttest. The findings of the study indicated that the use of metadiscourse instruction had a positive impact on the writing skills of the students. Furthermore, the results indicated that the participants' writing proficiency was significantly improved through the utilization of both explicit and implicit metadiscourse marker instruction.

In addition, a study by Huh and Lee (2016) aimed to examine the use of metadiscourse features among a group of undergraduate students who are pursuing English as a Foreign Language (EFL) studies. The results of the study suggested that students have a certain degree of knowledge regarding the metadiscourse markers available to them. The researchers observed that the students faced difficulties in efficiently employing different methods of stance construction. Unfortunately, their viewpoint was mostly conveyed through the use of single-word modal verbs.

Moreover, a study by Mohamed and Ab Rashid (2017) aimed to analyze the metadiscourse markers identified within a corpus of essays written by proficient undergraduate students, known as the Good Undergraduate Writers' Essays (GUWE) corpus. The metadiscourse

markers were categorized into primary categories and sub-categories according to Hyland's (2005) interpersonal model of metadiscourse. This study aimed to employ concordance software in order to ascertain the frequency of metadiscourse markers utilized in well-written essays created by 269 undergraduate writers from Malaysia. The findings of this study indicate that undergraduate students employ a greater degree of interactive metadiscourse.

Gender differences and the use of metadiscourse markers in writing essays were investigated by Pasaribu (2017). The objective of this study was to examine the presence and usage of metadiscourse markers within academic essays written by both male and female students. The researcher used the same approach used by Mohamed and Ab Rashid (2017) and Yaghoubi and Ardestani (2014), which is Hyland's (2005) model. The results indicated that writers of both genders utilized a higher number of interactive markers compared to interactional markers.

In his study, Nugroho (2019) used the AntConc software developed by Anthony (2018). The purpose of the study was to analyze data derived from thesis abstracts of students coming from various universities. The objective was to determine whether individuals from distinct cultural backgrounds produce different or comparable metadiscourse markers. The researcher discovered that both groups had differential and shared usage patterns of metadiscourse markers. One of the most notable

distinctions is the difference in the quantity of markers used. In terms of similarities, it was observed that both groups of students employed an equivalent quantity of distinct metadiscourse markers.

However the current study is different from other studies as it aims to investigate the differences in the use of metadiscourse markers in the writings of upper-intermediate and master learners of English by analyzing the conclusion parts of their writings.

2.3. Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of the background information related to the research topic, starting from the concept of metadiscourse markers to the different models proposed by different Analysts. The literature review involved a presentation of previous studies in the same field.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

3.0. Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used in this study, along with comprehensive details regarding the participants and the data collection.

3.1. Research Design

To deal with the research questions and ensure accurate findings, this study included both quantitative and qualitative methodologies to explore the participant's use of metadiscourse markers in their writings. The quantitative analysis provided results on the frequencies of metadiscourse as a whole and its subcategories. The qualitative analysis focused on the significant types and functions of Metadiscourse.

3.2. Research population and sample

To accomplish the study purpose, the selected sample in this research consisted of conclusions sections of 40 students' writings of two different levels of education, 20 from the upper-intermediate and 20 from the master level.

3.3. Research instruments

To analyze the metadiscourse markers in the data, the researcher will use Stephen Bax's Text Inspector software. This

software would only be used to list all of the markers and their places in each sentence, along with their frequency.

3.4. Data Collection and Analysis Procedure

The data collection procedure primarily consists of two parts. First part, all the documents of the first level will be opened via Microsoft Word, and each conclusion of each paper will be copied and pasted on a new document. Second part, when all the conclusions have been copied and gathered together the researcher will copy the whole new document and paste it into the software to be analyzed. The same process will be done with the other level. After that, the software will analyze the data by providing statistics on the text, means lexical level, word and sentence count, and average sentence length, in addition to the number of types and tokens of metadiscourse markers used on both levels. The analytical framework used to investigate metadiscourse markers use was that of Hyland's (2005). The data was analyzed using Hyland's model of metadiscourse as described in the literature review in Table 4. The main reason for adopting this model is that it is suitable and uncomplicated for analyzing the data.

3.5. Summary

This chapter describes the research approach, the population, and the target groups. The research instruments were also presented, as well as the data collection and analysis procedures.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results and Discussion

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Results and Discussion

4.0. Introduction

This chapter provides a detailed examination of the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the data obtained in the previous chapter. It seeks to answer the research questions in detail and is divided into three sections. The first section presents the results of the upper-intermediate students' writings, and the second section presents the writings from the Master level. The first and second sections will answer the first question in the research questions (namely, 'What types of metadiscourse markers are used by the upper-intermediate learners of English in their writings, compared to the advanced learners?'). The third section showcases a detailed comparison between those two levels. Before going into the details, statistics of each level provided by the software as part of the analysis are shown in Table 6 below.

Table 6 Statistics and Lexical Profile

	Word Count	Sentence Count	Average length	Lexical level	Percentage
-Upper intermediate	4120	160	25.75	D1+	91%
Master	3089	128	24.13	D1	84%

It is important to note that the software (Text Inspector) uses a level

named D, divided into D1 and D2, which is not part of the original CEFR framework. This indicates when a document is at a higher academic level, with D1 denoting university undergraduate standard language use and D2 indicating a level above this.

4.1. Results of the Upper Intermediate Level

This section provides the findings derived from the analysis of the conclusion parts of the upper-intermediate papers. It offers half of the answer to question one in the research questions (namely, ‘What types of metadiscourse markers do the intermediate learners of English use in their writings, compared to the advanced learners?’). The conclusions of this level total approximately 4120 words. As mentioned before, the analytical framework used in this research is that of Hyland (2005). His model categorizes metadiscourse markers into two categories: interpersonal and interactive. Based on these categories and what is found in the students’ papers, the results are showcased in Table 6 below.

Table 7 Metadiscourse Markers of the Upper-intermediate Level.

Metadiscourse Markers				
Interactional markers	Types		Tokens	
	No.	%	No.	%
Attitude marker	7	0.54	12	0.30
Emphatic (Boosters)	6	0.46	12	0.30
Hedge	10	0.77	18	0.44

Person marker	2	0.15	16	0.39
Relational marker	4	0.31	5	0.12
Total	29	2.23	63	1.55
Interactive markers	Types		Tokens	
	No.	%	No.	%
Label stage (Frame marker)	2	0.15	10	0.25
Logical connectives	18	1.39	251	6.18
Sequencing (Frame marker)	8	0.62	22	0.54
Topic shift (Frame marker)	1	0.08	8	0.20
Endophoric	2	0.15	6	0.15
Code gloss	2	0.15	8	0.20
Evidential	9	0.69	46	1.13
Total	42	3.23	351	8.65
Total of all	71	5.47	414	10.19

From Table 6 above, it shows that students use 71 types of metadiscourse markers. They use 42 types of interactive markers, while they use 29 types of interpersonal markers. In terms of frequency, students use metadiscourse markers 414 times. Interactive markers appear most frequently, with 351 uses, while students use interpersonal markers only 63 times. These findings, where the students use more interactive markers than interpersonal markers, align with other metadiscourse studies, such as those by Mohamed & Rashid (2017), Ozdemir & Longo

(2014), Zali & Razlan (2021), and Lin (2005). However, these findings differ from those of Nugroho (2019) and Marandi (2003). Each category gets a detailed discussion below.

4.1.1. Interactional Metadiscourse Markers

Based on the results above, it is clear that the total types of interpersonal markers are 29. However, the total number of tokens is 63. The hedge marker ranks at the top among all other interpersonal markers in both types and tokens, with 10 types and 18 tokens. On the other hand, the least used marker in types is the person marker, while the least used one in tokens is the relational marker. Below, each marker is explained in detail with its types and tokens, along with example sentences that illustrate the appearance of each type.

a) Hedges

Hedges can be used to open dialogue. Writers use them to communicate their hesitancy in presenting information definitively (Hyland, 2004). Based on the data, it shows that the students use 9 types of hedges for 17 instances as follows:

- 1) could (5)
- 2) may (4)
- 3) plausible (2)
- 4) would (1)
- 5) generally (1)

6) likely (1)

7) often (1)

8) little (1)

9) indicate (1)

From the conclusions, it is found that one of the conclusions used the word "could" three times, indicating a lack of variation in hedges in this conclusion. The same situation occurs with the word "may," used four times in one conclusion. This lack of diversity in using other hedges makes the text appear less professional. If there were more varied hedges like "might," "can," "would," etc., the text would seem more proficient, creative, and smoothly constructed. Below are some example sentences of the types of hedges found in the results:

- “those neologisms **could** be viewed as intra-word...”
- “...watching movies **may** help students become better speakers...”
- “...to provide some **plausible** suggestions...”
- “...hopefully we **would** see great improvement.”
- “Males **generally** utilize direct confrontation employing forceful language...”
- “This makes students more **likely** to fix their errors...”
- “...from social media that are **often** used by Egyptians...”
- “...reflecting the reality of women in Victorian society but doing **little** to help their cause.”

- “...of different generations to indicate the difference between formal education and...”

b) Attitude marker

This marker conveys writers' evaluations of propositional information. It indicates various feelings, including surprise, agreement, importance, and obligation (Hyland & Tse, 2004). The students at the upper intermediate level use this marker 13 times with 7 different types as follows:

- 1) must (4)
- 2) important (3)
- 3) correctly (2)
- 4) even (1)
- 5) hopefully (1)
- 6) prefer (1)
- 7) interest (1)

There is no significant difference between the number of times each type is used, and the numbers are close. However, the most used word is "must," which is used 4 times. The word "important" comes in second place, used 3 times, while "correctly" is used twice. The remaining words are the least used by the students, and each is used only once. Below are some example sentences for each type:

- “Transliteration **must** also be considered, which ensures that phrases or words of one language are **correctly** translated...”
- “However, it is still **important** to mention the fact that...”
- “...and there should be feedback so that students and **even** the instructors can learn from their errors.”
- “...if those recommendations were followed through them **hopefully** we would see great improvement.”
- “...whereas females **prefer** more tilted tactics like passive aggression...”
- “...it helps students become better listeners since movies grab their **interest**...”

c) Emphatics (Boosters)

In contrast to hedge markers, boosters can be used to close dialogue. Hyland (1999) defines boosters as linguistic devices, such as "clearly" or "obviously," that express certainty and reinforce the strength of propositions. The results show 12 tokens of emphatic markers with 6 types used, and these types are:

- 1) essential (3)
- 2) should (3)
- 3) the fact that (3)
- 4) show (1)
- 5) clearly (1)

6) apparent (1)

The results show that the words "essential," "should," and "the fact that" are used equally, with each being used 3 times. The other words are also equal in usage, each used only once. The sentences with these words can be seen below:

- “...and it is **apparent** that new observational studies in laboratory settings are **essential**...”
- “...there **should** be feedback so that students and even the instructors can learn...”
- “due to **the fact that** they speak a dialect, the Egyptian participants understood...”
- “The main findings **show** that a significant number of students and instructors.”
- “...we can **clearly** see that many second language learners...”

d) Person Markers

These markers are used to reference the writer explicitly. They are first-person pronouns and possessives (Hyland, 2004, p. 140). Nevertheless, two types of person markers appear in the data, indicating that they are the least frequently used interpersonal markers. Regarding tokens, they come in second place after hedges, with a total of 16. The two types are the word "our," which appears 11 times, and "we," which appears 5 times. The following are example sentences containing these

two words:

- “Firstly, the findings of this study have advanced our knowledge...”
- “From this study and many before it we can see that English can be seen as a very deceptive language...”

e) Relational Marker

According to Waller (2015), these markers direct references to the reader. The text either directs readers' attention or engages them as active participants through second-person pronouns. From the results shown above, it can be seen that the students use 4 types of relational markers, with a total of 5 tokens, and it is the least of interpersonal markers in terms of tokens. The 4 types are as follows:

- 1) us (2)
 - 2) you (1)
 - 3) one's (1)
 - 4) think about (1)
- “...this artistic alliance connects us across cultures and languages.”
 - “...refraining from using the internet at specified occasions will enable you to stay focused...”
 - “Joker garnered more attention as it delved deeper into exploring one's psyche...”
 - “Businesses must also think about interacting with local communities...”

4.1.2 Interactive markers

The results show that 42 types of interpersonal markers account for 3.23% of the total. However, there are 351 total tokens, making up 8.65%. The logical connectives marker is the most common interactive marker, with 18 types and 251 tokens. The topic shift is the least used in terms of types, while the endophoric marker has the fewest tokens. Each marker is explained in detail below, with examples illustrating their usage.

a) Frame markers

According to Hyland and Tse (2004), these markers serve as indications of text borders or components of schematic text structure (p. 168). They indicate a shift in a specific discourse or refer to a particular part of a written work. This type comes in several forms with different names, but their functions are similar, and they serve the same primary purpose, which is to move from one idea to another using precise sequencer words.

1) Label stage

Based on the data, the students use 2 types of label stages with a total of 10 tokens. Those 2 types are the words "in conclusion," which are used 7 times, and "overall," which is used 3 times. These words are apparent in the following sentences:

- “**In conclusion**, this research study has successfully addressed the research questions...”

- “**Overall**, the research provides valuable insights into...”

2) Sequencing

The data shows that sequencing markers come in third place in terms of the total number of types and tokens. As for the types, the students use 8 types of it, and the tokens are 22. The 8 types are as follows:

- 1) second (6)
- 2) secondly (3)
- 3) first (3)
- 4) finally (3)
- 5) firstly (3)
- 6) two (2)
- 7) four (1)
- 8) lastly (1)

Sequence markers organize the text, indicate the sequence of presented ideas, and help the reader understand the whole process. Based on the results, the students were divided into four groups according to their use of sequencers. The first group consists of students who use three sequencers in one conclusion, starting with the indicator, then the intermediate, and finally the closing (e.g., Firstly, secondly, and lastly or finally). The second group uses only two of them, starting with the indicator and ending with the intermediate sequencer. Both groups use

these markers correctly and appropriately, while others misuse them using only one sequencer, either the indicator or the intermediate. This mistake makes the text less organized. The third group, similar to the second but in the right way, used only one sequencer, which is the closing one. However, in their case, it is considered correct because this study targets the conclusion part, so it is expected to find students who use only the closing sequencer. The last group uses words like four, two, and second to indicate the exact number of certain things. Here are some example sentences that illustrate these sequencers:

- “...they significantly aid in attaining the research’s **second** question.”
- “**Secondly**, the study has provided valuable insights into the perception...”
- “**First of all**, watching movies may help students become better speakers...”
- “**Finally**, all 5 EFL tutors came up with beneficial solutions...”
- “**Firstly**, based on the findings presented above, it can be concluded that there were **two** types of...”
- “...**four** EFL tutors (100%) chose intralingual sources...”
- “**Lastly**, the research study has acknowledged the significance of...”

a) Topic shift

The results show that the students used only one type of topic shift 8 times, which is the word "well." Below is an example sentence of this type:

- “The results of the shop sign study in Bahrain, as well as the survey performed...”
- “...the use of entertainment in language learning as well as the strengths and weakness of formal education...”

b) Logical connectives

Logical connectives express relations between main clauses. In the results, this type of marker is the most frequently used in interactive markers, both in terms of types and tokens. There are 18 types used in the data, with 251 appearances. The types are as follows:

- 1) and (199)
- 2) also (8)
- 3) or (7)
- 4) while (7)
- 5) but (5)
- 6) however (5)
- 7) therefore (3)
- 8) as a result (2)
- 9) furthermore (2)
- 10) moreover (2)

11) on the other hand (2)

12) so (2)

13) whereas (2)

14) although (1)

15) leads to (1)

16) since (1)

17) thus (1)

18) yet (1)

As clearly shown, the most used type is the word "and," with 199 tokens, which is a huge number compared to the rest of the types. After that, the word "also" appears 8 times. The words "although," "lead to," "since," "thus," and "yet" are the least used, each appearing only once. These words can be found in the following sentences:

- “In conclusion, the symphony of music **and** literature resonates not just within artistic expression, **but also** within our societies.”
- “...which ensures that phrases **or** words of one language are...”
- “**while** the least were word order and copula be-aux.”
- “...and there should be feedback **so** that students...”
- “...**whereas** females prefer more tilted tactics like passive aggression...”
- “**However**, the study had limitations in terms of sample size...”
- “**Therefore**, the research’s first question was successfully answered.”

- “As a result, this enhances their fluency in English when furthermore, it helps students...”
- “Moreover, straightforward signs that delivers crucial information is required.”
- “On the other hand, movies impact proficiency by enhancing diverse language skills.”
- “...it helps students become better listeners since movies grab their interest...”
- “...the lack of connection between phonemes and graphemes thus hindering the learning of students which ultimately leads to communication breakdown”
- “...although many have agreed that formal education is the safer option, yet entertainment is still seen as a more engaging...”

c) Endophoric

Endophoric refers to data in other parts of the text. Markers such as this direct the reader's attention towards additional ideational content, allowing them to uncover the intended meaning of the writer (Hyland, 2005). The data reveals that the students use only two types of endophoric markers, and this marker is the least common among all other interactive markers in terms of appearance, with a total of 6 tokens. The two types used are the words "see," which appears 4 times, and "page," which appears twice. Here are some example sentences:

- “...we can clearly see that many second language learners...”
- “...and a powerful resonance that transcends the page.”

d) Code gloss

This type of marker elaborates propositional meanings, such as when the writer provides an explanation differently. According to Hyland (2005), these markers assist readers in comprehending the intended message of the writer. Like the endophoric marker, the student uses code gloss with only two types, totaling 8 tokens, where the word "such as" appears 7 times and the phrase "that is" appears only once. These words are found in the following sentences:

- “Through qualitative methods such as close textual analysis and analysis of reader responses...”
- “...and that is due to various reasons that are plausible...”

e) Evidential

These markers refer to information from other texts. They depend on attributing propositional information to an external source within the present context (Hyland & Tse, 2004). The data shows that students use 9 types of this marker, and the total number of tokens is 49, which is a large number compared to the total of types. The types are:

- 1) research (25)
- 2) literature (9)
- 3) studies (5)

- 4) suggest (2)
- 5) according to (1)
- 6) believe (1)
- 7) demonstrates (1)
- 8) proves (1)
- 9) said (1)

Based on the results, the students tend to use the word "research" more often, using it 25 times. The word "literature" comes in second place with a total of 9 appearances. The less used words are "said," "proves," "demonstrate," "believe," and "according to," with each one appearing only once.

4.2. Results of the master level

This section presents the findings derived from analyzing the conclusion parts of master's level writings. The total number of words in the conclusions is approximately 3,089 words. The results are showcased in Table 6 below.

Table 8 Metadiscourse Markers of Master Level.

Metadiscourse Markers				
Interpersonal markers	Types		Tokens	
	No.	%	No.	%
Attitude marker	3	0.33	5	0.16
Emphatic (Boosters)	8	0.88	9	0.30

Hedge	5	0.55	11	0.36
Person marker	4	0.44	48	1.58
Relational marker	3	0.33	7	0.23
Total	23	2.53	80	2.63
Interactive markers	Types		Tokens	
	No.	%	No.	%
Label stage (Frame marker)	4	0.44	16	0.53
Logical connectives	17	1.88	170	5.59
Sequencing (Frame marker)	6	0.66	25	0.82
Topic shift (Frame marker)	2	0.22	4	0.13
Endophoric	2	0.22	4	0.13
Code gloss	3	0.33	10	0.33
Evidential	5	0.55	10	0.33
Total	39	4.3	239	7.86
Total of all	62	6.83	319	10.49

Table 7 shows that the students use 62 types of metadiscourse markers, with 319 tokens representing 10.49% of the conclusions. The interactive markers come first with 39 types used and 239 tokens, while the interpersonal markers appear 80 times with 23 types. The most used marker for both types and tokens is the logical connective from the interactive markers, used 17 times for a total of 170 occurrences. In contrast, the least used markers are two from the interactive markers:

topic shift and endophoric markers, each used 4 times, making a total of 2 types. Each category and its contents are detailed below.

A) Interactive Markers

The most used marker in this category is the logical connectives, which ranks at the top of all other markers regarding types and tokens, with 17 types and 170 tokens. The least used markers in this category are the topic shift and the endophoric markers, with an equal total of both types and tokens, as both markers have 2 types used 4 times each.

a) Logical connectives

The data shows that the master students use 14 logical connectives as follows:

- 1) and (124)
- 2) also (9)
- 3) or (8)
- 4) however (5)
- 5) because (3)
- 6) but (3)
- 7) so (3)
- 8) while (3)
- 9) moreover (2)
- 10) furthermore (2)
- 11) whereas (2)

- 12) even though (1)
- 13) In addition (1)
- 14) nevertheless (1)
- 15) on the other hand (1)
- 16) similarly (1)
- 17) thus (1)

The students mostly use the word "and" to connect two sentences and add more information. The words used least by the students are "even though," "in addition," "nevertheless," "on the other hand," "similarly," and "thus," with each one being used only once. Below are some example sentences:

- “... the complex system of language in which sounds are strongly connected **and** highly influenced by each other was...”
- “... **Moreover**, there are other factors that **also** contributed to...”
- “...have been clearly stated that individual sounds **or** phonemes are not...”
- “...they do, **however**, prove the same theory.”
- “Malak failed **because** she was unable to acquire the stress...”
- “...**but** rather a verb “climb” modified by a prepositional phrase “up the ladder”. **On the other hand**, in the idiomatic phrasal verb pick up...”

- “We humans fail at observing grammar mentally, so observing behave when put together...”
- “While each test is done in a different manner from one another, they do, however, prove the same theory.”
- “...and how this affects other languages. Furthermore, we cannot effectively read...”
- “For instance, any plural morpheme can be linked to nouns. Whereas the derivational properties...”
- “...It is nearly impossible to imitate a person’s way of speech, even though she could...”
- “...when all these factors, in addition to the others highlighted above, are taken into consideration...”
- “...further refinement and research within the field. Nevertheless, Conceptual Metaphor Theory...”
- “Similarly, the five different constituency tests also aid...”
- “...as each has its own limitations, thus, the three criteria should be taken...”

b) frame markers

1) Label stages

The table above shows that the students use 4 types of label stages 16 times. These types are as follows:

- 1) to conclude (6)

2) in conclusion (5)

3) to sum up (4)

4) overall (1)

Because the understudy part is the conclusion part, it can be seen that most of the label stage findings are from the concluding words. Here are some example sentences:

- “**To conclude**, all the previously mentioned factors in this paper contributed to...”
- “**In conclusion**, the complex system of language in which sounds are...”
- “**To sum up**, Malak was unable to get the codeword in both stages due to...”
- “....enrich the study of cognitive linguistics by providing complementary insights and methodologies. **Overall**, cognitive linguistic offers a..”

2) Sequencing

The data shows that the students use six types of sequencing, with a total of 12 tokens as follows:

1) two (12)

2) three (4)

3) five (4)

4) second (3)

5) four (1)

6) first (1)

Based on the results above, it can be seen that the most used word is "two," which is used 12 times, while the least used words are "four" and "first," which are used only once. The conclusions show that most of the sequencing markers used are numbers to clarify the quantity of a particular thing. However, there are four other cases where the students use them as indicators and intermediate sequencers (e.g., "first" and "second"). Some example sentences of sequencing are as follows:

- “...the verb pick takes **two** separate Complements: the **first** being an Object - the noun phrase “the ladder”, and the **second** being a particle...”
- “The **three** frameworks concur the way they examine language which is based on...”
- “These **five** syntactic arguments/tests have proven that in sentence...”
- “The **four** test tools that were conducted above were a way to observe how words behave in the sentences provided.”

3) Topic shifts

The data shows that the students produce two types of this marker. The word "well" is used 3 times, while the phrase "in regard to that" is used only once. The following are the example sentences containing these two words:

- “...such as how loud the sounds were initially made when pronouncing the words, as well as the time duration of producing each word which...”
- “...individual sounds or phonemes are not enough when we combine them after they have been separate in regard to their lexical representation,...”

c) **Evidentials**

The data shows that the students use 5 types of evidential markers 10 times, namely:

- 1) research (5)
- 2) proves (2)
- 3) established (1)
- 4) shows (1)
- 5) claims (1)

These words are clearly apparent in the following sentences:

- “Continued research and exploration in this field will undoubtedly contribute...”
- “In a nutshell, syntax proves that the morphological criterions are...”
- “... the paper has established a solid foundation for the subsequent discussion...”
- “... Knowing the string of words that passes the tests shows us what phrase is...”

- “...the proposed hypothesis which claims that the two sentences...”

d) Code Gloss

The data reveals that the students use only 3 types of code gloss, which are used 10 times. These types are:

- 1) such as (8)
 - 2) for instance (1)
 - 3) in other words (1)
- “...cognitive linguistics not only enhances our understanding of language but also makes major contributions to fields such as psychology and neuroscience...”
 - “...Moreover, there are other factors that also contributed to their failure such as how loud the sounds were initially made...”
 - “...furthermore , interdisciplinary collaborations with fields such as psychology, neuroscience, anthropology...”

d) Endophoric

The data shows that the students use two types of endophoric markers with four tokens, which is the same as the totals of the topic shift marker. The two types are the word "example," used 3 times, and the word "see," used only once. Below are some example sentences:

- “...The metaphor "argument is war" serves as an example of how these metaphors...”
- “...use the five tests to see if the sentences or phrases...”

B) Interactional Markers

a) Hedges

Based on the data, it shows that the students use five types of hedges for 11 times as follows:

- 1) would (6)
- 2) could (2)
- 3) believed (1)
- 4) in general (1)
- 5) generally (1)

The most used word is "would," which holds the first place with six occurrences. The word "could" comes in second place and is used twice, while the remaining words appear only once, placing them in third. The conclusion shows that in two instances, the word "would" is used consecutively without any other hedge words like "could," "may," or "might." This lack of diversity in hedge word usage makes the text less creative and less appealing to the reader. In contrast, varying the use of hedge words enhances creativity and organization in the text. The five types are apparent in the following example sentences:

- “In English there are some words that can’t be separated and if it is separate then the words **would** lose it meaning...”
- “It is nearly impossible to imitate a person’s way of speech, even though she **could**.”

- “She **believed** that she is able to copy a person’s voice.”
- “Case Grammer has innovated greatly in terms of the way we perceive grammar and linguistics **in general**.”
- “...can be identified based on some properties that are **generally** shared by all the words...”

b) Emphatics (Boosters)

The students used 8 types of this marker 9 times, these types are as follows:

- 1) undoubtedly (2)
- 2) clearly (1)
- 3) demonstrate (1)
- 4) determine (1)
- 5) indeed (1)
- 6) sure (1)
- 7) should (1)
- 8) prove (1)

Each one is used only once, except for the word "undoubtedly," which is used twice. These words can be found in the following sentences:

- “exploration in this field will **undoubtedly** contribute to our evolving comprehension of...”
- “...the reasons behind Malak and Anas’s failure have been **clearly**

stated...”

- “The systematic mappings between domains, exemplified in metaphors such as "Anger is Fire," **demonstrate** the depth of conceptual...”
- “...syntactic and morphological criterions can be used to **determine** word categorizations...”
- “**Indeed**, having a codeword must be a tool used when it is necessarily needed in the ATM machine’s place where there is no one else there (only you) to make **sure** that no one will try to steal your card and your money.”
- “...the three criteria **should** be taken into consideration...”
- “In a nutshell, syntax **proves** that the morphological criterions are...”

c) Attitude markers

Three types of this marker are found in the students’ data with a total of 5 tokens, which are as follows:

- 1) even (2)
- 2) important (2)
- 3) must (1)

The sentences with these words can be seen below:

- “This aspect is linked to the various accents people speak **even** in small community.”
- “It is **important** to understand that phonology and phonetics help us

to learn and understand a language better.”

- “Indeed, having a codeword **must** be a tool used when it is necessarily...”

d) Person marker (self-mentions)

Four types of person markers are found in the data, with a total of 48 tokens. These are:

- 1) our (29)
- 2) we (16)
- 3) my (2)
- 4) i (1)

The most used words are the word "our," used 29 times, followed by the word "we," used 16 times. Students use the words "we" and "our" more than "I" and "my" because they try to engage the reader more in the text. The reader's engagement with the text is one of the keys to successful writing because it makes the reader feel included and inside the frame, as if the writer talks to and about him simultaneously. Here are some sentences that contain these words:

- “The more **we** understand the different sounds that are used in a specific language, the more **we** will understand the...”
- “...researchers can continue to refine and expand **our** understanding of how language shapes our cognition and vice versa...”
- “**I** was able to retain **my** money, and cultivate a deeper understanding

and appreciation of my vocals.”

e) Relational markers (Engagement markers)

Three types of this marker are found in the data, with a total of 7 tokens; these words are:

- 1) us (4)
- 2) your (2)
- 3) you (1)

As mentioned in the person markers part, the students engage the reader more in the text by using the word "us." However, in three examples, the case is different. The words "your" and "you" focus all the attention on the reader without any interference or mention of the writer, making the reader experience the situation as if it is accurate. This approach is usually used when the writer tells a story and wants the reader to feel that they are the main character in this story. The example sentences are as follows:

- “...where there is no one else there (only you) to make sure that no one will try to steal your card and your money.”
- “...phonology and phonetics help us to learn and understand a language better.”

4.3. Comparison between the upper-intermediate and master writings

-Q1: What types of metadiscourse markers are used by the

upper-intermediate learners of English in their writings, compared to the advanced learners?

-Q2: How does the use of tokens relate to the use of types of metadiscourse markers?

After reviewing the metadiscourse markers used by both upper-intermediate and master levels, the differences and similarities between both levels will be discussed in detail. The comparison starts by comparing the total metadiscourse markers in each level. Then, it progresses into a deeper analysis of the results of each level, focusing on the interactive and interactional categories in detail alongside examples. This section provides a detailed answer to the first and third research questions. Table 7 shows the results of metadiscourse markers used in the upper-intermediate and master writings.

Table 9 Total of Metadiscourse Markers Used in Upper-intermediate and Master Writings

	Upper-intermediate			Master		
	Types	Tokens		Types	Tokens	
	No.	No.	P	No.	No.	P
Interactive markers	42	351	84.78	39	239	74.92
Interactional markers	29	63	15.21	23	80	25.07
Total	71	414	100	62	319	100

The results show a notable difference in the overall frequency of

metadiscourse markers at both levels. The upper-intermediate writings have a higher frequency than the master's writings in both types and tokens. There is a slight difference between the two levels, where 71 types appear in upper-intermediate writings and 62 in master writings. Unlike the types, there is a significant difference in the total number of tokens at both levels; in upper-intermediate writings, there are 414 tokens, and in the master level, there are 319 tokens. In terms of types, both interactive and interactional marker types are used more in the upper-intermediate writings than in the master writings. On the other hand, regarding tokens, the interactive markers are used more in the upper-intermediate writings, while the interactional markers are used more in the master writings. Table 8 and Figures 1 and 2 provide a detailed examination of the interactive types in both levels.

4.3.1. Interactive Markers

The interactive markers are used more at the upper-intermediate level, representing 84.78% of the whole metadiscourse markers, while at the master level, they represent 74.92%. As shown in Table 8.

Table 10 The Interactive Markers Used in Upper-intermediate and Master Writings.

Interactive Markers				
	Upper-intermediate		Master	
	Types	Tokens	Types	Tokens

	No.	No.	P	No.	No.	P
Label stage	2	10	2.84	4	16	6.69
Logical connectives	18	251	71.50	17	170	71.12
Sequencing	8	22	6.26	6	25	10.46
Topic shift	1	8	2.27	2	4	1.67
Endophoric	2	6	1.70	2	4	1.67
Code gloss	2	8	2.27	3	10	4.18
Evidential	9	46	13.10	5	10	4.18

Logical connectives are the most used at both levels; at the upper-intermediate level, they represent 71.50% of the interactive markers, while at the master level, they represent 71.21%. This finding regarding the percentage of logical connectives at both levels aligns with the findings of Nugroho (2019), Ozdemir and Longo (2014), Ebadi, Salman, and Ebrahimi (2015), and Huh and Lee (2016). These researchers find that logical connectives are the most used by the groups in their studies. However, the most used interactive marker in both levels is the endophoric marker, which represents 1.70% of the interactive markers and 1.67% at the master level, similar to the findings of Huh and Lee (2016). Students tend to use logical connectives more than endophoric markers because they desire to express their ideas clearly and logically and to show their opinions to the reader without using many endophoric markers. Figures 1 and 2 below provide a more detailed

examination of the interactive types at both levels.

Figure 1 Types of Interactive Markers in Master and Upper-intermediate Levels

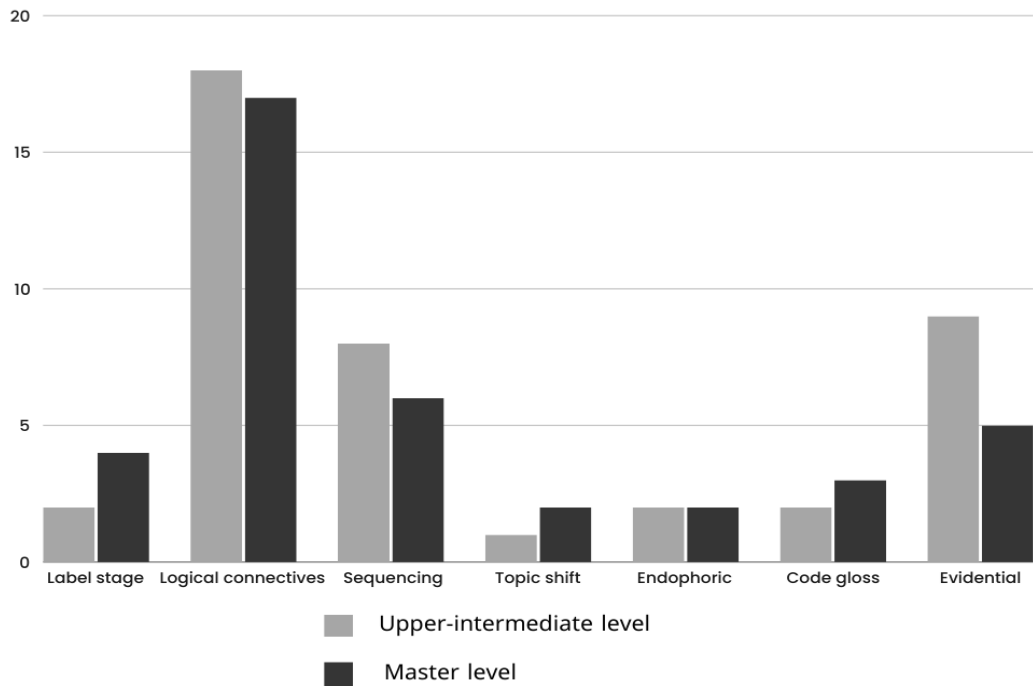
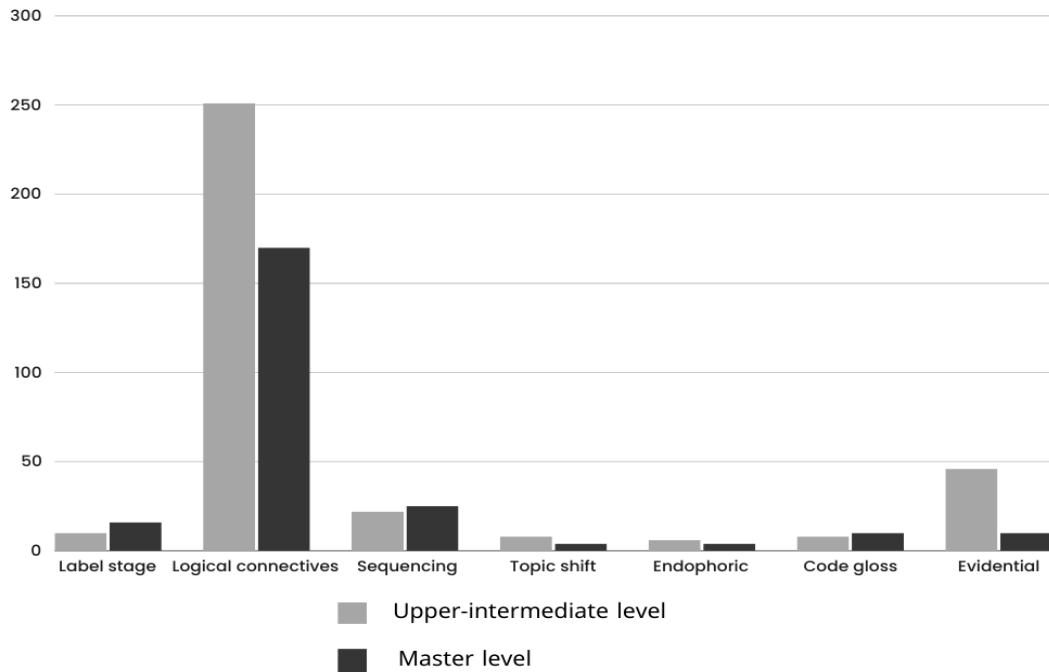


Figure 2 Frequencies of Interactive Markers Used by Upper-intermediate and Master Levels



4.3.1.1. Label stage

Regarding types and tokens, the label stage is used more in master writings than in upper-intermediate ones, with 4 types and 16 appearances. Two types are used by both the master and upper-intermediate levels, which are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
In conclusion (7)	In conclusion (5)
Overall (3)	Overall (1)

As mentioned before, both levels use concluding phrases because the aim of the analysis in this study was the conclusion section in the

student writings. The phrase "in conclusion" appears 7 times at the upper-intermediate level and 5 times at the master level. There is a clear difference in the use of the label stage by both levels. At the upper-intermediate level, students lack diversity in using other types. In contrast, at the master level, students show an apparent diversity in using several different label stages with the same meaning. The other types used at the master level are as follows:

To conclude (6)
To sum up (4)

4.3.1.2. Logical connectives

There is no significant difference between the two levels regarding the number of types, with 18 at the upper-intermediate level and 17 at the master level. However, in terms of tokens, logical connectives are used more in the upper-intermediate writings than in the master writings, with 251 tokens at the upper-intermediate level and 170 at the master level. Each level uses types that are not used by the other level, while there are shared types, which are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
And (199)	And (124)
Also (8)	Also (9)
Or (7)	Or (8)

While (7)	While (3)
But (5)	But (3)
However (5)	However (5)
So (2)	So (3)
Moreover (2)	Moreover (2)
Furthermore (2)	Furthermore (2)
Whereas (2)	Whereas (2)
On the other hand (2)	On the other hand (1)
Thus (1)	Thus (1)

The word "and" is used in the upper-intermediate level more than in the master level, with a total of 199 appearances compared to 124 in the master level. This notable difference in the number of tokens of the word "and" shows the lack of diversity in the upper-intermediate level in using other words that serve the same function, such as "in addition," which is used in the master level. Below are the types that are used by one level and not used by the other:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Therefore (3)	Because (3)
Although (1)	Even though (1)
As a result (2)	Similarly (1)
Yet (1)	Nevertheless (1)
Since (1)	In addition (1)

Leads to (1)	
--------------	--

4.3.1.3. Sequencing

Regarding types, the upper-intermediate students use more types of sequencing than the master students. Meanwhile, in terms of tokens, the master students use sequencing more than the upper-intermediate students. However, there is no considerable difference between them, where the total types in the upper-intermediate level are 8, and in the master level, it is 6. As for the tokens, the upper-intermediate has 22, and the master has 25. Both levels share the usage of 4 types, which are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Two (2)	Two (12)
First (3)	First (1)
Second (6)	Second (3)
Four (1)	Four (1)

The word "two" appears at the master level more than at the upper-intermediate level, with 12 occurrences, whereas it appears only twice at the upper-intermediate level. There is no significant difference in the usage of the other words in both levels, where the word "first" appears 3 times in the upper-intermediate level and only once in the master level. At the same time, the word "second" appears 6 times in the upper-intermediate level and 3 times in the master level. As for the word

"four," it appears only once in both levels. As for the rest of the types in both levels, they are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Firstly (3)	Five (4)
Finally (3)	Three (4)
Secondly (3)	
Lastly (1)	

4.3.1.4. Topic shift

In terms of types and tokens, there is no significant difference between the master and upper-intermediate levels, where the master has two types and the upper-intermediate has only 1. As for the tokens, the upper-intermediate level has eight tokens, while the master level has four tokens. There is only one type that both levels share in usage, and that type is as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Well (8)	Well (3)

As clearly shown, there is a lack of diversity of types in both levels, especially the upper-intermediate level, where the students use only one type of topic shift 8 times. They could diversify by using other types like to move on, to come back to, to digress, and regarding, which is used once at the master level as well. It is clear that the number of tokens is

higher at the upper-intermediate level, but the other level surpasses them by using two types that carry the same meaning.

4.3.1.5. Endophoric

In terms of types, both levels are equal, with only two types used in each level, whereas the tokens are 6 in the upper-intermediate writings and 4 in the master ones. There is only one type that both levels share in usage, which is as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
See (4)	See (1)

In the upper-intermediate level, the word "see" is used 4 times; two of them are used in one paragraph, as illustrated in the example below, while the student could diversify by using another word, such as **noted**:

“From the data collected and knowing that English as a language borrowed many of its rules from other languages as well as the orthographic order of those borrowed words that the English language is very dependent on we can clearly see that many second language learners have a very difficult time when it comes to spelling words and some pronunciations that differ from their native language rules. English pronunciation is reliant and based on phonemic segmentation therefore it has various spelling variants. From this study and many before it we can see that English can be seen as a very deceptive language as the orthography is rarely a good guide for pronunciation.”

The other types that are used in one level and not used in the other are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Page (2)	Example (3)

In general, the types used by both levels are equal, but the upper-intermediate level uses more tokens.

4.3.1.6. Code gloss

There is no difference in the number of types used in both levels, where three types are used in the master level and only 2 in the upper-intermediate level. Like topic shift and endophoric markers, both levels share the usage of only one type, which is:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Such as (7)	Such as (8)

There are two other types at the master level and one at the upper-intermediate level, which are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
That is (1)	For instance (1)
	In other words (1)

The word such as was the most used in both levels, while other types could be used on behalf of the word such as, like the words for example, and namely. However, the master level uses another phrase with the same function as "such as," which is "for instance," but is used only

once. Generally, both levels lack diversity in their use of phrases, but the master level is slightly better regarding types and tokens.

4.3.1.7. Evidentials

The upper-intermediate students use nine types of evidential markers, whereas the master students use five types. In these markers, two types are shared by both levels, which are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Research (25)	Research (5)
Proves (1)	Proves (2)

There is a notable difference in the usage of the word "research" between both levels, where the upper-intermediate uses it more than the master level, with a total of 25 tokens. In contrast, the master level has only five tokens. The rest of the types that distinguish each level from the other are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
literature (9)	Established (1)
studies (5)	Shows (1)
suggest (2)	Claims (1)
according to (1)	
believe (1)	
demonstrates (1)	
said (1)	

4.3.2. Interactional Markers

The interactional markers appear more in the upper-intermediate level, representing 15.21% of the whole metadiscourse markers used, while in the master level, it represents 25.07%. As shown in Table 9.

Table 11 The Interactional Markers Used in Upper-intermediate and Master Writings.

Interactional Markers						
	Upper-intermediate			Master		
	Types	Tokens		Types	Tokens	
	No.	No.	P	No.	No.	P
Attitude markers	7	12	19.0	3	5	6.25
Emphatic (Boosters)	6	12	19.0	8	9	11.25
Hedge	10	18	28.57	5	11	13.75
Person marker	2	16	25.39	4	48	60
Relational marker	4	5	7.93	3	7	8.75

Hedge is the most used in the upper-intermediate level, representing 28.57% of all interactional markers. However, at the master level, the most used are person markers, representing 60% of the interactional markers used at this level. The least-used interactional marker in the upper-intermediate level is the relational marker, representing 7.93% of the interactional markers. In contrast, the least

used at the master level is the attitude marker, which represents 6.25%.

Figures 3 and 4 below provide a more detailed examination of the interactional types at both levels.

Figure 3 Types of Interactional Markers in the Master and Upper-intermediate Levels

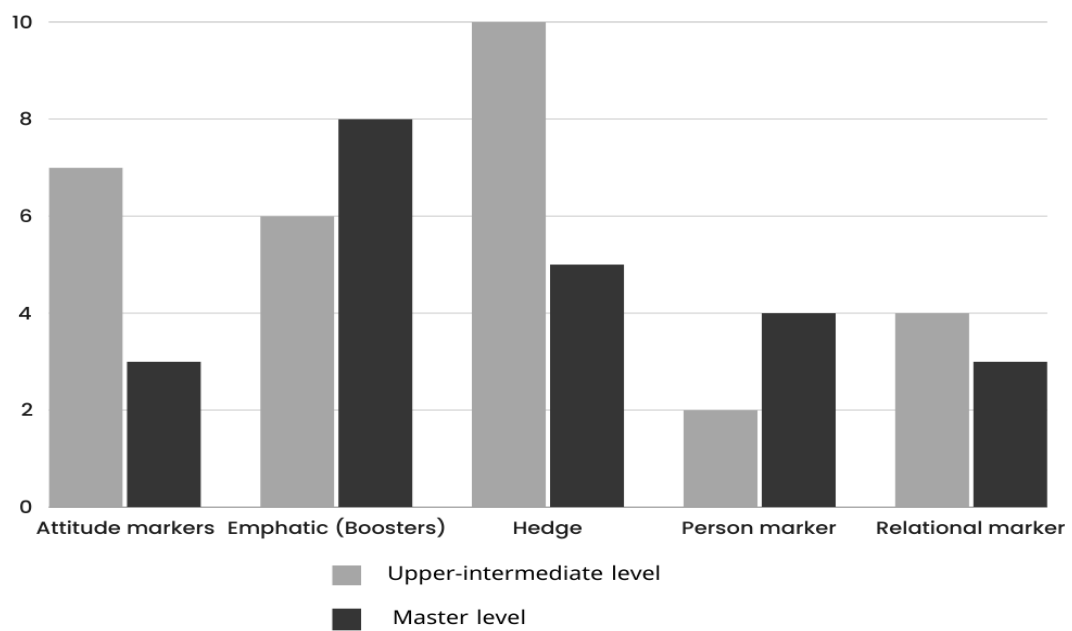
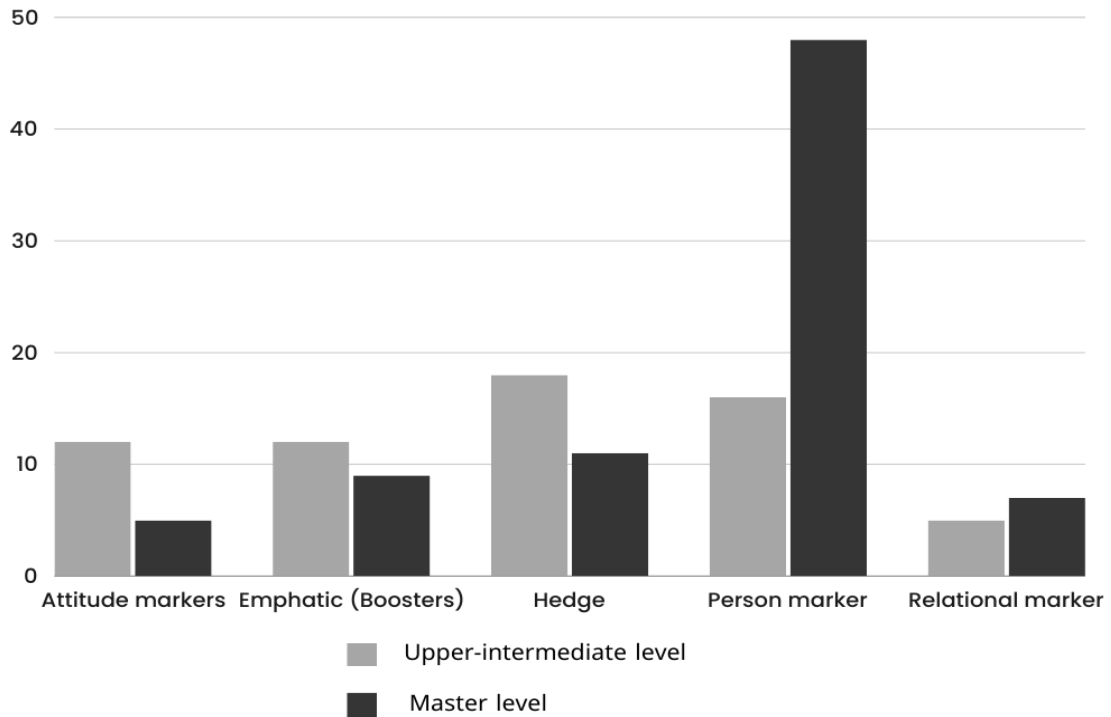


Figure 4 Frequencies of Interactional Markers Used by
Upper-intermediate and Master Levels



4.3.2.1. Attitude markers

Attitude marker types are used more at the upper-intermediate than at the master level. Eight types are used at the upper-intermediate level, while three are used at the master level. Both levels share the usage of three types, which are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Must (4)	Must (1)
Important (3)	Important (2)
Even (1)	Even (2)

There are other types that are used in the upper-intermediate level,

which are as follows:

correctly (2)
hopefully (1)
prefer (1)
interest (1)

It is noted that the upper-intermediate level uses more types than the master level, but most of the types are only used once. For example, the upper-intermediate students use the word "must" four times, and it is the most used one, whereas they could use other types with the same meaning, such as "ought" or "have to." In general, the upper-intermediate level is more diverse in using different types of attitude markers, unlike the master level, which uses only three types. Two are used twice, while the third is used only once.

4.3.2.2. Emphatic (Boosters)

In these markers, both levels share only the usage of two types, which are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Should (3)	Should (1)
Clearly (1)	Clearly (1)

The word "should" is used more in the upper-intermediate level than at the master level, with three tokens, and it appears only once at the master level. As for the word "clearly," it is used only once at both levels.

There are 4 other types in the upper-intermediate level and six other types in the master level, and they are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Essential (3)	Undoubtedly (2)
The fact that (3)	Demonstrate (1)
Show (1)	Determine (1)
Apparent (1)	Indeed (1)
	Sure (1)
	Prove (1)

There is a noted variety in using different types of emphatic at the master level, as the students vary in using several words with the same meaning. The words undoubtedly, indeed, sure, and clearly are used only once. The words determine and demonstrate have the same meaning, and at the master level, each one is used only once.

4.3.2.3. Hedge

Hedge types are used more at the upper-intermediate than at the master level. Like the attitude markers, both levels share the usage of three types of hedges, which are:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Could (5)	Could (2)
Would (1)	Would (6)
Generally (1)	Generally (1)

The findings reveal that among the most used words in the writings at both levels are the types may, could, and would, which demonstrate the student's use for expressing doubt and qualifying claims. The other types that are found in one level and not in the other are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
May (4)	Believed (1)
Plausible (2)	In general (1)
Likely (1)	
Often (1)	
Indicate (1)	
Little (1)	

The results showed a lack of diversity in using other types of hedges, especially at the master level. For example, the master students could have used other words that had the same meaning as the words would and could, such as the words might, may, possibly, and perhaps. However, in the upper-intermediate level, there was little diversity in the use of other types; for example, it was noted that the students used the word likely, which had the same meaning as the word plausible. However, the problem was in the number of uses, as each word was used only once, which is considered few compared to all the used markers. Generally, both levels lack diversity in terms of types, but the upper-intermediate level was better than the master in using different types.

4.3.2.4. Person markers

The master level uses more types of person markers than the upper-intermediate. Both levels share the usage of only two types of person markers, which are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Our (11)	Our (29)
We (5)	We (16)

There is a notable difference in the usage of the words "our" and "we" between the two levels, with these words being used more in the master level. The word "our" appears 29 times in the master, while in the upper-intermediate level, it appears 11 times. As for the word "we", it is used 16 times in the master and only 5 times in the upper-intermediate level. Two other types appear in the master level, which are:

My (2)
I (1)

4.3.2.5. Relational markers

In terms of types, these markers appear more at the upper-intermediate level. In contrast, regarding tokens, the master level uses relational markers more than the upper-intermediate level. Similar to the emphatic and person markers, both levels share the usage of only two types of relational markers, which are:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
Us (2)	Us (4)
You (1)	You (1)

The word "us" is used 4 times at the master level, more than at the upper-intermediate level, where it is used only twice. As for the word "you" in both levels, it is used only once. Another type is used at the master level, and two others are used at the upper-intermediate level. They are as follows:

Upper-intermediate level	Master level
One's (1)	Your (2)
Think about (1)	

From the results of the person and relational markers, it is clear that both levels involve the reader in the text master, but the master's students come on top with their frequent use of the words us, we, our, and your.

4.3.3. Summary

This chapter shows the total number of Metadiscourse markers used in both levels, as well as the number of tokens, and compares the two levels.

CHAPTER FIVE

Conclusion

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Conclusion

According to the classification proposed by Hyland (2005), this research focuses on exploring how metadiscourse markers are used in the writings at the upper-intermediate level compared to the master level. The aim is to explore how students deal with metadiscourse markers through their writings, how many they use at both levels, and whether they use them appropriately. The research also aims to explore whether there is variety in using several types or a lack of diversity. One important and possible contribution that the study is expected to provide is that the results can be utilized as a source of information regarding the student's competency in using transitions, as well as a source for future research.

Based on the previous discussion and analysis, it is noted that the number of both types and tokens is higher at the upper-intermediate level than at the master level. The number of types used in the upper-intermediate level is 71, while in the master level, it is 62. The upper-intermediate level indeed uses more types than the master level. However, the master level is more creative and diversified, as different types with the same meaning are used. Most of the types used in the upper-intermediate level are used only once, which answers the second research question. The answer indicates that the master level has higher language proficiency than the upper-intermediate level, which is apparent

in using several types with the same meaning. They do not repeat the use of one type more than once but instead use another type that carries the same meaning to make the text more creative and diverse, which helps attract the reader more. This also answers the third question, which is that even if the number of uses is more significant in the upper-intermediate level, it is not necessarily evidence of the superiority of this level. Through research and results, it becomes clear that the upper-intermediate level reuses one word more than once without diversifying in using other types with the same meaning, as mentioned previously.

Considering these results, a few limitations emerge. The first limitation is the lack of time, which necessitates focusing only on the conclusion part of the students writing. Therefore, it would be beneficial if a future study focused on the other parts of the writing. Another limitation is the size of the targeted sample. Because of the time limit in this study, there is not enough time to collect a larger sample; with a larger sample, there are more varied and detailed results. Therefore, it is recommended that a future study be conducted on a large sample. A study based on the analysis of the use of metadiscourse markers between males and females is also recommended.

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المستخلص

الكتاب هـ مهارة ضرورية لأي شخص يتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة ثانية. ومع ذلك قد يرتكب العديد من طلاب الجامعات أخطاء في كتاباتهم لأن اللغة الإنجليزية ليست لغتهم الأولى. تبحث الدراسة في الاختلافات في استخدام علامات الخطاب في كتابات متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية في المرحلة فوق المتوسطة ومرحلة الماجستير. وتهدف إلى التحقيق في كيفية تأثير إتقان اللغة على استخدام علامات الخطاب، والعلاقة بين عدد الرموز والأنواع المستخدمة، بالإضافة إلى الأنواع المستخدمة من قبل كلتا المرحلتين. ومن المتوقع أن تقدم الدراسة مساهمة مهمة وممكنة إذ يمكن استخدام النتائج كمصدر للمعلومات حول كفاءة الطلاب في استخدام علامات الخطاب وأيضا كمصدر لمزيد من الدراسات في المستقبل. المنهجية المستخدمة في الدراسة هي تحليل مجموعة من عينة عشوائية من جزء الخاتمة في كتابات ٤٠ طالب من المرحلتين ٢٠ من كل منهما. تم تحليل البيانات باستخدام برنامج النصوص الخاص بـستيفن باكس وأظهرت النتائج أن عدد الأنواع والرموز كان أعلى في المرحلة فوق المتوسطة، إلا أن طلاب الماجستير كانوا أكثر إبداعا وتنوعا في استخدامهم لأنواع مختلفة تحمل نفس المعنى، مما يدل على إتقانهم للغة.

جامعة البحرين



كلية الآداب

قسم اللغة الإنجليزية
وآدابها

الكلمات الإنتقالية في كتابات متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة اجنبية:
تحليل قائم على مجموعة من النصوص

أطروحة مقدمة كجزء من متطلبات الحصول على درجة الماجستير في الدراسات
التطبيقية في اللغة الإنجليزية

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