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A Corpus-Based study of Evidential Metadiscourse Markers in Writing Literature Review Section of Dissertations

The Case of Second Year Master Students of Linguistics at Kasdi Merbah University Ouargla

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to all the Palestinians and to all the Algerians. It is also dedicated to all the cancer patients, those who have passed away and those who are still battling the illness.

Souzane and Ismahene

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Abstract

The present study aims at investigating the evidential metadiscourse markers types, sensory, belief, reporting and inferring, used in writing the literature review sections of dissertation by 2nd year Master students at Kasdi Merbah University Ouargla. The corpus of the present study consists of 16 dissertations out of 48 Applied Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes specialty from both the academic years 2015/2016 and 2016/2017. This study adopted a descriptive analytical approach. On the one hand, quantitative data were gathered through systematic sampling. On the other hand, the qualitative method was used to analyze tendencies. The results of this study were reported through the AntConc Concordance Software (3.4.4.0). The interpretation of the results shows that 2nd year master students are efficient in applying both reporting and inferring markers. However, they remain inefficient in using the other two evidential markers types. That is, sensory and belief types. Based on the divergent degree of efficiency in using evidential markers types, dissertation writers should receive specified activities and training.

Key words: metadiscourse, evidential markers, dissertation and literature review.

List of Abbreviations

AL: Applied Linguistics

APA: American Psychological Association

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EMM: Evidential Metadiscourse Markers

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

KMU: Kasdi Merbah University

LR: Literature Review

MA: Master

MD: Master Dissertations

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General Introduction

1. Research Background

Metadiscourse is a term broadly used in the field of language education, especially in researching written and spoken language. In academic writing contexts, postgraduate students are required to produce different types of academic written genres, such as research articles, reports, and thesis. They are also required to conduct research and write dissertations about it. In this area, a number of academic writing researchers view that the use of metadiscourse, which is not pointing to the theme, but to write about the developing text (Swales and Feak, 2000), can assist in dissertation writing, especially in reviewing the literature. In fact, the review of literature is a key section of dissertation writing that reflects students' scholarly competence and grasps of the most important issues in their area of study by demonstrating the breadth of reading and the depth of understanding. Researchers in academic writing have revealed the fact that applying metadiscourse markers assists in reviewing the literature, since it helps in building coherent text and construct arguments to persuade text receivers. These fixed expressions center reader's attention on the ways writers project themselves into their discourse (Hyland, 2010).

2. Statement of the Problem

In spite of the fact that using metadiscourse markers in writing is essential for the construction of intact and persuasive discourse, it is noticed that in some EFL writing contexts learners often demonstrate little skill in manipulating such devices. On these grounds, the investigation of this aspect of discourse can give hints as to the existing difficulties in this type of writing and possible solutions. In this study, focus is put on Algerian Master (henceforth MA) students' of English discourse community use of one type of metadiscourse markers. This seems to be worth investigating since EFL students appear to have different capacities concerning the degree of efficiency in using evidential metadiscourse markers which affect the organization of the literature review.

3. Research Objectives

The objective of this study is twofold. It aims at:

1) Identifying the dominant evidential metadiscourse markers types that 2nd year Master students of English use when writing the literature review section of their dissertations.

2) Investigating the Master students' of English degrees of efficiency in using metadiscourse when writing dissertation literature review section.

4. Research Questions

The following research questions are set to guide this study:

1) What are the dominant evidential metadiscourse markers types that 2nd year Master students of English use when writing the literature review section of their dissertations?
2) To what extent are Master students of English efficient in using metadiscourse when writing dissertation literature review sections?

5. Research Methods

To conduct this study, a corpus consisting of Master dissertation's literature review sections in the field of applied linguistics and English for Specific Purposes (henceforth ESP) at Kasdi Merbah University (henceforth KMU) of Ouargla is used. The corpus was chosen because MA students of English require using metadiscourse markers when writing their dissertations' literature review. Thus, they are likely to have different degrees of efficiency.

Though there are different approaches to conduct this research, the study opted for descriptive analytical approach. The latter refers to the nature of the problem. Moreover, this study has used quantitative data as well as qualitative method.

6. Definition of key Terms

6.1. General Definitions

a. Dissertation

A dissertation is defined as "A long piece of writing on a particular subject, especially one written for a university degree" (Wehmeier, 2006. p, 424).

b. Literature Review

According to Bruce (1994), "literature review forms an important chapter in the thesis, where its purpose is to provide the background to and justification for the research undertaken" (p, 218).

c. Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse is "(*n*.) A term used in the study of DISCOURSE for those features in the organization or presentation of a text which help the reader to interpret or evaluate its content.

They include features of textual organization (e.g. headings, spacing, and connectives such as *first* and *next*) as well as such interpersonal elements as HEDGES (*perhaps*), attitude markers (*frankly*), and dialogue features (for example, *see Figure 1*)." (Crystal, 2008. p, 302)

d. Evidential Markers

Evidential markers are "metalinguistic representations of an idea from another source" (Thomas and Hawes, 1994. p, 129)

6.2. Operational Definitions

a. Dissertation

A dissertation is a piece of academic writing. In the context of our research, a "dissertation" refers to Master dissertations (henceforth MD) that were selected as a corpus in specified context.

b. Literature Review

Literature review is a section that presents "what is already known, what work has been done before, and/or what ideas and models have already been developed"(Morley, 2017, p. 30). The current study investigates the literature review in just one writing type which is dissertations.

c. Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse as a self-reflective expression is used to negotiate interactional meaning in a piece of written discourse. This study limits the term "metadiscourse" to one category of metadiscourse markers which is evidential metadiscourse markers as indicated in Hyland (2005).

d. Evidential Markers

Evidential metadiscourse markers refer to material from other sources of knowledge (Hyland, 2005). They have four sub-divisions: sensory, belief, reporting and inferring markers.

7. Structure of the Dissertation

The present dissertation is divided into two sections: the theoretical section and the practical part. The theoretical part of this study is divided into two chapters. The first one is concerned with reviewing the literature that is related to the theme, which is metadiscourse. The second chapter is about the literature review as part of dissertations. The theoretical part is followed by a practical one. The latter represents the methodology and the results.

Chapter One: Metadiscourse

Introduction

Metadiscourse is a term that is commonly used in the field of pedagogy and it is usually restricted to written discourse. This section is one of the two chapters that represent the theoretical part of the present study. This chapter deals with what metadiscourse means, as well as its importance and its role in academic writing. In addition, it discusses metadiscourse models, especially Hyland's (2005) model. Furthermore, this section presents and illustrates the categorizations of metadiscourse markers.

1.1. The Concept of Metadiscourse

The concept of metadiscourse emerged from the pioneering work of Kopple (1985), Crismore (1989) and others to balance earlier views of discourse that consider texts as merely serving to convey context. The core idea of metadiscourse centers around "discourse about discourse" (Hyland, 2005, p.16). Some researchers restrict it to features that help organize the text as text. This position limits the study of metadiscourse to elements of discourse that signal its direction, purpose and internal structure. This position is known as "the reflexive model" (Adel, 2006; Mauranen, 1993). Other researchers take a wider view by seeing it as "the ways writers project themselves into their discourse to signal their understanding of their material and their audience" (2010, Hyland, p. 125). This position sees this notion as representing a coherent set of interpersonal options. It is called "the integrative model" or "the interactive model" (Hyland, 2004, 2005).

1.2. The Role of Metadiscourse

It has been noted by many researchers that metadiscourse is writing about the evolving text rather than referring to the subject matter (Swales and Feak, 2000). Metadiscourse has an important role in academic writing. "The term metadiscourse was coined by Harris (1959) to offer a way of understanding language in use, representing a writer's or speaker's attempts to guide a receiver's perception of a text" (Hyland, 2005, p. 3). In other words, text producers assist text receivers following the development of their literature review or any other text by using metadiscourse. The latter is used to make one's text more comprehensible. Adel (2006) states that metadiscourse is utilized by writers in different ways to create and maintain a relationship with the reader, audience, and it strengthens the writer's position at the same time. As a result, writer- reader interaction is realized through the establishment of this relationship which leads to a successful communication.

Research has shown that using the considerable amount of metadiscourse gives readers the impression that the writer is conscious of what he/she is doing.

1.3. The Importance of Metadiscourse in Academic Writing

One of the most significant features of professional writing that affords useful information about how writers support and build their ideas in an accurate structure is the use of metadiscourse. In other words, there is a considerable amount of metadiscourse which "road map" the organization of the paper (Swales and Feak, 2000, p.125). In this way, "the reader can follow the overall position that the writer takes" (Paltridge et al, 2009, p.34). Furthermore, the presence of these linguistics elements offers a pathway to help writers to achieve coherence and persuasiveness. In the light of what is stated above, metadiscourse is, therefore, believed to be an important feature that facilitates communication between writers and readers.

Academic writers use language to offer a reliable image of themselves and their work. They also use it to discuss social relations with receivers of texts (Hyland, 2004). The content of metadiscourse rates on the study beyond the manners in which texts characterize the work, to how they work in an interpersonal way. This is what makes metadiscourse important in the study of academic writing. Writing in academic contexts is viewed as the capability of controlling structures, vocabulary, and conventional representations of foreign languages (Lado, 1985). In this point, text producers implement certain amount of features to write effectively.

1.4. Hyland's (2005) Model

The metadiscourse model of Hyland and Tse (2004) owes much to Thompson and Thetela's "interactive" and "interactional" notions. Hyland's model takes a "slightly wider focus than Thompson's by including both stance and engagement features of interaction" (2004, Hyland and Tse, p. 168).

There are significant causes that guide in differentiating metadiscourse from the propositional content of a piece of writing. According to Hyland and Tse (2004), the definition of metadiscourse, on one hand, sets a line between the prepositional material and metadiscourse markers. On the other hand, it helps in organizing the content and conveying the text producers' beliefs. "Metadiscourse thus provides us with a broad perspective on the way that academic writers engage their readers; shaping their propositions to create convincing, coherent text by making

language choices in social contexts peopled by readers, prior experiences, and other texts" (2004, Hyland and Tse, p.167).

Hyland (2005) suggested a model that is widely used in which he has distinguished between the interactive and the interactional resources while dealing with the interpersonal model of metadiscourse. On the one hand, the interactive resources "refer to features which set out an argument to explicitly establish the writer's preferred interpretation" (Hyland and Tse, 2004, p.168). This means that the writer uses these resources to guide what should be, exactly, recovered from the text. On the other hand, interactional resources "concerns the ways writers conduct interaction by introducing and commenting on their message" (Hyland and Tse, 2005, p.49). In this type of resources, the writer's concern is attempting to involve readers as well as achieving their persuasiveness. Table 01 summarizes the markers as presented in Hyland's model.

Table 01: Hyland's Model of Interpersonal Metadiscourse

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

(Adapted from: Hyland, 2005, p. 49)

1.4.1. The Interactive Resources

Interactive resources are the first category in the interpersonal model of metadiscourse. These resources permit the writer to deal with the flow of information in order to prove his/her best interpretations. Interactive resources are features used to structure propositional information in a way that the receivers will find it coherent and undoubted. This type of resources, as presented in Figure 01, include five sub-divisions: transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses.
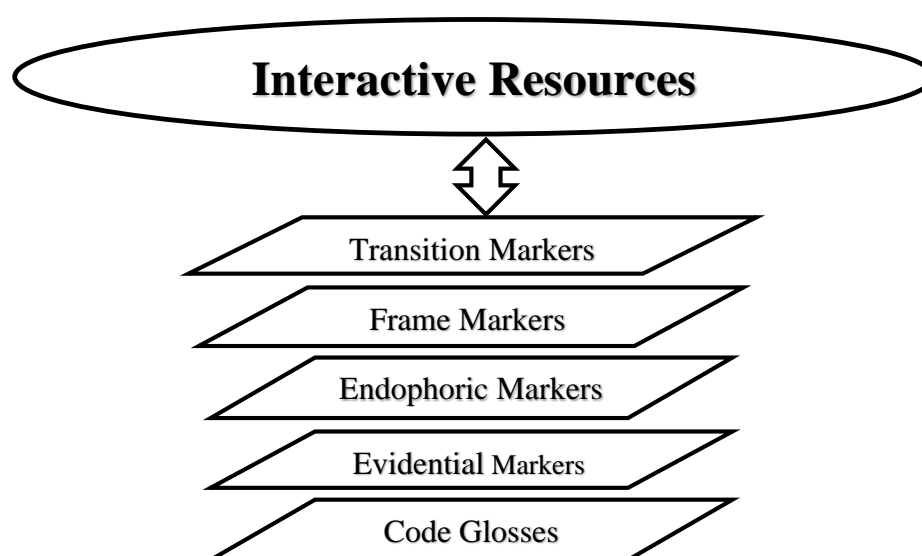
Figure 01: Interactive Resources

1.4.1.1. Transition Markers

Transitions are markers, like "thus", "but" and "in addition", that show the connection between chief clauses. In other words, they are conjunctions and adverbial phrases that help readers in interpreting the link between clauses and sentences. These markers include a group of devices used to indicate additive, causative, contrastive and consequential relations between sequences of discourse (Hyland, 2005).

1.4.1.2. Frame Markers

Frame markers "refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages" (Hyland, 2005. P, 49). These markers make the text limits or schematic text structure components. This category can be used for many reasons: to sequence, to identify, to label text stages, to declare discourse purposes or to

indicate a change in topics position (Hyland, 2005). Frame markers are indicated via words, phrases and expressions like "finally", "to conclude", "let us return to", etc.

1.4.1.3. Endophoric Markers

Endophorics help the reader understand the text better either by reference to earlier material of the discourse or by anticipation of something that has not yet been mentioned using extra remarkable materials for the reader. Markers in this interactive sub-division "make additional material salient and therefore available to the reader in aiding the recovery of the writer's meanings" (Hyland, 2005.p, 51). Endophorics are indicated by expressions like "noted above", "in section 4" and "see Fig".

1.4.1.4. Evidential Markers

Evidential markers, which are the focus of this study, refer to information that were previously mentioned in other texts. In other words, evidential metadiscourse markers (henceforth EMM) are "metalinguistic representations of an idea from other sources" (Thomas and Hawes, 1994, p. 129). Expressions like "according to X" and "Z states that" are known as evidential markers.

In languages such as English language, "there are no grammaticalised evidential systems" (2014, Yang, p. 582). This means that evidentially in English language is not expressed through the use of affixes. According to Yang (2014), a subtype of the evidential markers category is interested with directly and indirectly reported information. The choice of an appropriate evidentials "makes the propositional content more coherent, intelligible and persuasive to the reader" (2014, Yang, p. 583). He also states that researchers agree that evidential metadiscourse markers is a systematic category (See Table 02).

Table 02: Lexicogrammatical patterns of evidential types

Evidential types	Typical realizations		Examples
Sensory evidential type	First-person pronoun plus see verbs or passive forms of see		I / we see; be seen
	It is/ can be seen		It is / can be seen that
	As (be) seen		As seen above
Belief evidential type	Subjective	I / we + mental state verb	I think; I believe; I/ we suggest
		Adjunct	In my/our view,
	Objective	It (model verb)+ mental state verbed	It can be suggested; it may be tentatively argued
		Adjunct	Arguably; admittedly
Reporting evidential type	(Author + year) or (website + year)		(Hunston, 2000)
	Verbal realization	*Verb that* structure, *be verbed* structure	X argue, maintain, found, … that
		It is ved structure	It is argued, it has been revealed
		As structure	As indicated by
	Non-verbal realization	Noun that	Fact, observation, argument, finding, view, claim,
		Adjunct	According to X, in X's data, in X's view
Inferring evidential type	Modal verbs		Can; may; could; might; must;
	Relational process		Seem to/ that; appear to/ that
	Modal adjunct		Clearly, probably, evidently, possibly, certainly, obviously,
	Impersonal *it* structure		It's possible that, it's certain that, it's clear that, it's clear that, it's evident that

(Adapted from Yang, 2014, p. 585)

1.4.1.5. Code Glosses

Ideational information reformulations are indicated through code glosses. The latter "supply additional information, by rephrasing, explaining or elaborating what has been said, to ensure the reader is able to recover the writer's intended meaning" (Hyland, 2005.p, 52). Code glosses start by phrases such as "for example", "this can be defined as", "namely" and other phrases.

1.4.2. The Interactional Resources

Interactional resources are the second category in the interpersonal model of metadiscourse. These resources concern the writer's efforts to involve readers in the arguments by alerting them to the author's perspective towards both prepositional information and readers themselves. Interactional resources, as presented in Figure 02, comprise five sub-classes: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers and self-mentions.

Figure 02: Interactional Resources

1.4.2.1. Hedges

Hyland states that hedges are devices used to indicate the degree of certainty a writer wishes to convey. In other words, text producers use hedges to mark reluctance to present propositional information categorically. Hedges are signaled by items such as "possible", "might", and "clearly".

1.4.2.2. Boosters

Boosters according to Hyland "are words like "clearly" and "obviously" which allow writers to express their certainty in what they say and to mark involvement with the topic and solidarity with their audience"(Hyland, 2008, p179). Boosters can therefore imply certainty and emphasize the force of proposition

1.4.2.3. Attitude Markers

Through the use of attitude markers, text producers indicate their affective attempt to express "surprise", "obligation", "importance", and "attitude to propositions". Hyland claims that "attitude is expressed throughout a text by the use of subordination, comparatives, progressive particles, punctuation, text location, and so on. It is most explicitly signaled by attitude verb (e.g. agree, prefer), sentence adverb (unfortunately, hopefully), and adjectives (appropriate, logical, remarkable)" (Hyland, 2008, p. 180).

1.4.2.4. Self-Mention

Hyland believes that self-mentions refer to the degree of the author presence in the text. That is to say, the way the author uses these devices to include themselves in his proper text. This is controlled by the occurrences of first person pronounces (I, we) and possessive adjectives (me, our). (Hyland, 2005)

1.4.2.5. Engagement Markers

Engagement markers "explicitly build a relationship with reader" (Hyland, 2005.p, 49). These markers focus more on the reader participation by including them or selectively focusing their attention and counting questions forms, imperatives, and second person pronouns. Engagement markers are the "the ways writers bring readers into the discourse to anticipate their possible objections." (Hyland, 2005, p. 182).

Conclusion

Academic writers use various metadiscourse markers to improve and to offer credibility to their texts. They also use them to strengthen their claims. Aiming at clarifying the importance and the role of metadiscourse in academic writing, the present chapter has offered a detailed description of models and categorization of metadiscourse.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Introduction

The literature review is a crucial section in dissertation writing. This chapter presents a theoretical part of the study that gives a definition of the literature review, its purpose, and its characteristics. Moreover, it discusses the literature review misconceptions. It also looks for its rhetorical organization. Furthermore, it attempts to provide insights to the methods of organizing it. Last and not least, this chapter also deals with literature review objectives.

2.1. Definition of Literature Review

In dissertation writing, the researcher is required to discuss previous researchers work in a special section called "literature review". This term has been defined in various manners. Machi and McEvoy (2012) state that a literature review is "a written document that presents a logically argued case founded on a comprehensible understanding of the current state of knowledge about a topic of study" (p. 4). Moreover, Kitely and Stogdon (2014) argue that literature review (henceforth LR) refers to general overview about a given topic of research. In other words, LR reflects a general review of what has been done in a specific area of research or the context of current research.

2.2. Misconceptions about Literature Review Section

The concept of LR is at many times misunderstood by learners. The latter think that LR is a collection of sources with information on a particular topic. Whereas if one is to say what a LR is in an efficient manner, s/he must say that it is a comprehensive evaluation of past pieces of researche that help in creating a link between the previous and intended research. The LR sources must create "a convincing thesis to answer the study's question"(Machi and McEvoy, 2012, p.4). Dossertation writers think that a good LR is the one that gives greater importance on some researches rather than others. In fact, it is better to try to find facts that backup one's position. Another misconception is that reviewing the literature should be characterized by quoting and paraphrasing which is not the case. A LR should evaluate research results and their quality. To explain this point more, one can say that quoting a source all of a sudden is a mistake that is commonly committed by students. Instead, every researcher should start their text with a short passage that prepares the reader to receive a quotation. Afterwards, they should give a comment or a remark on that quotation. Last and not least, a commen mistake that students fall in is to "stray from their intended research focus" (Biggam, 2008, p.74). One should generate related sub-

headings to their research objectives. These sub-headings will help in the non-deviation from one's research emphasis.

2.3. Purpose of the Literature Review Section

Literature review chapter establishes the connection that exists between one's research and the previous studies. Thus, LR enables us to reflect how our research contributes in the general area of study where one's topic is located. "The overall purpose of a literature review is to demonstrate this, and to help the reader to understand how your study fits into the broader context" (Oliver, 2012, p. 5).

Additionally, Morely (2017) states that the purpose of the literature review section in a dissertation is to present in a systematic way, what is already recognized about the whole topic, and to highlight the core ideas and theories that contribute in understanding this. The LR section affords logically the theoretical knowledge that has already existed about the general area of research. As well as, it spots light on the main trends that have a strong effect in building a comprehensible understanding of the topic under investigation.

Taylor and Procter (2008) argue that a literature review section gives the reader the opportunity to attain and demonstrate skills into two areas: information seeking and critical appraisal. The former refers to one's ability to browse the literature efficiently. The latter reflects one's ability to apply principles of analysis to recognize unbiased and valid studies. Chandler (2004) stresses that the term "critical" means that the review should not be only a descriptive list, but it should enable the researcher to think critically.

2.4. Characteristics of Effective Literature Review Section

Swales and Feak (2000) claim that producing an effective LR covers certain characteristics. In developing a LR, the researcher should keep critical evaluation for each piece of work included. This means that they assesse the existing data in order to identify theoretical and methodological gaps in the area of investigation. Swales (2000) also emphasizes that one needs to include previous pieces of research that have a relation with one's research emphasis. This knowledge should be directly relevant information, and it should be spacious enough to afford information concerning the topic. Mattern (2010) states that creating an effective literature review is influenced by logical organization and presenting arguments successfully concerning the area of study.

2.5. Rhetorical Organization of Literature Review Section

The structure of literature review varies from one researcher to another, though it requires an introduction, a body and a conclusion all the time.

Biggam (2008) claims that the introduction of literature review section should reflect subject study's overview that the researcher think they need to cover in order to achieve their specific research objectives. Biggam's idea emphasizes that the researcher should create an appropriate area for the literature review through identifying the general area of concern.

Developing a body for your literature review is "creating sub-section headings that link to your research objectives you are ensuring that your work will be focused" (Biggam, 2008, p.73). At this stage, the researcher should set divisions for their work under reviewing the theme in order to provide explanation of how group of research studies or other kind of literature (articles, case studies, etc.) are related to the topic of research.

According to Cruz's (2005), at the level of assessing each piece or evaluating critically each piece of work, consideration should be given to the following criteria:

- Provenance: what are the author's credentials?
- Objectivity: is the author's perspective even-handed or prejudicial?
- Persuasiveness: which of the author's theses are least/ most convincing?
- Value: Are the author's arguments and conclusions convincing?

It is important to provide well-structured arguments by using fixed expressions in order to make them coherent. This constitute a work that contribute in any significant way to an understanding of the topic. As a result, the writer convinces the text receivers.

According to Biggam (2008), a literature review's conclusion should do two major things. To begin with,it spots light on the issues that have been materialized from one's own readings. This area affords some insight into the established relationship between the gist topic of one's reviewing the literature and the general area of study. Second, the conclusion of a literature review should be "providing a justification for any empirical work that you want to do" (Biggam, 2008, p.77). To simplify this idea, we can say that a literature review conclusion points out the methodological gaps. These gaps exist in previous piece of research and they help in utilizing other ways in one's research. These are represented in Figure 03.
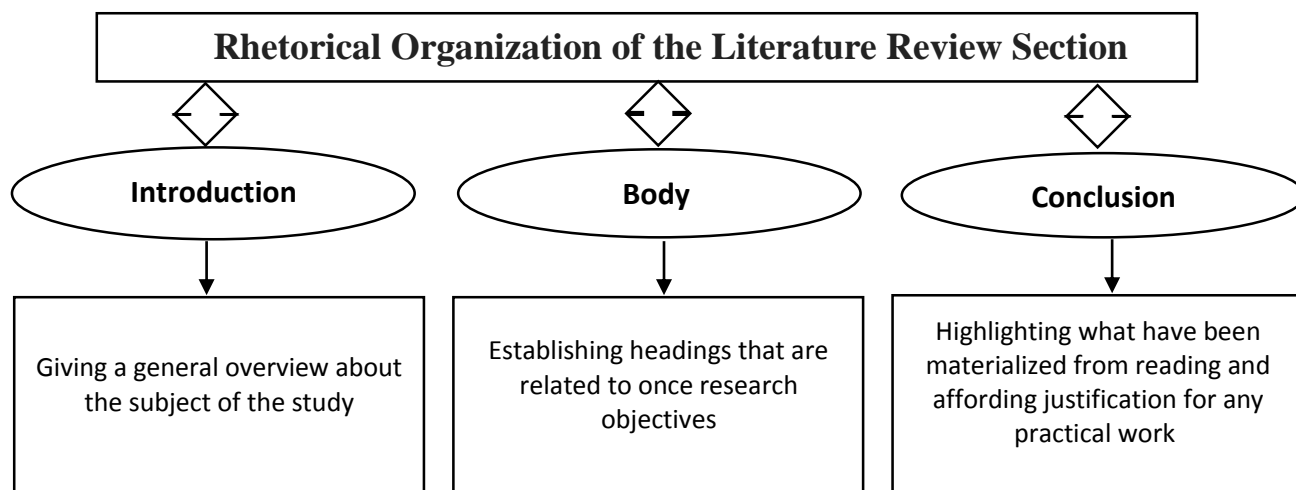
Figure 03: Rhetorical Organization of the Literature Review

2.6. Methods of Organizing the Literature Review Section

A number of researchers have attempted to account for certain methods to organize the LR section. Swales and Feak (2000) have tried to provide an explanation for different methods through illustration of some tasks. According to their tasks, LR can be organized chronologically, thematically, or methodologically. These are represented in Figure 04.

2.6.1. Chronological Literature Review

If the LR pursues the chronological method, one could write about the existing materials referring to when they were published. This method is used only when an obvious path of research can be organized and that these trends follow an obvious chronological order of development.

2.6.2. Thematic Literature Review

Thematic review is another method to organize one's LR. This method differs from the previous one. Thematic review is arranged around the topic of study, rather than referring to the advancement of time. Despite the existing difference, the progression of time may still be a crucial factor in developing a thematic review.

2.6.3. Methodological Literature Review

According to Swales and Feak (2000), the methodological type focuses much more on the method used by the researchers unlike the focusing factors of the chronological and thematic methods which usually have to do with the content of the material. This means that this method highlights the practical application utilized by the researchers.
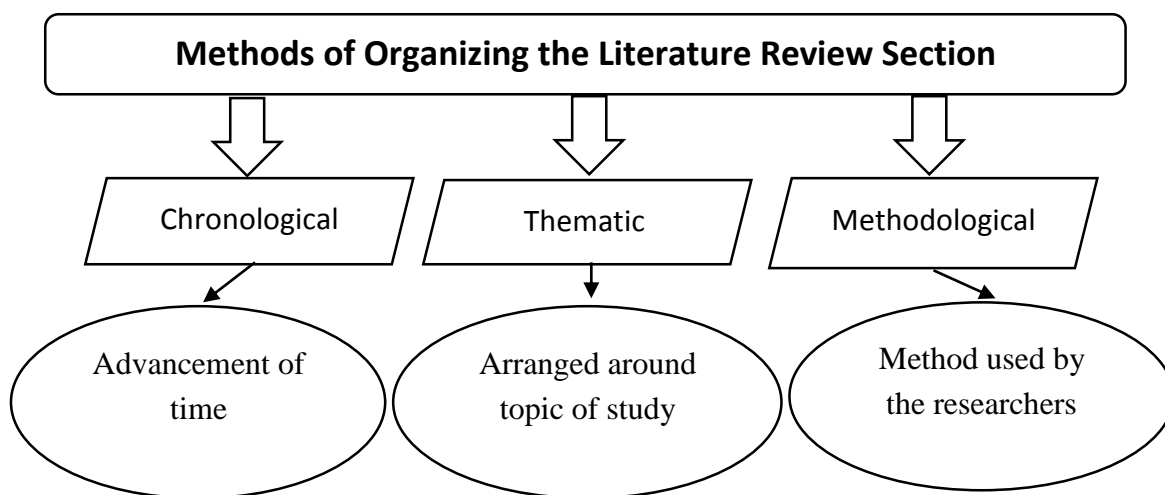
Figure 04: Methods of Organizing the Literature Review Section

2.7. Objectives of the Literature Review Section

A LR is not just giving account of the literature. In fact, "a literature review can stand alone as an end in itself or can serve to inform primary research" (Onwuegbuzie and Frels, 2016, p.18). The LR process covers four important factors: summarizing, analyzing, evaluating and synthesizing. To start with summarizing, Onwuegbuzie and Frels (2016) state that it is the lowest level of a LR. When one is summarizing s/he must emphasize the main thing s/he is working on (Biggam, 2008). In other words, one should not give importance to minor things like arguments and examples while summarizing. Moore (2009) declares that analysis may be described as moldering complex items into its parts or elements in order to be described in a higher quality. The analysis of a literature may include subdivisions. This will help "to explain how it works, analyzing the relationships between parts, or recognizing motives or organizational structures" (Moore, 2009, p. 82). When analyzing the literature, students investigate what researchers know and do not know about their field of study.

In evaluating literature "students are required to make quantitative and qualitative judgments on the extent to which an internal or external criterion is satisfied" (Moore, 2009, p.82). That is to say, evaluating literature is judging its material or its ideas based on some criteria. Synthesizing, which is the highest level, is a new whole that occurs when one synthesizes his/her own work, s/he will create a personal and an unparalleled copy from the existing data. These objectives are indispensable in any LR. They influence one's final report when used appropriately (Moore, 2009). Figure 05 summarizes the objectives of LR.
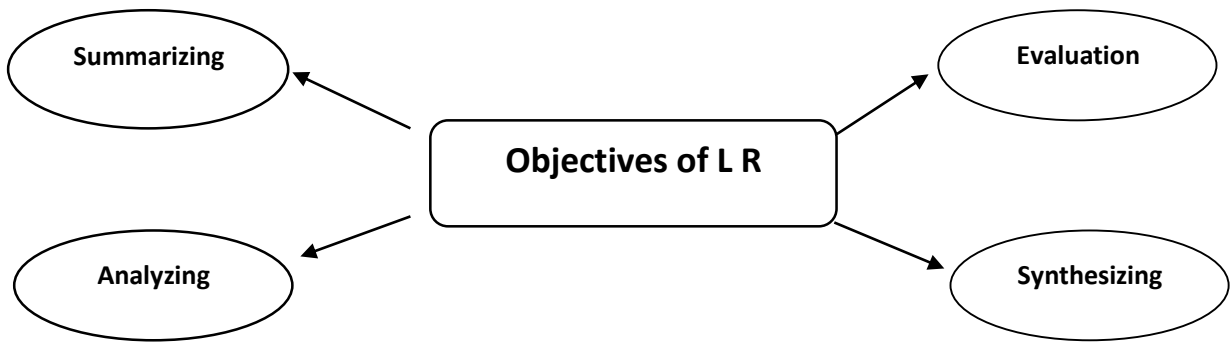
Figure 05: Objectives of the Literature Review Section

Conclusion

The literature review is an important section in the dissertation work. It enables students to start their work from previous researche and continue their investigation in a precise topic to answer their research questions. This chapter has undertaken the misconception of LR to help students avoid the most frequent mistakes that are commonly committed. The purpose, rhetorical organization, methods of organizing and objectives of LR were also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter Three: Methodology and Results

Introduction

This chapter introduces the methodology of this research. It first presents the research design and general description of the compiled corpus. Moreover, it lists the procedures carried out to analyze the selected corpus. This chapter ends with results and discussions of the obtained findings.

3.1. Research Design

The current study adopted a descriptive analytical approach. Fox and Bayat (2007) suggest that the descriptive approach "aimed at casting lights on current issues or problems through a process of data collection that enables them to describe the situation more completely than was possible without employing this method" (p. 45). The descriptive approach is used to describe student's use of EMM when writing dissertation's LR section. The analytical approach is utilized in this study to analyze and to determine student's efficiency in using evidential metadiscourse when writing dissertations LR. Both quantitative and qualitative methods are used. The quantitative method is employed to calculate the frequency of occurrence of evidential metadiscourse markers. Whereas the qualitative method is utilized to analyze tendencies.

3.2. Description of Corpus

This study was conducted at the English department at KMU. It is based on a corpus, which is "a collection of language text" (Toggnini-Boneilli, 2001, p.53). The corpus consists of 16 applied linguistics (stands for AL) and ESP Master dissertations that were selected from both the academic years 2015/2016 and 2016/2017. Dissertations were written by both genders: males/ females. Sex was not taken into consideration. The dissertations in the corpus were systematically selected every third from a list of 48 MD. Biggam (2008) states that "systematic sampling occurs when you take a sample of your target population at equal or regular intervals" (p.89). Because of many advantages, this technique of sampling was used. This method will approximate the results of simple random sampling. Moreover, it is cost and time efficient. This is a crucial aspect of this technique which makes it applicable in many situations. The selection of these dissertations was based on a number of criteria:

1 - They are authentic academic genres.

2 - They included a section which was entitled "Literature Review".

3- They are limited to one discipline because these dissertations study topics related to language studies.

Master dissertations gathered for the study are arranged as follows: general introduction, a theoretical part of the study or a literature review: this section is divided into different chapters, a practical part of the study and conclusion.

3.3. Data Analysis Procedure

For the purpose of this study, data analysis procedure followed three main phases: text adjustment, reporting results and interpreting results.

3.3.1. Text Adjustment

The literature reviews of the MD were originally documented in word form. Tables and figures were removed because they were considered as redundant. Also, typing and spelling mistakes in the evidential markers were corrected. Next, documents were converted into text (TXT) format for the computerized analysis. Finally, they were coded from LR 1 to LR 16. The 16 literature reviews are presented in Table 03.

Table 03: The Literature Review Sections in the Corpus

Literature review	Number of chapters	Number of words
LR 1	1	2463
LR 2	1	3176
LR 3	2	2957
LR 4	1	3105
LR 5	1	6271
LR 6	2	4356
LR 7	1	3310
LR 8	1	5863
LR 9	2	4584
LR 10	1	6430
LR 11	1	2216
LR 12	2	5086
LR 13	2	6544
LR 14	1	5101
LR 15	1	4928
LR 16	2	4446

3.3.2. Reporting Results

The second phase is reporting results of the evidential markers' usages that were related to Hyland's model (see section 4). This type is divided into sensory, belief, reporting and inferring markers. The frequencies of this phase were obtained through the AntConc concordance software (2014) version (3.4.4.0). According to Meyer (2004), the concordance has become a confirmed attachment for the textual analysis of corpora. This means that the concordance is the most frequently used program in processing linguistic corpora. Hunston (2002) claims that this program searches for an appointed word or phrase. There are basic tools in this software:

1) The concordance tool: It indicates any word or phrase in context.

2) The word list tool: It shows a list of the words or phrases that one is searching for in a specific text.

3) The keywords tool: It aids to find the key words in the text.

3.3.3. Interpreting Results

In the third and last phase, which is interpreting results, comments and descriptions concerning the frequencies of using evidential markers were done.

3.4. Results and Discussion

According to previous studies, especially Abdi (2011), the use of metadiscourse strategies in research articles as a genre in the area of academic writing reveals that evidential markers are highly employed due to the fact that writers attempt to create a successful communication through the flow of arguments and evidence. In this study, evidential metadiscourse analysis reveals globally that the majority of evidential types are used in the MA dissertations. The rate of evidential markers types is found to be divergent. A detailed description of the rate of each type of evidentials along with the corresponding words is provided separately.

3.4.1. Reporting Results

Following the suggested procedure, the following results were obtained:

3.4.1.1. Sensory Evidential Type

As for the sensory evidential type, in the selected corpus, writers used this type to imply that access to information is based upon the speaker's sensory experience. The most frequently and the only used marker in this type is "it can be seen that" with 04 usages. The other markers are totally absent in the corpus (see Table 04).

Table 04: Sensory Evidential Type

Evidential types	Expressions	Frequencies
	I / we see	00
Sensory evidential type	It is seen that	00
	can be seen that	**04**
	As seen above	00

4.1.2. Belief Evidential Type

Regarding the belief evidential type, they are completely absent in the literature review of the dissertations. This type of markers is absent in the student's linguistic repertoire. Table 05 shows the belief evidential words and expressions that were ignored in the student's texts.

Table 05: Belief Evidential Type

Evidential types	Expressions	Frequencies
	I think	00
Belief evidential type	I believe	00
	I/ we suggest	00
	In my/our view	00
	It can be suggested	00
	It may be tentatively argued	00
	Arguably	00
	Admittedly	00

3.4.1.3. Reporting Evidential Type

As for the reporting evidential type, writers use this type of evidential metadiscourse to report what others have said about the topic they are investigating. The majority of reporting evidential expressions are present in the corpus as shown in Table 06 below.

Table 06: Reporting Evidential Type

Evidential types	Expressions	Frequencies
	(Hunston, 2000)	**325**
	X argue that	32
	Maintain that	00
	Found that	22
	It is argued	00
	it has been revealed	03
	As indicated by	00
Reporting evidential type	Fact	25
	Observation	04
	Argument	03
	Finding	04
	View	24
	Claim	22
	According to X	**101**
	in X's data	00
	in X's view	00

3.4.1.4. Inferring Evidential Type

As for the inferring evidential type, writers usually use this type to provide information that was inferred from other sources of knowledge. As shown in Table 07, some inferring expressions are present in the corpus.

Table 07: Inferring Evidential Type

Evidential types	Expressions	Frequencies
	Can	**100**
	May	**33**
	Could	6
	Might	2
	Must	26
	Seem to/ that	01
	appear to/ that	02
	Clearly	09
Inferring evidential type	Probably	05
	Evidently	00
	Possibly	01
	Certainly	00
	Obviously	01
	It's possible that	00
	it's certain that	00
	it's clear that	00
	it's evident that	00

3.4.2. Interpreting Results

This phase contains comments and descriptions concerning the frequencies of using evidential metadiscourse markers types.

3.4.2.1. Sensory Evidential Type

As seen above, sensory evidential markers are used to indicate that the writer's utterance is based on sensory experience; thus, it can be concluded that relatively a low frequency of sensory markers may be caused by the fact that dissertation writers tend to use them more in the practical part of the dissertations. This type of evidential markers is used just in one dissertation in the selected corpus. The expression "can be seen that " is used 04 times in the selected corpus as seen above in **Table 4**. This expression is used correctly in the corpus. The following extracts show the way it is used.

a) *From these two examples,* ***it can be seen that*** *7the first sentence influences the interpretation of the sentence that follows it.* (LR 9)

b) ***It can be seen*** *that the nouns "my father and my mother" are omitted and replaced by "both" in the second clause.* (LR 9)

These two examples show the correct use of "it can be seen that" as a sensory evidential expression by dissertation writers.

3.4.2.2. Belief Evidential Type

Writers do use belief evidential markers to indicate their belief in the statement. In the selected corpus, dissertation writers did not utilize this type of evidentials. The reason for the common absence of these markers can be due to the fact that second year MA students while writing LR do not master how to present their beliefs through the writer's voice. Researchers pick up information from different resources, but they do not comment on the borrowed ideas. That is to say, writers do not have a clear attitude towards the information that have been gathered.

3.4.2.3. Reporting Evidential Type

Reporting evidential markers are often used in order to refer back to previous discourse. This is the reason that makes almost all reporting expressions present in the corpus. It is legitimate that text writers use this category since the literature review is being analyzed. It is noticed that

the "(Writer, year)" form is the most highly used in the corpus with 325 tokens as seen above in Table 6.

Different correct forms of this marker is used:

a) ***Black and William (1998)*** *define Feedback;"Any information that is provided to the performer to any action about that performance"(p.53).* (LR 1)

b) ***Ramaprased (1983)*** *"Feedback is information about the gap, between the actual level and the reference level of a system parameter which is used to alter the gap in some way" (p.7).* (LR 1)

c) *Today, most learners are not given the chance to think critically when they are asked to perform a certain reading task or activity. This is clearly explained by* ***Cromwell (1992)*** *who mentioned that one of the main goals of education, agreed upon by almost everyone, is the improvement of student thinking.* (LR 3)

d) *As* ***Brown and Yule (1983)*** *notes, there exist different ways of organizing what we want to say.* (LR 9)

e) *A further definition of lexical cohesion is developed by* ***Halliday (1985)***. *He claimes that it "comes about through the selection of items that are related in some way to those that have gone before."(p.310).* (LR 13)

Some dissertation writers do have problems in mechanics while using this form of reporting evidential markers. (f) is an example of this erroneous form.

f) *In this respect* ***Robinson (1980)*** *posits that:*
"The general with which we are contrasting the specific is that of general education for life, culture and literature oriented language course in which the language itself is the subject matter and the purpose of the course. The student of ESP, however, is learning English en route to the acquisition of some quite different body of knowledge and set of skills". (p. 6) (LR 2)

In this example, there must be a use of a comma after "In this respect". I.e. "In this respect**, Robinson (1980)** posits that: *"The general … of skills"*. (p. 6)"

Despite the fact that the form "according to" is ranked the second with 101 tokens, students still have difficulties in using it. These difficulties are attached to problems in mechanics. More specifically, some students appear to have difficulties in using the comma after this marker following the APA style.

a) *According to Bell& Cowie the sources of formative assessment information for the teacher is through their observation of the student's working at different situations in order to provide an appropriate information for each student.* (LR 1)

The correct form of (a) is the following: "**According to** Bell& Cowie**,** the sources of formative assessment information for the teacher is through their observation of the student's working at different situations in order to provide an appropriate information for each student."

b) *According to Maslow (1943) these kinds of needs form the basic elements for survival, including hunger, thirst, sexual drive, and shelter.* (LR 8)

The correct form of (b) is: "**According to** Maslow (1943)**,** these kinds of needs form the basic elements for survival, including hunger, thirst, sexual drive, and shelter."

Some students do not use the year of publication between brackets after "according to". (c) is a good example of this phenomenon.

c) *According to Black and william1998, Formative assessment practices will not materialize unless certain conditions are met.* (LR 1)

In statement (c), the use of the year is erroneous; the year must be put between brackets. The correct form is as follows: **According to Black and William (1998)**, Formative assessment practices will not materialize unless certain conditions are met.

Many instances of the term "according to" are used correctly:

d) *According to* *Harmer (2001), teachers may change their roles from one task to another.* (LR 3)

e) *According to* *Kim (2001), EFL learners often find interpersonal communication with native speakers to be stressful and unsettling.* (LR 15)

f) *According to* *Ushioda (1996), students who are intrinsically motivated can experience greater pleasure and emotional involvement because the rewards generated from intrinsic motivation are usually positive feelings such as enjoyment, pleasure, satisfaction, and students can be always motivated by those internal rewards from the learning itself to persist learning.* (LR 4)

It is also noticed that there is a lack of variety in the use of other markers in this category, i.e. reporting evidential markers. In comparison with the high use of the term "according to" and the form "(author, year)", there are some expressions that were not frequently used, whereas the rest of expressions, which are: "maintain that", "it is argued", "as indicated by", "in X's data" and "in X's view", were totally absent. The following are the expressions that were used with different frequencies:

- "X argues that" (with 32 tokens)

Different forms are used in this corpus:

a) *Brown (1995) offers another definition of NA. He* ***argues that*** *needs analysis is:*
   The systematic collection and analysis of all subjective and objective information necessary to define and validate defensible curriculum purposes that satisfy the language learning requirements of students within the context of particular institutions that influence the learning and teaching situation (as cited in Brown, 2016).(LR 11)

b) *Applegate and Sypher (1983)* ***argued:***
   "what is needed is not a theory of intercultural, cross-cultural, or interracial communication, but as base, a coherent theory of communication whose focus of convenience encompasses accounts of the probable impact of historically emergent forms of groups life on the various forms and functions communication assumes in everyday life." (p. 63) (LR 15)

c) *Bdager &White (2000, p 157)* **argue that** *"the negative side of genre based approach is that they undervalue the skills needed to produce a text and see learners as largely passive".* (LR 16)

- " Found that" (with 22 tokens)

The expression "Found that" is also used in different manners:

a) *However Baddely has indicated it is the head of working memory, later researchers have* **found that** *it is another component of working memory, and "running the show" it is another component's function. The claim was interpreted in term of dual tasks requiring dual different executive functions (Akira, & et al, 2000).* (LR 5)

b) *By accident, in a study investigated infants' language perception, McGurk have* **found that** *when a visual cue is presented simultaneously with a different acoustic one, a third cue is declared to be perceived (McGurk, & MacDonald, 1976).* (LR 5)

- "It has been revealed" (with 3 tokens)

a) *Reviewing the literature of reading as a language skill* **revealed** *that it has been defined differently in comparison to reading comprehension.* (LR 13)

b) *Phil (2013)* **revealed that** *scanning and skimming are probably two of the most useful skills in reading as long as you can overcome the fear that you will miss things if you do not read everything with perfect comprehension at all time; another vital skill that saves a huge amount of time is selective reading.* (LR 6)

- "Fact" (with 25 tokens)

a) *In* **fact***, it aims to relate sentences and clauses together so that to show a particular grammatical function (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).* (LR 13)

b) *The reason behind this claim was motivated by the* **fact** *that language is a string of compositions within which the syntactic level of analysis is of greater importance (Chomsky, 1965).* (LR 14)

- "Observation" (with 4 tokens)

a) *According to Bell & Cowie the sources of formative assessment information for the teacher is through their **observation** of the student's working at different situations in order to provide an appropriate information for each student.* (LR 1)

- "Argument" (with 3 tokens)

a) *However, as Widdowson (2007) argues, cohesive devices do not always lead us to interpret a text as coherent. To support his **argument**, he gives the following example:* (LR 9)

- "Finding" (with 4 tokens)

a) *Adam in his theory proposes two key words "input & outcome." He stated that individuals are seeking behind **finding** a balance between their inputs and the gained outcomes, in relation to others' outcomes, for instance when someone is given a pay-rise or promotion, this makes him motivated, unlike others.* (LR 8)

- "View" (with 24 tokens)

a) *And from Trevor's **view** we can say that both of skimming and scanning have same function for different purposes.* (LR 6)

b) A unified, clear view about second language cognitive process is still scuba diving in Research Sea that is fluctuated in term of publication (Bruin, Treccani, & Della Salla, 2014).

- "Claim" (with 22 tokens)

a) *Hyland (2006) **claims** that each expanded emphasis reinforces rather than replaces prior ones.* (LR 2)

b) *Johnson (1995) **claims** that if learner-learner interaction is well structured and managed, then it can be an important factor of cognitive development, educational achievement of students and emerging social competencies.* (LR 10)

3.4.2.4. Inferring Evidential Type

Dissertation writers seem to neglect inferring evidential markers with the exception of "can" which is widely used with 100 tokens. Markers such as "may" and "must" are moderately used with 33 and 26 tokens respectively. Other markers such as "could" and "clearly" are rarely utilized. Also, some inferring markers like "it's clear that" and "certainly" are completely absent

in the selected corpus. The absence of critical thinking, which is considered as a result of superficial reading, may be one reason behind the non-use of the other markers in this category.

a) *According to Brumfit (1977), learners **can** be involved in the reading process intensively or extensively.* (LR 3)

b) *Harmer (2001), teachers **may** change their roles from one task to another. Thus, the teacher is not the only one who dominates the classroom; s/he plays several roles instead.* (LR 3)

c) *It is probably unnecessary to point out that one will face any problem when writing in the target language, but it is worthy to cite the many problems the writer **may** encounter when undertaking a writing task. Some of these difficulties are related to grammar, lexis and organization of sentences into a unified unity (Allen, 2005).* (LR 14)

d) *Bloom (1956) and his partners brought to light a taxonomy through which the objectives of learning **could** be achieved according to their cognitive skills.* (LR 3)

e) *A research paper (article) **might** be characterized as relatively short piece of research which is usually published in a journal or a volume.* (LR 12)

f) *Paul Black and Dylan Wiliam argue that it is not possible to introduce formative assessments into a traditionally formatted classroom. The teacher in a classroom that uses formative assessment **must** give up some control and encourage students to participate in developing learning goals and outcomes.* (LR 1)

g) *Relying on the logical ground of the examination of phonotactic restoration, and based on hesitation of Phonotactic rules perception (Brown, & Hildum, 1956. Cited in Moreton), words and pseudo-words perception **seem to** be due on the same path.* (LR 5)

h) *Textual themes according to Fontaine (2013) are the elements of the clause that do not have any other function than to express textual meaning, since they tend to have an explicit relevance function and **appear to** indicate the relevance of the clause neighboring clauses*

within the text. Textual themes are expressed by conjunctions that come at the beginning of the clause such as (but, and) or continuatives like (well, so). (LR 9)

i) *Reading is one language skills which is classified under receptive skills. Reading is **clearly** an important skill. In fact, it is much more than a single skill: it involves the coordination of a range of abilities, strategies, and knowledge (Kate, 2010). (LR 6)*

j) *Ellis (1994, p.483) claimed that Learners' affective factors are **obviously** of crucial importance in accounting for individual differences in learning outcomes. (LR 8)*

k) *Phil (2013) revealed that scanning and skimming are **probably** two of the most useful skills in reading as long as you can overcome the fear that you will miss things if you do not read everything with perfect comprehension at all time; another vital skill that saves a huge amount of time is selective reading. (LR 6)*

l) *The research also has demonstrated that the same cortex areas are activated for the same words among different participants in clear evidence to semantic fixed categorization of items meaning, and **possibly** the same processing leading to less emphasizing on peoples' knowledge experiences diversity (Huth, Heer, Griffiths, Theunissen, & Gallant, 2016). (LR 5)*

3.4.3. Recapitulation

The findings of this study, which attempts to explore the dominant EMM types that 2nd year MA students of Linguistics use when writing the LR section of their dissertations and to investigate their degree of efficiency in using evidential metadiscourse when writing dissertation literature review, indicate that some evidential markers types are efficiently used, such as reporting and inferring markers. Both reporting markers "(author, year)" and "according to" are frequently used and thus they are the most dominant. Concerning the inferring markers students tend to use the marker "can" more than the other markers. Sensory evidential type which includes expressions as "can be seen that" and "as seen above" are restricted in their use. Thus, second year MD writers demonstrate a lack of efficiency in using this type. Last but not least, the findings clearly indicate that no expression that represents the belief evidential markers, such as "arguably" and "I believe", are not utilized while writing the literature review of dissertations.

Conclusion

Through this analysis, the model of Hyland's (2005) was adopted and it was restricted to evidential markers types. The present chapter aims at answering questions which were set in the general introduction. This chapter presents the results and the analysis of the selected corpus. It also deals with the description of the corpus and the procedures to analyze data.

Recommendations and Suggestions

Based on the findings of the present study, a number of recommendations can be formulated:

1. A module in which Students receive sufficient information concerning metadiscourse and its importance in writing dissertations should be added .
2. Since it was found that dissertation writers overuse both "author, year" and "according to" markers, using mechanics wrongly, focus should be put on how to use mechanics with regard to its importance in writing academic papers in general.
3. Students should be given alternatives for the overused expressions and should be trained to avoid repeating the same markers.
4. Students should be familiarized with metadiscourse and their metadiscourse vocabulary should be enriched, especially concerning the belief evidential markers.

From the recommendations listed above, the following activities may help teachers improve student's writing level:

1. Asking students to engage in their own discourse analysis
2. Asking students to correct the erroneous mechanics usages in their classmate's writings.
3. Giving students a list of sentences or passages which contain overused markers and asking them to replace them with alternatives to avoid repetition.
4. Giving students a number of markers and asking them to write different utterances using each.

Limitations of the Study

To reach the objectives of the present study, the AntConc Concordance Software was used due to its ability to save time, but this program has some limitations. One of the limitations that have emerged during the analysis of the selected corpus was that one of the EMM, which is (author, year), could not be searched for in this software. Also, when searching for the markers, the AntConc Concordance Software detected all the words and expressions even those which were not considered as EMMs.

General Conclusion

Knowing about the role of metadiscourse, especially EMM is essential in writing the LR in particular, which is an important section in dissertations that assists writers to find the starting point of their research work, and academic writing in general. EMM helps writers to produce a coherent and appropriate piece of writing. EMM help in the organization of one's text. They also enable the writer to interact with readers as well as to persuade them.

The current descriptive analytical study aimed at answering two main questions. These questions are: "what are the dominant evidential metadiscourse markers types that second year MA students of English use when writing the literature review of their dissertations?" and "to what extent are MA students of Linguistics at KMU efficient in using evidential metadiscourse markers when writing dissertation literature review?" The obtained results have yielded important insights. The findings indicate that most students use both reporting and inferring evidential types, whereas they appear to neglect the sensory and belief types. This study has also shown that although the majority of students use some of the evidential metadiscourse markers, they still have some problems, especially in mechanics, in using them.

For one reason or another, second year MA students do not practice writing tasks related to the use of metadiscourse sufficiently. It seems that they have not received sufficient instructions and training that enables them to improve their level in writing dissertations, which is an important genre of academic writing that constitute one of the requirements of success at university.

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Appendices

Appendix (A): (Dissertation's Link)

To check the dissertations, one can consult this website:

https://bu.univ-ouargla.dz/master/resultat.php?auteur=&titre=&departement=d8&recheche=Recherche

Appendix (B) (Samples of the Analyses by the AntConc Concordance Software)

- **Sensory Evidential Type**

LR 1.txt	
LR 2.txt	
LR 3.txt	
LR 4.txt	
LR 5.txt	
LR 6.txt	
LR 7.txt	
LR 8.txt	
LR 9.txt	
LR 10.txt	
LR 11.txt	
LR 12.txt	
LR 13.txt	
LR 14.txt	
LR 15.txt	
LR 16.txt	

Concordance Hits 7

Hit	KWIC	File
1	5) From these two examples, it can be seen that the first senten	LR 9.txt
2	y. (p.127) From this example, it can be seen that John is the	LR 9.txt
3	lle, 1983) From this example, it can be seen that "Mr.Mitsujiro Is	LR 9.txt
4	ther constitute a text." (1976) It can be seen that the sentences tl	LR 9.txt
5	a unified whole. Furthermore, it can be seen that there are eleme	LR 9.txt
6	rom Halliday and Hasan, ibid) It can be seen that "he" and "his"	LR 9.txt
7	orn on December 25th, 1952. It can be seen that the nouns "my	LR 9.txt

Search Term ☑ Words ☐ Case ☐ Regex   **Search Window Size**

can be seen that*   [Advanced]   50

- **Reporting Evidential Type**

- **Inferring Evidential Type**

Appendix (C): (Dissertation's Literature review samples)

(LR 2)

Introduction

English has been broadly acknowledged as the most widespread language in all over the world. It is referred to as an international language of business, diplomacy and science (Kiatao, 1996). The globalisation of the world is a systematic process triggered by Anglo-American strategies. Accordingly, English becomes the most taught foreign language all over the world. The international status of English makes it necessary to use English in a large range of social, economic and academic areas. In fact, Students want to learn English for academic purposes, business or professional purposes, and they need to acquire a good working knowledge of the language as quickly as possible. English language learners need new pedagogy to meet their needs and satisfy their necessities. In gross, it is worth mentioning that English has become the hegemonic language of wider communication and the essential component to the developing world of science, technology and communication.

1.2 Teaching ESP to Students' Science
1.2.1 History of ESP

The origins of ESP are closely related to the history of development of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP). ESP can be traced back to the Second World War which generated the need for specialist language courses where students only needed specific competence in a language in order to perform specific tasks. (Gatehouse, 2001). For instance, English for specialists, legal counselors, tourism and nursing staff, bookkeepers, restorative researchers, and so forth. The end of the Second World War predicted an age of large and unequalled increase in scientific, technical and economic activity at the international level. In this vein, the rise of ESP can be seen as the effect of two separate but related developments: the first is economic, the second educational.

As far as the economic growth is concerned, it is obvious to claim that the economic hegemony of the United States after the Second World War has resulted into the demand of the English language as a language for international communication (Hutchinson and Waters 1987).

For the educational factor, it is essential to mention that the world economy has created a new generation of learners who were aware why they learnt a language. Thus, the learner started to be regarded as a more central element in the educational process. This has resulted in a 'learner-centered education' (Strevens 1977).

In this respect Robinson (1980) posits that:
> "the general with which we are contrasting the specific is that of general education for life, culture and literature oriented language course in which the language itself is the subject matter and the purpose of the course. The student of ESP, however, is learning English en route to the acquisition of some quite different body of knowledge and set of skills". (p. 6) .

1.2.2 The Emergence of ESP
Thus, ESP came into being and gradually developed into a multilayered language approach essentially based on learners' specific needs required by their study fields or occupations. The emergence of ESP can be explained by three reasons. Hutchinson and Waters gave three reasons for the emergence of ESP;

1.2.2.1 The Demands of a Brave New World

When the Second World War ended it bring as consequence the development of scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale. The United States of America is the most notably economic power, the language spoken is this country was the English; therefore, English became a very dominant language. (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

1.2.2.2 A revolution in Linguistics
In the late 1960s and the early 1970s there were many attempts to describe English as a language for science and technology (EST), revolutionary experts in linguistics developed new methods of teaching English language to comply with the requirements of modern society.

1.2.2.3 Focus on the Learner
New improvements in psychology have contributed to the rise of ESP, by stressing the focal significance of the learners and their mentality to learning. More attention was given to the different styles in which learners acquire language. ESP focuses on the learners 'needs. 'ESP instruction based on actual and immediate needs of learners who have to successfully perform real life tasks unrelated to merely passing an English class or exam ". (Rebecca Smoak ,2003) .

In the tree of ELT proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP is divided into three branches: a) English for Science and Technology (EST), b) English for Business and Economics (EBE) and English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these branches is

further separated into two sub branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). This splited into multiple other branches.

1.2.3 ESP versus EST

Carter (1983) identifies three types of ESP: English as restricted language; English for Academic (EAP) and Occupational Purposes (EOP), and English with specific topics. An example of EOP for ESP branch is English for Technicians and another example of EAP as for EST branch is English for Medical Studies.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) explain that there is not an obvious qualification in the middle of EAP and EOP. Hutchinson & Waters (ibid, 16), the disparity is blurred since:

"People can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job".(p.16).

Because of the rapid development of English for science and technology (EST) in the last 50 years, science and technology were a center of interest for many ESP experts (e.g. Barber 1988 ; Bazerman 1984, 1988 ; Braine 1989 ; Halliday 1993a ; Herbert 1965 ; Swales 1971, 1988). The initial interest of EST teachers and linguists was on linguistic forms and focus on skills, but recently the emphasis has been on disciplinary socialization and critical perspective. In accounting for this expansion, Hyland (2006) claims that each expanded emphasis reinforces rather than replaces prior ones.

The EST courses were designed around vocabulary specifications related to field's terminology and specific grammatical structures. Another essential stage in the development of ESP was discourse analysis, which marked EST syllabuses.

This makes a difficulty for EST instructors, who must give access to their understudies into a talk community of which they are normally not members. In narrow-angled ESP courses, the learners will most likely be more knowledgeable about the content than the teacher (Spack , 1988). The disciplinary socialization perspective draws on socio-cultural theory, viewing discourse practices as learnt through interaction with those who have already mastered them (*Duff 2010; Lemke 1990*). A language socialization perspective may, however, state the procedure of securing new proficiency homes basically. Lea and Street (1998) contend that acquiring disciplinary proficiency requires a student to take on a new disciplinary identity,   one with which they may not be comfortable, and which they may therefore resist.

These perspectives made EST professionals/specialists utilize ethnographic approaches in exploring the discourse group. Vickers (2007 : 624), for instance, conceptualized a United States computer engineering department as a "speech community containing communicative norms'; " she considered people as being active members of this discourse community when they had an understanding of the range of exercises that individuals participate in.

1.2.4 Needs of EST Learners

Scientific language was described as being characterized by specific lexis and sentence structure; however discourse includes various elements identified as linguistic, rhetorical and applied variables. In any case, students who learn ESP related to science and technology are required to develop a high level of inspiration especially if the materials they use as a part of ESP courses focus on experimental and mechanical components and display particular elements of science and technology.

Oral expression frequently stems its relevance from being a disclosure process within which a teacher is required to guide his learners to discover invisible as well as visible data. In addition, it is believed that the practice of various oral expression skills can be enhanced only if students' comprehension of their academic subjects is proved. Thus, dialogues, presentations, discussions and assessment of materials are all related to the process of oral practice in class. These abilities if acquired generate an outflow of speaking; therefore, the students must be equipped with these skills for more controlling the debate and the topic, and easily manipulating them to achieve particular purposes in a particular field of specialization.

1.3 Oral Expression Practice in ESP Class

The standout developments in EFL methods made learners capable to take their learning according to their needs and motivated to claim their lacks and necessities especially in the field of science and technology. Although EST is thought to be a noteworthy subdivision of ESP, EST courses are perfectly true especially when they emphasize experimental English and choose appropriate informative circumstances that are uncommonly identified with science and technology (Dorrity, 1983). In order to adapt learning and communicative contexts in science and technology fields, learners need to build up their communicative skills in oral expression skills specifically to increase their EST competence and acquire perfect understanding of data in both composed and non-written sources.

1.3.1 Development of Oral Expression Course

Speaking involves a complex process of making meaning .This process requires Speakers to make decisions about why ,how ,and when to communicate depending on the cultural and social context in which the speaking act occurs .Oral language is the ability to speak and listen. It is closely linked to the development of oral language .The Spoken language naturally comes before written language .Before oral language used in almost classes but teachers only who speak (students were passive, their focus was on reading and writing skills).

According to Tricia Hedge (2000) there are various approaches of learning and teaching speaking. According to the environmentalist approach in 1960s, the field of language teaching was influenced by environmental ideas rather than by human mental processes. The primacy of speaking was obvious since it has been assumed that language was primarily an oral phenomenon. This approach considers stimulus-response reinforcement pattern involving constant practice and formation of good habits as prompters for learning and acquiring speaking skills in the field of study. It was assumed that speaking language involves repeating, imitating and memorizing the input that speakers are exposed to. The environmentalist view of learning to speak gave rise to the audio lingual teaching approach. It focuses on intense aural-oral practice, rather than fostering spoken interaction .This type of activities "oral activities" was simply a way of teaching pronunciation skills and grammatical accuracy. It is associated with the development of good pronunciation. Consequently, although it can be assumed that this approach to learning and teaching speaking stressed the development of oral skills, speaking was merely considered as an effective medium for providing language input and facilitating memorization rather than as a discourse skill in its own right .

At the end of the 1960's with the growth of communicative language teaching (CLT), oral proficiency took its place in EFL learning. This approach promotes oral language and communication as well as other skills such as listening, reading and writing. Oral practice is regarded as the most important skill in learning. Teachers try to teach specific words that were already known and in relation to particular contexts, and numerous exposures to new specific vocabulary. The major goal of EFL teaching program should give learners the ability to use English effectively and accurately in communication (Davies, Pearse, 1998).This means that the importance of oral language is undeniably demonstrated.

1.3.2 Content of Oral Expression Course

Teaching and learning oral proficiency has become the focus of many researchers (spoettl 2000). EFL teachers need to practise language regulation in class and perform learners' activities that may help them to spontaneously practise oral language .It is the role of effective practitioner to vary the oral activities .Teachers use various activities inside the classroom to develop learners' speaking skill. The most relevant activity is discussion, here learners can express themselves, give opinions and use their previous knowledge in front of the whole class. Teachers may be very careful and choose a topic that helps them and be in an accordance with their needs .Besides, role play which is a very enjoyable activity for the students particularly for those who are likely to imitate others .It is viewed as an authentic technique which increases the participation of the whole class and encourage them to be in a situation as it is in real life.

Another Activity is performing communicative tasks which are chosen from real life situation focusing on using language in funny way, and make all students interact and participate and use language freely .It is very amusing for both learners and teachers. Although dialogues and conversations are the most obvious and most often used speaking activities in language classrooms, a teacher can select activities from a variety of tasks. Brown (2001) suggested a list of six possible task categories:

1.3.2.1 Initiative

Drills of phrases and stretches of language help students in the process of learning .This makes students listen and repeat orally a stretch of language that seems a little difficult for them to construct.

1.3.2.2 Intensive

Repetition of constructed forms of language by taking into consideration the phonological and grammatical aspects.

1.3.2.3 Responsive

It is a response to both teachers and learners' questions and comments.

1.3.2.4 Transformational Dialogue

Dialogues are regarded as the most important tasks .Students exchange information, and play roles and focus on pair works.

1.3.2.5 Interpersonal (Dialogue)

Personal interviews or common role plays aim to establish and maintain social relationship.

1.3.2.6 Extensive (Monologue)

Short speeches, oral reports, oral summaries, every student can use them independently and individually. The EFL classroom context, teachers should train learners to practise oral language.

1.3.3 Oral Expression Problems

It is obvious that learners' EST programs in universities need English for achieving academic progress in their fields of specialization. They need to comprehend lectures delivered in English, understand authentic scientific reports, make presentations, clarify discoveries, and so on.

The learners' problems in EST courses can be discussed from two angles: pedagogical and psychological viewpoints. From the pedagogical viewpoint we can divide it into two sub-measurements:

1.3.3.1 Pedagogical Viewpoint

1. Teaching materials utilized in EFL class;

2. Methodology used by EST teachers.

We should manage each of these sub-dimensions in turn.

Most, if not all the materials of GE courses, especially in EFL class situations are irrelevant to the learners' academic fields of study. Communicative materials, authentic or communicative tasks are not used in class. This scholastic irrelevance makes the course de-motivating and exhausting. They consider the teaching of ESP, particularly in the universities, only a module to be added to the programme. Little consideration was given to the specific nature and needs of the specialization.

As far as methodology is concerned, the EST courses are usually taught by instructors who know little or nothing about the communicative approach. They are still using the traditional methods and procedures focusing on language elements (e.g., grammar, vocabulary), however communication tasks are frequently overlooked. The approach of a single "best technique" is by and large viewed as unsatisfactory and systems got from linguistics and psychology alone may lead negative and ineffective learning methods.   According to Strevens (1978, p. 4), ESP courses, and by inclusion EST ones, entail the provision of English language instruction that is (1) devised to meet the learners' specific needs; (2) related in themes and topics to a Teaching English to students of science and technology particular field of study; (3) selective, not general, as to language content; and (4) restricted to the language skills needed in the students' are of specialization.

The effective and practical EST curriculum is the one that supplies learners with language functions and notions expected to meet their needs in the context of the field of study. The particular language functions and notions required at various evaluation levels and in various subjects should be plainly portrayed and efficiently joined into EST curricula. Cummins found that while most students learned sufficient English to engage in social communication in about two years, they typically needed five to seven years to acquire the type of language skills needed for successful participation in content classrooms. Limited English proficient (LEP) students' language skills are often informally assessed upon the ability of the student to comprehend and respond to conversational language.

1.3.3.2 Psychological Viewpoint

Psychologically speaking, Learners often find a tremendous amount of difficulties in oral tasks inside the classroom. It needs to be noted that speaking holds a very significant place in foreign language learning because through speech messages are conveyed. According to Ur (1996, p.120), "of all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), speaking seems intuitively the most important". For Ur (1996), there are some speaking problems that teachers can come across in getting students to talk in the classroom. These are: inhibition, lack of topical knowledge, low or uneven participation and mother-tongue use.

Learners when trying to speak English language are inhibited, are usually shy and cannot express themselves effectively. Little wood (2007) asserts that foreign language classroom create inhibitions and anxiety easily.

Moreover, it is difficult for many students to respond positively when teachers ask them to say something in a foreign language because they may have little ideas about what to say, which vocabulary to use, or how to use grammar correctly (Backer & westrup, 2003). In other words, motivation of learners plays an important role in developing oral and speaking abilities; they need to speak in subjects more interesting than the ones presented by the teacher.

Another problem in an oral class is the use of mother tongue in class. This is because of learners who share the same mother language and they tend to use it simply because it seems to be easier for them. Also, when they find themselves in a speaking situation, they cannot perform well; that is why they prefer to use the mother language.

Harmer (1991) suggests some reasons why students use mother tongue in class. Firstly, when the students are asked to discuss a topic that they are incapable of, if they want to say anything about the topic, they will use their mother language. Another reason is that the use of mother tongue is a natural attitude in all humans.

Lukitasari (2008) conducted a study focusing on the students' strategies in overcoming speaking problems in speaking class. The population of her study was the first semester students of Muhammadiyah University of Malang in Indonesia. The results of her study suggest that in speaking class, the students faced some speaking problems including inhibition, nothing to say, low or uneven participation and mother tongue use. The findings of the study also reveal that the students' speaking performance was not good because they did not master the three elements of speaking, namely vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. In order to help students improving their speaking skills, it is necessary to find a method that helps them to speak effectively and teachers also need to identify what factors can affect their students speaking performance.

1.3.4 Importance of Oral Expression Practice for EST Learners

EFL communication ability has become a crucial qualification for some job applications. Engineers in Algeria find themselves use English for only some aspect of their job. And even most international organizations in the field of engineering find dissatisfaction with new recruited personnel. Learners of science and technology have an urgent need for learning English language in order to communicate in their field of study and be qualified for later job careers.

1.4 Conclusion

In this chapter we have discussed the history of ESP, its types and the emergence of EST. We also raised the problems encountered in current EST course offered at the university. The course needs to improve both communicative and academic skills of the learners.

(LR 14)

Introduction

As language scholars, teachers and learners around the world increasingly call for enhancing writing skill, adopting the appropriate approach to teaching is a much needed and welcome bracer for EFL teachers. Although EFL learners seek to master the four macro-skills (listening, reading, writing and speaking), the writing skill is of a great importance. They are at crossroad whether to do further studies or to access to professional careers. Traditionally, writing was considered merely as the reinforcement of learning grammatical and vocabulary knowledge that help to sustain oral correctness (Martínez-Flor, Usó -Juan & Solor, 2006). This is how writing was taught before. However, this method does not help the learner to write cohesively and appropriately; learners when writing are not communicatively competent. In this chapter we will introduce the concept of discourse analysis. For the reason that discourse analysis, in this study, is considered as an alternative approach that would help in enhancing the learners' use of cohesive devices, particularly connectives, when writing in FL. Before turning to this issue we would like, however, to talk in brief about which linguistic elements EFL writer should use to produce a cohesive and unified text. As well, we will take a closer look at the role of connectives in building discourse structure.

   1.   **Writing in foreign language**

In the light of traditional view mentioned earlier, students were asked to master the grammatical rules such as verb agreement, sentence structure, and the mechanics such as punctuation and spelling (Raimes, 1983). This means that they were required to master, only, the grammatical and syntactic structures regardless of whether or not the text is informative and communicative. Writing, instead, is the production of written words that help in shaping a text which in turn must be interpreted and read to set a place for communication (Celce-Murcia, and. Olshain, 2000). It helps students to connect their writing language to literacy resources that are available in higher education to produce written texts (Lillis, 2001). Thus, having a high level of writing ability is something that EFL learners aim to achieve, particularly, those whose professional and academic success depend on the extent to which they are able to communicate effectively by means of writing. The demand that writing make on the writer coupled with the nature of writing tasks make it a complex process; that is why it may seem difficult and problematic for many FL learners(Hedge, 2005). And despite the many years devoted to developing this skill, writing communicatively is an ability that hinders us (Tribble, 1996). This difficulty may be due to many reasons. It may result from a failure to use the cohesive devices appropriately when building discourse cohesion, or from an unawareness about the role of using cohesive devices such as connectives in producing a text which is linguistically accurate, yet socially and culturally relevant. Hence, the writer has to select appropriate grammatical patterns coupled with appropriate selection of vocabulary and sentence structures in order to build a unified and cohesive text.

To sum up, writing in foreign language is the most frequently used task in EFL classes, it aims, at the first sight, at improving the learners' writing through the appropriate use of linguistic elements such as linking devices. As Harmer (2001) points out, writing skill has finally been recognized as an important skill for language learning. He lays stress on this claim saying "*the reason for teaching writing to students of English as a foreign language includes reinforcement, language development, learning style, and most imply writing as a skill in its own*" (p.79).

   2. **Linguistic aspects of writing**

If we accept that the teaching of writing to communicate aims at enabling the learners to use linguistic elements appropriately, it becomes imperative that teaching writing for EFL classes should be directed at this purpose. This is because any writing task entails the use of different types of knowledge. Among these types there is linguistic knowledge or linguistic competence. It includes knowledge of grammar and lexis and how to use them in building sentences which result in a cohesive whole. It is probably unnecessary to point out that one will face any problem when writing in the target language, but it is worthy to cite the many problems the writer may encounter when undertaking a writing task. Some of these difficulties are related to grammar, lexis and organization of sentences into a unified unity (Allen, 2005). Hedge (2005) on the other hand, claims that these kinds of difficulties become more frequetly when writing in a foreign language. In the following few lines, this dissertation will tackle, as its main purpose, some of these difficulties FL learners usually encounter when writing, how these deficiencies hinder the learner's communicative development, and how to be aware of using them when writing.

2.1.   Grammar and lexis

No language exists without grammar; yet no language can be used out of grammar. The term grammar refers to the unconscious linguistic system of a particular language. It is concerned with the arrangement and the combination of different words to produce meaningful sentences. Southerland & Katamba(1996) use the term grammatical competence to talk about linguistic competence which 00consists of several components: (phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics). Thornbury (1992), as well, defines grammar as the study of morphology and syntax. Students are required to raise their awareness of the language system. It is better, for them

to look at grammar as a means that provides understanding of relation to meaning, of meaning to function within context (Dowing, 2006).

If we turn to the question why grammar is important when creating a written text, it is worthy to bring what have been cited in the previous researches and works about the role of grammatical competence into the picture. Ur (1999) argues that the mastering of the rules of a language enables the learners to be competent when communicating i.e. it helps them to be good processors of the language. That is why, the teaching of grammar should embrace language structures, meaning and function (Widdo, 2006). On the part of the learners, grammatical constructions enable them to apply how certain sentence patterns should be put together. In short, restricting the scope of teaching grammar to how grammatical items and sentence structures are correctly established helps the learners to write more cohesively when performing writing tasks.

Writing as a process does not stand by its own as an isolated process. To write means to gain enough knowledge through reading in order for your writing to be relevant, varied, and appropriate. Bean (2011) argues that inadequate knowledge of vocabulary hinders reading comprehension of many learners. And, having a difficulty in comprehending a text's vocabulary means being unable to communicate using large number of words. That is why poor writing results from a lack of vocabulary knowledge. Lexis was defined as the list of words that a language has. It is considered as one of the linguistic elements that characterizes the communicative text. It may seem difficult because learning vocabulary is far from simple. It includes, as Qian (1999) cited,(i) knowing its pronunciation and orthography, (ii) morphological properties……(cited in Hudson, 2007,p.233).thus, undertaking a writing task entails a knowledge of all these rules coupled with an ability of having as various words as possible.

2.2.   Organization of written text

As was pointed earlier, the mastery of the grammatical rules enables the learners to organize words into sentences. Now we will tackle the issue of how to organize sentences into a cohesive text. In doing this, we shall look at the linguistic elements which make sentences hang together to form a coherent whole. Producing a cohesive text is based primarily on using linguistic elements to connect ideas. Nunan(1993) defines these linguistic elements as the cohesive devices that help in building discourse structure. In spite of being aware of the importance of cohesive ties in organizing the written text, EFL learners usually encounter problems when using them in building the text organization. For Hedge (2005), most of the problems related to the organization of written text can be resulted from a failure to use cohesive relations correctly to create a unified whole.

3.   Cohesion

Earlier, we mentioned briefly the way in which sentences are organized to form a text. Although we said that these sentences should be organized in an explicit way are relevant to one particular topic, we did not lay stress on how the organization of these sentences to create a text is done. From here on, the attention will be directed at exploring the way in which different sentences are combined to form a text. Before tackling this issue, we would like to answer the following questions. Are the sentences related to each other? Does the combination of haphazard sentences enable the piece of writing to be received as a text? Should the connection between sentences appear explicitly? Coming to an answer to these questions would not be achieved until we bring the notion of cohesion into the picture. According to Halliday & Hassan (1976) a text can be received as a text if there are cohesive ties within and between the sentences that form it. They continue to say that these linguistic ties create a texture. Hence, a text has a texture, and this is what makes it different from something that is not a text. They claimed that cohesion is created when the comprehension of some elements in discourse is dependent on that of the others by illustrating the following example:

"*Wash and core six cooking apples .Put them them into a fireproof dish*"

*(*From Halliday and Hassan)

Beagrande& Dressler (1981), on the other hand, argue that "*cohesion concerns the ways in which the components of the text are the actual words we hear or see are mutually connected within a sequence*".(p.11).

In the light of the traditional view, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) determine cohesion as the use of ties and devices to link all the propositions in text, such devices are elements or units of language that make the sentences hang together to form a text. To put it another way, teaching cohesion, traditionally, relies typically on identifying which features and characteristics and text properties that distinguish the text from disconnected sequences of sentences (Halliday & Hassan, 1976). Thus, cohesion means the use of cohesive relations to connect ideas and sentences together. Halliday and Hassan present text connectedness i.e. cohesion in terms of five categories of cohesive ties respectively "*reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical ties*" (Hatch, 1992 p.223).
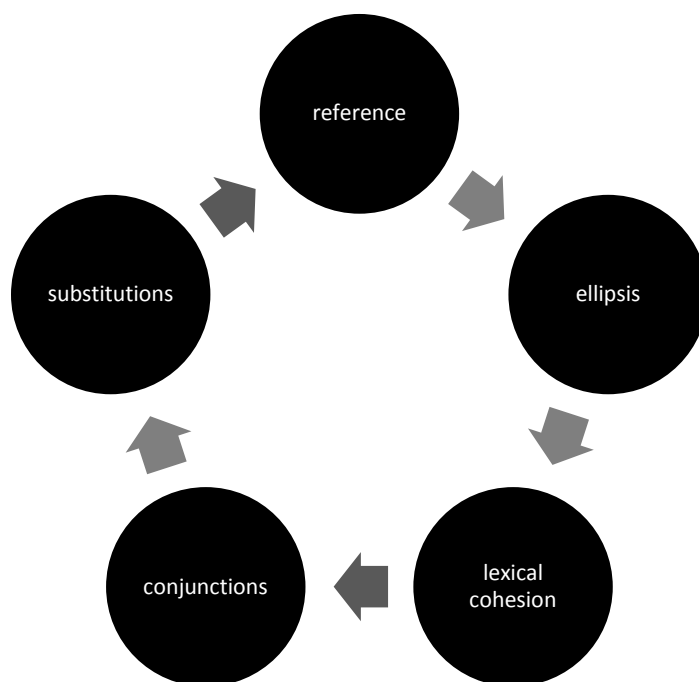
Diagram 01: types of cohesion

3.1. Conjunction

It can be viewed now, that sentences which form a text are not organized in a vacuum, but rather they are related to create a unified text. As well, it can be noticed that in building cohesion, one should use certain elements like the ones introduced by Nunan (1993) as cohesive devices or text forming devices. They relate sentences to form semantic unit. "Cohesive ties between sentences stand out more clearly because they are ONLY source of texture" (p.09). Cohesive devices are classified under three broad types: reference, ellipsis, substitution, and conjunction (Halliday & Hassan, 1976). If we turn to the subject of our study, we shall typically restrict our focus on one kind of these types, namely, conjunctions.

A Conjunction is a cohesive device that differs from ellipsis and reference. It is used to link what is going to be said to what has already been said. It can be only interpreted through reference to other parts of text (Nunan, 1993). Conjunction is defined as one of the most important elements of text forming devices. It requires a textual sequence, and signals the relationships that are linked to other parts of text (McCarthy, 1991). *"They do not signal information present in the text. They rather signal by means of formal markers the way the writer wants the reader to relate what is about to be said to what have been said before"*.(Baker,1991, p.190). Holding the same point of view, Halliday & Hassan (1976) point out that conjunctive elements are cohesive but in an indirect way. In contrast to their specific meaning, they express certain interpretations that presuppose the existence of other components in discourse.

3.2. Connectives(conjunctions)

Connectives were introduced as conjunctions by Halliday & Hassan (1976), cohesive devices by Schiffrin (1987), logical connectors by (Leki, 1989), logical devices by (Byrne, 1982), discourse connectives or discourse markers by (Blakemore, 1987), and discourse markers by Fraser (1999). For the sake of consistency, they are all viewed as "connectives" in this study. Connectives are one of the linking ties that establish relations between clauses and phrases. They are words that connect ideas within written texts. For and wide, the term connectives has been defined in a number of different ways: Brown & Yule(1983) argue that, a in written text, connectives are the formal markers that make relationships between ideas explicitly appeared, and hence, enable the reader to make connection between what has been said and what is about to be said.

According to Bryne (1982), connectives *mean "... words or phrases which indicate meaning relationship between and within sentences" (p.18).* Halliday & Hassan (1976), as well, gave a detailed explanation of connectives in terms of logical and semantic relations they present. This theoretical view driven from their taxonomy of cohesive ties still has a major significance for many current research studies. Harris (1968) concludes the above claims by saying that connectives belong to the basic of language structure. This is in brief how connectives are viewed from different points of view; they were introduced, merely, as means of identifying and demonstrating the semantic relations between the sentences of a text.

3.3.   Types of connectives

Halliday & Hassan taxonomy on coherence relations and cohesive devices represents a significant model in cohesion research. They base their studies on the thematic relations indicated by certain linguistic devices, namely, connectives (Halliday & Hassan, 1976). Holding the same view, McCarty (1991) classifies these connectives into four main types: respectively, additive, adversative, causal and temporal. In their taxonomy, Halliday& Hassan (1976) illustrate their classifications in the following way: words such as "and", "or", "in other words" are referred to as additive. Words such as "but", "however", "yet" are classified as adversative and which do indicate concession. While words like "because of", "therefore", "as a result" are classified as casual connectives; Words such as "after that", "first", "finally" are categorized as temporal because they represent relations between two successive stretches of language.
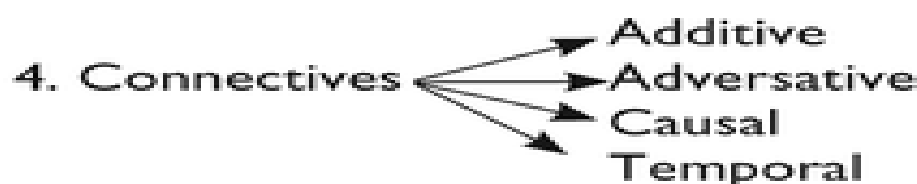

Diagram 02: Different types of conjunctions

(fromHalliday and Hassan,1976)

As a matter of terminology, and to some extent more specifically, connectives may house other classifications such as sequencing connectives as "before" and "after", emphasizing connectives such as" indeed" and "particularly", comparing connectives as "otherwise" "and " "whereas", and qualifying connectives like "unless" and " as long as".

3.4.   Importance of connectives in writing

Using connectives appropriately and correctly reflects the extent to which the produced text reaches communication. This is because if one uses them appropriately, they will function as text organizers which help the text's processor acquiring it as a connected discourse. Zamel (1983) and Virtanen (2004) emphasize the importance of connectives in identifying the semantic relations between the parts of the text. Hartnett (1986) argue that connectives, when they are widely used by a good writer, enhance the comprehensibility of the text; nevertheless, they may cause confusion when they are used by non-competent writers. In short, connectives play an important role in text processing and interpretation (Meyer, Brandt, & Bluth, 1980).

EFL learners do not make any exception; they are required to write cohesive texts. When the y undertake writing tasks for the sake of communicating, they are likely to face problems as mentioned earlier. They do have failure in the use of connectives in building cohesion. They are in need of mastering the way of building relationships across sentences. In this regard, in this study, we provided short definitions and illustration of the main important aspects this research focuses on. We have presented presented the ways of organizing sentences into text, ways of building text cohesion using cohesive devices. We took a closer look on one kind of these linguistic ties, namely, connectives, and we discussed their significance in building texture, from one hand, and in making the flow of reading go smoothly by the reader, on the other hand. In what follows, we will discuss the different approaches to connectives.

3.5.   Approaches to teaching connectives

Connectives are taught from different perspectives. EFL teachers do their best to find out the appropriate approach to teaching these linguistic devices. Now, we will review the different approaches that influence the teaching of connectives

3.5.1.   Formal approach

The teaching of connectives was considered merely as the teaching of the surface relations between sentences. According to this approach, sentence patterns are the main interest of writing sessions. The reason behind this claim was motivated by the fact that language is a string of compositions within which the syntactic level of analysis is of greater importance (Chomsky, 1965). Simply put, building cohesion, under this approach, relies on the teaching of syntactic structures and sentence patterns. Learners are required to master the grammatical rules in isolated sentences. Cohesive devices are taught in separate sentences focusing on their syntactic forms regardless of their meaning i.e. they were taught out of their social context (Leech, 1983).

Although it can be assumed that the teaching and the learning of cohesive devices, including connectives, under this approach, stressed the development of organizing sentences into unified texts, connectives were taught in merely structural approach within which neither the context of use nor the purposeful function of these ties are involved. For such approach, if the produced text is not cohesive, it means that it consists of structurally unrelated propositions, *"That's why most of the traditional grammar tasks were focusing on structures"* (Celce-Murcia, 1991, p.460). In fact, a formal approach to teaching connectives deals, in greater detail, with the syntactic aspects of language. This is important no doubt, but the learner, here, is considered only as a passive receiver whose role is just to memorize certain lists of cohesive devices then putting them in different contexts.

3.5.2.   Cohesion markers

Like the work reviewed thus far, Halliday & Hassan's (1976) analysis on text cohesion is embedded within a larger framework that impacts upon the analysis of cohesive devices. In contrast to formal approaches whose main focus was the sentential level and how to organize sentences syntactically, Halliday & Hassan's theoretical framework takes step further and suggested functions for those devices. They proposed that these cohesive devices help in building text through which they demonstrate semantic relations within sentence structures.

The traditional approach, in which Halliday & Hassan's analysis is located, aims at making interaction between syntax, semantic and meaning. That is to say, they made a clear distinction between sentence and text. Halliday (1985) stressed on the importance of the three mentioned dimensions and functional aspects when attempting to account for how language is used. Carrell (1982), as well, argued that cohesive devices are said to be related semantically. All in all, what makes any piece of text meaningful is named texture. Texture is the basics of cohesion and semantic interdependence because without texture the text is viewed as randomly separate sentences (Crane, 2000).

To this end, the cohesive relations, through which cohesion is achieved, are introduced in the surface structure and the meaning established between the sentences. But this way of analysis does not enable the learner to communicate effectively since s/he cannot arrive at an appropriate interpretation of the writer's intended meaning; under this approach, learners are not yet aware of what is beyond.

3.5.3.   Discourse approach

Though there were various approaches and methods that have been adopted and proposed by instructors so as to enable the learner to use linguistic devices appropriately in building discourse cohesion, only the new comer approach, namely, discourse approach helps the learner write cohesively since it enables the FL learners to communicate by means of writing. Grammar in the communicative approach cannot be taught or learnt at the sentential level; it should be used as an instrument to create comprehension in a written discourse. The impact of this approach has resulted in the fact that grammar should not be taught separately nor be viewed as a set of rules. That is why "The ultimate goal to learn grammar for FL learners is to be aware of the structure and functioning of the language system. This awareness remains useless unless it is made operational communicatively, viz. if the learner does not capitalize on it in performing various communicative acts" (Chaouki, p.36). Hence, the teaching of grammar should encompass language structure, sentence patterns, meaning and use.

The analysis of discourse markers which was embedded within the view of discourse is not only a unit of language, but rather a process of social interaction (Schifrin, 1987). In other hands, these discourse connectives are identified as sequentially dependent units that bracket sequences of talk that add meaning to discourse. Because it has been influential and its difference continues to affect the current research, Fraser's (1990) perspective on discourse markers is based upon the differentiation between content and its intended meaning. This is because "when an expression functions as a discourse marker, has its exclusive function in the sentence" (Fraser. 189). This way of analysis enables the text processor to read between the lines getting the intended meaning of the writer. As well, it helps the in comprehensibility of discourse. Yet, as what we have put focus on, teaching and learning connectives within a pragmatic approach raise the awareness of FL learners of the use of discourse connectives appropriately in building cohesion, taking into account the meaning and the context of use to which these cohesive devices are related.

4.   Discourse analysis

This part is devoted to discourse analysis, we will define discourse analysis and its elements .After that we will introduce the teaching of connectives within discourse analysis framework.

4.1. Definition of discourse analysis

The term discourse analysis was introduced for and wide within different frameworks. Suffice it to say that the word "discourse analysis" (Henceforth, DA) means different things for different scholars and linguists. For McCarthy (1991), it means the study of language in relation to its context; it covers different disciplines including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology, and sociology. Whilst for researchers such as Fairclough (1989), Foucault (1980) "discourse analysis" means the study of how people use the language to achieve certain communicative goals. For Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000), as well, DA is *"...the study of language in use that extends beyond the sentence boundaries"* (p.04).

Discourse analysis is an approach that has recently been adapted by language teachers within different frameworks. It is as what Platridge (2006) reports:

> "Discourse analysis focuses on knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase and sentence that is needed for successful communication. It looks at patterns of language across text and considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural context in which it is used. Discourse analysis considers the ways that the use of language presents different views of the world and different understandings. It examines how the use of language is influenced by relationship between participants" (p.02). He continues to say "discourse analysis examines both spoken and written discourse texts"

In this study, because we are interesting in identifying the appropriateness of DA in teaching cohesive devices for First Year Master students, we will adapt the definition made by Cook (1989) that discourse analysis is the study of the way stretches of language, considered in their full textual, social, and psychological context are meaningful for their users. That is to say, how the language would be unified and meaningful if it occurs in an appropriate context. The choice is motivated by the fact that this definition will help us identifying how a cohesive text should be.

4.2. Elements of discourse analysis

Cohesion is one of the most important elements of discourse analysis, and to achieve cohesion students must involve an emphasis on fulfilling cohesion in real contexts

4.2.1.   Cohesion

Cohesion, as it is mentioned earlier, concerns the way in which sentences are organized to build the texture of a text. It has a significant role in making any piece of writing united. Said otherwise,*"cohesion refers to the way that text makes sense syntactically"* (Baker and Ellece, 2011, p.16). Traditionally, cohesion has been neglected; the focus was on the sentence level, that is to say, sentences were studied in isolation (Cook, 1989). This is how cohesive relations were studied before the advent of discourse analysis. But this kind of analysis is inadequate because it still focuses on the formal properties of language rather than achieving meaning (Cauthlard, 1977). The dissatisfaction with these approaches raised through time as it was viewed that language is not merely a set of rules to be applied. There emerged, therefore, the new approach which broke with the explicit teaching of uncontextualized sentences. By virtue, what EFL learners are in want of, actually, is how to be aware of supra-sentential features when establishing discourse cohesion. As a consequence, linguists have become aware of the use of context and language function.

Yule (1996) lays stress on the importance of discourse structure which it focuses; he continues to say, on the main elements that can shape a well-stretched text. If we accept that: *"discourse analysis is taken to be the investigation into formal devices used to connect sentences together"* (Allen & Corder, 1974, p. 2000).As a definition of discourse analysis, it becomes imperative that teaching cohesive devices, as building blocks of discourse cohesion, should be directed at this purpose. Learners need to be aware of the context in which the piece of language occurs; as teachers, we should teach grammatical forms in relation to meaning and social functions not in isolation from their contexts of use. This is because grammatical cohesion is one way of having cohesive discourse; it provides an over view of discourse analysis and its relation to cohesion. In brief, any piece of written discourse has given regularities to be followed. Yet any piece of written discourse must be treated in a way that ensures the text unity, namely, cohesion.

5. Teaching connectives within discourse analysis approach

Unlike English native speakers who are less likely to face problems in building cohesive relations within written discourse, EFL learners may find it much more difficult to establish these relations using cohesive devices. Widdowson(2007). reports that the use of cohesive devices makes the text to be meaningful by relating structures together. McCarthy (1991) holds the same view, saying *"we shall consider some regularities in well-formed text and how the structuring of sentences has implication for the progress of whole text"* (p.25).

Connectives, as one of these text forming devices, were reviewed, earlier, as cohesive ties that help in the comprehensibility of a written text. According to Schiffrin (1987), discourse markers are of great importance in matching both the informational unities in the actual discourse with the informational unities in the previous discourse. It is probably unworthy to point out that connectives can be approached from a great variety of directions; but since the focus of traditional approaches was restricted to the surface structure; *"the focus of instruction rarely moved beyond the sentence level"* (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000, p.460), the traditional approach does not enable the learners to communicate by means of writing; i.e., the learner is a passive receiver in his learning. His role was restricted only to acquiring the given information and producing an output which should be similar to what he had received. This method of teaching grammatical cohesion is neither sufficient nor effective.

With the advent of discourse analysis approach things have changed. The appropriate use of cohesive devices has been considered as a fundamental component of good writing. However, recently, researchers and linguists have shifted their attention to the analysis of these cohesive devices. It is suggested, hence, that connectives would be better taught within a discourse analysis framework.

According to Byrne (1982), connectives are "words" or "phrases" that demonstrate meaning relationship between or within sentences. That is to say, teaching connectives as a matter of memorizing a list of words and putting them in different contexts does not seem to fit the students' need. Despite this formal way of teaching them, connectives need to be taught in context, taking into consideration the purpose and the function of use. That is why it is claimed that connectives have twofold discursive function: argumentative and interactive (Boulet et al, 1985).

Leech & Svartvik (1994:177) point out, that connectives are the cohesive signposts in discourse that lead to comprehend the text by signaling how its successive units are combined with each other. Kehler (2002) as well, reports that the interpretation of utterances within certain discourse can be achieved if we discover how these utterances are connected to each other. Connectives do not create relationships in themselves, but rather they express cohesive relation that existed in the writer's thinking. They function just as indicators of the relationships. That is to say, they should be taught within and beyond the level of sentences in order for the reader to arrive at an appropriate interpretation of the intended meaning of the text producer, and this is what discourse analysis calls for. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) argue that teaching writing skill, including text cohesion, from a discourse analysis perspective entails shifting the pedagogical attention from linguistic performance to pragmatic perspective.

Hai (2004), on the other hand, states that *"knowledge of phonology, vocabulary, and grammatical patterns is not sufficient for them to communicate effectively in the target language."* (p.38). He stresses on the fact that learning the system of the language (grammar, vocabulary…) is important, no doubt, but it is not sufficient. We need to be aware of how to arrive at the exact meaning of a sentence in the context in which it is located (ibid).

To sum up*, "Language is context-sensitive. This means that, in the absence of context, it is very difficult to recover the intended meaning of a single word or phrase"* (Thornbury, 1999, p.69). The suggestion that adapting discourse analysis in the teaching of connectives is motivated by the fact that several researches have emphasized on; (Mauranen, 1993; Altunay, 2009) point out that the misuse and overuse of connectives in written discourse create a mismatch between the intended message of the writer and what s/he does convey in his/her piece of writing.

Conclusion

In this chapter we talked about the writing difficulties EFL learners usually encounter when undertaking writing tasks, we provided issues related to the notion of cohesion and how sentences are combined to create a texture. Then, we mentioned in brief the different approaches to the teaching of connectives and what significance they have on the learner's communication. We arrived, finally, how connectives are viewed from discourse analysis perspective, how this communicative approach can enhance the teaching of such cohesive devices, and how the implication of discourse analysis principles into the use of connectives help the EFL learners, in particular, to build cohesive discourse which is linguistically accurate, socially and culturally relevant.

Abstract

The present study aims at investigating the evidential metadiscourse markers types, sensory, belief, reporting and inferring, used in writing the literature review sections of dissertation by 2nd year Master students at Kasdi Merbah University Ouargla. The corpus of the present study consists of 16 dissertations out of 48 Applied Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes specialty from both the academic years 2015/2016 and 2016/2017. This study adopted a descriptive analytical approach. On the one hand, quantitative data were gathered through systematic sampling. On the other hand, the qualitative method was used to analyze tendencies. The results of this study were reported through the AntConc Concordance Software (3.4.4.0). The interpretation of the results shows that 2nd year master students are efficient in applying both reporting and inferring markers. However, they remain inefficient in using the other two evidential markers types. That is, sensory and belief types. Based on the divergent degree of efficiency in using evidential markers types, dissertation writers should receive specified activities and training.

Key words: metadiscourse, evidential markers, dissertation and literature review.

الملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة الى البحث في مدى استعمال طلبة السنة الثانية ماستر بجامعة قاصدي مرباح لورقلة لدوال ما وراء الخطاب عندما يكتبون جزء الدراسات السابقة من المذكرة وخاصة انواع دوال المسلمات والبديهيات الحسية والاعتقادية والنقلية والاستنتاجية. تتكون مدونتنا من ستة عشرة مذكرة من بين ثمانية وأربعين مذكرة في اختصاص اللسانيات التطبيقية والانجليزية لأهداف خاصة من السنتين الجامعيتين 2015/ 2016 و2016/2017. اعتمدت هذه الدراسة على مقاربة وصفية تحليلية حيث جمعت المعطيات الكمية من خلال عينات منهجية. ومن جهة ثانية، استعملت الطريقة النوعية لتحليل الميولات. نقلت نتائج هذه الدراسة من خلال برنامج التوافق (Ant 3.4.4.0) (concordance). بينت تفاسير النتائج أن طلبة السنة ثانية ماستر كانوا فعالين في استعمال دوال النقل والاستنتاج معا. إلا أنهم لم يكونوا فعالين في استعمال النوعين الآخرين البديهيين، وهما الحسي والاعتقادي. اعتمادا على اختلاف درجة الفعالية في استعمال أنواع الدوال البديهية، فإن كاتبي المذكرة يجب أن يتلقوا بعض النشاطات والتكوين الخاص.

الكلمات المفتاحية: ما وراء الخطاب، دوال بديهية، مذكرة، دراسات سابقة.

Résumé

Cette présente étude a pour objectif d'examiner l'utilisation effective des marques du métadiscours dans la partie des mémoires réservée à la recherche documentaire et concernant les étudiants de deuxième année Master de l'Université Kasdi Merbah Ouargla. Cette recherche prend en charge les marqueurs évidentiels, de types sensoriel, inférentiel, rapporté et de connaissance directe. Notre corpus d'étude est constitué de 16 mémoires choisis d'entre 48 de la spécialité Linguistique Appliquée et Anglais Langue de Spécialité 2015/2016 et 2016/2017. Cette recherche adopte une méthode descriptive analytique, d'une part quantitative pour avoir fait une sélection systématique, d'autre part qualitative pour analyser les choix. Les résultats de cette recherche ont été fournis par AntConc Concordance Software (3.4.4.0). L'interprétation des résultats a montré que les étudiants de 2ème année Master ont été capables d'utiliser deux types de marqueurs évidentiels à savoir, le type rapporté et ceux de connaissance directe, par contre les deux autres types de marqueurs sensoriel et inférentiel n'ont pas fait l'objet d'un emploi conséquent. Compte tenu du degré divergent de l'utilisation de marqueurs évidentiels, les étudiants de Master doivent bénéficier d'une formation spécifique relative à la rédaction du mémoire.

Mots clés : Métadiscours, marqueurs évidentiels, mémoire, documentation de référence.