An ESP Approach to a Metadiscursive Analysis of Political Science's Corpus

Shiva Sabbagh Shabestari[1] & Reza Abdi[2]

1 M.A., Mohaghegh Ardabili University, Ardabil, Iran
Shivasabbagh@yahoo.com
ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0108-5662
2 Ph.D., Mohaghegh Ardabili University, Ardabil, Iran
Reabdi@uma.ac.ir
ORCID: https://orcid.org0000-0001-6860-8651

Abstract: Discursive study of the corpus has been one of the keys to comprehend and employ accurate and authentic language. Metadiscourse is a rather tangible dimension of discourse to English learners. This study investigates the political science's corpus in terms of interactional metadiscursive markers based on Hyland's (2005) model of metadiscourse. For this aim, inaugural speeches and official oaths of office related to seven English-speaking countries were collected and analyzed. The statistical and analytical results suggest that despite a few similarities in some cases, the general employment of metadiscursive markers differs significantly across cultures. This study can help ESP learners of Politics and related majors become more conscious of metadiscourse and improve practical awareness of its use. It also can better prepare them to achieve a higher level of understanding in the target language situation. Although this study can provide a general view towards the discursive nature of political discourse for ESP students, the results imply that a mere generalization and ignoring the salient distinctions should be avoided for accurate comprehension of political discourse.

Keywords: : Inaugural speech, metadiscourse, oath of office, political science, political speech

Özet: Derlemin söylemsel çalışması, doğru ve özgün dili anlamanın ve kullanmanın anahtarlarından biri olmuştur. Üstsöylem, İngilizce öğrenenler için söylemin oldukça somut bir boyutudur. Bu çalışma siyaset bilimi derlemini Hyland'ın (2005) üstsöylem modeline dayalı olarak etkileşimsel üst-söylemsel belirteçler açısından incelemektedir. Bu amaçla, İngilizce konuşulan yedi ülkede yapılmış açılış konuşmaları ve resmi görev yeminleri toplandı ve analiz edildi. İstatistiksel ve analitik sonuçlar, bazı durumlarda birkaç benzerliğe rağmen, üst-söylemsel belirteçlerin genel kullanımının kültürler arasında önemli ölçüde farklılık gösterdiğini göstermektedir. Bu çalışma, belirli bir amaç için İngilizce alanında politika öğrenenlerin ve ilgili bölümlerin üst-söylem konusunda daha bilinçli olmalarına ve kullanımıyla ilgili pratik farkındalığı geliştirmelerine yardımcı olabilir. Ayrıca, hedef dil durumunda daha yüksek bir anlayış düzeyine ulaşmaları için onları daha iyi hazırlayabilir. Bu çalışma, belirli bir amaç için İngilizce öğrenen öğrenciler için politik söylemin söylemsel doğasına yönelik genel bir görüş sunabilse de, sonuçlar politik söylemin doğru anlaşılması için salt bir genellemeden ve göze çarpan ayrımların göz ardı edilmesinden kaçınılması gerektiğini açık bir şekilde ortaya koymaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Açılış konuşması, üstsöylem, görev yemini, siyaset bilimi, siyaset konuşması

1. Introduction

If we investigate the meaning of the term discourse, we find a wide variety of definitions and explanations that arise from different movements and disciplines from linguistics to philosophy or sociology (Titscher, 2000, p. 26). The most relevant definition in the field of linguistics, that is the one that behooves in this work, is proposed by van Dijk and others, (1977, p. 12), who sees discourse "as a text in its context and as data that has to be analyzed empirically". Moreover, in the same study, he considers that discourse has to be understood as an action.

While some analysts have narrowed the focus of metadiscourse to features of textual organization or explicit illocutionary predicates, metadiscourse is more generally seen as the author's linguistic and rhetorical manifestation in the text in order to "bracket the discourse organization and the expressive implications of what is being said" (Schifrin, 1980, p. 231). With the judicious addition of metadiscourse, a writer is able to not only transform a dry, difficult text into coherent, reader-friendly prose, but also relate it to a given context and convey his or her personality, credibility, audience-sensitivity, and relationship to the message (Hyland 2000). Metadiscourse is, therefore, a functional category and, as shown in these extracts from our L2 postgraduate corpus can be realized through a range of linguistic units, from exclamatory punctuation and scare quotes, to complete clauses, and even sequences of several sentences.

Knowing about metadiscourse of the political corpus will help students of politics have a clearer mind of what is going in this field, thus this project will have many constructive implications in ESP (English for specific purposes) and EAP (English for Academic purposes).

Because of the controversial nature of political texts and speeches, they are always in danger of misunderstanding and misinterpretation by the native and non-native students of politics. As mentioned earlier, metadiscursive studies are very important because metadiscourse refers to those features that authors include to help readers decode the message share the views of the writer and represent the particular norms observed in a given culture. Following Hyland (2005. p. 37), this study defines metadiscourse as "the cover term for self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, and helps the writer (or speaker), to express an idea and engage with readers as members of a particular community". Except some case studies mostly comparing two parallel speeches of the former and recent presidents' inaugural speeches, there is no comprehensive study addressing political corpora to present a general viewpoint for the ESL students.

1.1. Significance of the Study

Metadiscourse is not merely a stylistic device, but depends on the rhetorical context in which it is used and the pragmatic function it performs (Mao, 1993, p. 270).

Explicitness is a key feature of metadiscourse as it represents, besides being a practical means of identification and comparison, an overt attempt was made by the author to create a particular discourse effect. Some researchers such as Hyland (1998) and Massabi (2014) suggest that successful EAP training should focus on two main areas: language proficiency, and metadiscourse. "EAP practitioners should help their students attain a linguistic threshold by focusing on improving their English-language proficiency" (Massabi, 2014, p. 116). His findings also suggest that the training should also help learners become more aware of metadiscourse, and develop a functional knowledge of its use, may better prepare them to attain the level of comprehension in the target language situation. Therefore, the learners should be aware of the significant roles that metadiscourse markers (MDMs) have in a text to improve their language comprehension skills in particular.

This study will vivify some of the linguistic and metadiscursive aspects of the political corpus and smooth the way of understanding the nature of the political corpus by answering the following questions:

1. What are the most frequently used MDMs in inaugural speeches across cultures?

2. What are the most frequently used MDMs in presidential oaths of office?

3. Is there any significant difference in the employment of MDMs in political corpus across cultures?

1.2. Review of Literature

Political discourse has been one of the most controversial kinds of discourse and recently more researchers have started working on it. In this part, discursive and metadiscursive analyses in politics conducted by some scholars are taken into account. After a brief introduction and listing, the gap in the literature, which made the author do additional investigations, is presented.

Ilie (2000) put forward an argumentative framework for the interpretation of clichés used in parliamentary debates. The research studied speeches of British Members of Parliament based on metadiscursive use and institutional evaluation provided by the cliché users, metadiscursively introduced clichés undergo a double evaluation by their utterers. The argumentative orientation of political clichés is vivified to originate in the speaker's implicit and explicit ideological commitments and to involve a marked, but shifting, polarization in terms of positive and negative values. Similarly, in Gordon Brown's speech at the conference of the Labor Party, Markos (2006), identified and analyzed rhetorical devices. The study aimed at defining different rhetorical devices that are identified as interactional tools, examining their uses, and discussing possible consequences they might have when included in a political speech.

Also, Rodriguez (2008) presented a new theoretical model for examining discursive techniques in political speeches. This approach systematically tracks voices in political discourse and compares them with their linguistic and paralinguistic means of realization their discursive targets. Following Goffman's concept of footing (1979) and Bakhtin's (1934) ideas of heteroglossy and dual voicing, he showed that the role of the speaker can be reliably tracked in a speech (e.g., Chavez's intervention at the UN in 2005 in particular). Each of the three role perspectives (narrator, interlocutor, and character) presented creative indexical moments. He showed how pronouns were used to index distance and help the speaker to position himself in relation to specific utterances as goals of the political agenda (us vs. them; socialism vs. imperialism). We can see identical research conducted by Capdevila (2008) analyzing political speech given by the leader of the opposition party during the run up to the UK elections in 2005. In a text, claiming to be 'not racist', she tried to trace the history of racism. Based on a number of theoretical and methodological resources, the article approaches the analysis by focusing on a number of thematically heterogeneous elements that function to produce, reproduce, and stabilize 'racism' in relation to each other. She states that one of the difficulties commonly encountered in social psychological work is that an explicit statement of allegiance to a particular methodological and theoretical tradition can also result in a restriction of theorization to a particular 'level of analysis'. In other terms, a system that constructs a pre-given classification defaults on the parameters by which racism can be defined and determines the level of analysis at which it can be analyzed missing the various contact points where racism can be made visible or disappeared.

In addition, Wang (2010) conducted research based on the theory of critical discourse analysis and systematic functional linguistics. Barack Obama's presidential speeches were analyzed primarily from the point of transitivity and modality, where the language of serving ideology and power can be detected. She found that, instead of difficult words, Obama used simpler words and short sentences. His dialect was detected to be simple and colloquial. Therefore, the distance between him and the spectator could be quickly reduced. Later, Gibbson (2012) asserted a discourse analytic approach to social psychological peace studies and showed the feasibility of such a method by re-stating the concept of war perceptions. He demonstrated it by a study of a set of TV debates that were televised in the UK in the course of building up to the official start of the Iraq war in 2003. Finally, he concluded that epistemology issues precede methodologies in war discourse.

Identically, Helander (2014) investigated and compared alignments in speeches held by two historically well-known politicians: Churchill's 1939 and Blair's 2003 speeches. The study utilized Martin and White's (2005) appraisal theory. Drawing primarily on the appraisal framework, the study investigated each speaker's use of positive and negative judgments. The results of the speakers' different alignments, including the grouping of us and them, positive self and negative other presentation, and strategies of legitimization were also examined. The analysis clearly demonstrated that both Blair and Churchill used positive judgment. The results also showed that Blair employed the negative counterpart, whereas only one instance of this concept was found in Churchill's speech. Furthermore, through the use of positive judgment, as well as negative judgment (more in Blair's case than in Churchill's), the speakers aligned themselves with certain individuals and policies, and dis-aligned with oppositional forces. The positive and negative judgments were used in relation to themselves, their nation, and others.

Another recent study was conducted by Jimenez (2017). He analyzed six linguistic devices including hedging, the rule of three, deixis, contrastive pairs, anaphora, parallelism, and metaphors, through the transcriptions of the speeches of the US presidents; Barack Obama and Donald Trump. Jimenez (2017) claimed that using the devices had an effect on the audience and contributes to a more effective and persuasive speech, and at the same time was an aid to determine the style of each president.

When moving to the studies based on speeches of more eastern politicians, we can see that Panayirci (2011) examined the communication techniques for political leaders in times of crisis in public diplomacy. Through reflecting on the intersection of domestic/international politics, her study suggested that politicians want to use their speech activities on foreign policy issues to manipulate domestic public opinion perceptions through public diplomacy crises. The core argument of this paper was to demonstrate that the AKP (Adalet ve Kalkınma Partisi) government's head, Recep Tayyip Erdogan, has used his foreign policy speeches as an "honorable" label to validate AKP's domestic practices.

A metadiscursive study of the same countries' political speeches was conducted by Esmer (2017) that analyzed the use of interpersonal MDMs in Turkish rally speeches by two political leaders who advocated the ideology of nationalism separately, as well as the function of MDMs in representing the reach and essence of nationalist philosophies of political parties. The finite verbs of the statements from the party leaders are abstracted and entered into the Nooj corpus processing system. Drawing on Dafouz's (2008) classification of interpersonal MDMs, the study revealed that although both party leaders used similar interpersonal metadiscourse markers in their election rally speeches, the MDMs had different functions due to their ideological viewpoints.

In 2012, Jalilifar and Savaedi examined the evaluative strategies used by presidential candidates in Iran and America during national polls of these two countries. They employed Martin and Rose's (2003) 'appraisal framework'. The researchers investigated the preferences of attitude markers made by candidates in their speeches, the frequency of explicit attitudinal meanings and graduation resources to detect the possible differences between Iranian and American speeches. The results showed significant differences among the winners and losers in Iranian and American contexts. In both American and Iranian contexts, effect and judgment were basically employed by the winners. Appreciation resources, however, were found to vary in different contexts. The researchers maintained that political, economic, social, and international factors lead to differences in the nature and kind of attitudinal markers.

More similar to the previous study, Zand Moghadddam and Bikineh (2014) conducted research to compare political interviews in the Iranian and English contexts to identify the possible similarities and differences between the two cultures in the use of discourse markers (DMs). To this end, three sets of interviews were chosen, and, based on the framework suggested by Fung and Carter (2007), the DMs used in those interviews were described and categorized. The results revealed that there were some variations in the use of DMs among the interviewees, along with the similarities. They claimed that the cultural differences between the interviewees and their communicative intentions could be due to such variations.

Differentiating the discursive nature of Persian and English papers, Yazadani and Sharifi, (2016) investigated if online Persian and English news titles used metadiscourse labels in a common field-specific manner. He listed the corpora and classified online headlines into two categories of online Persian and online English news. The corpora were also made up of various areas, reports from government, economy, sport, media, financial, political, and international news. Interactive and interactional MDMs have been examined in online headlines according to the Hyland's (2005) model. The analysis revealed that Persian fields made more use of the MDMs than English fields according to descriptive statistics. Furthermore, Tashi (2018) investigated interactional MDMs used in the English speeches of Mr. Tshering Tobgay, the Prime Minister of Bhutan, delivered to international audiences on a variety of different topics. This qualitative descriptive research focused on textual analysis utilizing Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model and Martin and White's (2000) appraisal theory. The results revealed the highest ranked markers of attitude use followed by markers of engagement, self-mentions, boosters, and hedges. In fact, the analysis also showed that his speech subjects affected the use of the interactional MDMs of the speaker. In general, this study highlighted elements of MDMs used by the leader of the country in delivering public speeches. The present study contributed to the existing body of literature related to metadiscourse analysis, especially of spoken texts.

The study of Bantawig (2019), linguistically delved into the forms and functions, and categories of discourse cohesion markers employed in the 54 speeches of the selected Asian presidents written in English. The results revealed that DMs of addition and DMs of cohesion and substitutions were popular in the selected Asian presidential speeches. Thus, the presidents' speeches loaded with substantial information claimed to be organized using elaboration as one of the DMs. Also the study claimed that with significant utilization of substitution (personal pronouns), the presidents established connection with their audience

2. Method

2.1. Research Design

The present study aimed to analyze metadiscursive features of the English political corpus. To do so, inaugural speeches and the oaths of office related to presidents or prime ministers of seven countries including US, UK, Ireland, New Zealand, Australia, India, and Canada that use English as the official language were chosen. Inaugural speeches related to last two appointments (presidents or prime ministers) in each country were collected. While this corpus was chosen to be analyzed as a dynamic discourse sample related to each country, oaths of office were added to act as a more stable representative of discourse for each country. Based on Hyland's (2005) interpersonal model of metadiscourse, interactional MDMs (self-mentions, hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and engagement markers) uttered in corpus were detected and analyzed.

This research was mainly a quantitative one, though qualitative method was followed to extract data. Punch (1988) believes that, "All behaviour research that are included exploratory and seeks to explain a phenomenon or behaviour operates in particular context is qualitative construct and all numerical form which can be put into categories, graphs, tables of raw data or rank order is quantitative construct" (Punch, 1998, p. 4). Some narrations, descriptions, and comparisons were made to manage the frequency of the data in addition to tabulations, figures, and data analysis tools.

2.2. Corpus

Texts related to inaugural speeches from the last two elections/appointments and official presidential oaths of office in each country were chosen as the corpus of the study. For countries that lack a presidential system, inaugural and oaths of office related to prime ministers were taken into account. The transcriptions of the inaugural speeches were collected from websites such as BBC.com, CNN.com, and digitallib.com. Some speeches lacked an available transcription in the form of a text. Therefore, related videos were extracted and transcribed by the researchers and checked by some English teachers. The texts of presidential oaths of office were collected from Wikipedia.com.

2.3. Data Collection

The transcripts of inaugural speeches and official oaths of office were examined to identify the interactional Metadiscourse Markers (MDMs) based on Hyland (2005) interpersonal model of metadiscourse. The interactional resources were extracted from the list available in Hyland (2019).

2.4. Data Analysis

The collected data were tabulated in first step to give a general point of view to the readers. Then, they analyzed and compared qunatititvely by employing chi- square test using SPSS software.

3. Findings

In the course of data processing, it became clear that presidential official oaths of office were not metadiscursively rich enough to be analyzed statistically because of the low amount of total utterances. However, the raw frequencies of those few DMs were taken into account in order to answer the related research question. The results and discussions highly rely on inaugural speeches.

3.1. Statistical Results

After calculating the relative frequency, the first thing to be checked is whether you have violated one of the assumptions of chi-square concerning the 'minimum expected cell frequency', which should be 5 or greater (or at least 80 per cent of cells have expected frequencies of 5 or more). The results indicate that '0 cells (.11.4%) have expected count less than 5'. This means that we have not violated the assumption, as all more than 80 per cent of the expected cell sizes are greater than 5 (in our case, greater than 2.68).

Table 1.

Cross-tabulation of the Raw Frequency of Employed MDMs across Various Countries

			Metadiscourse Markers					
			Attitude markers	Self-mention	Engagement markers	Hedges	Booster	Total
Country	India	Count	13	25	60	10	17	125
		%	10.4%	20.0%	48.0%	8.0%	13.6%	100.0%
	US	Count	18	6	212	4	66	306
		%	5.9%	2.0%	69.3%	1.3%	21.6%	100.0%
	Ireland	Count	22	48	156	5	28	259
		%	8.5%	18.5%	60.2%	1.9%	10.8%	100.0%
	Australia	Count	30	72	131	5	56	294
		%	10.2%	24.5%	44.6%	1.7%	19.0%	100.0%
	UK	Count	4	32	107	2	37	182
		%	2.2%	17.6%	58.8%	1.1%	20.3%	100.0%
	Canada	Count	6	115	66	5	10	202
		%	3.0%	56.9%	32.7%	2.5%	5.0%	100.0%
	New Zealand	Count	13	147	30	3	22	215
		%	6.0%	68.4%	14.0%	1.4%	10.2%	100.0%
Total		Count	106	445	762	34	236	1583
		%	6.7%	28.1%	48.1%	2.1%	14.9%	100.0

As exposed in Table 2, the Pearson Chi-Square Test value is .459.54, with an associated significance level of .00. As the value of .00 is smaller than the alpha value of 0.05, so it can be concluded that our result is statistically significant. This means that there was a significant difference in the employment of discourse markers across countries.

Table 2.
Chi-Square Test of employed MDMs across various countries

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.459.542	24	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	481.532a	24	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test	.000			.000	
Linear-by-Linear Association	72.875	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	1583				

Though results showed a significant difference among the countries as a whole, in order to get more detailed information, the countries were compared two by two. Chi-square test was run about 30 times. The results are tabulated in Table 3.

Table 3 Chi-Square Tests Analyzing the Countries in Pairs

Countries	Discourse Marker	Chi square	Asymp. Sig.
India US	Self-mention	11.64	.001*
	Engagement marker	84.94	.000*
	Boosters	28.92	.000*
India vs. Ireland	Self-mention	7.24	.007*
	Engagement marker	42.66	.000*
	Boosters	2.68	.101
India vs. Australia	Self-mention	22.77	.000*
	Engagement marker	26.39	.000*
	Boosters	20.83	.000*
India vs. UK	Self-mention	4.76	0.29*
	Engagement marker	13.22	.000*
	Boosters	7.40	.006*
India vs. Canada	Self-mention	35.55	.000*
	Engagement marker	.286	.593
	Boosters	1.81	.178
India vs. New Zealand	Self-mention	86.93	.000*
	Engagement marker	10.00	.002*
	Boosters	.641	.423
US vs. Ireland	Self-mention	32.66	.000*
	Engagement marker	8.52	.004*
	Boosters	15.36	.000*
US vs. Australia	Self-mention	55.84	.000*
	Engagement marker	.820	.365
	Boosters	.111	.739
US vs. UK	Self-mention	17.78	.000*
	Engagement marker	34.56	.000*
	Boosters	8.16	.004*
US vs. Canada	Self-mention	98.19	.000*
	Engagement marker	76.67	.000*
	Boosters	41.263	.000*
US vs. New Zealand	Self-mention	.80	.369
	Engagement marker	136.87	.000*
	Boosters	22.00	.000*
Ireland vs. Australia	Self-mention	4.80	.028*
	Engagement marker	2.17	.140
	Boosters	9.33	.002*
Ireland vs. UK	Self-mention	3.20	.074
	Engagement marker	9.12	.003*
	Boosters	1.24	.264
Ireland vs. Canada	Self-mention	36.48	.000*
	Engagement marker	22.00	.000*
	Boosters	8.52	.004*
Ireland vs. New Zealand	Self-mention	50.26	.000*
	Engagement marker	85.35	.000*
	Boosters	.720	.396

Australia vs. UK	Self-mention	15.36	.000*
	Engagement marker	2.42	.120
	Boosters	3.88	.049*
Australia vs. Canada	Self-mention	9.88	.002*
	Engagement marker	21.44	.000*
	Boosters	32.06	.000*
Australia vs. New Zealand	Self-mention	25.68	.000*
	Engagement marker	63.36	.000*
	Boosters	14.82	.000*
UK vs. Canada	Self-mention	56.91	.000*
	Engagement marker	9.71	.002*
	Boosters	15.51	.000*
UK vs. New Zealand	Self-mention	73.88	.000*
	Engagement marker	43.27	.000*
	Boosters	3.81	.051
Canada vs. New Zealand	Self-mention	3.90	.048*
	Engagement marker	13.50	.000*
	Boosters	4.50	.034*

Note. The asterisks indicate a statistically significant difference $(P < .05)$

Table 3 approved one more time that politicians of countries employ rather a distinctive amount of interactional DMs related to self-mentions, engagement markers, and boosters. However, we cannot ignore some similarities. Because of the low amount of total frequency and not meeting expected cell frequency to be analyzed by the Chi Square test, hedges and attitude markers were not included in that part.

Figure 1.

Bar Chart of the Distribution of Employed MDMs by the Politicians across Various Countries
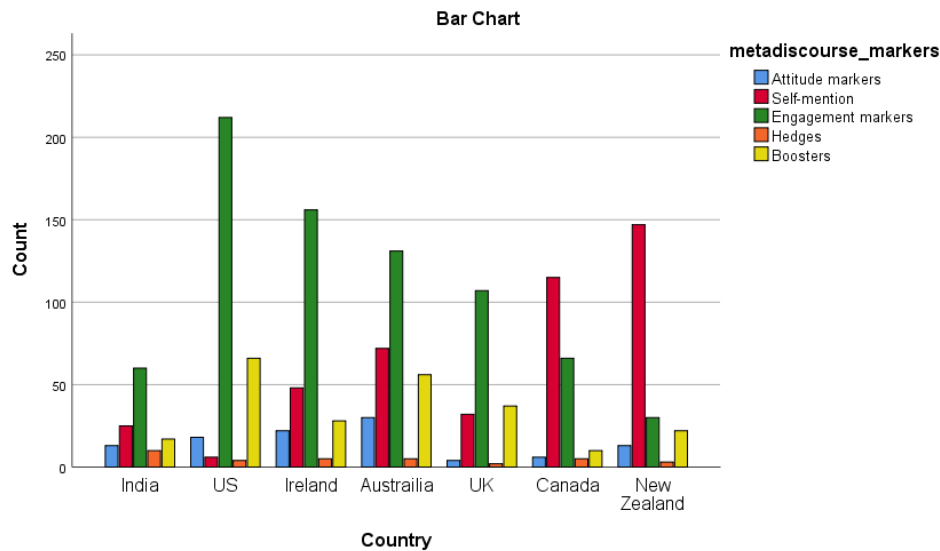
4. Discussion and Conclusion

As presented in Table 1 and Figure 1, the most frequently used MDMs in the examined corpus were engagement markers, except for Canada and New Zealand in which the self-mention had the highest rate of employment. In general, 48.1 percent of the employed metadiscourse were engagement markers,

indicating that almost half of the MDMs exploited in the speeches by the politicians of the countries were of engagement markers. In particular, the most frequent MDM used among the cultures was engagement marker which was used up to 69.3 percent by the president of the USA. On the other hand, hedges were among the MDMs, which have been applied with the least frequency among the countries. Only 2.1 percent of the total employed MDMs were of hedges. Specifically, the UK with 1.1 percent had the least and India with 8 percent had the highest amount of hedges employment.

Data analysis shows that the most frequently used discourse markers are engagement markers. As it is known, this kind of marker is used to catch the audience's attention or involve them in the speech. Statistical results present that the US presidents use the most amounts of engagement markers. As Hyland (2008) states, successful interactions include not only the presentation of a professional and sufficiently authoritative disposition, but also the acknowledgement and response to audiences' potential concerns, misunderstandings, and managing difficulties. Usually the audience, especially those who opposed the new president (or prime minister) in course of elections (or appointment), approach more pessimistically to the new presidents' speeches. The presidents tend to engage all the audience, resolve the common concerns and construct a more friendly relationship. The presidents of the USA are usually involved in a chaotic election course so that many news agencies such as Reuters (2016) announced the last US election was one of the most chaotic elections of the history. They use the most amount of engagement markers trying to wipe the turmoil and make the whole audience more empathic.

It is not necessarily true that all chaotic election courses have been resulted in high employment of engagement markers. The most contradictory results belong to New Zealand. The most frequently used engagement marker in the whole corpus is "inclusive we". However, the politicians of New Zealand use the pronoun "we" as a self-mention which refers to members of their political party. Some parts of US and New Zealand's inaugural speech have been provided for more clarification:

 "We, the citizens of America, are now joined in a great national effort to rebuild our country and to restore its promise for all of our people.

   Together, we will determine the course of America and the world for years to come. We will face challenges. We will confront hardships. But we will get the job done.

   Every four years, we gather on these steps to carry out the orderly and peaceful transfer of power, and we are grateful to President Obama and First Lady Michelle Obama for their gracious aid throughout this transition."

Donald Trump (U.S.A) inaugural speech (2016).

"there is an extraordinary amount of common ground between us (our party members) on what we wish to deliver for New Zealanders what will have been clear through the campaign is that we all agreed that there is a housing crisis we all agreed there was a role for the state to play and we all agree we need to build that scale of houses so yes that is what we remain committed to"

Jacinda Ardern (New Zealand)

4.1. Self-mentions

Lachowicz (1981, p. 111) argued that impersonality indicates "objectivity, open-mindedness, and the established factual nature of a given activity". Hyland (2001) believes that the linguistic choices like adopting an impersonal rhetorical style or to representing oneself explicitly have significant consequences for how one's speech is received.

As it is shown in Table 4, and 5, the amount of self-mention employment significantly varies across countries. While US uses the least amount of self-mention (2% of whole discourse markers), Canada and New Zealand use it pretty frequent (59% and 68% respectively). It is notable that despite presidential nature of the US (presidents being head of government), Presidents avoid using self-mentions despite their high authority they tend to use inclusive we or our. On the contrary, ministers of Canada and New Zealand highly mention themselves:

"I also want to thank Peter Dutton for the service he has provided. I recommended him for the job as Minister for Immigration and Border Protection, after I left it some years ago, and he has served faithfully in that role and Home Affairs, and I look forward for him to be playing a role in the government which I intend to lead." (Scot Morrison, Australia)

"and I believe that Labour has found true allies in Parliament to deliver on that I want to thank New Zealand first for the decision that they have made. I know it has been significant and difficult I want to thank them for the time and consideration they put into the negotiations and I can confirm they were indeed dominated by a discussion around policy."
Jacinda Ardern (Newzeland)

"It is time to remember that old wisdom our soldiers will never forget: that whether we are black or brown or white, we all bleed the same red blood of patriots, we all enjoy the same glorious freedoms, and we all salute the same great American Flag. (Donald Trump,US).

4.2. Hedges

As it is shown in Table 1, hedges are rarely used by politicians. As the statistical results approve, there's no remarkable difference in the employment of hedges across cultures. This result is in line with almost all studies mentioned in review of literature. To transmit distinction, humility, and respect for the opinions of colleagues (Hyland, 2005) through explicitly indicating the speaker's commitment, using hedges can be to express doubt. Therefore, politicians' tendency to avoid using hedges may be due to the fact that leaders choose to use the DMs that show their confidence and assurance about their strategy, so they can accomplish their political goal that persuades the public. It can be assured about this by checking the results for the frequency of boosters. Politicians especially those of the USA and Australia tend to use more boosters in comparison to other countries.

"We must speak our minds openly, debate our disagreements honestly, but always pursue solidarity. When America is united, America is totally unstoppable. There should be no fear – we are protected, and we will always be protected." (Donald Trump(US)

"I also thank Julie Bishop, and am sure Josh will remark [on] that as well. In fact, She has been a rock star for the Liberal Party, as a Foreign Minister, and for Twitter and Facebook." (Scott Morrison, Australia, 2018)

As the results show, most of the politicians have avoided frequent employment of attitude markers. This type of marker helps reflect the speaker's point of view and attitude towards the presentation's content. This symbol is also used by the speaker to express his/her feelings, obligations, and concerns (Hyland, 2005). Therefore, we can conclude that speakers have attempted to produce more objective speeches.

If we compare the employment of DMs in the whole corpus (Figure 4.1) and in the focused topic (peace and war), it becomes clear that the politicians use DMs almost to the same extent. Except for hedges, which US presidents avoided completely. Though the employment of hedges was limited overall, considering the high proportion of corpus assigned as referring to peace and war is an indicator of conscious employment of DMs. It means that presidents of US attempted not to seem dubious or hesitated while speaking about sensitive issues like war and peace. Among all the points that are mentioned in speeches, those who refer

to war, peace, foreign relations, and economy seem to be more attractive to the audience. Therefore, while preparing their speech, politicians pay double attention to the word to be chosen.

4.3. Oaths of Office

Earlier, it was said that DMs in official oaths of office failed to reach an acceptable frequency to be analyzed statistically. However, in order to answer the third research question, frequently used discourse markers are mentioned:

-Self-mentions e.g. "I" were used in all oaths of office.

-'Truly' is used as the engagement marker in most of the oaths.

It was attempted to uncover the discursive style and norms employed by the politicians of English speaking countries. The statistical and analytical results support the following conclusions:

Firstly, as the results indicated, engagement markers had the highest rate of employment by the politicians. It shows that politicians have high tendency to engage their audience and create sympathy. On the other hand, hedges have the least frequency between other interactional MDMs which is an indicator of politicians' willingness to seem firm, determined, and resolute. Tending to use less hedges is a common phenomenon in areas beyond political discourse. For example, as Gilleart (2010) showed hedges had minimum frequency in comparison to other DMs in research articles.

Secondly, different cultures' politicians generally employ distinctive metadiscursive tools to convey their ideology. However, some cultures use identical sub-categories in terms of metadiscursive markers. This means that generalizing the political corpus of English speaking countries in terms of interactional MDMs should be avoided in order to reach to an accurate comprehension. These findings are different from Zand Moghaddam and Bikineh's (2014) suggestions that labeled the discursive differences as mere cultural distinctions. Halender's (2014) research also indicated that the politicians of the same countries can employ distinctive discursive language in their speeches.

The findings might help ESP learners understand the culture-specific norms and conventions that exist within the English political domains. Also the study can assist the learners to raise their intercultural understanding of the political genre in English and make them more conscious of metadiscourse and improve practical awareness of its use. It also can assist them to achieve a higher level of understanding in the target language situation.

This study investigated the employment of interactional MDMs in political corpus of seven English speaking countries. Further research is suggested covering more countries and a wider range of corpus on different political topics. Also the reasons of difference in the employment of MDMs, which were shown not to be because of mere cultural differences, can be studied.

References

Abdi, R., Tavangar, M., & Tavakoli, M. (2010). The cooperative principle in discourse communities and genres: A framework for the use of metadiscourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *42*, 1669–1679.

Abdi, R. (2002). Interpersonal metadiscourse: An indicator of interaction and identity. *Discourse Studies*, *4*(2), 139-145.

Amoglobeli, G. (2017). Types of political discourses and their classification. *Journal of Education in Black Sea Region*,*3*(1), 18-24.

Bantawig, R. (2019). The role of discourse markers in the speeches of selected Asian presidents. *Heliyon*, 5(3), 21–38.

Candlin, C., & Hyland, K. (1999). *Writing: Texts, Processes and Practices*. London: Longman, 99-121.

Capadevila, R. (2008). It's not racist. It's common sense: A critical analysis of political discourse around asylum and immigration in the UK. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology, 18*(1), 1-16.

Chen, W. (2018). A critical discourse analysis of Donald Trump's inaugural speech from the perspective of systemic functional grammar. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *8*(8), 966-982.

Crismore, A., Markkanen, R., & Steffensen, M. (1993). Metadiscourse in persuasive writing: A study of texts written by American and Finnish university students. *Written Communication, 10,* 39-71.

Curren,V., Kirby, F., Parsons, E., & Lockyer, J. (2003). Discourse analysis of computer mediated conferences in world wide web-based continuing medical education. *The Journal of Computer-assisted Education, 23*, 222-238.

Dafouz, E. (2008). The pragmatic role of textual and interpersonal MDMs in the construction and attainment of persuasion: A cross-linguistic study of newspaper discourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *40* (1), 95-113.

Esmer, E. (2017). Interpersonal metadiscourse markers in Turkish election rally speeches. *Athens Journal of Social Science*s, *4*(4), 367-384.

Fairclough, N. (2001). Critical discourse analysis as a method in social scientific research. *Methods of Critical Discourse Analysis*, *5*(11), 121-138.

Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analysing Discourse: Textual Analysis for Social Research*. London: Psychology Press.

Gibson, G. (2012). 'I'm not a war monger but…': Discourse analysis and social psychological peace research. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, *22*, 159-173.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Martin, J. R. (2003). *Writing science: Literacy and discursive power*. Oxfordshire: Routledge.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.

Hoffman, H. (1995). *The Triumph of Propaganda: Film and National Socialism*. Oxford: Berghahn Books.

Holmes, J. (1988). Doubt and certainty in ESL text books, *Applied Linguistics*, *9*(1), 21-44.

Hyland, K. (1998a). Boosting, hedging and the negotiation of academic knowledge. TEXT, 18(3), 349-82.

Hyland, K. (1998b). Exploring corporate rhetoric: metadiscourse in the CEO's letter. *Journal of Business Communication*, 35(2), 224-45.

Hyland, K. (1998c). Persuasion and context: The pragmatics of academic metadiscourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 30, 437-55.

Hyland, K. (1999). Talking to students: Metadiscourse in introductory textbooks. *English for Specific Purposes*, *18*(1), 3-26.

Hyland, K. (1999). Academic attribution: Citation and the construction of disciplinary knowledge. *Applied Linguistics, 20*(3), 241-67.

Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary Discourses: Social Interactions in Academic Writing*. London: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2002). Academic argument: Induction or interaction? *Revista Canaria De Estudios Ingleses, 44*, 29-45.

Hyland, K. (2002). Authority and Invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34(8), 1091-1112.

Hyland, K. (2003). *Second Language Writing*. New York: CUP.

Hyland, K. (2004). Disciplinary interactions: Metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *13*, 133-51.

Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and Second Language Writers*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, K. (2005a). A Convincing Argument: Corpus Analysis and Academic Persuasion. *Discourse in the Professions: Perspectives from Corpus Linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Hyland, K. (2005b). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, *6*(2). 110-123.

Hyland, K. (2017). Metadiscourse: What is it and where is it going? *Journal of Pragmatics,* 113, 16-29.

Hyland, K. & Milton, J. (1997). Hedging in L1 and L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 6*(2), 183-206.

Hyland, K. & Tse, P. (2004). Metadiscourse in academic writing: A reappraisal. *Applied Linguistics, 25*(2), 156–77.

Hyland, K. (2019). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing*. London: Bloomsbury Academic.

Ilie, C. (2000). Cliché-based metadiscursive argumentation in the Houses of Parliament. *International journal of applied linguistics*, *10*(1), 65-84.

Jacobs, N. (2001). Information technology in scholarly communication: A discourse analysis. *Journal of American Society for Information Science and Technology*, *52*(13), 1112-1133.

Jalilifar, A. & Savaedi, Y. (2012). They want to eradicate the nation: A cross-linguistic study of the attitudinal language of presidential campaign speeches in the USA and Iran. *Journal of Applied Language Studies*, *4*(2), 59-96.

Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought pattern in intercultural communication. *Journal of Language Learning*, *1*, 1–20.

Koutsantoni, D. (2006) Rhetorical strategies in engineering research articles and research theses: Advanced academic literacy and relations of power. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5, 19-36.

Mahzari, A. & Maftoon, P. (2007). A contrastive study of the introduction section of English and Persian medical research articles. *Iranian Journal of Language Studies, 1* (3), 201-214.

Maier, P. (1992). Politeness strategies in business letters by native and nonnative English speakers. *English for Specific Purposes*, 11, 189-205.

Marandi,S. (2002). *Contrastive EAP rhetoric: Metadiscourse in Persian vs. English.* Unpublished PhD dissertation, University of Tehran.

Markos, M. (2006). *Interaction and Persuasion: An analysis of the use of rhetorical devices in Gordon Brown's speech to the Labour Party Conference*. Unpublished Thesis, Dalarna university.

Martin, J. R. & Rose, D. (2003). *Working with discourse*. London: Continuum.

Mauranen, A. (1993). Contrastive ESP rhetoric: Metatext in Finnish-English Economics texts. *English for Specific Purposes*, *12*, 3-22.

Mc Laren, P. & Mills, A. (Date?) I'd like to thank the academy: An analysis of awards discourse at the Atlantic school of business. *The journal of Administrative Science, 25*, 307-316.

Nickerson, C. (1993). *A Comparative Study of Business Letters Written by Native and Non-Native speakers*. Unpublished M.A. dissertation. Birmingham: University of Birmingham.

Panayirci, U. C. & Isleri, E. (2014). A content analysis of the AKP's "Honorable" foreign policy discourse: The nexus of domestic–international politics, *Turkish studies*, 15 (1). 97-106.

Peterlin, A. P. (2005). Text-organizing metatext in research articles: An English-Slovene contrastive analysis. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24, 307-319.

Punch, K. F. (1998). *Introduction to Social Research: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches*. London: Sage.

Roth,W. & Lucas, K. (1996). From truth to invented reality: A discourse analysis of high school Phsycs student's talk about science knowledge. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 34*(2), 145-179.

Reisigl, M. & Wodak, R. (2001). *Discourse and Discrimination: Rhetorics of Racism and Antisemitism.* London: Routledge.

Schäffner. C. (1997). Discourse and politics. *A Multidiciplinary Introduction*, *2*, 206-30.

Schiffrin, D. (1980). Metatalk: Organizational and evaluative brackets in discourse. *Sociological Inquiry: Language and Social Interaction*, *50*, 199-236.

Sheppard, S. (2009). What oaths meant to the framers' generation: A preliminary sketch. *Cardozo L. Rev. De Novo, 209*, 273–283.

Siami, T. & Abdi, R. (2012). Metadiscourse strategies in Persian research articles: Implications for teaching writing English articles. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning*, *4*(9), 165-176.

Silver, M. (2003). The stance of stance: A critical look at ways stance is expressed and modeled in academic discourse. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 2*(4), 359-374.

Swales, J. (1990). Genre analysis: *English for Specific Purposes in Academic and Research Setting*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tashi, T. (2018). An analysis of interactional metadiscourse in public speaking: A case study in English speeches of the prime minister of Bhutan. *International Journal of Engineering and Technology, 7(*4), 38-60.

Thompson, G. (2001). Interaction in academic writing: Learning to argue with the reader. *Applied Linguistics*, *22*(1), 58-78.

Thompson, G., & Thetela, P. (1995). The sound of one hand clapping: The management of interaction in written discourse. *TEXT, 15*(1), 103-27.

Van Dijk, T., Ting Toomy, S., Smitherman, G., & Troutman, D. (1997). *Discourse, Ethnicity, Culture, and Racism'*, in Teun A. van Dijk (ed), Discourse as Social Action. London: Sage.

Yazadani, S. & Sharifi,S. (2016). Interactional metadiscourse in English and Persian news articles about 9/11. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, *4*(2), 424-438.

Zand Moghadddam, A., & Bikineh, L. (2014). Discourse markers in Political interviews: A contrastive study of Persian and English. *International Journal of Society*, *Culture and Language*, *3*(2), 27-60.