



**THE USE OF DISCOURSE MARKERS IN THE
ACADEMIC WRITINGS OF IRAQI B.A.
STUDENTS AT AL-QALAM UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE**

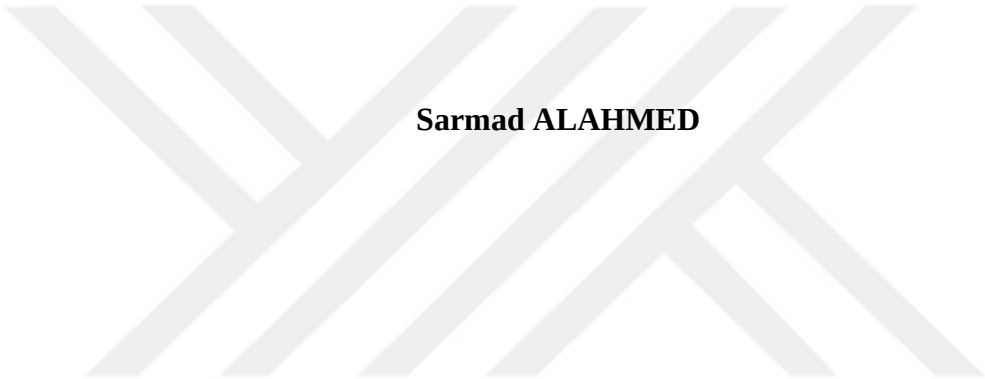
**2021
MASTER THESIS
Department of English Language and Literature**

Sarmad ALAHMED

Supervisor

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özkan KIRMIZI

**THE USE OF DISCOURSE MARKERS IN THE ACADEMIC WRITINGS OF
IRAQI B.A. STUDENTS AT AL-QALAM UNIVERSITY COLLEGE**



Sarmad ALAHMED

T.C

Karabuk University

Institute of Graduate Programs

Department of English Language and Literature

Prepared as

Master Thesis

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özkan KIRMIZI

KARABUK

June 2021

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS	1
THESIS APPROVAL PAGE.....	3
DECLARATION	4
FOREWORD	5
DEDICATION	6
ABSTRACT.....	7
ÖZ.....	8
ARCHIVE RECORD INFORMATION	9
ARŞİV KAYIT BİLGİLERİ.....	10
ABBREVIATIONS.....	101
SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH	12
PURPOSE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH	12
METHOD OF THE RESEARCH	12
HYPOTHESIS OF THE RESEARCH / RESEARCH PROBLEM.....	12
POPULATION AND SAMPLE	12
SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS / DIFFICULTIES	12
1. CHAPTER ONE: Introduction.....	13
1.1. Problem of the study	13
1.2 Aim of the study	13
1.3 Research questions	14
1.4 The Model Adopted.....	14
1.5 Limitations of the Study	14
1.6 Significance of the Study	15
2. CHAPTER TWO: Review of Literature	16
2.1. Introduction	16
2.2 Discourse Markers	19
2.3 Cohesion	25
2.4 Characteristics of DMs	28
2.4.1 The Functions of DMs	28

2.4.2 The meaning of DMs	29
2.4.3 Non-defining characteristics of DMs	31
2.5 Syntactic Properties of Discourse Markers	34
2.6 Semantic relationships of Discourse Markers	38
2.7 Sequencing of Discourse Markers	45
2.8 Fraser's classification of Discourse markers	47
2.9 Fraser's classification.....	48
2.10 Research questions	48
3. CHAPTER THREE: Methodology.....	50
3.1 Introduction.....	50
3.2 Participants.....	50
3.3 Instrument	50
3.4 Data Collection	51
4. CHAPTER FOUR: Results	53
4.1 Introduction.....	53
4.2 Researcher question 1	53
4.3 Researcher question 2.....	69
4.4 Researcher question 3.....	72
5. CHAPTER FIVE: Discussion.....	80
5.1 Discussion.....	80
6. CHAPTER SIX: Conclusion	85
6.1 Introduction.....	85
6.2 Summary of the Study and the Conclusion	85
6.3 Limitations of the Study	86
6.4 Suggestion for Further Researches.....	86
REFERENCES.....	87
LIST OF TABLES	95
LIST OF FIGURES	97
CURRICULUM VITAE.....	98

THESIS APPROVAL PAGE

I certify that in my opinion the thesis submitted by Sarmad Atella Hasan ALAHMED titled “THE USE OF DISCOURSE MARKERS IN THE ACADEMIC WRITINGS OF IRAQI B.A. STUDENTS AT AL-QALAM UNIVERSITY COLLEGE” is fully adequate in scope and in quality as a thesis for the degree of Master of English Language/Applied Linguistics.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özkan KIRMIZI

.....

Thesis Advisor, Department of English Language and Literature

This thesis is accepted by the examining committee with a unanimous vote in the Department of English Language and literature as a Master of Science thesis. June 3, 2021

Examining Committee Members (Institutions)

Signature

Chairman : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özkan KIRMIZI (KBU)

.....

Member : Assoc. Prof. Dr. İrfan TOSUNCUOĞLU (KBU)

.....

Member : Assist. Prof. Dr. Aydan IRGATOĞLU (AHBV)

.....

The degree of Master in English Language/Applied Linguistics by the thesis submitted is approved by the Administrative Board of the Institute of Graduate Programs, Karabuk University.

Prof. Dr. Hasan SOLMAZ

.....

Director of the Institute of Graduate Programs

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own work and all information included has been obtained and expounded in accordance with the academic rules and ethical policy specified by the institute. Besides, I declare that all the statements, results, materials, not original to this thesis have been cited and referenced literally.

Without being bound by a particular time, I accept all moral and legal consequences of any detection contrary to the aforementioned statement.

Name Surname: Sarmad ALAHMED

Signature :

FOREWORD

I would like to express my endless gratitude to my supervisor Assoc. Prof. Dr. Özkan KIRMIZI (Ph.D.) for the useful knowledge he has provided, the support, guidance, inspiration, patience, and motivation he has given me to finish this thesis.

I must also thank my family who were helpful, supportive, and patient with me throughout my study. Also, I would like to thank the staff of the English Department (Karabuk University – College of Art) for their effort.

Special thanks are to my friend Assist. Inst. Sura J. MOHAMMED for her help in typing out this work and for her valuable advice. Last but not least, I would like to express my deepest appreciation to my friend Assist. Inst. Rouwaida J. MOHAMMED for her psychological and intellectual support, encouraging pieces of advice, and for being the most understanding and helpful person I know.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my family, friends, and all my teachers that are supported me to continue my study.



ABSTRACT

The current study describes the use of discourse markers (DMs) in essays written by Iraqi B.A. students at Al-Qalam university college (in Kirkuk province, Iraq). The main aim of the current study is to find the use of DMs in essay writing by the participants. Ninety Iraqi B.A. students participated in this study. They were from three stages (freshmen, sophomores, and seniors). Ninety essays were written by the participants; each participant wrote one essay on topics that were specified. The DMs used by the participants were classified into four categories; a) Contrastive Markers (CDMs); b) Elaborative Markers (EDMs); c) Inferential Markers (IDMs) and d) Temporal Markers (TDMs). The findings of the current study show that the participants used EDMs (66%) followed by TDMs (17%), CMDs (11%), and IDMs (6%). It was concluded that the students overused the EDMs, such as 'and', 'as', 'or', 'but', and 'so'. In addition, they misused some DMs in their writing. The study also concluded that students' ability in using discourse markers has to be developed to reach the academic level in their writing.

Keywords: Discourse Markers, Essay Writing, Iraqi B.A. Students

ÖZ

Bu çalışma, Irak'ın Kerkük şehrinde bulunan Al-Qalam Üniversitesi Kolejindeki lisans öğrencileri tarafından yazılan denemelerde söylem işaretleyicilerinin (Sİ'ler) kullanımını incelemektedir. Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, katılımcılar tarafından kompozisyon yazımında kullanılan söylem işaretleyicilerini tespit etmektir. Doksan Iraklı birinci, ikinci ve üçüncü sınıf öğrencisi bu çalışmaya katılmıştır. Katılımcılar tarafından 90 makale yazılmıştır; Her katılımcı belirtilen konularla ilgili bir makale yazdı. Katılımcılar tarafından kullanılan söylem işaretleyicileri dört kategoriye ayrıldı; A) Kontrastif İşaretleyiciler (Kİ'ler); B) Ayrıntılı İşaretleyiciler (Aİ'ler); C) Çıkarımsal İşaretleyiciler (Çİ'ler) ve d) Zamansal İşaretleyiciler (Zİ'ler). Mevcut çalışmanın bulguları, katılımcıların ASİ'LERİ (% 66), ardından ZSİ'LERİ (% 17), KSİ'LERİ (% 11) ve ÇSİ'LERİ (% 6) kullandığını göstermektedir. Öğrencilerin 've', 'olarak', 'veya', 'ama' ve 'öyle' gibi ÇSİ'leri aşırı kullandıkları sonucuna varıldı. Ayrıca yazılarında bazı söylem işaretleyicilerini yanlış kullandılar. Çalışmada ayrıca, öğrencilerin yazılarında akademik düzeye ulaşmak için söylem işaretlerini kullanma becerilerinin geliştirilmesi gerektiği sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler : Söylem İşaretleyicileri, Kompozisyon Yazma, Iraklı Lisans Öğrencileri

ARCHIVE RECORD INFORMATION

Title of the Thesis	The Use of Discourse Markers in the Academic Writings of Iraqi B.A. Students at Al-Qalam University College
Author of the Thesis	Sarmad Atella Hasan ALAHMED
Supervisor of the Thesis	Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ozkan KIRMIZI
Status of the Thesis	Master's Degree
Date of the Thesis	2021
Field of the Thesis	Applied Linguistics
Place of the Thesis	KBU/LEE
Total Page Number	98
Keywords	Discourse Markers, Essay Writing, Iraqi B.A. Students

ARŞİV KAYIT BİLGİLERİ

Tezin Adı	Al-Qalam Üniversitesi Koleji'ndeki Iraklı lisans Öğrencilerinin tarafından Akademik Yazılarında Söylem İşaretleyicilerinin Kullanımı
Tezin Yazarı	Sarmad Atella Hasan ALAHMED
Tezin Danışmanı	Doç. Dr. Özkan KIRMIZI
Tezin Derecesi	Yüksek Lisans
Tezin Tarihi	2021
Tezin Alanı	Uygulamalı Dilbilim
Tezin Yeri	KBU / LEE
Tezin Sayfa Sayısı	98
Anahtar Kelimeler	Söylem İşaretleyicileri, Kompozisyon Yazma, Iraklı Lisans Öğrencileri

ABBREVIATIONS

DM : Discourse Marker

DMs : Discourse Markers

CDMs : Contrastive Discourse Markers

EDMs : Elaborative Discourse Markers

TDMs : Temporal Discourse Markers

IDMs : Inferential Discourse Markers

B.A. : Bachelor of Arts (Degree)

L1 : First Language

L2 : Second Language

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

ESL : English as a Second Language

P : Participant

F : Frequency

SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH

The Use of Discourse Markers in the Academic Writings of Iraqi Students at Al-Qalam University College.

PURPOSE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH

There are limited studies conducted on the use of DMs on the writing of Iraqi students in Iraqi universities. The current study will contribute to the studies on DMs of Iraqi students.

METHOD OF THE RESEARCH

The present study used the semantic perspective of Fraser (2004) in classifying the discourse markers.

HYPOTHESIS OF THE RESEARCH / RESEARCH PROBLEM

The current study is concerned about explaining the use of DMs in essay writing by Iraqi students to fill in the gap since there are very limited studies on using DMs of Iraqi students at Iraqi universities.

POPULATION AND SAMPLE

The current study was conducted with 90 B.A. students that are studying English as a foreign language at Al-Qalam university college (45 males and 45 females).

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS / DIFFICULTIES

The current study is limited to Fraser's categories in the classification of DMS.

1. CHAPTER ONE: Introduction

1.1. Problem of the study

The issue of using discourse markers (DMs) in academic writing has attracted the interest of several studies since writing skill is considered as the most difficult skill in language for native and non-native speakers (Norrish, 1983). DMs are concepts that show the relationship between the basic message and the previous text, and convey the mindset of the speaker and certain realistic intentions. House (2013) explored the usage of DMs and how they influenced EFL teaching in a study that involved both native and non-native speakers of English. The results showed that all groups of students (Chinese students, Japanese students, and native speakers of English) shared some of the characteristics, and used different types of discourse markers used in their writings, such as ‘to conclude, and, first, and so’. On the contrary, a lot of studies explained the effect of DMs in the quality of the text (e.g. Dan-ni & Zheng, 2010; Ghasemi 2013; Leo, 2012). In addition, studies focusing on DMs to analyze writing produced results close to the current study (Irfan et al., 2020; Dumlao & Wilang, 2019; Ghanbari, 2016; Sudrajat & Asih, 2020). Werner (2017) investigated the use of DMs in academic writing by EFL students on different proficiency levels without a further comparison with English L1 undergraduates.

The findings of these studies showed that DMs play a significant role in improving the writing rate when they are used appropriately (Jalilifar, 2008). The use of DMs was explained in more than one language, based on Rahimi (2011), such as Chinese, Danish, French, German, Finnish, and Hebrew. As there are very limited studies explain the use of DMs by Iraqi students at Iraqi universities. Hence, the current study is concerned with explaining the use of DMs in Iraqi students to fill the gap that there are very limited studies on the use of DMs of Iraqi students at Iraqi universities.

1.2 Aim of the study

The current study aims to explore the DMs that are used by Iraqi students in their essays. The researcher aims to give a clear insight on the style and the cohesion of the

essays that the students of Iraqi universities are producing. To achieve the aim of the researcher, B.A. students at Al-Qalam University College were taken as samples to analyze their essays. The study also tries to establish links between L1 and L2 discourse markers' use.

1.3 Research questions

1. What types of DMs are used by the Iraqi bachelor students?
2. What types of DMs are misused by the Iraqi B.A. students and how their L1 affected their use of DMs?
3. What types of DMs are overused by the Iraqi B.A. students?

1.4 The model adopted

The present study used the semantic perspective of Fraser (2004) in classifying the discourse markers. Fraser's (2004) classification of pragmatic markers into four types is quite comprehensive and detailed, and it provides numerous examples of the pragmatic markers in each category. In his classification, discourse markers are one type of pragmatic markers, the others being basic, commentary, and parallel markers. Each of the four types is further subdivided into subcategories. The researcher will concentrate on his classification of discourse markers in this study. This model is explained in the next chapter. In addition, the methodological information about the current study is given in chapter three.

1.5 Limitations of the study

The current study has dealt with DMs in the essays of the Iraqi B.A. students of the English language department at Al-Qalam university college. To keep the study more stable, it has some limitations. It consists of a limited number of students, and hence limited number of written assignments. The study did not focus on genre, and it was based on Fraser's categories in the classification of DMS.

1.6 Significance of the study

This research will be valuable because it provides evidence on the degree to which Iraqi EFL students use discourse markers when writing academic essays. Such data should be used to decide which facets of discourse markers are discussed and emphasized. On the other hand, since the university students participated in this study will teach English in future after graduate, data on their use of discourse markers will shed light on Iraqi EFL teachers' competence in this field. In addition, the current study is significant since it fills in the gap since there are very limited studies conducted on the use of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students at Iraqi universities. In addition, it will pave the ways to other studies based on the essays of the Iraqi students. The current study will provide insights into the writing of the students in Iraqi universities at their drawback their drawbacks and weaknesses. It will aid those who are concerned with investigating the pragmatic functions of the different types of DMs in the written discourse

2. CHAPTER TWO: Review of Literature

2.1. Introduction

Traditionally, linguists have devoted much more attention to the intrasentential units of language and the processes associated with them than to larger units. Phonology deals with the sound system, morphology studies the internal structure of words, syntax studies the structure of sentences and semantics is concerned with the meaning of individual words and how they convey a meaning when combined into a sentence. The largest unit considered by these areas of linguistics, from the point of view of both structure and meaning, is the sentence (Lewis, 2006).

Still, there are some aspects of language that are left unaccounted for. On the one hand, when we speak, we organize our thoughts into units larger than sentences. This suprasegmental organization is also part of language use. On the other hand, we find expressions within a sentence, such as *in addition*, *as a result*, and *in spite of that*, that are not usually handled by syntax or semantics. Even though these expressions occur within a sentence, and do not constitute an inappropriate use of the language, they are often ignored by syntax because they do not seem to fit into any of the standard syntactic categories and by semantics because they do not seem to add anything to the meaning of the sentence. These elements of language are called discourse markers, and they have to do with discourse or language in use.

Discourse markers are words or phrases that help the hearer interpret the current message by indicating what kind of relationship there is between the current message and prior discourse. discourse markers do not contribute to the propositional content of the sentence (Kirmizi, 2017). Their meaning is procedural rather than representational since they aid speakers of a language in the process of interpreting a continuous text.

In English, examples of discourse markers are *as a consequence*, *besides*, *in addition*, *however*, *nevertheless*, *therefore* and *well*, to name just a few. In the following pairs of sentences, the second one starts with a discourse marker:

- (1) a. We did not raise enough money. Therefore. We will not be able to start the renovations as scheduled.

b. The results of the tests were not encouraging. However, she went on hoping.

c. It's too late to go out now. Besides. It is snowing.

The meaning conveyed by these pairs of sentences would not change if the discourse markers, *therefore*, *however*, and *besides* were left out. In other words, the content of the sentences would be the same: in (1a) the facts or ideas being communicated would still be “we did not raise enough money” and “we will not be able to start the renovations as scheduled”, in (1b) “the results of the tests were not encouraging” and “she went on hoping”, and in (1c) “it's too late to go out” and “it is snowing”.

However, with the help of the discourse markers, it is easier to understand the relationship in discourse. The use of *therefore* in (1a) marks the first sentence as a reason for what is concluded in the second one. In (1b), *however*, signals a contrast between what one would expect given that the results of the tests were not encouraging and what happened (ie., that in spite of the outcome of the test, she did keep on hoping). And in (1c), the first sentence provides a reason why it might not be advisable to go out now (“it's too late”); then, *besides* in the second sentence prepares the hearer for another reason (“it is snowing”).

Discourse markers, then, make an explicit relationship between and among sentences. From this perspective, one might think that discourse markers are superfluous and wonder why speakers would ever bother to use them. On the one hand, it is true that in many cases, the discourse marker can be omitted and there is no problem incomprehension. But on the other hand, the fact that a certain meaning relationship can be inferred does not necessarily mean that it is the only one; in this case, the use of discourse marker becomes more important (Dontcheva, 2020). To illustrate this point, let us consider the following pair of sentences:

(2) John was offered an excellent job. He moved to another state.

From (2), do we know if John was offered a job in this state? Do we know whether he accepted the job? The answer to both questions is “no”. In fact, given what is stated in (2), we do not know if John was offered a job in this state or somewhere else. Nor do we know if he accepted the job or not. So, more information would be necessary for

the hearer to understand, for example, whether John has this particular job now. Perhaps the speaker could add that John did indeed accept the job, or that the offer came from a local company. Alternatively, the speaker could slightly modify (2) and say (3a) or (3b) instead:

- (3) a. John was offered an excellent job. In spite of this, he moved to another state.
b. John was offered an excellent job. As a result, he moved to another state.

By simply adding the discourse markers *in spite of this* and *as a result*, we know how the speaker wants the second sentence to be interpreted with respect to the first one. From (3a), we know that John was offered a job in this state and that he did not accept the job offer. In contrast, in (3b) it is obvious that the job was the reason for moving, and he now holds that job in another state. Either interpretation was available from (2), that is (2) is compatible with both. But by using the appropriate discourse marker it becomes clear which one of the relationships between the two sentences the speaker intended. These examples show that the same pair of sentences can be understood in different ways depending on the discourse markers. What changes is not the content of the sentences, but rather the relationship between them. Speakers regularly use discourse markers to help the hearer choose the interpretation they intend among all the possible ones.

Having recognized the importance of discourse markers in language, linguists have been studying them, particularly within the last two decades. However, most of the work in the area of discourse markers have been done in English. What happens in English or any other language for that matter is not necessarily representative of what happens in all languages. To achieve the ultimate goal of understanding human language in general many other languages need to be investigated as well. As a humble effort towards reaching this goal, the present thesis deals with discourse markers used by Iraqi university students in their process of writing articles in the English language to show the language barriers that affect the English writing skills.

The spread and influence of English have had an effect on not only the spoken but also the written language. Proficiency in English writing is a critical ability that must be learned and mastered to complete writing assignments assigned in school or university. As English has become a lingua franca and the demand for English has

increased, English learners have developed proficiency in writing for a variety of purposes (Ruiz-Garrido, 2009).

Due to the global spread of English, scholarly discourses and learning practices have been influenced by the English writing pattern. Hamid and Nguyen (2016) clarified the situation in Asia by stating that education policymakers in Asia favor the usage of English in schools due to the spread of the language.

English proficiency is critical for keeping pace with recent technological and educational advancements and for advancing the country's growth. English is the academic language. English-language researchers are often quoted and have gained popularity. Academics must write in English if they want their work to be interpreted, understood, and cited. This presents certain difficulties for senior academics who are not fluent English speakers (McKinley, 2013).

2.2 Discourse markers

It can be said that there is terminological confusion in the area of discourse markers. It is not uncommon for different authors to label the same item differently. For example, *I mean* has been labeled “discourse particle” (Schourup 1985), “pragmatic particle” (Ostman 1982a), “phatic connective” (Bazanella 1990), 'discourse marker' (Schiffrin 1987), the researcher chooses the label 'discourse marker' because it seems to be the one most widely used. However, as is obvious from the previous example, there is no general agreement. The list in the table (1), by no means exhaustive, shows what other terms different authors have used for discourse markers, with examples in English of the language forms they refer to.

Table (1). Discourse markers: other labels they have received

<i>Author</i>	<i>Labels</i>	<i>Examples</i>
<i>Bazanella 1990</i>	phatic connective	<i>I mean. Well</i>
<i>Blakemore 1992</i>	discourse connective	<i>However. Therefore. so</i>
<i>Dooley 1986</i>	sen tence- initial elements	<i>in consequence</i>
<i>Fuentes. 1987</i>	extrasentential links	<i>however. consequently</i>
<i>Ostman. 1982a</i>	pragmatic particle	<i>in addition. nonetheless</i>
<i>Redeker. 1991</i>	discourse operator	<i>but. then. So</i>

Schourup. 1985	discourse particle	<i>I mean. well. you know.</i>
Stubbs, 1983	Adverbs	<i>furthermore, finally</i>
Stubbs. 1983	pragmatic connectors	<i>and. however</i>
van Dijk. 1985	sentence adverbs	<i>However, consequently</i>
van Dijk. 1985	adverbial compounds	<i>as a consequence. on the contrary</i>
Warner. 1985	discourse connectives	<i>so, but. otherwise</i>

In light of the terminological confusion, it is necessary to define the point of view of the researcher by the discourse marker. A single definition, if one exists, does not seem to readily emerge from the literature, perhaps due to the fact that the study of discourse markers has begun fairly recently, in the eighties. However, an examination of the work of different authors in the field reveals two elements in common that can serve to characterize what a discourse marker is.

Levinson (1983) does not specifically define discourse markers, but in his discussion of discourse deixis, he states that “there are words and phrases in English . . . that indicates the relationship between an utterance and the prior discourse” (p. 87). His examples of discourse deictic items include *but, therefore. in conclusion. to the contrary, still, However, anyway, well, besides, actually, all in all, so after all* (p. 128), which have been considered discourse markers by many authors.

DMs are used to provide a connection between what has been said and what could be said by a speaker or writer, despite the fact that they lack the sense of a term in a sentence or the context in which they are used. However, DMs make sense in their context; in other terms, the context in which they are used and the reason with which they are used influence their meaning in a document or discussion (Schiffrin, 1987; Cowan, 2008). Lubishtani (2019) conducted a comparative analysis to determine the semantic relationship and role of connectors in argumentative texts written in English and Albanian.

Schiffrin (1987) gives two definitions of discourse markers, an operational one: and a theoretical one. Operationally, discourse markers are "sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk" (p. 31). By sequentially dependent, she means that discourse markers operate at the discourse level, not at the lower level of the units

of which discourse consists. Her definition is especially vague in that it makes reference to units of talk without defining what this means. The decision to use this wording is deliberate, and she explains since units of talk can be sentences, propositions, speech acts, or tone units. Discourse markers serve as brackets because they signal the boundaries between units of talk.

Theoretically, Schiffrin (1987) defines discourse markers as contextual coordinates. She says that they show "that an utterance is focused on either the speaker, or the hearer, or both" and "index their containing utterance to whatever text precedes them, or to whatever text is to follow, or to both" (p. 323). In other words, discourse markers index utterances within the context, pointing forward or backward in the text, or both directions simultaneously, and to the speaker, the hearer, or both at the same time. Combining Schiffrin's operational and theoretical definitions, we could say that discourse markers are used both to split up the text into smaller units and to indicate how those units relate to one another.

Redeker (1991) prefers the term *discourse operator*, instead of the discourse marker, because it usually signals a link between propositions. The primary function of discourse operators is to bring to the hearer's attention a particular kind of link between the upcoming utterance and the discourse context.

Blakemore (1992) refers to discourse markers as *discourse connectives*. According to her, discourse connectives are expressions that constrain the interpretation of the connection between two utterances. In other words, these expressions impose constraints on implicatures by indicating what the relevance of an utterance is concerning the prior utterance, thus helping the hearer choose the context intended by the speaker for the interpretation of the forthcoming utterance.

In Fraser's (1994) words, discourse markers are "lexical expressions, independent of the basic sentence structure, which signal a sequential relationship of a specific sort between the basic message conveyed by the utterance of which they are a part and some earlier message, and they have a core meaning Signaling the general nature of this relationship" (p. 6). Fraser provides the following "canonical definition" of DMs:

For a sequence of discourse segments S1 – S2, each of which encodes a complete message, a lexical expression LE functions as a discourse marker if, when it occurs in S2- initial position (S1 – LE + S2), LE signals that a semantic relationship holds between S2 and S1 which is one of: a) Elaboration; b) Contrast; c) Inference; or d) Temporality. (p. 5)

Fraser (1994) limits DMs to lexical expressions (p. 5). He differs from others, however, in his approach to analyzing segmental relationships, rather than sentential relationships, as will be explained in the section of cohesion. Fraser, explicating his definition of DMs, observes that “the definition specifies that S1 and S2 are single contiguous discourse segments. While generally true, there are exceptions” (p. 5), as he illustrates in example (4) below (p. 5, Fraser’s numbering), “where the DM however relates non-contiguous segments” (p. 6):

(4) A: I don’t want to go very much.

B: John said he would be there.

A: **However**, I do have an obligation to be there.

“In addition,” says Fraser (1994), “the segments need not consist of a single utterance” (p. 6), although he states that such instances are “relatively infrequent” (p. 6). In (5a) below, for example, he explains that “the however relates its host segment to the previous three segments” (p. 6), and in (5b), “essentially relates the following three segments to the previous one” (p. 6).

(5) a)- He drove the truck through the parking lot and onto the street. Then he almost cut me off. After that, he ran a red light. **However**, these weren’t his worst offenses.

b)- You want to know the truth? **Essentially**, John stayed away. Jane came but didn’t participate. And Harry and Susan fought the entire evening.

According to Fraser’s (1994) definition, S1 and S2 each must encode “a complete message” (p. 5). By “complete message,” the researcher takes Fraser to mean a complete proposition, and more specifically, “the proposition [the speaker] is taken to have expressed” (Blakemore, 1992, p. 6). Note that the discourse segments may or

may not be separated in written discourse by a period, as the following examples from Fraser illustrate (p. 6, his numbering):

- (12) a) Water freezes at 32 degrees **but** boils at 212 degrees.
b) The movie is over, **so** we might as well go directly to the party.
c) A: Fred is a real gentleman. B: **On the contrary**, he's a boor.

Fraser's definition of DMs also permits elision, for example (12a) above and the examples from Fraser which follow the show (p. 7, his numbering), where "the S2 has had part of the full discourse segment content elided" (p. 6):

- (13) a) A: Jack ate a hamburger. B: I did **too**.
b) Jane wants to leave, **but** not me.
c) A: I'm hungry. **So** (what should I make of that)?
d) She'll go **before** John.

In contrast to the examples in (13) above, the following example (from Fraser, p. 7, his numbering) contains a "lexical expression which has the potential to function as a DM [but] is prevented from doing so because there is not a complete message in S2 which can be related to S1" (Fraser, p. 7):

- (14) e) A: How is Sue going to get there. [sic] B: She'll go **however [in whatever way]** she can.

Fraser's (1994) basic definition of DMs claims that DMs occur in the S2-initial position. Similarly, observes "[a] conjunctive adjunct normally has the first position in the sentence...and has as its domain the whole of the sentence in which it occurs" (p. 232). However, Fraser (1994) allows for "an alternative form of the DMs [which] may be placed in the S1-initial position, often with adjustments to the segment" (, p. 7). For example (Fraser, p. 7, his numbering):

- (15) a) He came back **because** he loved her. / He loved her. **Because of that**, he came back.
b) John didn't take the letter. **Instead**, he left it. / **Instead of** taking the letter, John left it.

Fraser (1994) glosses the term *signal* in his definition of DMs as follows: "By using the term 'signal' It is meant that the DM marks a relationship between S2 and S1

which the speaker of S2 intends the hearer to recognize” (p. 8). Fraser argues, “A DM does not ‘create’ a relationship between two successive segments, since the relationship must already exist for the S1-DM+S2 sequence to be acceptable” (p. 8).

Much of the empirical research lends support to Fraser’s argument. Fraser’s (1993) example (12), repeated below, illustrates the point:

- (12) a) Water freezes at 32 degrees **but** boils at 212 degrees.
b) The movie is over, **so** we might as well go directly to the party.
c) A: Fred is a real gentleman. B: **On the contrary**, he’s a boor.

Fraser (1994) states that in example (12a) “the *but*...signals that a contrast exists between S2 and S1 and the hearer is to interpret the sequence while being aware of this” (p. 8). In (12b), he states that “the *so*...signals that the conclusion conveyed in S2 is justified by the message conveyed in S1” (p. 8). And “on the contrary in (12c) signals disagreement of the second speaker with the message of the first” (p. 8). He argues that “[t]hese relationships, and perhaps others, exist between the sequence of S2 and S1 in (12), whether or not there is a DM present” (p. 8). This topic is taken up again in the section below, addressed from the perspective of the syntactic properties of DMs.

Redeker (1991), Blakemore (1992), and Fraser (2004), these theorists address the topic of discourse markers from different perspective's role in language through conversation analysis. Redeker (1991), seeks to discover what their contribution to discourse coherence is, Blakemore (1992) is interested in discourse markers as devices that help establish relevance in the discourse, And Fraser (2004) deals with discourse markers from a grammatical perspective. Although their approaches and points of view are reproduced with the permission of the copyright owner. Further reproduction prohibited without permission might be different, they all arrive at basically the same definition of discourse makers. The definitions reviewed share two elements in common:

- A. Discourse markers serve to indicate a relationship between two segments of discourse: and
- B. Discourse markers have some kind of meaning that specifies what the nature of this relationship is.

2.3 Cohesion

Al Mughrabi (2017) acknowledged discourse makers are cohesive devices and linking words of different types that exist in oral or written discourse. Cohesion in English is defined by Halliday and Hasan (1976; hereafter “H&H) as follows:

The concept of cohesion is a semantic one; it refers to relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text. Cohesion occurs where the INTERPRETATION of some element in the discourse is dependent on that of another. The one PRESUPPOSES the other, in the sense that it cannot be effectively decoded except by recourse to it. When this happens, a relation of cohesion is set up, and the two elements, the presupposing and the presupposed, are thereby at least potentially integrated into a text. (p. 4)

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), presuppositions (to use their term) serve as “directives indicating that information is to be retrieved from elsewhere” (p. 31) in the text, and this is achieved “through relations in MEANING” (p. 10) that have the potential to link sentences and thereby create a text. They state that this allows us to “interpret cohesion, in practice, as the set of semantic resources for linking a SENTENCE with what has gone before” (p. 10).

While acknowledging that cohesion occurs intrasententially and intersententially (see H&H, pp. 6-9, for a discussion), Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue, “In the description of a text, it is the inter sentence cohesion that is significant, because that represents the variable aspect of cohesion, distinguishing one text from another” (p. 9). The theoretical framework for the present study differs in this respect from Halliday and Hasan (1976) and adopts Fraser’s (2005) approach to analyzing a text at the segment, rather than sentence, level (see also Witte & Faigley, 1981, for early criticism of the sentence-level approach to analyzing cohesion). A discourse segment “encodes a complete message” (Fraser, p. 5). That is, it expresses a complete proposition; it may or may not correspond to a complete sentence. The decision to adopt Fraser’s segmental approach to analyzing discourse was primarily based on three reasons. First, although Halliday and Hasan (1976) maintain the position throughout cohesion in English that cohesion is, strictly speaking, important mainly at the intersentential level, they are compelled to make some exceptions (pp. 232-233). The

second reason for adopting Fraser's discourse segment-level approach is related to the fact that developmental L1 and L2 writers often struggle with appropriate punctuation. This often results in problems such as "run-on sentences," which should not be conflated with an analysis of cohesive devices. Finally, as will be shown in the review of Fraser's work on DMs, a DM might signal the same cohesive relationship between two segments of discourse punctuated, for example, by a period, a comma, or a semicolon, with little or no difference in meaning or cohesive force. In all cases, the same cohesive relationship would exist between the discourse segments. To say, then, that only segments separated by a period (full stop) are cohesive seems arbitrary. Therefore, both (1:13a) below, which is an example of cohesion created by (in H&H's terms) non-structural (i.e. intersentential) means, and (1:13b), which is an example of cohesion created by structural (i.e. syntactic) means, will be considered cohesive for the purposes of the present study (examples from H&H, p. 9, their numbering).

[1:13] a. It's raining. – Then let's stay at home.

b. Since it's raining, let's stay at home.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) identified five lexicogrammatical categories of cohesive device: (a) reference, (b) substitution, (c) ellipsis, (d) conjunction, and (e) lexical cohesion. The first three categories are grammatical and the last one is of course lexical. Conjunction, according to Halliday, and Hasan, is "on the borderline of the two; mainly grammatical, but with a lexical component in it" (p. 6)

Any discussion of cohesion must be situated within the notion of text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) view a text as "a semantic unit" (p. 293). "The unity that [a text] has," they state, "is a unity of meaning in context, a texture that expresses the fact that it relates as a whole to the environment in which it is placed" (p. 293). They identify three "components of texture" (p. 324), including cohesion, which they state is "the linguistic means whereby texture is achieved" (p. 293). DM affects the quality of writing because it increases cohesion and coherence of writing (Hassan et al. 2016).

Cohesion is thus an important contributor to the overall perceived coherence of written discourse, yet Halliday and Hasan clearly state that cohesion alone does not create a

coherent text (see, e.g., Carrell, 1982, for a strong critique of Halliday, and Hasan discussion of cohesion and coherence). They say the following:

A text's cohesion is a required but not sufficient precondition for its formation. The textual, or text-forming, component of the linguistic system, of which cohesiveness is a part, is responsible for the production of text. It is the collection of resources in a language whose semantic role is to represent the interaction between the speaker and the environment that constitutes the textual component as a whole. It is the meaning drawn from this component that distinguishes a text from another - that distinguishes language that is operational in some context from language that is not operational but citational, such as an index or other sort of verbal inventory, among other things.

They also explained what is meant by cohesiveness in the semantic system may be best explained by the idea of a textual or text-forming function in the semantic system. Cohesion is particularly important in the formation of text in the textual component. The term "cohesion" refers to the consistency that exists between one section of a text and another section of the text. Continuity is not the whole of the texture, and this must be stressed. When it comes to a discourse's texture, the organization of each segment in terms of its information structure, thematic patterns, and the like is just as significant as the continuity from one segment to the next. However, the continuity of the discourse adds an additional aspect that must be present in order for the discourse to come to life as a written document.

Halliday and Hasan's (1976) important observation in the final paragraph above that the relationships between sentences in a text exist independent of surface-level cohesion, and that cohesion assists the reader in interpreting these relationships, is a notion central to Fraser's theory of DMs. It has appeared frequently in the empirical research on cohesion in developmental L2 writing as well (see, e.g., Crewe, 1990). This point is going to be revisited later in the review of Fraser's work in the area of DMs.

2.4 Characteristics of DMs

This section is going to explain certain characteristics of DMs such as their function, meaning, and non-defining characteristics of it.

2.4.1 The functions of DMs

In language, in particular, words are organized in a certain fashion to achieve a communicative goal. In this section, the researcher discusses how discourse markers contribute toward such a goal, by focusing on their function in discourse.

Blakemore's (1989) main idea is that when engaged in conversation, speakers adhere to the principle of relevance to obtain adequate contextual effects with the minimum effort. To achieve this goal, speakers can use discourse connectives, “expressions used to indicate how the relevance of one discourse segment is dependent on another” (Blakemore, 1989, p. 125).

Schiffrin's (1987) key point is that discourse should be coherent, and she assigns discourse markers an important role in the accomplishment of this goal. According to her, discourse markers contribute towards coherence by providing contextual coordinates or indices for utterances. Schiffrin points out that discourse markers can operate at different levels. For example, *so* conveys a causal relation of "result" in different planes of discourse: a fact-based relation holds between events and states, a knowledge-based relation holds when there is an inference to be made, and “an action-based relation holds when a speaker presents a motive for an action being performed through talk” (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 202).

In Redeker's view, discourse coherence arises from the semantic and pragmatic relations between discourse units. Similar to Schiffrin (1987), Redeker (1991) maintains that discourse markers play a very important part in discourse coherence by making explicit the relations between discourse units.

In summary, the function of discourse markers is to contribute toward discourse coherence, by explicitly showing the relations that make one discourse unit relevant to another.

2.4.2 The meaning of DMs

A discourse marker is part of a sentence, but it is not part of the proposition expressed in such a sentence. Thus, a discourse marker does not affect the propositional meaning of the sentence in which it occurs. Propositional meaning is just one kind of meaning conveyed through discourse. If a discourse marker does not contribute propositional meaning, then what type of meaning does it convey? In what follows, the researcher first summarizes why a discourse marker must have meaning. Then the researcher identifies the type of non-propositional meaning that a discourse marker signals (Alami, 2015). According to Ali Al-Qahtani, “the use of DM leads to an increase in students' writing skills” (Ali Al-Qahtani, 2015).

Among the conditions that allow an expression to be a discourse marker, Schiffrin (1987) says that “it either has to have no meaning, or a vague meaning, or to be reflexive (of the language. of the speaker)” (p. 328). This is even more clear when more than one relationship can hold between sentences, as shown in (1):

(1)-

- a. He is not coming. **However**, we should address these important issues at today's meeting.
- b. He is not coming. **Therefore**, we should address these important issues at today's meeting.
- c. He is not coming. **Besides**, we should address these important issues at today's meeting.

In (1), the discourse marker that is chosen by the speaker will display the relation *she* intends to the hearer.

Even if a discourse marker does not contribute representational meaning to the sentence in which it occurs, its meaning can be derived from representational meaning. For example, the discourse markers *but* and *so* have meanings closely related to those of the conjunctions *but* and *so*. To illustrate the difference between them, consider the examples in (2) and (3). (Example (2b) consists of a dialogue between speaker A and

speaker B; this notation will be used for those examples in which two speakers are involved.)

- (2) a. He said he would come, but he never showed up.
 - b. A: Can you tell me the time? B: *But* don't you have a watch yourself?
- (3) a. He is sick, so he'll stay at home today.
 - b. He is sick. *So* let's get down to business.

In (2a), *but* signals a contrast between "coming" and "not coming", in (3a), *so* indicates that "staying at home" is a direct consequence of "being sick". In (2a) and (3a), *but* and *so* express relationships between the propositions of the two sentences. In (2b) and (3b), there is some kind of contrast and consequence, because that is the basic meaning of these discourse markers. But these relationships do not hold between the propositions by themselves. In (2b), there is a contrast between a question and a condition that would make a question valid (i.e. that the person asking the question does not have access to the information being requested). In addition, in (3b), "getting down to business" is not a direct consequence of him "being sick". But given an appropriate context. For example, when people are gathered for a meeting which cannot be postponed, the statement that one person is sick can be interpreted as enough reason to start the meeting, since there is no point in waiting for this person to arrive.

Blakemore (1989) provides a hint of what the meaning of discourse markers might be when she states that "not all linguistic meaning can be defined solely in terms of input to the processes that deliver propositional representations for the world. Some linguistic meaning actually provides an instruction as to how the proposition recovered is to be processed for relevance" (p. 18). According to her, linguistic meaning can be either representational or procedural (Blakemore, 1992, p. 149). She provides examples of expressions such as *after all* and *you see* that do not contribute to the propositional content of the utterances in which they appear (Blakemore, 1989, p. 143). understanding language involves more than interpreting propositional representations. These representations must also be manipulated; that is, they are related to other representations in different ways. Discourse markers are devices that instruct the hearer how to manipulate these representations. The basic idea is that

discourse markers have procedural meaning and point the hearer to the correct context for the interpretation of the sentence. They do not say anything about the truth value of propositions but provide a procedure for interpreting them.

To summarize, the meaning and function of discourse markers are intimately related. As we saw earlier, the function of a discourse marker is to indicate a relationship between discourse units. In addition, to carry out their function, discourse markers must have meaning. This meaning is procedural because it encodes a procedure for the interpretation of the relationship between sentences.

2.4.3 Non-defining characteristics of DMs

We now turn to other characteristics of discourse markers, those that can be termed "non-defining". The following characteristics have been compiled from many sources. They are based upon work done by Fraser (1990, 1993, 1995), Ostman (1982b), Quirk et al. (1985), Schiffrin (1987), Svartvik (1980), and Zwicky (1985).

To begin with, discourse markers cannot be syntactically characterized. In the inventory of English words and phrases that are considered discourse markers, there are examples of verbs (*look*), adverbs (*now*), literal phrases (*as a result*), idioms, meta-talk (*what I mean is*), coordinate conjunctions (*but*), subordinate conjunctions (*so*). In addition, if a discourse marker serves as such in a sentence, that will be its only function within the sentence; that is, *now* cannot be analyzed as both a discourse marker and an adverb in the same sentence. Furthermore, while sometimes the meaning of the discourse marker can coincide with that of the "traditional" part of speech (as in *to repeat*). this need not be the case. Idioms are a good example of this, but even a verb like *look* used as a discourse marker in *Look, you'd better start behaving yourself* does not keep its literal meaning (Ali, 2016, p. 5).

There is a strong and important association between mastery of student discourse markers and students' capacity to compose exposition documents, according to Muhyidin (2020). Since DMs play such an important role in writing, students should be knowledgeable about it (Aidinlou & Shahrokhi, 2012).

Normally, discourse markers occur in a sentence-initial (pre-subject) position. However, this does not rule out the possibility of a discourse marker occurring in the medial (post-subject) or even final position (after the verb phrase). This is to be expected, as discourse markers do not necessarily have scope over whole sentences but can also have scope over larger or smaller units of discourse. A non-initial position of a discourse marker will usually indicate over what smaller unit the discourse marker has scope.

To illustrate what is meant by the scope of a discourse marker, consider the following examples:

(4) a. John went home. However, Mary did not.

b. John went home. Mary, however, did not.

In (4a), *however* has scope over Mary did not, and the complete sentences are being contrasted. But in (4b), *however* has scope only over Mary, that is, it acts also as a focus marker that selects a unit smaller than the sentence. In this case, it is the subjects of the two sentences that are being contrasted by *however*. The fact that a medial or post-subject discourse marker has scope over the subject only is more easily seen in (5):

(5) a. John went home. *However*, he didn't stay there.

b. John went home. He, * *however*, didn't stay there.

In (5a) the two sentences are contrasted. But in (5b), the use of *however* in medial position is not allowed. The reason for this is that in (5b) *however* selects the subject of the second sentence (he) and attempts to contrast it with the subject of the first sentence (John), and there is no such contrast since the two subjects have the same referent.

However, a discourse marker in a non-initial position does not necessarily function as a focus marker. In (6a and b), the scope of the discourse marker is the same.

(6) a. She's not coming to the park with us. She'll go to the library instead.

b. She's not coming to the park with us. Instead, she'll go to the library.

Although a discourse marker is structurally found within a sentence, we noted that it does not affect the representational meaning of the sentence. For this reason, the discourse marker is detachable from the sentence in which it occurs. It should be emphasized, however, that the fact that discourse markers are syntactically detachable does not necessarily mean that they are always optional, because they might be indispensable from a pragmatic point of view. Notice the difference in the following pairs, where (7a and b) are identical to (7a' and b'), except for the omission of the discourse markers in spite of this and on the contrary.

(7) a. John's always been good at math. He flunked Calculus.

a'. John's always been good at Math. *In spite of this*, he flunked Calculus.

b. A: He was here on time. B: He arrived late.

b'. A: He was here on time. B: *On the contrary*, he arrived late.

As these examples show, in some contexts, the omission of a discourse marker can result in grammatically acceptable sentences that are pragmatically disjointed, unnatural, or even rude (Brinton 1990). In (7a) and (7b), a different intonation could perhaps compensate for the omission of the discourse marker.

To summarize the characteristics of discourse markers:

- a- Discourse markers are drawn from different parts of speech.
- b- They have a core meaning; their meaning is not representational, but procedural.
- c- Their meaning may or may not be the same as that of the homophonous part of speech
- d- They have only one function within the sentence (namely, that of discourse marker)
- e- They usually (though not necessarily) occur in sentence-initial position; they are syntactically detachable.

2.5 Syntactic properties of discourse markers

Fraser's (2004) and Halliday's and Hasan's (1976) syntactic categorization of DMs overlap a great deal. Fraser places all DMs into one of the following five syntactic categories: (a) coordinate conjunction, (b) subordinate conjunction, (c) preposition, (d) prepositional phrase, and (e) adverb (pp. 10-11; cf. H&H, p. 231). Following is a list of the five categories with examples (from Fraser, 2005, p. 11):

Table (2): categories of DMs

a	COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS	<i>(and, but, or, nor, so, yet,...)</i>
b	SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS	<i>(after, although, as, as far as, as if, as long as, assuming that, because, before, but that, directly, except that, given that, granting that, if, in case, in order that, in that, in the event that, inasmuch as, insofar that, like, once, provided that, save that, since, such that, though, unless, until, when(ever), whereas, whereupon, wherever, while,...)</i>
c	ADVERBIALS	<i>(anyway, besides, consequently, furthermore, still, however, then,...)</i>
d	PREPOSITIONS	<i>(despite, in spite of, instead of, rather than,...)</i>
e	PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES	<i>(above all, after all, as a consequence (of that), as a conclusion, as a result (of that), because of that, besides that, by the same token, contrary to that, for example, for that reason, in addition (to that), in any case/event, in comparison (with that), in contrast (to that), in fact, in general, in particular, in that case/instance, instead of that, of course, on that condition, on that basis, on the contrary, on the other hand, on top of it all, in other words, rather than that, regardless of that,...)</i>

Fraser (1994) also identifies three variations of prepositional phrases, outlined below (p. 11), as well as “synonymous DMs but of different morphological forms which fall into two syntactic categories, depending on whether it is placed with S1 or S2” (p. 12).

- a- Fixed Form: above all, after all, as a conclusion,...
- b- PREP+that (where that refers to S1): despite that, in spite of that, in addition to that,...
- c- DM+of this/that (where that refers to S1): as a result of that, because of that, instead of doing that, rather (than do/that)

Concerning the placement of DMs, Fraser (1994) observes that it is “the syntactic category of each DM that determines where it may occur in S2” (p. 12). Therefore, according to Fraser, all DMs may occur in the S2-initial position “with the possible exception of though” (p. 12), and this position is the only one that coordinating and subordinating conjunctions may occupy (p. 12). DMs that are prepositions, prepositional phrases, and adverbials, according to Fraser, “have a much greater latitude syntactically, some occurring in S2-final position, with others occurring in both the final and medial position” (p. 12). The examples below (from Fraser 1994, p. 12, his numbering) illustrate his observations regarding the placement of DMs:

- (20) a) A: You must go today. B: **But** I (***but**) don’t want to go (***but**).
- b) We started late. **However**, we (**however**) arrived on time (**however**).
- c) The trip was tiring. **Despite that**, he (***despite that**) remained cheerful (**despite that**).
- d) A: The movie is over. B: **Then** we (***then**) should head for home (**then**).

Fraser (1994) observes that subordinating conjunctions “must be retained for syntactic reasons” (p. 13). Aside from the syntactic requirement of some DMs, however, Fraser claims that in some cases “the presence of a DM is optional,” as in examples (21a-b) below (from Fraser, p. 13, his numbering),

- (21) a) A: We started late. B: (But) we arrived on time.

- b) He didn't pick up the letter on the table. (Instead/Rather,) he left it lying there.

Where the intended semantic relationship between the discourse segments in each sequence would be easily recoverable if the DM were omitted, "while in other cases...it must be present for an acceptable sequence to occur" (p. 13). Although it is not completely clear what Fraser means here by "an acceptable sequence," especially in the light of his argument that "[a] DM does not 'create' a relationship between two successive segments, since the relationship must already exist for the S1-DM+S2 sequence to be acceptable" (p. 8), the researcher takes him to mean either one or both of the following:

a-although a semantic relationship exists between adjacent discourse segments independent of the presence of a DM, omitting the DM would result in a sequence that is difficult to process or which would seem semantically anomalous;

b-the "present and intended" relationship between the discourse segments would not be "recognized, absent the presence of a DM forcing recognition that a specific relationship is present and intended" (Fraser, p. 14); both scenarios are perhaps especially relevant to written discourse.

If Fraser's (1990) claim that in some cases a DM "must be present for an acceptable sequence to occur" is interpreted based on (a) above, then Fraser's (21c) below (p. 13, his numbering) provides an example of a sequence which would be difficult to process without the DM present:

- (21) c) Fred a gentleman? **On the contrary**, he is a boor.

While Halliday and Hasan's (1976) (5:2d) below (p. 229, their numbering but my emphasis) provides an example of a sequence that would at least seem semantically anomalous with the DM omitted:

- [5:2] d. He was very uncomfortable. **Nevertheless** he fell asleep.

If Fraser's claim regarding the required presence of a DM is interpreted based on (b), then Fraser's (21d) below (p. 13, his numbering) provides an example in which

the “present and intended” relationship between the discourse segments would not be readily available to the reader without the DM present:

- (21) d) Harry didn’t arrive on time. **In any event**, the meeting was late in starting.

In contrast to the sequence in (21c), the sequence in (21d) would not be particularly difficult for the reader to process with the DM omitted; nor would it seem semantically anomalous with the DM omitted, in contrast to the sequence in (5:2d). Rather, in the case of (21d) it is the potential for the reader to miss the “specific relationship [which] is present and intended” (Fraser, p. 14) by the writer without the DM present to signal it. The semantic relationship that would most likely be inferred by the reader “absent the presence of a DM” would be that the meeting was late in starting as a result of *Harry’s arriving late*.

Whether a DM is optional or required “for an acceptable sequence to occur,” however, Fraser claims that: in no situation does the DM establish a link between S2 and S1, as is often assumed. It doesn’t matter what kind of connection is there because of the linguistic interpretation of the segments when taken along with the discourse context, and the DM just clarifies what kind of connection is intended by speaking.

Despite this, he clearly states as well that “this does not mean that DMs are redundant” (p. 13). In the examples in (22) below (p. 13, Fraser’s numbering),

- (22) a) This flight takes 5 ½ hours. There’s a stop-over in Paris.
b) This flight takes 5 ½ hours, and there’s a stop-over in Paris.
c) This flight takes 5 ½ hours, because there’s a stop-over in Paris.
d) This flight takes 5 ½ hours. So, there’s a stop-over in Paris.
e) This flight takes 5 ½ hours, but there’s a stop-over in Paris.
f) This flight takes 5 ½ hours. After all, there’s a stop-over in Paris.

Fraser (1994) claims, “Whereas the sequence in (22a) enjoys all of the DM relationships indicated in (22b-f), it is doubtful that all the relationships would be

recognized, absent the presence of a DM forcing recognition that a specific relationship is present and intended” (pp. 13-14).

2.6 Semantic relationships of discourse markers

According to Fraser (2005), DMs signal a relationship between two adjacent segments of discourse in one of three ways, shown below with examples (p. 14, Fraser’s numbering).

Table (3): Fraser’s numbering

a	SYNTACTIC REQUIREMENT	<i>(and, although, but, or, since, so, while, whereas)</i>
b	ANAPHORIC EXPRESSION	<i>(as a consequence (of that), as a result (of this/that), because (of this/that), besides that, contrary to that, despite that, for that reason, in addition (to that), in comparison (with that), in spite of that, in that case, instead (of this/that), on that basis, on that condition, rather (than this/that), regardless (of that))</i>
c	IMPLIED MEANING OF THE DM	<i>(above all, accordingly, after all, all things considered, also, alternatively, analogously, as a conclusion, besides, by the same token, consequently, contrariwise, conversely, correspondingly, equally, further(more), hence, however, in particular, likewise, more accurately, more importantly, more to the point, moreover, nevertheless, nonetheless, on the contrary, on the other hand, on top of it all,</i>

		<i>otherwise, similarly, still, then, therefore, thus, what is more, yet)</i>
--	--	---

Fraser (1995) states, “In (23a), where the DMs are conjunctions, the syntactic properties of the DMs require that there be two discourse segments” (p. 14). Leaving out (23b) for the moment, in (23c) he states that it is the meanings of the DMs which signal a relationship between two discourse segments (p. 14). These two ways in which segmental relationships are signaled by DMs are relatively straightforward when compared with the anaphoric expressions in (23b). Al Kohlani (2010) argued that DMs are not just connecting words; instead, they serve as crucial tools for achieving commutative acts in a text – essential elements in the production and perception of a text.

In cases where a relationship is signaled by an anaphoric expression, such as those in (23b), Fraser states that “the anaphoric that, which is often elided, indicates that there is a previous segment which serves as the S1 for the relationship” (p. 14). In addition to the demonstratives this or that, Halliday and Hasan (1976) state that “there may be a nominal group with noun Head, the demonstrative or other reference item functioning as Deictic. In order for the total expression to be conjunctive, any form of reference will serve provided it is anaphoric” (p. 231). Example (5:4) below (from H&H, p. 231, their numbering) illustrates the point. Example (5:4d) contains the anaphoric reference item his instead of a demonstrative. And examples (5:4c and d) contain what the researcher will be referring to as discourse labels in the present study (i.e., move and caution, respectively); Halliday and Hasan (1976) refer to these as general nouns below.

[5:4] The captain had steered a course close into the shore.

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. As a result, b. As a result of this, c. As a result of this move, d. As a result of his caution, |  | <p>they avoided the worst of the storm.</p> |
|--|---|---|

Halliday and Hasan (1976) claimed the following: Cognates convey one or more of a limited number of highly generic relationships, and it is the conjunctive relationship, rather than the specific noun complement after the preposition, that gives the crucial connection to the phrase that precedes it. This complement is commonly a merely anaphoric one, generally a demonstrative, this or that; otherwise, if it is a noun, it is quite likely to be a broad noun which does nothing more than make plain the anaphoric function of the whole phrase.

Fraser (1994) identifies three “possible syntactic arrangements of DMs in sequences, ignoring the initial/medial/final option” (p. 15) discussed above. These are (p. 15, his numbering):

(24) a) S1, DM+S2.

Coordinate Conjunction: John left late, but he arrived on time.

Subordinate Conjunction: John was sick because he had eaten spoiled fish.

b) S1. DM+S2.

Coordinate Conjunction: John left late. But he arrived on time.

Adverbial: John left late. However, he arrived on time.

Prepositional Phrase: John came late. After all, he's the boss.

Preposition: John left late. Despite that, he arrived on time.

c) DM+S1, S2.

Preposition: Despite the fact that John left late, he arrived on time.

According to Fraser (1994), there are more than 100 DMs in English that express one of four basic semantic relationships, “with sub-classifications within each of these basis [*sic*] relations” (p. 15). The four basic semantic relationships he identifies are shown below with examples (pp.15-16, his numbering). The researcher has retained Fraser's formatting, with the “primary DM” of each class (as he has defined it) in boldface; the other DMs are “ordinary members” (p. 15).

Table (4): Fraser's categories

A	CONTRASTIVE MARKERS (CDMs)	<i>but, alternatively, although, contrariwise, contrary to expectations, conversely, despite (this/that), even so, however, in spite of (this/that), in comparison (with this/that), in contrast (to this/that), instead (of this/that), nevertheless, nonetheless, (this/that point) notwithstanding, on the other hand, on the contrary, rather (than this/that), regardless (of this/that), still, though, whereas, yet</i>
B	ELABORATIVE MARKERS (EDMs)	<i>and, above all, also, alternatively, analogously, besides, by the same token, correspondingly, equally, for example, for instance, further(more), in addition, in other words, in particular, likewise, more accurately, more importantly, more precisely, more to the point, moreover, on that basis, on top of it all, or, otherwise, rather, similarly, that is (to say)</i>
C	INFERENTIAL MARKERS (IDMs)	<i>so, after all, all things considered, as a conclusion, as a consequence (of this/that), as a result (of this/that), because (of this/that), consequently, for this/that reason, hence, it follows that, accordingly, in this/that/any case, on this/that condition, on these/those grounds, then, therefore,</i>

		<i>thus</i>
D	TEMPORAL MARKERS (TDMs)	<i>then, after, as soon as, before, eventually, finally, first, immediately afterwards, meantime, meanwhile, originally, second, subsequently, when</i>

Space prohibits a detailed review here of Halliday and Hasan similar (though not identical) classification of conjunctive relations (to use their term), in which they categorized nearly all of these items into the following four basic semantic relationships: (a) additive, (b) adversative, (c) causal, and (d) temporal. However, from the point of view of the present study, Halliday and Hasan's taxonomy is valuable primarily because of two important ways in which it differs from Fraser's (Croucher,2004). The first is the relatively fine-grained classification of DMs it provides, based on the more specific semantic meaning(s) of each item and the relationship(s) signaled (p. 244).

Although Fraser doesn't provide a detailed taxonomy as Halliday and Hasan do, he argues for a "polysemous approach" to the meaning of individual DMs (p. 18). He says:

Specifically, I take each DM to have a CORE MEANING of a general nature (for example, for but, the meaning is "simple contrast"), with various meaning nuances triggered as a function of (i) the core meaning of the specific DM, (ii) the interpretations of S2 and S1, and (iii) the context, linguistic and otherwise. (p. 18)

By taking into account "the core meaning of the specific DM," Fraser's approach to the meaning of DMs is similar to Halliday and Hasan's approach to classifying conjunctive relations. However, by considering the interpretations of the segments in question and the contexts in which they occur, Fraser's polysemous approach to DMs paves the way for an even more nuanced interpretation of individual DMs (Hyland,2013). In example (28) below (from Fraser, p. 18, his numbering):

- 28) a) Water boils at 2112 [*sic*] degrees **but** mercury boils at a much higher temperature.
- b) Mary is thin. **But** she still weighs more than me.
- c) A: John is right here. B: **But** I just saw him on TV.
- d) John died. **But** he was ill.
- e) A: The flowers are beautiful. B: **But** they're plastic.
- f) A: We had a very nice meal. B: **But** did you ask him about the money he owes us?

Fraser explains that “the interpretation of the sequences in (28)...emanate from the same core meaning of *but*” (p. 18):

For example, the interpretation of (28a) is one of direct contrast of S2 and S1, that of (28b) is one of contrast and rejection of an inference drawn from S1, that of (28c) is of contrast and challenge of an inference drawn from S1, and so forth. (p. 18)

In each of these instances, however, Fraser observes that it is a matter of “the various nuances being derived” by the hearer/reader (p. 19). He further observes in a footnote, “The polysemy of DMs varies greatly, with the primary DMs in each subclass having considerably more than most of the ordinary members of the subclass” (p. 33). He argues:

The specific meaning of some DMs is relatively opaque, with the primary members of the subclasses (and, but, so, then) by far the least transparent. For example, *but* signals only that S2 is in simple contrast with some aspect of S1 (e.g., the explicit message conveyed, an implied message, a presupposed proposition, a felicity condition of S1, etc.), with nothing further specified; the work of interpretation of this fine-grained reading must be done primarily by the recipient relying on the interpretation of S2 and S1 and the contextual information. On the other hand, the meaning of *in comparison*, for example, is relatively transparent and the relationship signaled can be read off the meanings of the words. (p. 22)

The second important way in which Halliday's and Hasan's (1976) taxonomy differs from Fraser's is in the distinction they make between "external" and "internal" conjunctive relations (pp. 239-241), a distinction upon which their taxonomy is largely based. Defining "external" and "internal" relations, they say:

communication is itself a process, albeit a process of a special kind; and...the salient event in this process is the text. It is this that makes it possible for there to be two closely analogous sets of conjunctive relations: those which exist as relations between external phenomena, and those which are as it were internal to the communication situation. (p. 240)

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), in the following example (p. 239, their numbering)

- [5:14] a. Next he inserted the key into the lock.
b. Next, he was incapable of inserting the key into the lock

Each of these sentences can be seen, by virtue of the word next, to presuppose some preceding sentence, some textual environment. Moreover, in each case there is a relation of temporal sequence between the presupposed sentence and this one; both [5:14a and b] express a relation that is in some sense 'next in time'.... But the 'nextness' is rather different in the two instances. In (a), it is a relation between events: the preceding sentence might be First he switched on the light—first one thing happens, then another. The time sequence, in other words, is in the THESIS, in the content of what is being said. In (b), on the other hand, the preceding sentence might be First he was unable to stand upright; here there are no events; or rather, there are only LINGUISTIC events, and the time sequence is in the speaker's organization of his discourse. We could say the time sequence is in the ARGUMENT, provided 'argument' is understood in its everyday rhetorical sense and not in its technical sense in logic (contrasting with 'operator'). The two sentences are related as steps in an argument, and the meaning is rather 'first one move in the speech game is enacted, then another. (pp. 239-240)

Example (5:14a) above, then, illustrates the external relation, and (5:14b), the internal relation. However, even though Halliday and Hasan, as noted above, base their

classification of conjunctive relations largely on the external/internal distinction, they observe, “The line between the two is by no means always clear-cut, but it is there, and forms an essential part of the total picture” (p.241). Ventola and Mauranen (1991) found that the internal relations expressed by DMs in scientific research articles “play a particularly important role in marking the various stages of the global structure when the text is unfolding” (p. 463). Fraser’s examples (28a and b) above also provide a fairly clear contrast between the external/internal distinction in the contrastive semantic relationship (to use Fraser’s terms), respectively, where, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976), “the underlying meaning is still ‘contrary to expectation’; but the source of the expectation is to be found not in what the presupposed sentence is about but in the current speaker-hearer configuration, the point reached in the communication process” (pp. 252-253). More specifically, they describe this as the internal adversative relation with the meaning “‘as against’”: “The meaning is something like ‘as against what the current state of the communication process would lead us to expect, the fact of the matter is...’” (p. 253).

2.7 Sequencing of discourse markers

In Fraser’s (1994) words, the sequencing of DMs “occurs quite often” (p. 23). He describes two ways in which sequences of DMs occur based on his analysis of the British National Corpus. He says,

A sequence of DMs typically occurs when two DMs occur as a part of S2...where the first DM in the sequence is one of the primary DMs (and, but, so, then), and the second DM, not necessarily following directly..., is one of the other [ordinary] members of the subclass. Subordinate conjunctions may not be a second DM in a sequence, and two ordinary members of the same subclass (e.g., the subclass of Contrastive Discourse Markers) typically do not occur in a sequence... (pp. 23-24)

The sentences in example (36) below (from Fraser 1994, pp. 23-24, his numbering) illustrate Fraser’s preceding observations regarding the sequencing of DMs:

- (36) a) John went swimming, **but, in contrast**, Mary went sailing.

- b) John went swimming **and, in addition**, he rode his bicycle.
- c) John went swimming, **so as a result**, he won't be home for dinner.
- d) John went swimming; **then, afterwards**, he went sailing.
- e) We started late. **But**, we arrived on time **nevertheless**.

Another possibility, according to Fraser,

is where a primary DM of one subclass occurs as the first in a sequence with an ordinary member of another subclass (e.g. but [CDM]+as a result [IDM]). The first DM (always coordinate conjunction) signals the major relationship between S2 and S1 (contrast, elaboration, inference, temporality), while the second DM signals a more specific relation, not within the first relation's domain. (p. 24)

The sentences in example (38) below (from Fraser, pp. 24-25, his numbering) illustrate the DM sequencing possibility just described.

- (38)
- a) He walked to town **but, as a result**, he caught a cold.
 - b) He was sick **and thus** he was unable to work.
 - c) He was home, **and yet** he hadn't spoken to his wife.
 - d) She criticized him. **Then, for that reason**, he left her.

Fraser makes the important point "that when there are different subclasses present in the DM sequence, each class condition must be satisfied" (p. 25), like the sentences in (39) below (p.25, his numbering) show:

- (39)
- a) He walked to town. **But, as a result**, he caught a cold.
 - b) He walked to town. **But, *as a result**, he didn't want to visit with Mary.
 - c) He walked to town. ***But, as a result**, he was the winner.

Table 5 below (adapted from Fraser, p. 25) represents what Fraser refers to as the "general possibilities of sequences" (p. 25) of primary and ordinary DMs from

each subclass. The asterisk in the table indicates all ordinary contrastive DMs except *however*.

Table (5): General Possibilities of DM Sequences

<i>General Possibilities of DM Sequences</i>				
Primary DM	Ordinary CDM	Ordinary EDM	Ordinary IDM	Ordinary TDM
CDM (<i>but</i>)	All*	All	All	All
EDM (<i>and</i>)	Some	All	Nearly All	All
IDM (<i>so</i>)	None	Few	All	All
TDM (<i>then</i>)	Some	Some	Some	some

Finally, Fraser adds in a footnote to his paper an observation regarding sequences that the researcher includes here, as the present study deals with developmental L2 writers; he says, “Of the four paradigm [primary] DMs, only *and+so* and *and+then* occur among the combination possibilities” (p. 33).

2.8 Fraser's classification of discourse markers

Fraser's work (1995) provides a framework within which it is possible to see where discourse markers fit in concerning meaning and what contributions they make to discourse. According to him, sentence meaning has two components: propositional and non-propositional. Propositional content is the basic message content, or what the sentence is about. Non-propositional meaning, on the other hand, is linguistically encoded in pragmatic markers, which convey information about what the speaker intends to communicate (Iseni, 2013).

Pragmatic meaning is the result of the combination of up to four different types of messages, expressed by four types of pragmatic markers. The four types are a basic marker, commentary marker, parallel marker, and discourse marker.

The **basic** marker is always present. It carries information about the speaker's basic communicative intentions and signals the force that the speaker assigns to the content meaning of the proposition (Koops 2013). Fraser considers the sentence type (declarative, interrogative or imperative) as a structural basic marker, as well as lexical markers such as *please*, which indicates that the speaker is making a request, and performative expressions such as *I promise*.

A **commentary** message is a comment on the basic message. It is signaled by a commentary pragmatic marker, which in itself expresses a message with its content and force. Thus, a commentary marker has both representational and procedural meaning. In "Frankly, you are wrong". *frankly* is a commentary pragmatic marker that conveys the message "I, the speaker, believe that you, the hearer will not like what you are about to hear."

Next, there are **parallel** markers. A parallel marker encodes an entire message independent of the basic message, but it does not comment on it. The vocative *Sir* is an example of a parallel pragmatic marker: it expresses that the speaker is addressing a male formally.

Finally, a **discourse marker** is an expression that signals how the basic message is related to the foregoing discourse. A discourse marker does not encode representational meaning, like the other three types of pragmatic markers. It only carries procedural meaning, since its function is to provide the hearer with instructions on how to interpret the utterance in which it is contained.

To summarize, "a basic marker signals the force of the basic message, a commentary marker signals message which comments on the basic message, a parallel marker signals a message in addition to the basic message, and a discourse marker signals the relationship of the basic message to the foregoing discourse" (Fraser 1995, p.40).

2. 9 Fraser's classification

Fraser's (1995) classification of pragmatic markers into four types, summarized in 2.7, is quite comprehensive and detailed, and he provides numerous examples of the pragmatic markers in each category. In his classification, discourse markers are one type of pragmatic markers, the others being basic, commentary, and parallel markers. Each of the four types is further subdivided into subcategories. The researcher will concentrate on his classification of discourse markers here.

According to Fraser (1995), discourse markers fall into four categories: topic change markers, elaborative markers, contrastive markers, and inferential markers.

Topic change markers indicate that the topic of the utterance that follows is different from the current topic. Examples of topic change markers are *on a different note back to my original point and incidentally*. Elaborative markers signal that the utterance that follows constitutes an augmentation (an explanation, clarification, illustration or summary) of what was said in the preceding utterance. *Besides, for example, and more accurately* are examples of elaborative markers. Inferential markers, such as *so, as a result and consequently*, tell the hearer that the second utterance is to be interpreted as a conclusion derived from the first one. And finally, contrastive markers signal some kind of contrast between the current message and prior discourse. Examples of contrastive markers are *on the contrary in comparison and however*.

2.10 Research questions

1. What types of DMs are used by the Iraqi bachelor students?
2. What types of DMs are misused by the Iraqi B.A. students and how their L1 affected their use of DMs?
3. What types of DMs are overused by the Iraqi B.A. students?

3. CHAPTER THREE: Methodology

3.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the methodological aspects of the present study are addressed. This chapter starts by describing the approach taken by this study: an approach that studies the language from internal structural of the sentences, and tries to characterize individual discourse markers recognizing that they belong to a group that shares common properties. The researcher describes the data that were used and how they were collected. The last section discusses the methodology the study adapts to analyze the data and arrive at the results presented in the next two chapters. Although the analysis itself is quantitative, it was complemented by statistical techniques described in the appendix.

3.2 Participants

The current study was conducted with 90 B.A. students that study English as a foreign language in Al-Qalam university college (45 males and 45 females). The participants that this study has taken are studying at three different stages. The stages that have been taken by the researcher are Freshmen, Sophomore, and Senior. Since the students are learning English as a foreign language, they have taken specific writing courses. The freshmen students have taken basic writing and grammar writing. Sophomore students have taken the course of writing and intermediate essay writing. Senior students have taken a course in advance writing. The participants are aged between 20-25 years.

3.3 Instrument

The current study is using Fraser's categories of DMs and student's compositions as instruments. The selected students are asked to write a descriptive essay chosen by the researcher on topics that they are familiar with ("Write about how the speech organs work in English" First stage, "Write about the role of youths in nation-building" Second stage, "Write about your favorite film or Tv show" Third stage). In addition, participants already have basic theoretical knowledge and experience in writing descriptive essays (Kemedikbud, 2013). The reason why the

researcher chose descriptive essay writing was because of the fact that the students were more familiar with writing descriptive essay assignments.

To show the DMs that are used in the essays, Fraser's (2004) classification is going to be applied. The current study adopted this model while analyzing the data because it fits to the analysis procedures of this study. Fraser's theory intends to explain different types of discourse markers (DMs) used by Iraqi students in essays writings, their features, functions and referring to the relation between them. Also, this model selects DMs as a cover term to avoid confusion with the diversity in the terminology used by researchers in the sources of DMs in general.

3.4 Data collection

The present study is a corpus-based study. The corpus consists of the essays written by 90 students. The total number of the words is 46774. The number of words written by the freshmen was 18075, the number of words written by sophomores was 16790, and by senior students was 11909.

Table (6). The characteristics of the corpus

	freshmen	sophomore	senior	total
Male	7050	9193	4994	21237
Female	11025	7597	6915	25537
Total	18075	16790	11909	46774

The data was collected in three weeks. Each level of the students (freshmen, sophomore, and senior) had one week to write their essays. Without prior notice, the students were asked to write an essay consisting of (100-1000) words within two hours on a specific topic. 30 freshmen students were asked to write about "how the speech organs perform during speaking English language". The sophomore students were asked to write about "the role of youth in nation-building". Senior students were asked to write about "favorite film or TV show". The students were not given any feedback to increase their level of confidence. The researcher received 90 essays from the students as all participants submitted them.

The current study uses a quantitative research design to explore DMs in the writing of the students. To increase the reliability of the data analysis, the researcher used AntConc for corpus analysis. AntConc is a freeware, multi-platform, multi-purpose corpus analysis toolkit, designed specifically for use in the classroom. The program is going to identify the DMs that were used by Iraqi students in their writings. It hosts a comprehensive set of tools including a powerful concordancer, word and keyword frequency generators, tools for cluster and lexical bundle analysis, and a word distribution plot.



4. CHAPTER FOUR: Results

4.1 Introduction

The current chapter is going to analyze the discourse markers that are used by Iraqi students in their assigned essays. The analysis is based on the research questions that the study has highlighted earlier in chapter one.

4.2 Researcher question 1

What types of DMs are used by the Iraqi bachelor students?

The first question is answered by the use of accurate computerized reading of the essays, which were written by freshmen, sophomore, and senior. The total papers that were entered into the program AntConc were 90 (females and males- no specifications). The program came up with the results:

- A- Out of the 90 essays of the three stages, the total rating of the words were 46000 to 47000 words.
- B- The total number of DMs that were used by the three stages participants (no gender specification) was 3173.
- C- The total types of DMs that were used by the three stages participants (no gender specification) was 34.

The result of the analysis that AntConc came up with is more clarified by the following tables

Table (7): The numbers of DMs used by all the participants

participants	CDMs	EDMs	IDMs	TDMs
P: 01	8	21	4	12
P: 02	2	19	5	4
P: 03	3	17	6	12
P: 04	1	17	0	3
P: 05	2	30	0	3
P: 06	1	33	0	10
P: 07	5	12	2	1
P: 08	3	18	5	5
P: 09	5	30	5	7

P: 10	4	33	4	6
P: 11	5	9	2	4
P: 12	1	12	1	2
P: 13	3	31	4	13
P: 14	2	12	3	3
P: 15	1	5	0	4
P: 16	10	28	4	15
P: 17	11	21	4	13
P: 18	2	17	3	6
P: 19	8	21	4	12
P: 20	1	2	4	2
P: 21	5	17	0	4
P: 22	5	8	1	4
P: 23	13	27	5	20
P: 24	1	18	1	1
P: 25	10	28	4	15
P: 26	1	13	0	3
P: 27	4	22	4	13
P: 28	29	58	12	29
P: 29	0	33	1	12
P: 30	5	34	5	5
P: 31	0	9	0	0
P: 32	1	5	2	2
P: 33	1	4	1	3
P: 34	5	56	0	13
P: 35	2	29	0	2
P: 36	9	111	3	10
P: 37	1	11	0	2
P: 38	0	11	0	2
P: 39	2	27	1	5
P: 40	3	57	4	4
P: 41	11	35	0	15
P: 42	2	39	2	5
P: 43	1	25	3	8
P: 44	6	48	0	7
P: 45	3	50	2	5
P: 46	0	16	1	6
P: 47	1	16	1	4

P: 48	0	6	0	0
P: 49	17	30	6	7
P: 50	1	22	1	3
P: 51	2	28	4	5
P: 52	5	34	5	5
P: 53	1	27	1	0
P: 54	2	52	3	7
P: 55	1	25	1	2
P: 56	2	31	2	7
P: 57	1	13	1	5
P: 58	0	11	0	2
P: 59	3	38	6	14
P: 60	1	17	2	2
P: 61	2	9	0	1
P: 62	1	9	1	3
P: 63	3	16	2	5
P: 64	4	8	0	4
P: 65	1	7	0	1
P: 66	2	25	0	3
P: 67	0	9	0	2
P: 68	3	14	0	6
P: 69	0	27	1	7
P: 70	19	47	4	8
P: 71	3	22	2	3
P: 72	2	41	1	5
P: 73	0	12	2	1
P: 74	2	6	0	2
P: 75	3	11	1	0
P: 76	15	63	18	15
P: 77	1	10	3	1
P: 78	16	36	4	5
P: 79	3	20	2	3
P: 80	0	7	0	5
P: 81	1	18	0	6
P: 82	3	18	0	10
P: 83	1	10	0	7
P: 84	0	5	0	2
P: 85	2	9	0	1

P: 86	2	20	2	4
P: 87	0	5	0	1
P: 88	4	27	3	7
P: 89	3	15	0	4
P: 90	8	40	5	18

Note:- P / Refer to the participant

Table (7) shows the discourse markers that are used by each participant. As mentioned earlier, there are 90 participants. Accordingly, from P1 to P30, the participants are Freshmen students. From P1 to P15 the participants are male and from P16 to P30 are female. The same arrangement goes from P31 to P60 which identified the sophomore students (P31 to p.45 males; P46 to P60 females). The last is senior students (From P61 to P90); (From P61 to P75 males; from P76 to P90 females). Table (7) gives an accurate analysis of the Number and the Types that the participants have used in their essays. The types are categorized according to Fraser's classification of DMs. According to Fraser, DMs should be within the range of four categories: CDMs, EDMs, IDMs, and TDMs. According to Table (7), the participants have used DMs (f=3173) in their essays (freshmen, sophomore, senior).

Table (8): Contrastive discourse markers used by all participants

DMs	First Stage	Second Stage	Third Stage
CDMs			
<i>In spite of</i>	0	0	0
<i>But</i>	32	31	58
<i>Although</i>	2	3	2
<i>In contrast</i>	0	1	0
<i>Despite</i>	0	1	7
<i>However</i>	7	6	3
<i>Or</i>	112	44	34
<i>Otherwise</i>	0	0	0

Table (8). presents the results of the use of contrastive discourse markers by the participants. As can be seen from the results, the most commonly used discourse markers are *or* (f=112), and *but* (f=58). The use of *or* as a DM is overwhelmingly more than the others. In this category, the participants did not use discourse markers like *In spite of* (f=0) and *otherwise* (f=0). Moreover, DMs like *although* and *despite* were very rarely used by the participants.

Table (9). Elaborative discourse markers used by all participants

DMs	First Stage	Second Stage	Third Stage
EDMs			
<i>In particular</i>	3	2	1
<i>Above all</i>	0	0	0
<i>Equally</i>	0	5	0
<i>Also</i>	22	34	15
<i>For example</i>	6	3	3
<i>And</i>	523	784	521
<i>Besides</i>	1	0	0
<i>Moreover</i>	0	1	2
<i>Furthermore</i>	0	7	0
<i>Such as</i>	44	14	6
<i>In addition</i>	5	2	1
<i>Because</i>	44	31	17

Table (9). presents the results as to the use of Elaborative discourse markers by the participants. As can be seen from the results, the most commonly used discourse markers are *and* (f=784), and *Because* (f=44). The use of *and* as a DM is overwhelmingly more than the others. In this category, the participants did not use discourse markers like *Above all* (f=0). Moreover, DMs like *Besides* and *Moreover* were very rarely used by the participants.

Table (10). Inferential discourse markers used by all participants

DMs	First Stage	Second Stage	Third Stage
IDMs			
<i>So</i>	40	31	26
<i>As a consequence</i>	0	0	0
<i>After all</i>	0	0	1
<i>Therefore</i>	5	6	4
<i>Accordingly</i>	1	2	0
<i>Hence</i>	2	5	0
<i>Then</i>	42	3	17
<i>Thus</i>	3	5	3

Table (10). presents the results as to the use of Inferential discourse markers by the participants. As can be seen from the results, the most commonly used discourse markers are *Then* (f=42), and *So* (f=40). The use of *Then* as a DM is overwhelmingly more than the others. In this category, the participants did not use discourse markers like *As a consequence* (f=0). Moreover, DMs like *After all* and *Accordingly* were very rarely used by the participants.

Table (11). Temporal discourse markers used by all participants

DMs	First Stage	Second Stage	Third Stage
TDMs			
<i>Eventually</i>	0	0	0
<i>As soon as</i>	2	2	0
<i>Finally</i>	0	4	4
<i>Before</i>	7	4	13
<i>First</i>	30	6	14

<i>After</i>	6	7	20
<i>Firstly</i>	0	1	0
<i>Secondly</i>	0	1	0
<i>Thirdly</i>	0	1	0
<i>Lastly</i>	0	0	0
<i>Next</i>	1	1	6
<i>As</i>	198	125	84

Table (11). presents the results as to the use of Temporal discourse markers by the participants. As can be seen from the results, the most commonly used discourse markers are *As* (f=198), and *First* (f=30). The use of *As* as a DM is overwhelmingly more than the others. In this category, the participants did not use discourse markers like *Lastly* (f=0) and *Eventually* (f=0). Moreover, DMs like *Firstly*, *Secondly* and *Thirdly* were very rarely used by the participants.

Table (12). Contrastive discourse markers used by all participants (per 1000 words)

DMs	First Stage	Second Stage	Third Stage
CDMs (Contrastive discourse markers)			
<i>In spite of</i>	0,0	0,0	0,0
<i>But</i>	6,8	6,6	12,4
<i>Although</i>	0,4	0,6	0,4
<i>In contrast</i>	0,0	0,2	0,0
<i>Despite</i>	0,0	0,2	1,5
<i>However</i>	1,5	1,3	0,6

Or	23,9	9,4	7,3
<i>Otherwise</i>	0,0	0,0	0,0

Table (12). Show that the contrastive DMs were most frequently used by freshmen *as well* (f=3,27 per 1000 words). The most frequently CDM used by freshmen is *Or* (f= 23,9 per 1000 words), the sophomore is *Or* (f= 9,4 per 1000 words) and senior is *But* (f= 12,4 per 1000 words).

Table (13). Elaborative discourse markers used by all participants (per 1000 words)

EDMs (Elaborative discourse markers)			
<i>In particular</i>	0,6	0,4	0,2
<i>Above all</i>	0,0	0,0	0,0
<i>Equally</i>	0,0	1,1	0,0
<i>Also</i>	4,7	7,3	3,2
<i>For example</i>	1,3	0,6	0,6
<i>And</i>	111,8	167,6	111,4
<i>Besides</i>	0,2	0,0	0,0
<i>Moreover</i>	0,0	0,2	0,4
<i>Furthermore</i>	0,0	1,5	0,0
<i>Such as</i>	9,4	3,0	1,3
<i>In addition</i>	1,1	0,4	0,2
<i>Because</i>	9,4	6,6	3,6

As we can see from Table (13), the highest number belongs to elaborative DMs (f=44,83 per 1000 words). Table (13). also shows that freshmen used mostly elaborative DMs (f=13,85 per 1000 words). The most frequently used DMs by seniors were elaborative DMs (f=12,10 per 1000 words). The most elaborative DMs used by the three levels of students is *AND*.

Table (14). Inferential discourse markers used by all participants (per 1000 words)

IDMs (Inferential discourse markers)			
<i>So</i>	8,6	6,6	5,6
<i>As a consequence</i>	0,0	0,0	0,0
<i>After all</i>	0,0	0,0	0,2
<i>Therefore</i>	1,1	1,3	0,9
<i>Accordingly</i>	0,2	0,4	0,0
<i>Hence</i>	0,4	1,1	0,0
<i>Then</i>	9,0	0,6	3,6
<i>Thus</i>	0,6	1,1	0,6

Table (14). Show that the inferential DMs were most frequently used by freshmen as well (f=1.99 per 1000 words). In general, the least frequently used DMs were inferential DMs (f=4.19 per 1000 words). The most inferential DMs used by freshmen is *THEN*. the sophomore and senior are *SO*.

Table (15). Temporal discourse markers used by all participants (per 1000 words)

TDMs (Temporal discourse markers)			
<i>Eventually</i>	0,0	0,0	0,0

<i>As soon as</i>	0,4	0,4	0,0
<i>Finally</i>	0,0	0,9	0,9
<i>Before</i>	1,5	0,9	2,8
<i>First</i>	6,4	1,3	3,0
<i>After</i>	1,3	1,5	4,3
<i>Firstly</i>	0,0	0,2	0,0
<i>Secondly</i>	0,0	0,2	0,0
<i>Thirdly</i>	0,0	0,2	0,0
<i>Lastly</i>	0,0	0,0	0,0
<i>Next</i>	0,2	0,2	1,3
<i>As</i>	42,3	26,7	18,0

Table (15). Show that the Temporal DMs ($f=11.48$ per 1000 words). Freshmen used temporal DMs ($f=5.22$ per 1000 words). Sophomores also used temporal DMs ($f=3.25$ per 1000 words). With seniors, they used temporal DMs ($f=3.01$ per 1000 words). The most temporal DM used by the three level is AS.

Table (16). Contrastive discourse markers used by male and female students

CDMs	Male	Female	Both
<i>In spite of</i>	0	0	0
<i>But</i>	45	76	121
<i>Although</i>	5	2	7
<i>In contrast</i>	1	0	1
<i>Despite</i>	3	5	8
<i>However</i>	4	12	16

<i>Or</i>	77	113	190
<i>Otherwise</i>	0	0	0

Table (16). specifies all Contrastive discourse markers that are used by male and female students. This table shows that all the participants (freshmen, sophomore, and senior) have used a high rate of CDM *OR* followed by *BUT* Male students used *OR* (f=77) followed by *BUT* (f=45) while female students used *OR* (f=113) followed by *BUT* (f=74). In addition, the least common CMDs that are used by the participants was *OTHERWISE* and *IN SPITE OF* which they did not use them at all (male and female) in their assigned essays.

Table (17). Inferential discourse markers used by male and female students

IDMs	Male	Female	Both
<i>So</i>	28	69	97
<i>As a consequence</i>	0	0	0
<i>After all</i>	1	0	1
<i>Therefore</i>	8	7	15
<i>Accordingly</i>	2	1	3
<i>Hence</i>	2	5	7
<i>Then</i>	29	33	62

<i>Thus</i>	3	8	11
-------------	---	---	----

Table (17) specifies all Inferential discourse markers that are used by male and female students. This table shows that all the participants (freshmen, sophomore, and senior) have used a high rate of IDM *SO* followed by *THEN* in their assigned essays. Male student used *THEN* (f=29) followed by *SO* (f=28) while female students used *SO* (f=69) followed by *THEN* (f=33). In addition, the participants did not use discourse markers like *AS A CONSEQUENCE* (f=0) (male and female) in their assigned essays. Moreover, DMs like *AFTER ALL* was very rarely used by the participants.

Table (18). Elaborative discourse markers used by male and female students

EDMs	Male	Female	Both
<i>In particular</i>	6	0	6
<i>Above all</i>	0	0	0
<i>Equally</i>	2	3	5
<i>Also</i>	35	36	71
<i>For example</i>	9	3	12
<i>And</i>	930	898	1828
<i>Besides</i>	1	0	1
<i>Moreover</i>	2	1	3
<i>Furthermore</i>	3	4	7
<i>Such as</i>	27	37	64

<i>In addition</i>	7	1	8
<i>Because</i>	40	52	92

Table (18) specifies all Elaborative discourse markers that are used by male and female students. This table shows that all the participants (freshmen, sophomore, and senior) have used a high rate of EDM *AND* followed by *BECAUSE* in their assigned essays. Male student used *AND* (f=930) followed by *BECAUSE* (f=40) while female students used *AND* (f=898) followed by *BECAUSE* (f=52). In addition, the participants did not use discourse markers like *ABOVE ALL* (f=0) (male and female) in their assigned essays. Moreover, DMs like *BESIDES* was very rarely used by the participants.

Table (19). Temporal discourse markers used by male and female students

TDMs	Male	Female	Both
<i>Eventually</i>	0	0	0
<i>As soon as</i>	1	3	4
<i>Finally</i>	4	4	8
<i>Before</i>	12	12	24
<i>First</i>	21	29	50
<i>After</i>	16	17	33
<i>Firstly</i>	0	1	1
<i>Secondly</i>	0	1	1
<i>Thirdly</i>	0	1	1

<i>Lastly</i>	0	0	0
<i>Next</i>	1	7	8
<i>As</i>	159	248	407

Table (19) specifies all Temporal discourse markers that are used by male and female students. This table shows that all the participants (freshmen, sophomore, and senior) have used a high rate of TDM *AS* followed by *FIRST* in their assigned essays. Male student used *As* (f=159) followed by *FIRST* (f=21) while female students used *As* (f=248) followed by *FIRST* (f=29). In addition, the participants did not use discourse markers like *EVENTUALLY* (f=0) and *LASTLY* (f=0) (male and female) in their assigned essays. Moreover, DMs like *Firstly*, *Secondly* and *Thirdly* were very rarely used by the participants.

The total number of DMs used by male students are 1484 and by female students are 1689. The log likelihood calculations indicated that male students use fewer number of DMs compared to female students (log likelihood= -30.89 p < 0.001).

Table (20): The rate and the percentage of the DMs used by Iraqi B.A. students

	CONTRASTIVE	ELABORATIVE	INFERENTIAL	TEMPORAL
<i>Freshmen</i>	(13.44%)	(56.94%)	(8.17%)	(21.44%)
<i>Sophomores</i>	(7.33%)	(75.27%)	(4.43%)	(12.95%)
<i>Seniors</i>	(12.06%)	(65.66%)	(5.91%)	(16.35%)
<i>TOTAL</i>	(11%)	(66%)	(6%)	(17%)

Table (20) shows the accurate percentage of DMs that were used by Iraqi B.A. students. Accordingly, the participants have used EDMs more than the other types of DMs. They used EDMs 66%, TMDs 17%, CMDs 11% and IMDs 6% in their 90 essays (male and female). The freshmen students have used 56.94% of EDMs, 21.44% of TMDs, 13.44% of CMDs and 8.17% of IMDs in their 30 essays (male and female). In addition, the sophomore students have used 75.27% of EDMs, 12.95% of TMDs, 7.33% of CMDs and 4.43% of IMDs in their 30 essays (male and female). Finally, senior students have used EDMs 65.66%, TMDs 16.35%, IMDs 16.35% and CMDs 12.06% in their 30 essays (male and female). The findings of the current study are similar to other studies that done by some researchers such as (Alahmed, Mohammad & Kırmızı, 2020), (Ab Manan & Raslee, 2016), and (Martinez, 2004) they found that the students used a high rate of EDMs in their writing.

Table (21): The frequency DMs used by Iraqi B.A. students

participants	CDMs	EDMs	IDMs	TDMs
<i>Freshmen</i>	153	648	93	244
<i>Sophomore</i>	86	883	52	152
<i>Senior</i>	104	566	51	141
<i>TOTAL</i>	343	2097	196	537

According to the categories of DMs, table (21) shows the number of each category that was used by the Iraqi B.A. students. According to the findings of the data analysis that were processed with AntConc, the freshmen students used CDMs (f=153), EDMs (f=648), IDMs (f=93) and TDMs (f=244). The sophomore students used CDMs (f=86), EDMs (f=883), IDMs (f=52) and TDMs (f=152). The Senior students used CDMs (f=104), EDMs (f=566), IDMs(f=51) and TDMs (f=141).

Table (22). The frequency DMs used by Iraqi B.A. students (per 1000 words)

	<i>CONTRASTIVE</i>	<i>ELABORATIVE</i>	<i>INFERENTIAL</i>	<i>TEMPORAL</i>
<i>Freshmen</i>	3,27	13,85	1,99	5,22
<i>Sophomores</i>	1,84	18,88	1,11	3,25
<i>Seniors</i>	2,22	12,10	1,09	3,01
<i>TOTAL</i>	7,33	44,83	4,19	11,48

In order to facilitate comparison, the results as to DM types were normalized to 1000 words. The results are presented in Table (22). As we can see from Table (22), the highest number belongs to elaborative DMs (f=44,83 per 1000 words) followed by temporal DMs (f=11.48 per 1000 words). Table (22) also shows that freshmen used mostly elaborative DMs (f=13,85 per 1000 words), followed by temporal DMs (f=5,22 per 1000 words). Sophomores also used mostly elaborative DMs (f=18.88 per 1000 words) followed by temporal DMs (f=3,25 per 1000 words). Finally, a similar pattern of DM use was also observed with seniors. The most frequently used DMs by seniors were elaborative DMs (f=12,10 per 1000 words), followed by temporal DMs (f=3,01 per 1000 words). When we compare, freshmen, sophomores, and seniors, it can be seen that sophomores used more elaborative DMs (f=18.88 per 1000 words) compared to other groups. It was the freshmen who used contrastive DMs more frequently than other groups (f=3,27 per 1000 words). Inferential DMs were most frequently used by freshmen as well (f=1.99 per 1000 words). In general, the least frequently used DMs were inferential DMs (f=4.19 per 1000 words).

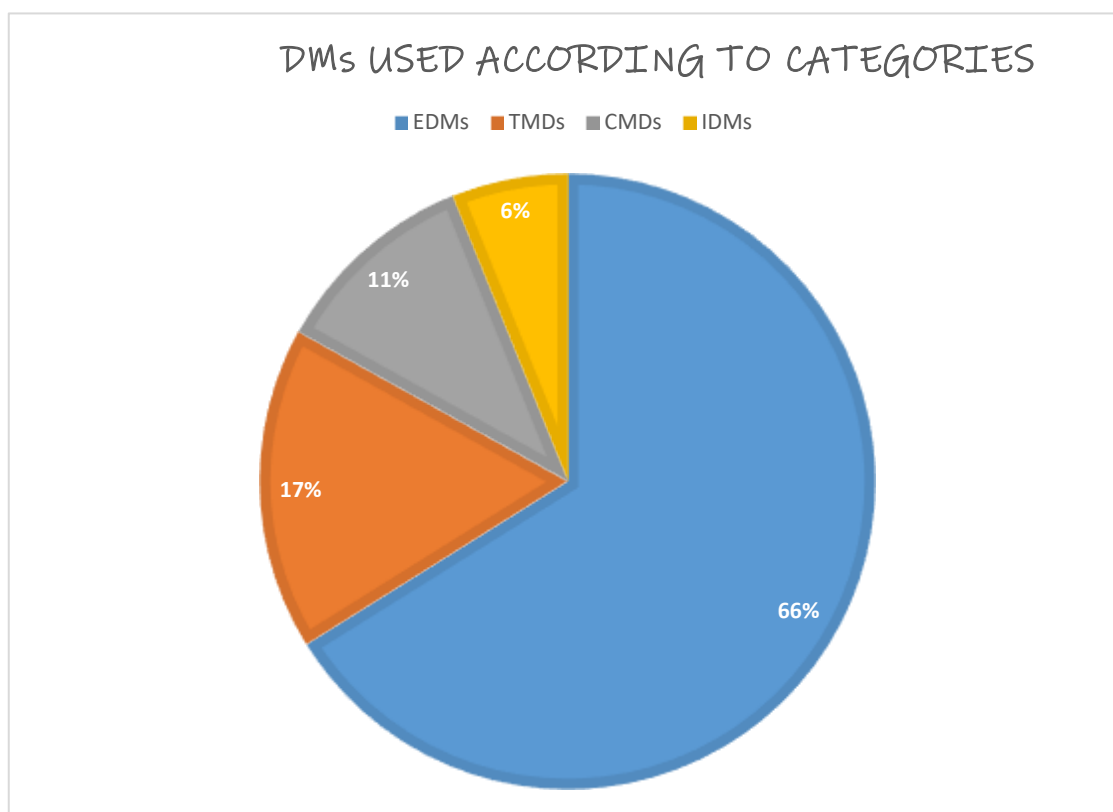


Figure (1): Percentage of the DMs used by Iraqi B.A. students

According to the categories of DMs, figure (1) shows the percentage of each category that was used by the Iraqi B.A. students. According to the findings of the data analysis that were processed with AntConc, students used 66% of EDMs, 17% of TDMs, 11% of CMDs, and 6% of IDMs. The highest rate of DMs is EDMs.

4.3 Researcher question 2

What types of DMs are misused by the Iraqi B.A. students and how their L1 affected their use of DMs?

The second question is concerned with links between the number of the functioned DMs used by the participants and the quality of the writing. In other words, the uses of DMs in compositions writing identify the good and the poor writing. It is due to the well-functions DMs that the researcher can identify and decide the quality of the essays that were produced by the participants.

Another thing that the current study has highlighted is the stronger influence that some specific DMs can give to the writing. Statically, the current data analysis highlighted differences in the use of DMs between the three levels (freshmen, sophomore, senior). Since the participants were asked to write about specific descriptive subjects, the DMs that were used mostly Elaborative. EDMs are mostly used which highlight its importance. In other words, the researcher has noticed that there is a variety the DMs in the essays that were written well. In addition, the same DMs were repeated intensively in the poor essays with the same exact subject title.

Discourse markers are considered devices for giving the text cohesion. Students who are more experienced in the target language tend to use DMs more often in their writings. Since they are more used to the right archetypical forms of writing. Yet to make their writing more cohesive, some students overuse DMs within a single paragraph (especially seniors). The students who are more experienced tend to use DMs in their right places. The students who still have their language barriers tend to overuse or misuse the DMs (especially freshmen). The examples below explain the misuse of DMs in the writing of the participant's essays:

Table (23): Examples on the misuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi B.A. students

Freshmen (juniors)	<i>P1: The air released by the lungs and comes up through the wind-pipe and arrives first at the larynx. So the larynx contains two small bands of elastic tissue and which can be thought of as two flat strips of rubber because lying opposite each other across the air passage. And these are the vocal cords, But the vocal cords take two basic positions.</i> <i>P13: All the sounds we utter because during the speech are issued as a result of muscle and cramps and that occur inside the body. So initially, the chest muscles thus responsible for breathing and create the air stream necessary so to produce almost all sounds of speech letters.</i>
--------------------	---

Sophomore	P36: <i>Young people are the energy of society so thus they live their societies, and on their hands civilizations are built and therefore, countries are concerned with directing the energies of their youth in a positive direction and towards development and construction, and without direction this energy can become a demolition pick rather than a builder.</i> P44: <i>although young people are also comfortable with the concept of “doing well while doing good”, but another finding from that Deloitte study was that almost all Millennials think it is acceptable for business to make a profit from innovations that benefit society.</i>
Senior	P90: <i>because one of Chuck's molars develop decay, thus he cannot bear more pain, so he breaks with a skateboard and falls unconscious. Chuck spends on the island for four years, and one day the waves eject one of the parts of the wrecked plane, so Chuck decides to use it.</i> P78: <i>Despite her extreme shyness, she quickly met Mike Newton and Eric Yurty and when she was sitting in the classroom next to Edward Coleen, also she felt his hostile actions towards her without any reason. Also he even tried to change the subject and he was studying with her to avoid it, thus leaving Bella at the top of the amazement, wonder, and condemnation of his behavior.</i>

Table (23). Show that the freshmen participants often made grammatical mistakes. It is not only the DMs that were misused, but there is a lack of the right sentence forms. Participant No.1 misused the EDMs. He used *So* and *Because* within the same sentence without clarifying the cause and the effect of the sentence. In addition, participant No.13 misused *Thus* and *So* Making the sentence sound awkward and deformed. With the case of freshmen students, following Demirci and Kleiner (1997) they suggest that “DMs are used in their writing as a result of translation from their first language to second language”. It is the mother language that made most of the junior’s writing affected by their mother language; which is (Arabic). Also, in their study, Jomaa and Bidin (2017) pointed that EFL Arab postgraduates’ L2 writing is distinguished by the use of lengthy sentences (Jomaa & Bidin, 2019) due to the overuse of the relative pronouns „that“ and „which“ and the influence of their L1 (Arabic Language). The same problem of grammatical and structural mistakes can be found in the writings of sophomore students. Participant No.36 in the table (23) used two sequences of EDMs within the same sentence. P36 used *So* and *Thus* together without paying attention to the context of the sentence. P36 should have used *That* instead of (*So* and *Thus*), to make the sentence understandable. Participant No.44 used

EDM and CDM within the same sentence. P44 starts his sentence with *Although* then used *But* in the middle to link the two sentences. In order to achieve the right use of DMs with the sentence, EDM should have been omitted.

Senior students have better writing skills than the freshmen and the sophomores. Yet they also made some misuse and mistakes with DMs. participant No.90 has use three sequences of EDMs. P90 used *Because*, *Thus*, and *So*. The P90 did not have to use *Because*. In addition, *Thus* was not necessary in that place. The participant should have used *That* instead of *Thus*. Participant No.78 used a sequence of EDMs. The use of *Also* and *Thus* made the sentence vague.

Thornbury (1997) reiterated that "Cohesion alone is not enough to make a text coherent". Texts have an internal logic, which the reader recognizes even without the aid of explicit cohesive devices (p. 126). In other words, the examples above have failed to achieve the internal logic of the text and thought that by using DMs in different places within the text, it would make sense to the marker of the essays.

4.4 Researcher question 3

Another problem within the writing of the Iraqi B.A. students was the overuse of DMs. In the table (24), the examples show the overuse of EDMs within a single paragraph. According to Alahmed, Mohammed & Kırmızı (2020), some students do overuse the DMs to cover their lack of vocabulary. in other words, Iraqi B.A. students have a poor vocabulary of L2, since they do not use English out of the classroom. This section focuses on which DMs are overused by Iraqi students. By overuse, we mean which DMs were the most frequently used and which stood out.

What types of DMs are overused by the Iraqi B.A. students?

Table (24): Examples of the overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students

Freshmen (juniors)	P28: Consonants are produced by restricting <i>and</i> then releasing the flow of air in three ways: vibrating the vocal cords <i>and</i> changing the part of the anatomy which restricts the air flow <i>and</i> changing the extent to which the air flow is restricted <i>and</i> consonants with relatively little vibration of the
--------------------	--

	vocal cords are called voiceless consonants <i>and</i> consonants with relatively more vibration of the vocal cords are called voiced. P16: Phonetics is a branch of linguistics <i>and</i> deals with the investigation of the sound <i>and</i> means of a certain language <i>and</i> from the point of view of their articulation <i>and</i> acoustic qualities <i>and</i> semantics.
Sophomore	P54: The courage <i>and</i> creativity <i>and</i> ability to learn <i>and</i> high self-esteem are young, accounting for 40.3% of Nepal's total population. This is a major source of empowering <i>and</i> robust energy development <i>and</i> socio-political-economic transformation. Different age groups are considered young in different countries. P36: The same applies to educational conferences <i>and</i> cultural forums that we urge young men <i>and</i> women to instill in them morals <i>and</i> make them pillars <i>and</i> pillars of society in southern Sudan, <i>such as</i> "awareness campaigns" together to fight tribalism in southern Sudan "and support the unity of the people of southern Sudan cultivate a spirit of tolerance and support the social peace process in Our Community "and many others. <i>And</i> other youth projects to advance our nascent country
Seniors	P70: Youth are not only the leaders of tomorrow, <i>but</i> also the partners of today. Young people are <i>also</i> social actors of change <i>and</i> progress. <i>Also</i>, They are a crucial segment of a nation's development <i>and</i> their contribution, <i>therefore</i>, is highly needed. P72: Man passes through many stages of childhood <i>and</i> boyhood <i>and</i> adolescence <i>and</i> youth <i>and</i> aging and the pyramid, <i>and</i> the most important stage of life is the youth stage, in which the starting <i>and</i> independence of the family <i>and</i>

	<i>self-reliance and the personality of the young man and girl begin to take shape and has a role and opinion in society through various seminars, conferences and meetings.</i>
--	--

Table (24). Show that the participants from the three levels (freshmen, sophomores, and seniors) overuse the DM *AND* in their sentences. Beside the lack of vocabulary that was noted as a reason for such overuse, the students have other problems that concern the structure of the sentences. The participants have used CDMs and EDMs even without any explicit meaning of the contrast or the need for elaborations. The overuse of the DMs has affected directly on the quality of the writing. The excessive use of *AND* have given the writing dull gesture and repetitiveness. Thus, the Iraqi B.A. students need to develop and acquire more conscious of using DMs; especially freshmen level.

The freshmen students have overused the EDM *AND* (f=547) in their writing. Table (24) shows examples from P28 and P16 which both have overuse *AND* the P28 used *AND* (f=5) and P16 used *AND* (f=5). Both participants have an issue of lack of observation of the limit of the structure of the sentence. They both used *AND* as a mean to link a sequence of sentences thinking that it's normal to use EDM in such away. The result was a long sentence with a vague meaning. In addition, the reader was not able to keep up with the sentences sequence.

The same problem of using *AND* to link long sentences arouse with the sophomore students. Both participants P36 and P54 used *AND* to make up for their lack of vocabulary the P36 used *AND* (f=6) and P54 used *AND* (f=5). They used EDM *AND* to make their text more cohesive. Yet, the result of their overuse was long and dull sentences.

Although senior students have used multiple DMs in their essays, they also tend to overuse to cover their lack of vocabulary. In the table (24), P70 used EDM and CDM, *AND* (f=2), *ALOS* (f=2), *BUT* (f=1), and *THEREFOR* (f=1). P70 overused DMs thinking that it would make his essay more cohesive and cover his lack of vocabulary.

In addition, the excessive use of *AND* initiated the same problems of vague meaning and incomprehensive sentence. Although there were few grammatical mistakes in the essays of seniors students, but they did not overcome the issue of the right use of DMs.

According to Alahmed, Mohammed & Kırmızı (2020), students overuse some type of discourse marker to cover their limit of vocabulary think that by using a high rate of some DMs make effective and high-quality sentences. As a result of this linguistic use, their writing became weak rather than strong and effective.

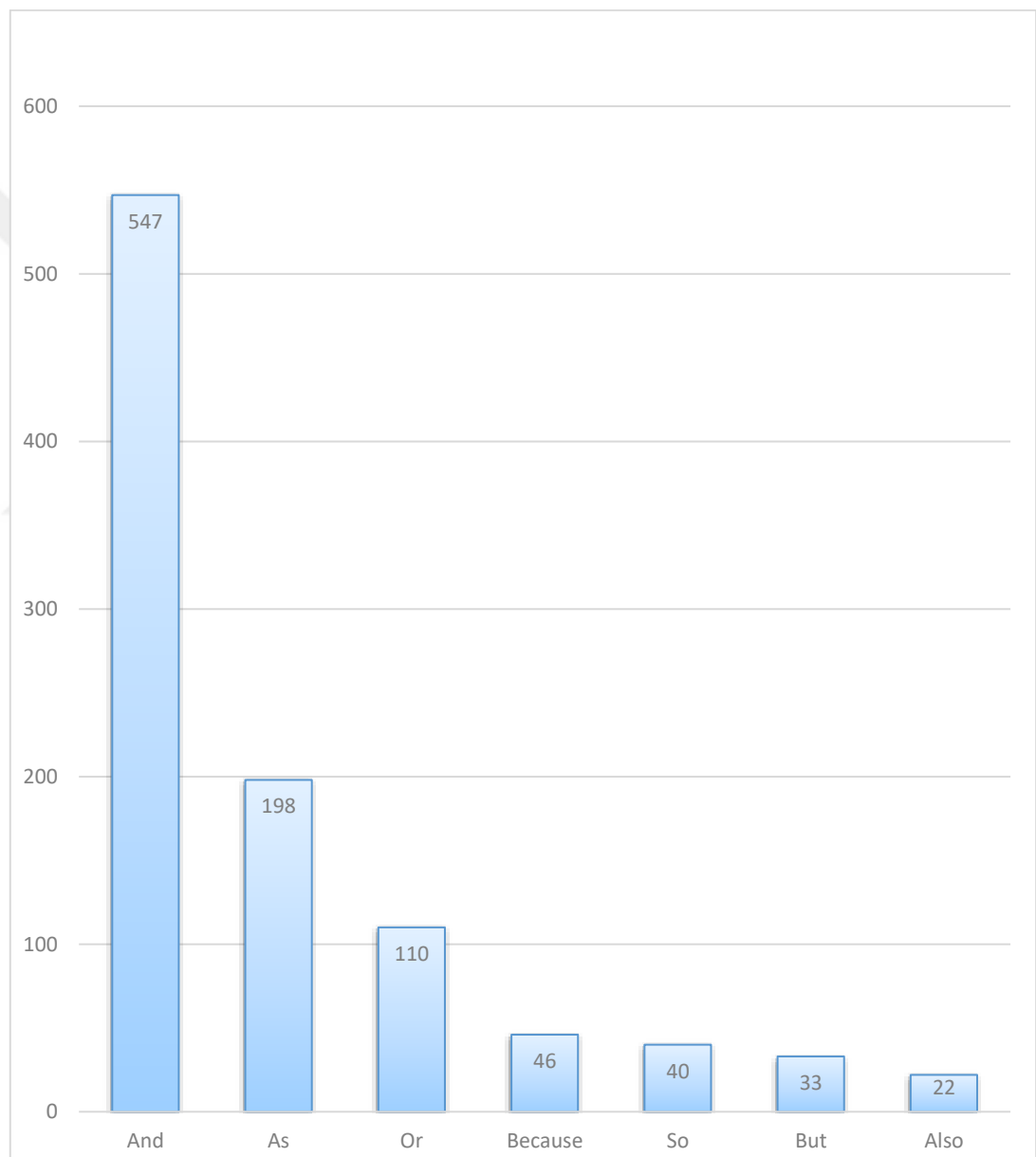


Figure (2): The overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students (first stage)

Figure 2 shows the most common DMs that are used by freshmen students. In figure 2, the freshmen students used *AND* (f=547), *AS* (f=198), *OR* (f=110), *BECAUSE* (f=46), *SO* (f=40), *BUT* (f=33) and *ALSO* (f=22).

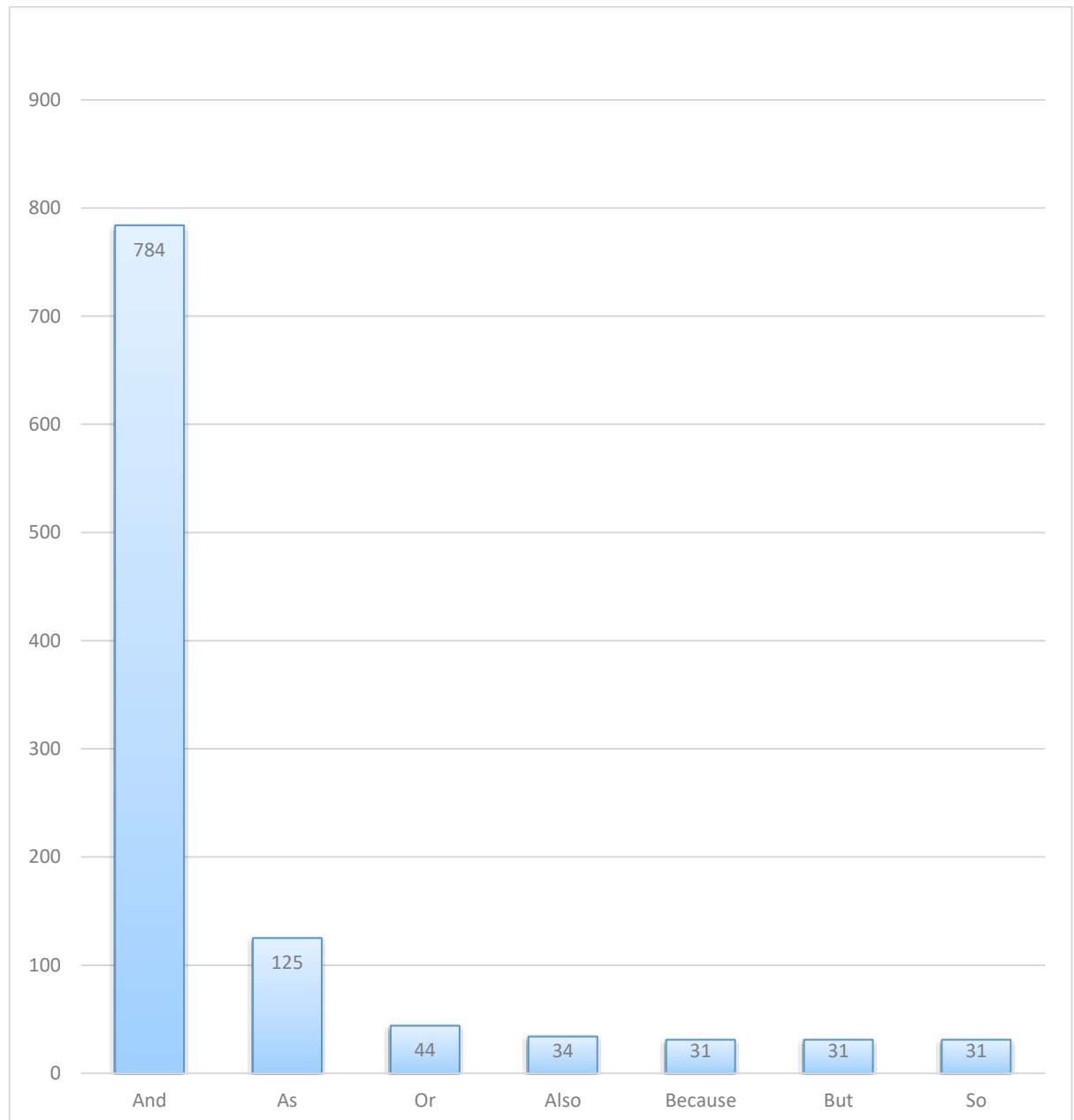


Figure (3): The overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students (second stage)

Figure 3 shows the most common DMs that are used by sophomore students. In figure 3, the sophomore students used *AND* (f=784), *AS* (f=125), *OR* (f=44), *ALSO* (f=34), *BECAUSE* (f=31), *BUT* (f=31) and *SO* (f=31).

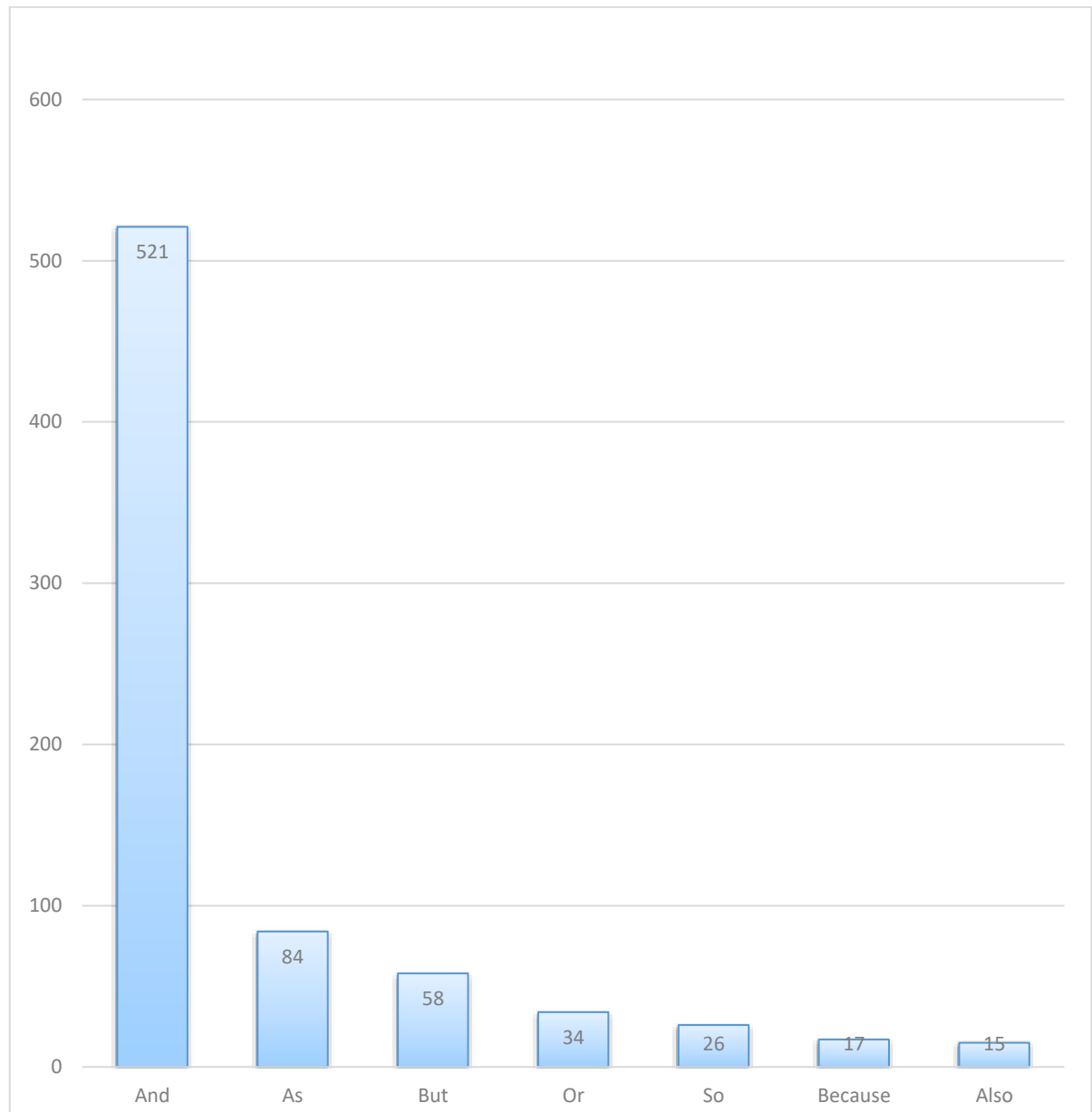


Figure (4): The overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students (Third stage)

Figure 4 shows the most common DMs that are used by senior students. In figure 4, the senior students used *AND* (f=521), *AS* (f=84), *BUT* (f=58), *OR* (f=34), *SO* (f=26), *BECAUSE* (f=17) and *ALSO* (f=15).

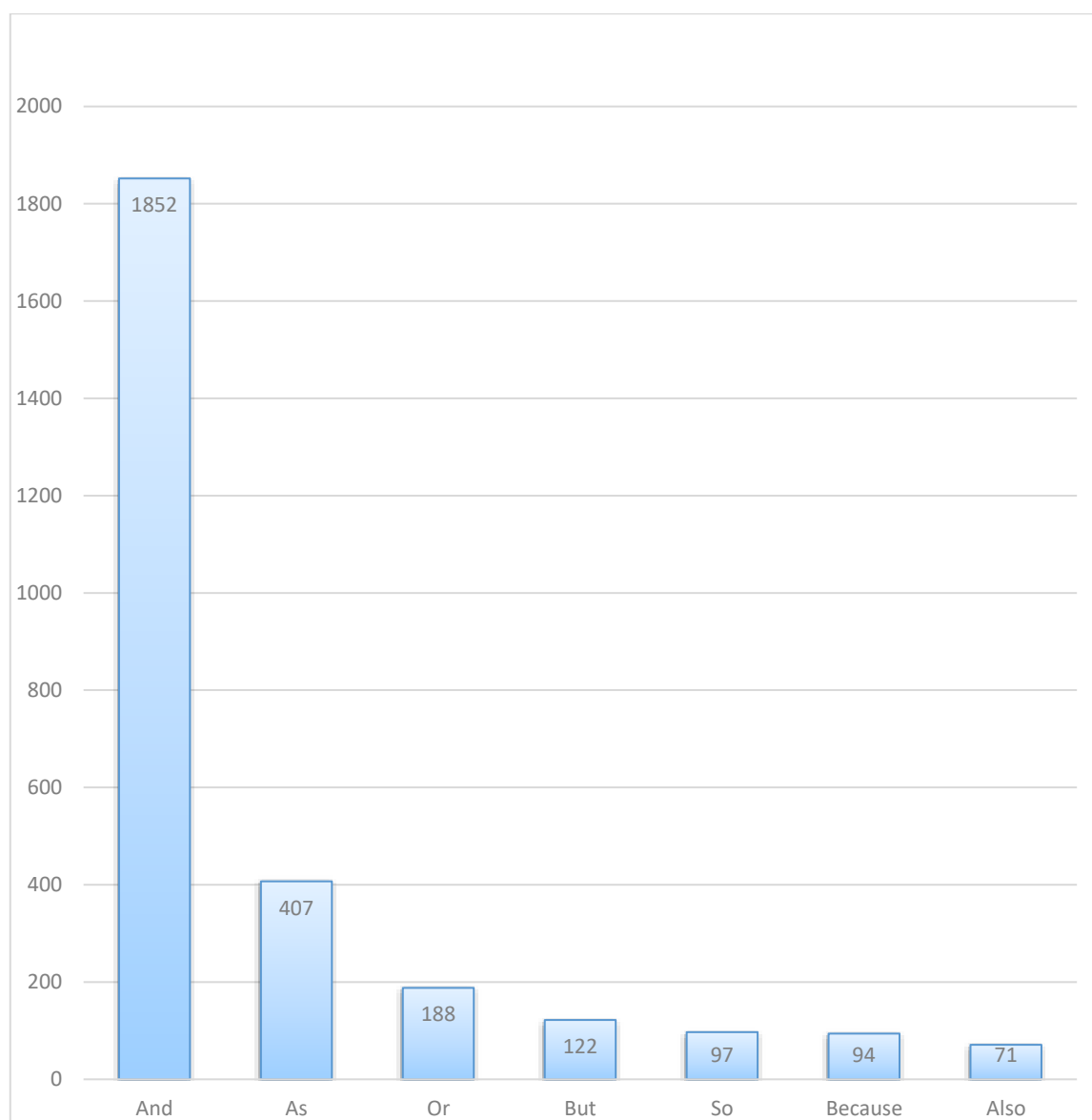


Figure (5): The overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students (All stages)

Figure 5 shows the most common DMs that are used by Iraqi students (All stages). In figure 5, the Iraqi students used *AND* (f=1852), *AS* (f=407), *OR* (f=188), *BUT* (f=122), *SO* (f=97), *BECAUSE* (f=94) and *ALSO* (f=71).

Chapter four discussed the data that the study collected. Also, chapter four showed the result of the essays and the DMs that used by the participants. As we noted from the tables and figures that all participants freshmen, sophomore and senior used a high rate of EDMs they overused EDM *AND* (f=1852) to cover their lack of vocabulary. Also, the participants from three stages misused some DMs that are mentioned in table (23). In addition, the participants did not use discourse markers like

In spite of (f=0), *Above all* (f=0), *As a consequence* (f=0), *Otherwise*(f=0), *Eventually* (f=0) and *lastly* (f=0) in their assigned essays. Moreover, DMs like *Firstly*, *Secondly*, *Thirdly*, *After all* and *Besides* were very rarely used by the participants.



5. CHAPTER FIVE: Discussion

5.1 Discussion

The current chapter is going to discuss the discourse markers that used by Iraqi students in their assigned essays. The analysis is going to be centered on the research questions that the study has highlighted earlier in chapter one.

The first research question is concerned with the use of DMs in the essays that were produced by the Iraqi B.A. students. **chapter four** shows the accurate percentage of DMs that were used by Iraqi B.A. students. The finding of the current study which is a high rate of the use of EDMs (concerning the first question) is similar to other studies that done by some researchers such as (Alahmed, Mohammad & Kırmızı, 2020; Ab Manan & Raslee, 2016 Aysu, 2017; Gönen, 2011; Martinez, 2004; Modhish, 2012; Muhyidin, 2020; Tiryaki, 2017; Yunus & Haris, 2014) they found that the students used a high rate of EDMs in their writing.

The second question is concerned with links between the number of the functions DMs used by the participants and the quality of the writing. In other words, the uses of DMs in compositions writing identify the good and the poor writing. It's due to the proper use of DMs that the researcher can identify and decide the quality of the essays that were produced by the participants.

Discourse markers are considered devices for giving the text cohesion. Students who are more experienced in the target language tend to use DMs more often in their writings. Since they are more used to the right archetypical forms of writing. Yet to make their writing more cohesive, some students overuse DMs within a single paragraph (especially seniors). The students who are more experienced tend to use DMs in their right places. The students who still have their language barriers tend to overuse or misuse the DMs (especially freshmen). The data in chapter four shows that the freshmen participants often made grammatical mistakes. It is not only the DMs that were misused, but there is a lack of the right sentence forms. With the case of freshmen students, following Demirci and Kleiner (1997) they suggest that “DMs are used in their writing as a result of translation from their first language to second language”. It is that for the mother language that made most of the junior's writing

affected by their mother language; which is (Arabic). Also, in their study, Jomaa and Bidin (2017) pointed that EFL Arab postgraduates' L2 writing is distinguished by the use of lengthy sentences (Jomaa & Bidin, 2019) due to the overuse of the relative pronouns that "and which" and the influence of their L1 (Arabic Language). The same problem of grammatical and structural mistakes can be found in the writings of sophomore students. In order to achieve the right use of DMs with the sentence, EDM should have been omitted. Senior students have better writing skills than the juniors and the sophomores. Yet they also made some misuse and mistakes with DMs. Following Thornbury (1997) who reiterated that "Cohesion alone is not enough to make a text coherent". Texts have an internal logic, which the reader recognizes even without the aid of explicit cohesive devices (p. 126). In other words, the examples in the previous chapter have failed to achieve the internal logic of the text and thought that by using DMs in different places within the text, it would make sense to the marker of the essays.

The third question is concerned with the overuse of the DMs in the writing of the Iraqi B.A. students. **the data in chapter four** show the problem of the overuse of the DMs in the essays of the Iraqi B.A. students. According to Alahmed, Mohammed & kırmızı (2020) that some students do overuse the DMs to cover their lack of vocabulary. In other words, Iraqi B.A. students have a poor vocabulary of L2, since they do not use English out of the classroom. The most dominant category of DMs uttered by students is elaborative DM and the most dominant DM is *and*. Due to the fact that not all of the students understood how to use discourse markers (Syahdanis 2020)

The participants from the three levels (freshmen, sophomores, and seniors) overuse the DM *AND* in their sentences. Beside the lack of vocabulary that was noted as a reason for such overuse, the students have other problems that concern the structure of the sentences. The participants have used CDMs and EDMs even without any explicit meaning of the contrast or the need for elaborations. The overuse of the DMs have effected directly on the quality of the writing. The excessive use of *AND* have given the writing dull gesture and repetitiveness. Thus, the Iraqi B.A. students need to develop and acquire more conscious of using DMs; especially freshmen level.

The freshmen students have overused the EDM in their writing. The participants have an issue of lack of observation of the limit of the structure of the sentence. They both used *EMD* as a mean to link a sequence of sentences thinking that it's normal to use EDM in such a way. The result was a long sentence with a vague meaning. In addition, the reader was not able to keep up with the sentences sequence. The same problem of using *EDM* to link long sentences arouse with sophomore students. They used EDM to make their text more cohesive. Yet, the result of their overuse was long and dull sentences. Although senior students have used multiple DMs in their essays, they also tend to overuse to cover their lack of vocabulary. Although there were few grammatical mistakes in the essays of seniors' students, but they did not overcome the issue of the right use of DMs.

The current study investigates the use of DMs in the writing of Iraqi undergraduate students of ESL. The finding of the DMs that were used in their essays is linked to the literature review. The analysis of the data results that Discourse Markers are not essentially required to link sentences (Ali et al., 2012; Al-Kohlani, 2010; Carter & McCarthy, 2006; Fraser, 1998, 1999; Tannen et al., 2015; Watts, 1988; Yunus & Haris, 2014). They are essential for constructing knowledge from known to the unknown (Dergisi, 2010; Yunus & Haris, 2014). The readers of the essays were having difficulties to understand the idea the writer attempt to convey without the presence of cohesion and coherence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Karaata et al., 2012). In the present study, it has been noticed that the grammatical function of DMs is important to form meaningful content. In other words, "grammar structures essay writing and the misuse of it revamps the quality of writing" (Fraser 1998, 1999; Hellermann & Vergun, 2007).

On the other hand, there is misuse and overuse of DMs in the essays that were produced by the students. Regarding this point, the current study has found that the misuse and the overuse of DMs effects negatively on the message that the students were trying to convey in their essays. By misusing and overusing the DMs, the students are "overriding the basic role of Discourse Markers" (Al-Kohlani, 2010; Rahimi, 2011; Sanford, 2012; Swan, 2005). It was found that the misuse and the overuse of the DMs cause directly the disturbance of the style of the writing of the students (Karaata et al., 2012; Tannen et al., 2015). Thus, the right use of DMs will

result in a full understanding of the meaning of the essay (Eslami & Eslami, 2007; Swan, 2005).

In a research written by Martínez (2004), it was found that the students use EDMs more often in their writings. Martínez (2004) concludes that “the frequency of use of DMs is an indicator of the quality of the compositions, and therefore of the students’ writing skill in English” (p. 16). In addition, Al Gurkosh (2016) investigated the DMs in the descriptive composition of the Iraqi ELT students. The study found that there is a strong link between the DMs used and the quality of the writing.

Addressing the misuse of DMs, Hamza (2018) presented a study that aimed to highlight the errors that were committed by the Iraqi students in the use of DMs. The results show that the most common committed errors in choosing discourse markers are adversative and sequential classes. Also, it is noticed that the subjects of this study are unable to use the right discourse marker in the right position because they are unaware of the meaning and function of discourse markers.

In addition, Al-khazraji's (2019) paper aims to provide further insight into assessing students' understanding of discourse markers. She intends to increase the prominence of Discourse Markers in the essay writing of ESL students. Qualitative data was gathered from ninth-grade intermediate pupils at a Dubai school. Six of their articles were randomly selected for analysis, and only nine passages were studied. These excerpts demonstrate how students use cohesion and coherence while using discourse markers. The results were classified into three categories: 'Misused Discourse Markers,' 'Overused Discourse Markers,' and 'Advanced used Discourse Markers.'

The findings are corroborated by Aysu's (2017), She discovered that the most often used debate markers in the writings were 'and', 'but', and 'since'. In terms of the extent to which DMs are used in essays, it is concluded that English essays composed by ELT students use the most DMs.

In the quantitative analysis, it was found that there was a different use of DMs in the writing of the Iraqi undergraduate students. The study found that the Iraqi B.A. students (female and male) tend to misuse and overuse DMs in their writing. The

overuse and the misuse effect directly on the level of the students' writings. Some of the students tend to use a variety of EDMs. Other students tend to repeat the same EDMs. In addition, some students tend to use EDMs without any grammatical or semantic needs.

Rhetoric of Kaplan. Structure is made up of language, which is made up of phrases, terms, and clauses; in other words, any utterances made by the speaker or writer. As discussed previously, utterances are influenced by the speaker or writer; as a result of this tendency, cultural disparities in discourse structure are unavoidable. Unconsciously, a community's vocabulary may have a significant impact on the points of view of its members (Sapir, 1929).

Kaplan (1966) coined the term "cultural thinking patterns" to describe this process. He noted that the vocabulary through which we communicate plays a significant role in written debate. English, for example, follows a linear structure. An English expository paragraph follows a particular structure. It begins with a topic statement and then delves further into the topic statement by elaborating on it and including examples. Each body paragraph and example serves to explain and support the central point, subject argument, or thesis statement. Kaplan included several illustrations in his analysis to substantiate his point; moreover, he visualized the trends.

Pazhakh and Karimi (2015) reported that "explicit teaching of DMs affects all language skills since they are important components of language". "If the learners have a good level of DMs and they stick in their mind, the learners can rapidly and easily find appropriate gambits without consuming too much time and disturbing the fluency, accuracy, and coherence of speaking" (Khameneh & Faruji, 2020). The current study found that most of the participants have overused EDMs such as *AND*, *AS*, *OR*, *BUT*, *SO*, *BECAUSE*, and *ALSO*. To solve the issue concerned DMs use, the English department at Al-Qalam university college should offer a course in academic writing not only relying on the syllabus materials of compositions course.

6. CHAPTER SIX: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to be the conclusion for this present thesis. It aims to present closing points based on what has been studied and found in the preceding chapters. It is going to provide a summary of the thesis' chapters. In addition, this chapter is going to provide a notion of the strength of the current study, limitations, and suggestions for further researches.

6.2 Summary of the study and the conclusion

The current study consists of six chapters. The first chapter is the introduction of the thesis which the gap of the study, the method used, and the research questions have been introduced and highlighted. Chapter two discussed Fraser's theory of Discourse Markers and his classification of it. It also highlights some other researcher views on DMs such as Halliday and Hassan. Chapter three is the methodology that this study is based on. Chapter four discussed the data that the study collected. Chapter four showed the result of the essays and the DMs that used by the participants. Chapter five discuss the finding of the study and shows the similarities between the current study and other studies. Finally, chapter six is the conclusion.

The current study has achieved its aim which is exploring the DMs that the Iraqi B.A. students used in their essay writing. The participants were B.A. students studying English language at Al-Qalam university college. The current study analyzed the essays that have been submitted by freshmen, sophomores, and seniors (first, second, and third years). The result of the data was that the participants involved have problems in their writing; especially with DMs. They have to work on their academic level to achieve the requirement of good writing. Considering cohesion and cohesive, all participants have problems in achieving them. They either made an overuse of DMs in a certain place within the text or have misused them totally. This sort of misuse and overuse of DMs have affected on the quality of the writing. Students have introduced a poor level essays which it filled with DMs issues. The result of the data that have been collected out of 90 essays showed that the participants have used a high rate of EDMs rather than CDMs, IDMs, and TDMs. The result of this study is close to the result of

other studies that done by some researchers such as (Alahmed, Mohammad & Kırmızı, 2020; Ab Manan & Raslee, 2016 Aysu, 2017; Gönen, 2011; Martinez, 2004; Modhish, 2012; Muhyidin, 2020; Tiryaki, 2017; Yunus & Haris, 2014) they found that the students used a high rate of EDMs in their writings. The current study found that most of the participants have overuse EDMs such as *AND*, *AS*, *OR*, *BUT*, *SO*, *BECAUSE*, and *ALSO*. To solve the issue concerned DMs use, the English department at Al-Qalam university college should offer a carouse in academic writing not only relying on the syllabus materials of compositions course.

6.3 Limitations of the study

The current study has dealt with DMs in the writing of the Iraqi B.A. students of the English department at Al-Qalam university college.

1. Limited number of students
2. Limited number of written assignments
3. The study did not focus on genre
4. Limited to Fraser's categories in the classification of DMs.

6.4 Suggestion for further researches

The present thesis has studied the DMs in the writing of B.A. students that are studying English in the English department at Al-Qalam university college. The current study could be taken further to include the whole four stages of the English department (first, second, third, and fourth years).

In addition, the current study could include all Iraqi universities not only Al-Qalam university. Also, as Jomaa (2019) suggests, cause of the complexity in both non-academic and academic discourses, several approaches and strategies should be used in order to gain both emic and etic perspectives from a writer by using different lenses.

REFERENCES

- Ab Manan, N. A., & Raslee, N. N. (2016). The Use of Discourse Markers in Paragraph Writing Among Malaysian ESL Learners. *Universiti Teknologi MARA Cawangan Perak*, 22–30. Retrieved from <https://scholar.google.com/scholar?oi=bibs&cluster=211677040386105575&btnI=1&hl=en>
- Aidinlou, N. A., & Shahrokhi mehr, H. (2012). The effect of discourse markers instruction on EFL learners' writing. *World Journal of Education*, 2(2), 10–16. <https://doi.org/10.5430/wje.v2n2p10>
- Alahmed, S, Mohammed, Y, Kırmızı, Ö. (2020). The Use of Discourse Markers in L2 English Writing by Iraqi Postgraduate Students at Karabuk University. *Eurasian Journal of English Language and Literature*, 2(1), 107-115. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/jell/issue/54641/716430>
- Alami, A. (2015). Pragmatic Functions of Discourse Markers: A Review of Related Literature. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature (IJSELL)*, 3(3), 1-10.
- Ali Al-Qahtani, A. (2015). The effect of explicit instruction of textual discourse markers on saudi EFL learners' reading comprehension. *English Language Teaching*, 8(4), 57–66. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v8n4p57>
- Ali, E., & Mahadin, R. (2016). The Use of Discourse Markers in Written Discourse by Students of English at the University of Jordan. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*. 6(3), 23-35.
- Ali, S., Kalajahi, R., & Abdullah, N. (2012). Discourse connectors: An overview of the history, definition and classification of the term. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 19(11), 1659-1673.
- Al-khazraji, A. (2019). Analysis of Discourse Markers in Essays Writing in ESL Classroom. *International Journal of Instruction*, 12(2), 559-572.

- Al-Kohlani, F. (2010). *The function of discourse markers in Arabic newspaper opinion articles* (Doctoral dissertation). Georgetown University.
- Al Mughrabi, F. M. (2017). Arab Learners of English and the Use of Discourse Markers in Writing. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 8(4), 715-721.
- Asassfeh, S. M., Alshboul, S. S., & Al-Shaboul, Y. M. (2013). Distribution and appropriateness of use of logical connectors in the academic writing of Jordanian English-major undergraduates. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Sciences*, 222(1259), 1–46.
- Aysu, S. (2017). The use of discourse markers in the writings of Turkish students of English as a foreign language: A corpus based study. *Journal of Higher Education and Science*, 7 (1), 132-138. DOI: 10.5961/jhes.2017.191
- Bazanella, Carla. (1990). Phatic Connectives as Interactional Cues in Contemporary Spoken Italian. *Journal of Pragmatics* 14(1), 17 -62.
- Blakemore, D. (1992). *Understanding Utterances*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Blakemore, Diane. (1989). Denial and Contrast: Relevance Theoretic Linguistics and Philosophy of “But”. *Linguistics and Philosophy*, 12(1), 15-37.
- Brinton, Laurel J. (1990). *The Development of Discourse Markers in English*. In J. Fisiak, ed., *Historical Linguistics and Philology*, 45-71. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter.
- Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (2006). *Cambridge grammar of English*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Cowan, R., (2008). *The teacher's grammar of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Croucher, S.M. (2004). Like, you know, what I'm saying: A Study of discourse marker frequency in extemporaneous and impromptu speaking. *National Forensic Journal*, 22(3), 38-47.

- Dan-ni, S., & Zheng, C. (2010). Analyzing the micro coherence in English writing and implications for the teaching of English writing. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 7(12), 7-10.
- Demirci, M. & Kleiner, B. (1997). Discourse markers in second language research. *Journal of Intensive English Studies*, 11(1), 131-142.
- Dergisi, U. (2010), Discourse markers in English writing. *The Journal of International Social Research*, 3(11), 299-305. doi: http://www.sosyalarastirmalar.com/cilt3/sayi11pdf/feng_li.pdf.
- Dontcheva-Navratilova, O., & Povolná, R. (Eds.). (2020). *Coherence and cohesion in spoken and written discourse*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Dumlao, R. P., & Wilang, J. D. (2019). Variations in the use of discourse markers by L1 and L2 English users. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 9(1), 202–209. <https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v9i1.15206>
- Eslami, Z., & Eslami-Rasekh, A. (2007), Discourse markers in academic lectures. *Asian EFL Journal*, 9(1), 22-38. doi: <http://www.asian-efl-journal.com>.
- Fraser, B. (2004). *An account of discourse markers*. In Garcés, P., R. Gómez, L. Fernández, & M. Padilla. (Eds.). *Current trends in intercultural, cognitive and social pragmatics*. Sevilla: Universidad de Sevilla: 13-34.
- Fraser, B. (2005). *Towards a theory of discourse markers*. Retrieved from <http://people.bu.edu/bfraser>
- Fraser, Bruce. (1990). An Approach to Discourse Markers. *Journal of Pragmatics* 14, 383-95.
- Fraser, Bruce. (1993). Discourse Markers Across Language. *Pragmatics and Language Learning, Monograph Series*, 4.
- Fraser, Bruce. (1994). *Discourse Markers*. Ms, Boston University.
- Fraser, Bruce. (1995). *Discourse Markers*. Ms, Boston University.
- Ghasemi, M. (2013). An investigation into the use of cohesive devices in second language writings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*. 3(9), 1615-1623.

- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London, England: Longman.
- Hamid, M.O. & Nguyen, A.T.M. (2016). Globalization, English language policy, and teacher agency: Focus on Asia. *The International Education Journal:Comparative Perspectives*. 15(1). 26-44.
Retrieved from <http://openjournals.library.usyd.edu.au/index.php/IEJ/index>
- Hamza, H. K. (2018). Identifying Errors Committed by Iraqi EFL Learners in Using Discourse Markers. *Journal of Al-Frahedis Arts*, 10(34), 1-10.
- Hassan, J., Al, A., & Badie, M. M. (2016). *An investigation on the role of discourse markers in the quality of the descriptive compositions of Iraqi ELT students*. 20(4), 19–25.
- House, J. (2013). Developing pragmatic competence in English as a lingua franca: Using discourse markers to express (inter) subjectivity and connectivity. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 59(1), 57-67.
- Hyland, K. (2013). *Genre and Discourse Analysis in Language for Specific Purposes*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Irfan, F. , Shahzadi, M. , Talib, N. & Awan. T. (2020). A Comparative Corpus Based Analysis Of Discourse Markers For Gender Description In The Alchemist And Pride And Prejudice. *Journal of Archaeology of Egypt/Egyptology* 17 (11), 358-376.
- Iseni, A. et al (2013). The Role of Discourse Markers and Cohesive Devices in Writing: EFL Students a Case Study. *Anglisticum Journal (IJLLIS)*, 2(1), 35-48
- Jalilifar, A. (2008). Discourse markers in composition writings: The case of Iranian learners of English as a foreign language. *English Language Teaching*. 1(2), 114-122.
- Jalilifar, A. R., & Alipour, M. (2007). How explicit instruction makes a differences: Metadiscourse markers and EFL learners' reading comprehension skill. *Journal of College Reading and Learning*. 38(1), 35-52.

- Jomaa, N. J. & Bidin, S. J. (2019). Reporting and Quoting: Functional Analyses of Logico-Semantic Relations of Clause Complex Citations. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 25(1), 158 -178
- Jomaa, N. J. (2019). Multiple Approaches for Analysing Academic Discourses: Similarities and Differences. *Eurasian Journal of English Language and Literature*, 1(1), 1-14
- Jomaa, N.J., & Bidin, S.J. (2017). Perspective of EFL doctoral students on challenges of citations in academic writing. *Malaysian Journal of Learning and Instruction (MJLI)*, 14(2), 177-209.
- Kaplan, R.B. (1966), Cultural thought patterns in inter-cultural education. *Language Learning*, 16, 1-20. doi:10.1111/j.1467-1770.1966.tb00804.
- Karaata, C., Cepik, C., & Cetin, Y. (2012). Enhancing the use of discourse markers in academic writing: The combination of incidental al acquisition and explicit instruction. *Electronic Journal of Social Sciences*, 11(40), 11-29. doi: www.esosder.org
- Khameneh, A. & Faruji, L. (2020) The Effect of Teaching Discourse Markers (DMs) on speaking Achievement among Iranian Intermediate EFL learners. *International Journal of Research*. 5 (4), 1-13.
- Kemedikbud. (2013). *Kompetensi Dasar Kurikulum 2013*. Lampiran Permendikbud.
- Kirmizi, O., Karci B. (2017). An Investigation of Turkish Higher Education EFL Learners' Linguistic and Lexical Errors. *Educational Process: International Journal*, 6(4), 35-54.
- Koops, C. & Lohmann, A. (2013). Discourse Marker Sequencing and Grammaticalization. *Berkeley Linguistics Society: The Linguistic Society of America*, 39(1), 108-122.
- Kuru Gönen, S . (2012). A neo-humean analysis of Turkish discourse markers “ama” and “fakat” / Türkçe’deki “ama” ve “fakat” bağlaçlarının Neo-humean analiz yöntemine göre incelenmesi . *Atatürk Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi* , 15 (1) , .

Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/ataunisosbil/issue/2827/38302>

- Leo, K. (2012). Investigating cohesion and coherence discourse strategies of Chinese students with varied lengths of residence in Canada. *TESL Canada Journal*, 29(6), 157-179.
- Levinson, Stephen C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Lewis, D. (2006). Discourse markers in English: a discourse-pragmatic view. *Approaches to discourse particles*, 43-59.
- Lubishtani, M. (2019). Contrastive analysis of the semantic relations of connectors in argumentative texts in English and Albanian. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 15(2), 508-519. <https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.586175>
- Martinez, A. C. L. (2004) Discourse markers in the expository writing of Spanish university students. *IBÉRICA*, 8(1), 63-80.
- McKinley, J. (2013). Displaying critical thinking in EFL academic writing: A discussion of Japanese to English contrastive rhetoric. *RELC Journal*, 44(2), 195 –208. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688213488386>
- Modhish, A. S. (2012). Use of discourse markers in the composition writings of Arab EFL learners. *English Language Teaching*, 5(5), 56-61. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n5p56>
- Muhyidin, A. (2020). Does the writing exposition text ability correlate to reading habit and discourse markers mastery? *Journal for the Education of Gifted Young Scientists*, 8(June), 885–895. <https://doi.org/10.17478/jegys.682065>
- Norrish, J. (1983). *Language learners and their errors*. London: The Macmillan Press.
- Ostman, J. (1982a). Pragmatic Particles in an Applied Perspective. In *Neuphilologische Mitteilungen* (Paper presented at the Modern Language Society Symposium in Tvarminne).
- Pazhakh, A. R., &Karimi, M. (2015). The effect of explicit teaching of discourse markers on Iranian EFL learners' pragmatic fluency. *Research and Analysis Journals*, 1(1), 273-291.

- Rahimi, M. (2011). Discourse markers in argumentative and expository writing of Iranian EFL learners. *World Journal of English Language*, 1(2). 68-78. doi: <http://10.5430/wjel.v1n2p68>.
- Redeker, G. (1991). Linguistic Markers of Discourse Structure. *Linguistics*, 29(6), 1139-1172.
- Ruiz-Garrido, M. (2009). Interview with Ulla Connor. *Culture, Language And Representation*, 7, 185-19.
Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/277070663_
- Sanford, S. (2012). *A comparison of metadiscourse markers and writing quality in adolescent written narratives* (Doctoral Dissertation). The University of Montana.
- Sapir, E. (1929). The Status of Linguistics as a Science. *Language*, 5(4), 207-214. doi:10.2307/409588
- Schiffrin, D. (1987). *Discourse Markers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Schourup, L. (1985). *Common Discourse Particles in English Conversation*. New York: Garland.
- Svartvik, J. (1980). Well in Conversation. In S. Green Baum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik (eds.), *Studies in English Linguistics for Randolph Quirk*, 167-77. London: Longman.
- Sudrajat, D. & Asih, Y. (2020). The use of discourses markers in a written text of president joko widodo's speech. *Jurnal Intelegensia*, 5(1), 13-25.
- Syahdanis (2020) An Analysis of Discourse Markers Used By Students in Writing Argumentative Text. *International Conference on The Teaching of English and Literature*, 1 (1), 157-164
- Swan, M. (2005). *Practical English usage*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tannen, D., Hamilton, H., & Schiffrin, D. (2015). *The handbook of discourse analysis* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell Publishing.

- Thornbury, S. (1997). *About Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tiryaki, E.N. (2017). Identification of justification types and discourse markers in Turkish language teacher candidates' argumentative texts. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 5(2), 63-70. doi:10.11114/jets.v5i2.2033
- Watts, R. J. (1988). A relevance-theoretic approach to commentary pragmatic markers: The case of “actually”, ‘really” and “basically”. *Acta Linguistica Hungarica*, 38, 235-260.
- Werner, V. (2017) Adversative pragmatic markers in learner language: A cross-sectional perspective. *Corpus Pragmatics* 1(2) 135–158.
- Witte, S. P. & Faigley, L. (1981). Coherence, cohesion, and writing quality. *College Composition and Communication*, 32(2), 189-204
- Yunus, M., & Haris, S. (2014). The use of discourse markers among form four SLL students in essay writing. *International Education Studies*, 7(2). doi: <http://10.5539/ies.v7n2p54>.
- Zwicky, Arnold M. (1985). Clitics and Particles. *Language* 61, 283-305.

LIST OF TABLES

<i>Table</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Page</i>
2.2	Discourse markers: other labels they have received	19
2.5	Categories of DMs	34
2.6	Fraser's numbering	38
2.6	Fraser's categories	41
2.7	General Possibilities of DM Sequences	47
3.4	The characteristics of the corpus	51
4.2	The numbers of DMs used by all the participants	53
4.2	Contrastive discourse markers used by all participants	56
4.2	Elaborative discourse markers used by all participants	57
4.2	Inferential discourse markers used by all participants	58
4.2	Temporal discourse markers used by all participants	58
4.2	Contrastive discourse markers used by all participants (per 1000 words)	59
4.2	Elaborative discourse markers used by all participants (per 1000 words)	60
4.2	Inferential discourse markers used by all participants (per 1000 words)	61
4.2	Temporal discourse markers used by all participants (per 1000 words)	61
4.2	Contrastive discourse markers used by male and female students	62

4.2	Inferential discourse markers used by male and female students	63
4.2	Elaborative discourse markers used by male and female students	64
4.2	Temporal discourse markers used by male and female students	65
4.2	The rate and the percentage of the DMs used by Iraqi B.A. students	66
4.2	The frequency DMs used by Iraqi B.A. students	67
4.2	The frequency DMs used by Iraqi B.A. students (per 1000 words)	68
4.3	Examples on the misuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi B.A. students	70
4.4	Examples of the overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students	72

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Page</i>
4.2	Percentage of the DMs used by Iraqi B.A. students	69
4.4	The overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students (first stage)	75
4.4	The overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students (second stage)	76
4.4	The overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students (Third stage)	77
4.4	The overuse of DMs in the writing of Iraqi students (All stages)	78

CURRICULUM VITAE

Sarmad Atella Hasan ALAHMED has a B.A. in English Language and Literature from Kirkuk University and his M.A. in English Language / Applied Linguistics from Karabuk University. He had attended several conferences on English Language and Literature. He published an academic article in the Eurasian Journal of English Language and Literature.

