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AUTÓNOMA DE PUEBLA**

FACULTAD DE LENGUAS

**METADISCOURSE MARKERS IN M.A. THESES IN
ENGLISH WRITTEN BY NATIVE AND NON-
NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKERS**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF
LANGUAGES FOR THE DEGREE OF
LICENCIATURA EN ENSEÑANZA DEL INGLÉS**

BY:

CLAUDIA NORIEGA PÉREZ

THESIS ADVISOR:

MA. MARÍA TERESA FATIMA ENCINAS PRUDENCIO



Facultad de Lenguas

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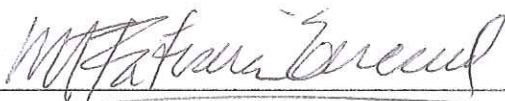
**This thesis has been read by the members
of the thesis committee of**

CLAUDIA NORIEGA PÉREZ

**And is considered worthy of approval in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of**

LICENCIATURA EN ENSEÑANZA DEL INGLÉS

Thesis director



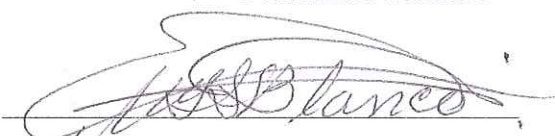
MA. María Teresa Fátima Encinas Prudencio

Committee Member



MA. Leonel Ojeda Ruiz

Committee Member



MA. María Guadalupe Salazar Blanco

BENEMÉRITA UNIVERSIDAD AUTÓNOMA DE PUEBLA

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ABSTRACT

This research was carried out to analyze a sample of ten research projects (theses of Master in Education by Native English speakers and Master in ELT by Non-native English speakers) with a corpus of approximately 20,000 words. To carry out this study it was used Hyland's (2004) taxonomy Metadiscourse, and this study was focus in the chapter five of ten theses.

The main purpose of this study was to have an overview of the use of metadiscourse markers by both communities, as well as compare their use, and analyze the use of the metadiscourse items.

The results suggest that non-native speakers, who used English as a foreign language, used more metadiscourse markers in both categories: textual and interpersonal. This could be an effort by non-native speakers to enhance coherence, and organize their discourse.

They also overused the same item several times and they do not have a wide range of varied metadiscourse items in each subcategory. These results are important at least in this context to comprehend how ELT are using metadiscourse markers.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Writing assignments in English is one of the most challenging situations that ELT students have to face in their undergraduate program. Taking into account that for these students, English is not their mother tongue and that writing requires different mental tasks such as, “generate ideas, organize the writers’ thoughts and find the right words to express those thoughts” (McNeely 2014 p. 5). Most of these students ask themselves about how to communicate effectively in order to be easily understood?

What kind of resources do expert writers use when they want to communicate effectively? Expert writers have used what is known as Metadiscourse markers which give signals to the reader to comprehend the text. These signals give the reader an idea of the writers’ intention in the text.

Metadiscourse markers have been considered as signals in the text to help the reader comprehend better what he/she is reading. Markers help readers to organize their ideas, and understand what the writer is doing in the text. For instance, the writer might tell the reader what s/he is trying to explain using expressions such as: “*to summarize...*”, “*in the last section we see...*”, among others. Besides, writers use this resource for the sake of establishing interaction with the reader using this kind of expressions: *You will probably think that...; Does this sound... to you; Correct me if I’m wrong, but...; dear reader.*

Specially using metadiscourse markers, may help writers to achieve coherence. That is possible because metadiscourse is like the structure of a building. In other words, metadiscourse is “the architecture of a text” (Adorni G. & Zock M., 1996)

At least, four reasons to use metadiscourse markers were established in the last paragraphs. They are useful because expert writers use them to help readers to comprehend better the text, establish interaction with the reader, and help the writer to achieve coherence. For those reasons, learning the appropriate use of these metadiscourse markers is a powerful tool for novice writers who want to improve their own writing. So, more consciousness about metadiscourse markers may increase the students' writing abilities.

1.2 Purpose

The main purpose of this research is to analyze the use and frequency of metadiscourse markers in research projects (theses), comparing the projects done by M.A native English speakers and non-native speakers.

1.3 Significance of the study

The Master's ELT undergraduate graduation profile requires students to accomplish the level C1 according with the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (2001). This Framework establishes that at this level, the students are able to “produce clear, **well-structured**, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled **use of organizational patterns**, connectors and cohesive devices” (p. 24). Even more, students should be able to write argumentative and passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. In other words, that Masters in ELT are able to used metadiscourse markers in a proficient way.

According with that information, students from BUAP are supposed to have developed their abilities on writing. However, most students struggle to achieve coherence throughout the text, and one of the resources to accomplish, is the appropriate use of

metadiscourse markers. For that reason, an analysis on frequency of metadiscourse markers will be useful to understand how often students are using them.

1.4 Aims

The overall aim of this research is to have an overview on the use of metadiscourse markers by non-native speakers from ELT undergraduate (BUAP students) and at the same time compare the use of metadiscourse markers by native English speakers and non-native English speakers, and look for a tendency in this kind of writing (English for Academic Purposes) using the chapter five of ten theses from students at: Carroll University and BUAP University.

1.5 Research Questions

RQ1: What is the frequency in each category (textual or interpersonal) of metadiscourse markers in the chapter five of the theses done by native and non-native English speakers?

1.6 The methodology

This research used mix-method using a textual analysis; and was carried out using Ken Hyland's Model (2004). This model was applied in the chapter five of five theses from BUAP students and five were from Carroll University.

In order to analyze the metadiscourse markers in both cases, I first identified all the metadiscourse markers from each category underlined with different colors according with the category. So, all the metadiscourse markers were quantified from each category (textual and interpersonal) and this data was gathered in a chart.

At the same time, each metadiscourse marker was classified according with the number of times they were repeated. Once all the data was gathered, the analysis began and I looked for similarities and differences in the use of metadiscourse markers by native and non-native English speakers. Then, the conclusion arose from all the data.

1.7 The research setting

This research was carried out in the Central Mexico, at the Benémerita Universidad Autónoma de Puebla (BUAP), at Language Faculty. As we now, BUAP has reforms in order to reach higher standards. Hence, undergraduate students from the Language Faculty are required to have the B2 level of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* and writing is one of the requirements to reach this level.

1.8 The context of the research

Metadiscourse is a relatively new concept; at least, in this context. However, little by little an increasing attention to this topic has arisen. For instance, there is research on this issue in other contexts, Crismore (1985) has carried out studies on Metadiscourse use in writing in English, cross-linguistic comparison of Metadiscourse in English and Persian, and Metadiscourse in EFL reading comprehension. Simin (2004) also investigated the Metadiscourse used in the writing of ninety undergraduate Iranian EFL learners. Others types of research are: Modeling metadiscourse biomedical research abstracts (Sandor, 2007), the Importance of Metacommunication in Higher Education (Baltzersen, 2013) Metadiscourse in Research articles (Toumi, 2009).

1.9 Location of the research

First of all, the present research was carried out in a University in the Center of Mexico. This university has the conditions to apply it because in the ranking of the most important universities. According with the ranking of the best Mexican public universities, published on <http://mejoresuniversidadesdemexico.mx/?q=ranking> BUAP is located in the fourth place of the best universities in public education.

Besides, this university did not have any study of metadiscourse markers topic, and because the location is approachable to the researcher. So, the conditions are positive to carry out this study.

1.10 Conclusion

If we considered, that ELT undergraduate from BUAP are people who have studied English as a foreign language and for most of them writing is a great challenge because it requires a complex process of thinking, hopefully this study will present a useful tool that some students have used unconsciously.

The use of Metadiscourse markers is a useful device to create coherence in writings. As we have seen before, the use of metadiscourse gives readers an idea of the writer's intention. Furthermore, the significance that English writing has in our context is currently meaningful. New ways of communication, such as internet or journals, have been a useful way to communicate our thinking. Thus, good writing consciousness enhances students' opportunities to communicate their ideas in this virtual world. In addition, writing skill will open doors to improve students' academic life.

The next chapter will focus on the literature review about the Metadiscourse topic, their meanings, the most important pioneers in this field, and also the relationship that this

topic has in writing, and how useful this methodology has been to help students to write coherence texts.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter two presents the term of metadiscourse, (its background, its definition and its usefulness), the most important taxonomies that some authors have developed through the years (Williams, 1981; Crismore, 1983; Kopple, 1985; Ken Hyland, 2005), and the relationship that this topic has in writing.

2.1 Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse has gained increasing attention in some fields of research. For instance, Hyland (1998) claims that composition, reading and structure are some aspects which have been investigated in this area. This field had started to explore different aspects, such as in different genres: Metadiscourse in Science Texts (Crismore, 1983), Undergraduate Textbooks (Hyland, 2000), Metadiscourse in Research Articles (Abdy, 2010), Metadiscourse in Essay Writing (Taghizadeh & Tajabadi, 2013), among others. First of all, it will be useful to analyze the antecedents of metadiscourse.

2.1.1 Background

In 1959, the term metadiscourse was coined by Zellig S. Harris. His intention, was to comprehend the language in use and show the writer or speaker's intention to guide the receiver's perception of a text (Harris, 1959 cited in Hyland 2005 p. 3). Since this, writers such as Williams (1981), Crismore (1983), and Vande Kopple (1985) started to frame this important issue. Currently, Hyland is one of the most important writers about the topic.

One of the important issues with metadiscourse is that the concept has been conceptualized in a wide and from different perspectives which have promoted a fuzzy definition from some authors.

2.1.2 Concept

So, what is metadiscourse? Metadiscourse as a concept has changed throughout the years, and it has been defined in different ways. “Writing about writing” (Williams, 1981 p. 40). Williams, (1981) claims that the function of metadiscourse verbs is to announce what the writer is doing in his/her discourse (*show, argue, claim, deny, describe, suggest, contrast, add, expand, summarize*). Besides, it helps to organize the information in steps (*first, second, third, finally*), and to show the degree of accuracy that the writer has (*it seems that, perhaps, I believe, probably*).

Likewise, Kopple points out that metadiscourse is “communication about communication” (Kopple, 1985, p. 83). He describes metadiscourse in two levels of discourse, one level is the content (propositional) that describes the topic, and in the metadiscourse level there are not propositional content but devices which help readers to organize, classify, interpret, evaluate, and react to the propositional information. In fact, the definition does not give a significant amount of information, but the description gives an overview about what metadiscourse is.

For Crismore (1983), metadiscourse is “an author's discoursing about the discourse” “to direct the reader rather than inform” (p. 2). Although, this meaning is very similar to Williams' and Kopple's, she continued doing research about this, and another definition is: “set of rhetorical characteristics used to communicate attitudes as well as to indicate the structural properties of the content” (Crismore, 1985, p. 6). For her, metadiscourse first,

helps the writer to convey the writers' intention and second, the use of metadiscourse helps to organize the information. The last definitions are fuzzy and vague, but give us an overview of the topic. She started to give more details about the concept, as a pioneer, she was one of the most intensive researcher in the eighties.

However, an author who has enriched his own definition about metadiscourse is Ken Hyland. First, he explains that it is an umbrella term which helps readers to connect, organize, and interpret material in a way preferred by the writer and with regard to the understandings and values of a particular discourse community (Hyland, 1998).

Second, he explained the term as “linguistic resources used to organize a discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader” (Hyland, 2000, p. 109).

And third, he explains the concept as, “the devices writers use to explicitly organize their texts, engage reader and signal their attitudes to both their material and their audience” (Hyland, 2004 p. 110)

More recently conceptualization about metadiscourse is: ‘the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community’ (Hyland, 2005 p. 37).

While for Ädel (2006) metadiscourse is “text about the evolving text”, for her is how writers manage their own discourse making use of commentary. As we can observe, it is clearly how metadiscourse concept has changed throughout the years. Williams' concept focuses on explaining what the writer is doing in the text using verbs to announce what s/he will continue doing in the text (Explain, show, argue, claim, deny, describe, suggest, contrast, add, expand, summarize). Apparently, Ädel retakes this concept and she focuses on the use of metadiscourse as a commentary. While Crismore focuses on the function of

metadiscourse, Hyland continues the Crismore paradigms, but he goes further and explains this concept as an important tool for writers in communication, even the use of certain patterns could make them belong to a certain community of writers. An examination of metadiscourse in this context will be useful to find certain patterns in this community of students.

However, through the years, there have been many categorizations on how to organize metadiscourse and implement certain models or taxonomies on how to classify the metadiscourse markers. The next subtitle will focus on these changes.

2.2 Taxonomies

Most of the taxonomies based their classification on Halliday and Hasan (1976) (functional-semantic) categorizations. Although, for them the purpose was not explaining metadiscourse, most authors continue using it. They divided in the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual categorizations. The ideational collocates the writer as a beholder while the interpersonal focuses on the writers' attitudes and judgments. The textual function is being operationally relevant and cohering in the text. The textual categorization are devices which help the writer's organization. Furthermore, through years authors have improved some metadiscourse taxonomies. We will analyze four important taxonomies which have been developed one by one.

2.2.1 Joseph M. Williams

Williams' (1981) taxonomy is a pioneer in this important field. Williams uses three broad classifications: Hedges and Emphatics, Sequencers and Topicalizers, Attributors and narrators. He uses Hedges to show the degree of uncertainty that the writer has (*usually*,

often, sometimes, almost, virtually, possibly, perhaps, apparently). In contrast, he uses Emphatics to show the writer's degree of certainty (*as everyone knows, it is generally agreed that, it is quite true that, it's clear that, it is obvious that, the fact is*). Sequencers are words, phrases and sentences that move from one idea to another (*In this next section of the chapter; It is my intention to discuss the problem of; The first thing I want to say about this subject is*). Topicalizers make reference to another part of the text (*in regard to, where x is concerned, in the matter of, turning now to*). Attributors is when the writer does not mention where the information comes from (*it has been observed, to exist, is found to exist, is seen, noticed, noted, remarked*). Finally, narrators are phrases that express what the writer wants to explain in the text (such as: *I was concerned with, I have concluded, I think*)

2.2.2 Avon Crismore

Crismore (1983) based her taxonomy on Williams' and Meyer's classifications. She focuses on two general categories: informational and attitudinal. Informational are phrases which help readers' comprehension. In this categorization are: Goals, pre-plans, post-plan, and as Williams' categorization: topicalizers. Attitudinal categorization guides reader to saliency (importance of idea), emphatics, hedges, and evaluative (attitude toward a fact).

Thus, she analyzed metadiscourse from 3 different points of view:

- First person: *I think* or *We have argued*.
- Second person: *Remember that* or *You will read that*.
- Third person: *This chapter is about* or *The purpose of this unit is to*.

2.2.3 Vande Kopple

Vande Kopple (1985) identifies seven different classifications in metadiscourse: text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers, validity markers, narrators, attitudes markers, and commentary.

Text connectives help readers to organize the information using sequencers, reminders (to signal information already mentioned and to present another one), topicalizers. *Code glosses* help readers to understand parts of the text. *Illocution markers* are used to show the reader what the writer is doing in the text (*hypothesize, claim, promise, etc*). *Validity markers* assess the probability of any propositional content, making use of hedges, emphatics, and attributors. *Narratos* allow the reader to know who said or wrote something (*according to..., "x" announced that*). Attitudes markers shows the writer's attitude to the propositional content. Commentary is the probable mood, views or reaction that the reader may have because of the content.

2.2.4 Ken Hyland

Hyland (2005) points out three principles that metadiscourse has to accomplish to be called metadiscourse. First, he said that metadiscourse has to be different from propositional aspects, and makes the propositional content coherent, intelligible and persuasive. Second, that metadiscourse allows writer-reader interaction. Third, metadiscourse has relation which are internal discourse to the discourse.

According with Hyland's (2004) taxonomy *textual* metadiscourse markers are: devices to organize propositional information which help to guide readers to find the text coherent and convincing. Hyland includes 5 subcategories, which are:

- Logical connectives (additionally, though, and, or, but, also, although, thus, so)
- Frame Markers (finally, To conclude, overall, in sum, I would like to, in order to, in regard to, to come back)
- Endophoric Markers (note above, in section, mentioned before, see Fig.)
- Evidential Markers (According to, X... argue. X... claim, X... show, X... suggest)
- Code Glosses (that is, in other words, for example, e.g., i.e., such as, that is to say).

Interpersonal Metadiscourse refers to the perspective that the writer has toward their readers and their content. Five categories embrace this section:

- Hedges (perhaps, may, should, would, might, could)
- Emphatics (indeed, in fact, it is clear, obvious, even, actually, must)
- Attitude markers (Unfortunately, hopefully, motivate me, surprisingly, became aware)
- Relational markers (Consider, Frankly, you can see, note that)
- Person markers (I, we, my, mine, our)

As we have analyzed, these taxonomies have some patterns in common, for instance, Crismore and Kopple based their taxonomy on Halliday. Kopple also improves Williams's taxonomy, and Crismore attempts to impose order on the various functions of metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005). Hyland (2004) use interactive instead of textual and

interactional. Taking into account all these elements, and seen metadiscourse as a socio-cultural process we have to consider “audience, purpose and situation” (Hyland, 2004 p. 110), which means that metadiscourse is used in context. The next section will discuss how metadiscourse is useful in writing tasks, highlighting argumentative writing.

2.3 Usefulness

The use of metadiscourse is a useful tool in every composition writing because “facilitate the communication” and “build a relationship with an audience” (Hyland, 2004 p. 110). According to Crismore (1985), the appropriate use of metadiscourse can help the reader to understand the text and the author’s perspective. Moreover, the use of metadiscourse devices are useful on argumentative writings.

However, we can recognize that some metadiscourse markers are necessary in every academic writing, it is necessary to understand not go to extremes. The overuse of them may create a text without sense, and instead of having coherence, it may confuse readers, such as the next example: “The last point I would like to make here is that in regard to, it is important to keep in mind that, in all probability, seem to...” (Williams, 1981 cited in Crismore 1983 p. 5). In the same way, Millis et al. (1993) argue that for some readers the use of metadiscourse is a waste of time and inhibit comprehension.

Therefore, the correct use of metadiscourse is convenient to create cohesion and at the same time allows to create coherence through the text. Thus, with the help of metadiscourse markers, writers can help the readers when they make transition on their ideas (Hyland, 2009). However, the use of these rhetorical conventions is not always easy for non-native speakers due to the transfer that they do (Connor, 1996). Despite this fact,

the importance of this topic is crucial because it provides “a framework for understanding communication as a social engagement”.

The use of metadiscourse is useful in writing instruction for Academic Purposes, and it has been used by native and non-native speakers as a guide to convey their ideas and engage with their readers *effectively*. Furthermore, teaching how to use metadiscourse will help to use it appropriately. (Hyland, 2005). For many students, it will be useful to read widely and observe how metadiscourse is used by expert writers (Williams, 1981).

2.3.1 Metadiscourse in Writing

As we have seen, text devices which help to communicate and interact writers and readers are known as metadiscourse. This framework has been useful in composition, specifically in university students (Cheng and Steffensen, Xiaoguang, 1996) to help them to construct arguments and also to construct coherence throughout the text.

Students should be able to use and review coworkers’ use of metadiscourse. Conscious use of metadiscourse will help students to convey information in a cohesive and coherent way. Kopple (1985) argues that metadiscourse classifications would help students to use it in writing task. Otherwise, if the writer removed the metadiscourse items the text would become “less personal, less interesting, and less easy to follow” (Hyland, 2005 p. 3).

Obviously, as we considered before in this chapter, the overuse of metadiscourse might create a conflict in the reader, but with the judicious addition of metadiscourse a writer could transform a dry or difficult text into coherent, reader-friendly, and also convey his personality, credibility, audience-sensitivity and relationship to the message (Hyland, 2005).

In longer texts, students might judge when they need more metadiscourse markers to create cohesion, and revisions group can help them. Using appropriate devices of metadiscourse from each category will be useful according with the necessity of the writer.

Another important aspect in writing is being aware of the audience. According to Hyland (2005) interaction is achieved when the writer takes into account the audience necessities. So, when students construct their text taking into account the readers, they will start interacting with their audience. This topic has been increasing the importance in writing because it helps native and non-native speakers of English to “convey their ideas and engage with the readers effectively” (Hyland, 2005 p.6) Hence, students will be communicating successfully.

Castelló and Donahue (2012) argue that most studies in higher education about metadiscourse have been done on research report. It is interesting that for most of the students this is a big challenge that they have to face when they finish the degree and they are thinking in a master degree. For that reason, this study focused on theses.

2.4 Conclusion

We have analyzed the most important concepts of metadiscourse, the most cited taxonomies and the usefulness of metadiscourse. Perhaps in the future new conceptualizations about this concept can emerge, and other taxonomies can appear. However, in this context this will be useful to understand the behavior of this important topic in theses done by students in a foreign language context. Even more, we analyzed the significance that metadiscourse has in writing to construct argumentative writing through the use of metadiscourse markers and how these elements allow to create coherence in the text. Now, the next chapter will focus on the methodology of this research.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In order to gather all the elements necessary to carry out the research it will be useful to explain in this chapter the method, the methodology, the participants/objects, the instrument and the procedures to carry out this research.

3.1 Method

This study used a quantitative and qualitative method to carry out this investigation. The purpose of combining both methods was to identifying small but important similarities and differences between writers. This research was carried out to understand how often native and non-native English speakers used metadiscourse markers. So, in order to understand the behavior that markers have in a non-native English speaking country the frequency of metadiscourse will be analyzed.

3.2 Participants

Randomly, five non-native English speakers' theses were selected. All of them were participants who had already finished their M.A. in ELT. Four of them were female and one was male, all of them studied at the BUAP University. Also, some of the participants were teachers at BUAP University.

While the English native speakers, all the participants were female, and they are from the Carroll University. Four participants presented their thesis in May 2013, and another was presented in May 2009.

3.3 Objects

As mentioned above, the chapter five of five theses from native speakers and five from non-native English speakers were selected. All the native English speakers were Master in Education and all the non-native English speakers were Master in ELT. The corpus of this sample is approximately 20,000 words.

3.4 Setting

The research was carried out in Central Mexico. The corpus was from two universities: Carroll University and BUAP University. This research was carried out using the Carroll's theses because of their ONLINE accessibility, and the BUAP students' theses were used because of the accessibility.

3.5 Instrument

This study used Hyland's (2004) taxonomy because he is one of the most important researchers in this area (see Appendix A). The instrument contains all the items used for the textual and interpersonal classification (see Appendix B). Although this instrument is simple, it was useful to accomplish this research in a very practical way.

Besides, in this study all the metadiscourse items were gathered in tables. These were divided in two categories, native and non-native English speakers. Each table contains all the metadiscourse items from textual (Logical connectives, Frame Markers, Endophoric, Evidentials, and code glosses) and interpersonal metadiscourse (Hedges, Emphatics, Attitudes markers, relational markers, and person markers). So, in order to explain how the

metadiscourse markers were analyzed it was necessary to discern similarities and differences in use.

3.5.1 Textual Metadiscourse Analysis

According with Hyland's (2004) taxonomy the *textual* metadiscourse markers are:

- Logical connectives (additionally, though, and, or, but, also, although, thus, so)
- Frame Markers (finally, To conclude, overall, in sum, I would like to, in order to, in regard to, to come back)
- Endophoric Markers (note above, in section, mentioned before, see Fig.)
- Evidentials (According to, X... argue, X... claim, X... show, X... suggest)
- Code Glosses (that is, in other words, for example, e.g., i.e., such as, that is to say).

3.5.2 Interpersonal Metadiscourse Analysis

Five categories embrace this section:

- Hedges (perhaps, may, should, would, might, could)
- Emphatics (indeed, in fact, it is clear, obvious, even, actually, must)
- Attitude markers (Unfortunately, hopefully, motivate me, surprisingly, became aware)
- Relational markers (Consider, Frankly, you can see, note that)
- Person markers (I, we, my, mine, our)

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

In order to collect the theses written by native English speakers, I looked for available theses on Internet, and the Carroll University offers a wide range of theses from different master degrees. So, I downloaded five theses done by Master in Education, and for non-native English speakers, randomly I chose five theses from the library and transcribed the chapter five of all of them. One example of Native English speaker thesis Analysis is in *Appendix C* and the Non-native English speaker thesis is in *Appendix D*.

3.7 Data Analysis Procedure

Once the instrument was designed, with the help of the *Appendix B*, textual and interpersonal metadiscourse items were selected from every thesis. For that reason, it was necessary to identify all the metadiscourse markers with different colors according with the category, and quantify how many items were in each category.

All the logical connectives are highlighted with yellow color, Frame markers are in green, Endophoric are in mint, Evidentials are in grey, and Code glosses are in a dark green.

Hedges are in Red color, Emphatics are in dark cyan, Attitude Markers are in purple, Relational markers in pink, and Person Markers in royal blue.

Then all the metadiscourse markers were collocated in the table according with the following parameters:

- Textual metadiscourse markers used by native English speakers
- Textual metadiscourse markers used by Non-native English speakers
- Interpersonal metadiscourse markers used by Native English speakers
- Interpersonal metadiscourse markers used by Non-native English speakers

Once all the elements were collected by the researcher, the results were organized in a table. The frequency of metadiscourse markers was analyzed, and the use done by native and non-native English speakers was compared. This analysis is in detail in chapter four.

3.8 Conclusion

This chapter is a guideline of this research and it was very useful to carry out this investigation. The next chapter will present the results from all this parameters.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results from the analysis of the chapter five (the Results) of five theses done by native English speakers and non-native English speakers. In sum, 10 chapters from 10 theses were analyzed. First, the general results are analyzed, followed by the specific results: Textual metadiscourse analysis and interpersonal analysis. Each category is followed subsequently by each subcategory.

4.1 General Results

The table below shows the results from this research. In general, non-native English speakers had a higher use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers. This caught my attention because the overuse of metadiscourse markers may affect the readers' comprehension. (Williams, 1981). However, at the same time it is an effort to enhance coherence and to "organize a discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader" (Hyland, 2000, p. 109).

TEXTUAL METADISCOURSE	NATIVE SPEAKERS	NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS
LOGICAL C.	106	94
FRAME MARKERS	41	55
ENDOPHORIC	11	17
EVIDENTIAL	4	19
CODE GLOSES	16	24
TOTAL	178	209

INTERPERSONAL METADISCOURSE	NATIVE SPEAKERS	NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS
HEDGES	161	114
EMPHATICS	37	16
ATTITUDES M.	5	10
RELATIONAL M.	2	0
PERSON M.	28	156
TOTAL	233	296

TABLE 1. General Results of Metadiscourse Markers

The category that has a higher use is the interpersonal metadiscourse. And this is clearly affected by the ‘person marker’ because of the one hundred fifty six items found in the corpus analyzed. Non-native English speakers had a higher use on Frame markers, Endophoric, Evidential, and Code Glosses in the Category of Textual Metadiscourse.

Also, in the category of Interpersonal Metadiscourse, non-native English speakers had a higher use in Attitudes Markers, and in Person markers, and there is no evidence of Relational markers use. Native English speakers are characterized by a higher use in logical connectives, Hedges, and Emphatics, and there is evidence of Relational markers.

4.2 Textual Metadiscourse Results

This section will focus on the five different subcategories of Textual metadiscourse, which include: Logical Connectives, Frame markers, Endophoric, Evidential, and Code Glosses.

4.2.1 Logical Connectives

Logical connectives are items that express semantic relation between main clauses (Hyland, 2004). For that reason, the use of “and” or other logical connectives were only taking into account when it was followed by a main clause.

The next table shows the difference in the use of logical connectives between native speakers and non-native English speakers. In this category, native speakers used more logical connectives than non-native English speakers.

Native speakers used eleven different items and non-native English speakers used nine different items. Native speakers used: additionally, though, and, or, but, because, also,

although, another, thus, so; non-native speakers used: in addition, but, thus, and, also, although, on the other hand, therefore, on one hand.

The item “AND” was the most frequently used, whereas “THOUGH” has the less frequency. In both cases, “AND” was the item with more frequency. It was used thirty times by English native speakers and thirty four by non-native English speakers. “BUT” was the second item more frequently used by native speakers while by non-native English speakers was “THEREFORE”.

TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NATIVE SPEAKERS							TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS								
#	LOGICAL CONNECTIVE	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL	#	LOGICAL CONNECTIVE	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
1	Additionally	7	0	1	1	1	10	1	in addition	0	9	0	2	0	11
2	Though	1	0	0	0	1	2	2	but	0	5	0	0	0	5
3	And	4	12	4	9	1	30	3	thus	0	1	4	9	1	15
4	Or	2	0	0	0	0	2	4	and	5	29	0	0	0	34
5	But	2	5	2	17	0	26	5	also	0	0	1	0	0	1
6	because	0	2	1	5	0	8	6	although	2	2	1	1	0	6
7	Also	0	1	0	0	8	9	7	on the other hand	0	1	0	1	0	2
8	although	0	1	0	4	0	5	8	therefore	0	17	1	1	0	19
9	another	0	0	0	3	0	3	9	on one hand	0	0	0	1	0	1
10	thus	0	0	0	7	0	7								
11	So	0	0	0	3	1	4								
	TOTAL	16	21	8	49	12	106		TOTAL	7	64	7	15	1	94

TABLE 2. Logical connectives Native and Non-native English speakers’ results

The participants who had a higher number in logical connectives are identified with color blue. So, in the case of native English speakers, participant “D” had the highest frequency, and in the case of non-native English speakers, it was participant “B”.

In the case of non-native English speakers, participant B has a higher level of metadiscourse markers and also used the same item in several times, showed with red color.

This participant used the same item “AND” 29 times, and also used 9 times “IN ADDITION”. The participant D used “THUS” in 9 occasions.

4.2.2 Frame markers

According with Hyland (1998 p. 7) frame markers “signal boundaries in the discourse or stages in the argument”. This category comprises aspects such as:

- Sequence material (First, next, 1, 2, 3)
- Label text stages (to conclude, in sum)
- Announce discourse goals (my purpose is, I propose that)
- Indicate topic changes (well, now)

The following table comprises the differences and similarities done by native and non-native English speakers in the subcategory of frame markers. The first aspect that is interesting is the strong distinction in the numbers of different items used by native speakers. While native speakers used a wide range of them, non-native speakers used only eleven different items.

The twenty different items used by native English speakers were: then, finally, first, second, third, four, final, overall, conclude, in order to, the researcher would like to, the purpose of this study, this research focus, this study attempt to, this chapter reviewed, its main objective, this chapter will comprise, this study is aimed, I will attempt to, in summarizing. The last ten items were used only one time by the participants A, B, C and E. This might indicate the creativity that every writer used to organize their discourse. This

table also shows that the participant B and E had a highest level in the use of frame markers.

TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NATIVE SPEAKERS							TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS								
#	FRAME MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL	#	FRAME MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
1	Then	0	0	2	1	0	3	1	Then	0	3	0	0	2	5
2	Finally	1	0	0	1	2	4	2	Finally	2	3	1	5	2	13
3	First	1	2	0	0	0	3	3	First	1	0	4	1	0	6
4	Second	0	2	0	1	0	3	4	First of all	0	0	1	3	0	4
5	Third	0	1	0	0	0	1	5	in sum/in summary	1	0	0	1	0	2
6	Four	0	1	0	0	0	1	6	all in all	1	0	0	0	0	1
7	Final	0	1	0	0	0	1	7	it is possible to argue	1	0	0	0	0	1
8	Overall	0	3	0	0	1	4	8	I would like to	1	0	0	2	0	3
9	Conclude	0	0	0	3	0	3	9	the main purpose	0	0	0	1	1	2
10	in order to	3	0	1	3	3	10	10	in order to	3	2	1	6	1	13
11	the researcher would like to	1	0	0	0	0	1	11	this study suggests	3	1	0	1	0	5
12	the purpose of this study...	0	0	0	0	1	1								
13	this research focus	0	1	0	0	0	1								
14	this study attempt to	0	0	1	0	0	1								
15	this chapter reviewed	0	0	1	0	0	1								
16	its main objective	0	0	0	0	1	1								
17	this chapter will comprise	0	0	0	0	1	1								
18	this study is aimed	0	0	0	0	1	1								
19	I will attempt to	0	0	1	0	0	1								
20	in summarizing	0	0	0	0	1	1								
	TOTAL	6	11	6	9	11	42		TOTAL	13	9	7	20	6	55

TABLE 3. Frame Markers results

The eleven different items used by non-native English speakers in this subcategory were: then, finally, first, first of all, in sum/in summary, all in all, it is possible to argue, I would like to, the main purpose, in order to, this study suggests.

The participant who had the highest level is the participant D, and this participant used the item “FINALLY” five times, and the item “IN ORDER TO” six times. This tendency to repeat the same item several times is constantly seen in this research. The items that were used only one time in this corpus were: “ALL IN ALL” and “IT IS POSSIBLE TO ARGUE”.

Although native speakers used a wide range of frame markers, they only used them 42 times. On the other hand, non-native English speakers used eleven different frame marker 55 times.

4.2.3 Endophoric Markers

Hyland (1998 p.7) claims that endophoric markers are signals “which refer to other part of the text”, with this description the following items were found. In this subcategory, it happened something similar like in the last one. There was more different items used by native speakers, but non-native speakers were the ones who had the highest number of items.

The items used by native English speakers were: As indicating in chapter..., the literature review presented in..., findings from chapter..., evidence from chapter, as detailed in the previous chapter..., discussed in chapter..., in the preceding chapter, outlined in chapter. Participant A used once four different items, and this participant had the highest use in endophoric markers. There was not an overuse of endophoric markers by native speakers.

Non-native English speakers only used three different items of endophoric markers. The participants A, B and C were the ones who used endophoric markers. Also, the participant B and C used the item “ABOVE” seven times and the item see X... only in one occasion. Besides, these participants had the highest level using endophoric markers.

TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NATIVE SPEAKERS							TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS						
ENDOPHORIC MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL	ENDOPHORIC MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
1 As indicating in chapter...	1	0	0	0	0	1	1 Above	0	7	7	0	0	14
2 the literature review presented in	1	0	0	0	0	1	2 see...X	0	1	1	0	0	2
3 findings from chapter	1	0	0	0	0	1	3 I have mentioned before	1	0	0	0	0	1
4 evidence from chapter	1	0	0	0	0	1							
5 as detailed in the previous chapter	0	1	0	0	0	1							
6 discussed in chapter	0	0	2	0	0	2							
7 in the preceding chapter	0	0	0	0	1	1							
8 in the previous chapter	0	0	0	0	2	2							
9 outlined in chapter...	0	0	0	0	1	1							
TOTAL	4	1	2	0	1	11	TOTAL	1	8	8	0	0	17

TABLE 4. Endophoric markers results

4.2.4 Evidential markers

Evidential markers indicate who wrote the textual material (Hyland, 1998). In this table there is a significant difference between the numbers of items used by native and non-native English speakers.

Native English speakers used four different items which are: X (2004) respondents, X and X and X (2000:143) put, according to X, by X. The participant D was the only one who made use of these four different items. The others participants did not use any evidence of evidential markers.

Meanwhile non-native English speakers used a wide range of evidential markers. They used fourteen different items, and they used them 19 times. Participant A used the items: X suggests, and X identified. Participant B had the highest level on evidential markers. This participant made use of eight different items. Participant C used three different items which were: X study, X claims, X found. On the other hand, the participant D and E only used 1 item which were: as X states, categories suggested by, respectively.

TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NATIVE SPEAKERS							TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS								
#	EVIDENTIALS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL	#	EVIDENTIALS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
1	X (2004) respondents	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	According to X	0	1	0	0	0	1
2	X and X (2000:143) put	0	0	0	0	1	1	2	X suggests	1	0	0	0	0	1
3	According to X	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	X identified	1	0	0	0	0	1
4	By X (1994:6)	0	0	0	0	1	1	4	X and X point out	0	2	0	0	0	2
								5	X states	0	2	0	0	0	2
								6	X study	0	1	3	0	0	4
								7	X explain	0	1	0	0	0	1
								8	X note that	0	1	0	0	0	1
								9	mentioned by X	0	1	0	0	0	1
								10	To X...	0	1	0	0	0	1
								11	X claims	0	0	1	0	0	1
								12	X found	0	0	1	0	0	1
								13	as X states	0	0	0	1	0	1
								14	categories suggested by	0	0	0	0	1	1
	TOTAL	0	0	0	0	4	4		TOTAL	2	10	5	1	1	19

TABLE 5. Evidential markers results

4.2.5 Code Glosses

According with Hyland (1998, p.7) code glosses “expand propositional information to assist interpretation and ensure the writer’s intention is understood”.

Native English speakers used eight different items, which were: that is, for example, for instance, namely, such as, in other words, e.g., i.e., the item which was mostly used was “SUCH AS”. Participant E was the one who used more code glosses.

Non-native English speakers used less different items of code glosses than native English speakers, but they used in more times than native speakers. Five different items were used. These were: for example, such as, in other words, i.e., and as the native English speakers the item mostly used was “SUCH AS”. The participant B and D were the ones who had the highest level of items.

TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NATIVE SPEAKERS							TEXTUAL METADISOURSE: NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS						
CODE GLOSSES	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL	CODE GLOSSES	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
1that is	0	0	0	1	1	2	1 that is	0	1	1	0	0	2
2for example	1	1	0	0	1	3	2 for example	0	2	0	0	1	3
3for instance	0	0	0	0	1	1	3 such as	3	4	0	5	1	13
4namely	0	0	0	0	1	1	4 in other words	0	1	0	3	1	5
5such as	0	1	2	0	2	5	5 i.e.	0	0	1	0	0	1
6in other words	0	0	0	2	0	2							
7e.g.	1	0	0	0	0	1							
8i.e.	0	0	1	0	0	1							
TOTAL	2	2	3	3	6	16	TOTAL	3	8	2	8	3	24

TABLE 6. Code glosses Results

We have analyzed the five categories that imply the textual metadiscourse. In sum, there is a tendency by non-native speakers to use them. However, one of the aspects that

non-native speakers may improve is the habit to overuse the same item several times. This research also might provide information of how write ELT students from the master degree.

4.3 Interpersonal Markers

Hyland (1998, p.7) states that interpersonal markers “allows writers to express a perspective towards their propositional information and their readers”. This category includes Hedges, Emphatics, Attitudes markers, and Relational markers, and Person markers. This section embraces the results of this category by native and non-native English speakers.

4.3.1 Hedges

Hyland (2004) states that the function of Hedges is “withhold writer’s full commitment to statements”. That is, that the writer with these items can show the degree of uncertainty in their discourse. In this aspect, native speakers used more hedges than non-native English speakers. In both cases, seven were the item found: might, may, perhaps, possible/possibly, could, would, should. The item that was used the most by native speakers was “MAY”.

Participant D had a higher level of hedges, he used MAY in 24 times, WOULD in 10 times and SHOULD in 19 times. The participant B used COULD 25 times. For other hand, the item that non-native English speakers used the most was “COULD”, and the participant B had the higher level of hedges.

INTERPERSONAL METADISOURSE NATIVE SPEAKERS							INTERPERSONAL METADISOURSE NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS						
HEDGES	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL	HEDGES	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
1Might	3	0	0	0	0	3	1Might	2	1	2	0	0	5
2May	9	0	7	24	5	45	2May	3	5	2	2	0	12
3perhaps	0	0	0	1	1	2	3perhaps	0	1	1	0	0	2
4possible/y	0	0	2	3	0	5	4possible/y	4	0	0	0	0	4
5Could	3	25	7	2	3	40	5could	3	14	5	15	4	41
6would	9	7	0	10	6	32	6would	2	10	11	7	0	30
7should	2	0	13	19	0	34	7should	1	9	1	7	2	20
TOTAL	26	32	29	59	15	161	TOTAL	15	40	22	31	6	114

TABLE 7. Hedges Results

4.3.2 Emphatics

Emphatics items “emphasize force or writer’s certainty in message”. In other words, these items show the degree of certainty in authors. In this research, native speakers used more emphatic items than non-native English speakers.

The six different emphatics used by natives speakers were: in fact, clearly, obviously, even, actually, and must. In sum, they used emphatics in 37 times. The emphatic item mostly used by native speakers was: “EVEN”, and participant D used more emphatics (23 items).

The four different emphatics used by non-native English speakers were: clearly, even, actually, and must. “EVEN” was the item with more frequency. Participant B had the highest level of emphatics.

INTERPERSONAL METADISOURSE NATIVE SPEAKERS							INTERPERSONAL METADISOURSE NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS						
EMPHATICS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL	EMPHATICS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
1 in fact	1	0	0	3	0	4	1 clearly	0	0	0	0	1	1
2 Clearly	0	3	0	0	0	3	2 even	1	5	0	1	1	8
3 obviously	0	0	0	0	1	1	3 actually	0	1	1	0	0	2
4 Even	2	1	2	10	8	23	4 must	0	2	0	2	1	5
5 Actually	1	0	0	2	0	3							
6 Must	0	0	0	0	3	3							
TOTAL	4	4	2	15	12	37	TOTAL	1	8	1	3	3	16

TABLE 8. Emphatics Results

4.3.3 Attitudes markers

Attitudes markers express the writer’s attitude to textual information (Hyland, 1998). The three different attitudes markers used by native speakers were: Unfortunately, I will not be afraid, the researcher was not surprised. Only the participant C and D made use of attitude markers. They made use of attitude markers in 5 times.

The non-native English speakers used the six different items: I was surprised, hopefully, I struggle, I became aware, motivate me, and ...feel afraid. The participants that made use of them were A, B and C. As in other categories, participant B had the highest level of attitudes markers using 5 out 6 different items. So, the non-native English speakers used more attitude markers than native speakers.

Native speakers used more neutral and negative attitudes, but surprisingly non-native speakers were more positive and showed their attitudes.

INTERPERSONAL METADISOURSE NATIVE SPEAKERS							INTERPERSONAL METADISOURSE NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS						
ATTITUDES MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL	ATTITUDES MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
1 Unfortunately	0	0	0	3	0	3	1 I was surprised	0	1	0	0	0	1
2 I will not be afraid	0	0	1	0	0	1	2 Hopefully	0	1	0	0	0	1
3 the researcher was not surprised	0	0	1	0	0	1	3 I struggle	0	2	1	0	0	3
							4 I became/be aware	2	1	0	0	0	3
							5 motivate me	0	1	0	0	0	1
							6 feel afraid	0	0	1	0	0	1
TOTAL	0	0	2	3	0	5	TOTAL	2	6	2	0	0	10

TABLE 9. Attitude markers results

4.3.4 Relational markers

Hyland (1998 p. 8) states that relational markers “are devices that explicitly address readers, either to focus their attention or include them as discourse participants”. So, there is no much evidence of relational markers in this research. Native speakers only made use of them in 2 occasions, and only participant E used them. In contrast, in non-native English speakers there is no evidence of their use.

INTERPERSONAL METADISOURSE NATIVE SPEAKERS							INTERPERSONAL MARKERS NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS						
RELATIONAL MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL	RELATIONAL MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
Let	0	0	0	0	2	2	TOTAL	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	0	0	0	0	2	2							

TABLE 10. Relational Markers Results

4.3.5 Personal Markers

Hyland (2004) claims that personal markers refers to the author. Native speakers only made use of two different personal markers, which were: I, and we. Well over 67%

was covered by the item “I”. Non-native English speakers used four different personal markers which were I, we, my, and our. Item I was the most frequently used with 114 times. Participant B was the one who used this item more, followed by the participant D and C.

INTERPERSONAL MARKERS NATIVE SPEAKERS							INTERPERSONAL MARKERS NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS								
	PERSON MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL		PERSON MARKERS	A	B	C	D	E	TOTAL
1	I	0	0	16	0	3	19	1	I	8	37	34	35	0	114
2	We	0	0	2	0	7	9	2	We	1	2	1	0	0	4
								3	My	4	6	8	16	0	34
								4	our	0	2	0	2	0	4
	TOTAL			18		10	28		TOTAL	13	47	43	53	0	156

TABLE 11. Person Markers Results

4.4 Conclusion

In conclusion, I want to summarize all the important aspects in this chapter. At least in this study, native speakers made a higher use in logical connectives, hedges and emphatics. There was no much evidence of relational markers by native English speakers, they used them only twice, and non-native English speakers did not make use of them. Furthermore, there was a tendency by native speakers and nonnative English speakers to use the same item several times, but this tendency was more frequent in non-native English speakers.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5. Chapter Overview

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings and the significance of this research, it retakes the research question, and the research aim, includes some limitations, and also suggestions for further research.

5.1 Findings and significance

The purpose of this research was to analyze the frequency of the use of metadiscourse markers by native and ELT non-native English speakers. In order to carry out this research, Hyland (2004) framework was implemented in ten theses (native and non-native English speakers).

In general, the results of this investigation suggest that:

- Non-native English speakers who had written their masters' thesis in ELT used more textual and interpersonal metadiscourse than native English speakers.
- Native English speakers who had their master's thesis in educational programs tend to used more: logical connectives, hedges and emphatics and there is a low level of relational markers.
- Non-native English speakers who had master's thesis in ELT tend to use more frame markers, endophoric, evidential, code glosses, attitudes markers and interpersonal markers. However, there is no evidence of interpersonal

markers.

Nevertheless, if we analyze the results specifically, the findings indicate:

- Native English speakers' participants used the subcategories of metadiscourse markers in different ways. For instance, participant D and E had the highest level four times. Participant D had the highest level in: logical connectives, hedges, emphatics, and attitudes markers, while participant E had the highest level in: Frame markers, evidential, code glosses, and he was the only one who used relational markers.
- Only one participant from the non-native English speakers had the higher level in the subcategories seven times. For that reason, in order to enhance well structures phrases, more consciousness about metadiscourse markers might help non-native English speakers.
- This result suggests that not all of non-native English participants are conscious about the importance of metadiscourse markers.
- However an overuse of the same item could affect the understanding of the readers, and this was a tendency that most of the participants had.

So, the significance of this study consisted of exploring how non-native English speakers are using metadiscourse markers. The study suggests that only one participant has a higher level in seven aspects. Most of them have used few metadiscourse markers.

This result is very important because according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (p. 24) students are who had the C1 are able to “produce clear,

well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices”.

5.2 Research question

The only research question in order to understand the tendency that ELT and Native English speakers (who have Master in Education) have in metadiscourse markers was the following one:

- What is the frequency in each category (textual or interpersonal) of metadiscourse markers in the chapter five of the theses done by native and non-native English speakers?

This question was explained in chapter four. Most Native English speakers used more logical connectives, hedges and emphatics, and there is not much evidence of relational markers. Meanwhile, non-native English speakers had a higher level in frame markers, Endophoric, evidential, code glosses, attitudes markers and interpersonal markers.

So, at least in this research, most of the non-native English speakers used in a low number connectors and cohesive devices, what does not exactly mean that non-native speakers use them in a controlled way as the Common European languages suggests for the C1 level.

5.3 Research aim

The aim of this study was to analyze the use of native and non-native English speakers had of metadiscourse markers. At the very beginning I wanted to use a software, but it was not possible because the software changed. Now, the software does other kinds of analysis different from metadiscourse analysis.

Nonetheless, the aim was accomplished, following the theory given by Hyland (2004) and the instrument that was designed for this research. The findings are important because they give us an overview about the distinction in the use of metadiscourse markers by native and non-native English speakers, and also give us an idea to reject the tendency to overuse the same item of metadiscourse markers.

5.4 Limitations of the research

The main limitation of this research is my lack of experience doing metadiscourse analysis. So, it could be a degree of error in the analysis. Another limitation was that I wanted to carry out this research at the BA level, but native speakers write theses only at the master degree level. So, this degree has a higher level than my own level. The research was carried out with only 10 participants. For that reason, the results are not considered as a fact. If this research were to be carried out with a higher number of participants the results may vary.

5.5 Suggestions for further research

This topic had a wide range of aspects to investigate. Future research analyzing metadiscourse in writing could be metadiscourse study in reports, essays, teaching experiences, textbooks, etc. Indeed, students should make a research in other different skills (speaking, reading, and listening).

Even following the line of this study, researchers could analyze how the audience respond using texts that use metadiscourse devices and how they respond with the absence of metadiscourse devices. In conclusion, there is too much to investigate in this fascinating topic.

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APPENDIX A

KEN HYLAND'S TAXONOMY (2004)

CATEGORY	SUB-CATEGORY	DEFINITION	EXAMPLES
TEXTUAL (used to organized propositional information)	Logical connectives	Express semantic relation between main clauses	Additionally, though, and, or, but Also, although, thus, so
	Frame Markers	Used to sequence, Label text stages To announce discourse goals Indicate topic shifts	First, Then, 1, 2; A, b. finally, To conclude, overall, in sum, I would like to, in order to, in regard to, to come back) well, now
	Endophoric Markers	Expressions which refer to other parts of the text	(note above, in section, mentioned before, see Fig.)
	Evidentials	Refer to source of information from other texts	(According to, X... argue. X... claim, X... show, X... suggest)
	Code Glosses	To supply additional information	that is, in other words, for example, e.g., i.e., such as, that is to say).
INTERPERSONAL (Allows writer to express a perspective towards their propositional and their readers)	Hedges	Show the degree of commitment, certainty and collegial deference a writer wishes to convey.	(possible, perhaps, may, should, would, might, could)
	Boosters/Emphatics	Emphasize force or writing certainty in message	(definitely, in fact, it is clear, obvious, even, actually, must)
	Attitude markers	Express writer's attitude to propositional content	(Unfortunately, hopefully, motivate me, surprisingly, became aware)
	Relational markers	Explicitly refer to or build a relationship with the reader	(Consider, Frankly, you can see, note that)
	Personal markers	Explicitly reference to author (s)	(I. we, my, mine, our)

APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENT

TEXTUAL METADISCOURSE: helps to organize the discourse				
LOGICAL CONNECTIVES	FRAME MARKERS	ENDOPHORIC MARKERS	EVIDENTIALS	CODE GLOSSES
Additionally In addition But Thus And Also Although Though Or On one hand On the other hand Because Another Thus So Therefore	Then Finally First Second Third Fourth Final First of all firstly last to start with all in all Conclude in conclusion overall in sum/in summary to sum up I would like to I will focus on the aim In regard to Now To come back Well In order to The researcher would like to The purpose of this study is The research focus This study attempt to This chapter review It main objective The main purpose This chapter will comprise This study is aim I will attempt to In summarizing It is possible to This study suggests	As indicating in The LR presented in Findings from chapter Evidence from chapter As detailed in the previous chapter Discussed in chapter In the preceding chapter In the previous chapter Outlined in chapter Above Section See fig. I have mentioned before	According to X... respondents X and X put it States By X... X Suggests X identified X and X point out X states X study X explain X note that Mentioned by X To X X found Argue Claim Show	That is For example For instance Namely In slightly different terms Such as In other words e.g. i.e.

INTERPERSONAL METADISCOURSE:

Gives the writers' attitude

Hedges	Emphatics	Attitudes markers	Relational markers	Person markers
Might May Perhaps Possible/y Should Would Often	Indeed In fact Clearly Obviously It is clear Obvious Even Actually Must	Unfortunately I agree I will not be afraid The researcher was not surprised I was surprised Hopefully Important interesting A challenge process I struggle I became/be aware Motivated me Feel afraid	Consider Find Let's You can see Frankly Note that	I We My Mine Our

APPENDIX C

EXAMPLE OF NATIVE SPEAKER'S THESIS ANALYSIS

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This qualitative meta-synthesis used template analysis to review the findings of qualitative studies addressing how cultural difference impacted Western educator expatriates from the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia and/or New Zealand as educators in the East Asian countries of China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan and/or South Korea. It explored the educational cultural divide between the West and East Asia by investigating whether an educator/student cultural disconnect existed between Western educator expatriates and their East Asian students in the five East Asian countries and why. It also examined whether intercultural communication and/or professional cross-cultural training **could** help in this East Asian context.

Cultural Disconnects in East Asian Countries

This metasynthesis **concluded** that a cultural disconnect did not just exist between Western educator expatriates and their East Asian students, **but** also between the educators and East Asian teachers in the five East Asian countries considered. This finding also indicated that these cultural disconnects were the result of at least one of two factors: the educational ideology divide between the West and East Asia and/or the inability of the Western educators to speak the native language of their East Asian host countries. Further, a correlation was shown between the two cultural disconnects and the West/East Asia educational philosophy cultural gap in the areas of teaching-learning methodology and/or educator role expectations. The vastly different ways of teaching and learning between the West and the East Asia were found to be a main source

of friction between Western educator expatriates and East Asian students and local teachers.

While the Western educators disparaged their East Asian students as being reluctant and passive learners when Western communicative approaches to learning were resisted, the

East Asian students accused the teaching methods of their Western educators as being shallow, imprecise and **even** irresponsible. Western educators encountered similar teaching-learning philosophy disagreements with their East Asian teacher colleagues.

The former criticized the teaching schemes of the latter as being too repetitious and overly rigid while the latter charged the teaching techniques of the former as being disrespectful and often irrelevant to the East Asian learning environment.

A second factor found to greatly divide Western educator from East Asian students and teachers was the cultural divergences between the West and East Asia in how to delineate the educator role. This factor was discovered to be a serious source of not only confusion, but more importantly, contention since the Western concept of educator as facilitator contradicted the East Asian notion of educator as expert and authority. Most of the Western educators studied reported feelings of discomfort with the level of reverence afforded to them as educators in their East Asian countries, which led many of them to rebel and revert back, though unsuccessfully, to the Western modes of education that they were familiar with. **Unfortunately**, these attempts not only largely failed, **but** they also further alienated the Western educators from both their students and the local teachers. **Another** source of strife discovered between some Western educator expatriates and East Asians connected to the educator role was educator legitimacy. The educational systems and structures in place in some East Asian countries like South Korea and Japan marginalized the role of Western educators by design, which purposely lessened the legitimacy of these educators when compared to their East Asian teacher colleagues. These practices diminished and demoralized Western educators in their educator roles with the local teachers, in their learning environments, and most importantly, with their East Asian students.

This analysis also found a link between the educator/student cultural disconnect and Western educator expatriate bilingual inability. Most of the Western educators studied were not proficient in the language of their East Asian host countries, which was found to seriously lessen their ability to effectively relate to, actively participate with and ultimately, meet the needs of their East Asian student populations. For this reason, many Western educators encountered serious difficulties in managing their classes and earning the respect of their students. This second language incompetence not only caused the Western educators to feel isolated and marginal in the course of their work, **but** it also often contributed to their experiences with culture shock in and outside of the learning environment in their East Asian countries.

Intercultural Communication and Professional Cross-Cultural Training

This metasynthesis concluded that intercultural communication and professional cross-cultural training offered some help in addressing the two cultural disconnects if more than one dimension of either or both of these constructs were actively employed in the course of education in the East Asian countries. Although all of the Western educators studied acknowledged the value of at least one of the five dimensions of intercultural communication, the majority of them failed to put more than one of these dimensions into actual practice in their East Asian countries. With the exception of the affective dimension of intercultural communication, which was recognized and applied across the board, a number of Western educators appreciated one or more of the other four dimensions, but not enough to actually use these dimensions in the course of practice. However, the few educators that did realize the worth of intercultural communication and utilized more than one of its dimensions in educational practice were found to benefit in some area of their work and/or lives. It was discovered that these Western educator expatriates were better able to: establish successful relationships with their host country nationals, adjust their thinking and actions to better fit the East Asian cultures in which they worked, competently communicate with East Asians in general, conform to the cultural contexts of their East Asian countries, and effectively collaborate to best meet the needs of their learning institutions and student populations than the Western educators who did not employ more than the affective dimension in practice.

In terms of professional cross-cultural training, one of the most significant findings of this review was the under-qualification and/or ill-preparation of many Western educators to work in their East Asian countries. This particular issue was raised in the majority of the studies as being a factor that may have worsened the educator/student cultural disconnect between the educators and their East Asian student populations. Moreover, the lack of qualifications and/or preparedness of the Western educator expatriates pointed to what had already been discovered during the course of this analysis, which was that too few of the Western educators received some, if any training before or during any part of their East Asian educational assignments. Although most of the articles analyzed commented on the value of professional cross-cultural training and even recommended that Western educators attain some level of it to make them more effective in their work and lives, only one of the articles talked about this training in the context of actual educational practice. The sole study that did discuss professional cross-cultural training in actual education, related that the Western educators who participated in the mandated, intensive training program unanimously reported an increased sense of competence in their role as educators in Taiwan.

Conclusions

Questions for Further Study

It would be worthwhile to further investigate how Western educator expatriates are faring in education in East Asian countries. Such research would be a constructive endeavor because this topic not only lacks study in general, but it also lacks study on the direct experiences of the educators in their East Asian educational institutions, learning environments and with their students. Although this metasynthesis centered on Western educator expatriates in East Asian educational contexts, because it synthesized the findings of qualitative studies already completed, it was unable to provide direct information from the educators themselves. Therefore, in order to clarify the true impact of cultural difference between the West and East Asia on Western educator expatriates in their role as educators in East Asia, first-hand reports directly from the mouths of the Western educators who serve and have served in the milieu of East Asian education would be highly beneficial. Completing such research would also help shed light on the educator/student and educator/educator cultural disconnects found in this qualitative synthesis. When these examinations are carried out, this researcher suggests that they include a much larger sample size of Western educator expatriates than this study to increase the reliability and validity of their results. In addition, it would be helpful to document the experiences of Western educator expatriates in multiple East Asian countries far beyond the five considered in this analysis to compare and contrast how West/East Asia cultural differences challenge these educators, if they do, and what the educators have done to cope with and overcome these challenges. The gathering of such information would benefit educators working with East Asians in East Asia, but it would also assist educators in their interfaces with East Asians outside of East Asia by helping them to create policies, curricula, courses, and lesson plans that better serve East Asian populations no matter where they are located.

Another recommendation for future research is to expand examination of the effectiveness of intercultural communication and professional cross-cultural training in the context of Western educator expatriates in East Asian education. The results of this study on intercultural communication and professional cross-cultural training may not be completely trustworthy because they did originate through direct accounts from the

educators and further, so few studies were included in the synthesis. **In order to** illuminate whether either or both of the constructs impact the effectiveness of Western educator expatriates in East Asian educational institutions, it **would** be more helpful to collect the experiences of the educators' first-hand. To make the findings of these investigations as conclusive as **possible**, larger sample sizes of Western educator expatriates **should** be gathered and used for study. **It would also be interesting** to know if and how the educational experiences of other groups of educator expatriates in a wider range of East Asian countries mirror those of the Western educators expatriates in China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan and/or South Korea. The answers to these inquiries **may** assist not only Western educator expatriates in East Asian countries and expatriates in general, **but** all individuals to figure out what interventions work best to help increase effectiveness in cross-cultural circumstances.

Recommendations

The international nature of education ensures that individuals of differing cultures come into contact with another, often on a daily basis depending upon where they live, work and study. This reality makes cultural difference in education real and an issue begging to be addressed in a way that is respectful and beneficial to all. Before that can happen, however, the educational institutions of the world **should** start by admitting that cultural difference does impact their learning environments. This impact is apparently amplified in educational circumstances when individuals of two vastly different cultures intermingle like Western educator expatriates and East Asian students and teachers in East Asian countries. **Thus**, Western educator expatriates, educator expatriates, educators in general and as well as the field of education **should** seriously consider the following recommendations.

Given the realities of cultural diversity, educators or expatriate or not, should see cultural difference as something they can no longer afford to ignore no matter where they educate. Globalization and the internationalization of education guarantees that most educators will, if they have not already associate with students, teachers, administrators, and others from cultures nothing like their own. **Thus**, it is no longer enough for educators to simply recognize and respect the divergences between cultures in their educational institutions. Now educators **should** muster the courage to confront and tackle these issues head on in and outside of the institutions they educate in. Educators **should** realize that culture not only impacts the differences in the ways in which all individuals work and live, **but** more importantly, the ways in which they learn. For this reason, it **would** benefit educators to learn the educational ideologies of the culturally diverse populations they work with and for and then learn how to adapt their schemes of education to best meet the needs and expectations of those populations, especially culturally diverse students. Having this cultural insight is especially critical for educator expatriates like the focus of this study, who work and live in countries with educational traditions infinitely different and **even** contradictory from their homes.

Once cultural difference is recognized and appreciated for its fundamental role in education, educators **should** then begin to address the divergences that exist between cultures in their educational institutions. **In order to** best serve culturally diverse students, teachers, administrators and others, educators on an international scale **should** learn how to effectively cross-culturally collaborate **so** that all cultures are given equal value and therefore, an equal voice in matters of education. Not just expatriate educators, **but** all educators ought to help foster in their educational systems, their educational institutions, their learning environments, with their students and especially within themselves the thoughts, attitudes and actions that promote a world view in which every culture has equal worth. One way to cultivate cross-cultural collaboration **may** be through the use of intercultural communication and/or professional cross-cultural training. However, intercultural communication and professional cross-cultural training **may** not be truly useful to educators unless the use of one or both of the constructs fulfills the particulars of educational contexts. **In other words**, if and how intercultural communication and/or professional cross-cultural training is **actually** used in education **should** be left to educators to decide based upon the specifics of the cross-cultural circumstances in which they work. This researcher also suggests that educators draw on their personal experiences and lessons learned through trial and error in the course of educating and/or working with culturally diverse individuals to strengthen their intercultural communication skills since this is precisely where these abilities are most required and applied. **Finally**, educators **might** attend and participate in trainings, workshops, and programs offered in and outside of their educational institutions to develop their cross-cultural abilities.

Yet, it ought to be unwise and unfair to give educator expatriates and educators the sole responsibility of making adjustments to more effectively cater to culturally diverse individuals. Change in education **should** be the responsibility of all in education, including education as a field. For this change to occur, modifications **may** be necessary in educational systems worldwide starting with curriculum. **Perhaps**, rather than being blind to cultural diversity, as it appears is too often the case, educational systems around the world should adapt and

design their curricula to appropriately reflect the diversity of their specific culturally divergent populations. Many educational systems in the world also largely lack cultural diversity within their organizational structures. **That is**, systems of education in nations **should** do more to attract and acquire culturally divergent individuals who best personify the diversity found within their educational institutions **so** that particular diversity is sufficiently represented on all levels of education. Moreover, these educational systems **should** create and enforce policies that adequately advocate for and reflect the multiculturalism found in their educational institutions.

Implications

Expatriates. In view of the fact that the Western educator expatriates seem seriously tested by cultural difference in their daily lives, and especially in their work in the East Asian countries, it **might** be time to admit that these educators cannot be compared to and categorized with other expatriates or **even** other Western expatriates.

Serving overseas as an expatriate is challenging enough, **but** these challenges are often compounded when an expatriate, especially a Western expatriate, sojourns to a country that is far different from that of his/her home as in the case of Western educator expatriates in East Asian countries. **Although** other expatriates and Western expatriates certainly encounter cross-cultural circumstances in the course of their daily work and/or lives, their experiences are likely not as complex, as intense or as challenging as Western educator expatriates in East Asian countries. Amongst all of the nations of the world, the cultures of East Asia are known to be some of the most difficult to navigate for expatriates, especially Western expatriates, due to massive the cultural divide that exists between Western and East Asian countries. The multiple levels of cultural challenges these educators negotiate daily during a year or more makes them and thus, their experiences in their East Asian contexts unique from other Western expatriates and expatriates in general. **Thus**, there is much to be learned from the encounters of these educators during and **even** after their service in East Asian educational assignments.

Western educator expatriates, educator expatriates, and **even** educators in general **may** benefit from the knowledge gained by these educators about East Asian education and culture, which **may** inspire educators in general to change their thoughts, attitudes, actions and ultimately ways of educating to better serve East Asians in education not just in East Asia, but in all countries of the world. Also, Western educator expatriates as a consequence of being expatriates, engage in cross-cultural contact at least daily, if not hourly in their East Asian countries, which **may** make them more competent in cross-cultural collaboration than the average individual who never left his/her home country.

Thus, these Western educators **may** be able to teach other expatriate educators and **even** expatriates a great deal about how best to negotiate the cultural divergences between the

West and East Asia and further, how to handle the differences between home and host countries **so** that all expatriates can be more capable in cross-cultural situations in their host countries.

Educators. **Unfortunately**, it seems that too few educators recognize and/or act on the cultural differences between themselves and the culturally different individuals they come into contact with on a weekly, daily and **even** an hourly basis in their work depending upon where they educate. This likely unintentional disregard and/or neglect of cultural difference by educators **may** not only largely account for the cultural disconnects found in this study, **but** also the cultural mismatches that **may** be occurring in other educational contexts around the world. The existence of cultural disconnects underscores the impact that cultural difference appears to have on the educational institutions, learning environments and students of the globe. Given this, educators, expatriate or not, ought to recognize cultural difference as a verity that requires their time, attention and action in their educational institutions no matter where those institutions are situated.

All educators **should** foster cross-collaboration in their learning environments and with their students, **but** this ability is especially vital for educator expatriates who work in countries with educational schemes that often vastly differ and **even** contradict those of their homes. One way to cultivate cross-cultural collaboration in education **may** be through the use of intercultural communication and/or professional cross-cultural training. The few Western educator expatriates of this review that did make efforts to understand and attend to the cultural differences between themselves and the East Asians. They interfaced with in the course of education in East Asia countries were found to benefit in their work in a number of specific ways.

If the active application of intercultural communication and/or professional cross training assisted a group of Western educator expatriates in milieu of East Asian education, **then** it makes sense that the application of one or both of the constructs **may** be helpful to educators in cross-cultural educational situations in other countries and **even** internationally. **In other words**, wherever **and** however educators educate, their work **may** profit if they actively employ some level of intercultural communication and/or

professional cross-cultural training to their educational practice. Nevertheless, until intercultural communication and professional cross-cultural training are more widely recognized, used and researched in education than they have been to date, how they truly benefit educators will unfortunately remain unclear. In the meantime, it is not so much that educators use intercultural communication and/or professional cross-cultural training as recommended, but rather that they find and implement the means of cultivating cross-collaboration that best serves them and their particular educational institutions, learning environments and students.

Education. Globalization has internationalized education. As a consequence of this, individuals are able to live, study and/or work in most any nation in the world. When individuals sojourn to overseas countries for these purposes, they bring with them their inherent cultures of origin, which they display in the ways that they think, act, speak and learn. The differences between one's home and host cultures, especially when they are marked, may lead to misunderstandings and more importantly, the cultural disconnects learned by this metasynthesis. The results of the disconnects attributed to factors of cultural difference may suggest that educational systems have not yet done enough to appreciate, address and when possible, prevent the cultural miscommunications that are surely transpiring in countless educational institutions across the globe. How education can do a better job of catering to culturally different individuals should be left to individual systems of education to decide, but change should happen and when it does it should be the responsibility of all in education in countries rather than just educators who may or may not be foreign.

If educators are foreign, they should be welcomed in host countries because they contribute knowledge and more importantly they provide tangible economic benefits to the economies of their host countries. Therefore, in light of these realities, the practice of certain countries to make foreign educators unwelcome seems a bit reckless. While globalization has made it possible for educators to educate in practically any country in the world, some countries view foreign educators as being inferior to their native ones and in fact, allow their educational structures to purposely marginalize foreign educators.

These nations should alter the structures of their educational systems from rejecting to embracing foreign born educators considering that these educators will continue their sojourns for work in education whether particular countries appreciate them or not.

Additionally, South Korea, Japan and the other countries that criticize foreign educators as being under qualified in education may want to follow the lead of the Fulbright Taiwan English Teaching Program of Taiwan and require foreign educators to be both qualified and trained for educational assignments. Further, there are nations that disparage their foreign educators as being ill-equipped for education yet they do not, for the most part, provide any training to help foreign educators acclimate to their new host cultures. These factors when taken as whole may explain, in part, why the Western educator expatriates of this study in Taiwan were successful in their educational assignments while their counterparts in countries like South Korea and Japan largely faltered. Thus, it stands to reason that if more countries were to strengthen their educator qualification criteria and/or supply training specific to their educational contexts predeparture, post-arrival and/or intermittently throughout educational assignments, foreign educators, especially educator expatriates may be enabled to change their ways of thinking, acting and ultimately, educating to best meet the needs of the educational institutions, learning environments and students in their host countries.

The findings of this metasynthesis regarding the cultural disconnects and intercultural communication and professional cross-cultural training of Western educator expatriates in China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Japan and South Korea though largely inconclusive as they are based on the analysis of only a few qualitative studies, should not be disregarded. The suggestion that the cultural disconnects between Western educator expatriates and East Asian students and teachers existed and were the result of educational ideology differences and educator bilingual ability in the context of East Asian education is significant. This proposition is significant because it is consistent with both theory and previous literature which has shown cultural difference to be a major source of division between Western expatriates and host country nationals in the realm of work. In fact, in keeping with earlier research, the West/East Asia cultural divergences were found to perpetuate many of the misunderstandings and thus, the cultural disconnects that occurred between the Western educators and East Asian students and teachers in educational institutions in the five East Asian countries studied.

The second finding of this review concerning the helpfulness of intercultural communication and professional cross-cultural training in this East Asian context is also noteworthy considering that it too mirrors, albeit to a lesser degree, past investigations on the effectiveness of these two constructs in general cross-cultural circumstances. While this analysis, could not completely determine the effectuality of intercultural communication or professional cross-cultural training in the milieu of East Asian education, it, similar to other studies, discovered that the two concepts may be of help in addressing the cultural disconnects.

However, contrary to earlier literature, **this review concluded** that intercultural communication and professional cross-cultural training were useful if and only if more than one dimension of either or both of the constructs were actively used in the practice education in the East Asian countries.

On the whole, the conclusions of this metasynthesis though tentative, **may** be potentially ground breaking in that they offer information on Western educator expatriates in East Asian countries, a subject which research has not yet paid much heed to. Further, these results have potentially deep and **possibly** long lasting implications for not just Western educator expatriates in East Asian countries, **but in fact**, all educator expatriates, educators and the field of education **because** they accentuate the influence of cultural difference on education and the need to address that influence regardless of context, culture or country.

Until now, the question of how to best address the challenges that cultural difference has posed to education has in most nations, been unanswered, **but** this question deserves to be answered, **and** when it is, countries throughout the globe **should** be able to answer it with solutions that meet their particular collective cultural needs, expectations and educational contexts. The nations that carry out this recommendation will likely not only benefit in their systems of education, **but** more importantly they will benefit from international education by being equipped to seize the immense opportunity of globalization offered by the educators they host from abroad.

APPENDIX D

EXAMPLE OF NON-NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKER'S THESIS ANALYSIS

In this chapter the answer to research questions, the findings and what they mean will be presented. Then the contribution that this study made to knowledge of English language teaching, study implications and recommendations, limitations of the research, possibilities for further research, a reflective account, and final comments will be discussed.

5.1 Answers to research questions, findings and their significance

The main research question that guided this study referred to the level of agreement between student and teacher expectations about the academic writing that students undertake in their linguistics, teaching and research seminar classes. In order to achieve that, one of the aims of this study was to explore and present data in which teachers and students constructed and expressed their expectations regarding academic writing in their university setting. It also intended to compare those expectations to see if students and teachers expected the same from academic writing.

The results of this study suggested that teachers' expectations and those of their students revealed a certain match. Teacher and students agreed on "organization" as the most salient element of good writing; and other elements such as "length", "cohesion", "coherence", sophisticated language, "topic" and "supporting sentences", "good punctuation", and clearness. Nevertheless, teachers and students mainly differed on the following: firstly, most teachers mentioned the importance of instructions to be followed by students, of references and of paragraph length, whereas few students mentioned those. It is important to mention that teachers did not state whether the instructions were verbal or written; and students didn't mention "following instructions" as an element of good academic writing until they were asked about them. Secondly, vocabulary was the most salient element for all students, while just one teacher mentioned that term; thirdly, for most students critical thinking was important as well as writing for a specific audience while those elements were only mentioned by a few teachers. Fourthly, most students expected their academic writing to contribute to knowledge; they were concerned about writing an innovative interesting useful and/or valid assignment. In contrast, just one teacher commented on that.

In addition, some faculty comments led to further differences in: following instructions, first drafts, format, content, cohesion and coherence, quoting, and conclusions. Students' comments led to differences in types of writing, length of the assignments, individual teachers' background, prior knowledge, writing experience and requirements and organization.

What do these findings mean? Sufka and George (2000) point out that at the beginning of any relationship, clear and mutual expectations must be set out; otherwise, misunderstandings frequently arise. They also state that in the case of a student faculty relationship, if expectations are not in place, achieving an ideal learning environment is greatly jeopardized and a number of problems for students, faculty and their institutions are created. They go on to say that clear and explicit expectations are very important, but that few faculty members actually appreciate the role that the explicit expectations play in creating relationships that make possible a positive learning environment. In addition, Kuhn (cited in Hairston, 1999) states "novelty ordinarily emerges only for the man who, knowing *with precision* [original emphasis] what he should expect, is able to recognize that something has gone wrong" (p.9)

Therefore, as this study seems to indicate, there were more different expectations than similar ones. This raises some issues that deserve further attention. In other words, there was a level of agreement, but that level was not as noteworthy as might be expected. On the teachers' side, one of the contributions for not having a good match may have to do with not making expectations explicit. In most cases teachers expressed their expectations just by giving students instructions. It could explain why teachers were mainly concerned about students following their instructions.

Furthermore, teachers within this same context had distinct expectations for good writing, and it confuse students. Although the collection of data was carried out at the end of the term to led students and teachers know more about each other, most students expressed that it was difficult for them to figure out what their teacher's expectations were.

Expectations are perhaps not made by explicit because it seemed that faculty members have not built common expectations across all levels, content areas and genres. What is more, it also seemed that faculty members have not agreed of a definition of good writing. In the case of Leki's (1995) study, even there was an agreement on standards for writing beyond sentence-level within the university, her results showed a disparity of opinions and judgments expressed by the faculty: "the student and faculty commentary on these essays make it evident that although these groups may well be able to agree on certain criteria for 'good writing' and may even use the same words to describe those criteria, behind explicit standards of clear organization, appropriate vocabulary, effective introductions, and strong conclusions lie implicit understandings of those terms" (p.40). In this case that implicitness was reflected when some students said what is accepted in a class may not be accepted in another, and it has great consequences since students' expectations mainly emerged from prior learning, directions given to them and personal experience.

On the students' side, the contribution to that difference in expectations may have to do with students' interpretations of the writing assignments. McCarthy's study (1998) explain this: "In spite of the similarities among the writing tasks for the three courses, evidence from several sources shows that Dave [case student participant] interpreted them as being totally different from each other and totally different from anything he had ever done before. Dave's characteristic approach across courses was to focus so fully on the particular new ways of thinking and writing in each setting that commonalities with previous writing were obscured for him." (p.137)

In this study what students thought their teachers wanted suggests that some students have learned that in each setting there are new ways of thinking and writing or new conventions of interpretation and language. It reinforces the idea of making standards as explicit as possible and at the same time realizing that even with explicit expectations, there will be much that will remain implicit and, therefore, difficult for students to comprehend and respond to. In addition, some teachers' comment such as: *students mistake a ten for presentation or decoration; students think we don't read their papers; when students paraphrase, they believe that it's their own words and they do not comment on the paraphrasing; students didn't conclude, they didn't wrap it up; etc.* As well as individual teachers' focus on what they called form, content, or both form and content, corroborate that students felt as newcomers in each academic territory making the same 'mistakes' in each writing context.

This study has corroborated many of the findings of other similar studies as explained above, in addition to shedding further light on our understanding of academic writing, the study has made other contributions as explained in the following section.

5.2 Study contributions

I see this study contributing to our knowledge in the area of academic writing in English from three perspectives: filling a gap in the literature by investigating an under-researched population, a theoretical and methodological contribution to practice.

5.2.1 Understanding of the topic in this particular setting

Most of the studies done so far have been focused on analyzing professional writing in several disciplines and on examining the expectations for the writing of college students across the curriculum of native English speakers, non-native speakers living in an English-speaking country, or where English play an important second language role. The needs and expectations in a context where English is not the predominant language and where students are studying to be English teachers are very different since they are learning not only the language but also how to teach it;

therefore, this investigation made a contribution to the research on writing in a second language in that particular context.

5.2.2 Theoretical and methodological contribution

The second contribution is a theoretical/methodological contribution because this study has constructed a theoretical framework in which to study expectations. Based on Debois, Alverson and Staley (1979) and Olson, Roese and Zanna (1996) expectations were categorized into five main categories: emerged from prior learning, emerged from directions given to the person, based on personal experience, based on information from other people, and inferred logically from other beliefs or expectations.

Constructing the theoretical framework in this manner helped me interpret the teacher and student expectation data and how those played out in their personal conceptualizations of academic writing. In the case of teachers, firstly, their expectations mainly emerged from prior learning, and as it was said in 2.2 above, knowledge acquired through prior learning affects new learning in an important way by influencing the processes of attention and pattern recognition. According to this, what individual teachers recognized as elements of good writing was directed linked to their educational, academic and professional backgrounds. Therefore, they were different. Furthermore, a person's current knowledge plays a critical role in determining what the person learns from any experience. In this case, if a teacher was pursuing postgraduate studies, doing research or taking any other kind of academic courses. It would determine what he or she learnt from his or her teacher teaching practices.

Secondly, most teachers did not express if they were following directions from somewhere. Thirdly, most teachers did not mention taking their personal experiences as relevant, especially their experiences as writers; fourthly, there was just one teacher whose expectations were based on information from other people. And finally, there was just a comment which referred to expectations inferred logically from other beliefs. Therefore, all of the above suggested, as it was said before, that expectations have to be explicit.

In the case of students, firstly, their expectations mainly emerged from prior learning; therefore, it is necessary that teachers build a set of common expectations about academic writing. Secondly, students' expectations also emerged from directions given to them, and as it was said in 2.2 above, it has a great influence on students' behavior since directions orient people's attention to specific information. Therefore, instructions have to be as explicit as possible. Thirdly, students expressed that their expectations were also based on what they had done in other classes (previous experiences), but most of the times they had learnt that what was accepted by a teacher was not necessarily accepted by others. Fourthly, most students noted the importance it had to ask their classmates about the instructions given when they did not understand them well. It showed that their expectations were based on information from other people. Finally, just PR4's students commented on having expectations inferred logically (from their teacher's feedback). Therefore, teachers need to be aware of these forces underlying student writing.

It is important to know the source of expectation because it can help to understand where the disagreement originates and therefore do something to make the gap between expectations smaller. For instance, according to the results of this study, if teacher knew that students' main expectations emerge from prior learning, are based on directions given and on the importance of giving clear instructions. In addition, if teachers followed directions given from a program where expectations for academic writing were explicit, students would learn that there are common expectations across courses and therefore they would just have to focus on the particular new context.

On the other hand, if students learned that, for example, their teachers' expectations are based on his/her personal experiences, they would ask their teacher about what she/he is studying, writing or doing at the moment and that could help students to better understand what their teachers expects. Furthermore, if chairpersons learned, for example, that teachers' expectations mainly emerge from

prior learning, then they would constantly train their teachers so that they **could** have a common set of expectations.

5.2.3 Pedagogical contributions

The findings of this research confirmed similar studies done in other contexts. **This study** has also brought to light this incongruence between teachers' and students' expectations **and** how those can impact student performance. **Prior (1998) points out** that "studies of classroom writing have suggested that an instructor's, ideology, goals, **and** ways of structuring the class have important effects on students' writing" (p.39). **Therefore**, the way students are taught has a great impact on their writing. As it was said in 2.3.3, the entire process of education is shaped by the culture within which it operates (Ballard and Clanchy, 1991). Further discussion on the implications of this contribution is held on the following section.

5.3 implications and Recommendations for departmental chairpersons

Hairston (1991) states that, the traditional paradigm, which has been the basis of composition teaching for several decades, has some principal features. Richard Young (cited in Hairston, 1999) mentioned the following features: it emphasized the composed product rather than the composing process, the analysis of discourse into description, narration, exposition, and argument, the strong concern with usage and style, the preoccupation with the informal essay and research paper. Hairston goes on to say that James Berlin and Robert Inkster mentioned other features: it stresses expository writing to the virtual exclusion of all the other forms, posits an unchanging reality which is independent of the writer **and** which all writers are expected to describe in the same way regardless of the rhetorical situation, neglects invention almost entirely, **and** makes style the most important element in writing. Hairston added ore features: it has the belief that writers know what there are going to say before they begin to write, **and** therefore, their most important task when they are preparing to write is finding a form which to organize their content. It also has the belief that the composing process is linear (from prewriting to writing to rewriting), **and finally** it has the belief that teaching editing is teaching writing.

Hairston (1999) also noted that this traditional prescriptive and product-centered paradigm that underlies writing instruction hides some problems: the teachers who concentrate their effort on teaching style, organization, and correctness are not likely to recognize that their students need work in invention. **In addition**, if they stress that proofreading **and** editing are the chief skills one uses to revise a paper, they will not realize that their students have no concept of what it means to make substantive revisions in a paper.

All of the above is mentioned because in this study, the main expectation expressed by teachers was organization. It **could not** be said that the teachers **in this study** were using this paradigm since they were not merely writing teachers. However, it **could** be **possible** that there is a situation like the one mentioned by **Hairston (1999)**: "the overwhelming majority of college writing teachers in the United States are not professional writing teachers. They do not research or publish on rhetoric or composition, **and** they do not know the scholarship in this field; they do not read the professional journals **and** they do not attend professional meetings such as the annual Conference on College Composition and Communication; they do not participate in faculty development workshops for writing teachers" (p. 6). Hairston added that most departmental chairpersons do not believe that an English instructor needs special qualifications to teach writing.

For teachers

From the results obtained, a very important question emerged: What can be done to smooth out differences between teachers and students? **Part of the answers was mentioned before**: make standards as explicit as possible. **Another** part of the answer **could** be related to student skills training. Teachers of this department **should** make an effort to raise students' awareness of

expectations on the teachers' parts and teach them that they will need to learn how to negotiate writing in each discourse community they will potentially face. Teachers should could do it primarily by not telling them how they need to write in each discourse community, which would be impossible, but rather teaching them how to familiarize themselves in each setting.

About the teaching of writing itself, some of the principal features of the new paradigm of composition are the following: it focuses on the writing process, teach strategies for invention and discovery, instructors evaluate the written product by how well it fulfills the writer's intention and meets the audience's needs, it includes a variety of writing modes, expressive as well as exploratory; it stresses the principal that writing teachers should be people who write, among others (Hairston, 1999). Therefore, it is recommended that due to the fact that learning to write requires a great and frequent practice, students write more in all their subjects and they should be taught not only to write, but also to read critically. In addition, according to the results, it is suggested to teachers that they should analyze and take into account that in most cases students write to get a grade and therefore please their teacher as their only audience.

According to Shaughnessy (cited in Hairston 1999), teachers cannot teach students to write by looking only at what they have written; they must also understand how that writing was produce and why it assumed the form it did. Teachers have to try to understand what goes on during the act of writing if they want to affect the outcome.

Therefore, the results in this study recommend that teachers evaluate whose standards they are using to assess students' writing, and they build and make common expectations explicit across the main kinds on genre used in this context, across language levels, and across content subjects or areas.

5.4 Limitations of the research

One of the limitations of the study was that because it was a case study where there just eight participant teachers and 24 participant students, the result could not be the representative of this setting. In addition, at least three more teachers from the linguistics area and one more from the teaching area were needed to have a balanced representation of the three areas.

Another limitation had to do with the collection of teachers' data. The assignment used by teachers during the stimulated recall was not a piece of writing written by any of the participants since teachers had not collected any (see 3.4). Therefore, the writing they used was from a previous course. It could have affected the level of agreement.

In addition, a limitation of the collection of student data was that both the questionnaire and focus groups took place the same day, and it was quite long for students. As a result, some focus groups were carried out very quickly since students had other classes. Another limitation was that there was no way to document the data gathered from the focus group identifying individual speakers; consequently, at times when I wanted corroborate some information given by an individual student in the questionnaire, it was not possible.

5.5 Possibilities for further research

In light of the limitations mentioned above further research would need to address the number of participants. Certainly data would be more trustworthy with a larger sample and matched numbers of participants from each area in the case of teachers. Further research correcting the focus group issues mentioned above would also be useful. Additionally, further research could be carried out to analyze the relationship between students' background (educational, economic, social, family factors) and their expectations. Another possibility for further research can be the analysis of the pieces of writing that teachers selected as good.

5.6 The reflective account

Writing was the activity that always caught my attention. When I started studying to be an English teacher, writing was not a complex for me as it apparently was for my classmates. I knew it was

challenging, but I always enjoyed the process. When I became an English teacher to university students, I realized that most of my students struggle with writing; therefore some questions arose: why is it very difficult for them to write? Why can't they even write a paragraph? I observed that expressing and ordering their ideas was tough for them.

The interest of researching in this area arose while I was studying my MA and when I started to teach pre-service English teachers. In that term I was teaching culture of English-speaking countries and I asked students to write an article. When I read their pieces of writing I was surprised since I thought that due to the fact that they were studying to be English teachers, they did not have serious writing problems. I did not really expect the problems I saw in their papers; thus, I started thinking about the possible causes of that situation and came to the conclusion that one of the problems was that I was not very clear about what I wanted from that assignment. I also asked students why they wrote the way they did, some answered that they did not really know what they had to do. Others said that they did not know how to write an article, and some others said they did what they understood. From then on I wanted to find out how I could avoid these kind of misunderstandings. When I started this research, I knew I wanted to explore what experienced teachers wanted from academic writing in my employment context. In that way I could learn how writing was assessed in content subjects. Then I thought it would also be a great idea to find out what students thought about good academic writing since it could give me an insight about what to expect from students. However, during the development of this study I became interested in the teaching of writing and realized that this study could help to improve it.

The impact this experience of researching teacher and student expectations has had on my teaching practices is significant since now I am more aware of some aspects such as the confusion that is caused by the contrasting expectations of teachers and students, the need of students to write more and they need to yield a common set of expectations for good writing, among others. I have also learned that instead of criticizing students' writing we teachers should analyze and give students the kind of response that helps them grow as good writers.

5.7 Final comments

The importance of making expectations explicit was the crucial issue that arose from the results of this study. Kuhn (cited in Hairston, 1999) stated that only the people, in this case the teachers, who know with precision what they should expect are the ones who are able to recognize what went wrong. In order to achieve an ideal learning environment, there is a need for expectations to be mutual. If the institution's, the departments', the teachers', or the students' expectations are not explicit, then expectation will not be mutual.

Conducting this research was a relevant experience because I learned a lot not only about the topic but also about the whole process that involves writing an MA thesis. Even though I had hard times (especially when I started the data analysis chapter because I had such an amount of information that I did not know where to start from) I really enjoy it.