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The Use of Discourse Markers in Oral and Written Discourse by EFL Learners at the University of Guelma

The Case of Third Year Students at the University of Guelma

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Letters and English Language in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of Master's Degree in Language and Culture

Submitted by: **Supervised by:**

Nor El-houda KABBOUZI   **Mrs. Fatima ABDAOUI**

Board of Examiners

Chair: Ms. Naziha BENKAMOUCHE   (MAA) University of 8 Mai 1945 Guelma

Supervisor: Mrs. Fatima ABDAOUI   (MAA) University of 8 Mai 1945 Guelma

Examiner: Mrs. Sabrina LASSOUED   (MAB) University of 8 Mai 1945 Guelma

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DEDICATION

In the name of "Allah", most gracious, most merciful

I have the honor to dedicate my work to my beloved parents, the dearest persons to my heart. Thank you for all your attention, continual care, and for your endless support, and above all your love.

I also dedicate my work to my family, my sisters Mayssa and Sendess, my brother Ayoub, and to all my dearest friends Ahlam, Feyrouz, Dalila, and Hassna who have shared their words of advice and encouragement to finish this study.

The last but not the least, I dedicate this thesis to the best person I ever had, Ghani Chouakria for being there for me all the time. Thanks for being the person who always stands beside me. You have been my best cheerleader.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the use of Discourse Markers (DMs) in the oral and written discourses of third year EFL learners at the University of 8 Mai 1945, Guelma, Algeria. To carry out this research, a descriptive method is followed to analyze the written compositions and the oral presentations of the participants. Data are gathered through collecting 26 essays and observing the participants' oral presentations, then, analyzed according to Fraser's taxonomy (1999) of discourse markers. The study found that students extensively overuse the elaborative discourse markers over the other markers (contrastive, inferential, and topic change markers) in both oral and written discourses. It is also revealed that students do not fully master the appropriate usage of discourse markers. They extensively misuse them in the pattern of overuse. Moreover, students show a tendency to overuse discourse markers and misuse them in the oral discourse more than in the written one. On the basis of these results, this inquiry proposes some recommendations and suggestions for students to aid them master the appropriate use of discourse markers to realize a cohesive and coherent oral and written discourse.

Key terms: Discourse markers, Written discourse, Oral discourse, EFL learners, Coherence, Cohesion.

LIST OF ABREVIATIONS

DMs: Discourse Markers

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

CBA: Coherence-based Approach

ROA: Relevance-oriented Approach

NEE: Non-Equivalent Exchange

O: Overuse

SL: Surface Logicality

WR: Wrong Relation

SI: Semantic Incompletion

D: Distraction

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ARABIC ABSTRACT (ملخص)

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

The English language becomes the language of communication in an intercultural world. Speakers of English tend to use the language to achieve many goals such as transmitting ideas and beliefs. Similarly, learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) use the language to create effective discourse which in general is the use of spoken and written language by human beings to communicate, and share ideas. Thus any oral or written discourse needs to be unified and connected. That is, it has to be cohesive and coherent. In fact, cohesion and coherence of a discourse can be established through the appropriate employment of cohesive devices.

Among the most commonly used cohesive devices are words like however, although, therefore, and, but etc… They are ultimately linking words that can occur at the beginning, the middle, and the end of conversations. These words fall under different labels such as *discourse markers, connectors, sentence connectors,* or *pragmatic markers.* Therefore, the current work would refer to those words as discourse markers (DMs). DMs play a major role in the management, connection, and organization of what we say or write, they also accomplish the flow and the structure of the discourse. DMs contribute to achieve the different relationships existing among utterances. Thus, these relationships are tools that enable the listener to interpret the appropriate meaning conveyed by the speaker.

There are four classes of DMs that can reflect different relationships regarding their use. The first class involves DMs that exhibit a contrast of a previous statement. In other words, these markers show a contrastive relationship between the current statement and the preceding one (e.g. but, contrary to, despite this/that, however, in spite of, whereas…). These markers fall under the name of contrastive DMs. The second class of DMs labeled as elaborative markers. In this case they signal a reiteration and refinement of the preceding statement or an addition to that statement (e.g. above all, also, and, yet, correspondingly, i

mean, likewise, moreover…). A third class includes (so, therefore, thus, as a result, because of this/that, hence, consequently, in any case…) these DMs label as inferential markers. They present that: the second statement is to be taken as a conclusion to the first statement. Finally, The topic change markers include (back to my original point, before I forget, by the way, just to update you, on a different note, that reminds me, to return to my point…). These markers signal a remove from the existing topic to another or reintroduction of previous topic of the discourse. The fulfillment of these introduced relationships result a cohesive and coherent discourse.

Indeed, without DMs in a speech or in a piece of writing, a discourse would not appear well structured and the flow of ideas would not be efficient. Besides, the lack of DMs in an EFL discourse or their inappropriate use could hinder the transmission of messages from being understood.

1. Statement of the Problem

Using discourse markers appropriately is a challenge for EFL learners at the university. Third year students at the University of Guelma usually have a poor command over the use of DMs in their speeches and writings. Some of them may overuse these items, others may underuse them. Thus, most of the students fail to write and speak cohesively and coherently due to the lack of understanding how to use discourse markers correctly. In fact, the inappropriateness of a DM may lead to the fragmentation of what students say and write. In addition, many students and due to the misuse of DMs may fail in transmitting their ideas and thoughts.

2. The Aim of the Study and Research Questions

Since the use of DMs is problematic for many EFL learners at the university, this study focuses on investigating the use of these markers, particularly, contrastive, elaborative, inferential, and topic change DMs in both oral and written discourse of EFL learners at the

University of Guelma. The research attempts to unveil the extent to which the participants use DMs in their oral and written discourse. It investigates the frequency of the use of DMs in oral discourse in comparison to the written discourse. Further, it explores the major problems that learners may face when using the cohesive devices under study. The findings of this study would mostly contribute to answer the following questions:

1. What are the most frequently DMs used by EFL learners in their oral discourse?

2. What are the most frequently DMs used by EFL learners in their written discourse?

3. What are the problematic DMs for EFL learners in their oral discourse and written discourse?

3. Methodology

3.1 The Participants

The sample of the present investigation is composed of one group from third year students at the department of Letters and English language at the University of Guelma 8 Mai 1945. This group consists of twenty-six (26) students, a mixture of male and female young students studying EFL. They are normally familiar with discourse markers and their use in the discourse due to the previously taken courses of oral and written expressions.

3.2 Tools of Data Collection

Two research instruments are used to collect data: Collection of English essays written by the previously mentioned sample in the sessions of the written expression course. The essays are written during regular classroom sessions with the attendance of their instructor. Further, an observation of the subjects is the second instrument of data collection in this study. The participants are observed during the literature sessions, and their speech and interaction are analyzed.

3.3 Data Analysis

To fulfill the research objectives, a descriptive study takes place in order to investigate the DMs that are used by the third-year EFL learners at the University of Guelma. The data analysis proceeds in the following way: Analyzing the essays and the students' speech by checking the existence of any DMs, classifying each marker to the appropriate category following Fraser's (1999) taxonomy. Furthermore, counting the DMs that are frequently used in the essays and speeches, and examining the misuse of those markers in order to understand which difficulties third year EFL students face when using DMs.

4. The Structure of the Dissertation

The dissertation is divided into two major parts. The first part consists of two chapters which represent the theoretical background of the two research variables. The second part is the field of investigation. The first chapter describes the notion of discourse by providing some basic definitions. Then, it tackles cohesion and coherence as two major concepts of discourse. Moreover, this chapter examines cohesive devices and clarifies how these devices contribute to achieve discourse cohesion and coherence. Then, it clarifies how these two concepts are interrelated to each other. In addition, this chapter provides varied definitions of classroom discourse, followed by the speaking and the writing discourse.

The second chapter is devoted to discourse markers in terms of definitions, terminology, multifunctionality, and grammaticalization of discourse markers. Moreover, this chapter contains discourse markers' functions, characteristics, classifications, and approaches. Further, it presents a reviewing of literature about the use of discourse markers in both the oral and the written discourse, pursuing this by stating the major problems of using these markers.

The second part of the dissertation entirely examines the practical side of investigation and how data, both the students' written essays and oral presentations, are gathered and analyzed. It provides data analysis and discussion of findings. Lastly, it presents a comparison between the results of the analysis of the written essays and the oral presentations, followed by some pedagogical implications and conclusion.

CHAPTER ONE

Theoretical Perspective of Discourse

Introduction

Over the years, the notion of discourse in linguistics has become more and more important. Therefore, this chapter explains what discourse is in detail including the multiple views and perspectives about it. It sheds light on the discourse coherence and cohesion with more focus on the way these two concepts are achieved in a particular discourse. Afterwards, cohesive devices, basically, grammatical cohesive ties which are reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction; and lexical cohesive ties are described. This chapter also introduces the implication of these cohesive devices in discourse, and how they contribute to achieve cohesion. Moreover, it clarifies the link between coherence and cohesion, and how these two notions are interrelated with each other. Finally, it tackles classroom discourse as it is the type of discourse investigated in this dissertation.

1.1. Definition of Discourse

Discourse is the use of language in a particular context to communicate and convey different messages. According to Van Dijk (1997) discourse is the use of language in order to transmit and communicate ideas, beliefs, or emotions such as classroom lessons. For Cameron (2001) the term represents how language and communication operate to constitute a form of language attached by a certain characteristics.

Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) agreed that discourse is concerned with the analysis of language beyond the level of the sentence. They also clarify that coherence and cohesion are two types of internal arrangement that exist in discourse. Coulthard and Sinclair (1975) point out that the elements exist beyond the level of the sentence are similar to those of a sentence (e.g. subject, verb, object, or complement). In short, similar structures exist within the sentence level as well beyond the sentence boundaries. Similarly, Crystal (1980) defines

discourse as a continuous stretch of language above the level of the sentence which results in the coherence and unity of the whole language.

Schiffrin (1994) (as cited in Piurko, 2015) claims that discourse means both the form and the function of the language. She points out that there are two approaches for defining what discourse is: the formalism and the functionalism. The formalist or structuralist approach, as Schiffrin states, gives interest to the language structure i.e. how language is constructed and how it is formed. While the functionalist approach emphasizes the language functions and their role in particular circumstances.

For Henry and Tator (2002), the term discourse is the use of language in social context in order to transmit different meanings. They claim that the language used in discourse is identified by the social conditions where it occurs, as well by the persons who use it. In other words, discourse according to them is attached to the context where it is produced; i.e. it does not occur in an empty sphere. Hinkel and Fotos (2002) add that discourse in context may be composed just of one or two words, as well hundreds of thousands of words. That is to say, if just one word occurs in a particular context (e.g. classroom), it will be considered a discourse.

Mills (1997, p. 4) argues that discourse according to many researchers is defined by its contrast to many items such as "text". The term text refers to the written or the spoken message while the term discourse is used to represent the whole process of communication. Mills differentiates between the two items "discourse" and "text" by stating that in several cases the text may represent the written language, while discourse represents the oral one. Text can be short or long, whereas discourse displays a specific length. Text holds a surface structure i.e. cohesion, while discourse holds a deep coherence.

Parker (1992) contrasts Mills' view, he claims that discourse is a structured combination of significative texts i.e. text is a part from the discourse procedure. For him,

discourse is the speaker/the writer's production, while text processes hints for the interpretation process. For other linguists, the two terms are used interchangeably. Halliday and Hasan (1976) for example argue that "the word TEXT is used in linguistics to refer to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole" (1). It is worth mentioning that the two terms "text" and "discourse" are used interchangeably in this study.

Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) suggest seven standards, attached to discourse, which are cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, situationality, informativity, and intertextuality. Cohesion and coherence, which are part of the focus of this study, for Beaugrande and Dressler these two concepts are linked to each other. They argue that cohesion is the grammatical link between the elements of discourse, while coherence is the unity of the discourse that is resulted from cohesive ties i.e. cohesion contributes to the achievement of a coherent discourse.

1.2. Cohesion

A crucial concept attached to this study is that discourse is cohesive. Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that cohesion is the semantic link that exists within parts of a discourse. This semantic link results from the lexicogrammatical system which is the result of the appropriate chosen of words and grammatical structures. Cohesion "occurs where the INTERPRETATION of some elements in the discourse is dependent on that of another" (4). The first element or utterance is presuming beforehand the next, and by this a "cohesive tie" is created. For them, presumptions function as instructions to facilitate the understanding of the relations in meaning that exist between the different parts of the text. In other words, it helps the reader or the hearer to retrieve information that exists in somewhere else in the text.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that the cohesive relations that exist across the sentence level may also exist "within a sentence as between sentences" (8). They clarify that within a sentence these cohesive links are less recognized because of the grammatical structure that exists there which results cohesion. For them the sentence is a considerable unit for cohesion. So, from this it can be said that cohesion is the variety of semantic resources that links a sentence with what precedes it.

Halliday and Hasan see text as a "semantic unit" (293). They characterize the text as opposed to separated sentences; i.e. text is completely unified. They identify cohesion as one of the textual components, and as part of the semantic system. Halliday (1977) explains that the semantic system alongside the lexicogrammatical and phonological systems are the three planes that shape the linguistic system.

Cohesion as a component of texture plays a decisive role in the production of text, causing continuation among the sequential parts of a discourse. However, Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 299) stress that the continuity alone does not mean the full texture. The organization of every segment of a discourse is also processed to achieve texture. This organization is realized through the two structural relations that exist within the sentence i.e. the information structure and thematic structure.

 All in all, different researchers define almost the same concerning what is cohesion. Cohesion means the well-formedness of discourse sentences. Therefore, achieving cohesion is based on the relatedness of the different parts of discourse in which the interpretation of one sentence or utterance is dependent on another. Cohesion, however, is created through the use of cohesive devices where they function as connectors among sentences.

1.3. Cohesive Devices

Cohesive devices are means of cohesion, they are typically words and phrases that connect and hold different parts of the discourse together. Halliday and Hasan (1976) set five cohesive devices where they fall under two main categories, grammatical and lexical devices. However, "each of these categories is presented in the text by particular features … which have in common the property of signaling that the interpretation of the passage in question depends on something else" (13). The grammatical cohesive ties are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

1.3.1. Grammatical Cohesive Devices

1.3.1.1. Reference

Halliday (1977, p. 188) stresses that reference occurs when certain words are used as indicative to point to something else. These words implicate pronouns, demonstratives, and comparatives. Pronouns are the major resources for writers or speakers to use in referring. Al.Kohlani (2010, p. 20) gives the following example, the items "she, this, earlier as in she's shy. This is what I meant. You should come earlier".

Halliday and Hasan (1976) point that reference makes the interpretation of the concerned utterance depends on that of another. That is to say, one word (e.g. pronouns or demonstratives) may refer to previous or following statement or concept and unveil the appropriate interpretation of that statement. They (1976, p. 43) illustrate their view by giving the following example: *It's an old box camera. - I never had one of that kind.* Halliday and Hasan in this example use the term "one" in the second sentence referring to the word "camera" in the first sentence. Thus, the understanding of the second sentence depends on that of the first one.

Reference, therefore, can be classified into two sub-groups: the exophoric and the endophoric relations. The exophoric relation happens when the referent of an item takes place outside the text. Thus, this last contributes nothing to the cohesion of a discourse. However, the endophoric relation happens when the interpretation is inside the text. Thus, it creates cohesive link among text's parts. The endophoric relation is also classified into two sub-groups, the anaphoric and the cataphoric relations. The reference is anaphoric when it points to a preceding statement. However, it is cataphoric when it points to a following statement, (Iseni, Almasaeid, & Bani Younes, 2013). They (2013, p. 38) illustrate the anaphoric and the cataphoric relations by stating the following:

A*: Look at those people.*

B: **They** *might be English*

C: *After* **he** *had graduated from the medical college,* **Ahmad** *worked in a hospital.*

In example B the pronoun "they" refers to the preceding word "people" in example A. This reference represents anaphoric relation between these two statements where it is unnecessary to mention the word "people" again. In example C the pronoun "he" refers to the following term "Ahmad" in which this reference demonstrates the cataphoric relation that exists between them.

1.3.1.2. Substitution

Substitution is the act of replacing one item by another. Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that substituting is a matter of words among the text not a matter of meaning, this implies that the substituted item has the same structural function as that which replaces. Halliday and Hasan point out that substitution is used to avoid repetition of a certain item. There are a set of items which the speaker or the writer can use for substituting clausal,

nominal, and verbal groups. "So" for substituting clauses, "one" for substituting nominal groups, and "do" for substituting verbs. Al Kohlani (2010, p. 20) illustrates substitution as in the following examples: *The fish is cooked beautifully. Thank you for saying so*. *So* here substitutes the preceding clause in order to avoid repetition. Verbal groups can be substituted like: *did Jane know? No, but Marry did*. Noun phrase can be substituted by *one* as in *borrow my copy. The library one is out on loan*.

1.3.1.3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is almost attached to substitution. Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 142) describe it as substitution by zero. In other words, it is the possibility to omit some parts of utterances without substituting them. Halliday (2004) explains this idea by indicating that if an earlier sentence can make the concept obvious, so ellipsis can take place. Halliday and Hasan (1976, p.143) illustrate ellipsis by the following: *Would you like to hear another verse? I know twelve more.* Here the word "verse" is omitted in the second part of the utterance to avoid repetition. Hence, it is understood that the concerned meaning backs for the word "verse", so it is unnecessary to mention it again.

1.3.1.4. Conjunction

Conjunction is the main focus of the present study. Expressions such as "but, however, because, so, nevertheless, rather, although, though, and" take part in the production of cohesive texts, they involve to link sentences meaningfully. Halliday and Hasan (1976) point out that conjunction is cohesive because in a discourse it transmits a specific meaning which assumes beforehand the existence of other components.

According to Halliday (2004, p. 540) conjunctions may contribute to achieve functional relations among the discourse segments. A specific segment is expanded or is enhanced by the following segment in a text. However, Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 320)

explain the "conjunctive relations" on the basis that coordinated and organized relationships exist between sentences. They classify these conjunctions based on the semantic relations they mark in a particular discourse. Four categories are stated: causal, temporal, additive, and adversative relations.

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 321) illustrate these categories of conjunction starting with using the conjunction "and" which results in an additive relation (e.g. t*hey gave him food and clothing. **And** they looked after him till he was better).* They use the conjunction "yet" to express adversative relation (e.g. *they looked after him well. **Yet** he got no better).* Halliday and Hasan also illustrate the causal relation that the conjunction "so" may express (e.g. *he drove into the harbor one night. **So** they took his licence away*). Moreover, they exemplify the temporal relation by using the conjunction "then" (e.g. *he stayed there for three years. **Then**, he went on to New Zealand*)

1.3.2. Lexical Cohesive Devices

The lexical devices are the tools used to ensure unity between sentences. Halliday (2004) points to these lexical ties as they are "independent of structure and may span along passages of intervening discourse" (537). These lexical ties however function to achieve lexical cohesion. This lexical cohesion as Halliday (2004) explains is achieved through the vocabulary selection. Thus, in order to achieve the lexical cohesion, the writer or the speaker can use several devices such as repetition, synonymy, and collocations.

Repetition as Iseni, Almasaeid, & Bani Younes (2013) describe is the most relevant way to achieve cohesion. It is the recurrence of the same item in one sentence or utterance for the purpose of achieving unity among the text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that it is unnecessary for the repeated item to be the same word. It may appear as any kind of

reiteration such as synonym. Thus, these two occurrences should have the same reference. They illustrate repetition by the following example:

*There was a large **mushroom** growing near her, about the same height as herself; and, when she had looked under it, it occurred to her that she might as well look and see what was on the top of it. She stretched herself up on tiptoe, and peeped over the edge of the **mushroom**.* (p. 278)

Further, synonymy plays a crucial role in achieving cohesion. Halliday and Hasan (1976) argue that choosing synonyms of preceding items result cohesion between parts of a discourse (e.g. *Accordingly, I took leave, and turned to **ascent** of the peak. The **climb** is perfectly easy)*. They explain that the climb here refers to the ascent in which is synonym. Iseni, Almasaeid, & Bani Younes (2013) state three types of synonymy: hyponymy, metonymy, and antonymy.

Hyponymy is described as "specific-general" relationship among two lexical words, it moves from general to specific (e.g. Amir uses *the transport* to go to school. He actually uses the *bus*). Metonymy as another type of synonymy is a "part-hole" relationship between two words. For example, the *pet animals* are a lot: *cats, dogs, rabbits…* etc. Antonymy as the last type of synonymy is the use of the opposite meaning of a preceding word. Moreover, Iseni, Almasaeid, & Bani Younes (2013) explain collocations as the combination of two or more than two words to create a new meaning. They illustrate this by the following example: "*He will **take into account** what the boss said*" (40).

Similar to Halliday and Hasan (1976), the current study is interested in cohesion which exists among units above the sentence level. Halliday and Hasan see that cohesive devices are the prominent tools for connecting sentences in discourse. Moreover, they argue that the semantic devices and conjunctions are considered as the predominant recourse for achieving

semantic relationships. This study however, deems these semantic relations as one from various functions that these items may perform. Thus, cohesion is an essential contributor to the achievement of coherence among the whole discourse.

1.4. Coherence

Another concept attached to this study is coherence. Coherence in linguistics is what resulted the semantic meaning of a certain text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) consider coherence as the bridge to attain the semantic well-formedness of sentences. Moreover, Crystal (1987) claims that in order to achieve coherence the text's concepts and relations must be relevant to one another. Similarly, Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) point out that coherence is a "continuation of senses" and a reciprocal relevancy between the text's ideas and relations.

Van Dijk (1977, p. 96) as well defines coherence as a semantic feature of discourse, where it is established upon the relatedness of the interpretations of both the individual sentence and the other sentences. He distinguishes two levels of discourse' coherence: linear coherence and global coherence. Linear coherence is "coherence relation holding between propositions expressed by composite sentence and sequences of those sentences" (95). In other words, linear coherence is the link between the sentence's sequences, while global coherence is the general coherence i.e. the recognition of a certain passage or discourse as a whole unity.

Other researchers argue that coherence occurs during the interaction between the reader and the text. It is the receiver's understanding and comprehension, and the reader's ability to interpret the appropriate meaning of discourse. This means that coherence is determined by the interlocutors' intentions. Givon (1995) states that "coherence is not an internal property of a written or spoken text, (but) a property of what emerges during speech

production and comprehension…the mentally represented text, and in particularly the mental processes that partake in constructing that mental representation" (vii).

Reinhart (1980) also defines coherence as the connectedness of discourse and context in terms of grammatical and semantic relations. According to him, coherence includes three elements which are connectedness, consistency, and relevance. Reinhart explains that connectedness means the grammatical and the semantic links between the different parts of a discourse. Consistency means that uniformity among propositions is declared by these sentences. There must be no opposition among them i.e. they express a certain extent of truthfulness. However, relevance is the necessity of linking the text to its context.

Based on what is mentioned before, many researchers argue that coherence is the fact that sentences in a particular text are interconnected to one another in semantic and grammar. Others see that coherence is the relation that results from the interaction and the interpretation processes of a text. However, others claim that coherence is the interrelatedness of the text and the context. The present study deals with coherence from Halliday and Hasan (1976) point of view. They see it as the result of linking sentences together where they form a semantic relation among the whole text. Coherence is always linked to cohesion. Thus, cohesion contributes to achieve coherence.

1.5. Coherence & Cohesion

Cohesion and coherence are two different concepts but they are interconnected in discourse. Cohesion is the existence of connecting indicators in the text, while, coherence is the essential relations that occurs among parts of the text. As Reinhart (1980) argue coherence is "a matter of semantic and pragmatic relations in the text" (164).

Halliday and Hasan (1976) deal with cohesion and coherence in their book *Cohesion in English.* Their study gives birth to different questions about the relations that exist between

cohesive devices and coherence. Brown and Yule (1983) point out that cohesion in a given text does not necessary exist to achieve text's coherence. They argue that a reader or a listener will understand the structure of the text as being formed by different sentences, and he will interpret these sentences the same even when cohesive ties are absent in the text. In another words, Brown and Yule believe that it is possible for a discourse to be coherent without cohesion.

Brown and Yule (1983) claim that coherent discourse is achieved through the reader/hearer realizations of the semantic relations. To put it differently, what makes a discourse coherent is the way the receiver perceives the semantic relations of the text. Wang and Guo (2014, p. 463) illustrate Brown and Yule's view by the following example: "*John bought a cake at the bakeshop. The birthday card was signed by all of the employees. The party went on until after midnight*". Even though there are no cohesive ties in these sentences but they are unified and coherent as a whole. The readers' previous knowledge allows them to construct coherence in the text through participating in the creation of the discourse meaning. They know that "the cake", "the card", and "the party" are words correspond to one situation i.e. birthday.

However, Halliday and Hasan (1976) see cohesion as the primary determinant of coherence. They claim that cohesive ties alone are not enough to produce coherence. In order to achieve text coherence different strategies attached to cohesion must be employed in a text with the respect of the register. Register for them is the successions of meaning with regards to the circumstances. The scholars believe that displaying consistency of register is a crucial factor for a text to be coherent. They explain that a text "is coherent with respect to the context of situation, and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive. Neither of these two conditions is sufficient without the other…" (23).

Morgan and Sellner (1980) also tackle the issue of cohesion as a factor to create coherence. However, for them coherence is the linguistic outcomes which result from the text content. The coherence of a text, they argue, is not based on cohesive devices but it is based on the presumption of the reader/hearer that allows him/her to connect parts of the discourse. Thus, they consider cohesion as a result of coherent contents and not as a source of it because they see that there is no proof "for cohesion as a linguistic property, other than an epiphenomenon of coherence of content" (181).

Reinhart (1980) agrees with Halliday and Hasan's (1976) view concerning the fact that cohesive devices are important factors for coherence but alone are not enough. As it is mentioned before Reinhart argues, achieving text coherence is due to the existence of the three conditions of coherence which are connectedness, consistency, and relevance. For her, cohesive devices are secondary factors for coherence, while these three elements of formal, semantic, and pragmatic features are crucial for achieving text coherence. By this coherence and cohesion are combined to each other.

Based on previous researches on cohesion and coherence, there are multiple viewpoints about the relation that exists between coherence and cohesion and whether cohesion contributes to achieve coherence or not. On one hand, Brown and Yule (1983), and Morgan and Sellner (1980) see that cohesion and coherence are not interrelated to each other, and coherent texts are not the product of cohesive relations. They argue that coherence is a matter of backgrounds, imaginations, and inference of the reader or the hearer. On the other hand, Halliday and Hasan (1976) think that cohesion is an essential factor for coherence.

This study deals with the two concepts from Halliday and Hasan's viewpoint where it sees that cohesive devices are the primary sources for creating coherent texts. It considers that these devices are crucial for the underlying of the functional relations among the different

parts of text. Alongside with relevance to the situation, they function to identify a discourse as a coherent unit.

1.6. Classroom Discourse

Inside classrooms, Strobelberger (2010, p. 8) states that communication plays a crucial role, where the spoken language is considered as the tool by which education takes place. Furthermore, she considers the whole language as a crucial factor that must exist within all the participants. However, any formal communication occurs inside classroom commonly refers to as classroom discourse. Indeed, classroom discourse is a particular type of discourse that exists in classrooms. Behnam and Pouriran (2009) explain that the prominent features of classroom discourse may include: unequal power relationship, turn-taking at speaking, and pattern of interaction, among others.

Classroom discourse then is defined by Cazden and Beck (2003) as the speeches and talks that happen between the teacher and students inside the classroom. They specify that these conversations may contain both verbal and non-verbal interchanges. Similarly, Gonzalez (2008) defines it as the basis component for the process of learning. It comprises of teacher-student interactions and student-student interactions. Van de Wall, Karp, and Lovin (2014) further describe classroom discourse as "the interactions between all the participants that occur throughout the lesson" (20).

All in all, it can be notice that different researchers agree that classroom discourse is one type of discourse. It is defined as the interactions that may happen between the different members among classroom. However, the spoken and the written discourses are seen as the medium between the teacher and the learners to fulfill communication and interaction. Thus, the spoken and the written discourses are the main focus in this study.

6.1. Spoken Discourse and Written Discourse

Discourse is the term that can be used to clarify the transference of information, ideas, and concepts from one person to another. It requires the use of words and sentences in a particular context for the aim of conveying the appropriate meaning. Discourse can occur either orally i.e. spoken discourse or in written form i.e. written discourse. Different researchers such as Cornish (2006), Paltridge (2006), and Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) tackle the issue of written and spoken discourse. Generally, they claim that written and spoken discourse is the communication or the transmission of information. The former is using written words while the latter is using verbal words and signs.

Cornish (2006) defines spoken discourse by stating that it "is the ongoing, situated interpretation of speaker's intentions, of which the addressee's expected and actual reactions are an integral part" (1). This means that spoken discourse involves the recognition of the actions and the reactions of the speaker and the listener as well as the interpretation process of the speaker's intentions. Moreover, Cornish claims that spoken discourse may involve face-to-face interaction between the participants who take part in the same context. These participants, however, share the same background knowledge which helps in understanding and interpreting the speech.

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) introduce one feature of spoken discourse. The listener-response-behavior is considered as a distinctive characteristic of oral discourse. It is also known as backchannel. Sinclair and Coulthard define it as the short oral responses that the receiver says while the speaker is talking. They are words such as "ok", "yeah", "oh", etc. these words help the interlocutors to change the topic, continue the speech, and oppose each other, among other functions. These markers can function only at the discourse level and not at the sentence level.

On the other hand, the written discourse is the printed form of language. Cornish (2006) argue that there is no common setting and background knowledge between the writer and the hearer. Because of this, the written discourse needs to be explicit for the reader i.e. the writer needs to encode all the meaning of the text in order to be interpreted appropriately. In addition, the writer needs to build the discourse as being formal and coherent.

Paltridge (2006) discusses seven important differences between spoken and written discourse. They are grammatical intricacy, lexical density, nominalization, explicitness, contextualization, spontaneity and repetition, hesitation and redundancy. Halliday (2008) explains that grammatical intricacy refers to the connection of simple clauses in a complex clause. In other words, it looks at the complexity of the clauses in a given text compared with simple ones.

Paltridge (2006) states that the written discourse is structurally more complex and elaborated than the oral discourse. In contrast, Halliday (1989) states that the oral discourse is also highly structured like the written one. Moreover, he points out that the spoken discourse is complex in its own way. He further clarifies that clauses in the speech are more widespread and the relation between them is highly complex more than writing. In other words, oral discourse contains a lot of clauses that are long, complex, and spread out.

For lexical density, Halliday (1989) explains that the written discourse is more lexically dense than spoken discourse. Lexical density is the proportion of content words, which are nouns and verbs, to the grammatical words within a clause, which are prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, and articles (e.g. the, has, to, and, on…). Halliday clarifies that the lexical words or content words in the spoken discourse spread over many clauses, while in the written discourse these content words highly exist in individual clauses. This lexical density is

considered as a distinctive feature where it differentiates the spoken discourse from the written one.

Another distinctive feature distinguishes the oral discourse from the written discourse which is nominalization. Jusnic (2012) defines the word as "a type of grammatical metaphor whereby processes, which are congruently realized by verbs, are metaphorically realized by nouns explains the same process as those verbs" (251). Nominalization applies to the convertibility of verbs and adjectives into nouns, so that the verb occurs to indicate a notion rather than an action. Similarly, Sarani and Talati-Baghsiahi (2015) clarify that nominalization is the procedure where verbs and adjectives are transformed into nouns.

Moreover, Halliday (1989) believes that nominalization is the occurrence of actions and events as nouns rather than as verbs. He further refers to this phenomenon as the grammatical metaphor. Halliday argues that the written discourse tends to express a high level of nominalization than the spoken discourse. In other words, the written language tends to present actions and events as nouns not as verbs. Written discourse as well contains long noun groups more than in speeches. As a consequence, the written discourse appears more abstract and more formal than the spoken one.

Explicitness is considered as another feature which makes the distinction between oral and written discourses. Baumgarten, Meyer, & Ozcetin (2008) argue that the term explicitness refers to the obvious encrypting of messages. Explicitness takes place when the message is encoded linguistically unlike the concepts which can be comprehended without any direct reference to it by words or any linguistic tools.

Paltridge (2006) states the common held view about explicitness in written and oral language. Indeed, it is well known that writing is more explicit than speech because in the written discourse there is an absence in gestures and body language. However, Paltridge

argues that this view is relative because explicitness relies on the aim of the text. He further claims that both the writer/speaker can represent information explicitly or deduce it, and all of this is dependent on the writer/speaker if he wants to be direct or not and the message that he wants to grasp from the listener and reader.

Contextualization as another difference between the spoken and the written discourse is defined as the process of utilizing and accomplishing the context, Edmondson (1999) states. In other words, when speaker or writer speaks or writes he attaches to the context in order to facilitate understanding for the receiver. Paltridge (2006) presents a commonly held view about contextualization in both oral and written language. He notes that this view indicates that "writing is more decontextualized than speech" (17). Decontextualization here means the language is detached from context.

Moreover, Paltridge explains this view by stating that speech can be understood when the speaker relies on previous backgrounds and shared situations between him and the listener, whereas in writing there is no need for the intervention of context. Contrasting this view Paltridge (2006) argues that this dependency on context happens just in conversations and not in speeches and writings. He illustrates his point by stating that academic lectures as an example do not attach to context while the written ones like personal letters highly depend on previous backgrounds and shared situations.

Spontaneity as another feature that distinguishes oral discourse from written discourse is the output of unmonitored and inaccessible mental processes, Giblin, Morewedge, and Norton (2014) state. A common held view is mentioned by Paltridge (2006), which states that speaking is lacking organization and grammatical laws while writing is organized and grammatical. Paltridge (2006, p. 17-18) notes that spontaneity according to that view is that

Spoken discourse contains more fragmented and reformulated sentences than written because it is spontaneous.

Paltridge (2006) further clarifies the spontaneity of speech when he explains that within a spoken discourse subjects can be changed while speaking. As well interlocutors can interrupt and overlap with each other. Speakers can exchange ideas, questions and clarifications for ambiguous concepts because it happens at real time. All these characteristics that attached to spoken discourse make it more spontaneous than written discourse.

Finally, the trilogy of repetition, hesitation and redundancy as well is considered as a decisive feature that tends to distinguish oral from written discourse. Stevens and Jobe (2009) see repetition as a useful mean to emphasize and add strength on the writer's output. Stevens and Jobe as well argue that redundancy can happen when the repetition of a term or a concept is useless i.e. it does not add any meaning to the previous application. In other words, redundancy is the use of repetition just to say again what is already said without any usefulness. However, hesitation is the pauses and the silence that occurs in the spontaneous speech, Howard and Osgood (1995) argue.

Paltridge (2006) argues that spoken discourse uses repetition, redundancy and hesitation more than written discourse. This happens because it occurs at actual time where the speaker is speaking and thinking about what he is going to say in the same time. He also states that the usage of pauses such as "hhh", "er" and "you know" is a characteristic attached to the spoken discourse. Speakers use these pauses in order to gain much more time to think about what is next while they are speaking.

All in all, spoken and written discourses are the two forms of discourse that can be considered as the medium between the interlocutors. In one side the oral discourse, which is the usage of verbal words to communicate and transmit information. Different researchers see

that the spoken discourse is not just saying some words, however it involves the interpretation process of messages as well the understanding of the actions and the reactions that take place between the speaker and the hearer.

On the other side, there is the written discourse, which is the printed form of language i.e. the usage of the written words and signs to express ideas and concepts. Furthermore, researchers like Paltridge (2006) distinguish seven differences between the written and spoken discourse which are grammatical intricacy, lexical density, nominalization, explicitness, spontaneity, and repetition, hesitation, and redundancy.

Paltridge argues that the written discourse is more structurally complex than oral discourse. Also, it is high lexically dense and it expresses high level of nominalization than spoken discourse. Moreover, writing is more explicit than spoken discourse. However, he sees that the spoken discourse is more contextualized and spontaneous as well contains more repetition, hesitation, and redundancy than the written discourse.

Conclusion

Generally, discourse is the instruments that help in communicating and exchanging different concepts and messages. Many scholars focus on discourse in terms of language structure. Others see that discourse is the language form and function. While, many others focus on discourse as being attached to context in which they claim that discourse alone cannot be understood and interpreted effectively. Various characteristics are attached to discourse in this study. Moreover, this chapter explains cohesion and coherence as two main concepts which are attached to discourse. Cohesion is seen as the connection that happens within utterances of a discourse in a way that these utterances are interdepended on each other. However, coherence is defined by different researchers as the continuation of senses.

Moreover, the cohesive devices that are mentioned in this study are the means to achieve cohesion. These cohesive devices are words and phrases that contribute to connect and link different parts of the discourse together which are: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunctions, and lexical devices. In addition, this chapter introduces classroom as a one genre of discourse. Inside classroom, people communicate and exchange ideas using spoken and written discourse. The spoken discourse is the linguistic output of words and signs, whereas written discourse is the printed versions of language. Moreover, various differences, between the oral and the written discourse are tackled in this chapter. It is argued that speech is contextualized and spontaneous more than writing and writing is structurally complex, lexically dense, and nominalize more than speech.

CHAPTER TWO

Theoretical Perspectives of Discourse Markers

Introduction

Over years, a wide range of discourse markers' studies have been conducted. In fact, DMs are viewed as tools to achieve cohesive and coherent texts and assist to have interpretable and comprehensible discourse. Thus, DMs are considered as crucial elements for learners to maintain the interconnectedness of their thoughts and ideas. This chapter introduces discourse markers including the multiple views and perspectives about them. It sheds light on DMs' definitions, meaning, and functions.

Afterwards, the theory of multifunctionality is presented followed by the theory of grammaticalization to identify the source and the nature of DMs and clarify how these markers are derived through grammaticalization from independent lexical items to serve grammatical functions. Moreover, this chapter highlights a set of features attached to DMs which are Multi-categorality, connectivity, non-truth conditionality, weak-clause associations, orality, initiality, and optionality. This chapter also comprises varied scholars classifications of DMs. Also, two approaches of DMs are adapted to explain the different perspectives of these items. Finally, this chapter introduces various DMs' studies on the oral and the written discourse and the major problems EFL learners may face.

2.1. Definition of Discourse Markers

Discourse markers are linguistic devices that serve to connect together pieces of language or expressions. Schiffrin (1987, p. 31) defines these markers as "sequentially dependent elements that bracket units of talk". Discourse marker is, then, a contextual coordinator for combining components of talk, and ensuring a relationship between the interlocutors. Schiffrin explains DMs as part of functional class of verbal and non-verbal devices. In other words, these items are members of conjunctions (e.g. and, but, or), interjections (e.g. oh, uh, um, huh), adverbs (e.g. now, then), and lexicalized phrases (e.g. you

know, I mean). She also considers the non-verbal gestures and body language as being discourse markers.

According to Fraser (1999) DMs are "a class of lexical expressions drew primarily from syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositional phrases" (931). Fraser considers these markers as linguistic items that signal relationships between two segments of a discourse i.e. make a link between the current discourse utterance and the prior utterance. Fraser clarifies that it is not necessary for DMs to initiate the sentence, thus, they may occur at the middle or the end of the sentence. Similarly, Swan (2005) claims that DMs are words which connect and link between the current utterance and the previous or the following utterances. Swan describes DMs as indicators for the listener or the reader to know what the speaker's next utterance is.

Blackemore (2002) also considers DMs as devices to mark relationships between two utterances, as they help the reader or the hearer to capture the appropriate interpretation of the written/oral messages. However, Carter and McCarthy (2006) see discourse markers as a lexical category which connects together parts of a discourse and helps to organize and manage the speech. Carter and McCarthy also consider DMs as a tool to indicate how formal the discourse is, and to unveil the attitudes of peoples toward the interaction.

Discourse markers are defined also "as intra-sequential and supra-sentential linguistic units which evolve process of the conversation, index the relation of an utterance to the preceding context, and indicate an interactive relationship between a speaker, hearer, and messages" (Fung & Carter., 2007, p. 410). They see that discourse markers are helpful tools to maintain the continuation of a conversation, identify the relation of sentences. As well they signal the relevance between the speaker, the hearer, and the message. In the current study, the focus is on DMs as indicators for utterances' relationships within a discourse.

2.1.1. Terminology

At the level of terminology, different studies are done under various labels. Ostman (1995) labels them "pragmatic particles" because it is the best term for him that can identify the core and the flexibility of these items. Ostman explains that since this group is functional i.e. hold a pragmatic meaning, so it is suitable to attribute the word pragmatic with these particles in order to determine these markers' status. However, Fraser (1999) and Blackmore (2002) use the term "discourse markers". Blackmore (2002) considers these items as words with non-propositional meaning. He emphasizes the fact that these markers' main role is to indicate and mark different relations, so the term DMs is crucial in identifying these items.

 Other names are used such as cue phrases, sentence connectives, utterance particles, discourse particles, pragmatic expressions, and discourse operators. Al Kohlani (2010) argues that the term "cue phrases" is more useful because each of these markers signal the changes that may happen at the level of discourse structure.

In fact, the different labels of discourse markers among researchers are determined by the way scholars identify these items, how they characterize their features, and their functions in a particular context. However, this variation is not only in the matter of labeling or defining these markers, researchers also differ in determining the type of meaning that these items normally manifest at the discourse level.

2.1.2. Meaning of Discourse Markers

The notion of meaning in discourse markers is considered as a main factor in determining what a discourse marker is and what is not. Many researchers argue that an item is included in a discourse markers' group when it has no meaning. Hansen (1997) points out discourse markers have no semantic meaning "but are basically instructions on how to process their host utterance in a given context" (162). In other words, any item that has a "conceptual

meaning" is eliminated from being a discourse marker, and the members of this group should manifest a pragmatic meaning. Fraser (1990) explains that researchers should put in mind when dealing with these items that they have a pragmatic meaning, and any dependence on core meaning causes failure.

However, Al Kohlani (2010) explains that describing an item as having a conceptual meaning means that it conveys concept related to its semantic value. Conceptual markers such as: frankly, amazingly, and in other words are considered conceptual because they carry a semantic content. This type of meaning is also referred to it as: lexical meaning, propositional meaning, content meaning, referential meaning, and non-pragmatic meaning. On the other hand, the pragmatic type of meaning can be referred to as: expressive meaning, indicative meaning, procedural meaning, non-propositional meaning, non-conceptual meaning, and functional meaning. In fact, when we talk about this type of meaning, we refer to the discourse markers' function in a discourse and not their core meaning as words

Schourup (1999) explains that the procedural meaning of discourse markers may indicate knowledge for the reader on how to interpret the exact meaning of the sentences that host them. Fraser (1990, p. 393) clarifies more by giving the following example. He states that the pragmatic meaning of the item "so" signals that the current message represents a consequential relationship with the prior context.

Indeed, many researchers argue that there is no relationship between the two types of DMs' meaning i.e. pragmatic and conceptual meanings. Fraser (1999) asserts that "pragmatic meaning is separable from any content meaning of the homophonous form" (393). While others such as Anderson (2001) explain that the procedural meaning of a discourse marker arises from the content meaning of their original forms.

Fraser (1996) clarifies that discourse markers are items that convey pragmatic functions, and are not items that hold a content meaning. For example, he includes expressions such as "in other words", "as a result", "anyway", "by the same token", "for example", "on the other hand", "to return to my point", and "in the meantime" in his group of discourse markers. However, items like "frankly", "amazingly", "certainly", "in short", "first", "next", and "to add" are excluded from his list of DMs because they carry a core meaning.

In fact, many of these considered by Fraser as non-conceptual, are viewed as conceptual for other researchers. Blackmore (2001) for example, states that expressions like: "in other words", "that is", and "anyway" are regarded as conceptual markers. For Lenk (1998, p. 45) it is not enough for an item to be lexically empty in order to be regarded as non-conceptual discourse marker, but also there must be a noticeable distinction between the core meaning and the pragmatic meaning of that item. Al Kohlani (2010, p. 59) gives the examples of the expressions "on the other hand", and "to return to my point" in which they transmit a pragmatic "structuring function" rather than conceptual meaning. But for Lenk they are not regarded as discourse markers because their structuring functions harmonize with their lexical meanings.

Lenk (1998) clarifies the idea of DMs' structuring functions by stating that "the structuring functions of discourse markers do not correspond to a lexical meaning, but to a pragmatic meaning of these items" (45). Thus, according to Lenk the separation of the conceptual and the pragmatic meanings of an item are considered as one of the main features of discourse markers

Schiffrin (2001) discusses the contribution of the core meaning of DMs to their pragmatic function. Schiffrin (1987) argues that there are items hold content meanings which

can affect their function in particular discourse by contributing to the expressive meaning. Schiffrin gives the example of the conjunction "but" whose pragmatic function is attached to its meaning. Schiffrin argues that "but" holds a contrastive meaning and that's why it signals a contrast in a particular discourse.

Fraser (1990) in the other hand opposes Schiffrin's examination of DMs. For him, the analysis of these items should rely on the fact that DMs have a pragmatic function and not content meaning. For example, according to Fraser (1990) the item "so" serves to display a pragmatic function by exhibiting consequential relationship between parts of a discourse, However for schiffrin (2001) the DM "so" ensures its "content meaning as result conjunction even when it establishes metaphorical relationships on non-propositional planes of discourse" (58).

In the field of discourse markers there is a huge disagreement about what type of meaning is attached to these markers. However, from different researchers' view some discourse markers display pragmatic meaning, while others have non-propositional meaning. That's why the status of discourse markers cannot be determined by whether an item encodes the pragmatic meaning or not. In this study and bases on Fraser's argument discourse markers are encoded a pragmatic meaning and not a conceptual meaning.

2.1.3. Multifunctionality

The multifunctionality of discourse markers is an important feature that causes a controversy among scholars. Many researchers argue that discourse markers can supply more than one function simultaneously, while others oppose totally this concept. Schiffrin (2001, P. 54) explains that the various items of DMs she examines are multifunctional. They function in different domains such as cognitive, textual, expressive, etc... . Her analysis shows that these items could function across different planes of a discourse in order to "connect utterances on

either a single plane or across different planes" (57). Schiffrin (2001, p. 57) illustrates this by: *Yet, let's get back, because she'll never get home.* She clarifies that the items "because" here works on a single plane to connect "a request (to complete a task) and the justification for the request" (57).

Lenk (1998, P. 43) opposes Schiffrin's view. For him there is no plurality in discourse markers' functions i.e. a discourse marker functions at just one level of meaning at a time. He argues that the multifuctionality of these items may cause misunderstanding and misinterpreting for the receiver. In fact, it causes troubles for the receiver which makes him doubtful about the correctness and the incorrectness of his interpretations towards discourse markers' functions.

Lenk sees that discourse markers are multifunctional but in a different way. He considers them as multifunctional because they can function as discourse markers in a particular context, and as non-discourse markers in another one. Lenk argues that it is "one and the same item" that serves two functions (50). However, this item conveys a pragmatic meaning when it serves as discourse markers, and conveys propositional meaning when it is non-discourse marker (Lenk., 1998, pp. 47, 51).

According to Halliday (2004) and Caron (1994) discourse markers are multifunctional because the single item from that group can exhibit multiple types of discourse's relations. Caron (1994, 706) illustrates this idea by "and" which can express a temporal, causal, or even adversative relation. As it is mentioned previously, the multifunctionality of an item may cause ambiguity for the receiver. However, Caron (1994, p. 706) tackles this problem considering discourse markers as having conceptual meaning that firstly determines their role, and then their pragmatic functions come into play. In other words, there is no problem with

the multifunctionality of discourse markers because the semantic meaning of an item determines the specific functions that this item intends to convey.

As it is mentioned earlier, researchers disagree on whether DMs are multifunctional items or not. Some researchers argue that the single DM can signal more than one function at time while others see that DMs can serve just one function. The current study considers multifuctionality of discourse markers from Halliday's (2004) view where he argues that discourse markers are multifunctional items.

2.2. Functions of Discourse Markers

Various functions are attached to DMs. Jucker and Ziv (1998) state that discourse markers are functional items, they serve to signal opening or closing of the discourse's utterances or transitions between them. Also DMs serve to transmit the speaker or the reader's attitude and indicate the intentions and the relationships between the interlocutors. In addition, DMs may function as indicators of how the receiver interprets and processes the different messages.

According to Croucher (2004, p. 40) DMs may function in a formal as well as informal ways. The formal functions of these items reveal when they indicate a turn in a conversation (e.g. you know, well), express the speaker's attitudes and sentiments, also when they change or gradually decrease the topic that the interlocutors discuss (e.g. oh, by the way). However, DMs informally function to make pauses, or act as nervous glitches in a speech.

Anderson (1998, p. 147) points out that DMs are used to express relations of discourse components by leading the hearer to the appropriate interpretations. Brinton (1996) as well claims that DMs serve a variety of pragmatic functions which they may fulfill the textual function or the interpersonal function. Brinton explains that DMs contribute to the textual function i.e. achieving coherence and cohesion of discourse when they initiate or close a

discourse, mark relationships between neighboring utterances, and refer to either new or old information. Whereas, DMs fulfill the interpersonal function i.e. relations between the interlocutors when they serve to show a response or a reaction toward a preceding statement, to demand confirmation, and to function as face saver.

2.3. Grammaticalization of Discourse Markers

The term "grammaticalization" is introduced firstly by Traugott (1982). Scholars argue that grammaticalization refers to the process of changing the language from object and action words (i.e. nouns, and verbs) into grammatical items such as affixes, and prepositions. Thus, new function words are produced. Brinton (1996, p. 51) explains the term as a theory that clarifies how lexical items develop to turn into grammatical forms i.e. function words, clitics, and inflections.

However, Brinton (1996) points out that through the process of grammaticalization, the lexical words do not only shift to attain grammatical functions, but also they go through semantic modifications. These semantic modifications are described by Brinton (1996, p. 54) in terms of "bleaching", "fading", "weakening", or "delexicalization" i.e. through the grammaticalization process these words lose their lexical meaning. Similarly, Anderson (2001) explains these changes in terms of "weakening of lexical meaning accompanied by strengthening of item's pragmatic impact" (35).

In this process, Traugott (1995) claim that throughout the grammaticalization process content words that come from different word classes shift to fulfill the initial position. Traugott clarifies that throughout the process of grammaticalization these items i.e. DMs evolve gradually to obtain a pragmatic function while losing their lexical meaning. Similarly, Schiffrin (2001) stresses that markers at the discourse level i.e. discourse markers are derived from different words that my held different grammatical categories. Schiffrin further argues

that grammaticalization proposes a set of "formal and informal relationships" that may relate discourse markers and their lexical sources (64).

For Anderson (2001, p. 35) discourse markers status switch from propositional to non-propositional meaning. For example, adverbials such as "actually", "generally", "precisely", "really", and "many others" develop to fulfill the sentence adverbials, and in some situations they shift to be a pragmatic marker.

Traugott (1982) argues that the newly developed functional meaning of DMs is extracted from the propositional meaning of their sources. As well, he states that "the semantic bleaching process" is the explanation of the mutual reliance between the two meaning i.e. the pragmatic and the propositional meaning. Traugott argues that the bleaching of lexical words "happens when they shift from function which is primarily descriptive and referential to one based on the interlocutors' intention to articulate a clear, coherent, and expressive text" (245). In other words, a word is moving from being a content word to one which is dependent upon the speaker's intention. However, Celle and Huart (2007, p. 2) argue that the degree of the semantic change of these items is not the same for all because the semantic value of the discourse markers' source is the one which determines the degree of the bleaching.

Many researchers believe that the theory of grammaticalization supplies a regard toward the relationship that exists between the discourse markers, and the non-discourse markers. As Traugott (1995, p. 32) explains the discourse markers form i.e. grammaticalized forms may coexist with their similar counterparts i.e. non-gramaticalized forms in which they do not function as discourse markers in a particular discourse.

However, these two counterparts have a related meaning, but they function differently in a discourse, Lenk (1998) argues. Fraser (1996, p. 169) illustrates this view by the

expression "truthfully" which it signals the speaker's opinion when it is used as discourse marker i.e. expresses a pragmatic function (e.g. *truthfully, you should have answer*). Whereas, it is used as non-discourse marker, when it functions as an adverb of a sentence and expresses a propositional meaning (e.g. *you should have answered truthfully*).

Actually, the theory of grammaticalization sheds light on the link between the pragmatic meaning of discourse markers and the propositional meaning of their sources. Fraser (1990) argues that this relationship does not exist because these two meanings are naturally separated. However, Lenk (1998) believes that the pragmatic meaning of DMs emerges from the propositional meaning of their counterparts.

Hansen (1997, p. 158) maintains that DMs do have a propositional core meaning. Hansen spots light on the expressions that have slight difference in meaning but they function similarly in a discourse. He illustrates this by "but" where it is accepted to be used in a particular context, whereas other markers with similar functions such as: however and nevertheless are not accepted. Hansen further clarifies this latter by stating that the core meaning of these expressions differs from one to another. Similarly, Schourup (1999, p. 249) stresses that DMs have constant core meaning although it is described as being semantically empty.

To conclude, the theory of grammaticalization deals with the semantic and the pragmatic changes. It explains the changing process of discourse markers to become functional words. Traugott (1995, p. 31) clarifies these development and changes of DMs meaning i.e. becomes functional words by stating that "whereby meaning becomes increasingly based on the speaker's subjective belief/state/attitude toward the proposition".

2.4. Characteristics of Discourse Markers

Schourup (1999) identifies seven characteristics which are assigned for discourse markers. Schourup argues that it is potential to "identify a small set of characteristics most commonly attributed to discourse markers and items referred to by other closely associated terms" (230). These features are multi-categorality, connectivity, non-truth conditionality, weak clause association, orality, initiality, and optionality. These features are considered as the bases for identifying what are discourse markers.

2.4.1. Multi-categorality

Different researchers like Schourup (1999, p. 234) and Schiffrin (2001, p. 57) claim that DMs are inclusion of different grammatical classes i.e. they come from different grammatical word classes. Like adverbs (e.g. now, then), verbs (e.g. say, look), coordinating and subordinating conjunctions (e.g. and, but, because), interjections (e.g. oh), and lexicalized phrases and clauses such as "you know", "I mean", "for example", "in other words", "it must be noted that", "to sum up" …etc.

This feature of discourse markers as Schiffrin (1987) argues may cause problems in some markers because there are some features could be transferred from their original class into the discourse marker class. As well, Scourup (1999) assumes that because of the diversity of the grammatical classes of DMs' sources they may "comprise a functionally related group of items drawn from other classes" (236).

Indeed, the multi-categorality of those items implies that these words may have similar counterparts that do not function as discourse markers. In contrary to markers at the discourse level these counterparts do contribute to propositional content, Hansen (1997) argues. Fraser (1990, p. 388) clarifies this idea by stating that in some cases many items that belong to discourse markers' group may function differently in terms of syntactic structure.

As Schiffrin (2001) mentioned before, the theory of grammaticalization explains the controversy of discourse markers regarding the existence of two structurally similar markers that function differently, as well the relation between their meaning, and how they interdepend on each other.

2.4.2. Connectivity

Connecting parts of text is considered as an important feature that attributes to discourse markers. However, this connectivity as Blackmore (2002) notes is viewed differently according to how researchers see the discourse, and how they identify its scope.

From Schiffrin (2001) point of view, discourse markers are considered as tools to connect units of text by signaling the relationship existing between them. For Levinson (1983) DMs are items which they indicate a response or a continuative relation between the current unit and the previous unit of a discourse. However, for Blackmore (2002) discourse markers denote inferential connections which indicate to the brain the appropriate interpretation of the segment they introduce. Schourup (1999) argues that these items do not connect two textual units to each other. Rather they connect "the propositional content expressed by the current utterance to assumptions that may or may not have been communicated by a prior utterance" (231).

Different views are pointed out regarding the scope of discourse markers. Lenk (1998) for instance, investigates these markers at the global level. Whereas, Schiffrin (1987, p. 315) argues that discourse markers that she have been analyzed are functional at the local level where they signal relationships that are directly adjacent. However, Fraser points that discourse markers connect textual units at both the local and the global level.

Fraser (1996) and Blackmore (2002) consider the connectivity feature of discourse as a criterion to determine whether an element fit the discourse marker status or not. However,

this characteristic i.e. the connection of utterances among a discourse, for Blackmore is counted as the property that recognizes discourse markers as one group. However, items that do not exhibit relationship or connectivity are excluded from the group of discourse markers. Fraser (1996, p. 391) states that expressions like "frankly", and "certainly" in which they may convey the author's attitude in a particular context, are not considered as DMs because they do not fit the group's conditions.

For other researchers as Anderson (2001) it is not necessary for discourse markers to convey connection between textual units. For him those expressions that show the author's attitude consider as DMs because, they do achieve other kinds of relations such as relationships existing between the author and the text, as well between the author and the reader.

2.4.3. Non-truth Conditionality

Non-truth conditionality is also a feature of discourse markers that many researchers distinguish in their studies. Schourup (1999) claims that when DMs contribute nothing to the propositional meaning of the utterance that hosts them, so they are non-truth conditional. Halliday (2004) explains that these expressions do not participate or process in a particular discourse, whereas Hansen (1997) argues that they function as instructions to the receiver to facilitate processing and understand the sentence that contains them within a particular context.

For Al Kohlani (2010, p. 10) non-truth conditional characteristic is an essential feature for distinguishing discourse markers from their similar counterparts i.e. items which function as non- discourse markers. As well they contribute to the propositional content of utterances attached to (e.g. adverbials: now, then). Ostman (1995) points out that although these expressions are not a major part in the propositional structure of sentences, their absence may

affect the meaning of the context. This is because DMs function as guider and constrainer to the interpretation of utterances i.e. for Ostman they are pragmatic expressions.

All in all, the non-truth conditionality of discourse markers is seen as another important feature of the discourse markers' group. However, any item contributes to the propositional meaning of utterances is considered as non-discourse marker i.e. it excludes from DMs' group.

2.4.4. Weak-clause Association

This characteristic is actually related to the non-truth conditionality. Researchers like Brinton (1996) claims that besides considering DMs as outside the propositional core of a sentence, they also are considered as being outside its syntactic structure. Brinton explains that this weak clause association and the non- troth conditionality are loosely attached to the sentence that hosts them. In other words, DMs are seen as being detached from both the meaning aspect of the sentence and its structure.

2.4.5. Orality

Indeed, this feature is based on the idea that DMs appear within the speech context. But, according to Schourup (1999, p. 234) there is no existence of this assumption. Schourup clarifies that DMs may relate to both the written and spoken channel. Because this association is not rigid, however it is a matter of formality and informality of the situation where these markers take place. The meaning of discourse markers that may relate to written channels may "encode a high degree of utterances planning". While others, may associate with speech "because their meaning presupposes a familiarity with the addressee not typical if impersonally addressed writing" (234).

2.4.6. Initiality

The initiality of DMs is regarded as one of the most noticeable feature that characterizes the DMs' group, Lenk (1998) argues. Hansen (1997) assumes that it is necessary for these markers to precede the sentence that contains them. Fraser (1990) also claims that it is a characteristic manner for DMs to locate only in the beginning of the utterance. For Schourup (1999) it is not necessary for these items to occur sentence initially, they may appear also at the middle or the end of a sentence, and they function similarly to those which locate initially.

In fact, initialiaty as Schourup (1999) points is a predominant feature of DMs i.e. it is not permanently regarded as a characteristic for DMs' group. Researchers argue that discourse markers prefer the initial position, because they "prototypically introduce the discourse segments they mark" (Hansen 1997, 159). As well Al Kohlani (2010) argues that the initial position for many items is the only posture to occupy in order to be regarded as discourse markers. For example, "any way" is considered as DMs only if it occupies the initial position, whereas for the term "actually" is considered as DMs with its initial position or even other positions. Al Kohlani explains that the initial position of DMs influence the hearer's interpretations of the following speech through giving a large scope over the sentence or the paragraph that contains them.

The predisposition of DMs to occur initially, as Schourup (1999) argues, is related to the scope of their function in discourse. They are used to limit the interpretation of utterances in order to avoid misinterpretation of context. In other words, DMs that occur in other positions in a sentence can not restrict the whole segment and that's why these items display differences in meaning from their counterparts.

2.4.7. Optionality

Being optional is another characteristic of DMs. Schiffrin (1987, p. 64) notes that these items "are never obligatory". Schiffrin states that any sentence preceded by a discourse marker can also occur without that marker. Their absence does not change the grammatical structure, but it may cause a difficulty in the interpretation of utterances.

Researchers argue that the existence or the non-existence of DMs do not change the grammatical structure of the sentence, because these items are regarded as "syntactically and semantically optional" (Schourup, 1999, p. 231). In other words, they do not contribute to the propositional core of the sentence and they are not part from the sentence's grammatical structure. All of this explains that DMs' role is to exhibit the semantic relation of text's utterances, however these relations that are signaled by DMs still recognizable for the reader even when DMs are not existed.

Although, the group of DMs comprises of items that come from variety of grammatical classes such as conjunctions, adverbs, and lexical phrases, but they share some features that allow them to integrate under one group. Multi-categorality, orality, optionality, initiality, weak clause association, non-truth conditionality, and connectivity are the main features of DMs that researchers agree upon.

2.5. Classifications of Discourse Markers

2.5.1. Fraser (1999) Taxonomy

Fraser (1996) explains that DMs are helpful tools for clarifying the different relationships which the speaker wants to convey between two segments. For Fraser each discourse marker holds a procedural meaning. This meaning explicitly participates in guiding

the hearer/reader to the appropriate interpretation of those relationships. Actually, he classifies DMs as follows:
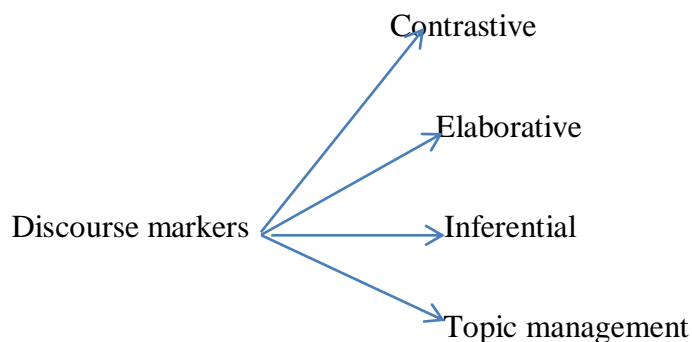
Figure1

Fraser's Discourse Markers Typology (adopted from Fraser, 1999).

Figure 1 displays that DMs are classified into four relationships according to their use. Firstly, contrastive DMs which are items signaling that the propositional meaning of the host utterance contrasts with the propositional meaning of the preceding utterance. In other words, this type exhibits a contrastive relationship. This class according to Fraser (1999) includes "but", "however", "in contrast", "in comparison to", "on the contrary to", "conversely", "instead of", "rather than", "on the other hand", "despite this/that", "in spite of", "nevertheless", and "still".

Secondly, elaborative DMs which are expressions show a quasi-parallel relationship between the current statement and the preceding statement. They function as a refinement or addition to the previous statement. This category contains "and", "above all", "also", "better yet", "for another thing", "furthermore", "in addition", "moreover", "more to the point", "on top of it all", "too", "to cap it all off", "what is more", "I mean", "in particularly", "parenthetically", "that is to say", "by the name token", "correspondingly", "or", "otherwise", "well", and "that said".

Thirdly, the inferential DMs which mark conclusion from a previous statement i.e. the current utterance is to be taken as a conclusion for the preceding utterance. This category includes "so", "of course", "accordingly", "as a consequence", "as a logical conclusion", "as a result", "because of", "consequently", "for this/that reason", "hence", "it can be conclude that", "therefore", and "thus".

Fourthly, the topic change or management DMs' category signals a shift from the existing topic to another. They reintroduce the previous topic within a particular discourse. This class includes "back to my original point", "I forget", "by the way", "incidentally", "just to update you", "on a different note", "speaking of", "that reminds me", "to change the topic", "to return to my point", "while I think of it", and "with regards to". The present study employs Fraser's (1999) classification of these markers to investigate their use in EFL learners' oral and written discourse.

2.5.2. Halliday & Hasan (1976) Classification of DMs

Halliday and Hasan (1976) differentiate five main cohesive devices in English discourse: reference, substitution, ellipsis, lexical cohesion, and conjunctions. However, the conjunctions or the connectives for them are formal expressions function as connectors of what is being said with what is about to be said. Halliday and Hasan classify these liking words i.e. discourse markers into four types: additive, adversative, causal, and continuative.

Additive, includes elements like "and", "or", "also", "in addition", "furthermore", "besides", "similarly", "likewise", "by contrast", and "for instance". Adversative, includes "but", "yet", "however", "instead", "on the other hand", "nevertheless", "at any rate", and "as a matter of fact". Causal, includes "so", "consequently", "for", "because", and "for the reason". Finally, the continuative elements which are: "now", "then", "of course", "well",

"anyway", "surely", and "after all". For them these elements contribute to achieve cohesion and coherent discourse.

2.5.3. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) Classification

Murcia and Freeman (1999) use a simplified version of Halliday and Hasan's (1976) classifications. They include, additive, adversative, causal, and sequential. They explain this modified version as follows: the additive, are markers that signal emphatic, oppositional, or comparative relation between the current utterance and the preceding utterance. The adversative markers are those items that exhibit contrastive relation between two successive utterances, or signal a correlation to what precedes them e.g. "in contrast", "instead"...etc. Causal expressions show cause and result of previous statement like: "so", "because"…etc. However, sequential markers like "then", and "next" signal a sequence of different points.

These classifications of discourse markers which are introduced by various researchers clarify different points of view on how these markers may serve in a particular context. However, these types or classes of DMs may help to understand each marker's role, as well help the user to keep away from misinterpreting or misusing these expressions.

2.6. Approaches to Discourse Markers

Different frameworks investigate the subject of DMs where different points of view and approaches are discussed. The coherence-based approach and the relevance-oriented approach are the two major approaches that researchers adopt.

2.6.1. The Coherence-based Approach

Schiffrin (1987) presents the first and the most detailed analysis of DMs. As it is mentiond before, Schiffrin deals with items such as "and", "because", "but", "I mean", "no", "oh", "or", "so", "then", and "y' know" as they are "sequentially dependent elements of

discourse" (31). For Schiffrin these items function to establish the coherence of a discourse. Schiffrin stresses that DMs can achieve discourse coherence by incorporating various contextual coordinators simultaneously in order to connect different components of text.

Schiffrin (1987) clarifies that these expressions play the role of cohesive devices in discourse, in which they achieve the local coherence by signaling connections between adjacent units of a discourse. Schiffrin claims that there are five planes of discourse, where DMs can function to achieve coherence. However, she points that each from these planes can achieve its own coherence.

Schiffrin (1987, p. 24-28) explains these levels of discourse markers as follows: Firstly, ideational structure which reflects the connection of ideas that takes place within the discourse. However, Schiffrin (1987) claims that this plane includes the following three types of relations: cohesive, topic, and functional relations. Schiffrin gives the example of the discourse maker "but" in which it operates in the ideational structure plane of discourse and indicates that current information is in contrast with the previous information.

Secondly, exchange structure which reflects the process of exchanging conversation, and how interlocutors obeying the turn taking. Thirdly, action structure which reflects the discourse speech act's sequence. Fourthly, participation framework reflects the relation between the speaker and the listener, the attitude of the speaker toward the utterances, or the interlocutors' relation. Finally, information state which reflects the speaker's information and knowledge and how he manages and organizes it. For example, the term "oh" where it operates at the level of informational state. Schiffrin argues that this item is used to recognize the old information and to receive the new ones.

It can be concluded that Schiffrin's approach to DMs focuses on the role of these expressions in achieving discourse coherence through connecting the different components of the discourse.

2.6.2. The Relevance-oriented Approach

Blackmore (1987) relies on the relevance theory to conduct her study of DMs. She (1987, p. 141) assumes that DMs indicate the optimal relevance of one utterance depending on the interpretation of another. Blackmore sees DMs as inferential guidelines to the hearer's interpretation of utterances. As well tools help in looking for the optimal relevance. Blackmore states that these expressions are procedural in nature which they constrain utterance interpretation in a specific context.

However, Blackmore (1992, p. 138-141) believes that discourse markers should be "analyzed as linguistically specified constraints on context". In other words, DMs are words which play a crucial role in determining the relevance interpretation of utterances through directing the receiver to infer the contextual effect that the reader/writer wants to convey.

Blackmore suggests that DMs help the hearer to achieve relevancy of information through four ways. She clarifies that DMs like "so", "therefore", "too", and "also" may instructs the receiver to understand that there is a concluding relation understudied through the contextual effect. Also, words like "after all", "moreover", "furthermore" are used to confirm a current statement by giving more arguments. Furthermore, expressions such as "however", "still", "nevertheless", and "but" are used to contradict previous ideas. Finally, Blackmore states that items like "anyway", "incidentally", "by the way", and "finally" function to appoint the utterance's role in a particular discourse.

As it is mentioned earlier, there are two approaches that deal with DMs which are "coherence" and "relevance". Theorists of coherence approach see DMs as cohesive devices

that contribute to achieve discourse coherence. Whereas, in the relevance approach researchers stress that DMs hold a procedural meaning which monitors the relation between utterances by inferring the contextual effect under which utterance is attached. Table 1 highlights the essential differences between these two approaches.

Table 1

Differences between the Coherence-based Approach and Relevance-oriented Approach of Discourse Markers (Li, 2016)

CBA	ROA
Textual coherence	Optional relevance
DMs link discourse units	DMs link discourse unit and context
DMs indicate coherence relations	DMs constrain inferential process
DMs encode conceptual meaning	DMs encode procedural meaning

2.7. The Use of Discourse Markers in Oral and Written Discourse

Several researchers investigate the use of discourse markers either in oral or written discourse. Hays (1992) also describes the acquisition of DMs in the spoken discourse, he attempts to analyze the speech of Japanese English learners. His study shows that the markers *and, but,* and *so* are highly used, while *you know* and *well* are rarely uttered. The results reveal that the Japanese learners face many difficulties when they deal with markers such as *you know* and *well*

Martinz (2004) investigates the use of DMs in written discourse by non-native speakers of English in a Spanish university. The findings uncover that the elaborative markers

are the most frequently used. There is a positive relationship between learners' number of DMs used and the writing quality. Similarly, Jalilifare (2008) analyses the use of DMs in composition writing by 90 Iranian students. Data consists of 598 descriptive compositions. Jalilifare uses Fraser's taxonomy of DMs (1999) to investigate their frequency of use in the written discourse. The findings show that the elaborative markers are the most frequently used. The study also reveals that DMs play a crucial role in increasing the quality of the discourse if they use them appropriately. Moreover, the results show that the more DMs are used, the more coherent the text will be.

In another study, Feng Li (2010) examines the role of DMs in Chinese students' English writing. He analyzes the misuse and the inappropriateness of these markers in their writings. The results demonstrate that using DMs appropriately leads to the coherence and the cohesion of the written discourse. Similarly, Modhish (2012) observes the DMs that Yamani EFL learners use in their written compositions. He analyses 50 essays following Fraser's (1999) taxonomy. The findings show that the most frequently used markers are the elaborative ones, follows by the inferential, contrastive, and finally the topic related markers. The research also reveals that there is no relation between the quantity of DMs in the essays, i.e. the number of DMs used and the writing quality. However, there is a positive correlation between the topic relating markers and the quality of the writing. Student writers who use the topic relating markers appropriately and correctly tend to produce better essays.

Bouzar (2016) aims at studying discourse markers produced by Algerian EFL learners of English while speaking. The study focuses on the effect of consciousness-raising tasks on the improvement of students' use of these markers, as well as the improvement of the communicative language performance. The research reveals a development in the students discourse competence and the use of spoken discourse markers. Thus it shows that some DMs are overused or underused whereas others are misused or not used at all.

Recently, Alsharif (2017) also investigates the use of DMs by Saudi English learners. She collects the students' essays as a corpus for the study. The work compares between Saudi learners and native speakers in terms of using DMs and how frequently they are used. The results of the analysis prove that Saudi learners overuse discourse markers, the markers are used unnecessarily and randomly. It is also revealed that the DMs so, also, however, as a result, for example, then, moreover, therefore, of course, rather, still and yet are the most frequently used markers by the native speakers and the Saudi learners in their essays. However, in addition and moreover are frequently used in the essays of the Saudi learner, whereas, they do not appear in the essays of the native speakers.

Noticeably, researchers tackle the issue of DMs focusing on the frequency of use, and how they can achieve a better quality of a text. However, this study compares the frequency of using the DMs in both oral and written discourse, an issue that –to the researcher's knowledge- has not been investigated before. It also deals with the major problems that may face EFL learners while using DMs, and how these markers (contrastive, inferential, elaborative, and topic change markers) contribute to the establishment of both coherence and cohesion of a discourse.

2.8. Problems of Using Discourse Markers

Different studies have shown that using DMs in a particular discourse is not an easy subject for EFL learners. Researchers such as Alsharif (2017) reports some problems realized by learners of English as a second language. Alsharif points out that learners may misuse, overuse, or underuse discourse markers, whereas, Kao & Chen (2011) propose six misuse patterns of DMs encountered by Taiwanese EFL learners which are: non-equivalent exchange, overuse, surface logicality, wrong relation, semantic incompletion, and distraction.

Kao & Chen (2011, p. 313) explain these patterns as the following: wrong relation (the failure of using a particular DM to express a certain relation), overuse of DMs (the high density of the occurrence of DMs), distraction (the unnecessary uses of DMs, surface logicality (the use of DMs to impose logicality or bridge the gap among prepositions when actually their existence does not, semantic incompletion (the lack of elaboration that makes a DM less functional), and non-equivalent exchange (the use of DMs conveying the same textual relation in an interchangeable manner when they are not). The current study depends on Kao and Chen's (2011) typology of DMs' problems to investigate the misuse of DMs by the participants.

Conclusion

Discourse markers are words such as "but", "also", "however", "furthermore", "thus", "and", "indeed"…etc. These words that come from different grammatical word classes as different researchers argue are structurally and semantically detached from the sentence that contains them. They function as connectors of utterances among the discourse. As well they indicate the appropriate interpretations of texts. However, there is still a controversy between researchers on how they may refer to these expressions, where different names attached to these items. Moreover, this study presents the different researchers' views regarding DMs' meaning, the theory of grammaticalization, the multifunctionality of DMs, and their variety of functions. Further, this study introduces various characteristics and assigns various classifications for these markers. Additionally, the current study explains the two accounts that are designed to study DMs which are: the coherence based approach and the relevance oriented approach. Finally, it displays a variety of researches that deal with DMs in the oral and the written discourse, and the major problems that EFL learners may face.

CHAPTER THREE

Field Investigation

Introduction

This study is devoted to discuss the use of discourse markers in the oral and the written discourse by EFL learners at the University of Guelma. This chapter shows to what extent third year EFL learners use discourse markers in their writings and their speeches. This is accomplished through the analysis of students' written essays, as well as the observation of their oral performance. That means finding the frequency of using discourse markers, followed by investigating the misuse patterns that may occur in the students' speeches or writing.

Starting with students' essays, this chapter tackles the sample choice followed by the description and the analysis of the collected essays. Then, discussing and interpreting the essays' results. Moving to the observation, a description of the observation process takes place, pursuing this by data analysis then discussing and interpreting the observation's results.

3.1. Choice of the Method

To fulfill the purpose of this inquiry and achieve its objective, a specific method is conducted to investigate the discourse markers that are used by third-year EFL learners at the University of Guelma. A descriptive study is adopted taking into account the topic, research aims and questions. Further, two research instruments are used to collect data: A collection of English essays written by the subjects of this study, followed by an observation of the same sample.

3.2. Sample Choice

The current inquiry is carried out in the department of English at 08 May 1945, Guelma University. The entire population is composed of 150 third year EFL students. The reason behind selecting this population is that third year students normally have apparent

knowledge about the use of discourse markers, and they are able to make a clear difference between them. Therefore, a sample of twenty six (26) students from the target population is chosen to accomplish this research i.e. one group from the five ones. This sample is selected randomly because the whole population shares almost the same characteristics.

3. 3. Students' Essays

3.3.1. Description of the Essays

Comparative and contrastive essays have been collected from twenty six (26) third year students at the department of English, University of 8 May 1945 Guelma. The essays are written during one of the regular classroom sessions of written expression. The Topic Selection Strategy is used to write the essays. Students are asked to choose one topic from multiple choices and to write an essay about it. The topics that have been provided by the teacher are: first, to compare and contrast between living at home and living away from home. The second is to choose one aspect from two cultures and compare them, such as education in Arabic and Western cultures. The third topic is about comparing and contrasting two books. The fourth one is to compare and contrast high school, college, and university.

As it has already been mentioned, this study spots light on third year students' use of discourse markers, their frequency, and their misuse. In order to sort out the discourse markers that are used, the essays are carefully examined. Discourse markers are categorized according to Fraser (1999) taxonomies i.e. contrastive DMs, elaborative DMs, inferential DMs, and topic change DMs. They are scrutinized for their frequency of use in the essays under analysis. Furthermore, the problematic use of DMs is scrutinized for the purpose of understanding which difficulties third year EFL students face when they use DMs. Fraser's (1999) taxonomy (Appendix 1) and the misuse patterns of DMs (Appendix 2) have been organized in a form of checklists to facilitate data collection.

3.3.2. Data Analysis

3.3.2.1. Overall Frequency of the Use of DMs in Written Discourse

      The twenty six (26) essays that are written by third year EFL students are totaled up to 3730 words. A total of 393 discourse markers are used in these essays. The frequency of DMs occurrences is presented in table 2. The percentage of frequency is accounted for 10.53%.

Table 2

The Overall Frequency of the Use of DMs in Written Discourse

	Number	Percentage
Discourse markers	406	10.88 %
Total number words	3730	100 %

Table 3

Frequency of Use of Discourse Markers' Types in the Written Discourse

Types of DMs	Frequencies	Percentage
2. Elaborative DMs	304	75%
2. Contrastive DMs	73	18%
3. Inferential DMs	29	7%
4. Topic change DMs	0	0%
Total	406	100%

The analysis of the contrastive and comparative essays produced by third year EFL students shows that the elaborative markers are the most frequently employed type of DMs. The occurrences of elaborative markers constitute a ratio of 75% of the overall use of DMs, followed by contrastive DMs with a ratio of 18%. Although the students' essays as mentioned previously are contrastive and comparative, the contrastive markers are less frequency used in the essays in comparison to the other categories of DMs. Normally, the use of the contrastive markers follows the developmental method of the essays, which means the contrastive markers are significant to be used to make contrastive relations of particular ideas in a discourse.

The results also show that the use of the inferential markers is low. These inferential markers constitute a ratio of just 7% from the entire percentage of discourse markers' frequencies in the essays. Finally, the least frequently employed category of DMs in the students' essays is the topic change type. This category marks a ratio of 0% from the entire percentage. There are no occurrences of such markers in the whole body of essays.

3.3.2.2. Individual Frequencies

In order to investigate the individual frequencies of DMs, occurrences of target DMs are categorized under the four functional classes that are mentioned previously in the present study. This section presents a description of the individual frequencies of DMs which are presented under elaborative, inferential, contrastive, and topic change DMs.

A. The Frequency of Use of Elaborative DMs in Written Discourse

The results presented in table 4 indicate that third year EFL students overused the DM "and". Learners show a greater tendency to overuse the DM "and" in comparison to other

elaborative markers. Accordingly, this marker constitutes a ratio of 73% from the entire percentage of elaborative markers that are used in students' essays. Example 1 illustrates the use of "and" in one of the participants' essays.

(1) *Child rising **and** education is of great prominence in both Eastern **and** Western cultures. Both caregivers normally do car about their child's health **and** make sure he does not suffer of any harm.*

Table 4

The Frequency of Use of Elaborative DMs in Written Discourse

DMs	Frequency	Percentage
1. And	220	73%
2. Also	27	9%
3. Or	43	14%
4. In addition	4	1%
5. Moreover	3	1%
6. Too	4	1%
7. Furthermore	3	1%
Total	304	100%

In addition to "and", the discourse markers "so" and "also" are used more frequently by the subjects. The marker "so" represents 14 % while the marker "also" shows 9% from the

overall use of the elaborative markers. Others like "moreover", "in addition", "too", and "furthermore" are less frequently used. Moreover, there are no occurrence of the elaborative DMs (above all, I mean, in particular, correspondingly, likewise, well, otherwise) in the students' essays. This implies that students relatively use a variety of elaborative discourse markers but they rely more on the DM "and" to compensate their strangeness with other elaborative markers. That is to say, the learners' ignorance of the majority of elaborative markers makes them depend on one marker i.e. "and".

B. The Frequency of Use of Contrastive DMs in Written Discourse

Table 5

The Frequency of Use of Contrastive DMs in Written Discourse

DMs	Frequencies	Percentage
1. But	32	44%
2. Still	2	3%
3. However	23	31%
4. Whereas	3	4%
5. Despite of	2	3%
6. On the other hand	5	7%
7. In contrast	3	4%
8. Although	3	4%
Total	73	100%

The contrastive DMs as mentioned before exhibit a contraindication relationship between the segments that host them and the previous discourse segments. Table 5 presents the frequency of use of the contrastive DMs in third year EFL students' essays. The results reveal that the DM "but" accounts for a ratio of 44% of the whole group of contrastive markers used by the subjects of the current study. It can be noticed that learners employ a varied set of contrastive DMs in their essays like "however" which constitutes a percentage of 31%, followed by the DM "on the other hand" with 7%, then, "although, in contrast, whereas, still, and despite of" with low frequency of use 4% and 3% from the entire percentage of the contrastive markers. The examples 2 and 3 illustrate the use of contrastive DMs in the students' essays.

(2) *Some people like to live at home, **but** others prefer to live away from it. There are a lot of similarities between the two, **but** there are précised points that we could mention.*

(3) *Living at home is living the good life with parents and all the family. **However**, living away from home is a sacrificing and suffering to achieve the good.*

C. The Frequency of Use of Inferential DMs in Written Discourse

Table 6 indicates that the DM "so" constitutes a ratio of 41% from the entire percentage of inferential DMs. Followed by the DM "because of" with 24%. Perusing this by "to conclude" with a ratio of 13%, "therefore" with 6% then followed by the DMs (accordingly, thus, and then) with a ratio of 4%.

Table 6

The Frequency of Use of Inferential DMs in Written Discourse

DMs	Frequencies	percentage
1. So	12	41%
2. Because of	7	24%
3. To conclude	4	13%
4. Accordingly	1	4%
5. Then	1	4%
6. Therefore	2	6%
7. Thus	1	4%
8. Since	1	4%
Total	29	100%

These results denote that third year students use a set of inferential DMs. Inferential markers such as (as a consequence, hence, of course, in this case, under this condition, as a result) are neglected in use among the students' essays. The analysis of the essays reveals that learners rely heavily on the DMs "so" and "because of" to exhibit an inference relationship between the host segments and the prior segments. In other words, "so" and "because of" are the most frequently employed inferential DMs by the subjects of this study. Examples 4, 5, and 6 illustrate the use of the inferential DMs by the third year EFL students.

(**4**) *The western culture respects the knowledge, education, the intelligent people,* **so** *they do everything to improve the educational system.*

(**5**) **In conclusion**, *living at your home behind your family is the best choice you ever make.*

(**6**) *Each one is responsible for his/her religion, and this is* **because of** *the secular system.*

D. Frequency of Use of Topic Change DMs in Written Discourse

The analysis of the students' essays tells that third year EFL students have not used the topic change discourse markers in their essays. Markers such as (back to my origin, before I forget, by the way, incidentally, to return to my topic, with regards to, and that reminds me) in which they signal a reintroduction of a prior topic of a discourse are not existent among students' essays.

3.3.2.3. Misuse and Correct Use of DMs

Table 7

The Frequency of DMs' Appropriate and Inappropriate Use in Written Discourse

	Number	Percentage
Discourse markers	406	100%
Inappropriateness of DMs	19	5%
Appropriateness of DMs	387	95%

From table 7 it can be noticed that just few markers are inappropriately used in the written discourse of third-year EFL learners. The inappropriateness of DMs constitutes a ratio of 5% from the whole percentage of DMs, however the appropriateness of DMs in the students' essays constitute a ratio of 95%.

Analyzing the appropriateness and the inappropriateness of DMs in the written discourse is determined by the previously mentioned misuse patterns which are: wrong relation (the failure of using a particular DM to express a certain relation), overuse of DMs (the high density of the occurrence of DMs), distraction (the unnecessary uses of DMs, surface logicality (the use of DMs to impose logicality or bridge the gap among prepositions when actually their existence does not, semantic incompletion (the lack of elaboration that makes a DM less functional), and non-equivalent exchange (the use of DMs conveying the same textual relation in an interchangeable manner when they are not).

The result of table 8 below unveils students' weaknesses when using DMs that may result in lack of cohesion and coherence among their writings. It can be noted that just few markers are inappropriately used in the essays. Students tend to overuse DMs such as "and", and "also". The problem of overusing the DM "and" i.e. the high density of occurrence has been occurred in the essays eight times. Followed by the inappropriateness of the DMs "but" and "also" in terms of overusing. Examples (7) and (8) illustrate the misuse of "also" and "and" in the pattern of overuse. In this example the overuse of the DM "also" distracts the readers' intention and hinders the coherence of the sentence.

(7) *…, **also** he can't enjoy his mother's food and cooking, especially if the person is a boy, **also** if he leaves home for study, he suffers of the situation of money, **also** he feel alone.*

(8) *Both cultures make sure to make the learners study in clear, **and** confortable manner, **and** provide them with emergency **and** help if someone is injured.*

Table 8

The Inappropriate Use of DMs in Written Discourse

Types of DMs	Discourse markers	Misuse patterns of DMs					
		NEE	O	SL	WR	SI	D
1. Elaborative	In addition						1
	And		5				
	Also		1				1
2. Contrastive	However				1	2	2
	But		1			1	1
	Although				1		
3. Inferential	So		1				1
	Total	0	8	0	2	3	6

 Note. NEE= Non-Equivalent Exchange; O= Overuse, SL= Surface Logicality; WR= Wrong

Relation; SI= Semantic Incompletion; D= Distraction

 The results also indicate that third year EFL learners show the misuse of the DM
"however" in the pattern of distraction. The inappropriateness of "However" has occurred
twice throughout the essays. Pursuing this by the DMs "in addition", "so", "but", and "also"
which are used inappropriately just once in the essays under investigation. Example (9)
illustrates the misuse of "also" in the pattern of distraction. Without the use of "also" in this
example the sentence is accurate.

(9) *There are a lot of people who prefer to live at home…and living at home or away from home have many differences and **also** similarities.*

The participants tend to use some DMs inappropriately in the pattern of semantic incompletion. In example (10), the DM "however" is used wrongly in the pattern of semantic incompletion because there is lack of explanation about the contrast where there is no contrastive expression to the first one. The result also reveals that learners misuse DMs in the pattern of wrong relation. Example (11) illustrates the inappropriateness of "however". There should be an elaborative marker to connect the two sentences because the next sentence indicates an elaboration. So, the contrastive relation here is incorrect. As it can be seen in table 8 there are no occurrences of the non-equivalent exchange misuse pattern and surface logicality.

(10) ***However**, living away from home is a sacrificing and suffering to achieve the good life.*

(11) *When she came back to New York at 10 years old, **however** she learned enough English to know that….*

3.3.3. Summary of Finding from Corpus Analysis

This section discusses the finding in the terms of the use of DMs in the third year LMD students' contrastive and comparative essays, the individual and the overall frequencies, and the inappropriateness of the use of DMs in the student's written discourse.

The examination of the overall frequencies of DMs in the current study tends to reveal that Third year EFL students have a tendency to use discourse markers in their English writing. They use a small ratio of DMs (10.88%) from the whole percentage of essays' words. In the contrastive and comparative analysis, essays students tend to use different types of

DMs. The results show that students have made use of elaborative, contrastive, and inferential markers. Apparently students extensively use elaborative DMs (75%) followed by contrastive DMs (18%). The extensive use of these two types of DMs could be due to the nature of the essays' method that the students are involved in, which is comparative and contrastive method i.e. analyzing and stating the similarities and the differences of two distinct subjects.

The results also show that there is a high dominance of particular DMs within each discourse marker type. These markers such as "and", "or", "but", "however", and "so" have appreciably the highest frequencies. It is quite obvious that learners prefer to use DMs that are familiar to them in order to avoid the incorrect use of these markers.

Furthermore the inappropriateness of the use of DMs in the students' essays falls into six patterns which are non-equivalent exchange, overuse, surface logicality, wrong relation, semantic incompletion, and distraction. The highly misused pattern is the basic problem that students faced when using DMs. The other misuse patterns are rarely occurred in their writing. Third year EFL students do not fully master the exact usage of discourse markers, this is may be because their lack of awareness about the meanings and the functions of these markers.

3.4. The observation

3.4.1. Description of the Observation

Since the current study is of a descriptive nature, an observation has been used as a second instrument of investigation. The observation takes place during regular classroom sessions of literature. It starts on April 11th, 2019 and ends on the 9th of May. Twenty six (26) third year EFL students at the University of 8 May 1945 have been observed in four sessions of 90 minutes. Multiple minor literatures' novels have been presented and discussed by students such as *The Women Warrior*, and *Midnight's Children* …etc. The reason behind

choosing literature sessions is that the sessions are in the form of oral presentations which are helpful for data collection. The subjects of the study are asked to read a novel of their choice, summarize and analyze it, and then present their works orally.

The observation of student's oral performance has been used to describe the discourse markers that are used in the students' speech, the frequencies of using DMs, the most frequently used category, and the inappropriateness of the use of DMs. Since the study deals with DMs typology and their misuse, Fraser's (1999) taxonomy and the misuse patterns of DMs have been organized in a form of checklists to facilitate data collection. (Appendix 1) & (Appendix 2)

3.4.2. Data Analyses

3.4.2.1. The Frequency of Use of Discourse Markers' Types in the Oral Discourse

Table 9

The Frequency of Use of Discourse Markers' Types in the Oral Discourse

Types of DMs	Frequencies	Percentage
1. Elaborative DMs	389	74%
2. Contrastive DMs	41	8%
3. Inferential DMs	93	18%
4. Topic change DMS	0	0%
Total	523	100%

A total of 523 DMs are used by third year EFL students in their oral discourse. The results show that the elaborative markers are the most frequently employed category. The occurrences of these markers constitute a ratio of 74%. This category of DMs is used efficiently to signal an elaborated relationships among the discourse segments however the over reliance on a particular marker caused a distraction in the coherence and the cohesion of their speeches. Pursuing this by the inferential DMs where they constitute a ratio of 18%.

The results also indicate that the occurrence of the contrastive markers is slightly lower in the students' speeches. These contrastive markers constitute a ratio of 8% of the entire percentage of the discourse markers used. Finally, the least employed type of DMs is the topic change category. This type marks a ratio of 0% i.e. there is no occurrence of such DMs in the students' oral presentation.

3.4.2.2. The Frequency of the Use of DMs in the Oral Discourse

A. The Frequency of Use of Elaborative DMs in the Oral Discourse

Table 10

The Frequency of Use of Elaborative DMs in the Oral Discourse

DMs	Frequencies	Percentage
1. And	350	90%
2. Also	33	8%
3. Besides	1	1%
4. Or	5	1%
Total	389	100%

Table 10 presents the frequency of use of the elaborative DMs in third year EFL students' speech performance. The results show that the participants show a greater tendency to use the DM "and" in their oral performance. Accordingly, this marker constitutes a ratio of 90% from the entire percentage of elaborative DMs. Followed by the DM "also" with a ratio of 8%. Pursuing this by the DMs "or" and "Besides" which are less frequently used (1%). As it is noticed from the table above, students tend to use a restricted set of elaborative markers. The majority of the markers from this category are ignored in use among the students' speeches (e.g. furthermore, in addition, moreover, I mean, otherwise, in particularly, similarly…). This implies that the subjects rely heavily on the DM "and" and neglect other elaborative markers. Examples (12) and (13) illustrate the use of elaborative markers in one of the students' speeches

(12) *Maxine Hong Kingston depicted the story of her parents **and** related it to her childhood…**and also** recreated…*

(13*) She traveled to Egypt **and** makes the trip after her husband's death.*

B. The Frequency of Use of Contrastive DMs in the Oral Discourse

The results indicate that third year learners slightly underuse the contrastive markers in their speeches, just 41 contrastive markers are found there. Various set of markers from this category are used (e.g. despite, but, however, although…) while others such as "in comparison", "instead of", "whereas", "in contrast", and "still" are neglected in the student's oral presentations. As it is noticed, the subjects rely more on the DM "but" in order to express a contrastive relationship.

The results in table 11 reveal that the DM "but" accounts for a ratio of 81% from the whole ratio of contrastive DMs, followed by the DM "although" with a percentage of 8%. The DMs "however" represents 5%. "Despite", "rather than", and "on the other hand" have a very low frequency of use which is 1%. Example (14) illustrates the use of contrastive DMs among the students' speeches.

(14) *At first she visits the places that ordinary people tend to visit, **but** second she goes deeply to the desert of Egypt…etc.*

Table 11

The Frequency of Use of Contrastive DMs in the Oral Discourse

DMs	Frequencies	Percentage
1. But	33	81%
2. (Al) though	3	8%
3. However	2	5%
4. Despite	1	2%
5. On the other hand	1	2%
6. Rather than	1	2%
Total	41	100%

C. The Frequency of Use of Inferential DMs in Oral Discourse

Table 12

The Frequency of Use of Inferential DMs in Oral Discourse

DMs	Frequencies	Percentage
1. So	59	63%
2. Because of	12	13%
3. After all	8	9%
4. Then	11	12%
5. Since	3	3%
Total	93	100%

The results in the table 12 denote that third year students show a good tendency to use the DM "so" to express an inference among the discourse segments more than the other inferential markers. Accordingly, the DM "so" represents 63% of the entire percentage of this category. Example 15 illustrates the use of "so" in the students' oral discourse.

(15) *The protagonist Salim Senai born in the 15th August 1947 and after 30 years he feels that he will die, **so** he tell his story to his wife.*

In addition to "so", the discourse marker "because of" and "then" are also frequently used by the subjects with a percentage of 13%, and the marker "then" represents 12%, followed by the use of "after all", and "since" with low frequency of occurrence; 9% and 3% respectively. Example 16 illustrates the use of "because of" in the students' speeches.

(16) *She was a woman with no reputation, she bought a shame to her family with her non-legitimate child, and **because of** that no one is allowed to speak with her.*

D. The Frequency of Use of Topic Change DMs in Oral Discourse

The observation of the students' oral presentations indicates that the participating students have a tendency not to use the topic change DMs in their speeches. Markers that exhibit a reintroduction of a prior topic in a particular discourse such as (to return to my topic, and that's remind me…etc.) are not found in the students' oral discourse.

3.4.2.3. The Misuse and the Correct Use of DMs

Table 13

The Frequency of DMs' Appropriate and Inappropriate Use in Oral Discourse

	Number	Percentage
Discourse markers	523	100%
Inappropriateness of DMs	33	6%
Appropriateness of DMs	490	94%

From table 13 it can be noticed that just few markers are inappropriately used in the oral discourse of third-year EFL learners. The inappropriateness of DMs constitutes a ratio of 6% from the whole percentage of DMs, however the appropriateness of DMs in the students' essays constitute a ratio of 94%.

From the analyses of the inappropriateness of DMs in the speech of the students, the results show the students' weaknesses when using DMs. The table above reveals that just few markers are used incorrectly in the presentations. Third year students face a problem with the DM "and". They show a greater tendency to overuse "and" in their speech. The problem of overusing the DM "and" has occurred in the oral presentations twenty-six times. Example 17 illustrates the overuse of the DM "and" in the students' oral discourse. The overuse of "and" occurs in the following example as a distraction of the hearer's attention, it shapes negatively the coherence and the cohesion of the speech.

(17*) She married again another man named Ahmed Senai **and** she decide to change her name to Amina, **and** she **and** her husband go to another city which is Delhi, **and** she was pregnant, she goes to the furniture….*

Table 14

The Inappropriate Use of DMs in Oral Discourse

Types of DMs	Discourse Markers	Misuse patterns of DMs					
		O	NEE	D	SI	SL	WR
2. Elaborative DMs	and	26		5			
	Also			1			
3. Inferential DMs	so			1			
	Total	26		7			

The results also point out that EFL learners show a misuse of the DM "and" in the pattern of distraction. The analyses of the students' oral performance reveal the tendency of the students to use "and" where normally without it speech remains accurate. Also, students

misuse the DM "also" in the pattern of distraction. Example 18 illustrates the inappropriateness of "also" in terms of distraction problem where it can be omitted without hindering the correct shape or meaning of the sentence.

(18) *Maxine Hong Kingston depicted the story of her parents **and** related it to her childhood…**and also** recreated…*

Learners as well face a difficulty of distraction when they use "so" as in the example (19). It may confuse the reader and distract the meaning of the speech because "so" is an inferential marker; but in the example there is no inference. It can be viewed from the results that the participants have misuse discourse markers in the patterns of overuse and distraction. However the contrastive markers are used correctly in the oral presentations.

(19) ***So**, when Amina and Vanissa go to the labor and they have their plan of midnight, Vanissa does not celebrate her birth.*

3.4.3. Summary of Findings from the Observation

The observation aims at investigating the use of discourse markers in the oral discourse of third year EFL learners. This section discusses the frequencies of use of DMs, and examines the inappropriateness of the use of these markers that may appear in the students' oral presentations.

The examination of the frequency of use of DMs reveals that students have a tendency to extensively overuse the elaborative discourse markers in their speeches 74%. As it is noticed not all the DMs' categories under Fraser's (1999) taxonomy are utilized. The topic change DMs are neglected. The results of the observation also display that there is a high dominance of certain DMs such as "and", "but", "so", and "also" over others where they have appreciably the highest frequencies.

Furthermore, the misuse of discourse markers in the students' oral discourse is determined by the six previously mentioned patterns. The misuse pattern of overusing is the basic difficulty that students encounter when using DMs. Further, students show a tendency to use some DMs inappropriately in the pattern of distraction. The inappropriateness of DMs that students may fall in could affect the structure and the content of their speeches. In other words, since DMs help to achieve the appropriate interpretation of certain discourse segments, any misuse of these markers may hinder the exact meaning of the discourse.

3.5. Summary of Findings from both Corpus analysis and the Observation

3.5.1. Comparison of the Use of DMs in the Oral and the Written Discourse

As it is mentioned previously, a total of 406 DMs are used by third year EFL learners in their written discourse and a total of 523 DMs are used in their oral discourse. This could be due to the spontaneity of the students while speaking that's why they tend to employ more DMs. Further, the elaborative DMs are the most frequently employed category in both the oral and the written discourses. This is probably because of the discussed subjects and the method used; learners use this category to signal elaborated relations. Moreover, there is a high frequency of use of the marker "and" in the two frames. It ranks first in the oral discourse and second in the written one. In the written discourse it makes a ratio of 73%, however in the oral it signals a ratio of 90%. The high dominance of "and" may reflect the students' ignorance and the unfamiliarity of other DMs or the fear of the inappropriate use of these markers. Also, this may reflect the easiness of use of this marker.

The results also reveal that students tend to misuse DMs in the oral discourse more than in the written discourse. Possibly, this is because during the oral speech they do not have enough time to think and organize what they will say, so they misuse these markers. In fact, learners tend to misuse DMs in the pattern of overuse in both their oral and written discourse.

Thus, in the oral discourse they mark the highest frequency of misuse more than in the written one. Indeed, students misuse DMs in their discourses, but this happens just with small ratio in comparison to the correctly used markers.

The findings of this study confirm to a certain extent the previously conducted researches (e.g. Martinz (2004), Jalilifar (2008), Feng Li (2010) & Modhish (2012). That is, these findings increase the evidence that the existence of DMs among students' writing productions and their appropriateness can achieve the discourse cohesion and coherence. Similar to the current study, the results drawn indicate that the elaborative DMs are the most frequently used category by EFL learners in their written productions. Moreover, the results of this inquiry are in line with Hays (1992) & Bouzar (2016) that the use of DMs in oral discourse is restricted to those familiar to the learners such as the marker "and"; it means that they have resorted only to few markers to overcome their ignorance and unfamiliarity of others.

3.6. Pedagogical Implications

Identifying the use of discourse markers in students' oral and written discourse provides some concepts that may assist learners in the foreign language environment. Based on the findings of the present study, a number of pedagogical implications are suggested for the purpose of improving students' use of discourse markers and reducing the amount of the errors committed.

In one hand, learners need to enrich their linguistic knowledge about DMs so that they will be able to use them appropriately. As the study has demonstrated, third year EFL learners tend to use DMs sparingly in their discourse. From the results, it is obvious that learners underestimate the use of DMs in their discourses. Another important point to be taken into consideration is that students tend to highly use particular DMs over the others under a

specific category. It is clear that students ignore the other markers or they are afraid from using them incorrectly. This problem of using particular markers and ignoring others sheds light on the importance of knowing all the types DMs and using various markers of each type not sticking to specific markers.

Moreover, since this study investigates the misuse of discourse markers, the results indicate that learners use DMs inappropriately in the different patterns. This unveils that students do not know the functions and the appropriate use of these markers. Learners should know that using DMs inappropriately is a hindrance for the quality of their speeches or writings. Also, learners need to know that the misuse of DMs prevents the interpretation of the appropriate meaning conveyed by the speaker or the writer because these markers are considered as tools to achieve the different relationships that exist among discourse utterances.

In this regard, teachers might clarify for students that using these markers is essential for achieving the coherence and the cohesion of what they say or write. Further, explain for them that these markers are tools of management, connection, and organization of a particular discourse i.e. teachers might explain the functions and the appropriate use of these markers. Teachers also have to emphasis practice of these markers to avoid misusing of these markers.

Discourse markers as a topic has to be part of the EFL curriculum since the first stages of learning the language. This topic should be carefully taught because it is at the core of a high-quality discourse, whether written or spoken. It is important for English language students to raise their awareness about the existence of such markers and their importance as cohesive and coherent tools.

Conclusion

The results of this inquiry have shown that third year EFL learners at the University of Guelma overuse the elaborative markers in both their oral and written discourses. The use of DMs by students is apparently restricted and this indicated in the high dominance of markers such as "and", "but", "also", and "so" over the other markers in their speeches and writings. The results also have revealed that Third year EFL students do not fully master the exact usage of discourse markers. They extensively misuse DMs in the pattern of overuse. Apparently, the majority of students have faced the problem of overusing DMs particularly the DM "and" which is a case of writing or saying just what comes to their minds. Students' weaknesses in using discourse markers may hinder the coherence and the cohesion of the discourse. Since DMs are tools to achieve coherence and cohesion, they should be used appropriately to realize the unity of the discourse.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

Using DMs in particular discourse is a hard task. It requires a considerable amount of knowledge and practice to use them appropriately and convey the intended meaning to the receiver. Without DMs in a speech or in a piece of writing, a discourse would not appear well structured and the flow of ideas would not be efficient. Besides, the inappropriate use could hinder the exact meaning or lead to misunderstanding of the discourse. On the other hand, these markers are tools to improve learners' writing quality and oral performance i.e. they play a crucial role to realize the cohesion and coherence of a discourse.

To obtain a more authentic and clear picture of this topic, data has been collected through essays' analyses and the observation. The observation has been fulfilled to check learners' use of DMs, Fraser's (1999) DMs taxonomy is followed to identify the frequencies of use of these makers and to sort out the major problems that learners may face in their oral discourse. The students' essays also have been analyzed to examine discourse markers, their frequencies, and their misuse in the written discourse.

The findings obtained from the analyses and the observation indicate that students underuse DMs in their discourse. Moreover, the results reveal that learners have employed extensively a specific category from these markers i.e. the elaborative DMs. In fact, not all DMs' categories of Fraser (1999) are utilized. The topic change DMs are neglected in use in both the student's oral and written discourse. Furthermore, students show a great tendency to dominate particular DM in each discourse markers' type such as "and", "but", and "so". The results also unveil the problems of using DMs that EFL learners have made in their essays and oral presentations.

Based on the results of the study, students should acquire a considerable amount of knowledge concerning the use of discourse markers, their functions, their main

characteristics, and the grammatical classes to which they belong. Moreover, learners ought to practice DMs and avoid their inappropriateness of use. Students need to be provided with instructions and guidance to prevent any problem with discourse markers' use.

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APPENDIX 1

The Check list of DMs' Frequencies

Session Number:

Discourse markers	Markers	Frequently used	Examples/comments
Contrastive DMs	A. but		
	b. however, although		
	c. in contrast with, whereas		
	d. in comparison		
	e. on the contrary to		
	f. conversely		
	g. instead of, rather than		
	h. on the other hand		
	i. despite this/that, in spite of, nevertheless, nonetheless, still.		
Elaborative DMs	a. and		
	b. above all, also, better yet, for another thing, furthermore, in addition, moreover, more to the point,		

	on top of it all, too, to capital it off, what is more.		
	c. I mean, in particular, namely, parenthetically, that is to say.		
	d. analogously, by the name token, correspondingly, equally, likewise, similarly.		
	e. be that as it may, or, otherwise, that said, well.		
Inferential DMs	a. so		
	b. of course		
	c. accordingly, as a consequ consequently, for that reason, hence, it can be concluded that, therefore.		
Topic Change markers	Back to my original point, I forgot, by the way, on a different note, speaking of, that reminds me, to return to my point, with regards to.		

Further Notes:

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APPENDIX 2

The Checklist of DMs' Misuse

Misuse pattern	The misused markers	Frequency of occurrences	Examples/ comments
Overuse			
Surface logicality			
Wrong relation			
Semantic incompletion			
Distraction			
Non-equivalent exchange			

Further Notes:

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ملخص

تبحث هذه الدراسة في الاستخدام لعلامات الخطاب على مستوى الخطابات الشفوية و المكتوبة لطلاب السنة الثالثة في اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية في جامعة 8 ماي 1945, قالمة, الجزائر. لإجراء هذا البحث, يتم اتباع طريقة وصفية لتحليل المؤلفات المكتوبة و العروض التقديمية الشفوية للتلاميذ. يتم جمع البيانات من خلال جمع 26 مقالة و مراقبة العروض التقديمية الشفوية للمشاركين, ثم تحليلها وفقا لتصنيف فريزر (1995) لعلامات الخطاب. وجدت الدراسة ان الطلاب يستخدمون بشكل مفرط علامات الخطاب التفصيلي على العلامات الاخرى (علامات التباين, الاستدلال, و تغيير الموضوع) في كل من الخطابات الشفوية و المكتوبة. و كشفت ايضا ان الطلاب لا يتقنون الاستخدام الصحيح لعلامات الخطاب بشكل كامل. يسيء الطلاب استخدام علامات الخطاب على مستوى نمط الاستخدام المفرط. علاوة على ذلك, يظهر الطلاب ميلا الى الافراط في استخدام علامات الخطاب و سوء استعمالها في الخطاب الشفهي اكثر من الخطاب المكتوب. على اساس هذه النتيجة, يقترح هذا التحقيق بعض التوصيات و الاقتراحات للطلاب لمساعدتهم على اتقان الاستخدام المناسب لعلامات الخطاب لتحقيق خطاب شفهي و كتابي متماسك و متناسق.

المصطلحات الاساسية: علامات الخطاب, الخطاب المكتوب, الخطاب الشفهي, متعلمي اللغة الانجليزية كلغة اجنبية, التماسك, التناسق.