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**LİSANSÜSTÜ ÖĞRENCİLERİN TEZ YAZIMLARINDA EDİMBİLİMSEL  
ÖZELLİKLERİN VE TARTIŞMALARIN KULLANIMININ ANALİZİ  
ÜZERİNE DERLEME ÇALIŞMASI**

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SULEYMAN DEMİREL UNIVERSITY  
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**ANALYSING POSTGRADUATE STUDENTS' USE OF  
PRAGMATIC FEATURES AND ARGUMENTATION IN THESIS  
WRITING: A CORPUS-BASED STUDY**

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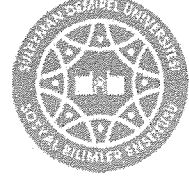
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<p>Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Lisansüstü Eğitim-Öğretim ve Sınav Yönetmeliği hükümleri uyarınca yapılan Doktora Tez Savunma Sınavında Jürimiz (27/01/2018 tarihinde toplanmış ve yukarıda adı geçen öğrencinin Doktora tezi için;</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> OY BİRLİĞİ <input type="checkbox"/> OY ÇOKLUĞU<sup>2</sup></p> <p>ile aşağıdaki kararı almıştır.</p> <p><input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda aday başarılı bulunmuş ve tez <b>KABUL</b> edilmiştir. <input type="checkbox"/> Yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda tezin <b>DÜZELTİLMESİ</b><sup>3</sup> kararlaştırılmıştır. <input type="checkbox"/> Yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda aday başarısız bulunmuş ve tezinin <b>REDDEDİLMESİ</b><sup>4</sup> kararlaştırılmıştır.</p>		
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<sup>1</sup> Tez başlığının DEĞİŞTİRİLMESİ ÖNERİLDİ ise yeni tez başlığı ilgili alana yazılacaktır. Değişme yoksa çizgi (-) konacaktır.

<sup>2</sup> OY ÇOKLUĞU ile alınan karar için muhalefet gerekçesi raporu eklenmelidir.

<sup>3</sup> DÜZELTME kararı için gerekçeli jüri raporu eklenmeli ve raporu tüm üyeler imzalamalıdır.

LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM-ÖĞRETİM VE SINAV YÖNETMELİĞİ Madde 39-(4) Tezi hakkında DÜZELTME kararı verilen öğrenci sınav tarihinden itibaren en geç altı ay içinde gereğini yaparak tezini aynı jüri önünde yeniden savunur.

<sup>4</sup> Tezi REDDEDİLEN öğrenciler için gerekçeli jüri raporu eklenmeli ve raporu tüm üyeler imzalamalıdır. Tezi reddedilen öğrencinin enstitü ile ilişkisi kesilir.



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## YEMİN METNİ

Doktora tezi olarak sunduğum “*Analysing Postgraduate Students’ Use of Pragmatic Features and Argumentation in Theses Writing: A Corpus-Based Study*” adlı çalışmanın, tezin proje safhasından sonuçlanmasına kadar ki bütün süreçlerde bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurulmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin Bibliyografya’da gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve onurumla beyan ederim.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Mareb Mohammed Sangoor Al-Baidhani'.

**Mareb Mohammed Sangoor Al-Baidhani**

**17/01/2018**

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## ÖZET

Bu çalışma Irak üniversitelerinde (SSIU) öğrenim gören 40 lisansüstü öğrenciyle Amerikan üniversitelerinde (SSAU) öğrenim gören 40 lisansüstü öğrencinin yazılarındaki pragmatik tartışmayı karşılaştırarak İngilizce'deki akademik yazım konusunu ele almaktadır. Bu 80 tezde, akademik yazının seçilen altı yönü incelenmiştir: (a) paragraf yapısı, (b) cümlelerin uzunluğu ve yapısı, (c) cümlelerdeki bilginin organizasyonu, (d) kelime dağarcığı, (e) konu tümceleri ve (f) söylem belirleyicileri. Bu tez İngilizce akademik yazılarındaki tartışma pragmatikliğinin geleneksel ve genellikle tek taraflı olarak incelenmesinin ötesine geçerek akademik yazıların farklı yönlerini ve yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen lisansüstü öğrenciler ve anadili İngilizce olan ülkelerden gelen lisansüstü öğrenciler tarafından kullanıldığı durumlardaki sonuçlarını ayırt edilebilmeyi ve tanımlayabilmeyi amaçlamaktadır. Yukarıda bahsedildiği gibi akademik yazılarda seçilen altı hususun nicel analizleri kısa bir açıklama ile başlamaktadır ve bunu derlemdeki korpus analizinden sıklık bilgisi takip etmektedir. İkinci bölümde önerdiğimiz bütüncü-temelli yaklaşım ve pragmatik teori üzerine kurulu olarak seçilen verilerin sonuçları birinci bölümde önerilen araştırma sorularına cevap verip vermediğini gözlemlemek adına incelenmektedir. Lisansüstü seviyesine ulaşan İngilizce öğrencileri akademik araştırmaları yazarken ve raporlarken kullanılan pragmatik hususların farkında olmalıdır. Önem sırasına göre bu hususlar konusallık, bilgi organizasyonu ve paragraf yapısıdır. Diğer hususlar yukarıda bahsi geçen önemli hususların daha iyi bir şekilde sunulmasına destek olabilecek yardımcı hususlar olarak işlev görebilir. Bu hususlar uzunluk ve yapı, bilgi organizasyonu ve kelime dağarcığıdır. Bu çalışma, bir sonucun hipotezinin kurulup yürütülebileceği bir noktaya ulaşmıştır. Bu sonuçlara ulaşma yolunda yapılan tüm gözlemler araştırmacının gelecekte yapılacak benzer çalışmalar için tavsiye verebilmesini mümkün hale getirmiştir.

(AL-BAIDHANI, Mareb Mohammed Sangoor, *Analysing Postgraduate Students' Use of Pragmatic Features and Argumentation in Thesis Writing: A Corpus-Based Study*, Ph.D. Thesis, Isparta, 2018)

## ABSTRACT

This study addresses the issue of academic writing in English by comparing pragmatic argumentation in the writing of 40 graduate students studying at Iraqi universities (SSIU) with the writing of 40 graduate students studying at American universities (SSAU). In these 80 theses, six selected aspects of academic writing were analyzed: (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, and (f) discourse markers. This study seeks to go beyond the traditional and often one-dimensional analysis of pragmatics of argumentation in English academic writing to distinguish and describe different aspects of academic writing and their results when used by EFL graduate students and graduate students coming from English-speaking countries. The quantitative analysis of the six selected aspects of academic mentioned above begins with a brief definition and is followed by frequency information from corpus analysis in the corpora. I analyze the selected data with a corpus-based approach and pragmatic theories that are proposed in Chapter Two to see if the results answer the research questions that are proposed in Chapter One. Learners of English who reached the post-graduate level of study should have awareness of the pragmatic aspects involved in writing and reporting academic research. These aspects are, according to their importance, topicality, organization of information, and paragraph structure. Other aspects can serve as an auxiliary function that can help presenting the major aspects above in better manner. These aspects are: length and construction, organization of information, and vocabulary. This study has reached a point at which a conclusion can be hypothesized and conducted. The full observation of these conclusions made the researcher able to suggest recommendations for further such studies.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BNC	: The British National Corpus
CAQDAS	: Computer-Aided Qualitative Data Analysis
COCA	: Corpus of Contemporary American English
EAP	: English for Academic Purpose
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ESL	: English as a Second Language
GS	: Grammar Scope Software (Core NLP)
HR	: Hyper Research Software
ICLE	: International Corpus of Learner of English
L1	: First Language ( Native language )
L2	: Second Language ( Foreign Language )
LGSWE	: Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English
LOCNESS	: Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays
NLP	: Natural Language Processors
NP	: Noun Phrase
SSAU	: Students Studying at American Universities
SSIU	: Students Studying at Iraqi Universities
TESOL	: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TTR	: Token Type Ratio

## **DEFINITIONS OF OPERATIONAL TERMINOLOGY**

### **Paragraph Structure**

A series of sentences that are organized and coherent, and are all related to a single topic, i.e. a paragraph is a collection of related sentences dealing with a single topic.

### **Length and Construction of Sentence**

Length and construction of a sentence refer to the ranks of clause, group/phrase, word, and morpheme in a sentence.

### **Organization of Information**

The information unit is a unit that is parallel to the clause. It may be more or less than a clause. It is the contextual element that relates to the clause. The unmarked or default condition of the unit is its connection to the nearest grammatical clause. Therefore, a single clause may be mapped into two or more information units; or a single information unit into two or more clauses.

### **Vocabulary**

In academic writing, vocabulary means the variety in selecting words to convey an accurate meaning is necessary in speaking and writing, the outgoes of the language arts.

### **Topic Sentence**

A well-organized paragraph supports or develops a single controlling idea, which is expressed in a sentence called the topic sentence. A topic sentence has several important functions: it substantiates or supports an essay's thesis statement; it unifies the content of a paragraph and directs the order of the sentences; and it advises the reader of the subject to be discussed and how the paragraph will discuss it.

### **Discourse Markers**

Discourse markers are used, specifically speaking in academic writing, to identify and show the relationship between ideas or information in a given context. They are words or phrases used by writers to link ideas or information in a discourse.

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# CHAPTER ONE

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1. Problem

Academic writing is a key skill for success in academic life, particularly for graduate students of a foreign language. The importance of writing to academic culture, practice, and knowledge building has led to a great deal of research in many fields, including rhetoric and composition, linguistics, applied linguistics, and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Often, studies and research investigating academic writing are motivated by the need to inform the learning of writing to native and non-native English-speaking students, through both descriptions of professional academic writing as well as through comparisons of novice writer (native and non-native English-speaking) and expert production.

However, while learning about academic writing to better inform teaching content and practices is an important aim, Bazerman (1994) points out that understanding language use in the disciplines also helps us to use language more effectively, can guide writers and editors as they work with contributor texts, and helps provide non-specialist readers with access to the discourse of the disciplines. Thus, describing and understanding patterns and pragmatics of argumentation of language use in academic writing allows us to understand the disciplinary cultures and practices that they embody. This is why many linguists and scholars have long been fascinated with the language of academia, particularly in the form of written texts. This interest has developed and expanded over the past few decades, in part due to the premise that much can be learned about disciplinary practices and cultures by examining academic writing: the primary means of the transmission of knowledge in academic fields.

At the same time there has been an increased interest in studying the nature of academic writing, the field of written discourse analysis has also flourished with the development of multiple perspectives or frameworks by which written texts can be analyzed. Positioning modern written discourse analysis as “systematic analyses of the linguistic features and patterns occurring in written texts”, Kaplan and Grabe (2002: 192) summarize the development of written discourse analysis across multiple perspectives,

including textlinguistics, cognitive models, discourse analysis, and contrastive rhetoric (see pp. 193-195). It is within text linguistics that we can situate the analytical approach taken in the present dissertation.

English, as a *Lingua Franca*, has become a language affecting the daily communications of people all over the world (Hülmbauer, Böhringer, & Seidlhofer 2008 and Seidlhofer, 2005). The ability to produce effective English writing has grown essential for academic success in many countries. For non-native speakers of English, this is a challenge. For example, Iraqi graduate students are required to read and write international journal articles in the English language to be successful in their academic careers. However, English has been taught as an academic subject rather than as a practical language to them. Without further assistance, it is difficult for them to use English in their discipline-specific tasks. Understanding problems that non-native speakers of English face, Swales (1990) focused on learners' needs for English in academic and research settings in his publication *Genre Analysis*.

Along the same lines, the requirements of academic writing in English speaking countries expected the writers to use "highly specialized discourse, and be objective and sequential" (Farrell, 1997: 135). Phan Le Ha (2009) argued convincingly that graduate students at American universities are required to show their ability to think critically in an English academic writing style. Moodie (2001: 1) pointed out that international graduate students' lack of familiarity with the expectations of their new discourse communities "makes it particularly difficult for them to write reviews of the literature where they need to express critical evaluations and to make appeals to values shared with their readers". To critically evaluate the work of others, academic writers are required to provide an argument of their own in relation to other researchers, which in turn makes their own academic work critically effective and persuasive to their reader. If graduate students are not equipped with the element of critical thinking which is the requirement of academic work it would be difficult for them to position themselves in relation to the work of others, which in turn makes their written work purely descriptive as they defer to the words and opinions of other writers.

A good portion of the solution to this problem has to do with the ability of the graduate students to construct powerful and persuasive arguments. Argumentation theory,



as a field, has moved over time from the abstractions of formal logic to a growing direct concern for more pragmatic ways of thinking about matters that it has traditionally taken up such as reasoning, rules of argument, and fallacies. An overview of this trajectory in which the field has been traveling suggests that language pragmatics will take on an increasing importance. The terms ‘Argument’ and ‘Argumentation’ will be more thoroughly defined in Chapter Two, but essentially, argument construction means the process of putting together, building, and/or strengthening an argument. Argumentation has been defined in different ways by linguists, scholars and philosophers. According to most English dictionaries the literal definition of the term argumentation is "the process of developing or presenting an argument; reasoning" (Harcourt, 2011; Kernerman, 2010; and Walton, 2006). Specifically speaking, it means an agreement or correspondence in particular features between things otherwise dissimilar; the inference that if two things agree with each other in one or more respects will probably agree in yet other respects. In an academic writing setting, it means that one takes a topic and seeks, by logic and weight of evidence, to convince one's reader to a reasoned point of view (see section 2.3).

Many corpus-based studies have been done by comparing the writing of learners of English as a foreign language and the native speakers of English at the university level. Corpora research and studies of this sort can be seen, for example, in the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) with the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS), a 300,000-word corpus of essays written by NSs. The data of both corpora are university students’ argumentative writing (Granger, 1998: 13). The focus of the research was on investigating deeply the aspects of lexis, discourse and the grammar of learners of English as a foreign language to be compared with the writing of native speakers (Granger, 1998: 157). This study is conducted from a pragmatic perspective.

The question is how graduate students, from English-speaking and non-English-speaking countries, can produce effective academic writing, investigate the rules of academic writing and develop their abilities to reach advanced level in academic writing. This study addresses these questions by comparing pragmatic argumentation in the writings of 40 graduate students studying at Iraqi universities (SSIU) (learners of English as a foreign language) with 40 graduate students studying at American universities (SSAU). In these 80 theses, six aspect selected aspects of academic writing were analyzed: (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c)

organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, and (f) discourse markers.

## **1.2. Purpose of the Study**

Most university essays and assignment tasks require the graduate student to take a stance and argue for this or that viewpoint. Pragmatic arguments are one of the most important elements of any successful piece of writing. The main aim of this study is to investigate to what extent existing approaches to pragmatics and discourse shed light on how the form of a text creates pragmatic and stylistic effects in the academic writings of the highly proficient writers and learners of English as a foreign language. It analyzes the pragmatics of argumentation in the writing of (80) graduate students in Iraqi and American universities at the Master level by examining the above selected aspects of academic writing. I do this using a corpus-based method. In particular, I investigate the differences and similarities between two groups of graduate students; Iraqi students as learners of English as a foreign language and students studying at American Universities as students come from English speaking countries.

Since part of the data in this study belong to Iraqi writers as EFL students (English as a foreign language), a secondary purpose of this study is to investigate the factors that may influence L1 (first language) use in the L2 (second language) writing-process. Despite the fact that many studies about the area of L1 and L2 academic writing have been conducted, some important questions still remained. One of these important questions is how L1 used as an exclusive composing language interacts with factors such as learners' L2 proficiency, learners' selective deployment of the L1 in different functions, and cognitive demands of the writing tasks (Friedlander, 1990; Akyel, 1994; and Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001). According to Richards (1983) writing in a foreign language is difficult and laborious when compared with writing in the first language. Accordingly, a minor aim of this study is to provide more insights into the difficulties and challenges faced by L2 writers by examining their L2 writing processes.

## **1.3. Research Questions**

The study investigates six different aspects of academic writing: (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in

sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, and (f) discourse markers. The specific research questions addressed in this study are:

1- How do these six aspects of pragmatic argumentation of academic writing affect the writings of Iraqi graduate students studying at Iraqi Universities (as learners of English as a foreign language) and graduate students studying at American Universities (as students from English-speaking countries)?

2- How do Iraqi and American graduate students differ from one another in the use and realization of these six aspects of pragmatic argumentations of academic writing in their writing?

3- How do these six aspects of pragmatic argumentations of academic writing evolve as students developed in their argument (the beginning and the end of the theses)?

4- How and why do these six aspects of pragmatic argumentation of academic writing occur more in one text than another?

5- What are the characteristics of the Iraqi graduate students' use of these six aspects of academic writing as compared to the American graduate students? What are the potential factors that could contribute to the similarities and differences between them and why?

#### **1.4. Aims of the Study**

The study aims to analyze graduate students' use of pragmatic features in academic writing. In addition, the study investigates whether or not graduate students overuse or underuse certain features when compared to expert professional academic writers. Another important purpose behind this study is to examine the language of (80) graduate students from two different cultures (Iraqi culture and American culture) based on the pragmatic theories because, linguistically, the pragmatic theories were first applied to the spoken language then to written language. In this respect, this study can be considered as a pragmatic-stylistic study because it provides a comprehensive analysis.

It also aims to shed light on the similarities and differences between the writings of Iraqi graduate students studying at Iraqi Universities (as learners of English as a foreign language) and graduate students studying at American Universities (as students in

English-speaking countries) from a pragmatic viewpoint. This is due to the fact that among pragmatic studies of English academic writing, it has been shown that the pragmatic argumentation of academic writing needs to be further explored (Granger, 1998; Hung & Petch-Tyson, 2002; and Meunier & Granger, 2008).

### **1.5. Limitations of the study**

Six selected aspects of academic writing were undertaken to analyze the pragmatic argumentation of English writing including (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, and (f) discourse markers. All other aspects were excluded. This study is restricted to a pragmatic-stylistic perspective in academic writing, more particularly, in the writing of (80) graduate students at Iraqi and American universities in order to gain an appropriate understanding and application of pragmatic argumentation in their writing. The study is limited in scope to master's level programs at those universities.

This study is limited by its framework, linguistic features, and data register and genre. The framework is limited to certain properties that might not be applicable for other data genre or register. Argumentation and pragmatics in academic writing were investigated in previous linguistic studies as in Gilbert (1998), Ben-Ze'ev (1996), Walton (1992), Freire (2000), Petress (2004), Paul (2005), and Willingham (2007). These studies investigated different linguistic aspects not the same register of data.

### **1.6. Significance of the Study**

The current study makes important contributions to learners, teachers, and all who are interested in the field of academic writing. First and foremost, it will examine the issue of argumentation in English academic writing from a pragmatic view- point that will allow giving the reader a full understanding of the meaning and importance of argumentation as a basic construct in academic writing.

The second contribution of this study is in the formation of a framework that can provide simple yet solid steps to identify aspects of academic writing such as (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, and (f) discourse markers.

Using both quantitative and qualitative measures helps to delve deeper into the issues under analysis. Quantitative measures provide insights into the problem or help to develop ideas or hypotheses for potential quantitative measure. In this respect, I overview Witte's (1980) viewpoint that quantitative and qualitative analysis "supplies a number of tools for generalizing information from a relatively small collection of observations, a 'sample', to a relatively large collection of potential observation, 'population'".

However, it is important to mention that much research into argumentation of English academic writing followed quantitative methodologies, but this study builds upon and enrich the previous studies by incorporating more of a qualitative analysis through the use of corpus linguistics to systematically analyze the six selected aspects of academic writing mentioned above. The analysis is conducted by using Natural Language Processors (NLP) (see chapter three section 3.2.2). This will provide a simple yet efficient method for graduate students to reduce effort and time and be more accurate in their writing.

This present study is important not only because it addresses an important issue in linguistics research, i.e. pragmatics of argumentation in academic writing, but also because of the social implications of the issue. It is important to educate students about L2 Englishes because lack of knowledge about L2 Englishes and of meaningful interaction with L2 users and their writing could lead to linguistic discrimination. The spread of misconceptions and myths surrounding L2 users affects how they and their writing are perceived. Education could address that; for instance, the misconception that L2 users write broken English could be addressed through a discussion of the elusiveness of Standard English and the difficulty of isolating a good language model, considering that in reality people in Inner Circle countries speak a wide variety of Englishes. Students could also engage in activities of a sociolinguistic nature to better understand that language is context dependent and it is normal to undergo changes when used in a particular environment.

The last important contribution of this study will be to the Master Program of Ministry of Higher education and Scientific Research in Iraq because the ultimate goal of such programs is to produce competent and effective teachers of English. It is important to educate students about writing in English as a second language because lack of

knowledge about L2 and of meaningful interaction with L2 users and their writing could lead to linguistic discrimination. The spread of misconceptions and myths surrounding L2 users affects how they and their writing are perceived (Crystal, 1997; Kachru, 1992; Pennycook, 1994; Jenkins, 2009; Graddol, 1997; and Graddol et al, 2006). However, I hope that this study can enrich the students' and researchers' knowledge in the field of pragmatics in general and in the area of writing in particular.

### **1.7. Description of the Remaining Chapters**

Chapter two will begin with the literature review of the study. It provides definitions of the terms 'Pragmatics', 'Argumentation', 'Academic Writing', 'Measures for Academic Writing', and 'Corpus'. It also lists components of pragmatics that are used to convey meaning in academic writing. From this list, I note and clarify some components such Conversational Maxims and Cooperative principle that I consider essential and crucial to show the differences and similarities between pragmatic argumentation in the writings of 40 Iraqi graduate students as learners of English as a foreign language and 40 Graduate students at United States of America as students from English-speaking country.

Chapter three presents the methodology adopted in this study. The analysis seeks to go beyond the traditional and often one-dimensional analysis of pragmatics of argumentation in English academic writing to distinguish and describe different aspects of academic writing and their effects when used by graduate students mentioned above. The second aim of chapter three is to explain to the readers the steps followed to conduct the study. The information provided should be sufficiently detailed so as to ensure that the reader gets an image of integrity of the researcher and to allow other researchers to replicate the study. In addition, it paves the way for chapter four which will be the analytical and practical part of the study.

Chapter four is devoted to the quantitative analysis of the six selected aspects of academic writing (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, and (f) discourse markers. The analysis of each aspect begins with a brief definition and followed

by frequency information from corpus analysis in the corpora. It also provides a statistical summary of the experimental findings.

Chapter five discusses the analysis of the data and shows the results that I obtain from analyzing the data. In this chapter, I analyze the selected data based on a corpus-based approach and pragmatic theories that are proposed in chapter two. However, chapter five concluded what I have obtained from analyzing the selected data to see if the results answer the research questions that are proposed in chapter one.

Chapter six presents conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions for further research.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1. Introduction

Academic communication is a social activity which works in different disciplinary cultures to facilitate the creation and transmission of knowledge. Academic writers must organize information and perceptions into meaningful patterns for readers. Part of an academic's skill involves familiarity with the conventional discursive practices of a particular disciplinary community (Bruffee, 1986 and Swales, 1990). This indicates the importance of Pragmatics in academic discourse and sheds light on its role in expressing collegiality, resolving difficulties, and avoiding disputation. In addition to this, the important role pragmatics plays in establishing and maintaining contact between the writer and the reader and between the writer and the message. The present chapter contains the main review of linguistic literature pertaining to this study.

This chapter offers a review on the relationship between "Argumentation", "Pragmatics", and "Academic writing" and how these terms are practically presented in the writings of Iraqi graduate students as learners of English as a foreign language and graduate students studying at American Universities as students in English-speaking countries. It starts with providing definitions and backgrounds of terms like pragmatics, the internal components of pragmatics, argumentation and its categories (analyze, justify, and persuade by evidence), its types, coherence in academic writing, marked and unmarked theme in academic writing, and measures for academic writing (validity and reliability). Furthermore, it sheds light on the explanation and definition of six selected aspect of English academic writing mentioned in (1.1).

The study also explores the importance of critical thinking as a sufficient step for building reasoned argumentative writing. Based on the type of data used in this study, the term "Corpus" forms the basic method in analyzing the data. Accordingly, defining the term corpus and showing the difference between corpus and corpus linguistics is the last section of this chapter.



## 2.2. Pragmatics: Definitions and Background

One of the major issues that has attracted the attention of scholars, and more particularly, academic writers, is the motivation behind language use. Since such meaning to some extent is hidden, or not extant in the linguistic environment of spoken or written texts, linguists search outside linguistic expressions to facilitate communication and shed light on the hidden or implicit meaning that is encoded in the structure which is expressed. This raises the intellectual curiosity of different scholars and academic writers and gives rise to a new, different, but quite related discipline to semantics, namely pragmatics, whose core is the indirect use of language or more accurately indirect communication, hence, 'intended meaning'.

Traditionally, pragmatics cannot be defined independently from other fields of linguistics. For example, Carnap (1956) has made pragmatics equal to descriptive semiotics and natural languages because the term pragmatics that he adopted from Morris was baffling especially to distinguish between the pure and descriptive studies. Accordingly, those who were interested in pragmatics at that time faced a problem in defining pragmatics. This problem was that pragmatics was not considered as an independent field of linguistics. To solve this problem, they needed to delimit the scope of pragmatics and make it independent from other linguistic neighbors, in particular, semantics. There were many attempts to define pragmatics in isolation from other areas such as semantics. For example, pragmatics focuses on studying the natural and artificial languages which include the deictic and indexical terms (Bar-Hillel, 1954) and this definition was adopted by some of those who are interested pragmatics.

Leech (1983) suggests "pragmatic eclecticism" and refers to the category of SENSE relation to the lexical items (Crystal, 2003) to delimit pragmatics and make it different from semantics. He distinguishes between three terms to show the relationship with semantics. Pragmaticism means semantics inside pragmatics which "deals with meaning as triadic relation." Semanticism means that pragmatics inside semantics which "deals with meaning as dyadic relation", but the terms complementarism means that pragmatics and semantics are separate fields of research but they complement each other (Leech & Leech, 1983).

Recently, modern linguists and grammarians have focused on presenting pragmatics as an important component of grammar. Due to the fact that a language system must be seen as unified, they believe that phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics are the main components of grammar and they are not autonomous from one another (Givon, 1984 and Comrie 1987). Further support for the view that pragmatics is not autonomous from other components of grammar and field of linguistics, or in other words from human interactional processes, comes from studies such as Fox & Thompson's (1990) study on the distribution of relative clause types in English, in which they show that the relation between the relative clause and its head is governed by characteristics of the referent in question, and secondly by characteristic information flow patterns in natural discourse about these referents.

Pragmatics as a field of linguistics was started in the 1930s by Morris, Carnap, and Peirce, for whom linguistic structure meant the formal relations of signs to each other, in Semantics, the connection of signs to what they signify, and pragmatics, the connection of signs to their users and interpreters (Morris, 1938: 132). As indicated by Liu (2007: 53), Charles Morris presented the first modern definition of pragmatics, and since then many other specialists have conceptualized this branch of linguistics. Morris initially characterized pragmatics as "the discipline that studies the relations of signs to interpreters, while semantics studies the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable".

As a field of language study, its roots lie in the work of Grice (1975) on conversational implicature and the cooperative principle, and on the work of Levinson, Brown and Leech on politeness. Pragmatics has been defined in different ways by linguists and philosophers. This study is chiefly concerned with the definitions that show the importance of pragmatics in academic writing. Kasper (1993: 22) explained the term as "the study of people's comprehension and production of linguistic action in context". Here, there are two critical words to be noticed: "action" and "context". Kasper utilized the term "linguistic action" which characterizes the learner's ability to deliver an expression.

Yule (1996: 32-43) defines pragmatics as "the study of the relationship between linguistic forms and the users of those forms". Thus, pragmatics is the study of the

addresser's meaning, the inner meaning, and taking into consideration the influence of the contextual information that covers what is said, or written, from person to person in certain place and certain time. What Yule tries to express is that while semantics is a truth conditional field, pragmatics deals with the negotiation of meaning in interchanges, conversations, and texts. He goes on to state that only pragmatics enables people (speakers and writers) to regard the context of situation while analyzing the meaning to reach a reasonable interpretation.

Accordingly, pragmatics is concerned with the investigation of meaning as conveyed by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by the listener (or reader). Therefore, it has more to do with the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words, phrases, and expressions in those utterances mean by themselves. From a communicative point of view, pragmatics can be understood as "the art of the analysis of the unsaid" (Yule, 1996). Pragmatics, in this sense, is concerned mainly with what the speaker (or writer) means and how it is understood by the listener (or reader) in the given context. Accordingly, pragmatics can be defined as "the study of the use of context to make inferences about meaning" (Fasold, 1990: 119).

Based on the idea of language users, pragmatics is the investigation of aspects of language, such as deictic and indexical words, that have reference to the users of the language (Levinson, 1983: 97). Mey (2001: 43) reveals that the study of language is divided into two independent parts; they are language as human product and language in its human uses. In other words, he clarifies them as a description of language structure and a description of its use. Accordingly, he defines pragmatics as the study that concentrates on studying the use of language by humans and the humans that produce a language. This is associated with Chomsky's view of pragmatics as 'Performance'. Performance means how an individual uses a language and it contrasts with competence which is the user's knowledge of the language and its rules.

To get a full picture of what pragmatics means and its essential role in academic writing, one cannot ignore Campsall's definition (2011: 78) that "pragmatics is a way of investigating how sense can be made of certain texts even when, from a semantic viewpoint, the text seems to be either incomplete or to have a different meaning to what is really intended". Pragmatics allows us to investigate how this "meaning beyond the

words" can be understood without ambiguity. The extra meaning is there, not because of the semantic aspects of the words themselves, but because people share certain contextual knowledge with the writer or speaker of the text (Campsall, 2011). Moreover, the extra meaning is there, not because of the semantic aspects of the words themselves, but because of sharing certain contextual knowledge with the writer or speaker of the text. He goes on to state that:

*...a simplified way of thinking about pragmatics is to recognize, for example, that language needs to be kept interesting - a speaker or writer does not want to bore a listener or reader, for example, by being over-long or tedious. So, humans strive to find linguistic means to make a text, perhaps, shorter, more interesting, more relevant, more purposeful or more personal. Pragmatics allows this.*

Based on a view of writing as a social and communicative engagement between writer and reader, pragmatic argumentation centers our attention on the ways writers design and present their work to signal their communicative intentions. It is a central pragmatic construct which permits us to see how writers aim to influence reader's comprehension of both the text and their attitude towards its content and the audience. In sum, despite the fact that various definitions of the term pragmatics have been investigated so far, adopting a definition that widely reflects the purpose of this study is essential. For this reason, pragmatics can be defined as the subfield of linguistics produced to study the use of the writers' language with the most accurate level of appropriateness and correctness possible on their performance according to the type of academic writing where the language is used. For the purpose of academic writing, pragmatics can be seen as the relation with which the writer of the academic work cooperates with the readers of the academic work by using language resources to do that.

### **2.3. Argumentation**

The origins of argumentation are very old. As a scientific theory, it can be dated back to "Aristotle" who presented complementary aspects of a theory of sound arguments that are seen as the most effective means of persuasion. For contemporary studies, the investigation of argumentation as a process has developed fundamentally since about 1970 within studies in interpersonal communication.

Consulting more than nine English Dictionaries such as Dictionary of English Language (2011), English Etymology Dictionary (2010), Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2012), and Webster's College Dictionary (2010), one can put together the following definition: Argumentation is the process of presenting, discussing, and debating a controversial point of argument and reasoning it methodically by setting forth reasons with the conclusion drawn from them.

Taking into consideration the literal meaning of the term “Argumentation”, it can be defined in a broader sense as an attempt to give reasons in a communicative situation by people. More specifically, it is the ability to present justifications of acts, beliefs, attitudes, and values (Harcourt, 2011). This definition has been widely adopted at the National Developmental Conference on Forensics where the British philosopher Stephen Toulmin raised an important question, “What kind of justificatory activities must we engage in to convince our fellows that these beliefs are based on ‘good reasons’?”. Examining Toulmin's question, one may note that it is all about mental and logical persuasion. This may lead to another question: what are “good reasons?”.

To answer this question, it is worth quoting Eemeren et al (2002) who states: “People who make use of argumentation always appeal whether explicitly or implicitly to some standard of reasonableness. This, however, does not always mean that each piece of argumentation is indeed reasonable”. The main point to be noted here is the “some standards of reasonableness”, i.e. the aim of argumentation is to conduct a convincing reasonable critique of the acceptability of a standpoint by putting forward one or more propositions to justify this standpoint. Thus, justifying is a decision to affirm or reject a standpoint.

Nussbaum (2005), Andriessen, Baker, & Suthers (2000), and Reznitskaya & Anderson (2002) differentiate between the terms ‘Argumentation’ and ‘Argument’. They state that although sometimes these two terms are used interchangeably in spoken language, they are given more restricted meanings in the academic writing. According to them, argumentation is the process of arguing around a particular topic in a written discourse. The process of argumentation that people construct and present is a series of arguments which provide evidence to support or oppose a point of view.

O’Keefe (1977: 121) distinguishes between argument as a ‘thing’ and argument as an ‘act’. He states that there are two types of argument. First, argument characterized as “a kind of utterance or a sort of communicative act”. It can be thought of as a claim and its reason. Second, argument is described as “a particular kind of interaction”. It denotes the process of arguing, or the act of making arguments for a certain claim. In his paper “What is Reasoning? What is Argument?” Walton (1990: 159-175) identifies eight types of argument. They include: critical discussion, debate, inquiry, negotiation, planning committee, pedagogical, quarrel, and expert consultation. As shown in table (1) below:

**Table 1. Types of Argumentation**

<b>Type of argumentation</b>	<b>Initial situation</b>	<b>Goal</b>	<b>Benefits</b>
Critical Discussion	Difference of Opinion	To Convince Other Party	Understand Positions Better
Debate	Adversarial Contest	Persuade Third Party	Clarification of Issue
Inquiry	Lacking Proof	Prove or Disprove Conjecture	Knowledge
Negotiation	Conflict of Interest	Maximize Gains	Settlement and Consensus
Planning Committee	Collective Action Required	Joint Plan or Decision	Airing of Objections
Pedagogical	Ignorance of One Party	Teaching and Learning	Spread of Knowledge
Quarrel	Personal Conflict	Hit Out Verbally	Venting of Emotions
Expert Consultation	Need for Expert Advice	Decision For Action	Second-hand Knowledge

Scholars and researchers dealt with argument-related questions in terms of two traditions: the philosophical tradition and the rhetorical tradition. The philosophical tradition was the result of efforts across millennia to develop a systematic basis for evaluating knowledge claims and for making new knowledge claims based upon previously accepted claims and foundational principles of reasoning. The rhetorical tradition of argumentation, on the other hand, has been set out to cultivate the practical art of discourse, usually with an emphasis on persuasion (Craig, 1999). Accordingly, to

the extent that argument consists of people's attempts to persuade each other, through discourse, the rhetorical tradition carried an extensive history and collection of ideas that were relevant to argument studies.

The focus of this study is on how graduate students present argument in their academic writing and how they conduct and seek to resolve problems and disagreements. Van Eemeren & Grootendorst (1996) shed light on the importance of teaching students, in particular, graduate students the principles and methods of argumentation because they believe that teaching students how to present argumentation is of a great help to get and improve writing skill in a rational way. Van Eemeren and Grootendorst's view of argumentation is considered both descriptive and normative. It is descriptive since it deals with real arguments, which thus provides it with an empirical basis. They state that "these results of empirical research are interesting in their own right; in pragma-dialectics, however, they are primarily turned to account in developing educational methods for moving argumentative practice towards the theoretical ideal of critical discussion".

The central issue of the writing for academic purposes is to answer the question of how the graduate students present their 'Argumentation' in academic writing. From a writing viewpoint and according to Vasilyev (2002), the term Argumentation is:

*Like any human knowledge, argumentation as a symbolic sub-system is generated by the power of human mind. According to Kant (1929), human knowledge is based on human mind-initiated operations of structuring that transform sensations into perceptions. Knowledge is thus a product of human mind and is formed through correlation of the 'knowable' and the cognitive potential of a recipient.*

The main focus of Vasilyev's definition is on the "power of human mind" to produce the process of reasoning systematically to support, analyze, and justify an idea or topic. In other words, it is about the human capacity for reasoning. In this sense, he agrees with Grice's definition in "Aspects of Reasons" (2001) where Grice states that "the entertainment (and often acceptance) in thought or in speech of a set of initial ideas (propositions), together with a sequence of ideas each of which is derivable by an acceptable principle of inference from its predecessors in the set". There is no doubt that

both definitions take cognitive perspective in dealing with argumentation. Vasilyev (2002) goes on to state that:

*Constructive sign-forming abilities of cogitant individuals are unitary. This, however, does not mean that all cogitant individuals create identical cognitive structures: variety of constructs at an abstract level reflects specific categories managing the process; these categories can be logical or argumentative.*

A fundamental aim of higher education is to develop in people a critical attitude towards knowledge and the ability to present well-grounded arguments. In doing so, Vasilyev (2002) in the above quotation, shows us that the individual differences between students should be taken into consideration. As a matter of fact, Argumentation is an everyday and everywhere activity for most people: from mass media to scientific forums. Thus, Argumentation is closely connected to the specifics of human language. In other words, it is the activity in which people engaged in for giving and asking reasons for the claims they make.

The relationship between language and argumentation can be seen obviously in the notion that the specifics of linguistic communication can be explained in terms of argumentative communication. Vasilyev (2002) states that “Argumentation is written into the language-system itself, into most linguistic aspect of the structure of our utterances”. The main emphasis of Vasilyev's quotation is on the pragmatic framework as an essential tool in any linguistic communication including academic writing. This pragmatic framework can be predicted from the activity of giving and asking for reasons in any linguistic communication. Vasilyev goes on to state that the more we consider human language as a tool for communication, the more we ought to concentrate on argumentation as its paradigm. For the purpose of academic writing, this study will focus on the academic sense of ‘argument’: a statement that includes a claim and some form of support and on ‘argument construction’ to mean the process of putting together, building, and/or strengthening an argument.

In an attempt made by cognitive linguists and expert researchers in the field of academic writing to answer the question of how to present an argumentative academic text, they suggested that it is “Critical Thinking” that opens the door for producing



effective arguments within a text. According to Colbert (1993: 206-214), critical thinking is "The ability to analyze, criticize, and advocate ideas; to reason inductively and deductively; and to reach factual or judgmental conclusions based on sound inferences drawn from unambiguous statements of knowledge or belief".

Sinclair (2000) agrees with Colbert (1993) on the notion that critical thinking is the key method in producing an argument for both learners of English as a second language and the highly proficient writers of English. He emphasizes that there is no doubt about the value of critical thinking in forming and providing effective academic arguments. Thus, graduate academic writings require the students to be well-acquainted with requirements such as "critical thinking" and to express this within the textual structures, which are the ways in which information is organized by such features as sequencing, topic sentences, and cause and effect markers to form academic arguments. These features are recognized through the investigation of text standards theme/rheme and coherence/cohesion by Halliday & Hasan (1976).

It is worth noting that the main aim of graduate students (native and nonnative) is to produce good argumentation and to enable their readers to understand the meaning of the claims involved in their writing. To reach this aim, they may follow a linguistic-pragmatic approach which is meant to be a good instrument for dealing with both aspects of the activity of arguing, that is, its justificatory and its persuasive powers, and to deal with both its interpretation and its appraisal.

To sum up, argumentation in academic writing serves to uncover and address irregularities and inconsistencies among ideas and evidence; it is a central means by which the community evaluates the promise of conjectures and the validity of claims. As stated by Berland & Reiser (2009), academic writers engaging in argumentation are making sense of phenomena, articulating those understandings and persuading others of their ideas. Meeting these goals requires that academic writers construct and support claims using evidence and reasoning and that they question, challenge and revise their own and other's claims, evidence and reasoning.

## 2.4. Academic writing

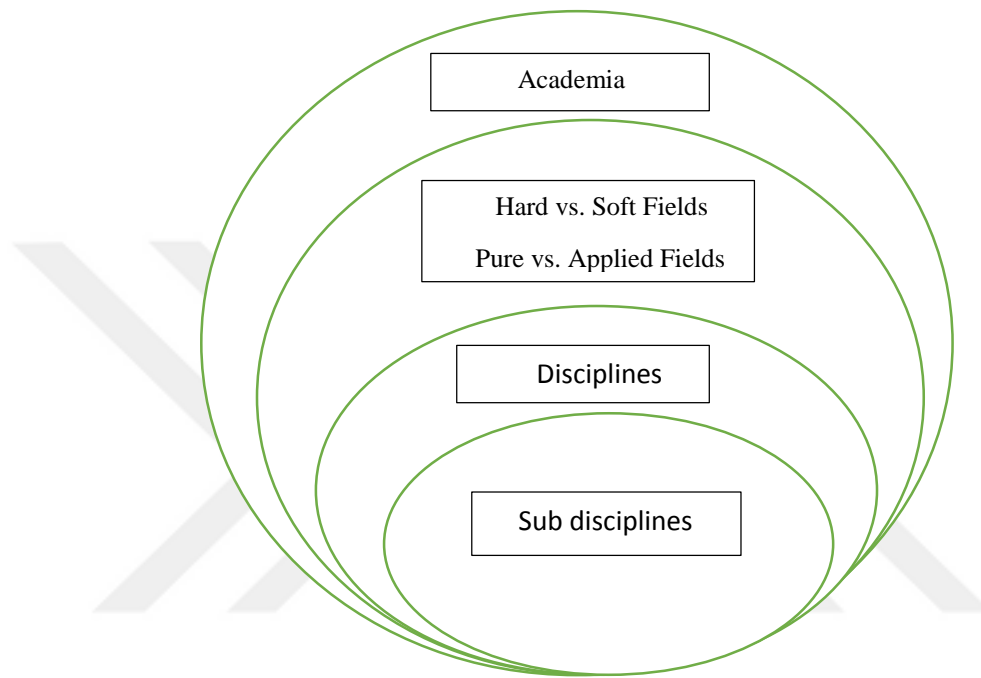
Definitions of Academic writing vary. These variations are in accordance with the approaches used to investigate writing for academic purposes such as product text, individual writer cognitive process, norms of the interpretive community or audience, and interaction between writer and reader within a situated discourse context. Each approach has its own features and historical development. In the last 50 years, these approaches have been labeled under two main groups: (1) product based aspects and process based aspects of writing; and (2) (individual) cognitively based aspects and socially based aspects. These two groups are considered by most linguists and researchers in the field of writing for academic purposes as providing a useful base for examining and identifying the meaning and aspects of academic writing (Raimes, 1991; Silva, 1990; and Witte & Cherry, 1994).

Another viewpoint of English academic writing can be seen in the work of linguists and researchers who believe that a better understanding of academic writing can be obtained by examining its rhetorical origins. Connor (1996) agrees with Kaplan (2014: 12) on the fact that English academic writing and its rhetorical elements “have evolved out of the Anglo-European cultural pattern”. Like other modern linguists who write on academic writing, Connor and Kaplan adopt the idea of the “central topic’ of any piece of writing. They state that English paragraphs should logically contain a topic sentence. This topic sentence is followed by illustrations and examples that develop the central idea of that paragraph and connect it with other main ideas of other paragraphs in the text.

Belcher (1994), Connor and Kramer (1995), Fujioka (1999), Greene (1995), Hansen (2000), Herrington (1985), and many other researchers and linguists have made studies that focused on writing for academic purposes. They investigated advanced English academic literacy in English in a natural setting. The focus of their studies was on the processes by which university and graduate students are socialized into an academic discourse community.

However, most studies of academic writing have focused primarily on social acts and contacts involved but not on individual cognitive processes. They also focused on the experiences of students in the natural sciences, engineering, technology, or business, which as many studies on writing have documented, demand less writing from students

and writing in relatively well-defined genres, compared to the writing required in the humanities and social sciences (Braine, 1995 and Spack, 1997). According to Belcher (1994), four level of academic writing can be recognized (see figure 1). He starts with the general level which is the academic profession as a whole and ends with most specific level which is the sub disciplinary specialty.

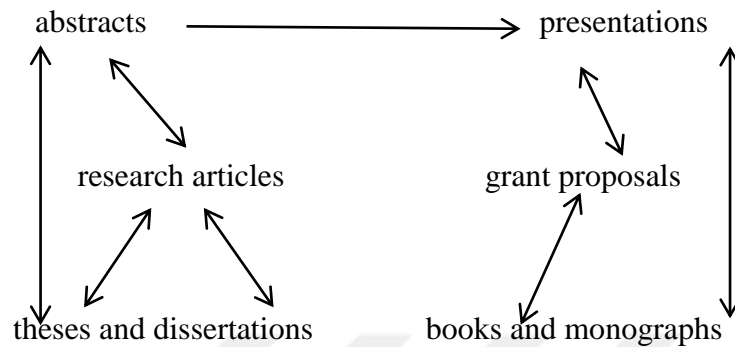


**Figure 1. Levels of Academic Writing according to Belcher (1994)**

At the heart of all descriptive studies of the linguistic characteristics of written academic discourse is the premise that the language being analyzed represents the knowledge and practices of the academic community at some level. For example, much of Halliday’s work has focused on the writing of science (see the collection of works in Halliday, 2004), often exploring grammatical metaphor, which “creates virtual phenomena – virtual entities, virtual processes” (Halliday, 2004: xvii) that scientists can use to theorize about human observations and experience.

Swales (2004) makes a useful contribution to the definition of the term ‘Academic writing’ by introducing the term ‘genre’ and ‘genre network’. Swale’s definition of genre network, in particular in graduate study, as “functional components” of academic writing

is characterized by the terms dynamism and inclusiveness. He reflects his observation that genres in the research world and academic writing are frequently transformed into other genres. Figure (2) as cited in Swales (1990, p. 15) shows the fundamental arguments behind the concept of genre networks.



**Figure 2. Research and Academic writing**

Swales (2004: 22) argues that in the research world, genres form intertextual relationships with other genres. He points out that presentations can lead to research articles, but just as likely, research articles can lead to presentations. Moreover, published articles can both precede and follow theses, and further, articles can be combined into theses.

The characteristics of English academic writing were clearly categorized by Hyland (2015) in his article “Persuasion and Context: The Pragmatics of Academic Metadiscourse”. He points out that English academic writing tends to:

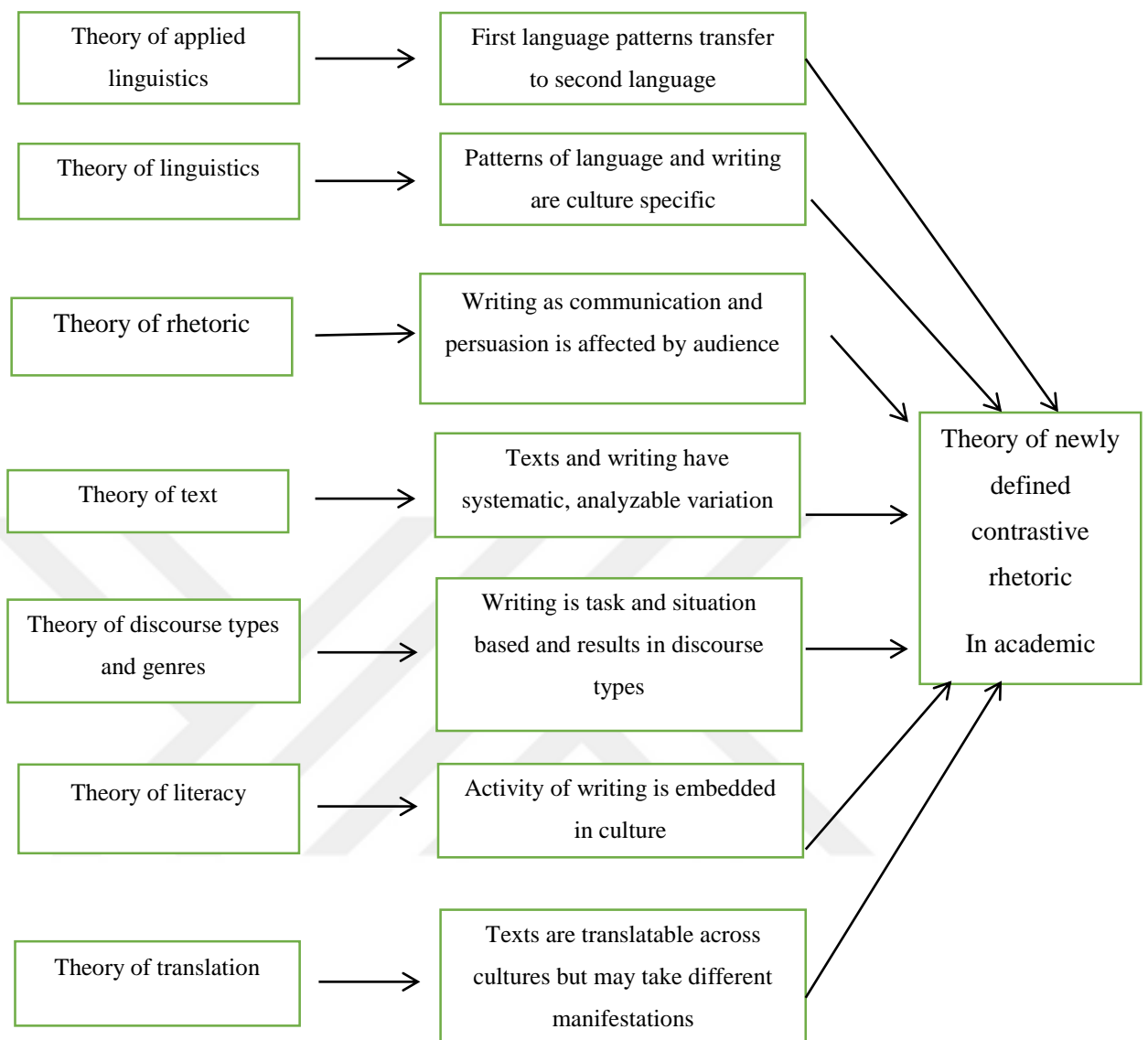
- Be more explicit about its structure and purposes;
- Place the responsibility for clarity and understanding on the writer rather than the reader;
- Employ more and more recent citations;
- Use more sentence connectors (such as therefore and however);
- Use fewer rhetorical questions;
- Have stricter conventions for sub-sections and their titles;
- Be generally less tolerant of asides or digressions;

- Be more tentative and cautious in making claims.

Linguistically speaking, there is a general consensus, even outside the academic community, that academic writing has distinct characteristics that set it apart from other types of language. Much research (Biber, 1988; Biber et al., 1999; Biber & Gray, 2010, forthcoming; Halliday, 2004; Banks & Banks 2005; and Fang, 2006) has focused on describing a defining characteristic of academic prose, its dense reliance on nouns and noun phrase structures. This nominal style contrasts with the structure of, for example, conversation, which relies on the use of more verbs and clausal structures. In perhaps the most comprehensive descriptive reference grammar to date, Biber et al. (1999) describe the distributions of a full range of lexical and grammatical structures in English in *The Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (LGSWE)*, comparing academic writing, conversation, newspaper writing, and fiction.

Graduate students experience some degree of difficulty with academic writing in English for academic purposes. This fact is mentioned by Rumelhart (1980), Anderson et al (1978) and Freedman & Calfee (1984). When faced with insufficient or inaccurate linguistic and social/cultural knowledge, EFL graduate students tend to fall back on prior knowledge and experience in their LI (first language) writing and reading, and simply try to apply them as is to their L2 (foreign language) English writing tasks. This often leaves a large gap between what EFL writers bring to their L2 English academic writing and what the English academic community expects of them (Angelova & Riazantseva, 1999; Belcher & Braine, 1995; Connor, 1996; Horowitz, 1986; and Reid, 2008).

Recently, theories from anthropology, applied linguistics, linguistics, and second language acquisition make attempts to explore academic writing from the viewpoint of L1 and L2 relation. These modern theories investigate academic writing in a broader scope and intercultural rhetoric and call attention to the social situation in writing. The main hypothesis of these theories was seeing writing as a social situation where purpose, audience, and relationship with the reader are highly considered (Martin, 1995: 3-60; Connor, 1996: 293; and Kaplan, 2014: 14). Figure (3) below illustrates academic writing in terms of L1 and L2 relation and the influences of linguistic theories on academic writing (taken from Connor, 1996: 9).



**Figure 3. Academic Writing in terms of L1 and L2 and the influences of linguistic theories on Academic writing**

Since the main purpose of this study is to investigate pragmatic argumentation in the academic writing of graduate students as learners of English a foreign language and graduate students of English-speaking countries, it was important to research the term ‘academic writing’ from the view of L1 and L2 writing relation. Due to a lack of knowledge of and familiarity with the features of written academic discourse and rhetorical principles in English, and with English academic discourse culture and audience expectations, many EFL (English as a foreign language) graduate students

experience some degree of difficulty with academic reading and writing in English for academic discourse purpose.

### **2.4.1. Aspects of Academic Writing**

Many linguists, scholars, and researchers in the field of academic writing agree on the fact that academic writing is to some extent complex, formal, objective, explicit, hedged, and responsible. They believe that these are the features of any successful piece of writing in the academic community. However, Modern linguists like Oshim & Hogu (1999), Halliday (2002), Martin (2004), Halliday & Webster (2002), Trask (1999), Turk and Kirkman (1989), and Palmer (1993) use the word ‘aspect’ instead of ‘feature’ to describe academic writing. Academic writing in English is linear, which means it has one central point or theme with every part contributing to the main line of argument, without digressions or repetitions. Its objective is to inform rather than entertain.

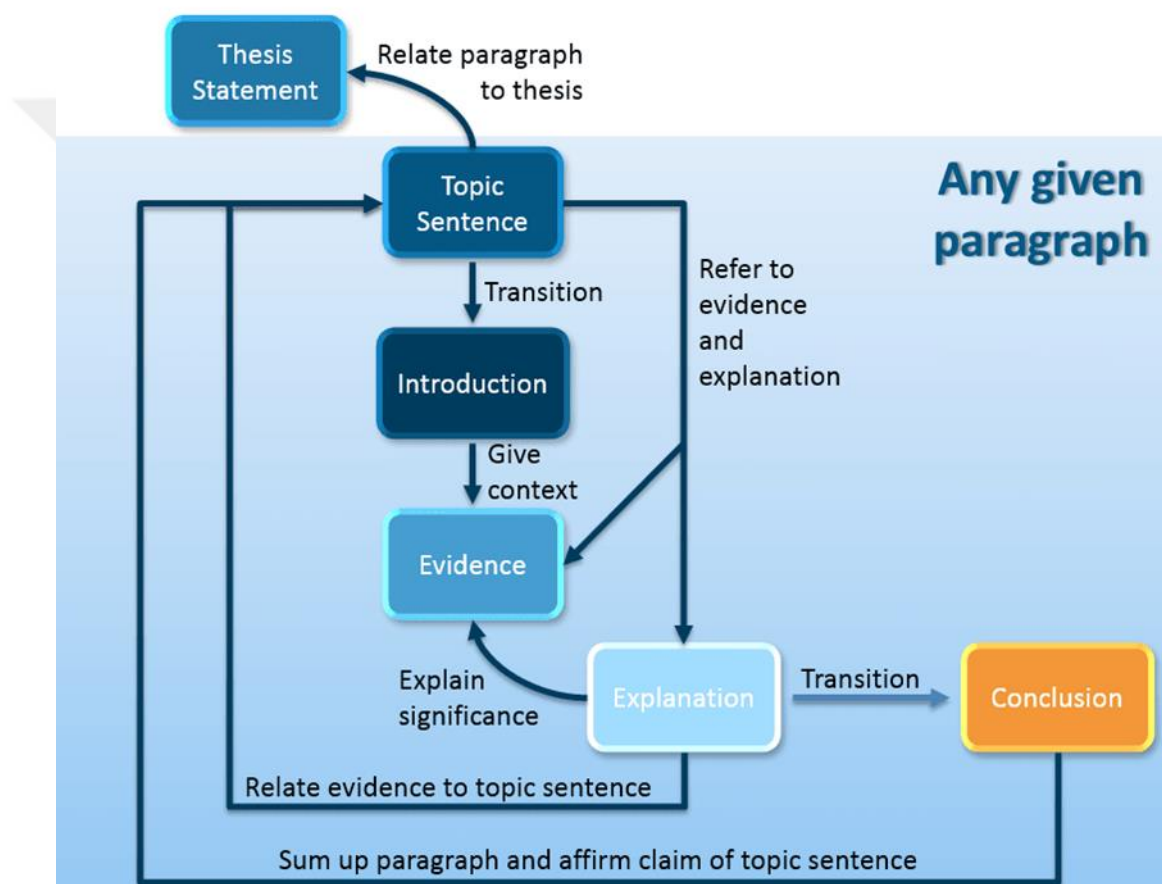
Six aspects of academic writing have been selected to cover this study’s settings of analysis: (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, (f) and discourse markers. These are the main aspects that are selected here by the researcher to accomplish a fully comprehensive understanding of the pragmatic argumentation of the academic writing within the focus of this study. To make a better understanding for the adapted approach of analysis of this study, a detailed literature is required. The six aspects are as follows:

#### **2.4.1.1. Paragraph Structure**

In any piece of academic writing, the purpose of a paragraph is to support a single claim or idea that helps build up the overall argument or purpose of the paper. Paragraphs should be focused around this single idea or point, and they should be clearly related to what comes before them. In short, paragraphs provide a structure for the academic writing which enables the reader to identify, distinguish, and follow the developing stages in the writer's treatment of the material. In academic writing, paragraphs should have their own internal structure whilst fitting into the larger structure of the whole piece of writing. Oshim & Hogu (1999) state that a paragraph can be defined as a series of sentences that are organized and coherent, and are all related to a single topic, i.e. a paragraph is a

collection of related sentences dealing with a single topic. Each paragraph typically contains a three-part structure: introduction, body, and conclusion.

Paragraphs are not a unit of length. There is no particular length for a paragraph in academic writing, although in general one can say that three lines are too short and one full page is too long. It is essential to note that paragraphs in academic writing should be sequenced in a logical order because they will provide the major building blocks for the argument in the article, essay, report, thesis, and all the other type of academic writing (see Fig. 4).



**Figure 4 Paragraph structure in academic writing**

As shown in figure (4), to build up a reasonable paragraph structures, one should follow three main components: introduce, explain and provide evidence, and conclude (Bryson, 2014).



These are the main components of a paragraph, on the other hand, on a pragmatic level, coherence and relevance are the main aspects of any given information. To follow the rules above is not enough for a fully successful pragmatic argumentation. Therefore, a better understanding for coherence and relevance is also important to create a better perspective of the analysis of this study.

#### **2.4.1.1.1. Coherence**

Coherence is one of several factors that make a text understandable. It is “The degree to which a piece of discourse ‘makes sense’” (Trask, 1999: 26). The higher the connection between the sentences of a paragraph, the more coherent it is, as a high degree of connectedness produce a highly coherent text. This term was first introduced by Halliday in his introduction of Systemic Linguistics.

The study of coherence in academic writing has long been the concern of rhetoricians, but it was not until after the 1960s that this subject began to receive greater scholarly attention from linguists, rhetoricians, and TESOL practitioners and to be studied in a systematic way. In these fields, scholars have examined coherence in depth with fruitful results, providing great insights for composition studies and composition instruction. For Crystal (1991), Halliday & Hasan (1976), and Connor & Johns (1990, p. 14), coherence can be easily examined, studied, and understood in relation to its pragmatic functions in human communication. According to Crystal (1991: 60) coherence is “principle of organization postulated to account for the underlying functional connectedness or identity of a piece of spoken or written language (text, discourse)”. In other words, coherence in any piece of writing refers to connectivity in terms of content and organization.

Arthur C. Graesser, Peter Wiemer-Hasting and Katka Wiener-Hastings (2001) put two levels of coherence. They use the terms ‘Local’ and ‘Global’ coherence. Local coherence is “achieved if the reader can connect the incoming sentence to information in the previous sentence or to the content in working memory”. While, global coherence is understood by either the major message, a point in the structure of the sentence, or from earlier information given in the text.

To sum up, coherence is the communicability of a text between the reader and the writer. And, it is very vital element in text production and eventually better argumentation.

#### **2.4.1.1.2. Relevance**

Theorists from different disciplines presented a variety of definitions of relevance. In the context of human perception, relevance is viewed as a piece of information that contributes to confirming or rejecting a hypothesis describing the state of affairs of the environment. Bruner (1973: 98) suggests that in the actual process of perceiving a physical stimulus, “relevant information, or a relevant cue, refers to stimulus input which can be used by the subject for confirming or infirming an expectancy about the environment”. In the fields of communication and human cognition, relevance is perceived as determined by cognitive improvement resulting from the processing of information. Sperber and Wilson (1995: 122) point out that "an assumption is relevant in a context if and only if it has some contextual effect in that context". Such a contextual effect, as described by Sperber and Wilson, is mainly signaled by the cognitive movements of an individual as the interaction with communicated information brings about some advancement in this person's cognitive state.

Linguists Sperber & Wilson (1986) put the foundations for the term ‘Relevance’ in their book *Communication and Cognition* (revised in 1995). In their work, they try to shed light on the significance of Relevance as an essential hypothesis in any successful, verbal or nonverbal, communication. Birner (1994) and Briner & Ward (1994), on the other hand followed Grice’s proposal of maxims and based their work on defining the term "Relevance" as that of Grice's Maxim of Relation.

In conversation as well as in written texts, more specifically in academic writing, some linguists single out relevance as of greater importance than Grice recognized (Grice considers quality and manner as super maxims). Based on the idea of the Gricean cooperative principle, it is the maxim of relevance that enables hearers/readers to find meaning in utterances that seem meaningless or irrelevant. However, "Be relevant" may likely be understood to mean that one should present the relevant information pragmatically adequate for the purpose of the communication (Greenberg, 1963). In

developing this claim, speakers/writers tend to pay attention to the most relevant aspect available in their contributions; that they tend to present the most relevant possible contributions, and to process them in a context that maximizes their relevance. Relevance, and the maximization of relevance, is the key to human cognition. This gave rise to important questions: What is relevance? What a role it does play in academic writing? Why it is considered as having the priority on the other Gricean maxims?

According to (Wilson & Sperber: 2002), 'Relevance' can be defined in terms of two principles: First, a Cognitive Principle: that human cognition is geared to the maximization of relevance, i.e., the significance of relevance theory in verbal and non-verbal communication can be seen in the point that expectations raised by an utterance are precise enough, and predictable enough, to guide the hearer/reader towards the speaker/writer's meaning. In this sense, the main aim is to express and clarify in cognitively realistic terms what these expectations of relevance add up to, and how they might contribute to an empirically conceivable account of comprehension. Second, a Communicative Principle: that utterances create expectations of optimal relevance. The main focus of this principle is how to attract the hearer/reader's attention and move it to the speaker/writer's meaning.

From a communicative view point, the notion of communicative principle and the notion of optimal relevance may be seen as the key to understand the relation between relevance and pragmatics. What should be asserted pragmatically here is that relevance is not all-or-none matter but a matter of degree, i.e., the main aim of relevance theory is picking out from the mass of competing utterances not just the relevant one, but that it is more relevant than any other alternative utterance available to the hearer/reader at that time.

Mizzaro (1997) developed a simple structure in defining relevance in academic writing. He states that relevance is a relation between the entities of two groups: The first group contains either "Document," "Surrogate," or "Information," the second group includes either "Problem," "Information Need," or "Query." With this structure, relevance can be operationally defined either as a relation between a surrogate and a query, or a relation between a document and an information need, and so forth. However, Relevance in academic writing is most commonly expressed as the relevance of "topicality," or

simply, topical relevance. Cooper (1971) uses the term "Logical Relevance" to describe topical relevance, and contrasts it with the concept of "Utility.". He argues that:

*“In approaching the question of relevance in an information retrieval context, it seems natural to make at the start a rough distinction between what has been called logical relevance, alias "topic-appropriateness," which has to do with whether or not a piece of information is on a subject which has some topical bearing on the information need in question and utility which has to do with the ultimate usefulness of the piece of information to the user.”*

When relevance is defined as being reflected purely by logical topicality, it is automatically assumed that relevance is both objective and constant. Vickery (1958: 864) states that under the literary warrant criterion, "it is quite justifiably assumed that discriminations which have been relevant to authors in the past will be, to a greater or lesser extent, relevant to readers in the future".

In sum, it is worth noting that a critical aspect of understanding language, whether spoken or written, is how to relate each new piece of information to information that has already been presented. From a writing view point, "written discourses should be more fully packed with information precisely in order to convey the writer's full meaning" (Owtram, 2010). This leads to the fact that the cognitive-pragmatic approach to text is the key approach for producing acceptable and reasonable written texts.

#### **2.4.1.2. Length and Construction of Sentences**

The structure of linguistic sequences constitutes the province of syntagmatic analysis. The term is often distinguished from the more abstract notion of order (Crystal, 2008). A general pattern or any individual instance of it is usually called structure. Meanwhile, the general pattern sometimes referred to as a construction, and the individual instance is called a syntagm (Trask, 1999).

In structure, the arrangement is according to the scale of rank. In grammar we have the ranks of clause, group/phrase, word, and morpheme (Butler & Gonzalvez-Garcia, 2014). There are high and low ranks. These ranks constitute the syntagmatic dimension (Halliday, 2004). In the semantic structure there are equivalent or similar linguistic units, established on the syntagmatic level, and, are selected from a lexical

paradigm (Kienpointner, 1992). However, sentence structure refers to the physical nature of a sentence and how the components of that sentence are presented.

As far as sentence length is concerned, Turk and Kirkman (1989) identify three aspects of sentence length in English: Long sentences, Adjusting sentence length, and Flexible sentence length. They believe that academic writers' decision on sentence length should be based on readability and reader's capacity to absorb and retain information. In fact, they show many concerns about using long sentences in academic writing. For them, the main danger of using long sentences is that they may leave the reader uncertain about the intended focus of information, and lead to strain, fatigue, and finally inattention. They suggest that to express complex information in an effective form, academic writers may use linkers between sentences together with subordinating and coordinating expression. However, they focus on the effectiveness of variety in sentence length; "Anything unfamiliar, complex, and new will require stating it in shorter sentences, while a review of familiar information can be coded in longer sentences".

Palmer's notion (1993) of construction and length of sentence is similar to Turk & Kirkman's (1989) notion in the sense that the three writers were not against the long and complex sentence. They consider them as "the writer's valuable friend" (Palmer, 1993). They focus on an important point, that is, how writers make decision about sentence construction and length. Palmer (1993) gives an advice on how writers should decide on construction and length of sentences by saying that:

*"For once you've understood how and why your sentence works, you can fashion them to your taste and that partly involves a decision about how long and complex, or short and snappy; they need to be for your purposes. Effectiveness writing comes in all shapes and sizes the key is in judging which shape and size is most appropriate to a given task."*

Length and construction of sentences play an essential role in facilitating the efficient transfer of information from the writer to the reader through the text. Linguistically speaking, sentence structure, or syntax, is about the relationships among the words that form a sentence. It is one of the most essential factors influencing the readability of a text. As a matter of fact, readability studies have stated that improvements to sentence structure generally have a greater impact on readability than the elimination

of obscure terminology (Masson & Waldron, 1994). This is not surprising given the degree to which meaning depends on context. If it is easy to understand how the words of a sentence relate to each other, readers are often able to figure out the meaning of particular words that are unfamiliar.

It is worth mentioning that an effective way of measuring length and construction of sentence in academic writing is the TTR measure (Type Token Ratio). The term 'token' refers to the total number of words in a text regardless of how often they are repeated. The term 'type' refers to the number of distinct words in a text. The type token ratio is essentially a means of assessing lexical diversity. It has a number of applications-discourse analyses, translation, measuring vocabulary development in language acquisition, writing development, studies of speech versus writing, comparing different languages etc.

#### **2.4.1.3. Organization of Information in Sentences**

The third aspect to be adopted in this pragmatic analysis of argumentation in academic writing is the organization of information in sentences. The meaning of sentences depends on more than just the meaning of the individual words they contain. In addition, it depends on the relationships between the ideas covered by the words. The order in which these ideas are conveyed affects the ease with which their relationships can be understood.

The information unit is a unit that is parallel to the clause. It may be more or less than a clause. It does not correspond to any other unit in the grammar. It is the contextual element that relates to the clause. The unmarked or default condition of the unit is its connection to the nearest grammatical clause. Therefore, a single clause may be mapped into two or more information units; or a single information unit into two or more clauses (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). "New" and "Given" concepts are functions in the information structure (Halliday: 1967). They constitute the units of information. The New element is obligatory and the 'Given' is optional (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Halliday, 1967). Halliday (2004) explains the importance of the organization of information in English academic writing by stating that:

*“The complex interplay of Theme + Rheme in the clause with Given + New in the information unit constitutes an immensely powerful discursive resource; it is the primary source of energy for the dynamic of scientific and technical argument. The reason it works so powerfully is that it is a structure of the clause: a configuration embodying the system of transitivity, which is the grammar’s theory of process.”*

In a coherent paragraph each sentence relates clearly to the topic sentence or controlling idea, but there is more to coherence than this. If a paragraph is coherent, each sentence flows smoothly into the next without obvious shifts or jumps. A coherent paragraph also highlights the ties between old information and new information to make the structure of ideas or arguments clear to the reader. Sentence organization is equally critical to the reader's understanding. Readers need to know the main parts of a sentence before they can understand the rest of its information. Reading difficulty is often increased by splitting subjects and verbs and by putting lengthy subordinate clauses at the beginning of a sentence. However, using simpler adjectival phrases instead of more complex subordinate clauses can help readers considerably to understand the writer's intention.

#### **2.4.1.4. Vocabulary**

Effective writing needs writers to be aware of what to do and not do. It demands that academic writers have a good understanding of ‘clarity’ and ‘variety’ at the same time. Turk & Kirkman (1989) dealt with clarity and variety as one of the parameters by which academic writers should measure the readability of their work. In other words, clarity and variety can contribute to effective writing. According to them, an effective academic writing should not be achieved by limiting the number of structures and forms, i.e. too many writers fail to vary their manipulation of the code; their flexibility is limited. Vocabulary is one of the basic topics writers can benefit from to keep their readers interested. Imagine that you are the reader of your paper not the writer and start to analyze it from the reader’s view point. If you find that your writing becomes “monotonous, repetitious, or hard to follow”, you may be having problems with your sentence structure and vocabulary Turk & Kirkman (1989: 102).

In academic writing, the breadth and depth of a student's vocabulary will have a direct immediate impact upon the clarity, precision, and nature of his/her writing. Ediger

(1999: 52) states that "variety in selecting words to convey an accurate meaning is necessary in speaking and writing, the outgoes of the language arts". At any level, written communication is more effective when a depth of vocabulary and command of language is evident. He emphasized that "writing is dependent upon the ability to draw upon words to describe an event".

One of the most important parts of speech that has influence on the student's writing is the verb. In the same way that a story needs active, dynamic verbs to keep the plot moving, academic writing too will benefit from the correct use of verbs to help the writer present his or her ideas. The table below illustrates the verbs that most commonly used in academic writing, specifically speaking, in theses and dissertations of graduate students (taken from Nation, I. S. P. (1990) Teaching and Learning Vocabulary. New York: Newbury House. Academic Word List.

**Table 2. list of verbs used in academic writing**

<b>Showing change or difference</b>	<b>Increase :</b> broaden enlarge exceed expand generate improve maximize optimize
	<b>Decrease:</b> decline deteriorate erode minimize narrow reduce worsen
	<b>Difference or Varying:</b> alter contrast convert deviate differ differentiate distinguish diverge evolve modify revise transform
<b>Shows stability</b>	maintain sustain
<b>Shows keeping within a certain range/ keeping under a certain level</b>	confine inhibit prohibit restrict
<b>Shows in-depth study</b>	analyze examine investigate observe survey
<b>Stating, Restating or Emphasizing Ideas/Concepts</b>	<b>Stating:</b> acknowledge argue attribute comment propose establish identify mention note observe state
	<b>Restating</b> elaborate expand
	<b>Emphasizing:</b> emphasize stress
<b>Describes phenomenon or data</b>	<b>Describes phenomena:</b> acquire define impact signify symbolize
	<b>Describes data:</b> approximate demonstrate indicate levels off reflect
	<b>Positive:</b> advocate hold the view that hypothesize propose
<b>Stating position</b>	<b>Negative/Contradict:</b> deny dispute negate reject



<b>Showing uncertainty or an extrapolation of information</b>	<b>Uncertainty:</b> predict speculate
	<b>Extrapolation of information</b> deduce imply infer project
<b>Shows components</b>	comprise consist constitute incorporate

In some way, the ability to write effectively depends on having a sufficient vocabulary even more than does the ability to read. Once students have learned to decode words, they may be able to read and pronounce many words that are unfamiliar to them. They may even have the ability to decide accurate meanings of unfamiliar words simply by looking at the context in which those words are used. During the writing process, however, a student does not have the luxury of examining the context in which a word is used; he/she is creating the context. Therefore, the writer must be able to spontaneously recall words that are known not only by sight, but that are understood well enough to use correctly.

#### **2.4.1.5. Topic Sentence and Topicality**

A well-organized paragraph supports or develops a single controlling idea, which is expressed in a sentence called the topic sentence. A topic sentence has several important functions: it substantiates or supports an essay's thesis statement; it unifies the content of a paragraph and directs the order of the sentences; and it advises the reader of the subject to be discussed and how the paragraph will discuss it.

Readers generally look to the first few sentences in a paragraph to determine the subject and perspective of the paragraph. That is why it is often best to put the topic sentence at the very beginning of the paragraph. In some cases, however, it is more effective to place another sentence before the topic sentence. For example, a sentence links the current paragraph to the previous one, or one providing background information (Halliday, 1967; Halliday, 2004; and Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Linguistically speaking, the main mission of the topic sentence, specifically in academic writing, is to lead the reader to the writer's purpose of the paragraph and this varies according to the question the writer is exploring (e.g. describing, explaining, comparing, critically analyzing). In other words, depends on the types of the paragraph. According to Halliday (1978) and Martin (2004), topic sentence and its position in academic writing is affected

by the paragraph types, i.e. in a good paragraph, information is presented in a systematic way according to its type.

A topic is defined differently by various linguists and grammarians and understood in the broadest terms to be something like what the discourse is about, or a framework or domain that sets the stage for the discourse which follows. A subject is closely linked structurally to a predicate, usually bound to the other elements in a clause by word order rules of some strength, whereas a topic is not typically thought to be a part of a particular grammatical structure, but may rather be one of a host of NP (Noun Phrase) candidates in the discourse that is somehow thematic well beyond the sentence, and important in the organization of information at the discourse level. What exactly a topic is, however, remains elusive (Tomlin, 1995 and Tomlin, 1997).

Kehler & Rohde, (2014) and Fukumura & van Gompel (2010) have a narrow view of topicality. They believe that topicality (as represented by grammatical role) is all that influences referential form. Givon (1983) takes a wider view when he states that topicality includes information about the past discourse but also about the likelihood of upcoming information (which he calls persistence). Adopting the Centering Theory, Grosz et al. (1995) presents a framework for categorizing topicality by allowing referents within sentences to be ranked based on whether they have been mentioned previously. Under Centering Theory, pronoun use is based on the ranking of the possible referents. Referents are categorized as either being the backward-looking center, or one of the forward looking centers. The backward-looking center is defined as the referent that is most salient or topical (as determined by grammatical role and previous mention). The forward looking centers are the other referents that were mentioned, and they are ordered based on their grammatical functions.

Most theorists who have proposed influential accounts of topic and topicality have focused on defining the psychological notion of topic, but have looked for corresponding elements within the clause or sentence structure at hand. However, there is still some degree of confusion regarding whether we should be looking for a single topic in a topic-comment relationship within a given clause, or whether topicality is variable, found to greater or lesser extent in numerous elements within the clause. Scalar topicality was already acknowledged in the Functional Sentence Perspective approach of the Prague

School, and it has received much attention in the work of Givon (e.g. 1983, 1989, 1990). The relationship of topic plus comment (or focus, in some analyses) continues to persist in linguistic description as well, either as a commonly occurring ‘natural language’ structure no matter what the language, or as a significant or prominent sentence structure for particular languages (Comrie (1989); (Kehler, 2002); Mithun (1991); and Li and Thompson (1981).

According to Chafe (1976: 25-55), “the topic sets a spatial, temporal, or individual framework within which the main predication holds”. He goes on to state that topics are topics being “typically introduced with a spatial, temporal and often epistemic orientation.” Topic, for Chafe, is synonymous with a particular perspective from which the assertion might be made, and that this perspective may be relational (spatial), temporal (relationally grounded in time) or essentially subjective (also see Bates et al, 1982: 245-299). A further explanation of topic and topicality in English Writings was given by Givon (1984). He looks at topic from the perspective of ‘New’ and ‘Old’ information. For him, old information is the presupposed information, or the shared background information, while information that is asserted, or foreground information, is ‘new’. Furthermore, Givon suggests that each sentence uttered is a combination of old and new information, in other words, there is a balance struck between how much information in the utterance is topical and how much is new.

However, Givon’s view of newness and oldness of information has been reformulated and developed in his later definition of topic. He (1990) suggested that topic is both accessible in an anaphoric sense, and important in a cataphoric sense. Givon’s definition of topicality leads to us to shed light on Dik’s definition of topic and topicality. Dik (1989) classified topic, in terms of pragmatic functions, into four sub class: Given Topic, Sup-Topic, New Topic, and Resumed Topic. In their article *On Assigning Pragmatic Function in English* Mackenzie & Keizer (1991: 177-179) explain these four subtypes in details. They state that a New topic can be defined as “the first presentation of a D-topic”. A given topic is an entity that has been introduced into the discourse by means of a New Topic. Sub-topic can be defined as that entity that had been explicitly introduced into the discourse. Finally, ‘Resumed’ topic is Given Topic that has not been mentioned for some time in the discourse. Resumed topic is determined by its own typical properties (strong anaphoric reference, indication that the entity has been mentioned

before, and, “typically” degree of accentual prominence in the spoken and written language).

To sum up, the topic sentence in academic writing identifies what is being argued for or against. An argument paragraph presents a point of view and provides evidence for the topic sentence. Accordingly, the academic writer, in general, and the graduate students, in particular, must support his/her topic sentence with the most effective evidence that comes from a variety of credible sources.

#### **2.4.1.6. Discourse Markers**

In Academic writing, specifically speaking in the writings of graduate students, it is important for the writer to lead his/her reader to the message that writers intend to deliver. One of the essential ways is to use “Discourse Markers”. According to Andersen, G. & T. Fretheim (2000), the importance of discourse markers in academic writing is that they guide the reader through the discourse and show him/her how each sentence is connected to others. This automatically helps the reader to approach the coming sentence with the knowledge of how it relates to the theme the writer is constructing.

Jucker (1998) sheds light on another point of view of discourse markers in academic writing. For him, the main mission of a discourse marker is to signal a change in direction of the text, i.e. if the writer wants to signal a change in the direction of his/her writing, he/she will utilize a marker, for example, “on the other hand”, “conversely”, “in contrast with”, “in opposition to”....etc. Furthermore, Gerard (2010: 24-26) argues that discourse, in general, refers to pieces of language larger than a sentence that function together to convey a given idea or information and discourse markers are devices that are used to hang the pieces of language or expression together. These discourse markers are used, specifically speaking in academic writing, to identify and show the relationship between ideas or information in a given context. They are words or phrases used by writers to link ideas or information in a discourse.

It is essential for any academic writer to be aware of the fact that discourse markers do not convey meaning on their own nor change the meaning of a sentence. Instead, they are grammatical or functioning words that perform grammatical functions by linking ideas in a piece of writing and signal the reader of continuity in text or the

relationship between the preceding and following text (Bestgen, 1998). Many linguists recommend that to understand the effective use of discourse markers, graduate students, in particular, should read a great deal paying special attention to discourse markers.

Linguistically speaking, three main linguistic approaches to discourse markers were established by linguists such as Schiffrin (1987), Redeker (1991), Lenk (1998), Fraser (1990), Carter and McCarthy (2006), Blakemore (1987), and Andersen (2001). These three linguistic approaches are the grammatical-pragmatic approach, the coherence-based approach, and the relevance-based. In terms of grammatical-pragmatic definition, discourse markers have been taken as a pragmatic class. Carter and McCarthy (2006) and Fraser (1999) deal with discourse markers as a sub-class of pragmatic markers, which also include stance markers, hedges and interjections. They state that discourse markers can be seen as seen as a lexical category of any grammatical form used to “link segments of the discourse to one another in ways which reflect choices of monitoring organization and management exercised by the speaker”. The coherence-based approach sees discourse markers as “sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk” (as cited in Schiffrin’s work (1987: 31). Schiffrin (1987: 37) went on to state that “markers are devices that work on a discourse level; they are not dependent on the smaller units of talk of which discourse is composed”. Discourse markers within the relevance theory approach are termed discourse connectives. Blakemore (1987: 105) define discourse markers as “expressions that constrain the interpretation of the utterances that contain them by virtue of the inferential connections they express”.

Table 3 below summaries the characteristics of discourse markers in these three approaches:

**Table 3. characteristics of discourse markers in these three approaches**

	<b>Coherence-Based Functional Definition</b>	<b>Grammatical- Pragmatic Approach</b>	<b>Relevance-Based</b>	
Researcher(s)	Schiffrin 1987 Redeker 1990, 1991 Lenk 1998	Fraser 1990, 1996, 1999	Carter & McCarthy 2006	Blakemore 1987, 1992 Andersen 1998
Optionality	Yes	Yes	Yes	n/a
Flexibility of position	Yes	Yes (typically in utterance-initial position)	Yes	n/a
Prosodic independence	Yes	n/a	Yes	n/a

Connectivity	Yes (connect two 'units of talk', Schiffrin) (connect utterance and context, Redeker) (connect discoursal segments, Lenk)	Yes (connect two messages)	Yes (connect discoursal segments)	Yes (not necessarily connecting two textual segments; may be background or contextual assumptions)
Multi-grammaticality	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

As demonstrated in table 3 above, linguists with the three approaches mentioned in table 3 identified and explained five main linguistic characteristics of discourse markers: Optionality, Flexibility of position, Prosodic independence, Connectivity, and Multi-grammaticality. Another important viewpoint about the characteristics of discourse markers in English academic writing has been set out by linguists like Schourup (1999), and Fung and Carter (2007), Brown and Yule (1983), Brown et al (1992), Carter and McCarthy (2006), and Fraser (1990). According to them there are seven main linguistics characteristics of discourse markers: optionality, initiality, connectivity, weak clause association, non-truth-conditionality, orality and multi-categoriality.

It is not easy to put a complete list of discourse markers and their various functions in English academic writing because there are many of them with different meanings and functions. Table 4 below presents a selection of discourse markers with their meanings and functions that graduate students may use in academic writing (cited in [www.academia.edu/discourse\\_markers](http://www.academia.edu/discourse_markers) ).

**Table 4. Discourse markers and their meanings and functions in academic writing**

Meaning	Basic form and formal use	More formal	Most formal
<b>Addition</b>	Also First, second...etc.	Additionally Beside Further Furthermore In addition Last but not the least Not only...but	Equally Important Moreover Similarly
<b>Cause-Effect</b>	Then Therefore	As a result For that reason Thus	Accordingly As a consequence Hence Consequently

<b>Comparison</b>	Also Like Too	As well as Both... and Compared to In the same way Likewise Neither... nor	By comparison In common with In like manner Similarly
<b>Contrast</b>	However	Instead Nevertheless On the other hand	Conversely In contrast to In opposition to On the contrary Otherwise Still Whereas
<b>Time</b>	After a while After that Also At last Currently Earlier First, second... etc. In the future In the past now Last Next	Afterwards At the same time Immediately In the meantime Later	Concurrently Previously Simultaneously Subsequently
<b>Example</b>	For example	For instance In other words	As an example For illustration To exemplify
<b>Summary- Conclusion</b>	Finally Therefore	After all All in all At last Briefly Consequently Last On the whole Thus	Accordingly As a consequence In brief In closing In conclusion In short In sum In summary To conclude To summarize

### 2.4.2. Measures for Academic Writing

Over the past century, the academic community and the public have become familiar with the tools of the educational achievement test and measurement trade. Almost every adult in our society has personal experience of standardized achievement testing, for better or worse. Generally speaking, the measurement and their tools differ in terms of the skill construct (reading, writing, listening, speaking), types of test, and variety of formats (multiple-choice, true and false, short answer, or essay items). For the purpose of this study, the focus will be on criteria used in measuring academic writing of post graduate students. Two essential criteria have been focused on in this section, validity and reliability.

### **2.4.2.1. Validity**

In academic writing, validity can be defined as a judgment of the extent to which empirical evidence and scientific theories investigative hypotheses and support the interpretations, inferences and actions based upon scores from a test (Messick,1989). According to Mason and Bramble (1989), there are three important approaches to measure the validity in academic writing: content validity, construct validity, and criterion-related validity. Focusing on the point that academic writing is ongoing process, Weir (2005) maintains the importance of validity in measuring the writings of graduate students. He agrees with Messick (1989) and Mason and Bramble (1989) in defining validity as a tool for providing empirical evidence of hypotheses investigation, but he stressed the fact that there are two aspects of validity: prior validity and post validity. He goes on to state that "the more fully we are able to describe the construct we are attempting to measure at the a priori stage, the more meaningful might be the statistical procedures contributing to construct validation that can subsequently be applied to the results of the test".

In sum, validity of the academic writing of learners of English as a second language and the highly proficient writers is the degree to which they produce and reproduce the topics, organize and reorganize the information within texts, and to invent and generate ideas. In other words, to which extent they are able to learn, inform, and convince or persuade by evidence.

### **2.4.1.2. Reliability**

Reliability, as the second criterion for measuring academic writing, can be defined as the consistency of the results that presented by the researchers within their writings. Before going deeply in defining reliability, it is sensible to mention that although validity and reliability are two measures for academic writing quality often seen as closely interrelated, and sometimes as overlapping, actually they describe two different concepts. As a matter of fact, reliability is a fundamental component of validity due to the fact that any piece of academic writing can be reliable but not valid, whereas writing cannot be valid yet unreliable.



Reliability in academic writing is designated to describe the repeatability and consistency of the results obtained from investigating certain topic. In simple, for results to be reliable, another researcher must have the capacity to investigate exactly the same topic and generate results with the same measurable significance. If he/she does not reach the same results, then there may be something wrong with the original research (Feldt & Brennan, 1989; Shaw, 2004; and Taylor & Jones, 2001). Obviously, in scientific research, accuracy in measurement is of great importance, i.e., it is very important that the researcher in the social sciences, specifically, in the community of academic writing determine the reliability of the data gathering instrument to be used.

## **2.5. Conclusion**

To conclude this chapter, it is worth mentioning that the terms pragmatics, argumentation, and academic writing have been defined by scholars and linguists from different points of view. I concentrate on the definitions that I found were highly connected with the purpose of this study, i.e., the pragmatics of argumentation in the academic writing of learners of English as a second language and the highly proficient writers. At the beginning of this chapter I outlined pragmatics as a field of linguistics concerned with the study of the relationship between linguistic forms and the users of those forms. In addition, Relevance and coherence were included as one of the aspects of the academic writing.

The second part of this chapter is devoted to discussing the term argumentation and its importance in opening the door for the writers, specifically speaking, for the graduate students to analyze, justify and persuade by evidence. Other aspects of literature were discussed wherever necessary to create a better perspective to what is yet to come in this study.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the research design and method of the study, including the selection of the participants, the data sources, the procedures of data collection and data analysis. It describes methods for collecting data, the approach to analysis, and how argumentation presented by Iraqi graduate students studying at Iraqi universities as learners of English as a foreign language and graduate students studying at American universities as students coming from English-speaking countries in English academic writing were pragmatically investigated. This investigation employed a corpus-based method to answer the research questions of interest. This method includes two levels of analysis. Level (A) is the general analysis of the six selected aspects of academic writings: (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, (f) discourse marker (see chapter one section 3). Level (B) will focus more deeply on three aspects: (a) paragraph structure, (b) vocabulary, and (c) discourse markers.

To analyze the development of the pragmatics of argumentation in English academic writing and reach precise results, part of this research has examined Iraqi graduate students' writings inside Iraq Universities in Masters Degree Programs to see how students use their ability as learners of English as a foreign language to understand and apply scientific argumentation in academic writing. The research has focused on analyzing students' argumentation to see how students develop their claims and adjust those claims with data collected from experiments performed to reach required results. The role of the researcher in this study is as investigator but also as a colleague of the Iraqi participants. The researcher and the participants shared common education backgrounds in LI, Arabic, and certain perceptions and experiences as graduate students in Turkey. This experience provided the researcher with familiarity with the participants, their LI rhetorical conventions, their LI culture academic expectations, and their general and sometimes more specific writing experiences in EFL. Any effects of familiarity on the researcher's perceptions, judgments, and interpretation of the data were countered by

enhanced awareness, knowledge, and sensitivity to the data and to many challenges, conceptions, experiences, processes and issues encountered in L2 English academic writing as an EFL graduate student.

## **3.2. Method**

### **3.2.1. Computational Analysis**

This study depended mainly in its data analysis on computer programs. There are six aspects to be analyzed differently, some of which are qualitative and others are quantitative, so a sufficient flexibility of the used programs gave the researcher freedom to use one program for more than one aspect of analysis as we will come to see in this chapter. This analysis depended mainly on four resources. They were:

**1- Stanford's NLP (Natural Language Processor):** The Natural Language Processing Group at Stanford University can be defined as a team of faculty, postdocs, and programmers who work together on algorithms that allow computers to process and understand human languages. An important feature of Stanford NLP Group is the effective combination of sophisticated and deep linguistic modeling and data analysis with innovative probabilistic, machine learning, and deep learning approaches to NLP (Spyns, 1996).

The Stanford NLP software is available to everyone. It provides a deep learning NLP, and rule-based NLP tools for major computational linguistics problems, which can be incorporated into applications with human language technology needs. The software is widely used in linguistics, industry, academia, and government. The Stanford NLP software distributions are open source, licensed under the GNU General Public License (v3 or later for Stanford Core NLP; v2 or later for the other releases).

**2- HyperResearch:** "HyperResearch" is a complex CAQDAS (Computer-Aided Qualitative Data Analysis Software). It is used by researchers within the sciences, social sciences, and professions including education and medicine (Hesse-Biber, 2010 a and Hesse-Biber, 2010 b). It was used by Teachout (2004), Barnes (2010), and Koops (2011) in their data analysis (Webster, 2014). HyperResearch offers mixed-method coding and analysis of data. It is capable of coding and analyzing texts and multimedia like graphics,

audio, and video (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2008). It also offers text cloud with multiple options available.

Text cloud applications and tools vary in usage. Wordle is said to be the most versatile software to use. It has a user-friendly web-based interface. Wordle outputs are more personal and visual when compared to similar tools such as TagCrowd, MakeCloud and ToCloud. Wordle analyzes text and produce a list of words with numeric weight based on its frequency in the text. Then, it normalizes the weights to an arbitrary scale which determines the magnitude of various constants that affect the resulting image (Atherton & Elsmore, 2007; Catterall & Maclaran, 1998; and Fielding & Lee 2002).

**3- Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA):** The Corpus of Contemporary American English is the first large, genre-balanced corpus of any language, which has been designed and constructed from the ground up as a ‘monitor corpus’, and which can be used to accurately track and study recent changes in the language. The corpus contains more than 520 million words of text (20 million words each year 1990-2015) and it is equally divided among spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic texts.

One of the goals of corpus linguistics during the last fifteen to twenty years has been to develop and use large ‘monitor corpora’. Unlike ‘static’ corpora like the Brown Corpus or the British National Corpus (BNC)—which are not updated once they are created—monitor corpora are dynamic, in the sense that new texts continue to be added to the corpus. The goal of creating such corpora is to allow users to search the continually expanding corpus to see how the language is changing (Davis, 2005; Davis, 2009a; and Davis, 2009b).

**4- GrammarScope (Core NLP):** GrammarScope (Core NLP) is a program that works out the grammatical structure of sentences, for instance, which groups of words go together (as "phrases") and which words is the subject or object of a verb. Probabilistic parsers use knowledge of language gained from hand-parsed sentences to try to produce the most likely analysis of new sentences. These statistical parsers still make some mistakes, but commonly work rather well. Their development was one of the biggest breakthroughs in natural language processing in the 1990s. Besides, the Stanford typed

dependencies representation was designed to provide a simple description of the grammatical relationships in a sentence that can easily be understood and effectively used by people without linguistic expertise who want to extract textual relations. In particular, rather than the phrase structure representations that have long dominated in the computational linguistic community, it represents all sentence relationships uniformly as typed dependency relations (de Marneffe & Manning, 2008; de Marneffe & Manning, 2006; and Collins, 1996).

### **3.2.2. Corpus: Definition and Background**

Working on the corpora approach which forms the basic method in analyzing the data used in this study, I found that it would be more reasonable to follow this sort of analysis in such a study because it presented new ways of researching language. A corpus essentially tells us what language is like, and the main argument in favor of using a corpus is that it is a more reliable guide to language use than native speaker intuition is (Hunston, 2003; Hunston, 2008; Hunston, 2009a; Hunston, 2009b; Hunston, 2011a; Hunston, 2011b; and Aktas & Cortes, 2008 ). This is why the use of corpora improved language research in the last few decades. Corpus studies proved a valuable source of inspiration in this study, helping to sharpen and test the hypotheses, and bringing up new and intriguing questions.

Over the past two decades, corpora, i.e. large systematic collections of written and/or spoken language stored on a computer and used in linguistic analysis and corpus evidence have been widely-used in linguistic research and in the teaching and learning of languages. The reason, as mentioned by Aston (1997: 51-62), is that corpus is "enriching the learning environment". As a matter of fact, the relationship between corpus and language searching, teaching, and learning is a dynamic one in which the two fields greatly influence each other. Corpus, or Corpus Linguistics, is a relatively young discipline. As is mentioned by (Hunston, 2009), though Corpus , as " the basic way of processing information", can be traced back to the thirteenth century, it owed its modern incarnation to the availability of computers in the 20th century. Recently, corpus linguistics has even "begun to be freely available online to the casual browser, language learner and relatively novice student" (Anderson & Corbett 1984: 35-37).

Most people agree that corpus Linguistics is not a new linguistics discipline, but rather a tool that could be applied in virtually any branch of linguistics. Thus, corpus linguistics can be defined as a method or a strategy of carrying out analysis of naturally occurring language. It can be used for the investigation of many kinds of linguistic issues. The analysis is usually carried out on the basis of computerized corpora (Svartvik, 1996). Corpus, on the other hand, can be defined as a systematic collection of naturally occurring texts (of both written and spoken language). The word that should be focused on in this definition is "systematic"; it means that the data are not collected randomly, but rather they are compiled according to specific criteria, such as different genres, registers of style ...etc.

It is worth mentioning that since the data in this study are collected from the writings of the learners of English as a foreign language to be compared with the writings of graduate students from English speaking countries in terms of certain criteria, I found out that following Corpus Method will be more balanced, systematic, and accurate and that corpus-based evidence provides a valuable complement to more traditional methods of investigation and helps to sharpen intuition, develop and test hypotheses.

### **3.2.3. Reasons for Using Corpus Linguistics in the Analysis**

In the past, language teachers, textbook authors, and researchers used to rely primarily on their own intuitions for selecting important and relevant aspects of the target language to base their instructions. However, their intuitive perceptions were not infallible, which could lead to biases negatively impacting learning outcomes. Nowadays, corpus methods of language analysis can inform language teaching and learning practices by providing evidence about language use from large amounts of authentic texts (McEney Xio & Tono, 2006 and McEney & Hardie, 2012). Although the roots of corpus linguistics can be traced further back, the real breakthrough came with the access to machine-readable texts which could be stored, transported, and analyzed electronically. Thus, corpus linguistics can be defined as a method or a strategy of carrying out analysis of naturally occurring language. In other words it is a method (technique) for carrying out linguistic analyses. As it can be used for the investigation of many kinds of linguistic issues and as it has been shown to have the potential to yield highly interesting, central, and often surprising new insights about language, and has become one of the most wide-

spread methods of linguistic investigation in recent years (Fillmore, 1992; Kennedy, 1998; Huston: 2009; and Meyer, 2002).

According to Tognini-Bonelli (2001), corpus linguistics uses corpora mainly to "expound, test, or exemplify theories and descriptions that were formulated before larger corpora became available to inform language study". He tries to explain that corpus linguistics is an approach that takes corpora as data to investigate certain linguistic phenomenon. Based on this definition, one may note that corpora are essentially static, consisting of records of spoken or written text that corpus linguistics explore to examine particular linguistic goals.

Usually, researchers collect corpora with a specific purpose in mind. Bennett (2010) listed eight types of corpora based on their purposes and corresponding forms: generalized, specialized, learner, pedagogic, historical, parallel, comparable, and monitor corpora. A generalized corpus is a sample corpus, which attempts to "present the normal linguistic features of a language or variety in approximately the proportions found in general use" (O'Keeffe & McCarthy, 2010: 33 and O'Keeffe & McCarthy, 2007: 82 ). It is "often very large, more than 10 million words, and contain a variety of language" (Bennett: 2010). For example, the British National Corpus (BNC) is a popular generalized corpus. The BNC contains 100 million words of British English gathered from the 1980s to 1993. It is part-of-speech tagged and provides texts gathered from spoken sources and written sources, including fiction, magazines, newspapers, and academic journals (The British National Corpus, 2007).

In sum, a corpus is a selection of electronic texts which are collected and ordered. They can be searched according to different criteria. Frequency and patterns of usage can be shown. Generalizations about language can be drawn from patterns and pragmatic analysis can be applied to the data. Furthermore, there are many kinds of corpora. They can contain written or spoken (transcribed) language, modern or old texts, texts from one language or several languages. The texts can be whole books, newspapers, journals, speeches etc., or consist of extracts of varying length. However, the kind of texts included and the combination of different texts vary between different corpora and corpus types. There are numerous types of corpora program analysis tools. These programs include concordancers, which are programs that can extract words (or Keywords) as they appear

in the corpus. They are simple and powerful. AntConc, WordSmith Tools, MonoConc Pro, Hyper Research, and Stanford are well known effective programs (Friginal & Hardy, 2014). Looking for accuracy, the three programs will be adopted in this study as data analysis tools.

#### **3.2.4. Natural Language Processors (NLP)**

Computer science, and more specifically human-computer interaction, studies the way to develop natural forms of interaction with machines. There is a need to know how human beings communicate in order to apply it to human-machine communication. This goal is sought by the studies done and results grouped in the area of cognitive science which includes concepts from artificial intelligence, linguistics, philosophy, and psychology (Gevarter, 1984). Computer programs are currently created to model the human communication process following postulates established in this science area. These programs are devised in an attempt to formalize what is required to achieve a natural means of communication. Among those techniques and programs, the one that promises more future impact is the possibility to interact with machines by means of speech using natural language. The goal of the Natural Language Processors (NLP) is to outline, design, and build software that will analyze, understand, and generate languages that humans use naturally. Generally speaking, natural-language processing is the use of computer programs to process extensive quantities of language data. It first appeared in the 1950s when high speed computers first became available. It is a central part of the enterprise of constructing artificial intelligence. The essential task of NLP is the construction of efficient and robust parsers. A parser is a program which can take a sentence in a natural language, analyze its grammatical structure, and allocate a meaning to it, so that the resulting meaning can then be manipulated and controlled by other parts of the system (Trask, 1999).

The absence of a reasonable consensus appears in the way that no two published records list the same components of Natural Language Processing group in a remarkably similar order. In any case, most linguists agree that natural language processing should, at least, include the following (Morris, 1971; Allen, 1995; Spyns, 1996; and Abdlhameed, 2016).



1-Syntax examines the properties and structure of a language (how sequences of words form correct sentences. It also examines the knowledge of the rules of grammar).

2- Semantics is concerned with the relationship of expressions to their meaning how words have "meaning"; how words have reference "denotation" and associated concepts "connotations".

3-Pragmatics encompasses the complete environment a person who speaks or hears (how sentences are used in different situations and how use affects the interpretation of the sentence, this involves the intentions and context of the conversation).

4- The morphology and lexicon are sublevels of the syntactic level. It deals with the study of words and word formation.

Based on the above explanation and due to the nature of data used in this study which can contain information at a wide range of granularities, from simple word or token-based representations, to rich hierarchical syntactic representations, to high-level logical representations across document collection; and since natural language processing group seeks to work at the right level of analysis for the application concerned, it is adopted as a way of analyzing the data used in this study.

### **3.3. Framework**

The examination and discussion of the data for this study depended mainly on a framework that is concluded from the literature discussed earlier in chapter two of this study. The overall framework of the analysis investigates argumentation on the same point of view that presented by Vasilyev (2002). Vasilyev's (2002) concept introduced language as a tool of communication and argumentation is its paradigm. Colbert (1995: 121) and Sinclair (2000: 81) agreed that critical thinking is important in producing an argument. Hence, certain aspects of argumentation building were selected and conducted in this study in accordance with the contemporary mainstream literature concerning academic writing argumentation. Modern linguists like Oshim & Hogu (1999), Halliday (2002), Martin (2004), Halliday & Webster (2002), Trask (1999), Turk and Kirkman (1989), and Palmer (1993) discussed the aspects of academic writing. The researcher chose six of these aspects that will produce a satisfactory level of comprehension that can help concluding a better understanding of the Pragmatic elements affect the writing

capabilities of second language acquiescent. Each aspect was examined in accordance with its own properties and features. These properties and features are as follow:

1- **Paragraph Structure:** paragraph structure was studied and examined in accordance with Oshim & Hogu (1999) that a paragraph can be defined as a series of sentences that are organized and coherent, and are all related to a single topic. Therefore, the analysis is conducted on a paragraph level, and Coherence and Relevance were the main concern of the researcher. Coherence, on one hand, from its perspective, was examined in accordance with Crystal (1991), Halliday & Hasan (1976), and Connor & Johns (1990). They agreed that it can be easily examined, studied, and understood in relation to its pragmatic functions in human communication. To be restricted to the paragraph level, Arthur C. Graesser, Peter Wiemer-Hasting and Katka Wiener-Hastings (2001)'s both two levels of coherence were not conducted. Only local coherence was conducted. Global level was not conducted because the topic sentence of any given paragraph in relation with the overall topic alone is the main concern of this level which in this case can bring the researcher to a level which is out of the limits of this study. Relevance, on the other hand, is discussed in accordance to (Wilson & Sperber, 2002). Sperber and Wilson (1995: 122) point out that "an assumption is relevant in a context if and only if it has some contextual effect in that context".

2- **Length and Construction of Sentences:** This aspect was discussed in accordance with Turk and Kirkman (1989). They believe that academic writers' decisions on sentence length should be based on readability and reader's capacity to absorb and retain information. They focus on the effectiveness of variety in sentence length; "anything unfamiliar, complex, and new will require stating it in shorter sentences, while a review of familiar information can be coded in longer sentences" (Turk and Kirkman, 1989). Accordingly, sentence structure, or syntax, is about the relationships between the words that form a sentence. It is one of the most essential factors influencing the readability of a text.

3- **Organization of Information in Sentences:** The "New" and "Given" concepts that are presented by Halliday (1967) and Halliday & Matthiessen (2004) were considered as the main outline of the discussion of this aspect. "The complex interplay of Theme + Rheme in the clause with Given + New in the information unit .... is the primary source

of energy for the dynamic of scientific and technical argument.” Halliday (2004: 77). Readers need to know the main parts of a sentence before they can understand the rest of its information.

**4- Vocabulary:** For this aspect, three major functions of vocabulary usage were considered. First, that of Turk & Kirkman (1989) dealing with clarity and variety as one of the parameters by which academic writers should measure the readability of their work. Second, Ediger’s (1999) statement that "variety in selecting words to convey an accurate meaning is necessary in speaking and writing, the outgoes of the language arts". These functions lead the researcher to conduct COCA analysis of vocabulary for many reasons that are discussed when she came across the detailed information about COCA briefly, because it is large, genre-balanced, and non-static corpora.

**5- Topic Sentence:** As the topic sentence is very crucial aspect of argumentation, its integrated relation with the paragraph structure give a better understanding for the whole idea of argumentation specifically in academic writing. It was presented in literature through three concepts that are discussed earlier in chapter two. Kehler & Rohde, (2014) and Fukumura & van Gompel (2014) point of view narrowed topicality, Givon (1983) takes a wider view of topicality, and Grosz et al. (1995) were the most convenient method that can give a better understanding of the argumentation. They present a framework for categorizing topicality by allowing referents within sentences to be ranked based on whether they have been mentioned previously. As a result, a referent can be the base for governing the topicality of a paragraph.

Chafe’s (1976), Dik’s (1989), and Mackenzie & Keizer (1999) were not conducted within the framework of this study due to that they go beyond the main settings of argumentation in detailing topicality, which is out of the limitation of the study.

**6- Discourse Markers:** This can be the most contradictory aspect within the whole argumentation concept. This aspect strongly affects any written text. Its main role is to guide the flow of information within the text and to prevent flaws. To determine the importance of discourse markers within academic writing, three levels of definitions were discussed earlier in chapter two of this study. The list of discourse markers that are used as the corpus for the analysis of the data of this research was conducted throughout two levels. The first level was through the collecting of the overall markers that are recognized

and categorized by linguists. And, the second level was to reduce this list into the register of the data being an academic writing register. This was achieved by selecting the markers in accordance to their occurrence in the COCA.

The variety and flexibility of the framework created by the researcher above enabled the researcher to establish a strong method that can be conducted by other researchers to examine any academic writing that apply to the limitation of this study. The detailed information that is obtained in analyzing the data in accordance with this framework will show later in this study how the effectiveness of a solid framework can form a better conclusion to guide the writers to present a strong argumentation as well as a pragmatic comprehension of the communicative level of any language and precisely the English language.

### **3.4. Data**

Various kinds of data would have been appropriate choices for a study of this sort. The principal concerns in data selection were that the data must plausibly constitute an example of argument discourse, while at the same time bringing a set of distinctive complexities that can be readily tied to the activity type in which the argumentative discourse is observed. There were, however, some compelling reasons to choose the academic writings written by Iraqi graduate students studying at Iraqi universities to be compared with the writings graduate students studying at American universities as a case of argument practice for this study.

The essential reason behind selecting this sort of data is due to its nature, as these writings are a reflection of the student's way of thinking and more precisely, their critical thinking which forms one of the main concerns of this study. Many studies in linguistics have found that scientific practices implemented in the field of education and language learning and teaching require only low cognitive thinking processes or just cookbook type activities without opportunities for students to truly understand and explore the nature and limitations of scientific knowledge and argumentative building (Gallagher & Tobin, 1987 and Krajcik et al., 1998). The fact is, however, that linguists argue that argumentation has become a necessity for everyone.

The view is that everyone needs to use scientific information and argumentation information to make choices that arise every day. To promote this view, the National Science Education Standards (National Research Council NRC) outline what students need to know, understand, and be able to do to be scientifically literate, based on an understanding of how writers construct new knowledge through argumentative writings (NRC: 1996-2000). Developing skills in analyzing points of view and critiquing scientific work is at the core of achieving reform objectives (Champagne, Kouba, & Hurley, 2000). To solve this problem, recent research has focused on how to support student opportunities to learn academic argumentation in the context of learning science content. The data consist of more than (950000) words of academic writings taken from 40 M.A. theses written by Iraqi graduate students studying at Iraqi universities as learners of English as a foreign language and 40 graduate students studying at American universities respectively. Both groups of graduate students share one field of specialization, i.e., social science and the humanities.

In detail, data are gathered in two corpora. The first corpus consists of Iraqi graduate students' writings in Master Degree Program prepared by Iraqi Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research. The second consists of the writings of graduate students in Master Degree programs in United States of America. It is worth mentioning that all the theses that form the data of this study were approved and accepted as the partial fulfillment of the requirements for obtaining the Master degree by both universities in Iraq and United States of America and they are in the public domain. They are all written by Iraqi graduate students studying at Iraqi Universities and graduate students studying at American universities. The total amount of data is 80 theses: 40 theses are written by Iraqi graduate students and 40 theses are written by graduate students studying at American universities respectively.

### **3.5. Methods and Approaches to Analysis**

In this section, I discuss the methods used to collect data pertinent to this study in more detail. The plan and process of determining appropriate approaches to analyze the data are also explicated. The investigation in this study employed a corpus-based approach to answer research questions of interest. This investigation includes two levels of analysis. One is the overall analysis of the pragmatic argumentation in the writing of

learners of English as a foreign language and writing of students coming from English speaking. The other is an in-depth analysis of six selected aspects of academic writing: (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, (f) and discourse marker. These aspects of academic writing have been selected due to their highly-frequent use by graduate students.

Both quantitative and qualitative measures were employed in conducting the analysis of data under analysis. Using both quantitative and qualitative measures helps to delve deeper into the issues under analysis. Quantitative measures provide insights into the problem or help to develop ideas or hypotheses for potential qualitative measure. In this respect, I followed Witte & Witte's (2009) viewpoint that quantitative and qualitative analysis "supplies a number of tools for generalizing information from a relatively small collection of observations, a 'sample', to a relatively large collection of potential observation, 'population'". Quantitative corpus methodology is an important aspect of corpus analysis. Generally speaking, frequency lists present detailed information about what words occur more often in a particular corpus. By comparing the frequency lists of two corpora, distinctive words can be identified which helps make interpretations or further investigations (Biber & Conrad, 1999).

However, it is important to mention that much research into argumentation of English academic writing followed quantitative methodologies; this study builds upon and enriches the previous studies by incorporating more of a qualitative analysis through the use of corpus linguistics to systematically analyze the six selected aspects of academic writing mentioned above. The data analysis included computer-supported and hand-tagged analyses of these two corpora. Below is a description and analysis of the data in terms of the six selected aspects of academic writing and names and definition of the software used in the analysis.

### **3.5.1. Paragraph structure**

Investigating relevance and connectivity, the software adopted in the analysis of this aspect, as the first aspect of the six selected aspects of academic writing, is Icloud profiler, Wordle, and Antconc. The aim is to identify the coherence and relevance

between sentences in the writing of SSIU and SSAU. Furthermore, the main focus of the analysis is on identifying and specifying the incorrect use of coherence and relevance in the data under analysis (see Ch. 4, section 4.2).

### **3.5.2. Length and construction of sentences**

The aim of analyzing this aspect is to identify subordinating, coordinating, and parataxis and to word count of each individual sentence. The software adopted in this analysis is (HR) Hyper Research.

For the purpose of this study, I analyzed length and construction of sentences, as an aspect of academic writing, in terms of the types of English sentences (simple, compound and complex) and the use of parataxis (see Ch. 4, section 4.3).

### **3.5.3. Organization of information in sentences**

The aim of the analysis is to identify the agent predicate relation by using (HR) software. In terms of argumentation the analysis was conducted to figure out the Subject Complement identification, sentences flaws, bad sequences, agent predicate sequence, and marked and unmarked theme.

To obtain accurate results, I analyzed the first and the last paragraph of chapter two in the writing of SSAU and SSIU respectively. Using (HR) Hyper Research software, the analysis is conducted in terms of four categories: agent predicate relation, argumentation, marked and unmarked theme, and passive voice uses (see Ch. 4, section 4.4)

### **3.5.4. Vocabulary**

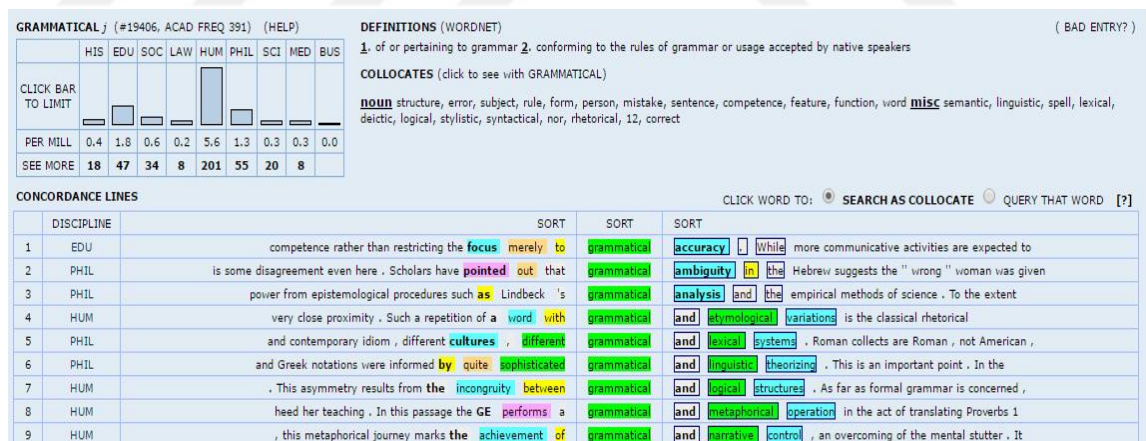
By using COCA, the analysis aims to identify the uses of common and uncommon words in each text in comparison to Corpus of Contemporary American English (<http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/>). Three main reasons were behind using COCA in the analysis of ‘Vocabulary’ as an aspect of English academic writing in this study. They are as follows:

**First**, it will highlight all of the academic words in the text under analysis and create lists of these words that the researcher can use offline. It will also show the

"technical" words in any of the nine disciplines that the researcher selects -- Education, Business, Law, Medicine, Science, etc.

**Second**, the researcher can click through the words in the text to see a detailed "word sketch" of any of the words showing their definition, and detailed information for the word from COCA collocates (which provide meaning into the meaning and usage of the word), re-sortable concordance lines, and the frequency of the word (overall, and by discipline of academic).

**Third**, the researcher can do powerful searches on selected phrases in the text, to show related phrases in COCA. In this way, this resource is like a "collocational thesaurus" to see what related phrases are most likely in different styles of English. For example, if they click on the words potent argument in the text that they enter, it will suggest alternate ways to express this (e.g. powerful or convincing argument), and it will show him/her the frequency of those phrases in COCA -- overall, and by academic discipline. This will help researcher use "just the right phrase", based on a huge collection of texts of academic English. Figure (5) below provides a practical example of the three reasons mentioned above (taken from <http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/>):



**Figure 5. Using COCA in Analyzing ‘Vocabulary’ as an aspect of English Academic writing**



Table (5) below, illustrates the legend of Corpus of Contemporary American English Coca taken from (<http://www.wordandphrase.info/academic/analyzeText.asp>)

**Table 5. Coca Legend**

SEE LISTS 1	FREQ RANGE	COCA 1- 500	COCA 501-3000	AVL	DISCIPLINE 3 %	SAVE LIST 6	HELP
	177 WORDS 2	17 % 3a	5 % 3b	18 % 4	5edu. Law Science etc.		

To use Coca, I select the option of ‘see lists’ to see a list of all academic words (1-500 and 501-3000) and technical words (e.g. LAW or SCIENCE) in my text, grouped by frequency range. I can then click on any of the words in these lists to see up to 200 sample concordance lines in COCA. The second column refers to the number of words in my text. The two percentages in the third and fourth columns show the number of words in my text in each of the two "frequency ranges" from COCA in general (words 1-500 and 501-3000). Actually, I can click on any of these to see a list of words from that frequency range. AVL in the fifth column stands for Academic Vocabulary List. Finally, I select one of the nine academic disciplines (e.g. Education, Business, Medicine, or Law) to highlight (in red) the "technical" words from that discipline. When I do this, it will also show in red (after DISCIPLINE) the percentage of words in my text from that discipline. Before I select a discipline, all "technical" words in all disciplines are just underlined in gray in the text.

### 3.5.5. Topic sentences

Based on the explanation of topic and topicality as an aspect of the six selected aspects of academic writing mentioned in (2.4.1.5) and by using Icloud profiler, Wordle, and Antconc software, the aim of the analysis was to identify the topical sentence and its relevance with its paragraph. The main focus of the analysis was to identify and specify error use of topicality in the first and last paragraph of chapter two in the writing of SSIU and SSAU (see Ch. 4, section 4.6).

### 3.5.6. Discourse markers

The identification and classification of discourse markers uses and frequency in each text was the main aim of the analysis of this aspect. The software used in the analysis of this aspect is AntConc (Version 3.4.1). According to (Friginal & Hardy, 2014) and (Anthony, 2006) AntConc is a freeware, multiplatform corpus toolkit. It includes a tag aware concordancer and plot distribution tool, word and keyword generators, and tools for cluster, N-gram and collocate analysis. Another important feature of AntConc is that it is a more comprehensive and advanced software for fulfilling this sort of analysis, since it is able to search for case sensitive words and word clusters, providing the user with the page number and co-text (a couple of sentence before and after the highlighted word). In addition, it offers the ability to save the results from the 'Plot' tool to an image file. Figure (6) below demonstrate how AntConc may display information about specific words or phrases (such as discourse markers) for analysis.



**Figure 6. information obtained from Antconc about Discourse Markers Analysis**

According to Anthony (2006), Antconc software allows the user to search for a particular word or phrase in a text or a set of texts and determine its frequency. Furthermore, it presents concordance lines showing the search term or terms in context; the user can sort these results alphabetically in terms of the words appearing on the left to the right, enabling one to find common collocations, words with which specific words often and typically appear.

### **3.6. Coding**

The data were coded for themes and sub-themes. This effort helped established that coding scheme pertaining to probing corpus-minded cognitive pattern would be relevant and needed. Based on the corpus linguistics assumption that multiple authentic examples facilitate inductive and discovery learning which enhances analytical and even metacognitive ability in learning, such a coding scheme can address the research question for this study (O'Sullivan, 2006). The coding will be in four levels: student coding, paragraph coding, chapter coding, and thesis coding. The coding structure is as follows:

1-(S#-##)

S = student, and the number after it is the student serial.

-## Stands for the sentence number in the sequence.

2-(#S#-P)

S= student, and the number after it is the student serial.

P= stands for the paragraph number in the sequence.

3-(SSAU-#-CH#)

SSAU= student studying in American university, and the number after it is the student serial.

CH#= stands for the chapter number in his/her theses.

4-(SSIU-#-CH#)

SSAU= student studying in Iraqi university, and the number after it is the student serial.

CH#= stands for the chapter number in his/her theses.

### **3.7. Procedures**

The collected data were synthesized and summarized in a systematic process, sorted into categories, and formatted into analytic themes that emerged from the data. Data are analyzed through the following steps:

1-Converting texts into ANSI encoded text document format.

2-Text structure was analyzed through Stanford NLP (Natural Language Processor) to identify the six different aspects of academic writing. This research conducts the core NLP of Stanford NLP tools. This process helped in reducing the time required to do it manually. Cases are identified, examined, corrected in some cases, and coded to prepare for the next level.

3-Quantitative research is based on generating numerical data or data that can be transformed into useable statistics. It is used to quantify attitudes, opinions, behaviors, and other defined variables and generalize results from a larger sample population. It uses measurable data to formulate facts and uncover patterns in research as discussed in Marshall & Rossman (1989). Accordingly, all the textual information obtained from the various data were summarized and identified into patterns and categories in a systematic process, which Bogdan and Biklen (1998) call developing “coding categories”.

4 -Making a list of all the topics that emerged from the participants’ data and clustering similar topics together into columns.

5- Grouping related topics into categories, and showing the interrelationships between the categories.

6 -Assembling the data material belonging to each category in one place performing a preliminary analysis, recording the existing data when necessary.

7- Developing final lists of categories that reflect both major and minor categories of the data.

8- Putting information contrary to the emerged topics in a separate list of its own.

9- Finally, a manual identification was conducted in order to verify the correctness, credibility, and reliability of using such method of analysis in this study.

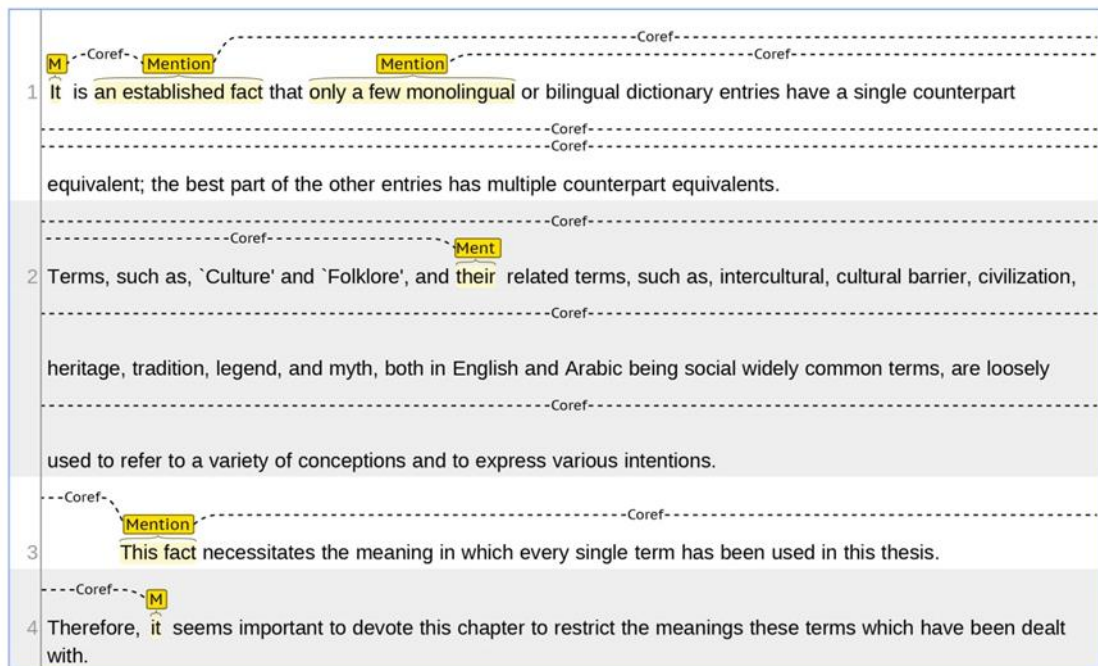
### **3.8. Pilot Study**

The study was designed during the fall 2015 semester and the pilot was conducted during spring 2016. In this pilot study, samples of the data collected following the methods mentioned in this chapter were analyzed in an attempt to answer the research questions proposed in chapter one. The main aim of the pilot study was to provide a better

understanding of the pragmatics of argumentation for investigating these six different aspects of academic writing: (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, and (f) discourse markers in the writing of SSAU and SSIU respectively. A 'Pilot step' seems appropriate to figure out whether the methods and the procedures of the data analysis adopted here are workable or not. Both quantitative and qualitative measures were employed in conducting this 'pilot' to show the pragmatics of argumentation in 40 theses written by students studying at Iraqi universities (SSIU) as learners of English as a foreign language and 40 theses written by students studying at American universities (SSAU) as learners coming from English-speaking countries.

This pilot study explored the six above-mentioned aspects of academic writing in the writings of (SSIU) and (SSAU) by using Natural Language Processors (NLP) (see chapter two section 2.6.2). Recently, NLP processors are popular for text analysis. Each NLP technique can be used by itself or in combination with other NLP techniques to create fresh and effective methods of "getting inside the mind" (Chakraborty, Pagolu & Garla, 2013 and Feinberg, 2010). Among these different types of NLP processors, AntConc, Wordly, Hyper research, and Stanford programs were used in the analysis of the data of this study.

One important feature of the Stanford NLP Processors is the effective combination of sophisticated and deep linguistic modeling, data analysis with innovative probabilistic and machine learning approaches to NLP (Nlp.stanford.edu, 2015). Enhanced dependencies are a tool of NLP processors. It can be used to identify the grammatical structure of a text down to sentence level. In figure (7) the paragraph is analyzed structurally and co-reference between sentences were identified.



**Figure 7. Enhanced dependencies analysis (SSIU-002-CH1-p01)**

For the purpose of this analysis, In particular for the above mentioned example, it is important to explain briefly what reference and co-reference mean. In philosophy and semantics, Wales (1989) believes that reference is concerned with the relation between words and extra linguistic reality: what words stand for or refer to in the outside world or universe of discourse. Brown & Yule (1983) adopt the traditional semantic view of reference and co-reference. They state that reference is one in which the relationship of reference is taken to hold between expressions in a text and entities in the world, and that of co-reference between expressions in different parts of a text.

In linguistics, Morley (1985) and Lyons (1968) see reference as the meaning relationship which links full lexical expression of an entity or circumstance with the pro-form/substitute to which it refers. However, in a text, the terms reference and refer are convenient to describe the function of words like pronouns and determiners to designate a noun phrase they identify within the immediate co-text. Adopting the above mentioned linguists' viewpoint, the example in figure (7) reports that the (SSIU-002-CH1-p01) understands the concept of reference and co-reference as a "Tie" for reaching the cohesion in his writing. A tie is a complex notion, because it includes not only the cohesive element

itself but also that which is presupposed by it, as is exemplified in the following four sentence of the first chapter of his thesis:

1-It is an established fact that only **a few monolingual** or bilingual dictionary entries have a single counterpart equivalent; the best part of the other entries has multiple counterpart equivalents.

2-Terms, such as, 'Culture' and 'Folklore', and **their** related terms, such as, intercultural, cultural barrier, civilization, heritage, tradition, legend, and myth, both in English and Arabic being social widely common terms, are loosely used to refer to a variety of conceptions and to express various intentions.

3-**This fact** necessitates the meaning in which every single term has been used in this thesis.

4- Therefore, **it** seems important to devote this chapter to restrict the meanings these terms which have been dealt with.

The use of 'a few monolingual' in sentence (1), 'their' in sentence (2), 'This fact' in sentence (3), and 'it' in sentence (4) by (SSIU-002-CH1-p01) show that the writer wanted to express the fact that the co-reference relation is an asymmetric one. In addition, it can be interpreted as a two dimensional relation (anaphoric or cataphoric).

Throughout the pilot analysis, I developed an analytical strategy, and I practiced the coding process corpus analysis of the six selected aspects of academic writing, decided in (1.1). The main objective was to isolate and identify these six selected aspects of academic writing in the works of (SSIU) and (SSAU) by using concordance software that enable users to see how words and phrases are used in paragraph and text.

### **3.8.1. Results of the Pilot Study**

The following sections present and discuss the results of the analysis of each of the above mentioned six aspects of academic writing. This analysis is a result of the pilot study.

### 3.8.1.1. Paragraph structure

Using NLP, Hyper Research, and AntConc software, I examined the relevance and connectivity in the writings of (SSIU-002) and (SSAU-002) respectively. The aim was to identify coherence, reference, relevance and topicality. Taking into consideration the view of linguists like Halliday and Hasan (1976), Donnellan (1978), and Beaugrande & Dressler (1981) who agreed on the fact that coherence, reference, relevance, and topicality shorten and simplify the surface text, analysis of this aspect of writing was conducted. They state that in an effective text there are short words empty of their own particular content, which can stand in the surface text in the place of more determinate, context-activating expressions. As a result, they create the coherence for the paragraph and allow text users to keep content current in active storage without having to restate everything.

In the table below, I used the terms ‘present’ and ‘absent’ to refer to whether the aspect of academic writing under analysis was present or not. The analysis identifies four false cases (coherence, reference, relevance, and topicality) in sentence 10 of paragraph 2 of chapter 1 of (SSAU-002-CH1-p02) while three false cases (coherence, reference, and topicality) in sentence 4 in paragraph 1 of chapter 1 of (SSIU-002-CH1-p01) were identified. As illustrated in table (6) below:

**Table 6. Analysis of Paragraph Structure**

Text No.	Number of sentences	Coherence	Reference	Relevance	Topicality
SSAU-002-CH1-p01	3	Present	Present	Present	Present
SSAU-002-CH1-p02	10	S3 Absent	S3 Absent	S3 Absent	S3 Absent
SSIU-002-CH1-p01	4	S2 Absent	S2 Absent	Present	S2 Absent
SSIU-002-CH1-p02	4	Present	Present	Present	Present

### 3.8.1.2. Length and Construction of sentences

In this section, I examined subordinating, coordinating, and parataxis as indicators for the length and construction of sentences in the writings of (SSIU-002) and (SSAU-002) by using Grammar Scope Software (<http://grammarscope.sourceforge.net>), as illustrated in Table 7.



The analysis showed the use of subordinating, coordinating, and parataxis varies between (SSAU -002-CH1-p01) and (SSIU -002-CH1-p01). For example, in paragraph 2 of chapter 1, (SSAU -002-CH1-p01) used 7 simple sentences, 3 compound sentences, 0 complex sentences, and 4 coordinative, and 0) parataxis. In comparison with paragraph 2 of chapter 1 of (SSIU -002-CH1-p01), one may note that he used 2 simple sentences, 2 compound sentences, 1 complex sentences, and 6 coordinative, and 1 parataxis. This leads to the conclusion that (SSAU -002-CH1-p01) is a highly expert user of subordinating and coordinating (compound and complex sentences) than (SSIU -002-CH1-p01) who, according to table (7) below, shows mastery only in the use of parataxis.

**Table 7. Analysis of length and Construction of Sentences**

Text No.	Number of sentences	Subordinate	Coordinating	subordinating	Coordinating	Parataxis
		Simple sentences	Compound sentences	Complex sentences		
SSAU-002-CH1-p01	3	1	0	2	4	0
SSAU-002-CH1-p02	10	7	3	0	4	0
SSIU-002-CH1-p01	4	2	2	1	6	1
SSIU-002-CH1-p02	4	1	1	2	3	0

### 3.8.1.3. Organization of Information in Sentences

Linguistically speaking, a paragraph is a series of sentences that are organized and coherent, and are all related to a single topic. Academically, every piece of writing the academic writer produces that is longer than a few sentences should be organized into paragraphs. Based on this fact and by using Stanford NLP program, the analysis of this aspect of academic writing was conducted in accordance with three main organizational features: agent predicate relation, argumentation (subject Complement identification), and marked and unmarked theme. The aim of this analysis was to identify the sentences' flaws and incorrect sequences, and also, to figure out agent predicate sequences (marked and unmarked theme). The analysis of organization of information in sentences showed interesting results as shown in table (8) below:

**Table 8. Analysis of Organization of Information of Sentences**

Text No.	Number of sentences	agent predicate relation	Argumentation	Marked and unmarked theme	
				Passive	Copula
SSAU-002-CH1-p01	3	Present	Present	1	0
SSAU-002-CH1-p02	10	Present	Present	0	2
SSIU-002-CH1-p01	4	Present	Present	3	2
SSIU-002-CH1-p02	4	Present	Present		4

Table 8 reports that both (SSAU -002-CH1-p01) and (SSIU -002-CH1-p01) are at the same level of the mastery of organizing the information in their sentences according to agent predicate relation and argumentation (subject complement relation). One may read 8 present cases in the table under the column of agent predicate relation and argumentation. However, the differences between them could be seen only in the use of marked and unmarked theme. These differences can be seen in the use of Passive and Copula. (SSAU-002-CH1-p01) used 1 passive case while (SSIU-002-CH1-p01) used 3 cases. The differences are increased as we analyzed their use of Copula, i.e. (SSAU-002-CH1-p01), in sentence 3 of paragraph 1 of chapter 1 used 0 copula whereas (SSIU-002-CH1-p01) used 2 copula in sentence 2 of paragraph 1 of chapter 1. In this respect, the result of this analysis remind me of with Firbas (1966) and Danes (1974) who look at the organization of information in a sentence from a functional perspective. More precisely, they were mainly concerned with the ways in which a sentence functions within a discourse as determined by the distribution of known and unknown information conveyed by the distribution of known and unknown information conveyed by the word.

#### **3.8.1.4. Vocabulary**

Before analyzing vocabulary as one of the six selected aspect of academic writing mentioned in section (1.1), it is useful to shed light on the definition of vocabulary in the academic field.

Vocabulary has been defined as the collection of words in which an individual can recognize and drive meanings from in either written or spoken language (Beck, McKeown, and Kucan, 2008). The analysis identified three levels of academic vocabulary: First, is the most commonly used academic vocabulary between (1-500)

words. Second, is the most commonly used and formal academic vocabulary between (501-3000). Third, the discipline relevant words. The purpose of analyzing academic vocabulary was to ascertain common and non-common words in each text written by (SSAU-002-CH1) and (SSIU -002-CH1) and compare them with The Corpus of Contemporary American English COCA. Table 9 presents the results of this analysis.

**Table 9. Analyzing Academic Vocabulary**

<b>Text No.</b>	<b>TOTAL WORDS COUNT</b>	<b>ACADEMIC WORDS 1-500</b>	<b>ACADEMIC WORDS 501-3000</b>	<b>DISCIPLINE RELEVANT WORDS</b>
SSAU-002-CH1	2269	14%	3%	4%
SSIU -002-CH1	2254	23%	8%	2%

The analysis showed that out of 2269 words used by (SSAU-002-CH1), his percentages of the three levels mentioned above were 14%, 3%, and 4% respectively. Using 2254 words, the ratios of (SSIU -002-CH1), on the other hand, were 23%, 8%, and 2%. The results of analysis show that (SSIU -002-CH1) has a wide range of academic vocabulary, in particular, academic words between 1-500 and academic words between 501-3000. According to data statistics, (SSAU-002-CH1) has a higher ratio (4%) only in the use of discipline relevant words.

### **3.8.1.5. Discourse Markers**

For the purpose of this analysis, I have chosen to focus primarily on Fraser’s (2005) definition; according to Delahunty & Garvey (2010) and Delahunty (2012), “The most developed work in this area is Bruce Fraser’s”. Fraser (2005) defines discourse markers (DMs) as a type of pragmatic marker “which signals a relation between the discourse segment which hosts them and the prior discourse segment”. Discourse markers, from Fraser’s viewpoint are prepositions, prepositional phrases, and adverbials that have can be occurred under the five syntactic categories: (a) coordinate conjunction, (b) subordinate conjunction, (c) preposition, (d) prepositional phrase, and (e) adverb.

By using AntConc software, I analyzed the discourse markers in the writings of (SSAU-002-CH1) and (SSIU -002-CH1). My aim was to identify the use and classification of discourse markers in each text of their writings. Table (10) below provides the results of this analysis.

**Table 10. Analyzing Discourse Markers**

<b>Text No.</b>	<b>NUMBER OF MARKERS</b>
SSAU-002-CH1	41
SSIU -002-CH1	86

To conclude this part of the pilot study, the analysis of the writing of the two graduate students (SSIU) and (SSAU) shows that (SSAU) was good at presenting credentialed personae as researcher combined with appropriating sources to substantiate his arguments, specifically speaking, in coherence, reference, and topicality. (SSIU), on the other hand, focused mostly on word and sentences level structures in his writing rather than on structures at the level of his whole written discourse. This can be seen clearly in tables (4, 5, and 6) respectively. It is worth mentioning that one of the most important reasons for conducting this pilot study was to verify the validity and the reliability of the methods and approaches of the analysis adopted in this study.

### **3.9. Conclusion**

Methodologically, the software method has proven to be reliable even with the considerably high error ratio, at certain levels, within small amounts of data. At least it can reduce time and effort if it is used in the highly reliable levels of it. It is an effective reliable method that can be unified and used on quantitative bases. In sum, this study pragmatically makes a corpus-based analysis of argumentation in academic writing from the perspective of six different aspects of English academic writing based on a corpus-pragmatic approach.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **DATA ANALYSIS**

#### **4.1. Introduction**

This chapter provides a general overview of the data analysis. In this chapter, I will describe the statistical analysis of the six selected aspects of English academic writing: (a) paragraph structure, (b) length and construction of sentences, (c) organization of information in sentences, (d) vocabulary, (e) topic sentences, and (f) discourse markers in the writing of 40 Iraqi graduate students studying at Iraqi Universities as learners of English as a foreign language and 40 graduate students studying at American universities as students coming from English-speaking countries.

The data were analyzed in two stages. The first stage was the computer-supported analysis of the six selected aspects of academic writing mentioned above. The second stage was a qualitative analysis. This analysis was carried out to verify the correctness, credibility, and reliability of the findings. The major part of the analysis was used collocation phenomena, linguistic analysis, and co-text analyses to empirically derive the pragmatic frequency, functions, and uses of the above mentioned six aspect of academic writing in the writing of SSAU and AAIU rather than interpreting them intuitively. The statistical analysis of data under investigation, i.e. quantitative analysis helps to direct me to specific texts for qualitative text-based analyses. The following sections provide a detailed statistical analysis of the above mentioned six aspect of English academic writing.

#### **4.2. Statistical Analysis of paragraph Structure**

Icloud profiler, Wordle, and Antconc were the software used in analyzing the paragraph structure as the first aspect of the six selected aspects of academic writing of the data under analysis. The aim of this analysis was to identify coherence and relevance in the writing of SSAU and SSIU respectively.

Coherence and relevance variables were obtained through a topical structure analysis, developed by Lautamatti (1987) and followed by Connor (1990) and Ferris (1994) (see the literature review section 2.4.1.1). To get accurate results, I analyzed the

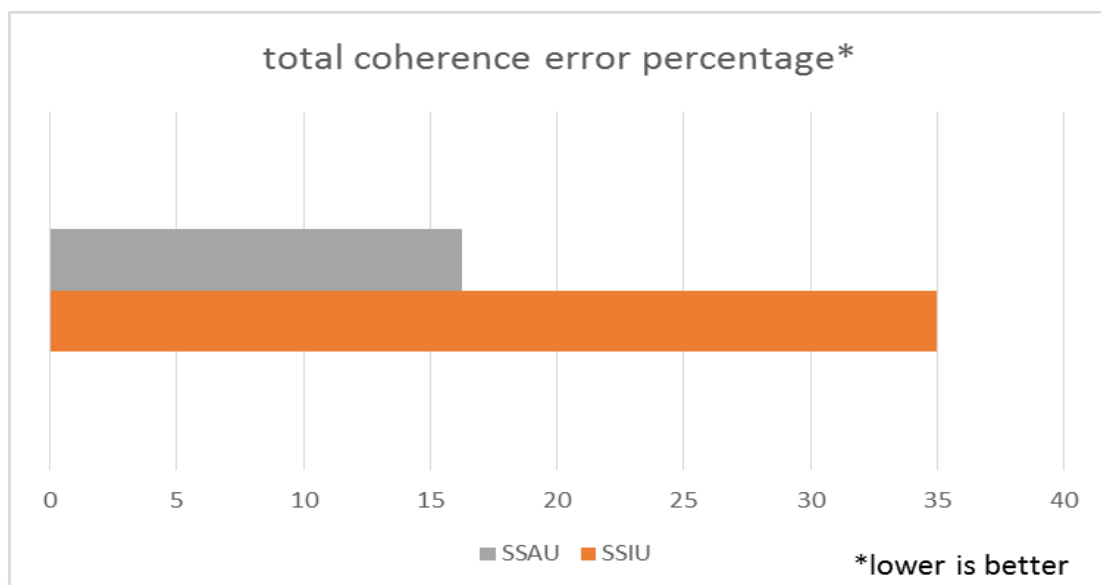
first and the last paragraphs of Chapter Two in the writing of SSAU and SSIU. My focus was on identifying and specifying the incorrect use of coherence and relevance in their writing (these incorrect cases will be explained in detail with examples in chapter five). This analysis involved identifying the topic subject of each sentence and diagramming the relationships between sentences. These relationships were of three types: 1) parallel progressions (the topical subject was semantically identical to the topical subject of the previous sentence); 2) sequential progressions (the topical subject arose from the “comment” portion of the previous sentence); and 3) extended parallel progressions (the topical subject of a previous sentence was repeated following an intervening sequential progression).

Table (11a) below provides a summary of the results of analyzing coherence and relevance in the writing of SSIU.

**Table 11a. Analysis of Coherence and Relevance in the Writing of SSIU**

<b>Code No.</b>	<b>Coherence</b>	<b>Relevance</b>
SSIU-CH2-FP	14	13
SSIU-CH2-LP	14	13
total count	28	26
total percentage	35	32.5
percentage (FP)	35	32.5
percentage (LP)	35	32.5

Table 11a above showed that the incorrect coherence level of SSIU-CH2-FP in the first paragraph of chapter two is 14 and the incorrect cases of the use of coherence of the last paragraph is 14. He has the same number of incorrect cases of coherence in both the first and last paragraph. The total amount of incorrect cases of the use of coherence is 28. The incorrect cases of the use of relevance, on the other hand, in the first paragraph of chapter two are 13 and in the last paragraph of chapter two is 13. The total of the incorrect cases of the use of relevance is 26. According to these results, the percentage of the incorrect cases of the use of coherence in the first of chapter two in the writing of SSIU is 35 and 35 in the last paragraph. The percentages of the incorrect cases of the use of relevance are 32.5 in the first paragraph and 32.5 in the last paragraph. Consider figures 8 below:



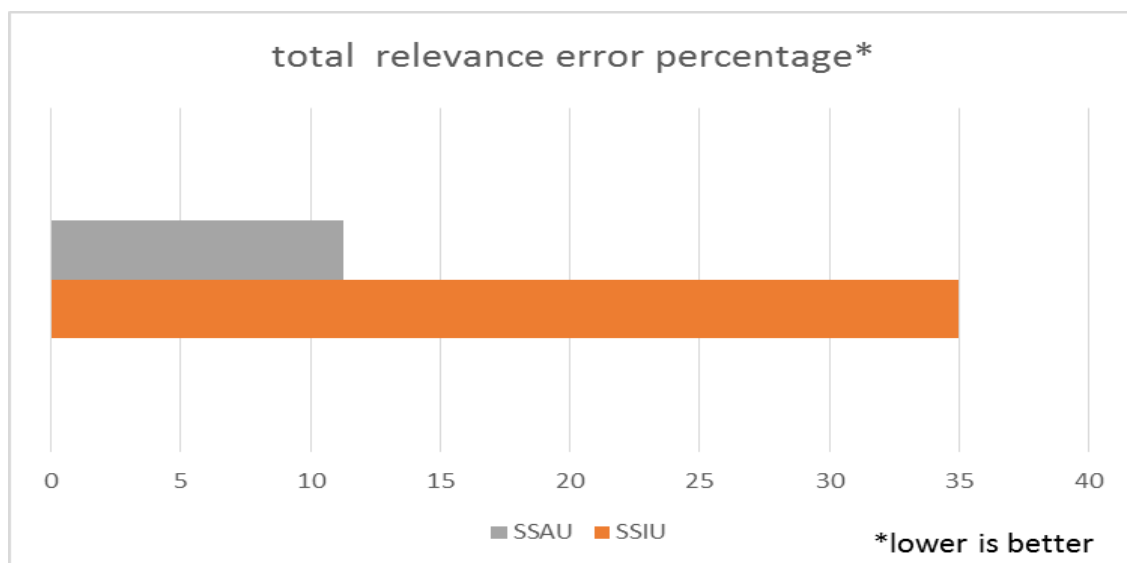
**Figure 8. Percentage of Incorrect Cases Use of Coherence in the Writing of SSIU and SSAU**

Table 11b below provides the results of the analysis of coherence and relevance in the first and the last paragraph in the writing of SSAU.

**Table 11b. Analysis of Coherence and Relevance in the Writing of SSAU**

Code No.	Coherence	Relevance
SSAU-CH2-FP	6	6
SSAU-CH2-LP	7	3
total count	13	9
total percentage	16.25	11.25
percentage (FP)	15	15
percentage (LP)	17.5	7.5

Table (11b) above shows that the incorrect coherence of SSAU-CH2-FP in the first paragraph of chapter two is 6 and the incorrect cases of the use of coherence of the last paragraph is 7. The total of the incorrect cases of the use of coherence is 13. The incorrect cases in the use of relevance, on the other hand, in the first paragraph of chapter two are 6 and in the last paragraph of chapter two is 3. The total of the incorrect cases of the use of relevance is 9. According to these results, the percentage of the error cases of the use of coherence in the first of Chapter Two in the writing of SSAU is 15 and 17.5 in the last paragraph. The percentages of the incorrect cases of the use of relevance are 15 in the first paragraph and 7.5 in the last paragraph. Figures 9 below illustrates these percentages:



**Figure 9. Percentage of Incorrect Cases Use of Relevance in the Writing of SSIU and SSAU**

Examining tables 11a and 11b and figures 8 and 9 indicates that the percentage of incorrect cases in the use of coherence in the writing of SSAU is 16.25. It means that the incorrect cases are less than SSIU whose percentage is 35. SSAU's percentage of incorrect cases in the use of relevance in the writing of SSAU is 11.25 while the percentage of SSIU is 32.5.

### **4.3. Statistical Analysis of Length and Construction of Sentences**

Using Hyper Research software, I analyzed length and construction of sentences, as an aspect of academic writing, in terms of subordinating, coordinating, and parataxis as indicators for the length and construction of sentences in the writings of SSAU and SSIU. Seeking accurate and comprehensive results, I examined and analyzed subordinating, coordinating, and parataxis in the first and last paragraph of chapter two written by SSAU and SSIU respectively. Tables 12a, 12b, 12c, and 12d below provide an overview of the details of the analysis of length and construction of sentences as an aspect of the six selected aspects of academic writing.



**Table 12a. Analysis of Length and Construction of Sentences in the first paragraph of chapter two in the writing of SSIU**

Code	Sents. Count	Simple	Compound	Complex	Coordinate	Parataxis
SSIU-001-CH2-FP	6	0	5	1	4	0
SSIU-002-CH2-FP	4	0	4	0	4	0
SSIU-003-CH2-FP	3	1	2	0	2	0
SSIU-004-CH2-FP	4	0	4	0	4	0
SSIU-005-CH2-FP	8	1	6	1	5	3
SSIU-006-CH2-FP	2	0	2	0	2	0
SSIU-007-CH2-FP	3	0	3	0	2	0
SSIU-008-CH2-FP	3	0	2	1	3	0
SSIU-009-CH2-FP	1	0	1	0	1	1
SSIU-010-CH2-FP	4	0	1	3	3	1
SSIU-011-CH2-FP	3	0	1	2	1	0
SSIU-012-CH2-FP	6	0	1	5	6	0
SSIU-013-CH2-FP	3	1	2	0	1	1
SSIU-014-CH2-FP	6	0	3	3	4	0
SSIU-015-CH2-FP	3	0	3	0	2	0
SSIU-016-CH2-FP	3	0	0	3	2	0
SSIU-017-CH2-FP	6	3	3	0	0	1
SSIU-018-CH2-FP	11	5	2	4	5	0
SSIU-019-CH2-FP	7	3	0	4	5	0
SSIU-020-CH2-FP	3	0	1	2	0	0
SSIU-021-CH2-FP	4	0	3	1	3	0
SSIU-022-CH2-FP	3	1	2	0	1	1
SSIU-023-CH2-FP	4	0	2	2	3	1
SSIU-024-CH2-FP	5	3	1	1	2	0
SSIU-025-CH2-FP	2	0	1	1	1	0
SSIU-026-CH2-FP	3	0	2	1	1	1
SSIU-027-CH2-FP	4	0	2	2	4	1
SSIU-028-CH2-FP	2	0	1	1	1	0
SSIU-029-CH2-FP	3	0	1	2	3	0
SSIU-030-CH2-FP	1	0	1	0	1	0
SSIU-031-CH2-FP	10	0	9	1	8	0
SSIU-032-CH2-FP	1	0	1	0	1	1
SSIU-033-CH2-FP	4	1	2	1	3	0
SSIU-034-CH2-FP	7	0	5	2	4	0
SSIU-035-CH2-FP	4	0	3	1	3	0
SSIU-036-CH2-FP	3	0	3	0	3	0
SSIU-037-CH2-FP	3	0	2	1	3	0
SSIU-038-CH2-FP	1	0	1	0	1	0
SSIU-039-CH2-FP	2	0	1	1	2	0
SSIU-040-CH2-FP	5	0	4	1	3	1
Total	160	19	93	48	107	13

Table (12a) above shows that SSIU-CH2 used 160 sentences in the first paragraph of chapter two. 19 sentences are simple, 93 are compound, 48 are complex, 107 are coordinated, and 13 are parataxis.

**Table 12b. Analysis of Length and Construction of Sentences in the Last Paragraph of Chapter Two of SSIU**

Code	Sents. Count	Simple	Compound	Complex	Coordinate	Parataxis
SSIU-001-CH2-LP	7	0	7	0	6	0
SSIU-002-CH2-LP	4	0	2	2	3	0
SSIU-003-CH2-LP	3	0	3	0	3	0
SSIU-004-CH2-LP	6	2	0	4	5	0
SSIU-005-CH2-LP	3	0	2	1	3	0
SSIU-006-CH2-LP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSIU-007-CH2-LP	3	1	2	0	2	0
SSIU-008-CH2-LP	3	0	2	1	1	0
SSIU-009-CH2-LP	1	0	1	0	1	0
SSIU-010-CH2-LP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSIU-011-CH2-LP	2	0	1	1	1	0
SSIU-012-CH2-LP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSIU-013-CH2-LP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSIU-014-CH2-LP	3	1	1	1	1	0
SSIU-015-CH2-LP	5	1	1	3	4	0
SSIU-016-CH2-LP	2	1	0	1	1	0
SSIU-017-CH2-LP	3	0	3	0	3	2
SSIU-018-CH2-LP	8	0	6	2	6	0
SSIU-019-CH2-LP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSIU-020-CH2-LP	5	0	3	2	2	0
SSIU-021-CH2-LP	1	0	1	0	1	0
SSIU-022-CH2-LP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSIU-023-CH2-LP	3	0	2	1	1	0
SSIU-024-CH2-LP	3	1	0	2	1	0
SSIU-025-CH2-LP	2	0	1	1	1	0
SSIU-026-CH2-LP	2	0	2	0	2	0
SSIU-027-CH2-LP	1	0	1	0	1	0
SSIU-028-CH2-LP	4	2	2	0	1	0
SSIU-029-CH2-LP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSIU-030-CH2-LP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSIU-031-CH2-LP	6	1	4	1	4	0
SSIU-032-CH2-LP	5	0	4	1	4	0
SSIU-033-CH2-LP	2	0	2	0	2	0
SSIU-034-CH2-LP	3	0	2	1	3	1
SSIU-035-CH2-LP	3	0	3	0	2	0
SSIU-036-CH2-LP	4	1	3	0	0	0
SSIU-037-CH2-LP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSIU-038-CH2-LP	2	0	1	1	2	0
SSIU-039-CH2-LP	3	0	1	2	2	0
SSIU-040-CH2-LP	4	1	3	0	0	1
Total	106	12	66	28	69	4

Examining table 12b above, one notes that SSIU-CH2 used 106 sentence in the last paragraph of chapter two. Out of these 106, the student used 12 simple sentences, 66 compound sentences, 28 complex sentences, 69 coordinated sentences, and 4 parataxis. The total sentences SSIU-CH2 used in both first and last paragraph of chapter two is 266. The total simple sentences in the first and last paragraph are 31. 159 are the total of the compound sentences, 76 are the total of compound sentences, 176 the total of coordinate sentences, and 17 is the total of parataxis SSIU-CH2 used in the first and last paragraph respectively.

**Table 12c. Analysis of Length and Construction of Sentences in the First Paragraph of Chapter Two of SSAU**

Code	Sents. Count	Simple	Compound	Complex	Coordinate	Parataxis
SSAU-001-CH2-FP	2	0	2	0	2	0
SSAU-002-CH2-FP	2	0	2	0	2	0
SSAU-003-CH2-FP	0	0	0	0	0	0
SSAU-004-CH2-FP	11	0	11	0	9	0
SSAU-005-CH2-FP	4	0	2	2	3	0
SSAU-006-CH2-FP	5	0	5	0	3	0
SSAU-007-CH2-FP	8	0	5	3	7	0
SSAU-008-CH2-FP	5	0	4	1	4	1
SSAU-009-CH2-FP	5	0	3	2	4	0
SSAU-010-CH2-FP	4	0	4	0	2	1
SSAU-011-CH2-FP	3	0	2	1	3	0
SSAU-012-CH2-FP	6	0	5	1	4	0
SSAU-013-CH2-FP	6	1	2	3	3	0
SSAU-014-CH2-FP	5	0	4	1	3	0
SSAU-015-CH2-FP	2	0	1	1	2	0
SSAU-016-CH2-FP	7	0	4	3	6	0
SSAU-017-CH2-FP	5	0	1	4	3	0
SSAU-018-CH2-FP	5	1	2	2	3	0
SSAU-019-CH2-FP	5	0	4	1	3	0
SSAU-020-CH2-FP	11	1	6	4	8	0
SSAU-021-CH2-FP	3	0	1	2	1	0
SSAU-022-CH2-FP	4	0	4	0	4	0
SSAU-023-CH2-FP	4	0	3	1	4	0
SSAU-024-CH2-FP	2	1	1	0	1	0
SSAU-025-CH2-FP	6	1	1	4	3	0
SSAU-026-CH2-FP	6	0	6	0	6	1
SSAU-027-CH2-FP	4	0	4	0	3	1
SSAU-028-CH2-FP	3	0	3	0	2	0
SSAU-029-CH2-FP	5	0	4	1	1	0
SSAU-030-CH2-FP	4	0	4	0	3	2
SSAU-031-CH2-FP	11	1	6	4	5	0
SSAU-032-CH2-FP	10	1	8	1	7	0
SSAU-033-CH2-FP	5	0	4	1	4	0
SSAU-034-CH2-FP	3	0	2	1	0	1
SSAU-035-CH2-FP	6	0	3	3	5	0
SSAU-036-CH2-FP	1	0	1	0	1	0
SSAU-037-CH2-FP	10	0	6	4	3	0
SSAU-038-CH2-FP	6	0	3	3	2	0
SSAU-039-CH2-FP	3	0	2	1	1	0
SSAU-040-CH2-FP	6	0	3	3	5	0
Total	203	7	138	58	135	7

Table 12c above provides the results of the analysis of SSAU-CH2 of length and construction as in aspect of academic writing in the first paragraph of chapter two. The analysis showed that SSAU-CH2, in the first paragraph, used 203 sentences. 7 of these sentences are simple, 138 are compound, 58 are complex, 135 are coordinated, and 7 are parataxis.

**Table 12d. Analysis of Length and Construction of Sentences in the Last Paragraph of Chapter Two of SSAU**

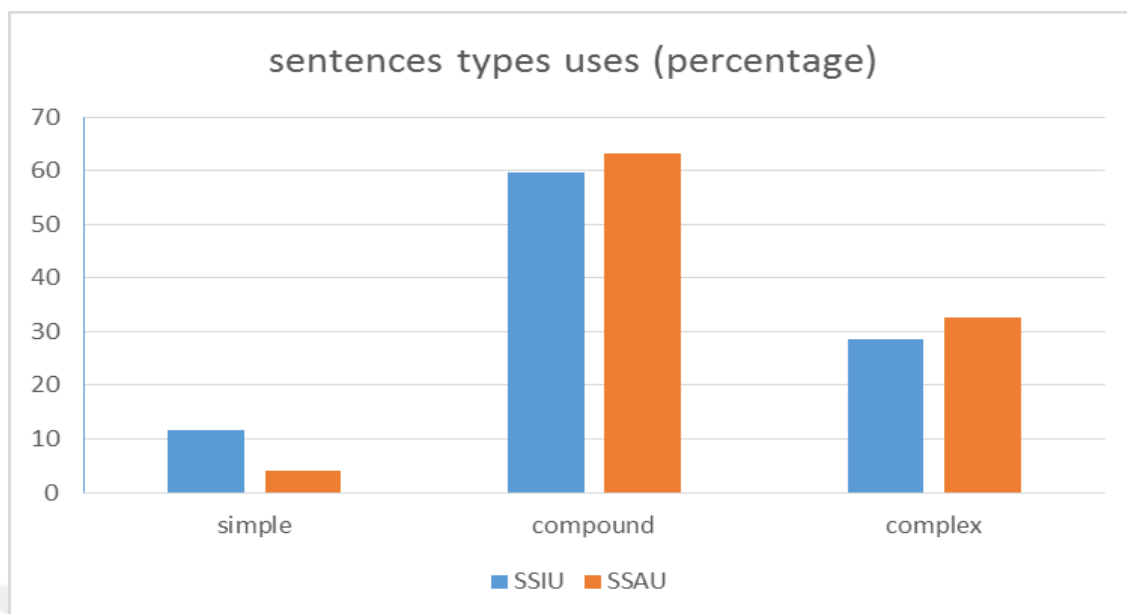
Code	Sents. Count	Simple	Compound	Complex	Coordinate	Parataxis
SSAU-001-CH2-LP	2	0	2	0	2	0
SSAU-002-CH2-LP	2	0	2	0	0	0
SSAU-003-CH2-LP	7	0	4	3	3	0
SSAU-004-CH2-LP	3	0	2	1	2	1
SSAU-005-CH2-LP	2	0	2	0	2	1
SSAU-006-CH2-LP	3	0	2	1	0	0
SSAU-007-CH2-LP	6	0	3	3	4	0
SSAU-008-CH2-LP	2	0	1	1	2	0
SSAU-009-CH2-LP	8	2	4	2	6	0
SSAU-010-CH2-LP	12	0	7	5	7	0
SSAU-011-CH2-LP	4	0	3	1	2	0
SSAU-012-CH2-LP	4	0	2	2	3	1
SSAU-013-CH2-LP	6	0	4	2	4	0
SSAU-014-CH2-LP	7	0	2	5	1	1
SSAU-015-CH2-LP	5	0	2	3	3	2
SSAU-016-CH2-LP	3	0	3	0	3	1
SSAU-017-CH2-LP	4	0	3	1	2	0
SSAU-018-CH2-LP	6	0	5	1	4	0
SSAU-019-CH2-LP	7	0	4	3	5	0
SSAU-020-CH2-LP	4	0	2	2	2	0
SSAU-021-CH2-LP	4	0	3	1	3	0
SSAU-022-CH2-LP	4	0	4	0	4	1
SSAU-023-CH2-LP	2	0	2	0	2	0
SSAU-024-CH2-LP	12	2	7	3	7	0
SSAU-025-CH2-LP	3	1	1	1	1	0
SSAU-026-CH2-LP	10	4	6	0	7	1
SSAU-027-CH2-LP	4	0	2	2	3	1
SSAU-028-CH2-LP	3	0	1	2	1	1
SSAU-029-CH2-LP	5	0	3	2	4	0
SSAU-030-CH2-LP	3	0	2	1	2	1
SSAU-031-CH2-LP	5	0	4	1	4	0
SSAU-032-CH2-LP	4	0	3	1	4	0
SSAU-033-CH2-LP	6	0	3	3	3	0
SSAU-034-CH2-LP	2	0	0	2	1	0
SSAU-035-CH2-LP	4	0	4	0	3	1
SSAU-036-CH2-LP	4	0	1	3	4	0
SSAU-037-CH2-LP	6	0	3	3	5	0
SSAU-038-CH2-LP	9	0	4	5	5	0
SSAU-039-CH2-LP	5	0	1	4	2	0
SSAU-040-CH2-LP	5	0	2	3	3	0
Total	197	9	115	73	125	13

Table 12d above demonstrates the detailed analysis of length and construction of sentences in the last paragraph of chapter two in the writing of SSAU-CH2. The analysis showed that SSAU-CH2 used 197 total sentences in the last paragraph. 9 sentences are simple, 115 are compound, 73 are complex, 125 are coordinated, and 13 are parataxis. The total sentences in the first and last paragraph used by SSAU-CH2 are 400. The total amount of each type of the sentences used both in the first and the last paragraph of chapter two can be classified as 16 simple sentences, 253 compound sentences, 131 complex sentences, 260 coordinated sentences, and 20 parataxis. The results of comparing the analysis of length and construction of sentences, in terms of simple, compound, and complex, in the writing of SSIU-CH2 and SSAU-CH2 are shown in Table 13 below:

**Table 13. Results of Comparing the Analysis of Length and Construction in the Writing of SSIU-CH2 and SSAU-CH2**

<b>Code</b>	<b>Simple</b>	<b>Compound</b>	<b>Complex</b>
SSIU	11.65%	59.77%	28.57%
SSAU	4.00%	63.25%	32.75%

Percentage of the comparison between the analysis of length and construction in the writing of SSIU-CH2 and SSAU-CH2 proved that SSIU-CH2 use of simple sentences is higher than the use of SSAU-CH2. SSIU-CH2 percentage of simple sentences is 11.65% while the percentage of SSAU-CH2 is 4.00%. Regarding compound sentences, SSAU-CH2 percentage is 63.25% while SSIU-CH2 percentage is 59.77%. This shows that SSAU-CH2 used more compound sentences than SSIU-Ch2. Finally, SSAU-CH2 percentage of complex sentences is 32.75% while SSIU-CH2 percentage of the same type of sentences is 28.57%. These results can be best illustrated in Figure 10 below.



**Figure 10. Analysis of the uses of sentences types in the writing of SSIU and SSAU**

Figure 10 above demonstrates that SSIU percentage of the use of simple sentences is slightly higher than the percentage of SSAU. Regarding the use of compound sentences and compound sentences, SSAU percentage is higher than SSIU. It is worth mentioning that the difference between the percentages of SSIU and SSAU in the use of simple and compound sentences is not much far as it is illustrated in figure 10 above.

#### **4.4. Statistical Analysis of Organization of Information in Sentences**

Based on the explanation and definition of organization of information as an aspect of the six selected aspects of academic writing for the purpose of this study mentioned in section (2.4.1.3.), I analyzed the first and the last paragraph of chapter two in the writing of SSAU and SSIU. Using Hyper Research software, the analysis was conducted in terms of three categories: agent predicate relation, argumentation, and marked and unmarked theme (passive voice).

Table (14a), (14b), (14c), and (14d) below provide the results of the analysis. In these tables below, I used the terms (present) and (absent) to refer to the existence of the three categories of organization of information, i.e., agent predicate relation, argumentation, and marked and unmarked theme, in the writing of SSAU and SSIU.

**Table 14a. Analysis of Organization of Information in the first paragraph of Chapter Two in the writing of SSIU**

<b>Code No.</b>	<b>Sents. Count</b>	<b>agent predicate relation</b>	<b>argumentation</b>	<b>Marked and unmarked theme (passive voice)</b>
SSIU-001-CH2-FP	6	Present	Present	2
SSIU-002-CH2-FP	4	Present	Present	1
SSIU-003-CH2-FP	3	Absent	Present	0
SSIU-004-CH2-FP	4	Absent	Present	0
SSIU-005-CH2-FP	8	Present	Absent	0
SSIU-006-CH2-FP	2	Present	Absent	1
SSIU-007-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	2
SSIU-008-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	2
SSIU-009-CH2-FP	1	Absent	Absent	1
SSIU-010-CH2-FP	4	Present	Present	3
SSIU-011-CH2-FP	3	Present	Absent	2
SSIU-012-CH2-FP	6	Absent	Absent	1
SSIU-013-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	2
SSIU-014-CH2-FP	6	Present	Present	1
SSIU-015-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	1
SSIU-016-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	1
SSIU-017-CH2-FP	6	Present	Present	0
SSIU-018-CH2-FP	11	Present	Absent	3
SSIU-019-CH2-FP	7	Present	Present	2
SSIU-020-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	1
SSIU-021-CH2-FP	4	Present	Present	1
SSIU-022-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	2
SSIU-023-CH2-FP	4	Present	Absent	2
SSIU-024-CH2-FP	5	Present	Present	1
SSIU-025-CH2-FP	2	Present	Present	1
SSIU-026-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	1
SSIU-027-CH2-FP	4	Present	Absent	2
SSIU-028-CH2-FP	2	Present	Present	0
SSIU-029-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	0
SSIU-030-CH2-FP	1	Present	Present	1
SSIU-031-CH2-FP	10	Absent	Absent	3
SSIU-032-CH2-FP	1	Present	Present	1
SSIU-033-CH2-FP	4	Absent	Present	2
SSIU-034-CH2-FP	7	Present	Absent	2
SSIU-035-CH2-FP	4	Present	Present	1
SSIU-036-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	2
SSIU-037-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	0
SSIU-038-CH2-FP	1	Present	Present	1
SSIU-039-CH2-FP	2	Present	Present	1
SSIU-040-CH2-FP	5	Present	Present	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>160</b>	<b>Total: 34</b>	<b>Total : 30</b>	<b>52</b>

Table 14a above showed that the total amount of sentences SSIU-CH2-FP used in the first paragraph of chapter two is 160, the total use of the present agent predicate relation is 34, the total use of present argumentation is 30, and the total use of passive is 52.

**Table 14b. Analysis of Organization in the last paragraph of Chapter Two in the writing of SSIU**

Code No.	Sents. Count	agent predicate relation	Argumentation	Marked and unmarked theme (passive voice)
SSIU-001-CH2-LP	7	Present	Present	2
SSIU-002-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	3
SSIU-003-CH2-LP	3	Present	Absent	1
SSIU-004-CH2-LP	6	Absent	Present	0
SSIU-005-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	1
SSIU-006-CH2-LP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-007-CH2-LP	3	Present	Absent	1
SSIU-008-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	0
SSIU-009-CH2-LP	1	Present	Present	1
SSIU-010-CH2-LP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-011-CH2-LP	2	Present	Present	2
SSIU-012-CH2-LP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-013-CH2-LP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-014-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	1
SSIU-015-CH2-LP	5	Present	Present	0
SSIU-016-CH2-LP	2	Present	Present	2
SSIU-017-CH2-LP	3	Absent	Present	1
SSIU-018-CH2-LP	8	Present	Present	2
SSIU-019-CH2-LP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-020-CH2-LP	5	Present	Present	4
SSIU-021-CH2-LP	1	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-022-CH2-LP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-023-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	1
SSIU-024-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	1
SSIU-025-CH2-LP	2	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-026-CH2-LP	2	Absent	Absent	1
SSIU-027-CH2-LP	1	Present	Present	1
SSIU-028-CH2-LP	4	Absent	Absent	2
SSIU-029-CH2-LP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-030-CH2-LP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-031-CH2-LP	6	Absent	Present	3
SSIU-032-CH2-LP	5	Present	Present	0
SSIU-033-CH2-LP	2	Present	Present	1
SSIU-034-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	1
SSIU-035-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	2
SSIU-036-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	2
SSIU-037-CH2-LP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSIU-038-CH2-LP	2	Present	Present	1
SSIU-039-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	2
SSIU-040-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	2
Total	106	Total : 24	Total : 25	41



As provided by table 14b above, the total sentences SSIU-CH2-FP used in the last paragraph of chapter two is 106, the total use of the present agent predicate relation is 24, the total use of present argumentation is 25, and the total use of passive is 41.

**Table 14c. Analysis of Organization of Information in the first paragraph of Chapter Two in the writing of SSAU**

Code No.	Sents. Count	Agent predicate relation	Argumentation	Marked and unmarked theme (passive voice)
SSAU-001-CH2-FP	2	Present	Present	1
SSAU-002-CH2-FP	2	Present	Present	0
SSAU-003-CH2-FP	0	Absent	Absent	0
SSAU-004-CH2-FP	11	Present	Present	8
SSAU-005-CH2-FP	4	Present	Present	1
SSAU-006-CH2-FP	5	Present	Present	4
SSAU-007-CH2-FP	8	Absent	Present	2
SSAU-008-CH2-FP	5	Present	Present	0
SSAU-009-CH2-FP	5	Absent	Present	3
SSAU-010-CH2-FP	4	Present	Absent	1
SSAU-011-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	0
SSAU-012-CH2-FP	6	Present	Absent	1
SSAU-013-CH2-FP	6	Present	Present	1
SSAU-014-CH2-FP	5	Present	Present	1
SSAU-015-CH2-FP	2	Absent	Present	1
SSAU-016-CH2-FP	7	Absent	Present	5
SSAU-017-CH2-FP	5	Absent	Absent	2
SSAU-018-CH2-FP	5	Present	Present	1
SSAU-019-CH2-FP	5	Present	Present	0
SSAU-020-CH2-FP	11	Present	Absent	5
SSAU-021-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	2
SSAU-022-CH2-FP	4	Present	Present	3
SSAU-023-CH2-FP	4	Present	Absent	2
SSAU-024-CH2-FP	2	Present	Present	1
SSAU-025-CH2-FP	6	Present	Present	0
SSAU-026-CH2-FP	6	Present	Present	2
SSAU-027-CH2-FP	4	Absent	Absent	0
SSAU-028-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	0
SSAU-029-CH2-FP	5	Absent	Present	1
SSAU-030-CH2-FP	4	Present	Present	2
SSAU-031-CH2-FP	11	Absent	Absent	3
SSAU-032-CH2-FP	10	Present	Present	1
SSAU-033-CH2-FP	5	Present	Present	2
SSAU-034-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	0
SSAU-035-CH2-FP	6	Absent	Absent	0
SSAU-036-CH2-FP	1	Present	Present	0
SSAU-037-CH2-FP	10	Present	Present	2
SSAU-038-CH2-FP	6	Present	Absent	2
SSAU-039-CH2-FP	3	Present	Present	1
SSAU-040-CH2-FP	6	Present	Present	2
Total	203	Total: 30	Total: 30	63

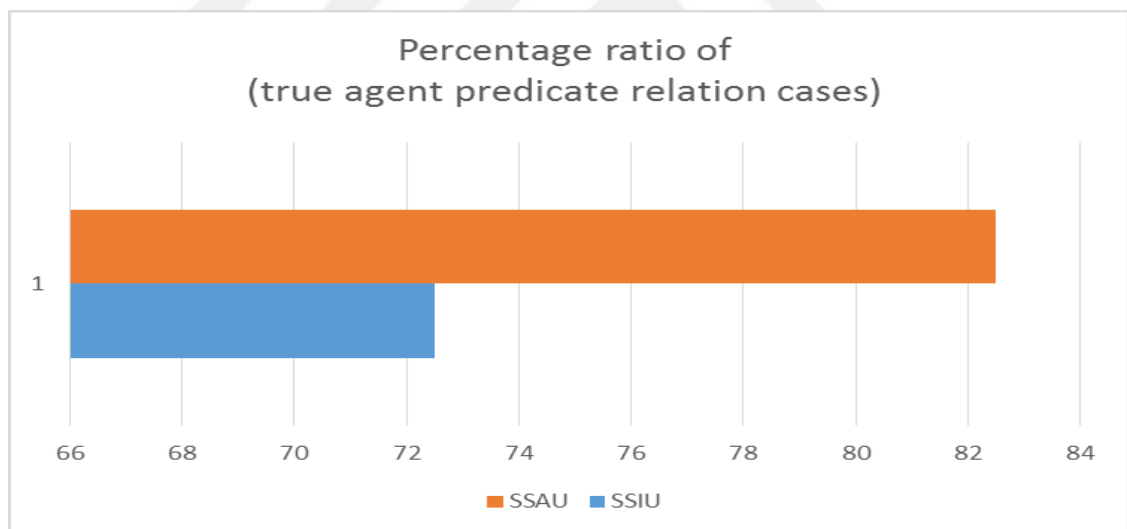
As in table 14a and 14b, table 14c demonstrates that the total number of sentences SSAU-CH2-FP used in the first paragraph of chapter two is 203, the total use of the present agent predicate relation is 30, the total use of present argumentation is 30, and the total use of passive is 63.

**Table 14d. Analysis of Organization of Information in the last paragraph of Chapter Two in the writing of SSAU**

Code No.	Sents. Count	Agent predicate relation	Argumentation	Marked and unmarked theme (passive voice)
SSAU-001-CH2-LP	2	Present	Present	2
SSAU-002-CH2-LP	2	Present	Present	2
SSAU-003-CH2-LP	7	Present	Present	1
SSAU-004-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	2
SSAU-005-CH2-LP	2	Absent	Absent	1
SSAU-006-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	0
SSAU-007-CH2-LP	6	Present	Present	0
SSAU-008-CH2-LP	2	Present	Present	0
SSAU-009-CH2-LP	8	Absent	Absent	4
SSAU-010-CH2-LP	12	Present	Present	5
SSAU-011-CH2-LP	4	Present	Absent	1
SSAU-012-CH2-LP	4	Present	Absent	0
SSAU-013-CH2-LP	6	Present	Present	2
SSAU-014-CH2-LP	7	Present	Present	3
SSAU-015-CH2-LP	5	Present	Present	1
SSAU-016-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	2
SSAU-017-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	3
SSAU-018-CH2-LP	6	Present	Present	2
SSAU-019-CH2-LP	7	Present	Present	2
SSAU-020-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	1
SSAU-021-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	1
SSAU-022-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	2
SSAU-023-CH2-LP	2	Present	Present	2
SSAU-024-CH2-LP	12	Present	Present	5
SSAU-025-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	1
SSAU-026-CH2-LP	10	Present	Present	5
SSAU-027-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	1
SSAU-028-CH2-LP	3	Present	Present	2
SSAU-029-CH2-LP	5	Present	Absent	0
SSAU-030-CH2-LP	3	Present	Absent	1
SSAU-031-CH2-LP	5	Present	Present	4
SSAU-032-CH2-LP	4	Absent	Absent	0
SSAU-033-CH2-LP	6	Present	Present	3
SSAU-034-CH2-LP	2	Present	Present	0
SSAU-035-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	2
SSAU-036-CH2-LP	4	Present	Present	2
SSAU-037-CH2-LP	6	Present	Absent	3
SSAU-038-CH2-LP	9	Absent	Absent	5
SSAU-039-CH2-LP	5	Present	Present	4
SSAU-040-CH2-LP	5	Present	Present	0
Total	197	Total : 36	Total: 31	77

Finally, Table 14d reveals that the total sentences SSIU-CH2-FP used in the last paragraph of chapter two is 197, the total use of the present agent predicate relation is 36, the total use of present argumentation is 31, and the total use of passive is 77. It is worth mentioning that of results of analyzing organization of information as an aspect of academic writing for the purpose of this study prove that the total sentences SSIU-CH used in both the first and the last paragraph of chapter two is 266, the total use of the present agent predicate relation is 58, the total use of present argumentation is 55, and the total use of passive is 93 while the total sentences SSAU-CH used in both the first and the last paragraph of chapter two is 400, the total use of the present agent predicate relation is 66, the total use of present argumentation is 61, and the total use of passive is 140.

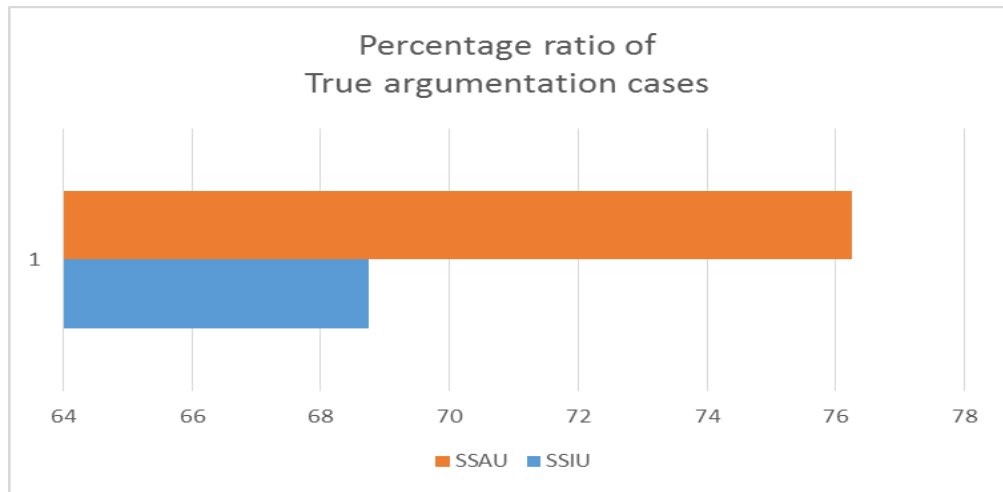
Figures 11a, 11b, and 11c provide the ratio of the use of present agent predicate relation, present argumentation, and passive in the writing of SSAU and SSIU respectively.



**Figure 11a. Percentage of Agent Predicate Relation in the Writing of SSIU and SSAU**

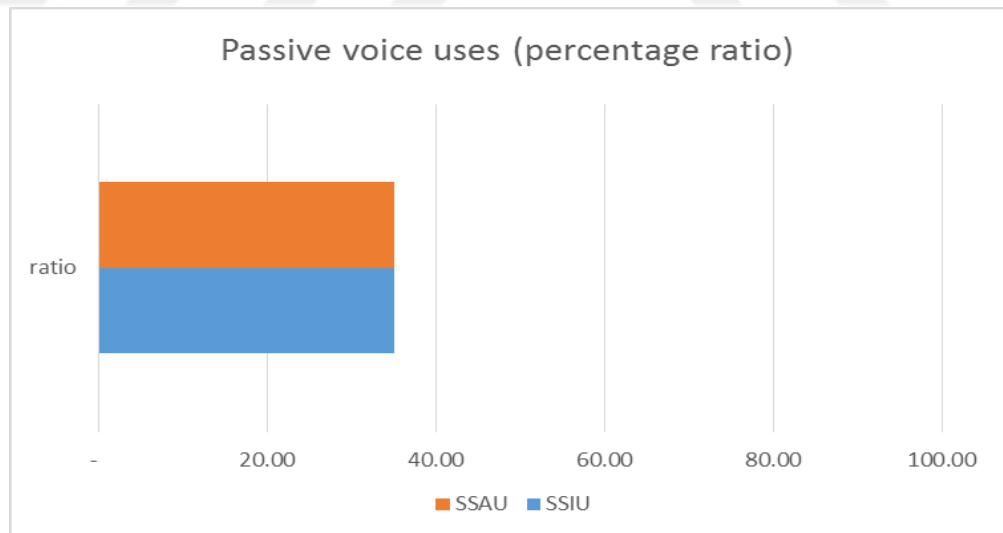
Figure 11a above shows that the percentage of the use of present agent predicate relation, as one category of the three categories used in the analysis of organization of sentences as an aspect of academic writing, in the writing of SSAU is 82.5 which is higher than SSIU whose percentage is 72.5.

## SSAU



**Figure 11b. Percentage of Present Argumentation in the Writing of SSIU and**

Figure 11b above shows that the percentage of the use of true argumentation in the writing of SSAU is 76.25 which is higher than SSIU whose percentage is 68.75.



**Figure 11c. Percentage of the Use of Passive Voice in the Writing of SSIU and SSAU**

Examining figure 11c above, one can conclude that the percentages of both SSIU and SSAU regarding the use of passive voice in their writing are almost identical. The percentage of SSAU is 35 and the percentage of SSIU is 34.96.

#### 4.5. Statistical Analysis of Vocabulary

The analysis of ‘vocabulary’ as an aspect of English academic writing was conducted in terms of three categories: Discipline relevant words, Academic words (1-500), and Academic words (501-3000). By using AntConc software, I analyzed the uses of common and uncommon words in the writing of SSAU and SSIU and compare them to COCA the Corpus of Contemporary American English (<http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/>). Tables 15a and 15b below provide the general results of this analysis.

**Table 15a. The Analysis of Vocabulary in the writing of SSIU**

Code No.	Total Count Words	Academic words 1-500 (percentage)	Academic Words 501-3000 (percentage)	Discipline Relevant Words (percentage)
SSIU-001	2303	19	6	7
SSIU-002	2531	13	7	3
SSIU-003	2454	11	5	3
SSIU-004	2228	21	5	3
SSIU-005	2550	8	3	2
SSIU-006	1997	15	8	6
SSIU-007	2295	22	6	7
SSIU-008	2405	22	5	10
SSIU-009	2081	16	5	7
SSIU-010	2339	19	6	3
SSIU-011	2434	16	7	3
SSIU-012	2460	17	6	8
SSIU-013	1458	13	8	8
SSIU-014	1886	13	6	7
SSIU-015	2162	18	5	5
SSIU-016	2093	17	7	5
SSIU-017	2185	22	7	5
SSIU-018	2393	18	5	4
SSIU-019	2283	23	5	0
SSIU-020	2106	20	6	2
SSIU-021	1843	17	7	5
SSIU-022	1381	11	6	6
SSIU-023	2440	7	3	6
SSIU-024	2309	22	5	3
SSIU-025	2253	16	7	6
SSIU-026	2295	17	6	4
SSIU-027	2346	25	5	4
SSIU-028	2183	17	4	2
SSIU-029	2260	15	7	5
SSIU-030	2359	19	4	6
SSIU-031	2372	17	5	7
SSIU-032	2379	14	4	7
SSIU-033	1475	23	5	4
SSIU-034	2309	21	8	3

SSIU-035	2258	7	2	3
SSIU-036	2304	16	7	7
SSIU-037	1781	14	5	8
SSIU-038	2141	16	7	5
SSIU-039	1241	8	4	5
SSIU-040	1994	13	8	8
	Total 86566	Average 16.45%	Average 5.675%	Average 5.05%

**Table 15b. The Analysis of Vocabulary in the writing of SSAU**

Code No.	Total Count Words	Academic words 1-500 (percentage)	Academic Words 501-3000 (percentage)	Discipline Relevant Words (percentage)
SSAU-001	2382	25	8	3
SSAU-002	2248	12	4	3
SSAU-003	2593	11	6	1
SSAU-004	2322	18	8	5
SSAU-005	2174	20	5	7
SSAU-006	2521	16	6	1
SSAU-007	2193	24	6	1
SSAU-008	2279	18	5	1
SSAU-009	783	19	7	4
SSAU-010	1572	17	6	0
SSAU-011	2472	22	6	2
SSAU-012	2489	19	6	3
SSAU-013	1698	18	6	4
SSAU-014	1866	24	9	1
SSAU-015	2229	12	3	2
SSAU-016	2493	22	4	1
SSAU-017	691	23	6	6
SSAU-018	2159	20	5	1
SSAU-019	2498	15	5	1
SSAU-020	2159	17	5	2
SSAU-021	2376	18	5	3
SSAU-022	2438	21	5	4
SSAU-023	2198	18	3	0
SSAU-024	2377	22	5	2
SSAU-025	2245	22	6	1
SSAU-026	2385	18	5	2
SSAU-027	2399	23	7	3
SSAU-028	696	27	6	1
SSAU-029	2325	17	7	2
SSAU-030	2106	16	6	2
SSAU-031	2419	15	5	1
SSAU-032	2465	14	4	8
SSAU-033	1990	19	8	4
SSAU-034	2403	22	6	3
SSAU-035	2520	13	7	3
SSAU-036	2246	19	8	4
SSAU-037	2031	15	7	1
SSAU-038	2328	19	7	3
SSAU-039	2054	21	7	2
SSAU-040	2192	18	6	3
	Total 86014	Average 18.725%	Average 5.9%	Average 2.525%

The usage of vocabulary in terms of the three categories mentioned above varies in quality throughout the analyzed data as illustrated in table 16a, 16b, and 16c below.

**Table 16a. Analysis of Vocabulary in terms of discipline relevant words**

Text No.	Total words	Discipline relevant (percentage )
SSIU-008	2405	10%
SSAU-032	2465	8%

Table 16a shows that the highest quality texts can be seen in SSIU-008 and SSAU-032 respectively. Out of 2405 academic words, the percentage of SSIU-008 was 10% for the use of ‘discipline words’. The percentage of SSAU-032 within the same category, i.e., discipline relevant was 8% out of 2465 academic words. Figure 12 below demonstrates the percentage of SSAU and SSIU concerning the analysis of vocabulary in terms of discipline relevant words.



**Figure 12. Results of Analyzing Vocabulary in Terms of discipline relevant words in the Writing of SSAU and SSIU**

Figure 12 above shows that the highest use of vocabulary in terms of discipline relevant words is best seen in the writing of SSIU. Statistically speaking and according to the analysis, SSIU percentage of using discipline relevant words is 5.05 while the percentage of SSAU is 2.525.

**Table 16b. Analysis of Vocabulary in terms of Academic words (1-500) according to COCA**

Text No.	Total words	Academic words (1-500) (percentage )
SSIU-027	2346	25%
SSAU-028	696	27%

Table 16b reveals the results of the analysis of vocabulary in terms (1-500) more frequently used academic words according to COCA. As it showed in the table above, the highest percentage in using academic words within (1-500) belongs to SSAU-028. The student used 696 academic words and his percentage is 27%. SSIU-027, on the other hand, used 2346 academic words and processing his writing by the aid of COCA software, his percentage within (1-500) is 25%.

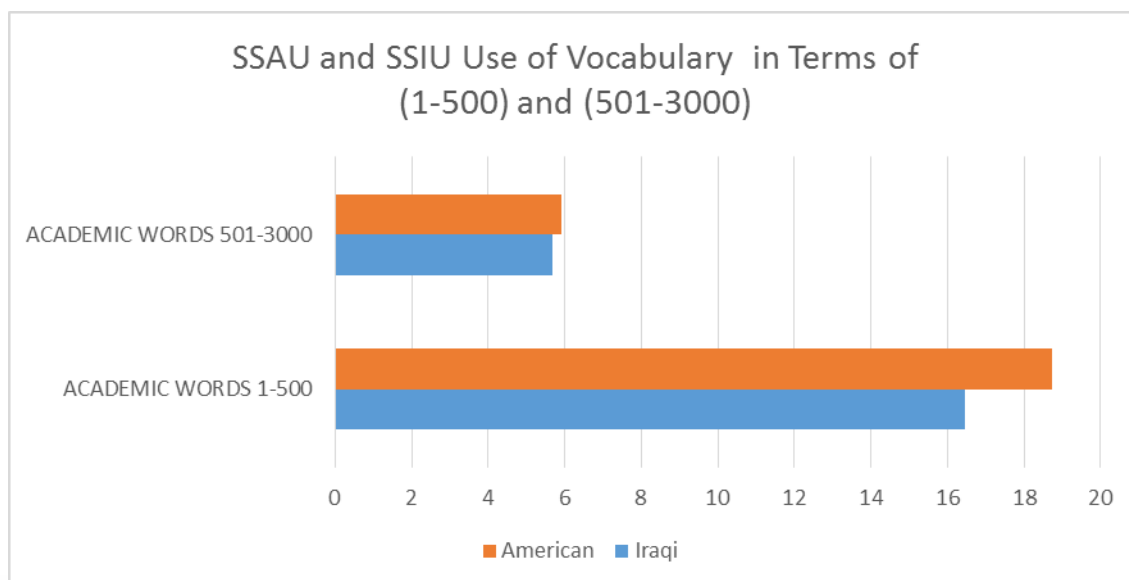
Table 16c below shows the results obtained from analyzing of vocabulary in terms (501-3000) most frequently used academic words according to COCA.

**Table 16c. Analysis of Vocabulary in Terms of Academic words (501-3000) according to COCA**

Text No.	Total words	Academic words (501-3000) (percentage )
SSIU-006	1997	8%
SSIU-013	1458	8%
SSIU-034	2309	8%
SSIU-040	1994	8%
SSAU-014	1866	9%

Examining table 16c above, one can note that four graduate students studying at Iraqi universities have the same percentage in using vocabulary in terms (501-3000) most frequently used academic words according to Coca. Their percentage is 8%. They differ in the number of the total words use. SSIU-006 used 1997 words, SSIU-013 used 1458, SSIU-034 used 2309 words, and SSIU-040 used 1994 words respectively. The highest percentage in using academic words within 501-3000 most frequently used academic words according to Coca can be seen in the writing of SSAU-014. Out of 1866 academic words, his percentage is 9%. Figure 13 below summarizes and shows the results of analyzing vocabulary in terms of (1-500) more frequently used academic words and 501-3000 most frequently used academic words according to COCA .





**Figure 13. Results of Analyzing Vocabulary in Terms of (1-500) and (501-3000) According to COCA in the Writing of SSAU and SSIU**

Figure 13 shows that SSAU use of vocabulary, as academic words in terms of 1-500 according to Coca, is higher than the use of SSIU. This is due to the fact that the percentage of SSAU of vocabulary as academic words in terms of 1-500 is 18.725. It is higher than the percentage of SSIU within the same level whose percentage is 16.45. The analysis of vocabulary as academic words in terms of 501-3000, according to figure 13 above, provides that SSAU use of academic words within 501-3000 is a little higher than SSIU. SSAU and SSIU percentages are close, i.e., SSAU percentage is 5.9 while SSIU percentage within the same level is 5.675. It is worth mentioning that the analysis of Vocabulary as an aspect of academic writing is conducted on word level analysis. I analyzed 86014 in the writing of SSAU and 86566 in the writing of SSIU.

#### **4.6. Statistical Analysis of Topic Sentence**

The data were analyzed following the general analytic approach outlined in chapter three above. Based on the explanation of topic and topicality as an aspect of the six selected aspect of academic writing mentioned in (2.4.1.5) and by using Icloud profiler, Wordly, and Antconc software, I analyzed the first and the last paragraph of chapter two in the writing of SSAU and SSIU. My focus was on identifying and specifying the incorrect use of topicality in the data under investigation. Table 17a and

17b provide the statistical results of this analysis in the writing of SSIU and SSAU respectively.

**Table 17a. Incorrect Use of topicality in the first and last Paragraph in the Writing of SSIU**

<b>Code No.</b>	<b>Incorrect Use of Topicality</b>
SSIU-CH2-FP	14
SSIU-CH2-LP	18
total count	32
total percentage	40
percentage (FP)	35
percentage (LP)	45

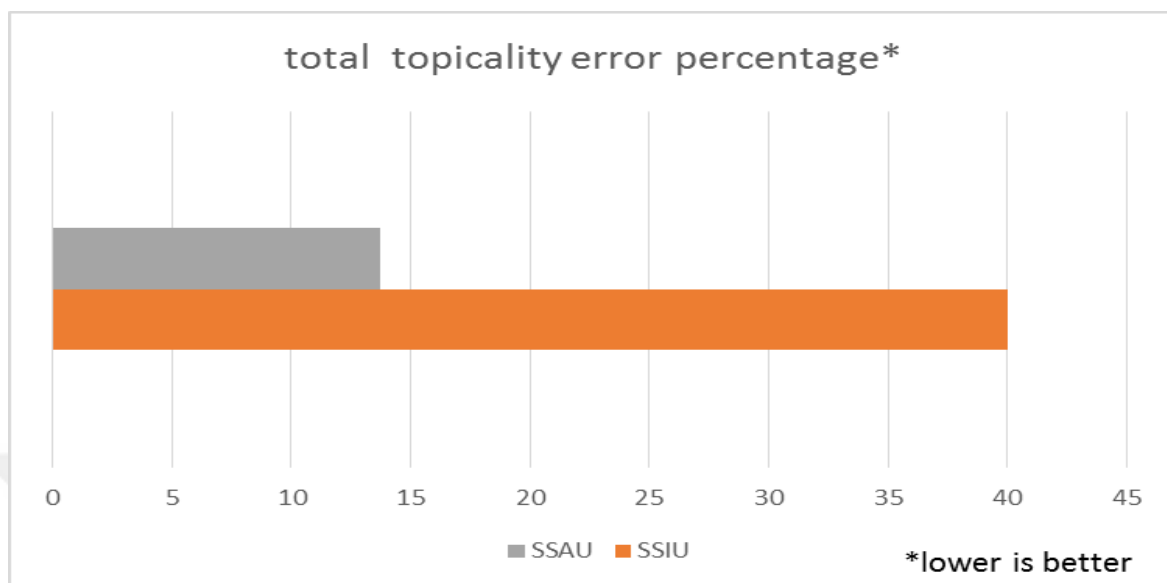
As illustrated in table (17a) above, the incorrect use of topicality of SSIU in the first paragraph of Chapter Two is 14 cases while in the last paragraph the incorrect use is 18. The total incorrect use of topicality in the first and last paragraphs of chapter two in the writing of SSIU is 31. The percentage of incorrect use of topicality in the first paragraph is 35 and 45 in the last paragraph. This leads to 40 as a total percentage of incorrect use of topicality in the first and last paragraph in the writing of SSIU. Table 17b below shows the incorrect use of topicality in the writing of SSAU.

**Table 17b. Incorrect Use of topicality in the Writing of SSAU**

<b>Code No.</b>	<b>Incorrect Use of Topicality</b>
SSAU-CH2-FP	6
SSAU-CH2-LP	5
total count	11
total percentage	13.75
percentage (FP)	15
percentage (LP)	12.5

Table 17b above proves that incorrect use of topicality of SSAU in the first paragraph of chapter two is 6 cases while in the last paragraph the incorrect use is 5. The total incorrect use of topicality in the first and last paragraphs of chapter two in the writing of SSAU is 11. The percentage of incorrect use of topicality in the first paragraph is 15 and 12.5 in the last paragraph. This leads to 13.75 as a total percentage of incorrect use of topicality in the first and last paragraph in the writing of SSAU. However, Figure 14

below shows the percentages of incorrect use of topicality in the writing of SSIU and SSAU respectively.



**Figure 14. Percentage of Incorrect Use of Topicality in the Writing of SSIU and SSAU**

As illustrated in figure 14 above, SSIU percentage of incorrect use of topicality is higher than the percentage of incorrect use of topicality in the writing of SSAU.

#### **4.7. Statistical Analysis of Discourse Markers**

For the purpose of this study, the present analysis of discourse markers as an aspect of the six selected aspects of English academic writing started with a linguistic description of the words and phrases under investigation from the standpoints of grammar and discourse. The frequency information was used as a point of entry into the data. The frequencies of the discourse markers showed their distribution across the two corpora, i.e. writing of SSAU and SSIU. Consider table 18 below:

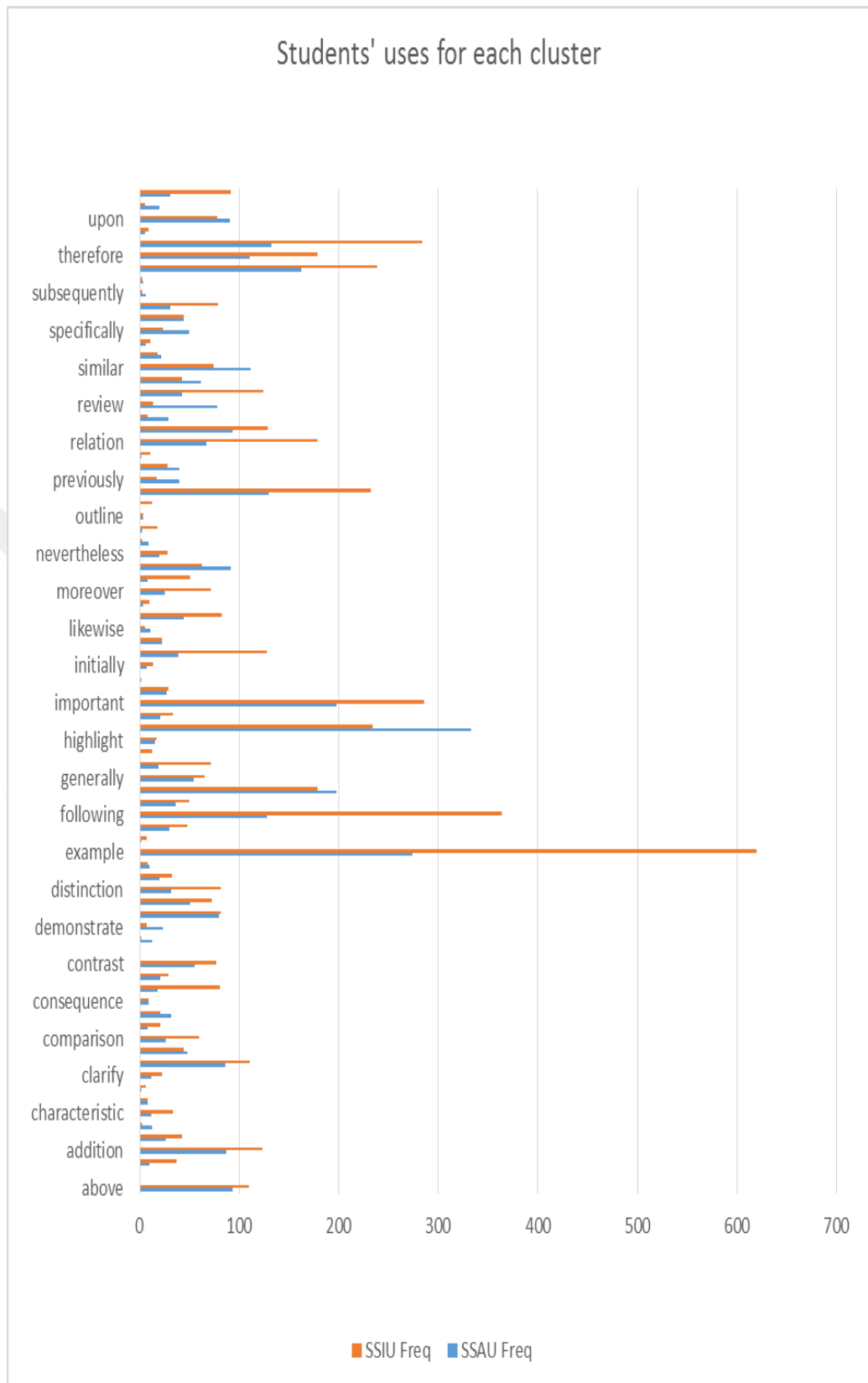
**Table 18. Frequency of Discourse Markers in the writing of SSAU and SSIU**

No.	Cluster	SSAU Freq.	SSIU Freq.	No.	Cluster	SSAU Freq.	SSIU Freq.
1	Above	93	110	42	Infrequently	2	0
2	Accord	1	0	43	Initially	7	14
3	Accordingly	10	37	44	Instance	39	128
4	Addition	87	123	45	Largely	23	23
5	In brief	26	43	46	Likewise	11	5
6	Broadly	13	3	47	Major	44	83
7	Characteristic	12	34	48	Matching	4	10
8	Chief	8	8	49	Moreover	25	72
9	Chiefly	2	6	50	Namely	8	51
10	Clarify	12	23	51	Necessary	92	63
11	Common	86	111	52	Nevertheless	20	28
12	Compared	48	44	53	Nonetheless	9	3
13	Comparison	26	60	54	Occasion	3	18
14	Conclude	8	21	55	Outline	4	4
15	Conclusion	32	21	56	Paraphrase	0	13
16	Consequence	9	9	57	Particular	130	232
17	Consequently	18	81	58	Previously	40	17
18	On the contrary	21	29	59	Primarily	40	28
19	In contrast	55	77	60	Probability	2	11
20	Culminate	0	1	61	Relation	67	179
21	Currently	13	2	62	Result	93	129
22	Demonstrate	24	7	63	Revealed	29	8
23	Difference	80	82	64	Review	78	14
24	Directly	51	73	65	Short	43	124
25	Distinction	32	82	66	Significant	62	43
26	Emphasize	20	33	67	Similar	112	74
27	Equally	10	8	68	Similarly	22	18
28	Example	274	620	69	Simultaneously	6	11
29	Exemplify	2	7	70	Specifically	50	24
30	Extent	30	48	71	Stated	44	44
31	Following	128	364	72	Stress	31	79
32	Future	36	50	73	Subsequently	6	3
33	General	198	179	74	Summarize	4	3
34	Generally	54	65	75	Terms	162	239
35	Hence	19	72	76	Therefore	111	179
36	Henceforth	0	13	77	Thus	132	284
37	Highlight	15	17	78	Undoubtedly	5	9
38	However	333	234	79	Upon	91	78
39	Illustrate	21	34	80	Versus	20	5
40	Important	198	286	81	Whereas	31	92
41	Indeed	27	29		Total	3834	5588

Table 18 above reveals that the frequency of discourse markers in the writing of SSIU is 3834 while it is 5588 in the writing of SSAU. It is worth mentioning that the analysis of ‘cluster’ mentioned in table 18 above conducted according to COCA; cluster

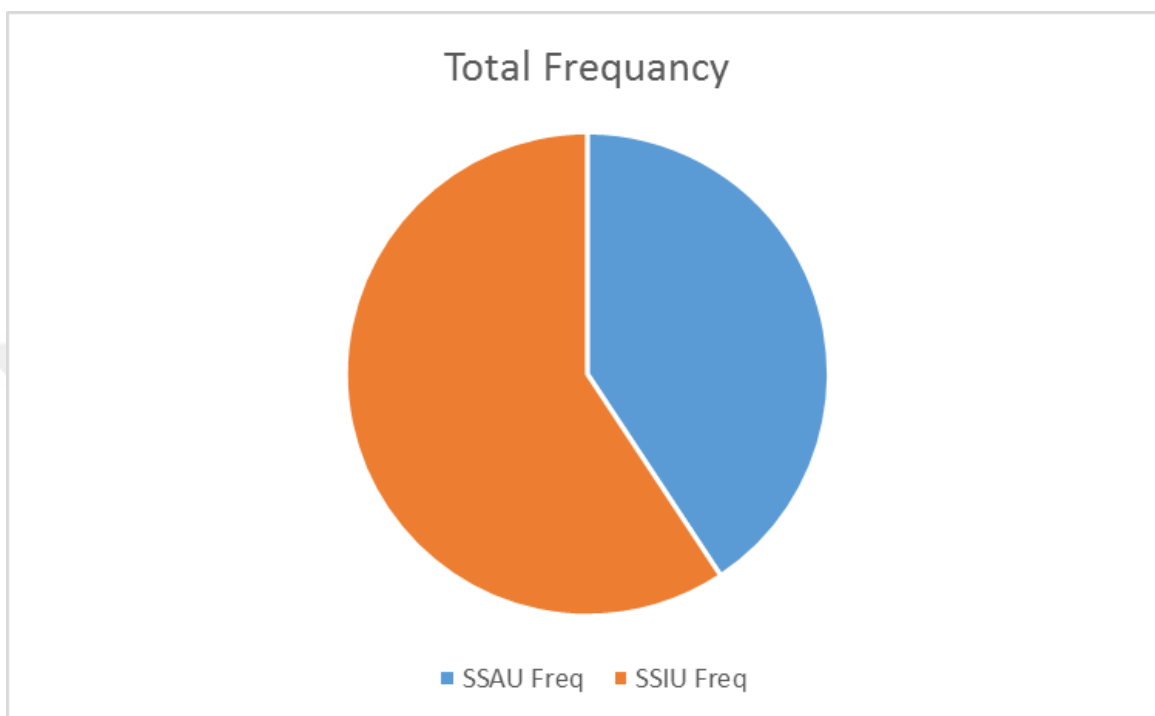
within the range of 1-3000. In addition, the analysis, and according to table 18, shows that the highest frequently used cluster is 'However' and 'Thus'. 'However' occurs 333 and 'Thus' 132 in the writing of SSAU used 333 while in the writing of SSIU 'however' occurs 234 and 'Thus' 284. Practically, the results of the analysis of each cluster mentioned in table 18 above can be best illustrated in figure 15 below. It provides a visual percentage of the students' uses under investigation for each cluster.





**Figure 15. Students' Uses for Each Cluster**

Figure 16 below demonstrate the frequency of cluster used by SSAU and SSIU respectively. The lowest use of cluster in the writing of both SSAU and SSAU was 0. Both SSAU and SSIU did not use the discourse markers ‘culminate’, ‘henceforth’, ‘paraphrase’, ‘Accord’, and ‘infrequently’.



**Figure 16. Total Frequency of Clusters used by SSAU and SSIU**

Looking at figure 16 above, one can note that the highest cluster frequency can be found in the writing of SSIU whereas the lowest one can be seen easily in the writing of SSAU. However, to get a full picture of how SSAU and SSIU deal pragmatically with discourse markers as an aspect of the six selected aspects of English writing, I analyzed discourse markers in terms of ‘Hits’. According to Coça, ‘Hits’ refer to the number of occurrence of the cluster within the data under analysis. It is worth mentioning that the total frequency of discourse markers of SSIU is 5588 while the total frequency of discourse markers of SSAU is 3834.

Table 19 below provides information about the number of hits and the total words used by the two corpora under investigation.

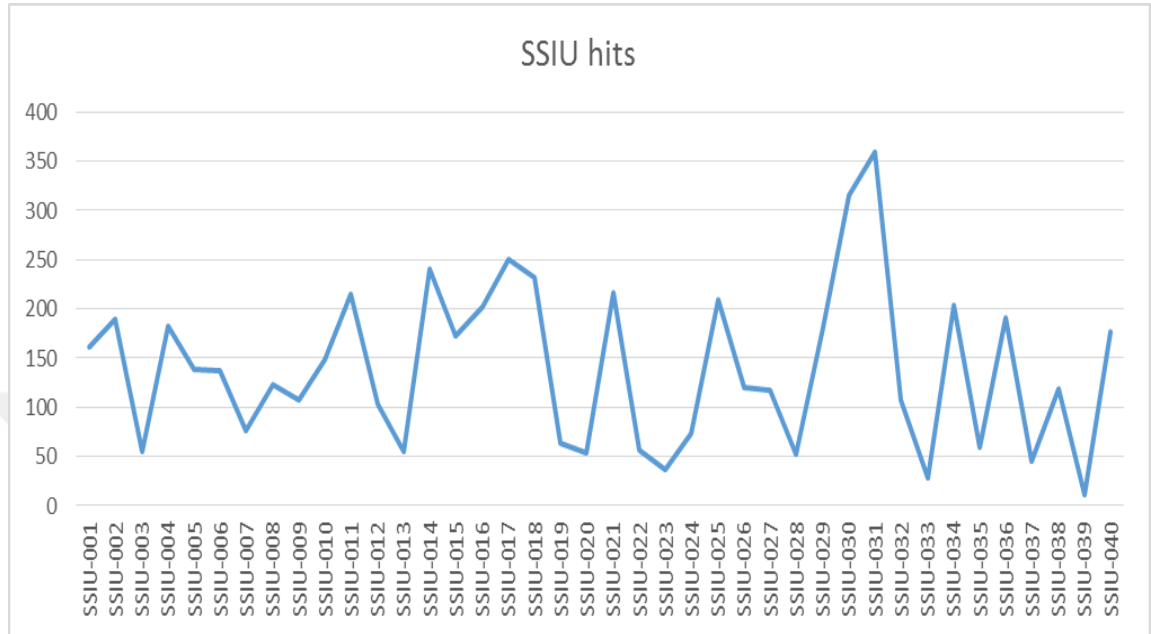
**Table 19. Hits of Discourse Markers used by SSAU and SSIU**

<b>Std. ID</b>	<b>Hits</b>	<b>Total words</b>	<b>Ratio</b>	<b>Std. ID</b>	<b>Hits</b>	<b>Total words</b>	<b>Ratio</b>
SSAU-001	37	2382	1.55	SSIU-001	161	2303	6.99
SSAU-002	29	2248	1.29	SSIU-002	189	2531	7.47
SSAU-003	96	2593	3.70	SSIU-003	55	2454	2.24
SSAU-004	116	2322	5.00	SSIU-004	182	2228	8.17
SSAU-005	65	2174	2.99	SSIU-005	139	2550	5.45
SSAU-006	33	2521	1.31	SSIU-006	137	1997	6.86
SSAU-007	230	2193	10.49	SSIU-007	77	2295	3.36
SSAU-008	51	2279	2.24	SSIU-008	123	2405	5.11
SSAU-009	13	783	1.66	SSIU-009	108	2081	5.19
SSAU-010	34	1572	2.16	SSIU-010	149	2339	6.37
SSAU-011	78	2472	3.16	SSIU-011	215	2434	8.83
SSAU-012	134	2489	5.38	SSIU-012	103	2460	4.19
SSAU-013	40	1698	2.36	SSIU-013	55	1458	3.77
SSAU-014	46	1866	2.47	SSIU-014	240	1886	12.73
SSAU-015	64	2229	2.87	SSIU-015	172	2162	7.96
SSAU-016	64	2493	2.57	SSIU-016	202	2093	9.65
SSAU-017	16	691	2.32	SSIU-017	251	2185	11.49
SSAU-018	98	2159	4.54	SSIU-018	232	2393	9.69
SSAU-019	178	2498	7.13	SSIU-019	64	2283	2.80
SSAU-020	84	2159	3.89	SSIU-020	54	2106	2.56
SSAU-021	131	2376	5.51	SSIU-021	216	1843	11.72
SSAU-022	88	2438	3.61	SSIU-022	56	1381	4.06
SSAU-023	61	2198	2.78	SSIU-023	37	2440	1.52
SSAU-024	122	2377	5.13	SSIU-024	74	2309	3.20
SSAU-025	68	2245	3.03	SSIU-025	210	2253	9.32
SSAU-026	108	2385	4.53	SSIU-026	120	2295	5.23
SSAU-027	126	2399	5.25	SSIU-027	117	2346	4.99
SSAU-028	18	696	2.59	SSIU-028	52	2183	2.38
SSAU-029	61	2325	2.62	SSIU-029	181	2260	8.01
SSAU-030	131	2106	6.22	SSIU-030	316	2359	13.40
SSAU-031	85	2419	3.51	SSIU-031	360	2372	15.18
SSAU-032	131	2465	5.31	SSIU-032	107	2379	4.50
SSAU-033	616	1990	30.95	SSIU-033	28	1475	1.90
SSAU-034	70	2403	2.91	SSIU-034	204	2309	8.83
SSAU-035	73	2520	2.90	SSIU-035	59	2258	2.61
SSAU-036	130	2246	5.79	SSIU-036	191	2304	8.29
SSAU-037	51	2031	2.51	SSIU-037	45	1781	2.53
SSAU-038	164	2328	7.04	SSIU-038	119	2141	5.56
SSAU-039	46	2054	2.24	SSIU-039	11	1241	0.89
SSAU-040	48	2192	2.19	SSIU-040	177	1994	8.88
	<b>total hits</b>	<b>Total count</b>	<b>Total ratio</b>		<b>Total hits</b>	<b>Total count</b>	<b>Total ratio</b>
	3834	86014	4.46		5588	86566	6.46

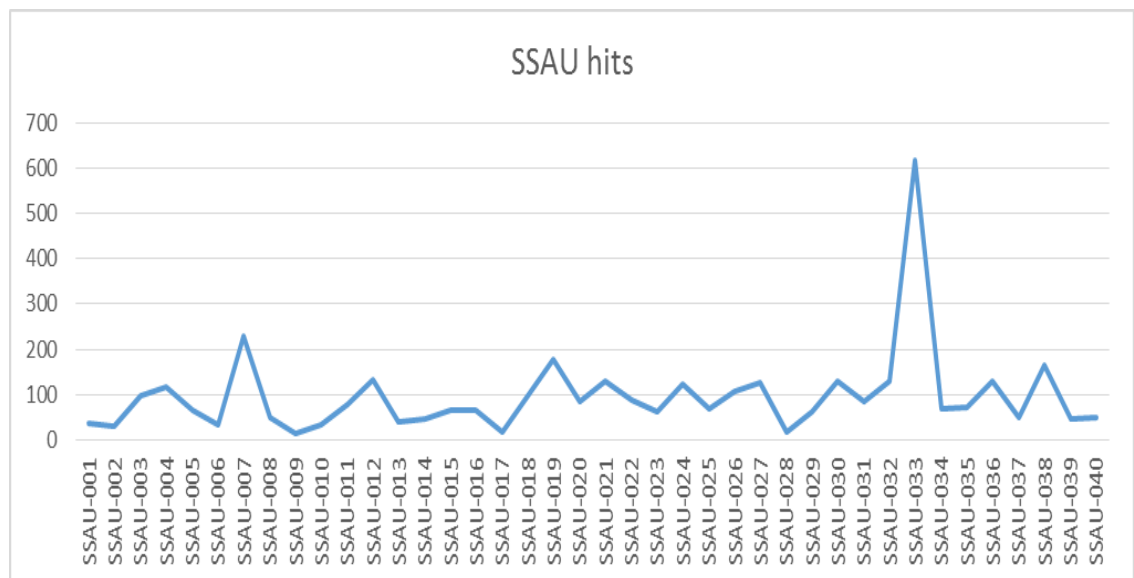


The results of analyzing discourse markers in the writing of SSAU and SSIU can be best illustrated in the figures 17 and 18 respectively.

**Figure 17. Analysis of Hits of Discourse Markers in the Writings of SSIU**

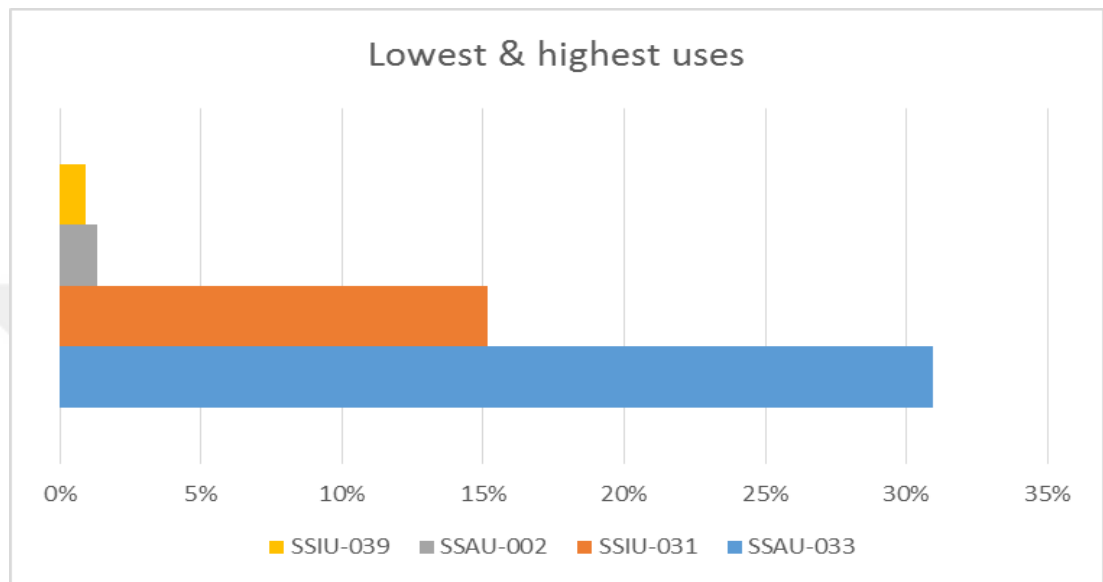


**Figure 18. Analysis of Hits of Discourse Markers in the Writings of SSAU**



Based on the analysis shown in table 19 and supported by the figures 17 and 18, it is clear that the highest percentage of hits is in the corpora of SSAU. This can be clearly seen in the writing of SSAU-033. Out of 1990 total words, SSAU-033 used 616 hits of

discourse markers. Accordingly, his percentage is 30.95. Within SSIU corpora, the highest percentage of using hits of discourse markers is 15.18. It is obtained by SSIU-031 who used 360 hits out of 2372 total words. Figure 19 below demonstrates the highest and the lowest uses of discourse markers as an aspect of academic writing in the writing of SSAU and SSIU.



**Figure 19. Lowest and Highest Uses of Discourse Markers in the Writing of SSAU and SSIU**

As shown in figure (19) above, the lowest use of hits of discourse markers can be seen in the writing of SSIU-039 and SSAU-002 respectively. SSIU-039 used 11 hits out of 1241 and his percentage is 0.89 while SSAU-002 used 29 hits of discourse markers out of 2248 and his percentage is 1.29.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION

#### 5.1. Introduction

This chapter discusses the aspects of pragmatic argumentation through the results focus of the analyzed data. The previous chapter showed variety of results for each element that chapter two discussed. The selected six aspects of academic writing will be discussed thoroughly and examples of data will be reviewed to shape more comprehensive idea about these aspects. Certain aspects were of higher importance than others, as these aspects can directly affect the entire course of the discourse itself, such as topicality, coherence, and relevance. Other aspects have an effect on the level of pragmatic argumentation and eventually the quality of the academic text, and such aspects are the length and construction of the sentences. Other aspects manage the ranking of the text between other academic texts. The aspects of pragmatic argumentation can evaluate both the writer and the advisor, considering the given data as an academic post-graduate writing.

#### 5.2. Paragraph Structure:

Within the paragraph structure, coherence and relevance for the selected data showed some strengths and weaknesses in the student's writings. As earlier discussed in the literature review section 2.4.1.1, this aspect is vital in producing clear argumentation. Different issues were detected within the student's writings, both on the sentence level and paragraph level, and will be discussed below.

One issue was studied by the researcher in which some of the paragraphs were developed in one single sentence (SSIU-009-CH2-FP, SSIU-038-CH2-FP, SSIU-009-CH2-LP, SSIU-021-CH2-LP, SSIU-027-CH2-LP, SSAU-036-CH2-FP). An argument paragraph cannot be built with one sentence unless it is reasonably subordinated and coordinated. Nevertheless, the paragraphs in focus did not always develop accordingly. Consider this:

Human language is used as a means of social interaction; it performs various social roles and expresses various communicative functions like asking

questions, making requests, giving promises or commands, seeking permission, expressing possibility or ability... etc. such types of interpersonal functions of language are reflected through the modal auxiliary verbs like can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should and must.

SSIU-009-CH2-FP

This paragraph is built on one single sentence but there is no obvious reason why the writer did so. The first clause 'Human language is used as a means of social interaction' can be easily split to form a topic sentence and there is no reason to use the semicolon. The semicolon indicates a run-on sentence which reflects multiple topics equal in importance, not common in successful argumentation. In addition to this, the second clause is neither developing a new topic nor equal in status with the first clause. The writer could have easily split the paragraph into sentences with a clear topic sentence and a well-developed argument, yet he did not. Short paragraphs of no more than two sentences were noticed as well. This does not develop an argument correctly.

These cases, as well as other cases yet to come within the discussion of the sentence structure aspect, are evidence of the inability of some of the students to adequately adapt the aspect to develop a good argument. Some other students were able to preserve all the mentioned aspects and develop a good argument successfully. Consider this paragraph:

The idea of directly teaching the organization of thought, or the technique of clear thinking, is relatively new. It seems worth. While, in order to make clear its present status, to give a brief resume of the history of this idea. It is the purpose of this chapter, therefore, to trace it from its origin in the field of psychology, through its development in the literature of general education, and also in the literature of the teaching of English. The idea may be said to have passed through three stages of development. The first was a sort of preliminary period, during which time psychologists were investigating the relationships between language and thinking. The second period was one of general reorganization of the English curriculum, during which time educators were reconsidering the aims, objectives, and methods of English courses in general and of composition courses in particular. They were also reconsidering the fundamental assumptions, the entire groundwork, upon which English teaching

rests; and it was during this latter; process that the idea of directly-teaching the technique of clear thinking gradually gained recognition. The third period is one of gradual dissemination of the idea among classroom teachers. There is, it must be admitted, considerable overlapping in these three stages. Before proceeding to a detailed discussion of each one, the general trend of the development throughout all of them should be briefly indicated.

SSAU-031-CH2-FP

As we can see in this example, the topic sentence ‘The idea of directly teaching the organization of thought, or the technique of clear thinking, is relatively new.’ is well formed. Throughout the paragraph, the information presented was coherent with the topic and the relevant between the sentences and the topic sentence is well constructed. Any occurring claim was justified. The writer used chronological development for the argument ‘The idea may be said to have passed through three stages of development.’ That is coherent with the ‘idea’ and developed this sub topic. A conclusion sentence is well presented ‘There is, it must be admitted, considerable overlapping in these three stages.’ And a closing sentence is helpful in preparing the reader for the upcoming subject.

Coherence and relevance are important issues within the paragraph structure aspect. Coherence is very important aspect in composition writing as well as in any writing as (2.2.2.2) (too short) section of this study developed a reasonable argumentative background to discuss this issue. Consider this example:

The study of political discourse (PD henceforth) has been around for as long as politics itself. **Ancient Greeks were interested in the language of politics and its different possibilities.** They considered the language of politics as an instrument to reach the truth, express art, or achieve persuasion (Lasswell, 1968: 3-4). **The Greco-Roman tradition of rhetoric, which is basically the art of verbal persuasion, was a means of codifying the way public orators used language. In both the Greek polis and the Roman Empire, the rhetorical tradition played a central part in the training of political orators.** This provided a framework for the observation of political verbal behavior that continued for many centuries (Chilton & Schaffner, 1997: 206- 07). **Aristotle's book 'On Rhetoric' is considered a classic in the study of rhetoric.** In this

book, Aristotle states that there is nothing wrong with rhetoric, the study of the persuasive function of language, as long as it is used rationally to demonstrate the truth.

SSIU-018-CH2-FP

In this example, the second sentence ‘Ancient Greeks were interested in the language of politics and its different possibilities.’ did not preserve topic-comment relation and caused a shift in topic as the main topic of the paragraph is ‘The chronology of the study of political discourse’. The relation could have been preserved by shifting the new-given information and to be formed in the passive voice like this: ‘language of politics and its different possibilities were the interest of Ancient Greeks’. This sentence as well as other sentences which helped the development of the ‘Greco-Roman rhetoric’ topic or the second sentence as a topical sentence. Never mentioning the sentence ‘Aristotle's book 'On Rhetoric' is considered a classic in the study of rhetoric.’ Which is incoherent with either topic. This deals with both: coherence on a sentence level and on a paragraph level. That is; sentence level: agent-predicate (topic-comment; given-new) relation, paragraph level agent (topic; given) coherence with the topic sentence.

The relationship between topicality, coherence, and relevance is crucial, as any sentence may not serve topicality if it does not preserve a topic-comment relation. This was clear in the examples above, as changing the topic sentence to fit the developing argument throughout the paragraph may also help to preserve coherence and relevance or vice versa. This relation of coherence was, unfortunately, not preserved by 35% of the SSIU writings and 16.25% of the SSAU writings. This indicates that 35% of the SSIU sample does not present a compelling argument.

Relevance on the other hand is equivalent to, or of greater importance for some linguists, than both topicality and coherence elements. Though relevance is harder to identify, as long as a sentence is preserving the two elements mentioned above, it is determined by the relation between the given information ‘topic’ and new information and how that contributes to confirming or rejecting a hypothesis. This is determined by the recognition of the contextual effect of this assumption. This was discussed thoroughly in section 2.2.2.1 of the literature review of this study. Most of the noted cases are irrelevant as a consequence to the unclear topicality or incoherence of the text or the

sentence. Nevertheless, there are some considerable cases in which both elements were preserved, yet, irrelevance occurred. There were no ‘cognitive’, or ‘communicative’ principals (see 2.2.2.1 of this study) to preserve relevance. Consider this example:

**Although the field of education has changed in several significant ways over the course of the last century, the introduction and reinforcement of communication skills, both written and verbal, have continued to be a cornerstone of the educational experience at all levels.** Quite possibly, the dissatisfaction that members of the general public often express during discussions of the quality of this communication in general has been a cornerstone of the human experience for at least as long. Examples abound in the 21st- century American media: for example, in April of 2006, Businessweek published an article by Julie Gordon entitled “Memo to Students: Writing Skills Matter.” **Although Gordon begins with an example of a person whose writing skills improved while a business student, she goes on to claim that this is not usually the case: “Too often, undergraduates enter—and leave—[business] school without the basic knowledge needed to write effectively, which can hinder their academic and job success” (para. 3).** Gordon goes on to give a brief overview of various ways business schools are attempting to address this deficiency, but the overall message that this is a serious issue is clear.

SSAU-019-CH2-FP

The topic of this paragraph is clear as the first sentence indicates. The topic is “the introduction and reinforcement of communication skills, both written and verbal”. Therefore, the development of the paragraph should assert the topic and enforce it by presenting either ‘cognitive’ or ‘communicative’ information. Still, we can see that some sentences do not help and deviate from the topic. The writer tries to give an example to enforce his argument, yet, he extends in the development of this example to the extent of losing relevance. With this example, the writer loses the flow of information by adding irrelevant extra details and by this confuses distort the meaning. Though the topicality and coherence are preserved, still relevance was broken. This is one simple example of the relevance with preserved coherence and topicality, other issues were even more complex when these two other elements are lost. For example:

Language is the key of communication between people. People can understand each other through the shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer. This process can be realized through a pragmatic field, which depends on the social aspect and one has ability to analyze relying on such a field. Politics is on-line with people's life. Thus, we cannot separate language from politics.

SSIU-024-CH2-FP

This example shows how sentences that lack coherence can affect relevance as there is a shift in topicality. The topic is supposed to be 'Language is the key of communication between people.' In the second sentence 'people' becomes the given topic and this causes the change of the relevance between the first and the third sentence which develop a cognitive information about this process can be realized through a pragmatic field'. Eventually, the writer returns to the main topic to close the paragraph. All elements were not preserved in this argument and the reader will not be able to realize whether the writer is communicating 'language as communication', 'shared knowledge', the 'pragmatic field', or 'politics'.

In some other cases, no clear closing or opening paragraphs are developed. Although the second chapter is usually a literature review and requires most of the student's attention, some students do not write introductory or conclusion paragraphs. This occurs in (SSIU-006-CH2-LP, SSIU-012-CH2-LP, SSAU-003-CH2-FP).

The discussion above, concerning paragraph structure, shows that this aspect is very important in the development of the student's capacity of presenting a well formed argument. Topicality, coherence, and relevance are crucial aspects in the structuring of good argumentation. As a part of pragmatic argumentation, more attention is required by both students and supervisors to preserve this aspect, especially for the SSIU students.

### **5.3. Length and Construction of Sentences:**

The length of the sentences, as discussed in section 2.4.1.2 of chapter two of this study, should be based on readability and the reader's capacity to absorb and retain information. Therefore, long sentences, adjusting sentence length, and flexible sentence length uses vary, and through the verification of the length of the sentence in the data analysis, certain issues identified and studied. Simple, compound, and complex sentences



are the bases of the analysis. In addition to that, subordination and coordination linking helped to build a better perspective of how and why the students are using these techniques. Stylistic parataxis identification helped as well.

Simple sentences are the best choice as the writer and the reader will be able to communicate easier. One piece of information at a time is a good principle for academic writing and reflects clarity of argument. For example:

**The study of political discourse (PD henceforth) has been around for as long as politics itself.** Ancient Greeks were interested in the language of politics and its different possibilities. They considered the language of politics as an instrument to reach the truth, express art, or achieve persuasion (Lasswell, 1968: 3-4). The Greco- Roman tradition of rhetoric, which is basically the art of verbal persuasion, was a means of codifying the way public orators used language. In both the Greek polis and the Roman Empire, the rhetorical tradition played a central part in the training of political orators. This provided a framework for the observation of political verbal behavior that continued for many centuries (Chilton & Schaffner, 1997: 206- 07). **Aristotle's book 'On Rhetoric' is considered a classic in the study of rhetoric.** In this book, Aristotle states that there is nothing wrong with rhetoric, the study of the persuasive function of language, as long as it is used rationally to demonstrate the truth. **The interest in rhetorical devices continued into the Roman era. Cicero's 'On the public Speaker' is one of the most important books of the period.** As the title suggests, it aims at both depicting and prescribing effective strategies to influence audiences. **The application of the theory and practice of rhetoric were viewed as part of the political life of the community (Chilton, 2001: 584- 58).**

SSIU-018-CH2-FP

The writer here used simple sentences as much as possible. Most of these sentences present a single idea, one piece of information, or one concept. This is a good way of presenting this information. As ‘The study of political discourse (PD henceforth) has been around for as long as politics itself.’ is a simple sentence with one idea and one topic-comment form. This is ideal for the topical sentence to direct the reader to one main controlling idea that will be remembered throughout the paragraph. The writer was successful in choosing the right form in the right position. The sentence: ‘Aristotle's book

'On Rhetoric' is considered a classic in the study of rhetoric' presents an idea, in a simple sentence, that is developed later in a bigger sentence that presents more information about this idea. As the next sentence reads: 'In this book, Aristotle states that there is nothing wrong with rhetoric, the study of the persuasive function of language, as long as it is used rationally to demonstrate the truth.' This sentence presents a statement of 'Aristotle' which is argued in the second part of the sentence as it presents conditional linking 'as long as' to link these information. The writer was successful as well in other uses in the sentence construction. As this study mentioned earlier, the writer has to determine the flow of information and where and when to use each type. This is not a problem as long as the writer has pragmatic awareness of argumentation presentation. Some students were not able to present reasonable informational justification for the sentence length and construction. Consider this example:

Human language is used as a means of social interaction; it performs various social roles and expresses various communicative functions like asking questions, making requests, giving promises or commands, seeking permission, expressing possibility or ability... etc. such types of interpersonal functions of language are reflected through the modal auxiliary verbs like can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should and must.

SSIU-009-CH2-FP

In this example, the writer used one compound sentence to present many ideas with no reason of combining these ideas in one sentence. Information distribution could have been better if the writer did not combine them. There are many other examples within the data. This was noticed in the writings of SSIU-030-CH2-FP, SSIU-032-CH2-FP, SSIU-038-CH2-FP, SSIU-021-CH2-LP, SSIU-027-CH2-LP, SSAU-036-CH2-FP.

Parataxis is a stylistic device. It is mostly used when a higher level of coordination, than juxtaposition is required. It is mostly used in literary works. It can be used in academic writing as well, but with greater caution, because it reflects equal status of importance of the information. Many cases have been noticed within the data. Most of them are inadequate and made the argumentation weaker. The previous example consists of paratactic use. It reads: 'Human language is used as a means of social interaction; it performs various social roles and expresses various communicative functions.....'.

The two clauses connected with semicolon reflects equality through parataxis. Though there is no equal status and the 'it' reference unequaled the statuses. The writer disturbed the flow of information as the reader will seek to know the reason that signaled the equality by this semicolon. Meanwhile, in other cases, there is a necessity to use paratactic device to grasp the notice of the reader to the equal importance. Consider this example:

Any writer who said otherwise lied, so the writers either wrote propaganda, shut up, or fought. Whereas, the British novelist William Golding describes it as “the most violent century in human history.”

SSIU-005-CH2-FP

The paratactic use in this sentence is necessary to preserve economic writing and that the information of the processes are of equal state 'wrote propaganda, shut up, or fought'. Therefore, paratactic uses are of great importance. They can reduce the length (one sentence is better than three) and focus for the idea (single topic with different 'processes' that enough in one comment). Still, it can cause a serious informational flow if it is misused and the writer is not fully aware of its uses and how it is used. For this reason, it is considered a higher level of pragmatic argumentation, as the better managing of language brings better techniques and produces better argumentation. For further cases within the data of inquiry, refer to these examples: SSIU-009-CH2-FP, SSIU-013-CH2-FP, SSIU-040-CH2-FP, SSIU-017-CH2-LP, SSAU-010-CH2-FP, SSAU-026-CH2-FP, SSAU-030-CH2-FP.

Consequently, from the discussion above, the uses of coordination and subordination depends on the information presentation which is the writer's estimation depending on his ability to perform successful argumentation. These uses control the length and construction of the sentence. Some other cases are seen as an exaggeration of the use of these linkers and clearly affect the argumentation. Consider this example:

While the other areas of language, such as phonology, morphology, semantics and syntax have been studied in order to determine whether or not a child with SELD will later present with SLI, one domain of language—pragmatics—has not been widely studied in regard to this issue.

SSAU-038-CH2-FP

Determining the length of the sentence reflects the ability to present a good argumentation. Nevertheless, this example shows that complexity of the sentence misled the writer and caused a failure to present strong argumentation. The complexity of this sentence is not reasonable as the uses of conjunctions and linkers to subordinate and coordinate the clauses caused flaws. These problems are of lengthening the sentence with the use of passive (will be discussed later) which all make the argument of the sentence look too weak. Considering this example, this misjudgment of the argument reflects on the whole text, as this sentence is a topic sentence. Such mistakes can develop bigger issues within all the pragmatic argumentation aspects and for the entire text.

Length and construction of the sentence is an important aspect of better academic writing. The length construction should be governed by a higher level with which an argumentation is introduced, discussed, and concluded at sentence level and in connection with the topic and context level. Parataxis and other techniques can be used to make the argument stronger. Yet, these uses should be within the pragmatic capacity of the writer to avoid mistakes and flaws.

#### **5.4. Organization of information in sentences:**

As this study concerns with, there are aspects that should be preserved to introduce a comprehensively pragmatic argumentation that commensurate with the required quality of the academic writing. Organization of the information in sentences and paragraphs is a very important aspect.

The structural relation of the theme and rheme (agent-predicate) is the relation when the argumentation is coherent with the topical sentence as well as other sentences. Certain techniques can preserve this relation. Within the sentence, a given-new sequence of information is important in order enable the reader to build the structure of ideas correctly and in accordance with the information presenting style used by the writer. First, the topic location within the sentence as a given information should be preserved. Consider this paragraph:

**Many scholars and writers recommend Ideology and consider it a very important element in the translation process. Its importance** lies in that it is considered the systematic body of concepts especially about human life or

culture. **It is** the manner or content of thinking characteristic of an individual, group, or culture. **It is** the integrated assertions, theories and aims that constitute a sociopolitical program. **It is** a body of ideas reflecting the social needs and aspirations of an individual, group, class, or culture. **A set of doctrines or beliefs that** form the basis of a political, economic, or other system.

SSIU-012-CH2-FP

This example shows that the first sentence is a topical sentence and the rest of the paragraph is bind to this sentence's idea. Except for the last sentence which presents information about the same subject, yet the informational order is incorrect as the theme in it is a new information 'A set of doctrines or beliefs'. The process of this sentence belongs to the agent 'A set of doctrines or beliefs' which have not been mentioned before. The writer's intention is to refer to the subject of the topic but was unsuccessful because the order was incorrect. Previous sentences preserved these rules as they all referred to the subject clearly by using 'it' as a reference. The writer could have overcome this issue easily by forming the sentence as following: 'It is set of doctrines or beliefs' or '**Ideology** is a set of doctrines or beliefs'.

Another example shows how these relational flaws may affect the entire argumentation. consider this example:

**To orientate the reader toward an understanding of the principals involved in the psychotherapeutic use of general semantics, the writer will attempt to present in this early phase of the study a description of the more pertinent proposals of general semantics so that a more fundamental understanding of the issues involved can he attained.** The purpose of this chapter is to familiarize the reader with terminology and concepts involved in general semantics. It is divided in parts according to the different terms presented.

SSAU-029-CH2-FP

The example above shows a lot of argumentative unclearness. As the first sentence is the topic sentence, it should be clearer in topic-comment relation as well as with less information in it. Considering this sentence as a point of departure for the paragraph, it should be more direct in its argument. It consists of three separate ideas. The first is 'orientate the reader toward an understanding of the principals involved in the

psychotherapeutic use of general semantics’. The second is ‘the writer will attempt to present in this early phase of the study a description of the more pertinent proposals of general semantics’. The third is ‘more fundamental understanding of the issues involved can be attained’. This sentence presents the topic (reason), the comment (writer’s measure for the topic), and another comment (results for these measures). These three ideas will leave the reader uncertain of what the writer will discuss or presents in the coming sentences as the topic idea is unclear. Such mistakes result in unsuccessful academic argumentation.

The flow of information determines the quality of the text. In some cases, the thematic relations are preserved, yet the argumentation is not present. Consider this example:

**While the other areas of language, such as phonology, morphology, semantics and syntax have been studied in order to determine whether or not a child with SELD will later present with SLI, one domain of language—pragmatics—has not been widely studied in regard to this issue. Pragmatics is the study of how we use language to communicate with others. The study of pragmatics is imperative to understanding how children engage in interaction with their parents. Because children with SELD are being studied as young as 24 months, and are therefore developmentally restricted to one and two word utterances, it is vital to understand how they use the language they do possess to communicate with their parents (or most frequent communication partner).**

SSAU-038-CH2-FP

The writer here presents ‘pragmatics’ as a partial idea, or as much as it is concerned, with its relation to the topic ‘a child with SELD will later present with SLI’. Later, in the second sentence, he presents a general idea about ‘pragmatics’ which is a wider area than the topic idea itself, a partial aspect in relation to ‘pragmatics’. This is a deviation, even when its given-new relation is preserved, because the reader’s focus is on the topic and supposed to be aware of the idea of ‘pragmatics’ in advance. The informational sequence here is not preserved. Later, the writer adds ‘The study of pragmatics’ which is a further deviating. These information should have been presented earlier or the topic sentence should have been formed differently to present the information in a correct order while preserving these relations.

Some students did not consider these rules. On the other hand, some students successfully preserved these rules by using two measures. One of the measures the writer can use to preserve this proportion is that the use of the passive voice. Marking and unmarking the theme is an excellent way to keep the flow of information in its correct direction. This can be done by the use of the passive voice to shift the theme-rheme structure to preserve the given-new information. Consider this example:

**Many of Robinson's characters suffer from loneliness, for he thinks that it is one of life's hard realities.** As will be mentioned in the next chapter, the "Man Against the Sky," who represents everyman, may have different paths to follow, but whatever way he chooses "mostly alone he goes." ("The Man Against the Sky" l. 22) **However, his characters' loneliness is not mentioned to provoke sentiments or as an end by itself; rather, it is portrayed in a way that would show the characters' endurance and fortitude, a fact which is compatible with Robinson's love of idealism.**

SSIU-035-CH2-LP

This example shows how the writer was able to preserve the given-new structure. The topic of this paragraph is 'Robinson's characters', and the writer, in the third sentence, used passive voice to mark the theme 'his characters' by saying: 'his characters' loneliness **is not mentioned** to provoke sentiments'. This use is excellent. For that the given information is preserved in the theme position and the new information are presented later. Eliminating the doer of the action in this sentence is also useful as to make the text more economic. The regular form would be: 'Robinson did not mention his characters' loneliness to provoke sentiments'. This form would be less argument's preservative, as the theme will be different from the paragraph's topic.

As academic writing, the preferred form of the doer of the action 'the researcher' is to be passivized. As it is either pre-identified as the writer himself or considered unimportant. Consider this example:

**This chapter deals with the theoretical part in which some of the main concepts are to be covered.** The chapter **will be devoted** to introducing the concepts of pragmatics and speech acts. In addition, this chapter includes other topics like the components of speech acts, the other sections are concerned

with performance in using speech acts; types and patterns will be presented. Examining these aspects will help the researcher in designing and submitting the test in the coming chapter.

SSIU-010-CH2-FP

In this example, the writer passivized the second sentence to preserve two rules. In this sentence ‘The chapter will be devoted’, the writer eliminated himself as the writer of the text, unlike some other writer who may mention themselves as the doers of the writing by using ‘I’. And, with this he preserved the theme ‘this chapter’ as the given information in the construction of the sentence. These successful uses make the text more organized and the flow of information is more smooth.

Passive voice can be used as well to present the topic in its best manner. Consider this example:

**Discourse is considered a controversial term which is utilized by different linguists from diverse views.** Crystal (2008:125) defines discourse as "a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon, argument, joke or narrative" while Cook (1989:156) defines it as "stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified and purposive". Nunan (1993:6) sees that discourse as a term is being used in a number of different ways by different scholars based on diverse approaches, and this leads to a wide disagreement on its use.

SSIU-007-CH2-FP

The writer here uses the passive form in presenting the topic and identifying the agent(s) throughout the rest of the text. The writer states ‘Discourse is considered a controversial term’ and later the writer reveals the doer of the ‘considered’ process throughout the text. The writer builds the flow of information throughout the text on the bases of the identification of the ‘agent’ of the topic sentence. This is a good technique that is common and can help the writer create a successful argument with a better organization of the information as well as persuasion for the reader.

In addition to that, the use of the passive voice form can help in reducing the length of the sentence yet preserving the information given, and be more economic than



the regular form (this is also possible with the use of parataxis, as explained earlier). Consider this example:

**Garrett (1986: 7) states that "Poetry is a composed form of expression and seeks a response which is simultaneously emotional and intellectual".** Furniss and Bath (1996: 3) assert that it is a well-known fact that a precise and satisfactory definition of poetry is very difficult to provide. Even the features of poetry, **which are usually taken for granted, are often questioned in discussions of poetry**, including the category of poetry itself.

SSIU-001-CH2-FP

This example shows that the writer uses the passive voice in two clauses ‘which are usually taken for granted’ and ‘are often questioned in discussions of poetry’. This use is both economic, for that the writer merged three sentences into one. And, preserving the theme-rheme relation by using ‘which’ to refer to the topic. These techniques can help the writer to produce better academic argumentation. It is worth mentioning that, though this aspect is well formed in this sentence, yet other argumentation aspects are not preserved and this sentence has other problems.

To sum up, the overall number of the students who were able to preserve this aspect is good but not as good as should be. Students at this level of writing should produce better writing, never mentioning that the feedback by the supervisor as well as the multiple readings for the study by both of them in addition to the defense committee.

### **5.5. Vocabulary**

Text has certain characteristics that determine its quality. One characteristic that can determine the quality of the text is its vocabulary. Recently, after the computerization of text analysis, a collection of variety of texts was collected into one database with different subcategories in accordance to their register. This database is a good reference to evaluate the vocabulary uses of almost any given text. This study’s data were input into the COCA database and showed reasonable results that, with these results, one can judge how the students were specific in their writings as well as their academic background knowledge.

The students' results varied. Some of the students were able to perform excellent argumentation through sticking to academic quality level. Consider this example:

Stylistics is simply known as the linguistic approach to the analysis of the style of literary works (Jeffries and McIntyre, 2010: 1). Nevertheless, stylistic techniques can also be applied to texts of other types rather than literature. Stylistics is concerned with the explanation of the relationship between the linguistic expression on one hand and the artistic value, the functional significance of the interpretation of the text and its effect on the reader on the other hand.

SSIU-008-CH2-FP

This example shows that 26% of the text used academic words (yellow and green). In addition to this, 16% are discipline words (red). As one can see, this paragraph is rich in information and the writer effectively presents his argumentation. The text is rich in related vocabulary as well as being economic. Such texts can show the quality of pragmatic argumentation ability for the writer.

On the other hand, some student's writings were not academic at all. The ratio was very low and the text was affected by this result. For example:

The Little Foxes was staged on February 15, 1939, at the National Theater in New York. It was produced by Herman Shumlin. Hellman said: It is a drama of morality which depicts a family just as it was on the way to the achievements which were to bring it wealth or failure, fame or obloquy. At the final curtain the Hubbards are just starting to get on in the world in a big way, but their various futures, individually and collectively, I like to think I leave to the imagination of the audience. I meant to be neither misanthropic nor cynical, merely truthful and realistic.

SSIU-023-CH2-FP

The writer here missed two things. First, the text is not economic as too many words describe one thing, e.g., 'At the final curtain the Hubbards are just starting to get on in the world in a big way, but their'. All these words are unnecessary words that affect the argumentation that the writer is trying to deliver. Second, the writer used very little academic expressions with a ratio of 10% (yellow and green) and discipline words of 6% (red) ratio. The writer here deviated from academic writing as the narration style can be

seen clearly in the text. This text could have been formed better if it has used more academic words with less irrelevant words. Some students were free to invent words that look like a core discipline words, yet they do not belong to any discipline or academic writing. Consider this paragraph:

Mackowski's model seems to indicate that when semantic reduction occurs, whether it is through **grammaticalization or reanalysis**, it is largely due to the speaker's intuition in the PF.

SSAU-018-CH2-LP

In this paragraph, the writer used 'grammaticalization' and 'reanalysis' as academic expressions. The COCA response to these words is: (words must occur at least 10 times in the 450-million-word COCA corpus). To make sure of these results, a separate search was conducted through Google search and these expressions were found widely used in 'Historical Linguistics' and 'Discourse Analysis' respectively. The COCA corpus in this reference case is not correct. As further errors may occur, the reliability of the COCA is questionable for either for its error ratios or its accuracy in analysis. As much as this research concerns, the ratio is neglectable as the data was double checked and small amount of errors discovered such as in the example above.

As a result, reading different academic texts can help the students to produce a comprehensive academic text. As well as referring to some word inventories that belong to the academic register. A low academic percentage indicates low overall writing skills, less coherence, and less economy of text. All these aspects affect for relatively significant level over the academic argumentation quality of the texts.

The analyzed data showed small differences in the results between the SSIU and the SSAU data. Both data are considered relatively inconvenient and insufficient to produce a strong academic argumentation. Academic writing requires more attention to vocabulary to produce better academic text and more economic language.

### **5.6. Topicality**

Topicality is a crucial aspect of argumentation. There is no argumentation without a topic. The analyzed data showed some of the students did not preserve this aspect in

their writing. To give a topic is to present an argument point that all the following information will be bind, abed, and controlled by this idea. Consider this paragraph:

Garrett (1986: 7) states that "Poetry is a composed form of expression and seeks a response which is simultaneously emotional and intellectual". Furniss and Bath (1996: 3) assert that it is a well-known fact that a precise and satisfactory definition of poetry is very difficult to provide. Even the features of poetry, which are usually taken for granted, are often questioned in discussions of poetry, including the category of poetry itself. In this concern, they state that "It is revealing that M.H. Abrams does not provide an entry on 'poetry' in his 'Glossary of Literary Terms', though he does give entries on 'novel' and 'drama' ". Furniss and Bath (ibid.) observe that, the traditional approach to poetry attempts to give a definition of poetry but "usually ends up trying to define it against what it is not". Consequently, they propose three interrelated ways of defining poetry; (1) poetry can be defined as a 'genre' because it is distinct from other literary genres as well as non-literary genres, (2) it can be contrasted with the ordinary use of language, based on the features of language, and (3) it can be differentiated from prose on the basis of graphological arrangement on the page.

SSIU-001-CH2-FP

The student in this paragraph is trying to give a definition of 'poetry' starting by quoting the literature. The citation at the beginning of a paragraph indicates that the paragraph will discuss the cited material or the literature writer's point of view. As one can see, this sentence will not be the argument of the rest of the paragraph. Yet, the second sentence can be a good start to prepare the reader for what is to come, which is in this paragraph, the definition of 'poetry'. The topic sentence is not as clear a topic as well as the second could be, and this is reflected in both the coherence and the relevance of the text. This issue occurred in many cases and in variety of issues. In some of these cases one can see that the topic sentence is unclear (SSIU-020-CH2-FP), present a topic that differs from the rest of the paragraph (SSAU-035-CH2-FP), uncovered argument throughout the rest of the paragraph (SSIU-036-CH2-FP), incomplete topic sentence (SSAU-032-CH2-LP), prolonged topic sentence (SSAU-036-CH2-LP), or even informative sentence as a topic (SSAU-028-CH2-LP). In addition to these cases, topic development errors and shifting in topic occurred. Consider this paragraph:

Language is the body of words and systems used commonly by people who are of the same community, nation, geographical area or cultural tradition. It is a form of communication which is distinctively a human practice. This form of communication employs arbitrary symbols in conventional ways with conventional systems. Efficient communication skills are fundamental to a child's ability to learn and interact within any community (Sydney, 1989). Lahey (1990) stated that language is the knowledge that underlies observable behaviors. The specific functions of language, discourse rules, and the rules of interaction vary from culture to culture (Mattes & Oroark, 1984).

SSAU-025-CH2-FP

This paragraph's topic is about 'language' (new topic) in relation to its use by 'people who are of the same community, nation, geographical area or cultural tradition' (comment). As one can see this topic was not preserved in the rest of the paragraph. The second sentence introduced 'language' (topic) within its 'form of communication' (comment) perspective and the rest of the paragraph will be unclear in the direction it is taking as a shift in topic occurred in the second. Moreover, continuity of the second sentence's topic shifts in the third sentence. The third sentence is talking about different topic which is 'Efficient communication skills'(topic) in relation with 'child's ability' (comment). In the closing sentence there is a completely new topic which is the variation of 'The specific functions of language, discourse rules, and the rules of interaction' from one culture to another.

The examples mentioned above are clear in showing that, at a certain level of pragmatic argument, 40% of the SSIU did not preserve topicality and present good argumentation in their writings. In addition, 13.75% of the SSAU did not either. This, in addition to the variety of the issues in preserving this aspect, as discussed in the examples above, show that a great deal of attention is required by both the writer and the advisor to preserve this vital aspect. The 13.75% of the SSAU is slightly more than acceptable. While, the 40% of the SSIU raises alert.

### **5.7. Discourse Markers**

Discourse markers can show the quality of a text. Texts can run without discourse markers but with difficulty. The importance of this aspect lies within the smoothness of

the presentation of information. They reasonably connect the sentences into one body of ideas. The use of this technique is important in certain texts. They are especially important in academic writing, to be more precise, in the writings of graduate students. They are a very important guide for the reader. Its importance lies within the identification of the relationship between the ideas, as well as to make the reader to connect the ideas between the current sentence and the approaching one.

The results of the given data showed that the highest use was the use of ‘however’. ‘However’ is a contrastive marker that belongs to the basic form and formal use (see table 3 in chapter 2 of this study). The rate of this marker within the COCA is 1.0 per million. Meanwhile, ‘nevertheless’ which is more formal, as categorized in table 3 mentioned above, had rate of 1.7 per million in the COCA corpus. ‘Nevertheless’ was used only 20 times by SSAU and 28 times by the SSIU, in comparison with ‘however’ which was used 333 times by the SSAU and 234 by the SSIU. This shows that though the uses of the discourse markers were high, these uses were different from the common uses of the COCA and of less formality which indicates less awareness of these uses.

Argumentation development and production can be refined by the use of these discourse markers in their best manner. Consider this example.

The decision to adopt Fraser’s segmental approach to analyzing discourse was **primarily** based on three reasons. **First**, although H&H maintain the position throughout Cohesion in English that cohesion is, **strictly speaking**, important mainly at the intersentential level, they are compelled to make some exceptions (see, e.g., pp. 232-233, for a discussion of conjunctive adjuncts occurring “in written English following a colon or semicolon”). The **second** reason for my decision to adopt Fraser’s discourse segment-level approach relates to the fact that developmental L1 and L2 writers often struggle with appropriate punctuation. This often results in problems such as “run-on sentences,” which shouldn’t be conflated with an analysis of cohesive devices. **Finally**, as will be shown in the review of Fraser’s work on DMs, a DM might signal the same cohesive relationship between two segments of discourse punctuated, **for example**, by a period, a comma, or a semicolon, with little or no difference in meaning or cohesive force. In all cases the same cohesive relationship would exist between the discourse segments. **To say, then**, that only

segments separated by a period (full stop) are cohesive seems arbitrary. **Therefore**, both (1:13a) below, which is an example of cohesion created by (in H&H's terms) non-structural (i.e. intersentential) means, and (1:13b), which is an example of cohesion created by structural (i.e. syntactic) means, will be considered cohesive for the purposes of the present study (examples from H&H, p. 9, their numbering).

SSAU-033-CH2

This paragraph shows the arrangement of the information sequence is organized through discourse markers. Although, some of them are not mentioned within the selected markers list, their use is noticeable. The writer organized the text into steps by using 'first' 'second' and 'finally' to present three groups of information. As well, the writer used 'strictly speaking', 'for example', 'To say, then', to direct the reader. Finally, the writer used 'Therefore' to conclude these ideas. This awareness of connecting and distributing the ideas is very much required to produce a high quality text. This text could have been formed without these discourse markers, as many students in the analyzed data did, yet, the text would be of different quality and of different argumentational evaluation.

As a quantitative analysis of this aspect of argumentation, examples would be, in this case, less easily to find and exemplified qualitatively. Nevertheless, students' writings, as a whole text, were widely different. The 30% of the whole text use of discourse markers by SSAU-033 is no match with the 1.29% use of SSAU-002. Meanwhile, the 15.18% of the whole text use of discourse markers by SSIU-031 is way different from the 0.89% use of SSIU-039. Such results indicate that, on one hand, there are students that heavily depending on discourse markers to build a clear argumentation and on the other hand, there are students that almost do not know anything about it.

As a conclusion, some points were identified. The first is that more practice does not necessarily mean less errors. Error rates of the last paragraph for some students are equal or even more than the first paragraph. This indicates that the student did not develop his writing through the course of writing. The second is that the advisor's role of feedback and observation was not as required in many cases. The advisor's role is to observe and review every single argumentation in relation with the topic. Therefore, relevance,

coherence, and topicality are within this level. The third is that the student's ability to produce comprehensive argumentation is bound to his ability to develop himself throughout the course of writing his dissertation. Certain elements are required to achieve this goal.

As a comparison between the students' levels of ability of production, SSAU were able to perform better in some aspects and less in other aspects. SSIU were less capable of producing such quality of results. This could be due to the differences in the settings which are conducted in this study. The overall argumentative level reflected the pragmatic awareness and capability to produce a high quality academic work.





## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1. Introduction

This study has reached a point of which a conclusion can be hypothesized and conducted. The full observation of these conclusions made the researcher able to suggest recommendations for further such studies. These conclusions and recommendations are the concern of this chapter.

#### 6.2. Achievements and strengths of the Study

##### 6.2.1. Data analysis conclusions:

The analyzed data showed variety of statistics due to the variety of its aspects of analysis. To reach a clear overall conclusion, I will conduct a separate conclusion for each aspect separately and then give a major conclusion of the whole data under analysis.

**(A) Paragraph structure:** Different issues were detected within the student's writings, both on the sentence level and paragraph level. The coherence of the selected data showed that SSIU has a higher rate of error than of the SSAU data. The SSIU data showed up to 35% errors in the coherence of their writings, while, the SSAU showed no more than 16.25% which is less than half. This suggests that the SSAU were more capable of presenting a coherent argument within their writing. In addition, irrelevant statements presented in the SSIU writings were 32.5%, while the SSAU showed 11.25% in this issue. This indicates that SSIU were less able to maintain relevance in their writings.

The relationship between topicality, coherence, and relevance is crucial. A sentence may not preserve topicality if it does not preserve its internal topic-comment relation. A shift in topic may occur when the topic-comment relation is not preserved correctly. In a wider perspective, to present a well-constructed paragraph, the presented information should be coherent with the topic and the relevance between the sentences and the topic sentence should be well constructed.

What is noted as well is that developing a paragraph in one single sentence does not help the development of an argument. These unclear consequences of topicality affect

the coherence of the text. Nevertheless, a shift in topicality is common because of the incoherent sentences which can affect the relevance as well. This affects the closing sentence of the paragraph.

The inability of some of the students to adequately adapt this aspect of writing in order to develop a strong argument requires more attention by both students and supervisors to preserve this aspect, especially for the SSIU students.

**(B) Length and Construction of Sentences:** Length and construction of the sentence is an important aspect of more effective academic writing. The length and construction should be governed by a higher level factor with which argumentation is introduced, discussed, and concluded at sentence level and in connection with the topic and context level.

As concluded from the literature reviewed in the second chapter of this study, simple sentences are the best choice as the writer and the reader will be able to communicate easier. One information at a time is a good technique for academic writing and reflects clarity of argument. Nevertheless, the writer has to determine the flow of information and where and when to use each type. This should be a problem as long as the writer has pragmatic awareness of argumentation presentation. Some students were not able to present reasonable informational justification for the sentence length and construction.

The analyzed data showed few differences between the SSIU and the SSAU in sentence construction. Compound sentences were the dominant and most common in the texts of both SSAUs and SSIUs. The use of complex sentences as well was relatively close as well. The only major difference was noticed in the SSIU's use of simple sentences with a rate of 11.65% while the SSAU's rate was 4%. One can conclude throughout these results that the SSIU students use of simple sentence should have served a better purpose in presenting a more relevant and coherent argument in their texts. Yet, that did not happen. The paragraph structure aspect that was discussed above showed something different. This indicates that the length of the sentence serves less important role in the building of a good argument.

Arguments within the compound and complex sentences were presented through coordination and subordination, as well as parataxis. As a conclusion, the uses of coordination and subordination depend on the information presentation which is the writer's estimation and depends on his ability to form successful argumentation. These uses control the length and construction of the sentence. Some cases are seen as an exaggeration of the use of these linkers and clearly affect the argumentation negatively. Sometimes the complexity of the sentences is not reasonable as the uses of conjunctions and linkers to subordinate and coordinate the clauses may cause flaws.

Information flow should be the writers' main concern in selecting the length of a sentence. The writer should preserve the structure of the sentence and its topicality and condition the length and construction of the sentences to present better argumentation. Information distribution can be disturbed by combining many ideas in one sentence. Therefore, the topic-comment form must be considered in writing any argument and determining its length accordingly. Throughout the analysis and conclusion of the paragraph structure, one can conclude that the topical sentence should be simple and present one idea to direct the reader clearly throughout the paragraph.

Parataxis uses were mostly used when a higher level of coordination than juxtaposition is required. Parataxis and other techniques can be used to make the argument stronger. It can be used in academic writing but with great caution because it reflects equal state of importance of the information. As a conclusion of the analysis of this construction, most of cases that have been noticed within the data are inadequate and made the argumentation weaker. Meanwhile, in some cases, there is a necessity to use paratactic device to grasp the notice of the reader to the equal importance. The importance of the paratactic use is that it can reduce the length and focus of the idea (single topic with different 'aspects of discussion' that is enough in one comment). Yet, the use of parataxis should be within the pragmatic capacity of the writer to avoid mistakes and flaws.

**(C) Organization of Information:** By studying this aspect from three perspectives, the researcher came to a number of conclusions. Each of the three main organizational features: agent predicate relation, argumentation (subject Complement identification), and marked and unmarked theme helped to create a solid conclusion.

As for the agent predicate relation, 72.5% of the SSIU writings preserved this relation. While, 82.5% of the SSAU did so. A considerable number of the students were not able to preserve the topic location within the sentence as given information. Agent-predicate relation is the relation when the argumentation is coherent with the topic sentence as well as other sentences. The writer should build the flow of information throughout the text on this base which is the identification of the 'agent' of the topic sentence. This aspect can be preserved by different ways. The marking and unmarking of the theme of the sentence is one way that can help in creating correct agent predicate relation.

The passive voice also makes an important contribution concerning this issue. Passivizing the sentence preserves two rules. First, the writer should eliminate himself as the writer of the text. Second, the writer should preserve the theme as the given information in the construction of the sentence. In addition to that, the use of passive voice can help in reducing the length of the sentence yet preserving the information given, and be more economic than the active form. Unfortunately, the use of the passive voice could not prevent such issues. This gives a certainty that a considerable amount of the students used this technique without being aware of its function. This was indicated when the use of passive form within the analyzed texts was 35% in both SSIU and SSAU. With such rates, fewer issues should occur. Yet, passive voice, mostly, was not used properly by both groups.

The overall concept of argumentation was not preserved correctly in many cases throughout the data that has been analyzed. More than 30% of the SSIU students did not preserve this aspect while around 23% of the SSAU did as well. Both rates seem high if we consider the academic level of the students within this rank and capacity of writing a post-graduate dissertation. They should produce better level, never mentioning that the feedback by the supervisor as well as the multiple readings for the study by both of them in addition to the defense committee. The results led the researcher to come to the conclusion that the presentation of many ideas in one single sentence was often the issue that caused this. This incorrect presentation of argumentation leaves the reader uncertain of what the writer will discuss or presents in the coming sentences, especially if it is the topic idea. Such mistakes result in unsuccessful academic argumentation.

**(D) Vocabulary:** This aspect shows the quality of the writing as well as the pragmatic level of these students. The level of academic vocabulary used by both SSIU and SSAU were not as expected. The results between them were similar with an average of 16-19% of the overall words were in COCA's 1-500 standard of academic words. The overall discipline relevant words showed a low average of both SSIU and SSAU, yet the SSIU has double the usage of the SSAU words amount.

It is worth saying that, individually, some students were able to present paragraphs that are rich in information and effectively presented their argumentation. A conclusion through the analysis is made which is that a text that is rich in relative vocabulary can produce an effective argumentation as an economic text. Such texts can clearly show the quality of the pragmatic argumentation ability for the writer. Meanwhile, some other students were free to invent words that look like a core discipline's words, yet they do not belong to any discipline or academic writing.

Nevertheless, the most common results indicate that extra and irrelevant words can strongly affect the idea of argumentation that the writer is trying to deliver. Low academic frequency indicates weak overall writing skills, less coherence, and less economical texts. All these aspects have a relatively significant effect over the academic argumentation quality of the texts.

**(E) Topicality:** Topicality is interrelated with the structure of the paragraph that was explained earlier. Error in comprehending topicality results in errors in both coherence and relevance of the sentence and the text.

The analyzed data produced a variety of issues that are discussed in the analysis chapter. These issues are: a citation at the beginning of a paragraph, unclear topic sentence, topic that is different from the paragraph, topical argument that is uncovered throughout the rest of the paragraph, incomplete topic sentence, prolonged topic sentence, even informative sentence as a topic, topic development errors, and shifting in topic.

These issues could have been ignored if they were less frequent for the students in focus, yet 40% of the SSIU were not able to preserve topicality and present good argumentation in their writings. In addition, 13.75% of the SSAU did too. The 13.75% of the SSAU is slightly more acceptable, while 40% of the SSIU raises concerns.

**(F) Discourse Markers:** Constructing a good argument requires many elements to be considered such as topicality, length, structure, and vocabulary. Yet the flow of information in a text can be controlled and directed by the use of the discourse markers as discussed earlier in this study. The importance of this aspect lies within the smoothness of the presentation of information. They logically connect the sentences into one body of ideas.

The results are varied and one can note that the highest cluster frequency can be found in the writing of SSIU whereas the lowest one can be seen clearly in the writing of SSAU. Such results indicate that, on one hand, there are students who heavily depend on discourse markers to build clear argumentation and on the other hand, there are students who do not.

#### **6.2.2. Comparative results' conclusions:**

To create a reasonable comparative conclusion, a rule should be put to verify the importance of the aspects in discussion so that a better perspective can initiate these comparative conclusions. From the analysis and the results discussed earlier, one can conclude that there are major features through which an argument can be acceptable either academically or pragmatically. These features are, according to their importance: topicality; organization of information (agent predicate relation and argumentation 'subject Complement'); and paragraph structure (coherence and relevance). Other aspects can serve as an auxiliary function that can help presenting the major aspects above in better manner. These aspects are: length and construction of sentence type, coordination, subordination, and parataxis; organization of Information 'marked and unmarked theme'; and vocabulary. Nevertheless, both aspects are important in creating an argument.

All these aspects can help identify the key difference between SSIUs and SSAUs. On the one hand, Iraqi universities students showed lower capabilities in constructing an argument that preserves topicality, organization of Information, and a coherent and relevant paragraph structure, while the students who studied in American universities were better in presenting their argument, yet, their abilities were not as expected with not that much big difference in some aspects. This reflects the fact that the role of the supervisor was not as expected, especially, when considering the feedback and other

factors. On the other hand, Iraqi universities students were strong in paragraph construction and using discourse markers, yet, most of these uses did not help prevent the fact that their arguments could not compete with the SSAU writings.

As a conclusion, some points were identified. The first is that more practice does not necessarily mean fewer errors. Error rates of the last paragraph for some students are equal or even more than the first paragraph. This indicates that the students did not develop their writing through the course of writing. The second is that the advisor's role of feedback and observation was not as required in many cases. The advisor's role is to observe and review every single argumentation in relation with the topic. The third is that the students' ability to produce comprehensive argumentation is bound to their ability to develop their selves throughout the course of dissertation writing. Certain elements are required to achieve this goal.

This study showed how important it is to study the existing approaches to pragmatics and discourse in accordance with the selected aspects in reflection of the students' background and whether they deal with English as a native, second, or foreign language students. Throughout the course of this study, much evidence was collected that these aspects have proven to be the core of such investigations and that there is no much need to involve studying other aspects that are of less significance and importance. The forming of a text with pragmatic and stylistic effects, in academic writing, requires highly proficient writers. Learners of English who reached post-graduate level of study should have awareness of the pragmatic aspects involved in writing an academic research.

From all that is mentioned above, important pragmatic issues can be avoided by considering certain framework in both instructing post-graduate students as well as their supervisors. The conclusion of this study makes such framework available and for that this will be discussed in the recommendations part of this chapter.

### **6.2.3. Methodological evaluation and conclusions:**

The method used in this research was adopted to fit the required information that needs to be extracted from the data and build results that can strengthen the hypothesis of this study. Both the software that was used and the framework that was applied are the

focus of the conclusion that both played a significant role in the resulting analysis and conclusions.

The software used in the analysis of the data of this study was Stanford's NLP, COCA, GrammarScope, and HyperResearch. COCA showed interesting results and can be relied on for investigating the relativity of one's writing with other contemporary writings. The only note is that there could be minor rates at which error can occur. Identifying certain words may fall in on other discipline category as noticed earlier in the analysis chapter of this study. COCA's rule is that words must occur at least 10 times in the 450-million-word. This rule covers the entire data analyzed with only one error. Thus, it can be neglected. GrammarScope gave detailed information about the data which for this research is more than sufficient, yet the only problem is that it consumes high processing resources and requires a powerful machine to process long texts. Stanford's NLP did a better job. Although GrammarScope is based on the Stanford's NLP core and it is offline software, yet, Stanford's NLP server's processing of the data was way faster. Still, Stanford's NLP is also limited to a certain amount of text input. Wordle offered a good free word cloud service. It was more reliable than HyperResearch. Yet, HyperResearch is an offline qualitative data analysis software but with limited options on its free version. AntConc is very handy and useful when it comes to corpus creation and analyzing. Though it processes large amount of data with a lot of resources, yet its time consumption is relatively of small inconsiderable amount. Additionally, it is free of charge and can give accurate results. Abdlhameed's (2016) method, which has been used in this study, showed good results.

However, it cannot be applied to larger amounts of data. Within the context of this research, it was sufficient and reliable.

The framework of this study varied in its purpose. The conducted framework was reliable and solid which is the reason that this study reached such solid point of justification. As preceded, each aspect was analyzed in accordance with its framework, so each aspect can be used, modified, and/or conducted individually depending on the settings of the research.



### **6.3. Weaknesses of the Study**

This study is limited to its settings, as discussed earlier, yet, its outlines can be easily extended to cover other writings' registers and other writing requirements. This is because of the nature of this study. Sentence level, that has been discussed and analyzed in this study, can fit any type of writing. Sentence length and construction, sentences relevance, agent predicate relation, and subject complement relation can fit for almost every writing register. Organization of Information and topicality are common in every type of writing except for minor differences. Vocabulary and discourse markers have their uniqueness and distinctive features for every type of text. Those are the only aspects that are limited to this study. Other aspects can be easily adapted to almost all sorts of registers.

### **6.4. Recommendation for Further Research**

The study's conclusions can be pointed as follow:

- Argumentation should be taught to graduate students as an individual course. They should know how to make a claim and support it with evidence. These courses should be selected carefully in accordance with the settings of the students. These settings, such as study type, students' pre-academic courses, and their overall pragmatic level that is required to enroll in the institution in focus, are very important. A preparative evaluative test is highly recommended to evaluate the students, as well as further research into such a model can help very much in selecting the suitable course for the students to develop their abilities in academic writings.
- Developing students' counter argumentation is of the very same importance for the students. For they should have a deep understanding of the issue he/she is discussing with his/her counterargument.
- Critical reading is a very important issue to be taking into consideration in presenting an effective argument. Students should be encouraged, guided, and tested to develop their ability in how to perform critical reading and reducing their pragmatic gap. Future studies of each of the above topics will contribute and enrich the field of academic writing.

- Future studies may aim at including other aspects of academic writing. For example, formality, preciseness, explicitness, ...etc.
- The focus of this study was on the pragmatics of argumentation in academic writing, it is possible to examine the argumentation from semantico-syntactic viewpoint, Semantico-pragmatic viewpoint, or even from the viewpoint of the differences and similarities between writing in L1 and L2.
- Future research may examine the teaching strategies that guide learner to present argument. These strategies may include presenting a problem, information processing, reading techniques, solving these problems, and reaching a conclusion. Further research of this sort will be of great benefit for the learners and all who works in the field of academia.
- This study may be replicated with a different set of data to see if the hypothesis is supported and the results lead to the same research findings.
- Academic writing should be intimately and vitally connected with all the other subject- matter taught to students in the school to the university level.
- Further shaping and developing for the method used in this study is recommended to reach a point with which a standardization of academic writing requirements would be at hand.

### **6.5. Concluding Remarks**

Learners of English who reached the post-graduate level of study should have awareness of the pragmatic aspects involved in writing an academic research. These aspects are (according to their importance): topicality; organization of Information (agent predicate relation and argumentation ‘subject Complement’) and paragraph structure (coherence and relevance). Other aspects can serve as an auxiliary function that can help presenting the major aspects above in better manner. These aspects are: length and construction that of sentence type, coordination, subordination, and parataxis; organization of Information ‘marked and unmarked theme’; and vocabulary. As for the most important aspect that is ‘topicality’ it requires attention to certain basic rules. Some of which are: citation at the beginning of a paragraph, unclear topic sentence, change of topic in the paragraph, topical argument that is uncovered throughout the rest of the

paragraph, incomplete topic sentence, prolonged topic sentence, informative sentence as a topic, topic development errors, and shifting in topic.

After topicality, organization of the information that is to be presented in the text should be considered for many reasons. The writer should build the flow of information throughout the text on the base which is the identification of the ‘agent’ of the topic sentence and the informative relevance of every single piece of information. To present a successful academic argumentation, certain mistakes should be avoided. Such incorrect presentation of the argumentation will leave the reader uncertain of what the writer will discuss or presents in the coming sentences, especially if it is the topic idea.

All structural constructions and models of language will eventually be conditioned and adopted in order to present a comprehensive solid pragmatic argumentation. Length and Construction of a paragraph and down to its sentences will help achieving the purpose of the text. The length of the sentence serves less important role in the building of a good argument. By using certain constructions such as coordination, subordination, passive voice, as well as parataxis the writer can control the length and construction of the sentence, all of which to achieve the text’s goals. Information flow should be the writers’ main concern in selecting these uses. The flow of information in a text can be controlled and directed by the use of the discourse markers. Preserving all the above can bring an equilibrium between information and the style. This reflects uniqueness for every single writer. In addition to that, the quality of the pragmatic argumentation ability for the writer can be reflected by his vocabulary. A text that is rich in relative vocabulary can produce a better argumentation as well as an economic text.

The lack of the knowledge of most of these uses by the post-graduate students in focus reflected certain issues that are discussed, elaborated, and concluded to help preventing such issues. This was achieved by using a method that was varied to fit the required information that is needed to be extracted from the data. Using software and a framework made these achievements even more reliable and considerable.

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## APPENDIX

### Data

#### Writing of Students studying at Iraqi Universities

##### SSIU-001-CH2-FP

Garrett (1986: 7) states that "Poetry is a composed form of expression and seeks a response which is simultaneously emotional and intellectual". Furniss and Bath (1996: 3) assert that it is a well-known fact that a precise and satisfactory definition of poetry is very difficult to provide. Even the features of poetry, which are usually taken for granted, are often questioned in discussions of poetry, including the category of poetry itself. In this concern, they state that "It is revealing that M.H. Abrams does not provide an entry on 'poetry' in his 'Glossary of Literary Terms', though he does give entries on 'novel' and 'drama' ". Furniss and Bath (ibid.) observe that, the traditional approach to poetry attempts to give a definition of poetry but "usually ends up trying to define it against what it is not". Consequently, they propose three interrelated ways of defining poetry; (1) poetry can be defined as a 'genre' because it is distinct from other literary genres as well as non-literary genres, (2) it can be contrasted with the ordinary use of language, based on the features of language, and (3) it can be differentiated from prose on the basis of graphological arrangement on the page.

##### SSIU-002-CH2-FP

The relationship between language and politics is very interconnected since language as a means of communication should be at least minimally political in the wider sense of politics and this latter one is not workable without language. Not only is it politics wherein language plays a pivotal role but also all aspects of our social life where it is not possible for life to go smoothly without language. Throughout the history of our humanity, politics had been enacted and language had been –at least partially- the carrier of that enactment. Bayley comments upon the language-politics interface by arguing that "it is difficult to imagine political action that is neither, on the one hand, founded on language nor, on the other, a result of linguistic breakdown and at the same time a premise for further linguistic action" (Bayley, 2009, p.2).

### **SSIU-003-CH2-FP**

Born in Buffalo, New York, Harvey Swados was a Jewish American novelist, essayist, biographer, and short story writer. Swados was a four-year veteran of the Merchant Marine during World War II. Factory experiences from his early years stayed with him all his life, including the Merchant Marine, aircraft plants, and the auto plant depicted in *On the Line* (1957). SSIU-004-CH2-FP

### **SSIU-004-CH2-FP**

Since ancient times, elegy, as a poetic term of lamentation, has been a favorite subject of study because of its high communicative value and mournful feelings (Hussein, 2009:2). This chapter represents a theoretical background about elegy and its theme lamentation to be studied from socio-pragmatic and literary points of view in English and Arabic. This chapter aims to explain lamentation and sheds light on the sociolinguistic, pragmatic, and literary aspects that are related to elegy and its theme lamentation in both languages. Language and literature form such an organic relationship that it is impossible to separate one from the other. Chapman (1973:4) states that:

### **SSIU-005-CH2-FP**

Eric Hobsbawm's history of the world since 1914, *The Age of Extremes*, opens with array of quotations which characterize the twentieth century as “an age of catastrophes.” Isaiah Berlin views the twentieth century as “the most terrible century in Western history,” and “a century of wars and massacres.” It was recognized that:

The last war, during the years 1915, 1916, 1917, was the most colossal, murderous, mismanaged butchery that has ever taken place on earth. Any writer who said otherwise lied, so the writers either wrote propaganda, shut up, or fought.

Whereas, the British novelist William Golding describes it as “the most violent century in human history.” In fact, these quotations sum up a century which has witnessed bloodletting and barbarity on a large scale, and caused an estimated 187 million violent deaths, and:

Was without doubt the most murderous century, of which we have record, both by the scale, frequency and length of the warfare which filled it, barely ceasing for a moment in

the 1920s, but also by the unparalleled scale of the human catastrophes it produced, from the greatest famines in history to systematic genocide.

These catastrophes and unprecedented levels of violence, which poisoned the twentieth century, were, mainly, due to its horrific wars, mainly: The First World War, the Second World War and the Cold War. These wars play vital roles in the century's story of brutality and mass violence.

#### **SSIU-006-CH2-FP**

Verbs of senses refer to a class of verbs commonly used in English to express senses employed in the process of human sensory cognition: sight (visual), smell (olfactory), hearing (auditory), touch (tactile) and taste (gustatory) (Helle, 2006:4). This class of verbs might as well be called verbs of perception ( Viberg, 1984:143; Quirk, 1985: 203; Langacker, 2008:149; Gisborne, 2010:2 ), verbs of sensory cognition (Kopytko,1990a:60),verbs of inert perception (Leech, 1987:24), verbs of sensation (Palmer, 1974:73), perceptual verbs ( Kreidler, 1998:260), sensory verbs (Allerton, 2002:119; Williams, 2005: 77) and sensory copular verbs ( Biber et al., 2000: 436).

#### **SSIU-007-CH2-FP**

Discourse is considered a controversial term which is utilized by different linguists from diverse views. Crystal (2008:125) defines discourse as "a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon, argument, joke or narrative" while Cook (1989:156) defines it as "stretches of language perceived to be meaningful, unified and purposive". Nunan (1993:6) sees that discourse as a term is being used in a number of different ways by different scholars based on diverse approaches, and this leads to a wide disagreement on its use.

#### **SSIU-008-CH2-FP**

Stylistics is simply known as the linguistic approach to the analysis of the style of literary works (Jeffries and McIntyre, 2010: 1). Nevertheless, stylistic techniques can also be applied to texts of other types rather than literature. Stylistics is concerned with the explanation of the relationship between the linguistic expression on one hand and the artistic value, the functional significance of the interpretation of the text and its effect on the reader on the other hand.

### **SSIU-009-CH2-FP**

Human language is used as a means of social interaction; it performs various social roles and expresses various communicative functions like asking questions, making requests, giving promises or commands, seeking permission, expressing possibility or ability... etc. such types of interpersonal functions of language are reflected through the modal auxiliary verbs like can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should and must.

### **SSIU-010-CH2-FP**

This chapter deals with the theoretical part in which some of the main concepts are to be covered. The chapter will be devoted to introducing the concepts of pragmatics and speech acts. In addition, this chapter includes other topics like the components of speech acts, the other sections are concerned with performance in using speech acts; types and patterns will be presented. Examining these aspects will help the researcher in designing and submitting the test in the coming chapter.

### **SSIU-011-CH2-FP**

The manifestations Newmark refers to are its material components, such as, clothes, food, transport, houses and towns, and abstracts concepts, such as, religion and philosophy, arts and fine arts, political opinions, concepts, procedures, social or communal customs, habits, traditions, work, entertainment and leisure, gestures, etc. Since the final goal of translation is to communicate with individuals relate to another lingual community, i. e. with individuals embrace another culture, so translation, especially intercultural translation, with all the more reasons can be viewed as a paradigm of cultural contact, cultural interaction. Yet, this concept is not clear enough as it might be thought.

### **SSIU-012-CH2-FP**

Many scholars and writers recommend Ideology and consider it a very important element in the translation process. Its importance lies in that it is considered the systematic body of concepts especially about human life or culture. It is the manner or content of thinking characteristic of an individual, group, or culture. It is the integrated assertions, theories and aims that constitute a sociopolitical program. It is a body of ideas reflecting the social needs and aspirations of an individual, group, class, or culture. A set of doctrines or beliefs that form the basis of a political, economic, or other system.

### **SSIU-013-CH2-FP**

An Arabic sentence is of two types. Instead of using auxiliary verbs in English, Arabic depends on what is called al-isnmd (predication) (Slbawaihi (d. 180 H)?????? 1988,1: 48). These two types may be identified as follows: a nominal sentence which begins with a noun in the Nominative (NOM) case presented as a Subject, 'mubtada' ??????? or al-musnad ilaihi and the second part as khabar, or al-isnmd (predicate); the predicate may be a noun in NOM case or a verbal clause which occupies the position in NOM case, while a verbal sentence, on the other hand begins with a verb.

### **SSIU-014-CH2-FP**

Metaphorically speaking, a foreign text is just like a wild animal. Either it is tamed, i.e. domesticated in a translation, or accepted the way it is, as a wild creature, i.e. foreign entity. In the first case, it can live peacefully with you at home according to your rules. It shouldn't mess with your furniture or make disorder to your system and way of life, i.e. shouldn't violate the TL dominant values and its cultural norms. In the second case, it may show resistance to your taming and cannot be domesticated accordingly. In this case, you allow it to violate your way of life, taste and tranquillity. Thus, it can expose its wildness, i.e. foreignness in your environment.

### **SSIU-015-CH2-FP**

To express themselves, people usually do not only produce utterances containing grammatical and meaningful structures and words, but perform actions through the use of those utterances. The actions, which are performed by utterances, are generally called speech acts (SAs). In this respect, Yule (1996: 47) argues that people use language to express the activities as to request information, give orders, convey information, make threats, give warnings, make requests, etc.

### **SSIU-016-CH2-FP**

In the following theoretical survey, the rhetorical structure theory is discussed at the level of clauses and sentences, chunks, and whole texts. The discussion will examine the various approaches to this subject, concentrating upon the basic shared principles. The survey also touches upon the relevance of the theory of rhetorical structures to classical rhetoric text organization and analysis.

### **SSIU-017-CH2-FP**

Language is an intricate system of communication specific to human beings. All children – except deaf ones – have a natural tendency to acquire the language spoken by adults. This natural tendency to acquire language is a gift inscribed in the genetic inheritance that is ours by virtue of being humans. Chomsky states that humans have an innate capacity in their mind to acquire the language system; he has affirmed that newborns possess a powerful genetic endowment that includes an implicit knowledge of the universal principles that structure languages (cited in Tallerman, 1998: 3). So that acquiring spoken language is instinctive. However, this tendency consists of a program of acquisition that develops on the basis of potentials inscribed in the genetic code of the child (Boysson-Bardies, 2001: 6).

### **SSIU-018-CH2-FP**

The study of political discourse ( PD henceforth) has been around for as long as politics itself. Ancient Greeks were interested in the language of politics and its different possibilities. They considered the language of politics as an instrument to reach the truth, express art, or achieve persuasion (Lasswell, 1968: 3-4). The Greco- Roman tradition of rhetoric, which is basically the art of verbal persuasion, was a means of codifying the way public orators used language, In both the Greek polis and the Roman Empire, the rhetorical tradition played a central part in the training of political orators. This provided a framework for the observation of political verbal behavior that continued for many centuries (Chilton & Schaffner, 1997: 206- 07).

Aristotle's book 'On Rhetoric' is considered a classic in the study of rhetoric. In this book, Aristotle states that there is nothing wrong with rhetoric, the study of the persuasive function of language, as long as it is used rationally to demonstrate the truth. The interest in rhetorical devices continued into the Roman era. Cicero's 'On the public Speaker' is one of the most important books of the period. As the title suggests, it aims at both depicting and prescribing effective strategies to influence audiences. The application of the theory and practice of rhetoric were viewed as part of the political life of the community (Chilton, 2001: 584- 58).

### **SSIU-019-CH2-FP**

Online Social Networks have become an important part of daily digital interactions for many people around the world. At the same time, the various personal information sharing practices have raised much critique and concerns with respect to privacy and security. This chapter introduces privacy and security in online social networks. At the beginning, the chapter provides overview on the OSN, and illustrates the modeling data contained in OSNs. Then, OSNs privacy and security are discussed. Also, the threats of online social networking identified and classified into several main areas. Finally, the chapter gives a brief description for the web 2.0 technology.

### **SSIU-020-CH2-FP**

Coates (1988: 8) states that “women exploit the multifunctional nature of hedges. She uses them to mitigate the force of an utterance in order to respect the addressee's face need”. Hyland (1998:158) confirms the fact that the function of hedges is not limited. He proposes:

### **SSIU-021-CH2-FP**

Throughout this chapter, two points are going to be presented. The first point exhibits the historical perspectives of the concept of collocations' and illustrates the two types of collocations the grammatical and lexical' as well as explaining the concept of collocational competence'. It also presents the relationship between grammar and lexis and demonstrates how lexicographers deal with collocations in particular the grammatical collocations. The second point deals with English prepositions, their polysomic usages and their grammaticized and lexicalized meanings.

### **SSIU-022-CH2-FP**

Arabic sentence is of two types. Instead of using auxiliary verbs in English, Arabic depends on what is called ??????? (predication) (?????? (180?) 1988,1: 48). Those two types may be identified as follows: a nominal sentence which begins with a noun in the Nominative (NOM) case presented as a topic, ??????? or ??????? ????? and the second part as a comment, ?????? or ??????? (predicate); the predicate may be a noun in ?????? ?????????? (NOM case) as in ?????????? ?????????? or a verbal clause occupied the position in NOM

case as in: ????, while, a verbal sentence, on the other hand begins with a verb.

### **SSIU-023-CH2-FP**

The Little Foxes was staged on February 15, 1939, at the National Theater in New York. It was produced by Herman Shumlin.1 Hellman said: It is a drama of morality which depicts a family just as it was on the way to the achievements which were to bring it wealth or failure, fame or obloquy. At the final curtain the Hubbards are just starting to get on in the world in a big way, but their various futures, individually and collectively, I like to think I leave to the imagination of the audience. I meant to be neither misanthropic nor cynical, merely truthful and realistic.

### **SSIU-024-CH2-FP**

Language is the key of communication between people. People can understand each other through the shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer. This process can be realized through a pragmatic field, which depends on the social aspect and one has ability to analyze relying on such a field. Politics is on-line with people's life. Thus, we can not separate language from politics.

### **SSIU-025-CH2-FP**

This chapter intends to survey the nature of listening in general and listening comprehension in particular as well as the problems encountered by test takers who sit for a test in TOEFL. Particular attention would be given to the phonological processes in listening comprehension section of the test.

### **SSIU-026-CH2-FP**

It is now well-known that language is essential to the definition of human beings; still, there is no definite agreement on what exactly language is. What matters is that it does exist, along with the fact that English, German, and Arabic are all languages while, despite their naming, 'body language', 'bee language', and 'animal communication' are not (Cobley, 2005:5). Sometimes the word 'language' is used inappropriately with some nonverbal communicative devices such as 'body language'.



### **SSIU-027-CH2-FP**

The study of language and gender has become the study of discourse and gender. Gender can be understood as a discourse as it is an integral part of social life that is produced through everyday language and talk. The interdisciplinary investigation of discourse is a mutual area of language and gender. Despite that, all the titles are formed as an insight to discourse analysis, their dimensions are so different in which it is not easy to show a single treatment of discourse analysis as a tool for the study of gender and language (Holmes and Meyerhof, 2003:44-5).

### **SSIU-028-CH2-FP**

This chapter aims at discussing the model of analysis of the data elicited by the interlocutors of both groups. It also discusses the source, structure, and the procedure of data collection.

### **SSIU-029-CH2-FP**

This chapter presents a theoretical background of two important language varieties, namely, legal discourse and commercial discourse. It deeply sheds light on the most important issues in both discourses such as, their nature, their varieties, and their main discursual characteristics. They specify what matters the specialists in occupations like law and commerce and also what matters the translators and the text-books or course-books designers of these two language varieties.

### **SSIU-030-CH2-FP**

This chapter is devoted to investigating the basic theories of politeness as a central subject in this study, how a speaker can achieve politeness while running a conversation with the others through the use of specific style strategies, with some reference to speech act, indirect speech acts of Searle, as well as Grice's implicature theory.

### **SSIU-031-CH2-FP**

This chapter deals with the most famous approaches to translation studies as well as some introductory concepts that are necessary to pave the way for a better understanding of the following chapters of this thesis. Translation is one of the most controversial branches of Applied Linguistics fields and it has been gaining more interest, notably in the last few

decades, from other fields. This interest in translation is one of the most important reasons which led to the diversity of the theories of translation. These theories have been formed to explain the nature of translation and identify it within a certain objective frame. Given the fact that translation process is linked to subjects as much as the human being can deal, it could be possible then to imagine the difficulty of contriving a unified theory of translation. Nevertheless, these theories undergo a continuous development and progress aiming at a reasonable level of objectivity in this regard. The growth of Translation Studies as a separate discipline is according to Lefevere (1992:xi) is a success story which started from the 1980s. The subject witnessed an ongoing development in different areas in the world and will continue to develop in the future. Translation studies bring together work in a wide variety of fields, including linguistics, literary study, history, anthropology, psychology and economics. The theories which are to be discussed in this chapter do not cover all the trends in the field of translation as this would be practically impossible, but taking useful samples would be helpful to shed light on the areas of research in this subject as it pertains to the subject matter of the current thesis.

#### **SSIU-032-CH2-FP**

Translation by dictionary definition is "the process of or the result of conveying information from one language or language variety into another (Hartman and Stock, 1976:242) (while Crystal asserts that the term translation is the neutral term used for all tasks when the meaning of expressions in one language " the source language" is turned into the meaning of another "the target language" whether the medium is spoken, written or signed (Crystal, 1987 a: 344).

#### **SSIU-033-CH2-FP**

This chapter consists of two sections. In the first section, data description, data collection as well as the main parts of the eclectic model are presented. The second section presents some related studies conducted in Iraqi universities in an attempt to show how these studies are different from the current study in terms of aim, data, and model of analysis. However, as the current study has not been tackled before, therefore, these studies will be related to certain parts of this study and does not directly touch its topics.

### **SSIU-034-CH2-FP**

A new branch of applied linguistics enquiry, which has flourished over the last three decades is Critical discourse analysis (henceforth, CDA) and associated with researchers such as Roger Fowler, Norman Fairclough, Teun van Dijk and Ruth Wodak. This discipline is compatible theoretically as far as its practitioners use linguistic analysis as a basis for its interpretations of texts. CDA is “a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context” in order to reveal, and eventually resist social injustice (Van Dijk, 2001b:352). Its current focus on language and discourse was initiated with the "critical linguistics" (henceforth, CL) that emerged at the end of the 1970s (ibid). CL is the first form of linguistically-oriented critical methods to discourse analysis. CL analysts raise a number of issues concerning the interrelationship of language and ideology. One of these is to do with the way in which racist dominant ideologies become deep-rooted in everyday conversations (Simpson, 1993:5).

### **SSIU-035-CH2-FP**

Robinson has a special interest in the study of individuals especially those of common people. The individual man is the moral center of his poetry, and it is this centering of interest on individual human beings that sets his poetry apart from other poets of the twentieth century. Early in his writing career, Robinson had in mind and actually began to write short prose fiction which he preferred to call “sketches” rather than short stories. Although his prose book, which he had intended to name “Scattered Lives”, was never published and now not existent, Robinson transmuted some of these sketches into poems.

### **SSIU-036-CH2-FP**

Metaphor is a figure of speech which has been defined differently by different scholars of linguistics, philosophy and psychology. According to the Encyclopedia Britannica (2008) “metaphor is a figure of speech that implies comparison between two unlike entities, as distinguished from simile, an explicit comparison signalled by the words (like) and (as)”. When words are used with metaphoric senses, one field or domain of reference is carried over or mapped onto another on the basis of shared similarity between the two

fields as in “The past is a foreign country” where the properties of the domain ‘a foreign country’ is transferred into the domain ‘the past’ (Goatly, 1997: 8).

#### **SSIU-037-CH2-FP**

There are many scholars who have some theories and ideas about deixis. Some linguists have just considered three main types of deictic expressions, i.e., time, person, and place. But some other linguists, like Fillmore (1975), and Lyons (1977) add two more types which are social and discourse deictic expressions.

#### **SSIU-038CH2-FP**

This chapter is devoted to presenting the concept of pragmatics and to surveying the selected topics of the pragmatic field such as conversation, conversational implicature, Grice maxims, etc., so as to come up with the appropriate model of analysis in the current study.

#### **SSIU-039-CH2-FP**

Very a few books succeeded in attracting as many people over the centuries, despite the geographic, social, racial, religious, economic and political barriers as did *Kalila wa Dimna*. It is considered one of the most popular books ever written for almost two thousand years and still read with pleasure all over the world. (Int1, 2001).

#### **SSIU-040-CH2-FP**

This chapter aims at providing a full picture of the characteristics of the advertising language that are reflected in blurbs; it studies the advertising language from the viewpoint of most of the linguistic disciplines (phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics). The chapter starts discussing the linguistic characteristics of the English advertising language that can be reflected in English blurbs. Then, the linguistic features that can be reflected in Arabic blurbs are presented. The chapter refers to the linguistic characteristics of the advertising language in English and Arabic, in order to have a clear picture about the linguistic characteristics of blurbs. It is important to notify that whenever the word 'blurb', used in this chapter, it refers to a blurb that advertises a novel.

### **SSIU-001-CH2-LP**

Tone is "the reflection of a writer's attitude (especially towards his readers), manner, mood and moral outlook in his work; even, perhaps, the way his personality pervades the work", (Cuddon 1999: 920). It is the counterpart of tone of voice in speech, and may be friendly, detached, pompous, officious, intimate, bantering, etc, (Ibid.). Baldick (2001: 259) defines tone as "a very vague critical term usually designating the mood or atmosphere of a work, although in some more restricted uses it refers to the author's attitude to the reader (e.g., formal, intimate, pompous) or to the subject-matter (e.g., ironic, light, satiric, sentimental)". When the language is ambiguous, for example, as in Shakespeare's Sonnet 94 "They that have power to hurt", the tone becomes increasingly difficult to determine, (Quinn 2006: 421-422). Quinn (ibid., 422) observes that "Tone should be distinguished from 'mood', the feeling the reader experiences. Although often identical, there are times when the tone and mood are significantly different". Tone is basically a literary device which may extend over a whole work, and therefore it is excluded from analysis.

### **SSIU-002-CH2-LP**

All the devices and techniques in the aforementioned levels are strategically as well as ideologically geared towards serving certain ends by the users. They all work within an overall or macro strategy of positive self/ negative other presentation. Consequently, their analysis and incorporation into the analytical framework of this study is considered a priority in what can add to an overall endeavor towards a more adequate comprehensiveness if it is ever to be captured. The following diagram shows the overall devices to be used in the model of the analysis:

### **SSIU-003-CH2-LP**

While the industrial worker became a "minority" there was a need to account for the growing middle class, and this was achieved through the configuration of the individual as consumer. However, this produced a divided identity, especially when, as Swados pointed out time and again, the consumer and the industrial worker were in fact the same person. Moreover, the belief that the working class, as comprising industrial workers, was a declining minority, alongside the creation of the 'modern' middle class consumer, denied

the possibility or existence of the working class consisting of part-time service employees, especially women, who emerged in great numbers in the 1950s, as well as the increasing number of low-level white collar workers who marked the year 1965 as "the first year when white collar workers outnumbered blue collar workers."

#### **SSIU-004-CH2-LP**

In analyzing the poems, some procedural steps used by Short and Leech (1981:1) form a model to analyse literary text. In this model, Short and Leech focus on the analysis and the exploration the language of literary text. They (ibid:3) show the importance of theme and form. Short and Leech (1981: 12-14) give the importance of the poetic devices. In this model, Short and Leech (1981:283) show the poetic and linguistic analysis. The following table clarifies this eclectic model adapted in the present study.

#### **SSIU-005-CH2-LP**

All in all, throughout the aforementioned poems, Owen shows the fact that the psychological effects of the war's deluge of violence and strain are no less destructive than the physical ones. Thus, Soldiers who escape the aggregation of war's violence and pain physically, were not killed, badly wounded or taken prisoners, were psychologically affected by it. This mental strain could appear in the form of madness, shell-shock, and hallucination, and the like.

#### **SSIU-006-CH2-LP**

no closing paragraph

#### **SSIU-007-CH2-LP**

This study adopts Frank-Job's (2006) model. This model is designed to account for the pragmatic nature of DMs in the PR theory when an expression which is already lexical becomes pragmatized into a DM, and these accords with the main aim of this study. Frank-Job chooses to analyze DMs within the PR theory rather than the GR theory because she believes that the main function of DMs in discourse is pragmatical other than, for example, textual which is acceptable in the GR theory.

### **SSIU-008-CH2-LP**

As for the interest-focus, it seems very similar to the notion of centre. Chatman states that if a character does not have the mental ability to be a filter, or if s/he does not represent any slant, s/he can still be the interest-focus of a particular scene (ibid.). However, a centre differs from an interest-focus in that even a minor character can be interest-focused for a short period in the narrative.

### **SSIU-009-CH2-LP**

After referring to the central modal auxiliary verbs, marginal auxiliary verbs and semi-modals, the researcher has opted only for the central modal auxiliary verbs to be adopted and investigated in the current study.

### **SSIU-010-CH2-LP**

no closing paragraph

### **SSIU-011-CH2-LP**

Vinay and Darbilnet list, which has been extended by Hurtado and re-ordered alphabetically by Fernandez- Guerra shown on pages (69-74) of this chapter seems to be helpful to serve as a model for translating Arabic folkloric texts into English if the translator makes use of other procedures whenever translating process requires such a resort. Therefore, the model referred to will be the one used in chapter 4 of this research.

### **SSIU-012-CH2-LP**

no closing paragraph

### **SSIU-013-CH2-LP**

no closing paragraph

### **SSIU-014-CH2-LP**

He refers to the fact that errors involve possible equivalents which can be valid in a certain context, yet cannot be in some others. The reason behind this is that there is no solid borderline between right and wrong. Thus, several possible translations can be produced.

### **SSIU-015-CH2-LP**

SA sequence could be a sequence of acts at the same level or of the same illocutionary force. HSAs or composite acts are two or more acts in an utterance. Each of these acts is different from the other. For Dijk, there are single acts and composite acts. The latter is either compound acts of two different acts at the same level, or complex acts where the first act is a motivation or an auxiliary act and the second is the main act (ibid: 210).

### **SSIU-016-CH2-LP**

Types of rhetorical microstructures are identified with the help of lexical signalling technique (see 2.4.2). As for the basic components of rhetorical patternings, these are defined in terms of whether or not the relevant microstructure fits as answer to questions stated in 2.5.1.

### **SSIU-017-CH2-LP**

As for pitch differences; British accent (BBC) generally shows more pitch variation than American English, as the British accent utilises seven pitch movements that are falling, high rising, low rising, falling-rising, rising-falling, falling plus low rising, and rising plus low rising. American accent, on the other hand, is characterized with four pitch levels that are extra-high, high, mid, and low (Halliday 1967, Pike 1945). Loudness in the British accent is higher than the one in American accent; this is due to the facts that British accent has more pitch variation and more vowels than the American accent, which is a rhotic accent that has no centering diphthongs /eɪ/, /eə/ and /ɪə/ (Gamley and Patzold, 2004: 273).

### **SSIU-018-CH2-LP**

One more emotional appeal is the 'granfallon technique', which forms the basis for an emotionally powerful persuasive technique. According to Jameson (1988: 87), Henri Tajfel finds that complete strangers are formed into groups using the most trivial, inconsequential criteria imaginable. Individuals, who are total strangers and never interact with one another before, act as if those who shared their meaningless label are their good friends or close kin. It creates sense of unity, and emphasizes similarities within the group, whereas exaggerate differences with other groups. Shared emotions and feelings can also create a sense of oneness with others, a sense that can be produced by sharing a pleasant



time, or a sad situation. One persuasive skill of Barack Obama is his ability to express emotions people feel or would like to feel. In other words, speakers attempt to persuade their audience that they and their ideas are from the people and for the people. Hence, the propagandist may utilize this technique by arousing our self-esteem and link it to the group for which we already have strong loyalty and great motivation to defend its way which is basically the propagandist way.

#### **SSIU-019-CH2-LP**

no closing paragraph

#### **SSIU-020-CH2-LP**

Finally, Hanaa's (2010) thesis concentrates of EFL college students' recognition and production of hedges since the use of hedges is considered problematic for these students. The data of Hanaa's (2010) is written i.e. researches of EFL college students at fourth stage. While the present research tries to solve another problem that hedges cause, i.e., the attachment of hedges uses to one gender, (feminine) and their functions as markers of weak language. The researcher has selected a spoken data, TV debates, which seems to be neglected by other researchers since hedges has been tackled as strategies of scientific written language. Hence, the present research tackles a problem that has not been tackled before by Iraqi researchers.

#### **SSIU-021-CH2-LP**

The study aims at studying the acquisition of English chunks by Iraqi Arabic speaking learners to decide whether they eventually succeed in acquiring it or not, and identifying areas of potential difficulty and

suggesting certain pedagogical activities to surmount these difficulties.

#### **SSIU-022-CH2-LP**

no closing paragraph

#### **SSIU-023-CH2-LP**

The strong individuals in the play are the Hubbard family members who prefer money over compassion. They have a capacity to manipulate others using treacherous methods.

Being motivated by greed to achieve their aims at any cost, they demonstrate a great amount of malice and harm others intentionally.

#### **SSIU-024-CH2-LP**

CDA can be seen as an implicit field and not as explicit or easy found. Widdowson (2000) describes CDA as an uncovering of implicit ideologies in texts. The exercise of power in texts unveil the underlying ideological prejudices (Ibid: 7).

#### **SSIU-025-CH2-LP**

The distinction between the two accents forms the basis for one of the fundamental categorizations of varieties of English; non-rhotic accents are typical of varieties spoken in the larger part of England, and rhotic accents, on the other hand, are typical of varieties spoken in the south-west of England, and parts of the North, in Scotland, Ireland, Canada and most of the United States of America. (Crystal,2003:400) RP is a non-rhotic accent.so unlike the British r, the American r is always pronounced, it is never silent.(Mojsin2009:48

#### **SSIU-026-CH2-LP**

Research in this area focuses mainly on written text, or the written transcript of spoken text, presenting little opportunity for the discussion of the suprasegmental realization of these texts. The role of prosody in the construction or reflection of, for example, power relationships in interaction, may have been touched on by implication in studying prosodic patterns used to control or regain the floor such as silence pause, rises or falls of intonation, variation of speech rate, final lengthening, and other suprasegmental patterns related to turn keeping or holding the floor (ibid).

#### **SSIU-027-CH2-LP**

It has been asserted that discourse and gender studies are often contradictory and depend on the implicit assumptions about gender methodology, in which discourse is understood as a social interaction, interpreted as a complete communicative event in a social situation.

### **SSIU-028-CH2-LP**

Harries (2002: 81) identifies 'insincerity' by American society as a source of irritation to non-American society, e.g. American society uses expressions such as 'We really must get together sometime', for American society, these are simply 'polite, meaningless words', but the non-American society often interpret them as real invitations to realize later that they are not intended as such. This confusion occurs due to different 'pragmatic ground rules'. Once the NNS understands the 'pragmatic ground rules', something which at first appeared to be a cross-cultural conflict of values may be shown not to be so (ibid). The following figure represents the causes of sociopragmatic failure:

### **SSIU-029-CH2-LP**

no closing paragraph

### **SSIU-030-CH2-LP**

no closing paragraph

### **SSIU-031-CH2-LP**

The selection of sources texts to be translated is based on certain requirement set up by the target culture and its literary system. In addition, the translated texts adopt certain norms, policies and behaviors which are correlated with other home co-systems. This approach to translation does not see translated texts as isolated from other related activities in specific and other general aspects of culture and literary activities. It investigates the position of the translated text within a more general multi- tier system. The position of the translated texts may be ranging according to this theory from the center of the polysystem when both principles and elements of the source literature are introduced into the home literature which did not exist there before. In case of the works of translation which do not bring innovative touches to the target literature they take a peripheral position in the polysystem.

### **SSIU-032-CH2-LP**

Finally, and before the train approaching Paris, the narrator notices the passenger's wrecked cars symbolizing what happened in the story. Three, people are travelling on a train which is passing three wrecked cars. The Narrator and his wife are heading towards

the wreckage of their marriage, the American lady towards an empty life and emptier death. Significantly, the American lady whose moral vision is self-centered and then incomplete who sees only the last of the wrecked cars in shore, life in the wasterland is a train trip, the end of which is a wreck. And even if there is no wreck, there is no turning back for in the last sentence, but one, the narrator tells us: at the end was a gate and a man took the tickets (J. Smith,: 232) .

### **SSIU-033-CH2-LP**

In light of the previous studies, one can notice that this study is different from these studies in its aims, adopted model, and the data. Although it contains topics like politeness, power and solidarity, address forms, ... etc., these topics are presented in a different way that shows their relationship with honorifics.

### **SSIU-034-CH2-LP**

Political powerful discourse is personally uttered, and embodied the individual characteristics of political representations of groups, but all other members of the group share them socially. (Van Dijk, 2002b:233). Van Dijk's (2007) socio-cognitive approach finds an explanation of this interface among the personal attitudes of a speaker and the social ideologies of groups (ibid: 233). Hence, "language is not powerful on its own – it gains power by the use powerful people make of it" (Weiss and Wodak, 2003:14).

### **SSIU-035-CH2-LP**

Many of Robinson's characters suffer from loneliness, for he thinks that it is one of life's hard realities. As will be mentioned in the next chapter, the "Man Against the Sky," who represents everyman, may have different paths to follow, but whatever way he chooses "mostly alone he goes." ("The Man Against the Sky" l. 22) However, his characters' loneliness is not mentioned to provoke sentiments or as an end by itself; rather, it is portrayed in a way that would show the characters' endurance and fortitude, a fact which is compatible with Robinson's love of idealism.

### **SSIU-036-CH2-LP**

The researcher measures the university instructors' comprehension of metaphor in political media reports. He compares the answers of the Iraqi English instructors to those

given by an English native speaking instructor who works in The University of California. The researcher concludes that the comprehension of metaphor depends on the complexity of the expression in which the metaphor is used, where the more complex the expression is, the more difficult the comprehension of metaphor will be. He also concludes that the instructors' knowledge of the English language is the main factor in comprehending metaphors where the Professors are proven to be the best who can comprehend metaphors since they have more experience of English.

#### **SSIU-037-CH2-LP**

no closing paragraph

#### **SSIU-038-CH2-LP**

Throughout all these processes, Grice maxims of quality, quantity, manner and relevance (2.4.2.1) will be invested in analyzing these answers and questions in addition to the non-observances of these maxims, as in flouting, violation, opting out, infringing, suspending and clash in (2.4.2.2). The analysis will try to show how and why the language of both the police detectives and the suspects tend to instances of observances or non-observances of these maxims.

#### **SSIU-039-CH2-LP**

The insights are embodied in proverbs, anecdotes, parables and analogies. If the reader does not comprehend that, then there is no benefit gained, and no intelligent inference can be made from the valuable wisdom offered in this book. Reading Kalila wa Dimna without insight will thus be time lost (Int5, 2009:4).

#### **SSIU-040-CH2-LP**

To conclude chapter two, it can be said that although blurbs are advertising texts, they are not totally like other advertising texts. They have some special linguistic features. In addition, chapter two reveals that linguistic studies have not presented a full picture of English blurbs' linguistic features; while Arabic blurbs have not been the concern of any linguistic considerable work. Chapter three will be concerned with studying the linguistic characteristics of English and Arabic blurbs and making comparison between blurbs from both of the languages.

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