METADISCOURSE VARIATIONS IN SOME ZAMBIAN FEMALE AND MALE WRITTEN DISCOURSES ON POLITICAL MATTERS: THE CASE OF *POST* NEWSPAPER OPINION ARTICLES

By

Nelia Chipeta

A dissertation submitted to the University of Zambia in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Linguistic Science

The University of Zambia

Lusaka

2021

DECLARATION

I, Nelia Chipeta, declare that the work contained in this dissertation:

(a) Represents my own work;

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This dissertation of Nelia Chipeta has been approved as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in Linguistic Science by the University of Zambia.

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ABSTRACT

This study sought to investigate variations in the use of metadiscourse (MD) markers between females and males in *Post* newspaper opinion articles on political matters. Specifically, the study compared the frequencies of interactive MD markers as well as interactional MD markers used by females and males in their opinion articles. Additionally, it described the interactive MD markers and interactional metadiscourse markers that were unique to females and males in the articles. A mixed methods approach was employed in the collection and analysis of data. Maximum variation technique was used to sample a total of 150 articles (75 written by females and 75 written by males) published in *Post* newspaper during the period 2011 to 2015. They were collected from National Archives of Zambia by using a phone camera and later printed out in word format to constitute a corpus of 120 000 words (60 000 words from female articles and 60 000 words from male articles).

The results revealed that there were variations in the use of interactive MD markers and interactional MD markers between females and males. At the overall level of MD, out of the 5241 interactive MD markers and 5553 interactional MD markers present in the corpus, males used 2,734 and 2,784 respectively while females used 2507 and 2769 respectively. In the subcategories of MD, the results showed that females used more interactive MD markers such as code glosses (exemplification), frame markers (topic shift), and transition markers (causation, comparison, contradiction and consequence) than males. Similarly, females used more interactional MD markers such as hedges than males. Additionally, tests run using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 to determine whether these variations were statistically significant or not revealed that some variations were statistically significant while others were not. Furthermore, the study confirmed that some markers were unique to female and male writers in the interactive and interactional categories. In spite of these variations, females and males showed more similarities than differences in the use of MD markers in their articles.

Thus, the study concludes that although gender seems to be an important variable in the use of MD markers, especially in the subcategories, it is not the only factor influencing the variations in the use of these markers as the genre of a newspaper opinion article, the culture of the writers as well as the writers' personal writing styles or preferences also seem to influence the choice of MD markers. Thus, the study recommends a genre-specific approach to the use of MD resources for pedagogical purposes to ensure the production of texts with appropriate metadiscourse usage.

Key words: Metadiscourse, *Post* newspaper, opinion articles, political matters

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my beloved family.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYNMS

MDs	metadiscourse Markers
MD	Metadiscourse
M	Male
F	Female
n	Total Number
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
x^2	Chi square
SD	Standard Deviation
df	Degrees of freedom
p	p- value (probabiity value)
M	mean
t	t-value
Ho1	First Null hypothesis
Ho2	Second null hypothesis
Ha1	First alternative hypothesis
Ha2	Second alternative hypothesis
MMD	Movement for Multi-party Democracy
UPND	United Party for National Development
PF	Patriotic Front
Govt	government

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter introduces the study: 'Metadiscourse Variations in some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters: the case of *Post* newspaper opinion articles.' It commences with the introduction and background to the study after which the statement of the problem, the aim of the study, the objectives of the study, the research questions of the study, the rationale, the methodological framework, the scope, the limitations of the study and the structure of the dissertation are presented. The chapter ends with a summary.

1.1. Introduction/Background of the Study

Writing is an integral part of our lives. The goal of writing is to communicate thoughts and ideas to readers; thus, the written language serves a very important function in writing in general and the writing of newspaper opinion articles on political matters in particular in that it enables interaction to take place between the writer and the reader within the written text. Hyland and Tse (2004, p.156) refer to this interaction as 'communicative engagement.' According to them, communicative engagement 'helps the writer to communicate not only the information but also attitudes and assumptions on the information being communicated' (Hyland and Tse 2004, p.156). This means that a writer cannot afford to be entirely voiceless and impersonal when writing if his or her goal is to communicate as effectively as intended. On the contrary, he or she should carefully and purposefully select linguistic devices that foster the communication of both the message and its intended interpretation. Hyland calls such devices as metadiscourse markers.

1.1.1. An Overview of Metadiscourse Markers

Metadiscourse markers are 'expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community' (Hyland 2005a, p.37). They are used by writers to organise their discourse and express their stance about the content or the reader (Hyland, 2005). Hyland classifies these markers into two broad categories according to their functions; that is, the interactive metadiscourse category and the interactional metadiscourse category. The former is more concerned about the organisation of the text in order to aid the reader's comprehension while the latter is more concerned about expressing the writer's attitude towards his or her propositions as well as his or her readers.

Metadiscourse markers, therefore, play a very significant role in writing and should be used by writers regardless of their gender. However, claims have been made over the years that the gender of a writer does influence the choice of linguistic devices used in writing or speaking as males and females tend to exhibit variations when expressing themselves whether in written or spoken discourses (Lakoff, 1975; Tse and Hyland, 2008; Waskita, 2008; Matei, 2011; Subon, 2013 and Shirzad and Jamali, 2013; Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi, 2015; Saadi, 2016 and Pasaribu 2017; and others). A wealth of studies has been done to refute or support this claim using different types of corpora; unfortunately, findings have been conflicting. Additionally, not many studies have attempted to use newspaper opinion articles on political matters especially those written by Zambians hence this study.

1.1.2. An Overview of Males' and Females' Use of Language

Jesperson (1922) is probably one of the earliest studies on men's language. According to him, men use slang, more vernacular forms and use language to defend and establish their personal status and ideas. However, the latest studies on male and female language use dates back as far as the 1970s when Robin Lakoff wrote an article entitled *Language and Women's Place* which was later published as a book in 1975. It triggered decades of debates and research on language and gender (Sunderland, 2006). In this article, Lakoff argued that 'women's language is a distinctive feminine register that is different from men's language and shows up in all levels of the grammar of English (Lakoff 1975, p.45). In her view, this language is characterised by specific features such as the use of overly polite forms, tag questions, avoidance of expletives, great use of diminutives and euphemisms, use of more hedges and mitigating devices and the use of particular vocabulary items such as empty adjectives: *adorable, charming, sweet*, and others.

 Lakoff's article spurred linguists on to conduct empirical studies in order to explore and explain claims that males and females speak and write differently. To do this, different corpora have been used; some of which include: higher education written examinations and academic writing, media discourses such as news articles, editorials, and opinion articles (Baron, 2010). The studies have explored variations in the use of several linguistic elements by male and female writers; among them are metadiscourse markers (Sunderland, 2006).

1.1.3. An Overview of the Use of English Language in Media Discourses in Zambia

English language has been used in media discourses as way back as the colonial period when Zambia was called Northern Rhodesia (Ohanesian and Kashoki, 1978). A countable number of newspapers were trending then with the *Livingstone Pioneer and Advertiser* being one of the first

newspapers. It was started in 1902 by William Trayner of Livingstone. Others included: *Livingstone Mail*, *The Northern Rhodesia Journal*, *The Copperbelt Times* and *Advertiser* among others (https://www.history state .gov.//zambiarchives.org).

Up to 2016, the major newspapers in Zambia were: *The Post*, *Times of Zambia* and *Zambian Daily Mail* (https://www.historystate.gov.//zambiarchives.org). However, Zambia has experienced growth in the print media resulting in the emergence of other newspapers and online blogs such as: *Lusaka times, Zambian Watch dog, News diggers, Daily Nation, The Mast, New Vision*, *Kachepa,* and *The Globe Newspaper Zambia*, to mention but a few, coming on board (https://www.zambianobserver.com).

The foregoing evidently shows that the use of English language is crucial in print media discourses in Zambia, hence the need for more studies to be conducted using this type of corpus in order to understand how interactions are managed in this type of discourse so that new knowledge can be contributed to the existing body of knowledge on the use of language by female and male writers.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Research conducted by linguists such as Lakoff (1975), Tse and Hyland (2008) Waskita (2008), Matei (2011),Subon (2013) and Shirzad and Jamali (2013), Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi (2015), Saadi, (2016), Pasaribu (2017) and others suggests that women and men tend to show some marked or clearly noticeable variations when expressing themselves whether in written or spoken discourses. Some empirical studies have confirmed these claims while others have refuted them. Despite the conflicting findings in this field, very little research has been given to metadiscourse variations in discourses produced by users of English in a Zambian context in general and written discourses involving newspaper opinion articles on political matters written by female

and male Zambians in particular. Hence, we do not know whether Zambian female and male writers also tend to show marked or clearly noticeable metadiscourse variations in their written discourses involving newspaper opinion articles on political matters. Stated as a question, the problem of this study was: are there marked or clearly noticeable metadiscourse variations in the written discourses of some Zambian female and male writers on political matters in the *Post* newspaper opinion articles?

1.3. Aim of the Study

The aim of the present study was to investigate metadiscourse variations in some female and male written discourses on political matters in the *Post* newspaper opinion articles.

1.4. Objectives

The study was guided by the following objectives:

(i) To compare the frequency of the instances of interactive metadiscourse markers in some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in the *Post* newspaper opinion articles.

(ii) To compare the frequency of the instances of interactional metadiscourse markers in some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in the *Post* newspaper opinion articles.

(iii). To describe variations in the instances of interactive metadiscourse markers that are unique to some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in the *Post* newspaper opinion articles.

(iv) To describe variations in the instances of interactional metadiscourse markers that are unique to some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in the *Post* newspaper opinion articles

1.5. Research Questions

The study sought to answer the following questions:

(i) What are the variations in the frequency of the instances of interactive metadiscourse markers in some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles?

(ii) What are the variations in the frequency of the instances of interactional metadiscourse markers in some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles?

(iii) What instances of interactive metadiscourse markers can be considered to be unique to some Zambian female and written discourses?

(iv)What instances of interactional metadiscourse markers can be considered to be unique to some Zambian female and written discourses?

1.6. Research Hypotheses

In order to answer research questions one (i) and (ii) which constitute the quantitative part of the study, the following hypotheses were formulated and tested at 0.05 level of significance:

Ho1: There is no significant difference between gender and the use of interactive metadiscourse markers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles on political matters.

Ho2: There is no significant difference between gender and the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles on political matters.

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Ha1: There is a significant difference between gender and the use of interactive metadiscourse markers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles on political matters.

Ha2: There is a significant difference between gender and the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles on political matters.

1.7. Rationale

The study had both theoretical and practical justification. The theoretical significance of this study was that it would provide evidence that could be used to refute and/or support the findings of previous research which revealed that females and males tend to show marked variations in the way they express themselves in written or spoken discourses. Thus, it was hoped that it would contribute to the body of knowledge in the wide field of language and gender studies and discourse analysis in general and the concept of metadiscourse and media discourse in particular.

The practical justification of the present study was that its findings would have pedagogical implications in that it would act as an eye opener: firstly, to curriculum developers on how best to design curricular for learning institutions at all levels on communication skills in general and media studies in particular; secondly, to educators at all levels on how to impart relevant knowledge on the use of metadiscourse markers to their learners and thirdly, to learners at all levels on how to effectively deploy metadiscourse resources in their writing in general and newspaper opinion article writing in particular.

1.8. Methodological Framework

This study employed a mixed methods design: both the qualitative and quantitative approaches were used in the collection and analysis of data.

A comprehensive description of the research procedures and techniques employed in the study is presented in Chapter Three.

1.9. Scope

The present study only focused on metadiscourse variations in discourses produced by some Zambian female and male writers in the *Post* newspaper opinion articles on political matters. It is purely a linguistic and not gender study. Hence it did not focus on variations in the portrayal of females and males or the topics that females and males prefer writing on in the newspaper opinion articles on political matters *Post* newspaper.

1.10. Limitations

The results of the present study may not be generalised to other situations owing to the limited sample size as well as the corpus used.

1.11. Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation is divided into six chapters. Chapter one serves as an introduction to the study in which the background, aim, objectives, research questions, rationale, methodological framework employed, scope and limitations are presented. Chapter two presents the theoretical and analytical frameworks that have informed the present study while chapter three discusses the literature that is relevant to the study. Chapter four outlines and discusses the methodology that the study employed in data collection and data analysis. Chapter five presents the quantitative and qualitative results of the various investigations of the study and chapter six discusses these findings in detail. Additionally, chapter six gives the implications of the study, the conclusions drawn from it and makes recommendations for pedagogy and future study.

1.12. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter served as an introduction to the study: 'Metadiscourse Variations in Some Zambian Female and Male Written Discourses on Political Matters: the Case of *Post* Newspaper Opinion Articles'. Hence, it gave its background information after which the statement of the problem, the aim, the objectives, the research questions, the rationale, the methodological framework, the scope and the limitations of the study were presented. The chapter ended with a presentation of the structure of the dissertation.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL AND ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

2.0. Overview

The previous chapter introduced the present study: the background information, the statement of the problem, the aim, the objectives, the research questions, the rationale, the methodological framework, the scope and the limitations of the study were presented then a summary of the chapter and the structure of the dissertation were given. This chapter discusses the theoretical and analytical frameworks that informed the present study. It begins by giving an overview of the theory of metadiscourse; thereafter it presents the definitions of the term metadiscourse as viewed by different scholars before discussing the theory of metadiscourse in detail. After this, Hyland's model of metadiscourse which the present study has adopted as its analytical framework is presented. The chapter ends with a summary.

2.1. The Theory of Metadiscourse

2.1.1. Overview

The term metadiscourse was originally introduced by a structural linguist Zelig Harris in 1959. Nonetheless, it only gained its popularity in applied linguistics in the mid 1980s with the pioneering works of Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore (1989) and Williams (1981).Metadiscourse is a concept based on a view that writing is not a mere exchange of information of various kinds but a social engagement between writers and readers; or speakers and listeners (Hyland, 2005a). The underlying argument about the concept of metadiscourse is that writing is not all about text production but assessment of the readers' or listeners' resources for understanding the text being produced in order to engage them effectively by organising the text and commenting on it in such a way that it can be understood as intended by the text producer.

2.1.2 Definitions of Metadiscourse

In order to appreciate the theory of metadiscourse adopted for the present study, it is imperative that a brief survey of how the term 'metadiscourse' has been defined by different scholars is given. According to Vande Kopple (1985) metadiscourse is writing that signals the presence of the author and that focuses on the speech acts. On the other hand, Williams (1981, p. 226), states that 'metadiscourse is writing about writing, whatever does not refer to the subject matter being addressed'. According to him, this includes all connective devices, all comments about the author's attitude, all the comments about the writer's confidence, and references to the audience. Crismore *et al*., (1993, p.40), defines metadiscourse as linguistic material that does not add to the propositional content of the text but it is intended to help the listener or reader organise, interpret, and evaluate the information given. Hyland & Tse (2004, p.156)consider metadiscourse as an umbrella term encompassing a range of devices used by writers to organise their text, engage their readers and signal their attitudes to their text and their audience.

Hyland, found these definitions quite fuzzy. He argued that these earlier studies viewed "texts as largely propositional and expository, merely serving to convey propositional content" (Hyland, 2015, p.1); consequently, he defined metadiscourse as 'the cover term for the self reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community' (Hyland, 2013, p. 65). This definition of metadiscourse is what the present study has adopted because it is considered to be quite encompassing where text production and consumption is concerned hence was considered suitable for providing guidance in the data collection procedure.

2.1.3. Hyland's Theory of Metadiscourse

The present study was informed by Ken Hyland's theory of metadiscourse which was developed in 2005. It 'grew out of the pioneering work of Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore, (1989), and others. This theory was found suitable for the present study because it balances earlier views of discourse that saw texts as largely propositional and expository, merely serving to convey propositional content' (Hyland 2015, p. 1). As seen in his definition of metadiscourse above, Hyland (2005) postulates that metadiscourse does not only serve to convey propositional content but also aims at engaging readers or hearers in a text. This means that when a writer produces a text, he or she has the reader in mind; that is, to aid his or her comprehension of the text by organising it in such a way that it is a coherent piece by using text-organising devices such as frame markers, transition markers, and so on. Additionally, and perhaps most importantly, the writer chooses metadiscourse markers carefully in order to engage readers in the text so that they can comprehend and appreciate the information in the text the way the writer intends.

Arising from this conceptualisation of metadiscourse, Hyland sub-divided metadiscourse into two dimensions: **interactive** and **interactional** dimensions. **Interactive** elements are features of a text that index the assumptions a writer makes about his/her reader while the **interactional** refers to expressions of the writer's position and stance, and therefore, is an expression of 'the writer's voice or community based personality' (Hyland, 2005a); meaning that, the interactive features of a text are concerned more about the organisation of the text while the interactional features are concerned more about expressing attitudes towards the text.

Since the present study's corpus were newspaper opinion articles on political matters, this theory was found suitable in the identification of both interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in the newspaper articles.

2.2. Analytical Framework

2.2.1. Hyland's (2005) Model of Metadiscourse

In view of the theoretical position on metadiscourse discussed above, Hyland designed a two-dimensional model for analysing metadiscourse in texts which this study found appropriate and adopted in the collection and analysis of data because it considers both the interactive and interactional nature of texts. This approach is particularly productive in the analysis of newspaper opinion articles on political matters as discourse here does not merely end at conveying propositional information but also directing the reader to understand the discourse in the way the writer deems it fit. Table 1 below shows an outline of the interactive and interactional dimensions of Hyland's Model of metadiscourse.

Table 1: Hyland's (2005) Model of Metadiscourse

Dimension	Function	Examples
Interactive	help to guide the reader through the text	Resources
Transitions	express relations between main clauses	in addition: but; thus; and
Frame markers	Refer to discourse acts , sequences or stages	Finally; to conclude; my purpose is
Endophoric markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above; see fig. in section 2,
Evidential	refer to information from other texts	according to X; Z states;
Code glosses	elaborate propositional meanings	namely, e.g. such as, in other words, etc.
Interactional	involve the reader in the text	Resources

Hedges	withhold commitment and open dialogue	might; perhaps; possible; about
Boosters	emphasize certainty and close dialogue	in fact; definitely; it is clear that
Attitude markers	express writer's attitude to proposition	unfortunate; surprisingly; I agree
Self-mentions	explicit reference to author(s)	I; we; my; me; our
Engagement markers	explicitly build relationship with reader	Consider; note; you; you can see that

2.2.1.1. The Interactive Dimension

These features are used to organize propositional information in ways that a projected target audience is likely to find coherent and convincing. Hyland classifies interactive resources into five broad sub-categories (Hyland, 2005) and these are:

2.2.1.1.1. Transition markers

Transitional markers are mainly conjunctions and adverbial phrases. The function of these is to help the reader to interpret pragmatic connections between steps in an argument. They signal additive, causative and contrastive relations in the writer's thinking. Additionally, they express relationships between stretches of discourse (Hyland, 2005). Table 2 below shows the discourse roles played by transitional markers:

Table 2: Discourse Roles Played by Transitional Markers

Transitional markers	Examples
Addition	And; furthermore; moreover; by the way; in addition; etc.
Causation	Because, for this reason,
Comparison	Similarly; likewise; equally; in the same way correspondingly; etc.
Consequence	Thus; therefore; consequently; etc
Contradiction	However, nevertheless, on the contrary, etc.

(Hyland, 2005 p.50)

2.2.1.1.2. Frame markers

These signal text boundaries or schematic text structure. Their function is to sequence, label predict and shift argument in a discourse thereby making it clearer to readers and listeners. Frame markers also sequence parts of text and order an argument internally. Table 3 below illustrates the discourse roles played by frame markers:

Table 3: Discourse Roles Played by Frame Markers

Frame markers	Examples
Sequence	first; then; next; at the same time
Labeling text stages	to summarize; in sum; by way of introduction; etc.
Announcing discourse goals	I agree; here, my purpose is; the paper proposes; I hope to persuade; etc.
Indicating topic shifts	well; okay; let us return to; no; etc

(Hyland, 2005)

2.2.1.1.3. Endophoric markers

These refer to other parts of the text; for example: noted above, refer to the next section; etc. Endophoric markers aid the reader to recover the writer's meanings hence aiding his or her comprehension. Additionally, endophoric markers support arguments by referring to earlier material or material yet to come. The writer also uses endophoric markers to guide the reader through the discussion; this steers them to a preferred interpretation or reading of the discourse (Hyland, 2005 p.51).

2.2.1.1.4. Evidentials

Evidentials are linguistic markers which guide the reader's interpretation of a text. They establish an authorial command of the subject; for example, quoting a reliable source to provide support for arguments. In addition, evidentials distinguish who is responsible for the position in a text (Hyland, 2005).

2.2.1.1.5. Code glosses

These assist the writer to give additional information on the subject by elaborating, explaining or rephrasing to ensure that the reader recovers his intended meaning (Hyland, 2005).

2.2.1.2. Interactional Dimension

This is an interpersonal model which is concerned with 'the writer's efforts to control the level of personality in a text and establish a suitable relationship to his or her data, arguments and audience, marking the degree of intimacy, the expression of attitude, the communication of commitments, and the extent of reader involvement'(Yipei, 2013 p.4). Interactional resources focus on participants of the interaction and display the writer's persona and tenor consistent with community norms. They include the following categories:

2.2.1.2.1. Hedges

These mark the writer's reluctance to present propositional information categorically. For instance: might, perhaps, probably, etc. (Hyland, 2005)

2.2.1.2.2. Boosters

Unlike hedges, these markers help the writer to express certainty and emphasize the force of propositions. For example: in fact, definitely, it is clear that, and so on.

2.2.1.2.3. Attitude markers

These express the writer's appraisal of propositional information, conveying surprise, obligation, agreement, importance and so on (Tse & Hyland, 2008).

2.2.1.2.4. Engagement markers

Engagement markers explicitly address readers, either by selectively focusing their attention or by including them as participants in the text through second person pronouns and possessives such as *you, your, yours,* and so on

2.2.1.2.5. Self-mentions

These markers express the extent of the presence of the writer in terms of first person pronouns and possessives such as: *I, me, my, our, we a*nd so on

2.3. Summary

This chapter presented the theoretical framework which informed the present study. Also the analytical framework which was used in the identification and analysis of metadiscourse markers was presented. The next chapter will discuss some of the existing literature that are considered relevant to the present study under the following subheadings: studies on metadiscourse in Zambia, studies on metadiscourse and gender variations in writing in general, and studies on metadiscourse and gender variations in newspaper opinion articles.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.0 Overview

The previous chapter presented the theoretical and analytical framework which informed the present study. This chapter discusses some of the existing literature that is considered relevant and significant to the present study in helping situate it in the Zambian context and also to provide justification for it. The literature has been discussed under the following subheadings: studies on metadiscourse in Zambia, studies on metadiscourse in written discourses in general, studies on metadiscourse and gender variations in written discourses in general and studies on metadiscourse variations in female and male discourses in newspaper opinion articles. A summary of the chapter is given at the end of it.

3.1. Studies on Metadiscourse in Zambia

While there is a wealth of studies on metadiscourse worldwide, a survey of existing literature has revealed that there is very little research that has been done in Zambia on metadiscourse in general and metadiscourse variations in female and male written discourses, particularly discourses involving newspaper opinion articles on political matters. Hence, in order to situate and provide justification for the present study, it was found appropriate for this literature review to discuss those studies that are quite related to it although they are not necessarily on metadiscourse but are grounded in discourse analysis. These studies include: Mumbi (2017), Mwiinga (2015), Njobvu (2010) and Simwinga (1992).

Mumbi (2017) investigated proficiency in the use of discourse markers in the written pieces of composition produced by a sample of Grade Twelve learners of English as a second language from selected secondary schools in Zambia. The aim of the study was to establish proficiency in the use of discourse markers by the participants in order to determine the extent to which such use enhanced discourse coherence. The findings indicated that participants had the awareness of the relevance of discourse markers in facilitating discourse coherence and comprehensibility. Additionally, it revealed evidence of insufficient proficiency in the use of discourse markers by participants on account of both limited and inappropriate use. Also, the study revealed that while the use of discourse markers is necessary for discourse coherence and comprehensibility, it might not be sufficient as other aspects of writing such as vocabulary selection and grammar play a significant role (Mumbi, 2017).

Njobvu (2010) investigated the relationship between thematic progression and English discourse coherence. The corpus for her study was obtained from pieces of discourse produced by selected University of Zambia undergraduate students. The findings showed evidence of discourse coherence in scripts which adhered to the application of the coherence-enhancing thematic progression patterns and lack of coherence in those which had applied other patterns. This outcome, according to Njobvu (2010) was in line with Halliday and Hasan (1976), Halliday (1978, 1985) and Dowing (2001) who espoused that thematic progression is important in achieving discourse coherence and Danes(1974) that adherence to certain theme /rheme patterns enhances discourse coherence while non-adherence obscures it.

Simwinga (1992) studied the relationship between cohesion and coherence in written English texts produced by selected University of Zambia undergraduate students. The study investigated whether or not there was any association between cohesive density scores and cohesive harmony index score in the examined scripts. The findings of this study revealed the existence of a weak and non-causal relationship between cohesion and coherence in English (Simwinga, 1992).

As can evidently be seen, the above studies do not address metadiscourse variations in written discourses of Zambian female and male writers of newspaper opinion articles on political matters. Additionally, they by no means analyse texts using Hyland's model of metadiscourse. Further, the corpus that constituted the samples of these studies was obtained from academic and not journalistic discourses which involved texts written by secondary and university students and not professionals. Hence, although they are grounded in discourse analysis, their focus is only on devices that enhance cohesion and coherence of the text which in Hyland's model of metadiscourse only encamps the interactive dimension of metadiscourse. This means that in their analysis of texts, the above studies left out the interactional dimension of metadiscourse which the present study addressed in addition to the interactive dimension.

Although these studies are not grounded in metadiscourse, they were considered relevant for inclusion to the present study's literature review as they are useful for the purposes of situating the study in the Zambian context primarily because they are studies in discourse analysis.

Another study that was worth including to this literature review was Mwiinga (2015) who examined the discoursal features of the parliamentary debate session of 15th March, 2013 in

which the immunity of the Fourth Republican President of Zambia was lifted. The purpose of the study was to establish the ideological implications of discoursal features of parliamentary debate on the lifting of the immunity of the Fourth Republican President of Zambia. The findings indicated that the rhetorical structure of the arguments of the parliamentary debates follows a particular sequence and that the discourse of individual members of parliament is reasonable as well as persuasive. Also, the idea of the relationship between the discursive event and discursive structure was established. Further, the study demonstrated that the debate was characterised by unequal power relations with the members of the ruling party enjoying more freedom than those of the opposition.

Even though Mwiinga (2015) and the present study are grounded in discourse analysis; they differ in that the former used spoken discourse as corpus while the latter used written discourse as corpus. Nevertheless, this study was included in this review as it gave us an insight into political discourse, which the present study used as corpus.

All in all, the above literature was included in this review in order to show the gap that they leave in the existing body of knowledge especially in the Zambia context.

3.2. Studies on Metadiscourse in Written Discourses in General

Although studies on metadiscourse seem to be very few in Zambia, literature has shown that this concept has been studied extensively over the years in other parts of the world. However, the focus of most of these studies has not been on metadiscourse variations in females' and males' written discourses in form of newspaper opinion articles on political matters but on metadiscourse in academic writing. These, among many others, include: Hussein, et al. (2018)

who explored metadiscourse markers in master thesis abstracts written by American and Iraqi English students; Liu (2017) who studied interactional metadiscourse in English abstracts of Chinese economics research articles; Ramoroka (2016) who investigated interactional metadiscourse features in texts written by undergraduate students at the University of Bostwana; Dontcheva (2016) who compared cross-cultural variation in the use of hedges and boosters in academic discourse; (Haufiku, 2016) who examined hedging and boosting devices used in academic discourse by Master of Art students of English language; Gholami (2016) who focused on metadiscourse markers in biological research articles; Jalilifar (2010,2012) who explored metadiscourse variations in the discussion sections of articles written by Persian and English writers; and, hedges and boosters in televised Iranian and American presidential debates respectively; Sultan (2011) who focused on metadiscourse in English and Arabic Linguistics Research Articles; and Cao (2011) who investigated the use of metadiscourse devices in academic article abstracts.

Despite not focusing on opinion articles in *Post* newspaper of Zambia, the above studies were included in the literature review because they informed the present study in that they provided a platform on which the findings of the present study would be interpreted. Also, these studies were considered to be important in situating new insights that might emerge from the present study in the light of what was already known.

3.3. Studies on Metadiscourse and Gender Variations in Written Discourses in General

Literature also revealed that there are some studies on metadiscourse that have departed from only applying metadiscourse in academic discourses in general, by also focusing on metadiscourse variations between females and males in spoken and written discourses. Tse and

Hyland (2008) is one such study which focused on gender and metadiscourse variations in written discourses. It studied 56 reviews of single-authored academic books and interviews with academies from Philosophy and Biology. The results showed gender variations in both disciplines. More interactive features were used by female philosophers than male. They used transition markers heavily. The male, on the other hand used more engagement markers and boosters. In Biology, there were broad gender differences found with males using more transition markers, hedges, boosters and code glosses while females used slightly more self-mentions and attitudinal lexis. The study concluded that there is no one to one relation between gender and language (Tse and Hyland, 2008).

Yaganeh & Ghoreyshi (2015) also studied the role of gender differences in the application of metadiscourse markers in abstract and discussion sections of articles written in English by native speakers of Persian. They conducted a comparative study to probe into the frequency of hedge and booster in these two sections. To do so, 40 English research articles written by native speakers of Persian were randomly chosen. 20 were written by males and 20 were written by females. Hyland's theory of metadiscourse and his model of analytical framework were adopted in the identification of the list of hedges and boosters. To explore differences in how the researchers applied hedges and boosters in their academic writing, all the abstract and discussion sections were gathered in two separated word documents for both male and female. More than 16,000 words were computed on each word document. Then they were counted through word finding application and then to ensure the correctness of the function of these words they were scrutinised manually. Then, the collected data were inputted into SPSS software and the frequency and Chi-square were run (Yaghaneh & Ghoreysh 2015, p.688).

The results revealed that gender differences played a significant role on the utilisation of metadiscourse devices in the articles. It was also found that Iranian males were more inclined to use boosters in their academic writing while Iranian females preferred to use more hedges to express the information they supplied.

As can be seen, Yaganeh & Ghoreyshi (2015) left a gap in literature on metadiscourse; in that they did not address gender variations in the use all the categories of metadiscourse as outlined by Hyland (2005), as their focus was only on two subcategories of the interactional category; namely, hedges and boosters. This study, on the other hand, in addition to investigating hedges and boosters, investigated gender variations in attitude markers, self-mentions and engagement markers as well as the interactive category which comprises transition markers, evidentials, endophoric markers, frame markers and code glosses.

The other gap we see in Ghoreysh & Yaganeh's study is consistent with the other studies that we have incorporated in this literature review is that the corpus for their study was not constituted from media discourses but academic discourses.

Although this study focused on metadiscourse variations in female and male discourses in abstracts and discussion sections of academic essays and not newspaper opinion articles on political matters, it was considered relevant to this study because it served as a motivation for investigating these differences further in newspaper opinion articles on political matters.

All in all, Yaganeh & Ghoreyshi (2015) is relevant to the present study in that it has informed it on what variations females and males exhibit in the use boosters and hedges in written discourses in form of academic essays. The present study, however, sought to investigate metadiscourse in newspaper opinion articles, and not academic essays, written by Zambians on political matters in a Zambian context in order refute and /or support the findings of their study as regards hedge and booster usage.

Another study similar to Yaganeh & Ghoreyshi (2015) is Pasaribu (2017) which investigated metadiscourse markers in academic essays written by male and female students. It involved 40 essays (20 written by female students and 20 written by male students) which were randomly selected. Hyland (2005) model of metadiscourse was applied as the analytical framework. A descriptive qualitative approach was used in data analysis. Both figures and numbers were explained through verbal means. The study revealed that both male and female writers employed more interactive markers than interactional markers, that is, both inserted transitional markers frequently to guide readers through the texts. Female students used more metadiscourse markers in interactional subcategories while male writers personalised their essays by using self-mentions contrary to claims that women prefer to use more personalised style. The reason for this was attributed to the field from which the essays were taken and not gender. To add on, findings indicated that gender is not the only factor influencing the use of metadiscourse markers; there are other variables such as genre of the text, age, culture and others.

Although Pasaribu's study is not on media but academic discourse, it is relevant to the present study in that its findings indicate that gender could not be the only factor influencing the use of metadiscourse. Other variables such as the genre of the text, age, culture and others are

considered to be contributing factors. However, this study still left one question unanswered, that is, whether gender variations in the use of metadiscourse markers would still arise where a homogeneous genre, culture and relatively same age and educational backgrounds of writers were used. The present study, therefore, was crucial for refuting or supporting these findings.

Cayago (2018) studied the similarities and differences in gender preferences in the use of rhetorical structure and metadiscourse in argumentative essays written by Grade Ten Filipino students 105 essays were analyzed using Hyland's Interpersonal Frameworks on metadiscourse (2005) and Argumentative Rhetorical Structure (1990). The results revealed that devices, stages and moves espoused by young Filipino male and female writers were mostly specified by a writer-responsible and reader friendly orientation founded on social expectations. Both genders' linguistic preferences displayed inclination of writer's assimilation to readers interpersonal, tenor, politeness and indirectness which are all a cultural imprint of the contrastive rhetoric observed among Filipinos (Cayago, 2018).

The above studies were included in this literature review for the reason that they were instrumental in informing the present study about variations in metadiscourse between female and male writers' discourses; and exposing the gap that exists in this field of discourse analysis.

3.4. Studies on Metadiscourse in Media Discourses

A survey of existing literature revealed a fair number of studies on the language of media discourse that have been studied over the years. Jucker (1992, p. 25) postulates that newspaper language is 'a variety to the extent that it has linguistic features that distinguish it from other varieties. It is obviously part of the larger variety of media language as a whole and on a

different level; it is part of the written language.' Bell (1983, 1991) studied the influence of the linguistic choices of the author on the audience. Kress (1983) explained the possibility of manipulating readers by choosing the appropriate linguistic variants.

O'Donnell and Todd (1980) made a stylistic comparison of some prominent linguistic features between *The Guardian* and *the Daily Mirror* newspapers. Their findings showed that the headlines in *The Guardian* tended to avoid finite verbs, where as *the Daily* avoided finite verbs altogether in its headlines.

Carter (1988) focused on the features of the vocabulary in British newspaper language. He studied the front page article of Daily Mail on the Labour leader Neil Kinnok. His findings showed that there were shortcomings and deviations in this article as regards the use of core and non-core vocabulary.

Murphy (2005) examined the frequency of certain linguistic features in two comparable corpora of English and Italian opinion articles on the 199 Kosovo crisis. The analysis investigated the lexical grammatical markers of attribution such as the use of first person verbs and impersonal structures with evaluative functions, adverbs of stance and reporting markers. The findings of the study showed that English opinion articles were much more explicitly personal and encouraged suspicion in the reader than Italian articles. They also indicated that English articles appeared to encourage a critical view and an attitude of debate in the reader, while the Italian articles tended to dictate more the way things should stand or should be read.

The above literature was included in this review for the purpose of situating the present study and justifying it in that while all of them are studies in media discourse, like the present study, none of them focused on metadiscourse variations in female and male discourses in form of newspaper opinion articles on political matters in a Zambian context. Thus a knowledge gap was seen to exist in media discourse in this regard.

3.5. Studies on Metadiscourse Variations in Female and Male Written Discourses in Newspaper Opinion Articles

Studies that are of direct relevance to the present study are those on metadiscourse variations in female and male discourses in newspaper opinion articles on political matters. Unfortunately, literature revealed that such studies are not numerous especially in Zambia. However, the following are some of the studies that have been conducted in this field:

Alsubhi (2016) investigated gender and metadiscourse in written media texts by analysing a corpus of British and Saudi newspaper opinion columns. The aim of the study was to investigate gender differences in opinion writings of men and women columnists in order to identify which metadiscourse category predominated in this type of newspaper discourse and how they were distributed according to cross-cultural preferences. Corpus linguistics techniques were used to investigate gender differences in the opinion writings of men and women columnists regarding their use of metadiscourse and selected linguistic and stylistic features (Alsubhi, 2016).
Hyland's (2005) model of metadiscourse was used as a framework for analysis of the 273,773 words of column metadiscourse tokens in the corpus, an average of 105.49 occurrences per opinion column or 3 elements of metadiscourse in every 25 words in each of the two corpora (Alsubhi, 2016).

The results showed that men and women showed more similarities than differences in their overall use of metadiscourse especially in the interactive dimensions. However, significant gender based variations among columnists were also found., that is, female columnists used more self-mentions, engagement markers, more adjectives, more pronouns and more adverbs than their male counterparts. Females also tended to adopt a personalised, engaging, subjective style that relied on personal experiences in their writing about domesticity and family concerns.

Male columnists used more hedges, verbs, numerical terms, swear words, articles and prepositions. Men also tended to adopt a more factual informative style and provided more verifiable information to support their arguments in their texts. Male's topics were centred on politics, economics, education, sports and other masculine topics.

Statistically, significant variations in the amount of metadiscourse were reported. Further, the study revealed that metadiscourse is a useful concept in the journalistic discourse of opinion columns because through its devices, it helps to expose the presence of a writer, organise the text, facilitate communication, aid comprehension and allow the writer to build a relationship with the readers (Alsubhi, 2016).

The study concluded that gender is a significant source of variation that influences the linguistic and stylistic choices of opinion columnists along with genre's conventions.

Alsubhi's study was included in this literature review mainly because it used newspaper opinion articles as its corpus to investigate variations between female and male use of metadiscourse

resources using Hyland's model of metadiscourse just like the present study. The other reason for its inclusion in this literature review was that Alsubhi made a very interesting conclusion about female and male variations in writing which stipulates that 'gender is a significant source of variation that influences linguistic and stylistic choices of newspaper opinion writers' (Alsubhi, 2016). The present study, therefore sought to interrogate this finding further in order to find out whether its results would be consistent with Alsubhi's in the context of a homogenous culture, genre and topic.

Another study that is directly relevant to the present study is that done by Khopitak (2005) who compared and described both quantitative and stylistic features of metadiscourse in newspaper opinion articles by two groups of American and Thai newspaper writers. Thirty opinion articles, comprising 28,516 words written by 30 American writers from two American-English newspapers and 30 opinion articles comprising 28,565 words written by Thai writers from two Thai-English language newspapers were collected to build the two corpora for contrastive textual analysis.

The analytical framework employed in this study was Adel's (2006, 2010) models. The findings revealed that there were no significant differences in the use of metadiscourse language between the two groups. The notable differences were attributed to the differences in the first languages and the genre.

Like Alsubhi's study, Khopitak (2005) was a cross-cultural study unlike the present study whose focus is on investigating variations in metadiscourse between females and males from one culture.

Siddique, et al. (2017) also studied hedges as metadiscourse in Pakistani English newspaper. The aim of the research was to find frequencies out of the Pakistani English newspaper editorials and its comparison of frequencies on the basis of propositional and non-propositional materials. 1000 editorials (250 from four newspapers—Dawn News (DN), The Frontier (TF), The Express Tribune (TET) and The News (TN)) were investigated for hedges. Online sources were used. Hyland (2005) model of metadiscourse was used as an analytical framework. The results revealed that all corpora used more interactive than interactional markers and transition markers were frequently observed in the corpus of the TF as compared to other corpora. The study concluded that the TF was more reader friendly because of the excessive use of interactive metadiscourse.

Yazdani et al. (2014) also examined the role of metadiscourse markers such as hedges and boosters in 9/11 English front pages of the United States of America news articles. 27 front pages of widely read newspapers in the United States on 9/11 events were randomly selected from online archives. Qualitative and quantitative analysis of data was applied to answer the research questions. Also a chi-square test was run to determine the supposedly meaningful differences between the hedge and booster application in the corpus. The findings showed that hedges were the most frequently used metadiscourse markers in English front page news articles.

The study concluded that journalists preferred to be conservative by using indirect strategies like adverb and adjective employment about controversial issues like 9/11.

Another similar study to the present study is that done by Tavanpour, et al. (2016) who investigated the use of metadiscourse markers in sports news of newspapers. The aim was to investigate the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in newspapers written in English by American English native speakers and Iranian non-native speakers of English. The results revealed that the corpora were different in attitude markers and boosters. Hedges were used more frequently in Iranian corpus than the American one.

Biri (2017) studied a small scale corpus that consisted of texts uploaded onto personal opinion blogs and columns, published by columnists in newspapers and op-eds (opposite the editorial) who were not affiliated with the editorial board. The study aimed at determining how much variation existed in a single homogeneous genre (opinion articles on politics) as regards metadiscourse choice. Also, her focus was to investigate the purpose for which metadiscourse markers were used in online texts. Annoted corpus was used from which normalized frequencies were counted for each text in the corpus. Adel (2006) model of metadiscourse was used as an analytical framework. The findings revealed that there were variations in the choice of metadiscourse markers within the same genre. Some possible causes of this variation were attributed to the topic and persuasive communicative purposes of the text, for example: reaching a compromise with the reader versus challenging the readers.

Although the above studies were grounded in media discourse, they did not address issues of gender variations in the newspaper opinion articles. Nonetheless, they have been included in this literature review simply to show that studies in newspaper opinion articles are scanty and that the available literature in this field studies metadiscourse from different angles altogether, thus leaving a gap in the body of knowledge which this study hopes to fill.

This literature review has attempted to bring to light various studies that have been done on metadiscourse in Zambia as well as other parts of the world. It has shown that while there is a wealth of studies on the subject, very little research has been done on metadiscourse in general and metadiscourse variation between female and male written discourses in form of newspaper opinion articles in Zambia. Moreover, approaches and methods have been varied. Thus, findings have been conflicting especially on metadiscourse variations in female and male discourses. This justifies the need for further research in this field using different methodologies, theoretical and or analytical frameworks to validate the results fill in the existing gap in literature.

3.6. Summary

This chapter discussed some of the existing literature that is considered relevant and significant to the present study in helping situate it in the Zambian context and also to provide justification for it. The literature was discussed under the following subheadings: studies on metadiscourse in Zambia, studies on metadiscourse in written discourses in general, studies on metadiscourse and gender variations in written discourses in general and studies on metadiscourse variations in female and male discourses in newspaper opinion articles. The next chapter shall discuss the methodology that the study employed in the data collection and analysis procedures.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.0 Overview

The previous chapter discussed some of the existing literature that were considered relevant and significant to the present study in helping situate it in the Zambian context and also to provide justification for it. The literature was discussed under the following subheadings: studies on metadiscourse in Zambia, studies on metadiscourse in written discourses in general, studies on metadiscourse and gender variations in written discourses in general and studies on metadiscourse variations in female and male discourses in newspaper opinion articles. The present chapter presents the methodology that was employed in the present study. It commences with a presentation of the philosophical orientation of the study. Thereafter, the research design that guided the study is presented after which the research site, the research population, and the sample size for the study are presented. The sampling technique that was employed in drawing a representative sample for the study, the data collection and data analysis procedures of the study are also outlined. The chapter ends with summary.

4.1. Philosophical Orientation of the Study

Creswell (2014); Moon and Blackman (2014); Morgan (2009); Creswell and Clark (2007) scholars propose that before researchers set out their inquiry into any phenomenon, it is cardinal that they think through the philosophical orientation that they intend to bring to the study. This is vital in that a philosophical orientation plays a pivotal role in guiding the researcher to make choices about the design, methodology and methods of his or her research. Creswell (2014) opted to refer to a philosophical orientation as "a philosophical worldview" which means "a basic set of beliefs that guide action" (Guba, 1990, p.17 in Creswell, 2014). The same term is

referred to as *paradigm* (Lincoln, Lynham and Guba,2011; Mertens, 2010), *epistemology* and *ontology* (Crotty, 1998). Creswell (2014) highlights four types of worldviews that a researcher can bring to his or her study. These are: postpositivism, constructivism (or interpretivism), transformative and pragmatism.

4.1.2. Positivism and Constructivism or Interpretivism

Positivism and Constructivism or Interpretivism are philosophical worldviews that have dominated research over the years and this researcher has found it appropriate to outline them briefly in this paper for the sake of making explicit the worldview that influenced the design of the present study which we shall discuss in detail later. Table 4 summarises the basic tenets of these worldviews.

Table 4: Positivism and Constructivism World views

POSITIVISM	CONSTRUCTIVISM OR INTERPRETIVISM
➢ The social world is best explained in terms of cause and effect (Ontology)	➢ Social reality is something that is constructed and interpreted by people-rather than something that exists objectively "out there" waiting to be observed (Ontology)
➢ There is a presumption that there is an objective reality "out there" waiting to be discovered (Ontology)	➢ Humans react to the knowledge that they are being studied (Epistemology)
➢ There exists a "unity of methods" to reveal and analyse the reality of social life i.e. Scientific method is applicable to all subjects, areas, topics, across all disciplines etc	➢ Humans react to the knowledge produced by being studies. e.g. if research leads to certain predictions, those with influence responsibility, vested interest might react to the knowledge and activity takes steps to ensure that the predictions do not become a reality.
➢ Theories and explanations have no credibility unless based on observations.	
➢ Social research needs to use appropriate tools and techniques to discover and examine the patterns and regularities in the social world. These tools and techniques must not interfere with or influence the observed reality.	➢ It is not possible to gain objective knowledge about a social phenomenon because values and expectations of those undertaking research will always influence the outcome. (Epistemology)
➢ In the process of discovering facts, both	➢ Researchers cannot claim to be objective

the human observer and the techniques for measurement are neutral or can be controlled. The researcher is expected to retain a detached, impartial position in relation to what is being observed.	because explanations are inevitably influenced by researchers' expectations and conceptions of the social world. ➢ There is always a scope of alternative and competing explanations, each of which can claim validity. i.e. Interpretivists' accounts are always open to the possibility that another researcher might see things differently and produce a different account.

Denscombe (2002p. 14-22)

A close study of the above table reveals that quantitative research is consistent with positivism while qualitative research is consistent with constructivism. As outlined above, positivists seem to promote quantitative research in that they believe in single and tangible reality which can be measured and quantified suggesting that different tools and techniques can be used to generate statistics which can be used to do this. Constructivists, on the other hand, promote qualitative research in that they believe in multiple realities. To them, reality is not single and cannot be measured and quantified because it is constructed in the minds of individuals.

4.1.3. Pragmatic Worldview

Creswell (2014) Morgan (2007), Patton (1990), Tashakkori and Teddlie (2010) and other scholars endorse this worldview as being a philosophical underpinning for mixed methods studies. As the term suggests, pragmatisms is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality (Creswell, 2014). As such, it was found to be an appropriate world view to bring to the present study in that it enabled the researcher to draw liberally from both quantitative and qualitative assumptions in the research process. This would not have been the case if either the

positivism or constructivism worldview was adopted because of the rigidity of these worldviews as we have seen from table 4 above.

Among the tenets of pragmatism that the researcher found applicable to the present study are outlined by Creswell (2014) as follows:

- *Pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute unity. In a similar way, mixed methods researchers look to many approaches for collecting and analyzing data rather than subscribing to only one way(e.g. quantitative or qualitative.*

- *Individual researchers have a freedom of choice. In this way, researchers are free to choose the methods, techniques and procedures of research that best meet their needs and purposes.*

- *Truth is what works at the time. It is not based on in a duality between reality independent of the mind or within the mind. Thus in mixed methods research, investigators use both quantitative and qualitative data because they work to provide the best understanding of a research problem.*

- *....pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different world views, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis.*

In following with the above assumptions, this researcher deemed it fit to bring the pragmatic world view into the present study. The rationale behind this stance was that the researcher needed to be free to employ different methods in data collection as well as data analysis. Since the pragmatic worldview does not believe in one system of philosophy and reality also enabled the researcher to use both the qualitative and quantitative assumptions in the study which was very crucial for answering the research questions.

4.2. Research Design

4.2.1. Mixed Methods Design

This study employed a mixed methods design. This means that both the qualitative and quantitative approaches were used in the collection and analysis of data. Put differently, 'a mixed methods research design is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and "mixing" both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study or a series of studies to understand a research problem' (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, cited in Creswell, 2012 p.535). The type of mixed methods design used was the explanatory sequential mixed method design. 'An explanatory sequential mixed methods design (also called a two-phase model; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) consists of first collecting quantitative data and then collecting qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results. The rationale for this approach is that the quantitative data and results provide a general picture of the research problem; more analysis, specifically through qualitative data collection, is needed to refine, extend, or explain the general picture' (Creswell, 2012 p.543).

The justification for this choice of a design was that a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches would provide a better understanding of the research problem. That is, for the researcher to support or refute claims in literature that variations exist in female and male discourses, quantitative survey was needed; but this alone would not be a basis for conclusions to be made. Therefore, to validate this inquiry, a qualitative survey was equally crucial.

4.2.1.1. Quantitative Approach

The quantitative research approach deals with numbers and anything that is measurable in a systematic way of investigation of phenomena and their relationships. It is used to answer

questions within measurable variables with an intention to explain, predict and control phenomena (Leedy, 1993). To do this, the present study used Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 to carry out descriptive analysis as well as the inferential analysis of data to answer research questions one and two. The descriptive analysis was useful in generating frequencies of interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers which were cardinal in helping the researcher to summarise individual variables and find patterns. The inferential analysis, on the other hand, was useful in showing relationships between variables. For the present study, t-tests and Chi-square tests were run. The former was used to compare two independent groups, which were the female and male groups, in their variations in the use of metadiscourse resources while the Chi-square was used to measure the relationship between being female or male and the use or choice of metadiscourse markers in order to see whether or not significant differences existed between them. This is in line with what Clemente (2002) suggests. According to him, the Chi-square test is 'used to measure the association between two or more variables and to see whether or not significant differences exist between them' (Clemente 2002 p. 73, cited in Creswell, 2012 p.546).

The quantitative approach was found suitable for this study because it was useful in answering research questions one and two of the present study which probed into the variations in the frequencies of the interactive and interactional metadiscourse resources in female and male opinion articles.

4.2.1.2. Qualitative Approach

Newton (1992 p.31) states that 'in a qualitative approach, data is in form of words as opposed to numbers'. In like manner, part of the data for this study was qualitative and required words and

not numbers to be explained. To that end, content analysis was used to identify metadiscourse markers that were unique to females and males in the articles. That is, the researcher first read the articles in order to identify and categorize the metadiscourse markers as interactive and interactional metadiscourse resources after studying their functions in the contexts in which they were used in the texts. The emerging themes were then described. This approach was found suitable for answering research questions three and four of the present study.

4.3. Research Site

The research site for the present study was National Archives of Zambia It was purposefully chosen because of its suitability to offer the needed data which was in form of newspaper opinion articles on political matters published in *Post* newspaper from which a representative sample was drawn.

4.4. Research Population

The population for this study was the 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014 and 2015 female and male writers of opinion articles on political matters in *Post* newspaper. The writers contributed these articles on a daily, weekly, or monthly basis.

4.4.1. Reasons for Choosing the Research Population

The major reason for choosing a five-year period from 2011 to 2015 was that it would provide an adequate number of opinion articles on political matters suitable to answer the research questions of the study. While there were numerous articles in the *Post* newspaper produced on a daily basis, not all of them were opinion articles on political matters: they covered social, education, health and other subjects as well. Therefore, it was deemed appropriate to have a longer period of

time in which to sample the articles needed for the present study. Some other reasons included the following:

Firstly, the period 2011 to 2015 was a period which represented an era when there was a major change in the political dispensation of Zambia as regards democratic governance. That is, a major opposition party--the Patriotic Front led by Michael Chilufya Sata was voted into power (Zambianadvisor). This meant that the demands placed on Zambian writers on political matters to produce discourses on this subject were immense. It is against this background that the researcher assumed that numerous articles on political matters would be produced by female and male writers.

Secondly, the newspapers were readily available and accessible from either the University of Zambia library or National Archives of Zambia. However, the researcher opted to access the newspapers from National Archives of Zambia since the special collection of the University of Zambia library which houses newspapers was undergoing renovations at the time of the research. Thirdly, the articles were authentic materials suitable for a study in discourse analysis in general and text analysis in particular. Moreover, since opinion articles express a writer's thoughts and stance on a given subject, the articles were expected to yield many instances of metadiscourse markers.

Fourthly, opinion articles   allow the writer to interact with the reader; thus they were considered very suitable for testing the theoretical position on metadiscourse.

Finally, the genre of opinion articles on political matters has not received adequate attention from researchers in Zambia.

4.5. Sample size

The sample size of the present study was 150 opinion articles (75 written by females and 75 written by males).Each article sampled had an 800 word count. A total of 120 000 words were realised from these articles. Being a study in text analysis, this sample size was justifiable because it was considered appropriate for the type of analysis this study sought to undertake as it allowed a stretch of discourse long enough to generate a reasonable number of the metadiscourse markers being sought for the purposes of answering the research questions.

4.6. Sampling Technique

4.6.1. Purposeful Sampling: Maximum Variation Sampling

Maximum Variation Sampling technique is a variant of purposeful sampling method. It works in a similar manner as stratified sampling in that the researcher first identifies the stratums and their proportions as they are represented in the population. Thereafter, a purposeful sample is drawn from each stratum (Mwanza, 2017). In this study, two strata were identified, that is, female and male writers of opinion articles on political matters. Thereafter, the researcher purposefully sampled the subjects for the present study in following with the principles of purposeful sampling methods which require a researcher 'to sample with a purpose in mind based on either the skill or need or judgement of the typical sample element that can give us what we want' (Mwanza 2017 p.87). Therefore, in order to acquire a sample that could give us what we wanted, samples (newspaper opinion articles on political matters produced by female and male writers) had to meet the following conditions in order to be considered representative of the target population and appropriate for answering the set research questions for the study:

Firstly, the writers of the articles had to be Zambians: the gender of the writer was verified by checking the photographs that accompanied the articles and also the personal contact details written at the bottom of the article.

Secondly, the subject of the articles had to political matters.

Lastly, the articles did not have to exceed 800 words

4.6.1.1. Reasons for Choosing Maximum Variation Sampling Technique

The rationale for the choice of maximum variation sampling technique was that it would provide for the acquisition of a sample that is as representative of the research population as possible. Since the researcher could not predict the distribution of the female and male opinion articles on political matters in the population, this method was found appropriate for not disadvantaging either the female or the male population. Therefore, enough opinion articles as per the conditions outlined above were sampled from each gender to ensure a good representation as compared to their representation in the population.

Secondly, the researcher was suspicious that the target population might be small especially that the samples had to include only opinion articles on political matters and not just any opinion article in the *Post* newspaper. Additionally, it was suspected that female writers would relatively be fewer than the male writers because from the researcher's experience, most articles in the newspapers on political matters are usually written by male writers; hence, a practical method of sampling such as this one had to be employed to ascertain validity and reliability of the sample used for the study. A random sample would have been an option if the target population was expected to be large.

Lastly, the aim of this study was to investigate metadiscourse variations in female and male written discourses on political matters. Therefore, this approach was useful in facilitating the achievement of this aim and the specific objectives that were set.

4.7. Data Collection Procedure

The present study aimed at collecting data in form of metadiscourse markers from newspaper opinion articles on political matters written by female and male Zambians in order to support or refute the theoretical claims that female and male writers tend to favour distinctive ways of using language in their written or spoken discourses; hence both qualitative and quantitative data were collected for the study. The following was the data collection procedure:

The process began by systematically searching the *Post* newspapers published in the years: 2011, 2012, 2013, 2014 and 2015 for opinion articles on political matters. The articles meeting the conditions elaborated earlier were photographed by using an infix note 4 cell phone camera. Thereafter, the details of the articles which included: the name of writer, the sex, the publication date and the number of words it contained were written in a notebook.

After the identification of all the relevant articles in the period defined, they were divided into two groups according to gender. Those articles exceeding 800 words were excluded from the sample. After this process, the female and male articles left were counted in order to find out how many they were so that sampling could be done from the groups accordingly (the method has been outlined in the sampling technique section). This procedure was followed in order to allow for a fair and valid comparison of the metadiscourse markers used by female and male writers in the articles.

4.8. Research Instruments

Research instruments are measurement tools designed to obtain data on a topic of interest from research subjects (Creswell, 2014). The instruments that this study employed included: an infinix note 4 cell phone camera, a note book, pens and highlighters. Pens were used for noting the names and sex of the writers of the articles identified in the *Post* newspaper into a note book. The titles of the articles were equally noted into the notebook by using a pen. The notebook was also useful during the data analysis stage for recording metadiscourse markers that were extracted from the articles. The infix note 4 cell phone camera, on the other hand, was used to photograph the articles identified for onward printing. Highlighters were used in the data analysis process to highlight the metadiscourse markers that were identified from the articles--different colour codes were used to highlight the interactive and interactional categories as well as their subcategories.

4.9. Data Analysis

4.9.1. Qualitative and Quantitative Data Analysis

The present study deployed both the qualitative and quantitative methods of analysing data as mentioned earlier in this chapter in 4.2.1.1 and 4.2.1.2. The following was the procedure for data analysis:

4.9.2. Data Analysis Procedure

A four-stage procedure was followed in the analysis of data.

The first stage was a qualitative process which involved a systematic reading of the articles by the researcher in order to identify the metadiscourse markers used. Articles written by female

writers were read first followed by the articles written by the male writers. Different colour codes were used to mark the possible metadiscourse resources used.

The second stage of data analysis involved the categorisation of the metadiscourse markers identified in the texts into interactive and interactional categories as outlined in Hyland's Model of Metadiscourse presented earlier in this paper. This process was also qualitative as the researcher determined the categories of the metadiscourse markers by scrutinizing the context in which the linguistic items were used.

The third stage was a quantitative approach which involved coding of all the metadiscourse markers that were identified in the second stage. Thereafter, the coded data were entered into an SPSS application in readiness for running of statistical tests. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, these tests involved conducting of descriptive analyses as well as inferential analyses.

The fourth and last stage of data analysis was a qualitative process which involved the scrutiny of the data produced in stage three of the data analysis process in order to search for patterns and discover what was important in answering research questions three and four of the present study, that is, metadiscourse markers that could be considered unique to female and male writers. The results from this process were sorted according to themes that emerged in order to make sense out of them.

4.10. Ethical Considerations

The tenets of research demand that ethical issues be taken into account. This entails that the researcher is expected to respect the rights, values and decisions of the participants in order to ensure that they are not harmed emotionally, physically, psychologically or in any other way (Wimmer and Dominick, 1994). On this basis, ethical clearance was sought from the Ethics

Committee of the Directorate for Research and Graduate Studies of the University of Zambia before embarking on this study. Being a study in Discourse Analysis, the present study's participants constituted articles written by females and males in *Post* newspaper. Once the newspaper is published, the articles become available for public consumption.. From this perspective, the articles for the study could not be subjected to any aspects of ethics as they had been in public domain from their publication date and docile at National Archives of Zambia for any member of the public to interact with at any time.

4.11. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented the philosophical orientation of the study, the research design that guided the study, the research site in which the research was conducted, the research population of the study, the sample size used for the study, the sampling technique that was employed in drawing a representative sample for the study, and the data collection, data analysis procedures of the study and ethical considerations.. The next chapter will present the findings of various investigations of metadiscourse variations in some female and male discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles in line with the research questions of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

5.0. Overview

The previous chapter presented the philosophical orientation of the study, the research design that guided the study, the research site in which the study was conducted, the research population of the study, the sample size used for the study, the sampling technique that was employed in drawing a representative sample for the study, and the data collection and data analysis procedures of the study. This chapter presents the findings of various investigations of metadiscourse variations in some female and male discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles in line with the research questions of the study. It begins by presenting the quantitative results for research question one which sought to find out the variations in the frequency of the instances of interactive metadiscourse markers in some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles. Thus, overall frequencies of interactive markers used by both genders are presented first; followed by a presentation the detailed frequencies of interactive markers used in the subcategories of interactive metadiscourse resources. After the presentation of the frequencies of interactive metadiscourse markers, the chapter presents the results for research question two which sought to find out the frequency of the instances of interactional metadiscourse markers in some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles. The chapter then presents the qualitative results for research question three which sought to find out interactional metadiscourse markers that are unique to some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles.

Lastly, the chapter presents the qualitative results for research question four which sought to find out interactional metadiscourse markers that are unique to some Zambian female and male written discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles.The chapter ends with a summary.

5.1. Presentation of Results

5.1.1. Variations in the frequencies of the Instances of Interactive Metadiscourse Markers in *Post* Newspaper Opinion Articles.

In order to investigate the variations that existed between female and male discourses, frequencies had to be generated and compared. Table 5 below shows the overall frequencies of the instances of interactive metadiscourse markers by gender.

5.1.1.1. Overall Frequencies of Instances of Interactive MD Markers by Gender

Table 5: Overall Frequencies of Instances of Interactive MD Markers by Gender

Gender	Frequency of Interactive MD Markers	Percent
Female	2507	47.8
Male	2734	52.2
Total	5241	100.0

Table 5 shows that out of a total of 5241(100%) interactive metadiscourse markers present in the corpus, males used 2734 (52.2%) interactive metadiscourse markers while females used 2507(47.8%) interactive metadiscourse markers. This implies that at the overall level of interactive metadiscourse markers, males used more markers than females.

In order to determine whether females and males differed significantly on the use of interactive metadiscourse markers at this level, a t-test was carried out. Table 5 below shows the results of the t-test.

Table 5 Comparison of Female and Male Overall Use of Interactive MD Markers (n=2507 females and 2734 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Interactive MD			4.92	5238	.000
Males	335.91	157.29			
Females	317.67	108.68			

Table 6 indicates that females and males differed significantly on the use of interactive metadiscourse markers at the overall level as can be seen from the inspection of the two group means for males (335.91) and for females (317.67) as well as the p-value (p=.000). This shows that there is a significant difference in the use of interactive metadiscourse markers between females and males. This implies that females and males exhibit variations in the use of interactive metadiscourse markers at the overall level with males using more interactive metadiscourse markers than females.

5.1.1.2. Overall Frequencies of Interactive MD Markers by Gender in the Subcategories

Table 7 shows frequencies of interactive metadiscourse markers by gender in the subcategories of code glosses, evidentials, endophoric markers, frame markers and transition markers.

Table 6: Frequencies of Interactive MD Markers by Gender in the Subcategories

Interactive MD Markers in the Subcategories	Frequencies of MD by Gender		Total
	Female	Male	
Transition markers	2034	2179	4213
Code glosses	241	252	493
Frame markers	117	129	246
Evidentials	103	149	252
endophoric markers	12	25	37
Total	2507	2734	5241

Table 7 shows the frequencies of interactive metadiscourse markers by gender in the subcategories which include: transition markers, code glosses, frame markers, evidentials and endophoric markers. It shows that males and females used 2179 and 2034 transition markers respectively; 252 and 241 code glosses respectively; 117 and 129 frame markers respectively; 103 and 149 evidentials respectively and, 12 and 25 endophoric markers respectively.

Further, table 7 reveals that although the interactive markers used by both genders varied in their frequencies, there were similarities in their ranking in both groups. The table shows that in both groups, transition markers were used more frequently than any other markers in the subcategories, females used 2034 and males used 2179 and ranked first followed by code glosses, females 241 and males 252. Endophoric markers were the least used by both groups and ranked fifth and last. It is only the frequencies of evidentials and frame markers that exhibited a slight variation in their ranking in the female and male groups. That is, frame markers and evidentials ranked third and fourth respectively in the female group while they ranked fourth and third respectively in the male group. Even though, the frequencies of these markers used by females (117 and 103 respectively) are less than the frequencies of the same markers used by males (129 and 149 respectively).This implies that regardless of the variations in the frequencies

of interactive metadiscourse markers used in their writing, females and males follow a similar pattern in the choice of the type and quantity of what markers to use.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly in the use of interactive metadiscourse markers in the subcategories, a Chi-square static was used. Table 7 shows the results of the test.

Table 5: Chi-square Analysis of Interactive MD Markers in the Subcategories by Gender

| Variable | n | Gender | | x^2 | p |
		f	m		
Interactive Markers				925.06	.000
Code glosses	493	241	252		
Evidentials	252	103	149		
Endophoric Markers	37	12	25		
Frame Markers	246	117	129		
Transition Markers	4213	2034	2179		
Totals	5241	2507	2734		

Table 8 shows that females and males are significantly different on the use of interactive metadiscourse markers in the subcategories (x^2=925.06, df=503, n=5241, p=.000). This implies that females and males differ on the use of interactive metadiscourse markers in the subcategories; that is, males use more interactive metadiscourse markers than females.

The following section presents detailed frequencies of interactive metadiscourse markers by gender in the subcategories which include: code glosses, endophoric markers, evidentials, frame markers, and transition markers.

5.1.1.2.1. Detailed Frequencies of Interactive MD Markers by Gender in the Subcategories

5.1.1.2.1.1. Code glosses

Code glosses assist the writer to give "additional information on the subject by elaborating, explaining or rephrasing what has been said to ensure the reader to recover the writer's intended meaning" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 52). The following extracts, from the corpus of the study illustrate how females and males used code glosses- the words in bold are the instances of code glosses.

> The lack of resources is something that we hear so much about from many governments our own included and it is nothing but an excuse. **For instance**, when our government decided that it would do all it can to facilitate Zambia's participation in the African Cup of Nations in Egypt, earlier this year, money was of no consequence.
> It is also an interesting mixture of the old and new. **For instance,** for a taxi, you have a choice of horse-driven cart, engine-driven cart like machine, the old fifties mobiles up to your latest Hyundai. (*Lessons from Cuba, Post newspaper,* 2013, June11 p.17)

> I know for a fact that it is possible for an individual in Zambia to foster a child through the department of Social Welfare for years on end and have not one phone call, we shall not mention visit, from the supervising social worker. **In other words,** if foster parents decide to break a few of a child's ribs in order to discipline him, or find out how many hours locked out in the rain will cause him to stop bed-wetting, well, they freely can. (*Children in Need of Govt Support Post newspaper,* 2011, October 15 p.20)

> MOF does not know which youth movements deserve the funds and which ones are credible and which ones are home based organizations that are owned by people who are making money in the name of serving the people. MOF won't know, **for instance** the difference between Youth Association of Zambia (YAZ) and Youth Alive Zambia (YAZ) and what each focus on MOF does not have the data on rural –based youth movements **such as** Tiyende Rural Youth, what projects it has done, and it won't be able to advise them further on the next project; **in short**, funding youth projects need a lot of backing information.(*K40 billion youth fund*, *Post newspaper,* 2013, June11 p.17)

> There was a substantial allocation to other poverty reduction sections **such as** agricultural sectors…This was done in relation to perceived inconsistencies in and incoherence of policy pronouncements related to possessions of recently privatized parastatal organizations **such as** Zamtel.(*6 months down the line: how is PF Govt doing? Post newspaper,* 2012, April 3 p.20)

> To underscore the point of non-violence, we must point out that violence will always beget violence, just like an eye for an eye will only make the whole world blind (Ghandi). **Put in a different way**, but to mean the same thing, Martin Luther King espoused that 'darkness cannot drive out darkness, only light can do that.

…unfruitful boycott by the youths from the two major opposition political parties, **namely** United Party for National Development (UPND) and Movement for Multiparty Democracy (MMD). (*Role of Cadre in politic, Post newspaper,* 2011, March 4 p.12)

5.1.1.2.1.1.1. Frequencies of Selected Instances of Code glosses Used Frequently by Gender

Table 9 shows frequencies of selected code glosses that were used frequently by gender in the corpus of the present study.

Table 6: Frequencies of Selected Instances of Code glosses Used Frequently by Gender

Selected Instances of Code glosses in the Corpus	Function	Frequencies of Selected Code glosses by Gender		Total
		Female	Male	
Particular	**Reformulation**	10	7	17
Or		8	5	13
(this) means that		9	16	25
definition of /by definition ,defined as		3	3	6
Especially		17	29	46
(an) (a) (for) example	**Exemplification**	32	38	60
such as		42	37	79
e.g.		4	2	6

Table 9 shows frequencies of selected instances of code glosses used by female and male writers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles. The table shows that males and females used varying frequencies of code glosses. Most frequently used code glosses in the corpus of the present study were: *such as, example, especially* and *particular* used: 42 and 37 times; 32 and 38 times; 17 and 29 times; 10 and 7 times by females and males respectively.

5.1.1.2.1.1.2. Overall Frequencies of Code Glosses Used by Gender

The overall frequencies of code glosses used by females and males in the whole corpus of the study are presented in table 10.

Table 7: Overall Frequencies Code Glosses Used by Gender

Gender	Frequencies of Code glosses	Percent
Female	239	48.7
Male	252	51.3
Total	491	100.0

Table 10 shows that females used 239 code glosses while males used 252 code glosses out of a total of 491 code glosses present in the corpus; representing 48.7 percent and 51.3 percent of the total code glosses. This implies that males used more code glosses than females at the overall level of code glosses.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the overall use of code glosses, a t-test was carried out. Table 11 shows the results of the t-test.

Table 8: Comparison of Overall Use of Code glosses by Females and Males (n=239 females and 252 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Code glosses			.891	489	.373
Females	51.44	36.88			
Males	54.34	35.30			

Table 11 indicates that females and males do not differ significantly on the overall use of code glosses as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 36.88 for females and 35.30 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (51.44) and for males (54.34) as well as the p-value (p=.373) also shows that there is no significant difference in the overall use code glosses between females and males. This implies that there are more similarities than differences in the use of code glosses between females and males.

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5.1.1.2.1.1.3. Detailed Frequencies of Code glosses Used by Gender

Figure 1 .presents detailed frequencies of code glosses used by females and males in the expression of reformulation and exemplification functions.
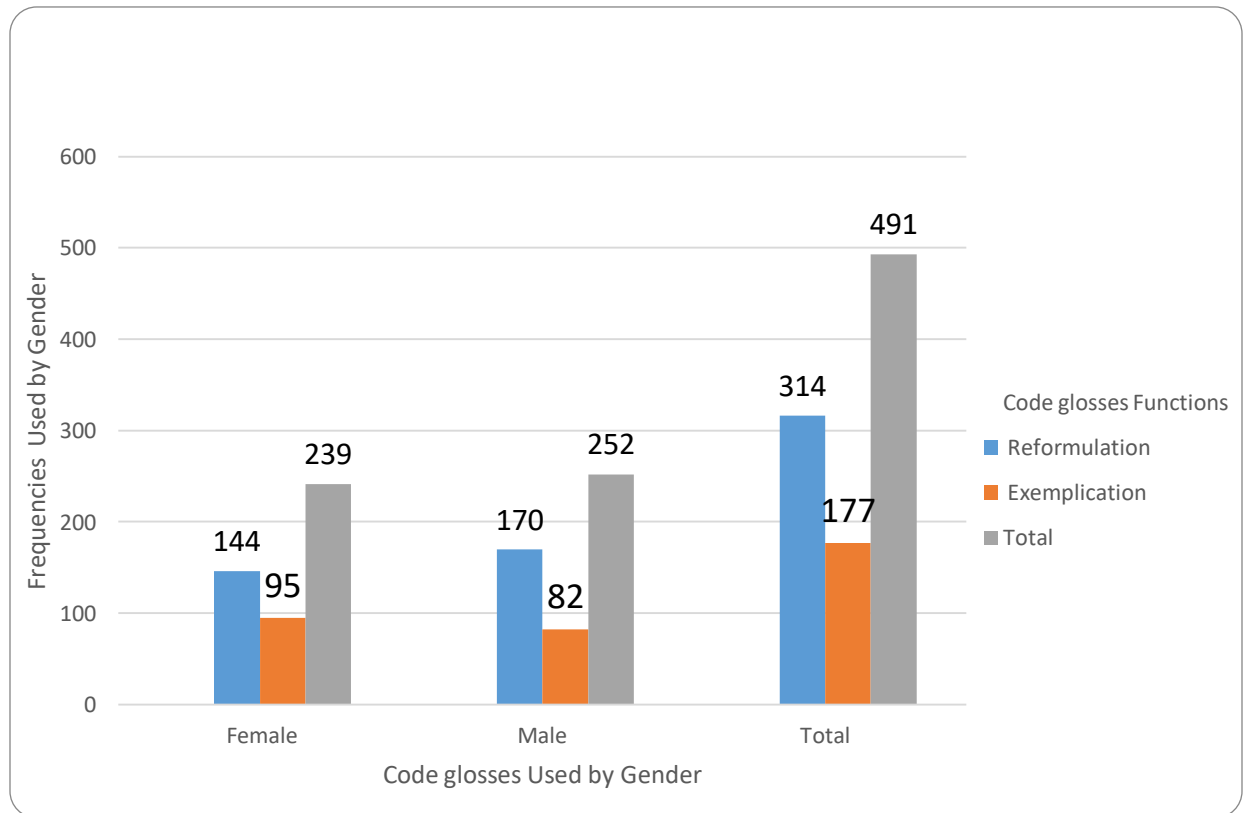
Figure 1: Frequencies of code glosses used to express the functions of reformulation and exemplification by gender

Figure 1 shows that females used 144 and males used 170 code glosses for reformulation of propositions while females used 95 code glosses and males used 82 code glosses for exemplifying propositions respectively. This implies that females use more code glosses than males to exemplify their propositions while males used more code glosses to reformulate their propositions than females.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the use of code glosses for the purposes of reformulation and exemplification of propositions, a Chi-square static was used. Table 12 shows   the results of the Chi-Square test.

Table 9: Chi-square Analysis of the Use of Code glosses for the Purposes of Reformulation and Exemplification by Gender

| Variable | n | Gender | | x² | p |
		f	m		
Code glosses				128.62	.003
Reformulation	314	144	170		
Exemplification	177	95	82		
Totals	491	241	252		

Table 12 shows the Pearson Chi-square results and indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of code glosses. (x^2=128.62, df =88, n=491, p=.003)

From the above results, females and males differ significantly on the use of code glosses for reformulation and exemplification purposes.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the use of code glosses for reformulation purposes only, a t-test was carried out. Table 13 shows the results of the t-test.

Table 10: Comparison of the Use of Code glosses for the Purpose of Reformulation by Gender (n=144 females and 170 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Reformulation			-4.10	312	.000
Females	23.09	13.74			
Males	35.20	26.19			

Table 13 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of markers for the purpose of reformulation as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 13.74 for females and 26.19 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (23.09) and for males (35.20) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use code glosses for the purpose of   reformulation between females and males. This implies that there are variations in the use of markers for the purpose of reformulation by females and males with males using more markers for this purpose than females.

To determine whether females and females differ significantly on the use of makers for the purpose of exemplification only, a t-test was carried out. Table 14 shows the results of the t-test.

Table 11: Comparison of the Use of Code glosses for the Purpose of Exemplification by Females and Males (n=95 females and 82 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Exemplification			.321	175	.749
Females	94.41	7.70			
Males	94.02	8.32			

Table 14 indicates that females and males do not differ significantly on the use of code glosses for the purpose of exemplification as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 7.70 for females and 8.32 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (51.44) and for males (54.34) as well as the p-value (p=.749) also shows that there is no significant difference in the overall of use exemplification markers between females and males. This implies that females and males use markers for the purpose of exemplification in a similar way.

5.1.1.2.1.2. Transition Markers

Transition markers are mainly conjunctions and adverbial phrases that help the reader to interpret

pragmatic connections between steps in an argument. The discourse roles played by transitional

markers are expressing addition, causation, consequence, contradiction and comparison (Hyland,

2005a). The following extracts from *Post* newspaper illustrate the use of transition markers by

female and male writers-the words in bold are the instances of transition markers.

> Dr. Mohammed, for instance, informed the conference that one of the early focuses of his government was on job creation. **So**, they did not mind that wages offered were low **and** in some cases companies did not pay tax, they **however**, controlled prices so that people could enjoy good standards of living. (*The international Conference on globalization and Economic Problems Post newspaper,* 2012, July 4 p.17)

> The situation was compounded by the country's inability to borrow externally **due to** its bad debt record…The country can **further** reduce its dependence with increased domestic resource mobilization in the face of the growing economy. **However**, the country is currently financing its budget from domestic resources only up to 70 per cent….(*Aid Phenomenon Post newspaper,* 2012, July 4)

> The leader needs **not only** to know how to communicate well **but** he/she neeeds to know how to listen to the people he/she is leading **and** working with…..We are in a democratic dispensation; **hence** our preference is that of participatory leadership. **Though** our democracy is fledging, we expect our politicians to exercise maturity in their engagement with political choices …Leadership and effective communication is **also** witnessed in the way a leader influences opinion in problem solving… (*Leadership style for our fledging democracy, Post newspaper,* 2015, January 6 p.20)

> In the last 48 years, we the people of Zambia have proudly celebrated our identity **not only** as Zambians **but also** as a land of work and joy in unity as expressed in our national anthem. **Similarly**, this year, we celebrate our independence under the theme: celebrating Forty-eight with Vision, Hard-work and Unity…..The Zambian vision of independence remains incomplete **unless** the people of Zambia make laws, through a constitution, which express the aspiration of the Zambian people. **Therefore**, the current constitution making process is an opportunity for a renaissance for the people of Zambia. (*Zambia at 48:time for a renaissance Post newspaper,* 2011, November 11)

In the above extracts, the words: **so, hence,** and **therefore** express consequence**; further, not only…but also** and **also** express addition**; however, though** and **unless** express contradiction; **due to expresses causation**; and **similarly** expresses comparison.

5.1.1.2.1.2.1. Frequencies of Selected Instances of Transition Markers Used Frequently by Gendery

Table 15 shows frequencies of selected instances of transition markers that were used frequently by gender in the corpus of the present study.

Table 12: Frequencies of Selected Instances of Transition Markers Used Frequently by Gender

Transition Marker	Function	Female	Male	Total
And Also As well as	**Addition**	1015 57 30	1052 0 10	2267 57 40
Further in order to So as Because	**Causation**	14 31 10 78	30 11 4 74	44 42 14 152
Yet However But Although While	**Contradiction**	31 60 143 10 15	15 50 128 20 27	46 110 271 30 42
Hence Therefore As a result As such	**Consequence**	11 48 7 3	10 33 11 6	21 81 18 9

As…as	**Comparison**	30	10	40
Like		22	22	44
Then	**Time /Sequence**	18	18	36
Later		3	2	5
Since		10	17	27

Table 15 shows that ***and,*** the transition marker used to indicate addition was frequently used by both genders followed by ***but*** and ***because*** which are used to indicate contradiction and causation respectively. It is interesting to note, here, that transition markers were the highest used markers in the corpus of the present study. The overall frequencies of transition markers used by females and males in the whole corpus of the study are presented in table 16.

5.1.1.2.1.2.2. Overall Frequencies of Transition Markers Used by Gender

Table 13: Overall Frequencies of Transition Markers Used by Gender

Transition Markers Used by Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	2034	48.3
Male	2179	51.7
Total	4213	100.0

Table 16 shows that there were 4213 transition markers in the whole corpus. Out of these, females used 2034 and males used 2179.

This implies that males used more transition markers than females at the overall level.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the overall use of transition markers, a t-test was carried out. Table 16 shows the results of the t-test.

Table 14: Comparison of Overall Use of Transition Markers by Females and Males (n=2034 females and 2179 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Transition Markers			1.94	4211	.053
Females	365.10	46.46			
Males	363.17	46.98			

Table 17 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the overall use of transition markers as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 46.46 for females and 46.98 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (365.10) and for males (363.17) as well as the p-value (p=.053) also shows that there is a significant difference in the overall use of transition markers between females and males. This implies that females and males differ in the overall use of transition markers with males using more transition markers than females.

5.1.1.2.2.2.3. Detailed Frequencies of Transition Markers Used by Gender in the Subcategories

Table 18 presents detailed frequencies of transition markers used by females and males to show: addition, causation, contradiction, comparison, time/sequence and consequence.

Table 15: Detailed Frequencies of Transition Markers Used by Gender in the Subcategories

Transition Markers Used in the Subcategories	Frequencies of Transition Markers Used by Gender		Total
	Female	Male	
Addition	1166	1374	2540
Causation	191	173	364
Contradiction	354	340	694
Comparison	83	74	157
Time/sequence	75	90	165
Consequence	165	128	293
Total	2034	2179	4213

Table 18 shows that there are variations between females and males in the use of transition markers in the subcategories. The subcategory with the highest frequencies for both groups was *addition.* Out of the 2540 addition markers present in the whole corpus, females used 1166 and males used 1374. Contradiction markers were the second highest used markers by both genders with the females using 354 while the males used 340 out of a total of 694 markers present in the entire corpus of the study. Causation markers were third in line followed by consequence markers. Females and males used 191 and 173; 165 and 128 causation and consequence markers respectively out of a total of 364 and 293 causation and consequence markers respectively.

Comparison markers were used 83 times by the female and 74 times by the males from a total of 157 comparison markers present in the whole corpus. Time/sequence markers were used 75 and 90 times by females and males respectively. This implies that generally, males used more transition markers in the subcategories than females; however, there are instances where females used more transition markers than males for purposes of: causation, contradiction, comparison and consequence.-Table 17 shows that females and males used causation markers 191 and 173 times respectively; contradiction markers 354 and 340 times respectively; comparison markers 83 and 74 times respectively; and consequence markers 165 and 128 times respectively. This further implies that in the subcategories of transition markers, males only use more markers than their female counterparts to express *addition* and *time/sequence* which they used 1347 and 90 times respectively while the females used them 1166 and 75 times respectively. For the other subcategories of transition markers, females use more markers than males.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the use of transition markers in the subcategories, a Chi-square static was used.

Table 16: Results of Chi-Square test on the Use of transition Markers by Females and Males in the Subcategories

Variable	n	Gender		x²	p
		f	m		
Transition Markers					
Addition	2540	1166	1374	19.790	.001
Causation	364	191	173		
Consequence	293	165	128		
Contradiction	694	354	340		
Comparison	157	83	74		
Time/sequence	165	75	90		
Totals	4213	2034	2179		

Table 19 shows the Pearson Chi-square results and indicates that females and males are significantly different on the use of transition markers in the subcategories (x^2=19.790, df=4211, n=4213, p=.001). This implies that males use more transition markers in the subcategories than females.

To determine whether the variations between females and males in the five types of transition markers were statistically significant, t-tests were carried out on individual subcategories of transition markers. The results are presented in tables   20, 21, 22, 23 and 24

5.1.1.2.2.2.3.1. Addition Markers

Table 17: Comparison of the Use of Addition Markers by Females and Males (n=1166 females and 1374 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Addition Markers			-5.47	2538	.000
Females	331.26	2.01			
Males	331.92	3.71			

Table 20 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of addition markers as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 2.01 for females and 3.71 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (331.26) and for males (331.92) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use of addition markers between females and males. This implies that females and males differ in the use addition markers with males using more addition markers than females.

5.1.1.2.2.2.3.2. Causation Markers

Table 18: Comparison of the Use of Causation Markers by Females and Males (n=190 females and 173 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Causation Markers			-2.41	361	.016
Females	369.46	5.17			
Males	371.12	7.77			

Table 21 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of causation markers as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 5.17 for females and 7.77 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (369.46) and for males (371.12) as well as the p-value (p=.016) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use of causation markers between females and males. This implies that females and males differ in the use causation markers with females using more causation markers than males.

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5.1.1.2.2.2.3.3. Contradiction Markers

Table 19: Comparison of the Use of Contradiction Markers by Females and Males (n=354 females and 340 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Contradiction Markers			-773	692	.440
Females	402.20	9.17			
Males	402.76	9.84			

Table 22 indicates that females and males do not differ significantly on the use of contradiction markers as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 9.17 for females and 9.84 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (402.20) and for males (402.76) as well as the p-value (p=.440) also shows that there is no significant difference in the use of contradiction markers between females and males. This implies that females and males share more similarities than differences in the use contradiction markers.

5.1.1.2.2.2.3.4. Consequence Markers

Table 20: Comparison of   Use of Consequence Markers by Females and Males (n=165 females and 128 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Consequence Markers			4.35	291	.000
Females	430.40	20.02			
Males	438.36				

Table 23 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of consequence markers as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 20.02 for females and 5.90 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (430.40) and for males (438.36) as well as the p-

value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use of consequence markers between females and males. This implies that females and males differ in the use of consequence markers with females using more consequence markers than males.

5.1.1.2.2.2.3.5. Comparison Markers

Table 21: Comparison of the Use of Comparison Markers by Females and Males (n=83 females and 74 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Comparison markers			-3.796	155	.000
Females	456.36	3.02			
Males	459.09	5.72			

Table 24 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of comparison markers as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 3.02 for females and 5.72 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (456.36) and for males (459.09) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use of comparison markers between females and males. This implies that females and males differ in the use of comparison markers with females using more comparison markers than males.

5.1.1.2.1.2.3.6. Time/sequence Markers

Table 22: Comparison of the use of time/sequence markers by females and males (n=75 females and 90 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Time/sequence markers			-4.11	163	.000
Females	484.02	5.82			
Males	489.61	10.49			

Table 25 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of time/sequence markers as can be seen from the standard deviation which was for females 5.82 and 10.49 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (484.02) and for males (489.61) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use of time/sequence markers between females and males. This implies that females and males differ in the use time/sequence markers with males using more time/sequence markers than females.

5.1.1.2.1.2.4. Evidentials

Evidentials are linguistic markers which guide the reader's interpretation of a text and aid them to distinguish who is responsible for a position in a text. Writers use evidentials to provide support for their arguments by quoting a reliable source (Hyland, 2005). The following extracts from the corpus illustrate how some females and males used evidentials.

> What we need is a crop of cadres which will come to an understanding that politics is a very noble undertaking as opposed to a dirty game. Suffice **to refer to the words of Vaclav Have, President of the Czech Republic from 1989 to 2003: "In spite of all the political misery, with which I am firmly daily confronted, I'm firmly convinced today that politics is not dirty in its essence: at most, it is made dirty by dirty people."** (*Role of cadres in politics* by *Post newspaper,* 2014, June 1 p12)

> **To quote** the former President of American-Malaysian Chamber of Commerce, President Nicholas Zeffreys. **"This was an economic miracle. It required hard work and was built up brick by brick…It required a visionary and determined leadership. And it required the support and will of the people"** *(The International Conference on Globalisation and Economic Problems Post newspaper,* 2012, March 4)

5.1.1.2.1.2.4.1. Frequencies of Selected Instances of Evidentials Used Frequently by Gender

Evidentials are linguistic markers which establish an authorial command of the subject and distinguish who is responsible for a position in a text. Table 25 presents selected instances of evidentials that were used frequently by females and males in the corpus of the present study.

Table 23: Selected Instances of Evidentials Used Frequently by Gender

Evidential Used by Gender	Function	Female	Male	Total
direct quotations(written sources)	Quoting written sources	1	31	32
according to		13	15	28
X says that	Quoting spoken sources	4	6	10
X states that		5	2	7
Direct quotations (spoken sources)		5	0	5

Table 23 shows frequencies of selected instances of evidentials used by female and male writers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles. The table shows that there are variations between males and females in the frequencies of evidentials. Most frequently used evidentials in the corpus of the present study were: ***according to, direct quotations from written sources, direct quotations from spoken sources, X says*** used: 13 and 15 times; 1 and 31 time (s); 5 and 0 times; 4 and 6 times by females and males respectively. Figure 2 shows the overall frequencies of evidentials used by females and males.

Figure 2 pie chart values: 0, 103, 149, 252; legend: Evidentials Used by Gender — Female, Male, Total
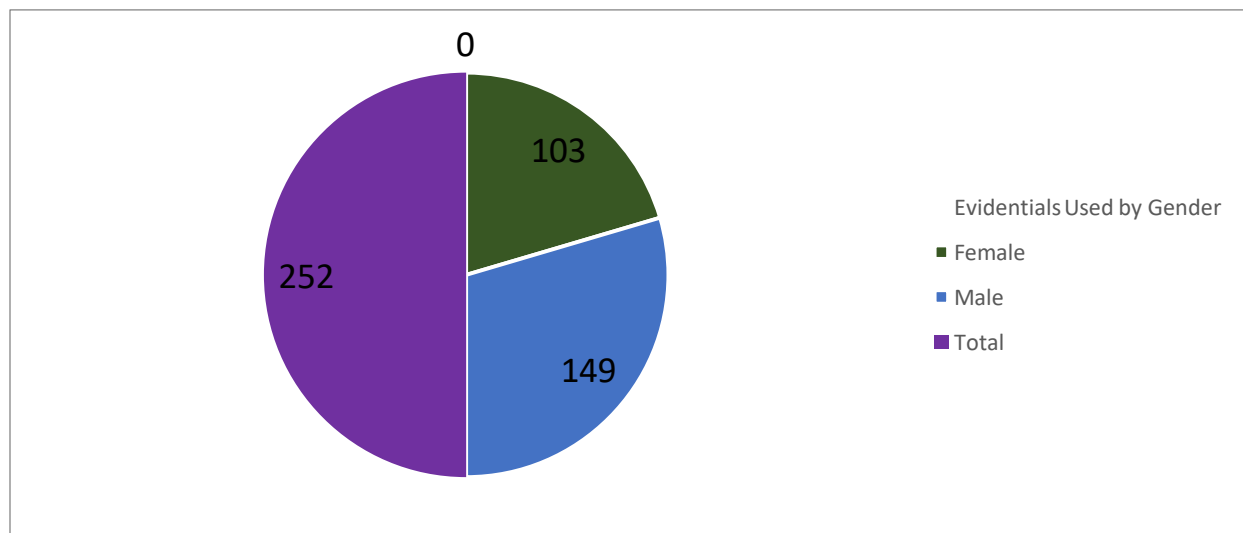
Figure 2*: Overall Frequencies of Evidentials by Gender*

Figure 2 shows that females used a total of 103 evidentials while males used 149 evidentials out of a total of 252 evidentials present in the corpus. This implies that males used more evidentials than females at the overall level of evidentials.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the overall use of evidentials, a t-test was carried out. Table 27 shows the results of the t-test.

Table 24: Comparison of Overall Use of Evidentials by Females and Males (n=103 females and 149 males)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Evidentials			t-2.07	250	.040
Females	134.72	28.78			
Males	143. 00	32.90			

Table 27 indicates females and males differ significantly on the overall use of evidentials as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 28.78 or females and 32.90 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (134.72) and for males (143.00) as well as the p-value (p=.040) also shows that there is a significant difference in the overall use of evidentials between females and males with males using more evidentials than females.This implies that there are variations in the way females and males use evidentials with the males using more evidentials than females.

5.1.1.2.1.1.3. Detailed Frequencies of Evidentials Used by Gender

Figure 3 presents detailed frequencies of evidentials used in the subcategories which are quoting written sources and quoting spoken sources.
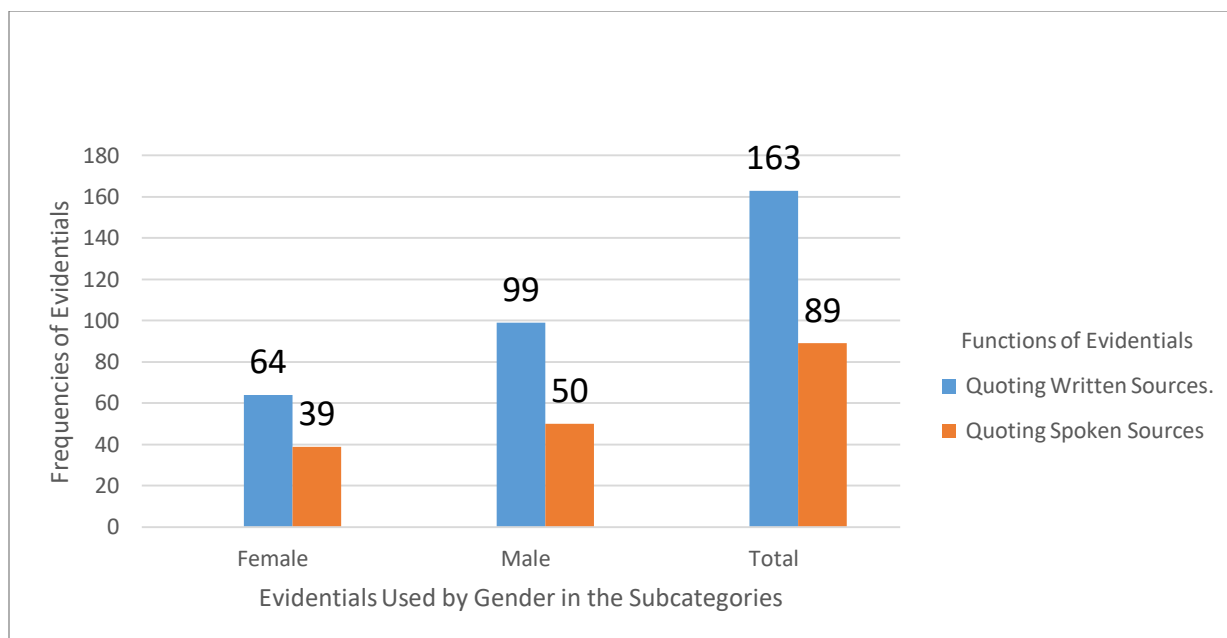
Figure 3*:* **Detailed Frequencies of Evidentials Used by Gender in the Subcategories**

Figure 3 shows that there were a total of 252 evidentials in the whole corpus. Of these, females used 103 markers while males used 149 markers. Out of the 103 markers used by the females, 64 were for quoting written sources while 39 were for quoting spoken sources. Males on the other hand used 99 markers for quoting written sources and 50 markers for quoting spoken sources out of the 149 markers.

This implies that females and males used evidentials for the purposes of quoting written and spoken sources differently. In all the subcategories of evidentials, males used more markers than females.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the use of evidentials in the subcategories, a Chi-square static was used.

Table 25: Chi-Square Test for Use of Evidentials in the Subcategories by Gender

| Variable | n | Gender | | x² | p |
		f	m		
Evidentials					
Quoting Written Sources	163	64	99	148.301	.001
Quoting Spoken Sources	89	39	50		
Totals	252	103	149		

Table 28 shows that females and males are significantly different on the use of evidentials in the subcategories (x^2=148.301 df, 98, n=252, p=.001) .This implies that females and males differ in the use of evidentials in the subcategories; that is, males use more evidentials than females.

5.1.1.2.1.2.5. Frame Markers

Frame markers are "references to text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure" used to sequence, shift topics, label stages, and announce goals in discourse (Hyland, 2004, p. 138). The following extracts are illustrations of some frame markers used in the corpus of the present study by females and males:

> **The purpose of this article is** not to reopen this overly debated subject but to spend the next paragraphs reflecting on whether there are lessons to be drawn from this experience that could influence future policy changes……(*Working towards consensus building in Govt decisions Post newspaper,* 2011, April 11 p.20)

> **In what follow**s, **I will** follow some of the broad policy pronouncements made by PF-led government. (*6 months down the line: how is PF govt doing? Post newspaper,* 2012, April 3)

> **I would like to start the reflection by** reiterating some of the positions held on the fuel and maize subsidy by a cross section of society. (*Working towards consensus building in Govt decisions Post newspaper,* 2011, April 12 p.20)

All in all the picture appears mixed with some encouraging developments… (*6 months down the line: how is PF govt doing? Post newspaper,* 2011, April 12 p.17 *Post newspaper,* 2015, March 11p.20

First, a political leader must take the position ofn Jesus Christ…..**Second** it is the duty of each political leader to educate cadres on the need to embrace virtue….**Third**, it is high time our political leaders stopped taking advantage of poverty levels of the youths they recruit… (*Role of cadres in politics* by *Post newspaper,* 2014, June 1 p.12)

First and foremost, it creates an illusionary that all is well atmosphere. (*The role of women in poverty reduction Post newspaper,* 2015, June 6 p.9)

The frame markers: t**he purpose of this article is** and **in what follows I will** are used to announce discourse goals**; I would like to start the reflection by** and **first and foremost** are used to label discourse stages; and **all in all; first, second,** and third are used to show sequence of propositions**;** while **well** and **let us return to** are used to shift topics in discourse.

5.1.1.2.1.2.5.1. Frequencies of Selected Frame Markers Used Frequently by Gender

Table 26: Frequencies of Selected Instances of Frame Markers Used Frequently by Gender

Frequencies of Some Instances of Frequently Used Frame Markers by Gender		Gender		Total
Frame Markers	**Function**	**Female**	**Male**	
This article discusses	Announcing goals	2	0	2
I want to		3	0	3
I wish to		2	0	2
I would like to		1	1	2
All in all		1	4	5
Finally	labeling stages	1	0	1
In conclusion		0	6	6
For starters		0	1	1
Thus far		1	2	3
First	Sequence	3	14	17
Thirdly		1	2	3
Third		2	6	8
Then		8	3	11

Now		11	11	22
Well		12	0	12
Going forward	Topic shift	0	1	1
In any case		0	2	2
Anyway		0	2	2

Table 29 shows that males and females use varying frequencies of frame markers. Most frequently used frame markers in the corpus of the present study were: *well, now* and *then* used: 12 and 0 times; 11 and11 times; 8 and 3 times by females and males respectively.

Table 30: Comparison of Overall Use of Frame Markers by Females and Males (n=females 117 and 129 males)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Frame Markers			7.48	244	.000
Females	585.74	457.81			
Males	283.57	27.00			

Table 30 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the overall use of frame markers as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 457.81 for females and 27.00 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (585.74) and for males (283.57) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the overall use frame markers between females and males. This implies that there are variations in the way females and males use frame markers with the males using more frame markers than females.

5.1.1.2.1.2.5.3. Detailed Frequencies of Frame Markers Used by Gender

Table 31 presents detailed frequencies of frame markers used in the subcategories which are: announcing goals, labeling stages, sequence and topic shift.

Table 31: Frequency of Frame Markers in Female and Male Opinion Articles in the Subcategories

Frame Markers in the Subcategories of Frame Markers	Frequencies of Frame Markers by Gender		Total
	Female	Male	
Announcing goals	34	32	66
labeling stages	5	20	25
Sequence	45	57	102
Topic shift	33	20	53
Total	117	129	246

Table 31 shows that there were a total of 246 frame markers in the whole corpus. Of these, females used 117 markers while males used 129 markers. Out of the 117 markers used by females, 34 were used for announcing goals, 5 labeling stages,45 sequencing propositions and 33 for indicating topic shift. Males on the other hand used 32 markers for announcing goals, 20 for labeling stages, 57 for sequencing propositions and 20 for indicating topic shift.

This implies that frequencies of frame markers used in the subcategories varied between females and males with females using higher frequencies than males in markers for announcing goals(34 against 32) and indicating topic shift(33 against 20). Males, on the other hand used higher frequencies of frame markers for labeling stages (20) and sequencing propositions (57) Another implication is that both genders are very heavy users of frame markers for sequencing propositions, actually, sequence markers are the highest in frequency in this category. The results also imply that females are very low users of frame markers for labeling stages compared to their male counterparts.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the use of frame markers in the subcategories, a Chi-square static was used. Table 32 below shows the results of the Chi-square test.

Table 32: Chi-Square Test Results the for Use of Evidentials in the Subcategories by Gender

Variable	n	Gender f	Gender m	x^2	p
Frame Markers				194.149	.000
Announcing goals	66	34	32		
Labeling Stages	25	5	20		
Sequence	102	45	57		
Topic Shift	53	33	20		
Totals	246	117	129		

Table 32 shows the Pearson Chi-square results and indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of in the subcategories (x^2=194.149, df=114,n=252,p=.000). This implies that females and males differ in the use of frame markers in the subcategories; that is, males use more frame markers than females.

To determine whether the variations in the markers used for announcing goals, labeling stages, sequencing propositions and topic shift were statistically significant, t-tests were carried out on these individual subcategories. Tables 33, 34, 35 and 36 show the results of the t-tests.

Table 33: Comparison of Male and Female Use of Frame Markers for Announcing Goals (A.G.) (n=32 Males and 34 females)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Announcing goals Markers			576.71	64	.000

Females	129.61	7.45
Males	244.97	7.37

Table 33 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of frame markers used to announce goals as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 7.45 for females and 7.37 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (129.61) and for males (244.97) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use of frame markers for announcing goals between females and males. This implies that there are variations in the way females and males use frame markers to announce goals with males using more markers than males.

Table 34: Comparison of Male and Female Use of Frame Markers for Indicating Topic Shift (n=20 Males and 33 females)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Sequence Frame Markers			-4.98	51	.000
Females	312.88	2.81			
Males	318.15	4.91			

Table 34 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of frame markers to indicate topic shift as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 2.81 for females and 4.91 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (312.88) and for males (318.15) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use of frame markers for indicating topic shift between females and males. This implies that there are variations in the way females and males use frame markers to indicate topic shift with females using more markers than males.

Table 35: Comparison of Male and Female Use of Frame Markers for Indicating Sequence

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Sequence Frame Markers			12.04	100	.000
Females	284.11	5.13			
Males	298.35	6.49			

Table 35 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of frame markers to indicate sequence as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 5.13 for females and 6.49 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (284.11) and for males (298.38) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use frame markers to indicate sequence between females and males. This implies that there are variations in the way females and males use frame markers to indicate sequence with the males using more markers than females.

Table 36: Comparison of Male and Female Use of Frame Markers for Labeling Stages (L.S)   (n=20 Males and 5 females)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Frame Markers (L.S)			-4.33	23	.000
Females	260.60	2.70			
Males	268.60	3.87			

Table 36 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of frame markers to label stages in their discourse as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 2.70 for females and 3.87 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (260.60) and for males (268.60) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in

the use of frame markers for labeling stages between females and males.This implies that there are variations in the way females and males use frame markers for labeling stages with the females using less markers than males.

5.1.1.2.1.2.5. Endophoric Markers

These refer to other parts of the text earlier mentioned or yet to be mentioned. The writer uses endophoric markers to support his or her arguments but also to guide the reader through the discussion; this steers them to a preferred interpretation or reading of the discourse (Hyland, 2005:51). The following extracts from the corpus illustrate how some females and males used endophoric markers.

> For the sake of the uninformed, **here under** is a catalogue of reasons why Youth Day thus be celebrated. (*Impugnant of Youth Day Celebration Post newspaper,* 2012, March 18 p.12)

> The **aforementioned** meetings are just an example of CS is interfacing with government, cooperating partners and other stake holders…. (*6 months down the line: how is PFgovt doing? Post newspaper,* 2012, April 3 p.20)

> **As stated earlier,** appointments of development of the declaration have advanced the fact that Zambians and the government are still 'sinful' and corrupt ten years on, and citing this as indication that declaring the country as a Christian nation has not yielded results..*A Christian nation Post newspaper,* 2015, March 11p.20)

> **I have said before,** and I would like to repeat that it is critical for those of us tht are alive and well and are able to provide some kind of roof, however leaky for our children's heads no wonder what would happen to them when we died.
> *Children in need of govt*, *Post newspaper,* 2011, June 9 p.17)

5.1.1.2.1.2.5. 1. Frequencies of Selected Instances of Endophoric Markers Used Frequently by Gender

Table 37 shows some instances of endophoric markers used by female and male writers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles.

Table 37: Some Instances of Endophoric Markers Used by Female and Male Writers in *Post* **Newspaper Opinion Articles.**

Some Instances of Endophoric Markers Used by Gender	Female	Male	Total
the above	0	4	4
cited above	0	2	2
Note	0	2	2
As said before	2	0	2
the above observation	1	0	1
As outlined above	1	0	1
Below	0	1	1
Aforementioned	0	2	2
the latter	0	1	1

Endophoric markers, like earlier mentioned are the least used by female and male writers in the *Post* newspaper article. The whole corpus yielded a total of 37 endophoric markers used by both genders with the females using 12 while the males used 25.Table 36.show the overall frequency of endophoric markers used by females and males in the whole corpus of the study.

Table 38: Overall Frequency of Endophoric Markers Used by Gender

Endophoric Markers Used by Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	12	32.4
Male	25	67.6
Total	37	100.0

Table 38 shows that there were a total of 37 endophoric markers in the corpus of the present study. Of these, 12 were used by females and 25 were used by males.

These results imply that endophoric markers are used sparingly by both genders in the corpus of the study. Additionally, the results imply that males use more endophoric markers than females

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the use of endophoric markers, a t-test was carried out. Table 37 shows the results of the t-test.

Table 39: Comparison of Male and Female Use of Endophoric Markers (n=25 Males and 12 females)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Endophoric Markers			9.11	36	.000
Females	209.00	3.16			
Males	223.08	4.86			

Table 39 indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of endophoric markers as can be seen from the standard deviation which was 3.16 for females and 4.86 for males. Inspection of the two group means for females (209.00) and for males (223.08) as well as the p-value (p=.000) also shows that there is a significant difference in the use of frame markers for announcing goals between females and males. This implies that there are variations in the way females and males use endophoric markers with males using more markers than females.

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS ON RESEARCH QUESTION 1

- Variations in the frequencies of interactive metadiscourse markers in the newspaper articles written by females and males were found both at the overall and the subcategory levels.

- Some variations were statistically significant while others were not (Table 40 summarises this)

- On the overall level of interactive metadiscourse markers, males used more markers than females but in the subcategories, females used more markers than males in some cases.

Table 40: A Summary of the Findings for the Research Question 1

Interactive MD Markers	Statistical test results	Comment
Transition Markers	Significant	Males used more transition markers than females
Consequence	Significant	Females used more consequence markers than males
Causation	Significant	Females used more causation markers than males
Comparison	Significant	Females used more comparison markers than males
Addition	Significant	Males used more addition markers than males
Time/sequence	Significant	Females used more consequence markers than males
Contradiction	not significant	Females used more contradiction markers than males
Code glosses	Significant	Males used more code glosses than females
Reformulation	Significant	Males used more markers than females
Exemplification	not significant	Females used more exemplification markers than males
Evidentials	Significant	Males used more evidentials than females
Quoting written sources	Significant	Males used more of these than females
Quoting spoken sources	Significant	Males used more of these than females
Frame markers	Significant	Males used more frame markers than females
Sequence	Significant	Males used more of these markers than females
Announcing goals	Significant	Males used more of these markers than females
Labeling stages	Significant	Males used more of these markers than females
Topic shift	Significant	females used more of these markers than males
Endophoric markers	Significant	Males used more endophoric markers than females

5.1.2. Variations in the Frequencies of the Instances of Interactional Metadiscourse Markers in *Post* newspaper Opinion Articles

Research question 2 sought to find out the above variations in female and male articles. .The following were the results.

5.1.2.1. Overall Frequencies of Interactional MD Markers by Gender

Table 40 shows the overall frequencies of the instances of interactional metadiscourse markers used by gender.

Table 41: Overall Frequencies of the Instances of Interactional MD Markers by Gender

Gender	Frequency of Interactional MD Markers	Percent
Female	2769	49.9
Male	2784	50.1
Total	5553	100.0

Table 41 shows that there were a total of 5553 interactional metadiscourse markers in the corpus. Of these, females used 2769 while males used 2784 representing 49.9 percent and 50.1 percent respectively of the total interactional metadiscourse markers present in the corpus. The percentages also indicate that the difference between female and male use of interactional metadiscourse markers at the overall level is 0.2%.

These results imply that at the overall level, females and males differ in their use of interactional markers with males using slightly higher frequencies of interactional markers than females.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly on the use of interactional metadiscourse markers at the overall level, a t-test was carried out. Table 42 shows the results of the t-test.

Table 42: Comparison of the Overall Frequencies of Interactional MD Markers by Gender (n=2769 females and 2784 males)

Variable	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Interactional MD			-2.24	5551	.025
Females	17.6	1.3			
Males	17.7	1.3			

Table 42 shows that males were significantly different from females on the use of interactional metadiscourse markers (p=.025). Inspection of the two group means indicates that the average interactional metadiscourse use for female writers (M=17.6) is significantly lower than the use for males (M=17.7).This implies that females and males differ in their use of interactional metadiscourse markers with males using slightly more markers than females. The similarity in the group means also implies that there are more similarities than differences in the way females and males use interactional metadiscourse markers.

5.1.2.2. Frequencies of Interactional MD Markers by Gender in the Subcategories

The following section presents detailed frequencies of interactional metadiscourse markers used in the subcategories by gender.

Table 43: Frequencies of Interactional MDs in the Subcategories by Gender

Interactional MDs in the Subcategories	Female	Percent	Male	Percent	Total	Percent
Hedges	803	54	685	46.0	1488	100.0
Boosters	521	47.1	585	52.9	1106	100.0
Self-mentions	681	48.5	724	51.5	1405	100.0
Attitude Markers	564	49.3	581	50.7	1145	100.0
Engagement Markers	200	48.9	209	51.1	409	100.0
Totals	2769	49.9	2784	50.1	5553	100.0

Table 43 shows that there were a total of 5553 interactional metadiscourse markers in the corpus of the study. Of these, 2769 (49.9%) were used by females while 2784 (50.1%) were used by males. The table also shows that males used more markers than females in the following subcategories of interactional metadiscourse markers: boosters (585 against 521); self-mentions (724 against 681); attitude markers (581 against 564); and engagement markers (209 against 200). Females, on the other hand, used more hedges (803) than their male counterparts (685).

Table 43 further indicates that engagement markers were the least used by females and males in both groups (209 and 200 respectively) while hedges and self-mentions were heavily used by females and males respectively. Additionally, the table shows that frequencies of boosters and attitude markers were relatively similar in both groups (521 females and 585 males; and 564 females and 581 males respectively).

This implies that both groups make use of metadiscourse markers in the subcategories of interactional metadiscourse category; however, there are variations in the frequencies used depending on gender. as evidenced by the heavy use of hedges by females as compared to males. In like manner, males seem to use more of self-mentions than any other markers in the subcategories compared to females. Another implication of these results is that both genders use attitude markers, boosters and engagement markers in slightly similar ways as evidenced by the frequencies used by both groups.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly in the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in the subcategories, a Chi-square static was run.

Table 44: Chi-square Analysis of the Use of Interactional MD Markers in the Subcategories by Gender

| *Variable* | *n* | *Gender* | | *x²* | *p* |
		f	*m*		
Interactional Markers				14.787	.005
Hedges	1488	803	685		
Boosters	1106	521	585		
Self-mentions	1405	681	724		
Attitude Markers	1145	564	581		
Engagement Markers	409	200	209		

Totals	5553	2769	2784

Table 44 shows the Pearson Chi-square results and indicates that females and males differ significantly on the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in the subcategories level ($x^2=$, 14.787, df=4, n=,p=.005 with males using more interactional metadiscourse markers than females.

The Phi, which indicates the strength of the variations between the two groups, is .005; therefore, the effect size is considered to be low to medium according to Cohen (1988). This implies that there are more similarities than differences in the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in the subcategories.

The following section presents detailed frequencies of interactional metadiscourse markers in the subcategories.

5.1.2.2.1. Detailed Frequencies of Interactional MD Markers by Gender in the Subcategories

5.1.2.2.1.1. Hedges

These mark the writer's reluctance to present propositional information categorically. The following extracts from the corpus illustrate how females and males used hedges in newspaper opinion articles-the words in bold are the instances of hedges.

> As with the others before if, this commission **seems** to have captured the essence of what the people of Zambia have been asking to be reflected in their basic law. (*Unnecessary Pain Post newspaper,* 2015, March 11p.20)

> From as back as 2011 and **perhaps** even farther,(also embedded in our national development plans) the talk of diversifying agriculture, adding value to our products and improving manufacturing have repeatedly been talked about….
> *(Agriculture potential: reflecting on ministerial statement*, *Post newspaper,* 2013, November 2 p.20) .

> However, it **may be** interesting to reflect on some developments that have taken place since 23rd September, 2011 to see if there is any evidence to be optimistic or not.
> (*6 months down the line: how is PF govt doing? Post newspaper,* 2012, April 20)

Had it remained among Zambia organizations **perhaps** the matter **could** not have taken on the wider dimensions which brought it to the attention of the outside world**.** (*Who gets what, when and how Post newspaper,* 2011, January 26 p.11**)**

Perhaps this situation was only to be expected since Zambia had only just emerged, a few weeks earlier, from the dark days of One Party State. *(The ugly face of politics Post newspaper,* 2013, March 18 p.12)

We **believe** to boost capacity and enable many to stay on, government should remove some period say for some ten years or so.*(Wasted lives Post newspaper,* 2012, November 10 p.18**)**

The following extracts illustrate how females and males used hedges but also how they blended

hedges and boosters to strike a balance in the forcefulness of their propositions:

I believe there are two issues here that need to be separated and which are mutually exclusive-the message and the messenger. The message does not become faulty or wrong just because the messenger has fallen out of grace. **I believe** many of the opponents are tying the message/declaration to the man who is said to have declared it,… Chiluba is not the declaration. **Maybe** if those that are currently opposed to the declaration took him out of the picture when reflecting on this issue, they **would** come to a different conclusion. **The fact** that the behavior of Zambians/government does not **appear** to have changed for the better since the inclusion of the declaration in the constitution is not an indication that we can never attain Christian values as a nation.(*Christian Nation Post newspaper,* 2015, August 1 p.19)

She felt **quite strongly** that I, in the said and earlier article, in criticizing the British press' reportage of African issues was indulging in a case of not very respectable scapegoating (*Electoral Bill Post newspaper,* 2012, May 7 p.9)

Table 45: Frequencies of Selected Instances of Hedges Used by Gender

Selected Instances of Hedges Used	Function	Female	Male	Total
Maybe		17	9	26
Could		38	58	96
Might		19	0	19
Would	Withhold commitment and open dialogue	126	115	241
Can		104	107	211
May		44	40	84
Cannot		32	30	62
Most		61	51	112
Some		27	29	56
Quite		22	3	25

Table 45 shows frequencies of selected instances of hedges used by female and male writers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles. The table shows that there are variations between males and females on the use of hedges. Most frequently used hedges by females and males in the corpus of the present study were: *would* (used 126 and 115 times respectively), *can* (used 104 and 107 times respectively), *most* (used 61 and 51 times respectively), *could* (used 38 and 58 times respectively), *may* (used 44 and 40 times respectively) and *cannot* (used 32 and 30 times respectively).The overall frequencies of hedges used by females and males in the whole corpus of the study are presented in figure 4.
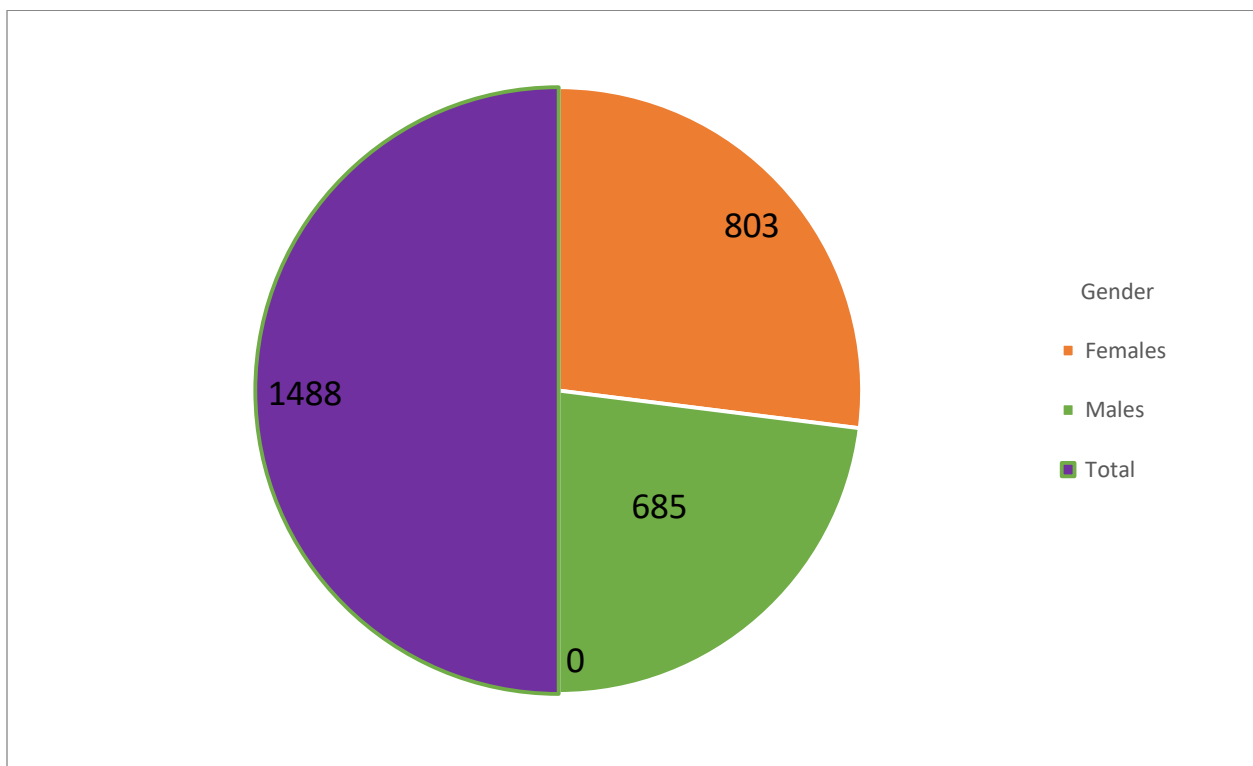
Figure 4: Frequencies of Hedges Used by Gender

The figure shows that there were a total of 1488 hedges in the whole corpus. Out of these, females used 803 while males used 685. This implies that females used more markers than males in the subcategory of hedges.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly in the use of hedges, a t-test was carried out. Table 46 shows the results of the test.

Table 46: Comparison of Frequencies of Hedges by Gender (n=803 females and 685 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Hedges			-906	1486	.365
Females	556.27	28.26			
Males	557.70	32.10			

Table 46 shows that females and males are not significantly different in the use of hedges (p=.365). Inspection of the two group means indicates that the average use of hedges by females (M=556.27) is not significantly lower than that of males (M=557.70).

This implies that although females seem to use more hedges than males, there are more similarities than differences in the way both groups use hedges. This could also imply that gender is not really a factor in the use of hedges.

5.1.2.2.1.2. Boosters

Unlike hedges, these markers help the writer to express certainty and emphasize the force of propositions. The following extracts from the corpus of the present study illustrate how females used boosters.

This is an election year, **it is obvious** that the power hungry leaders that we have in our country shall manipulate things, therefore let us see these documents place.*(K40 billion youth fund Post newspaper,* 2015, July 2 p.20**)**

These laws are **clearly** at variance with the SADC Principles and guidelines which stress the need for member states to take measures that ensure that all citizens enjoy freedom of movement, association and expression and political tolerance.**(**Zimbabwe's Elections *Post newspaper,* 2015, May 12 p.23**)**

While **clearly** of suspect moral standing, former President Chiluba was **certainly** not a political fool.*(Unnecessary Pain Post newspaper,* 2015, July 17 p.17**)**

With all **certainty** we can rightly say espouse that the sentiments in topic are held dear by a number of our politicians. But what **must** be noted is that last week's reflection was on the attempt to point out that even as our members of the Legislature have every right to protest.*(Parliamentary Decorum Post newspaper,* 2011, March 4 p.12**)**

Clearly six months are not enough to pass judgement on performance of any government and this exercise is not meant to do that. I am **certain** that there are people who will look at the comments and offer different perspectives. *(Six months down the line: how is PF govt doing? Post newspaper,* 2012, March 3 p.20)

Selected instances of boosters in the corpus of the study are presented in table 47.

Table 47: Frequencies of Selected Instances of Boosters Used by Gender

Selected Instances of boosters Used	Function	Female	Male	Total
Indeed		10	21	31
in fact		25	12	37
Must		43	84	147
Never		20	18	38
Should	Emphasize certainty and close dialogue	133	120	253
Will		25	34	59
Certainly		13	7	20
Always		14	22	36
clear(ly)		21	37	58
do (did)		30	39	69

Table 47 shows frequencies of selected instances of boosters used by female and male writers in

Post newspaper opinion articles. The table shows that there are variations in the use of boosters

between males and females. Most frequently used boosters by females and males in the corpus of the present study were: *should* (used 133 and 120 times respectively) *must* used 43 and 84 times respectively) *in fact*(used 25 and 12 times respectively) *indeed*(used 10 and 21 times respectively) *do (did)* (used 30 and 39 times respectively) *will*(used 25 and 34 times respectively) *clear(ly)*(used 21 and 37 times respectively). The overall frequencies of boosters used by females and males in the whole corpus of the study are presented in figure 5.
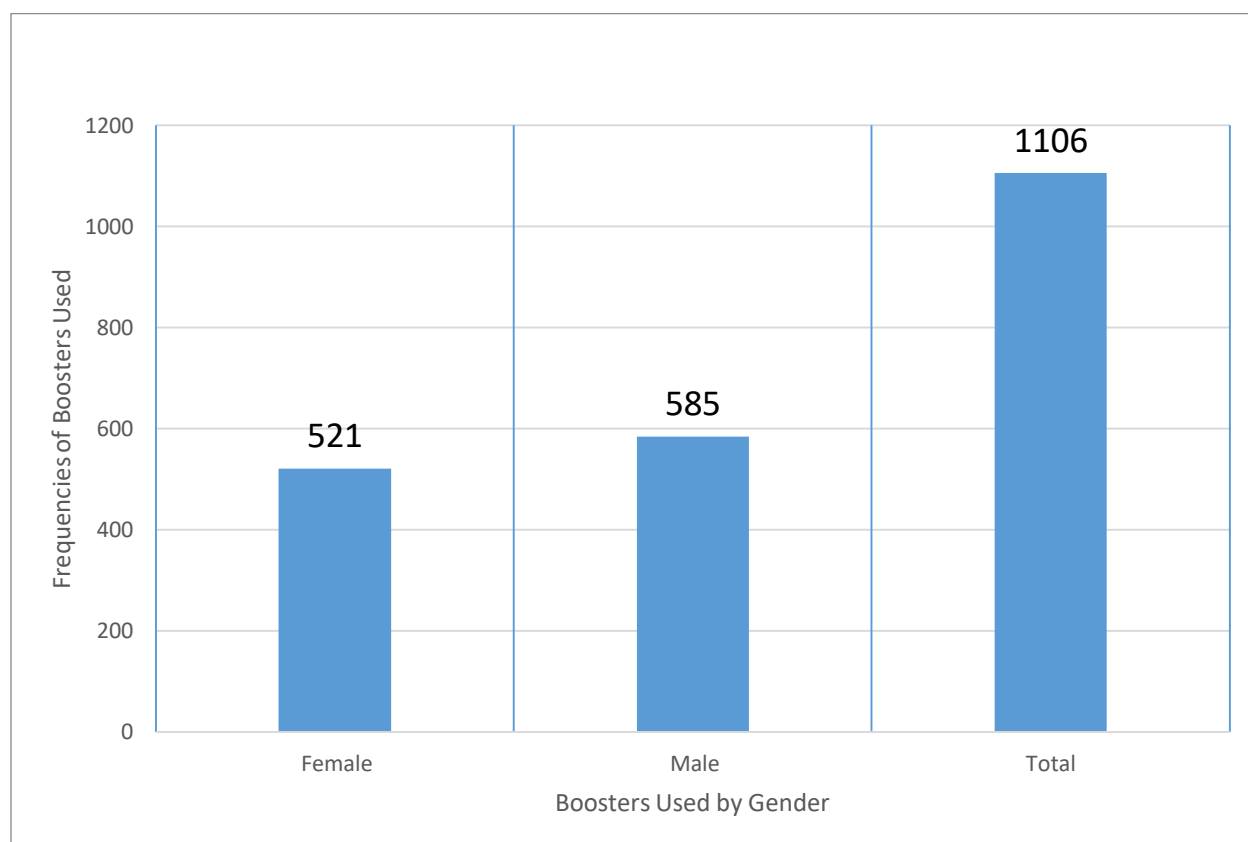
Figure 5: Frequencies of boosters Used by Gender

The figure shows that there were a total of 1106 boosters in the whole corpus. Out of these, females used 521 while males used 585.

This implies that females use more interactional metadiscourse markers than males in the subcategory of boosters.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly in the use of boosters, a t-test was carried out. Table 49 shows the results of the t-test.

Table 48: Comparison of Frequencies of Boosters by Gender (n=521 females and 585 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Boosters			-309	1104	.002
Females	669.37	19.67			
Males	673.58	24.90			

Table 48 shows that females and males were significantly different in the use of boosters (p=.002). Inspection of the two group means indicates that the average use of boosters by females (M=669.37) is significantly lower than the use of boosters by males (M=673.58) This implies that males use more boosters than females.

5.1.2.2.1.3. Attitude Markers

These express the writer's appraisal of propositional information, conveying surprise, obligation, agreement, importance, and so on (Tse and Hyland, 2008)**.**.

The following extracts illustrate how some female and some male writers used attitude markers in *Post* newspaper articles:

> **It's a pity** that our draft constitution is still beyond the reach of many citizens, especially those in rural areas. (*The Undemocratic nature of democracy Post newspaper,* 2015, May 20 p. 23)

> For goodness' sake, it not right that the President should resolve everything in . Remember when the Chiefs in the house felt they must be paid some **ridiculously** high

amounts, the local government minister's response was that only the President could resolve this matter. (*Misinforming the nation Post newspaper,* 2015, January 27 p.10)

Nelson Mandela lovingly called by his indigenous name "Madiba" fellow South Africans is gone at the age of 95…He had been sentenced to life in prison for fighting against apartheid in 1964. He **finally calmly** emerged, walked to the open prison gates of Victor –Verster Prison in Paarl while holding the hand of his then wife Winnie Mandela.(*Nelson Mandela: larger than life Post newspaper,* 2012, March 18 p.12)

Yet another **striking** dataset is the percentage of people in formal employment who **only** account for 10 percent of the working population…(*Labour Day Celebrations Post newspaper,* 2015, April 13 p.36)
It is important to bear in mind that a country such as Zambia where unemployment is high, especially among the youths venturing in political violence for a K50n might be the option for some youths.*(Past election lessons and the way forward Post newspaper,* 2013, March 2 p.12)

It is **worth-noting,** nonetheless, of that the tendencies f disintegration have not only been among EU member countries, but also within some of its individual countries, **Notable** among these are Scortland's planned referendum on independence from the UK and Clifornia's campaign to be independent from Spain. (*Price of political unity Post newspaper,* 2013, January 1 p.25)

Selected instances of attitude markers found in the corpus of the study are presented in table 49

Table 49: Frequencies of Selected Instances of Attitude Markers Used by Gender

Selected Instances of attitude markers Used	Function	Female	Male	Total
wonder (ing), (s), (ed)	Expressing appraisal(surprise, agreement, obligation, etc.) of propositional information,	1	13	14
Unnecessary		2	6	8
Unfortunate (ly)		14	5	19
Alas!		11	2	13
Fairly		6	5	11
Sad		11	2	13
Extremely		10	4	14
Even		51	36	87
Essential (ly)		4	8	12
Effectively		4	7	11
Unfair		3	1	4
Alleged		8	5	13
Seriously		6	8	14
Really		8	4	12

Table 49 shows frequencies of selected instances of attitude markers used by female and male

writers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles. The table shows that males and females use varying

frequencies of markers to express attitudes. Most frequently used attitude markers by females and males in the corpus of the present study were: *even* (used 51 and 36 times respectively) *extremely* (used 10 and 4 times*) seriously* (used 6 and 8 times*); unfortunately* (used 14 and 5 times respectively*); sad* (used 11 and 2 times respectively)*alas!* (used 11 and 2 times)*wonder (ing) (ed) (s),* (used 1 and 13 times respectively).

The overall frequencies of attitude markers used by females and males in the whole corpus of the study are presented in figure 6
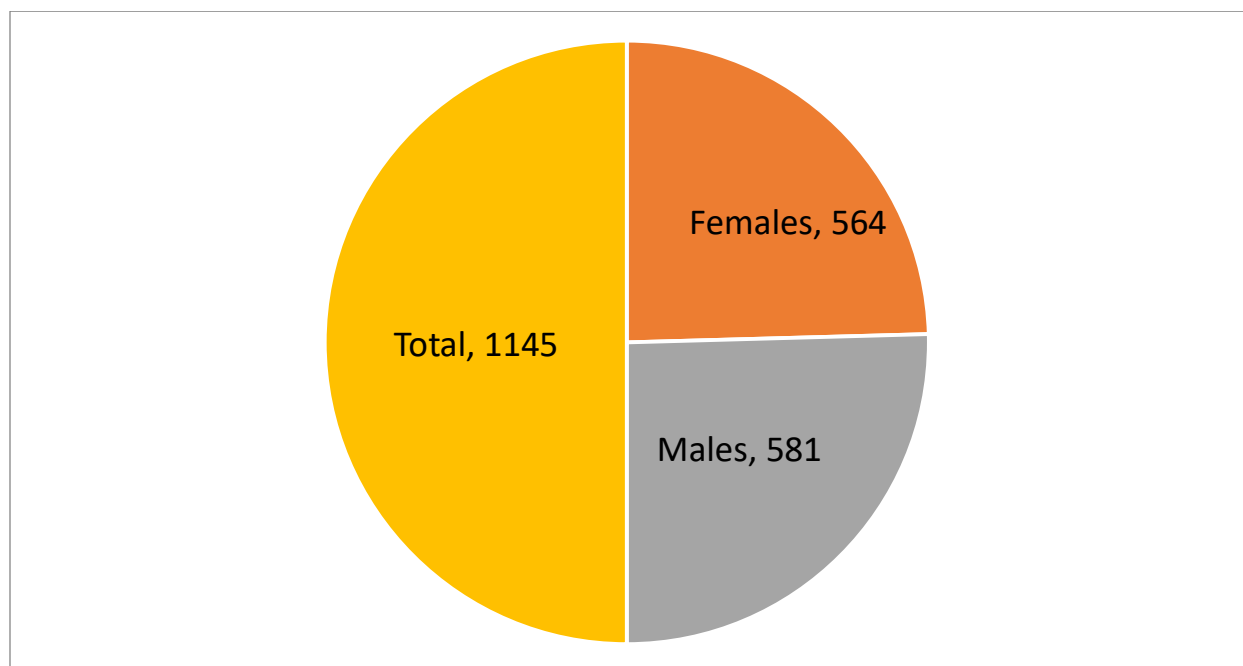
Figure 6: Attitude Markers Used by Gender

Figure 6 shows that out of the 1145 attitude markers present in the whole corpus, females used 564 while males used 581.This implies that males used more interactional metadiscourse markers than females in the subcategory of attitude markers.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly in the use of attitude markers, a t-test was carried out.

Table 50: Comparison of Frequencies of Attitude Markers by Gender (n=564 females and 581 males)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Attitude Markers			-14.42	1140	.000
Females	907.04	93.10			
Males	1005.21	132.85			

Table 50 shows that females and males were significantly different in the use of attitude markers (p=.000). Inspection of the two group means indicates that the average use of attitude markers by females (M=907.04) is significantly lower than the use of attitude by males (M=1005.21).

This implies that males use more attitude markers than females.

5.1.2.2.1.4. Self-mentions

These markers express the extent of the presence of the writer in terms of first person pronouns and possessives such as: *I, me, my, our, a*nd so on. The following extracts from *Post* Newspaper shows how females and writers used self-mentions.

> This article is an attempt to bring this message of independence Day home. It's very easy for these sentiments to be simply well written speeches that do not influence or address the challenges that **we** are confronting as a nation that pose a threat to **our** peace and unity. **We** cannot discount the fact that what characterized the celebrations transcended any political divide (*Call for peace and unity by Post newspaper,* 2011, September 3)

> **I** remember during Chiluba era, MMD cadres threatened the Mazabuka police commanding officer(then) with unspecified sanctions for refusing to disrupt a UPND rally…**I** understand thatb the Commanding officer was demoted and moved to some remote part of Zambia…Whle I accept that mere thieves and robbers murder innocent human beings, **I** have never accepted thatbthe late Rnald Penza, Pau Tembo, Major Wezi

Kaunda were killed by mere thieves or robbers. (*We need a truth commission Post newspaper,* 2015, January 10 p.10)

I thought **I** should continue the discussion for the benefit of my readers. In **my** view, although democracy has several elements, free and fair elections are the cornerstone of a democratic society.*(Zambia's democracy Post newspaper,* 2012, December,18 p.28**)**

We have a fledgling democracy, especially that **we** have had several attempts at having a people-driven constitution. **Our** political constitutions are still on crawling stage though **we** would have expected them to be at the walking stage. **Our** nation finds itself facing a lot of challenges politically…What is ideal for **us** is a nation to learn from. *(Challenges of our democracy Post newspaper,* 2015, June p.28**)**

Last week **I** spent a few days in Antananarivo the capital city of Madagascar…In the few days **I** spent in Antananarivo, **I** could not clearly to grips with all the intricacies of the political situation…*(Managing tensions Post newspaper,* 2011, August p.20)

Selected instances of self-mentions found in the corpus of the study are presented in table 51.

Table 51: Frequencies of Selected Instances of Self-mentions Used by Gender

Selected Instances of Self-mentions Used	Function	Female	Male	Total
I		214	124	338
Me		29	14	43
My	explicit reference to author(s)	36	20	**56**
We		227	315	542
Our		124	180	304
Us		38	53	91

Table 51 shows frequencies of selected instances of self-mentions used by female and male writers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles. The table shows that males and females use varying frequencies of self-mentions. Most frequently used self-mentions by females and males in the corpus of the present study were: *we* (used 227 and 315 times respectively)*, I (* used 214 and 124 times respectively)*, me,* (used 29 and 14 times respectively) *my(* used 36 and 20 times) respectively *our* (used 124 and 180 times respectively)*, us* (38 and 53 times respectively*)* The overall frequencies of self-mentions are presented in figure 7.

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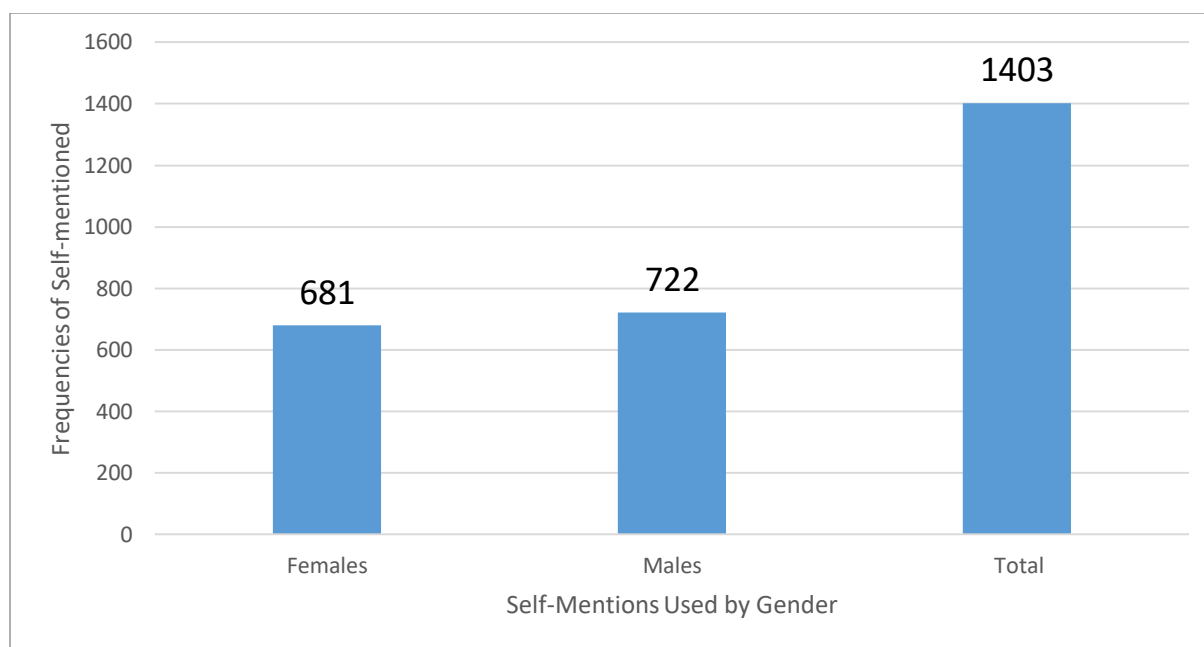
Figure 7: Frequency of Self-mentions by Gender

Figure 7 shows that there were 1403 self-mentions in the whole corpus of the study. of these, females used 681 while males use 722 representing 48.5% and 51.5% of the total self-markers present in the corpus.

To investigate whether females and males differ significantly in the use of self-mentions, a t-test was carried out. Table 51 shows

Table 52: t-test Analysis of the Use of self-mentions by Gender

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Self-mentions			-6.10	1140	.000
Females	1224.02	3.40			
Males	1225.22	3.08			

Table 52 shows that females and males were significantly different in the use of self-mentions (p=.000). Inspection of the two group means indicates that the average use of self-mentions by

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females (M=1224.02) is significantly lower than the use of boosters by males (M=1225.22). This implies that males use more self-mentions than females although the difference margin is not very wide as can be seen from the group means.

5.1.2.2.1.5. Engagement Markers

Engagement markers explicitly address readers, either by selectively focusing their attention or by including them as participants in the text through second person pronouns and possessives. The following extracts illustrate the use of engagement markers by both genders in *Post* newspaper opinion articles.

> The point, **you** see is that Levy is not a business executive who lives on his own sweat. He is a President. His lifestyle is bone by the taxpayer. (*Little Miss Post newspaper,* 2012, January 1 p.10)

> **Just where is the expected moral responsibility of the Zambian Gvernment towards its people?** (question)…*(HIPC Celebration? Post newspaper,* 2015, January 29 p.10 **)**

> **Just imagine** what this amount would do in terms of providing the basic medical requirements in many of **our** health instituitions? (Health "Ghost' *Post newspaper,* 2013, March 18 p.12**)**

> What I am sharing with **you** here is cutting edge of man on man violence. So now get it from me I will tell you for free…**you know what? You** ought to pay me a lot for saying this. This information yu ought to have but you will not find it on **your** news channels (*Raising Dust Post newspaper,* 2011, May 11 p.20)

Selected instances of engagement markers found in the corpus of the study are presented in table 53

Table 53: Frequencies of Selected Instances of Engagement Markers Used by Gender

Selected Instances of Engagement Markers Used	Function	Female	Male	Total
Question		79	88	167
You		55	60	115
Your	explicitly address readers	14	9	23
Let us		7	8	15
Imagine		2	2	4
dear citizens		3	0	3

Table 53 shows that males and females use varying types and frequencies of markers to make explicitly address readers. Most frequently used engagement markers by females and males in the corpus of the present study were: *question* (used 79 and 88 times)*, you (*55 and 60 times); *your (*14 and 9 times); *imagine (*used 2 and 2 times respectively); *let us*; (used 7 and 8 times respectively).

 The overall frequencies of engagement markers are presented in figure 8
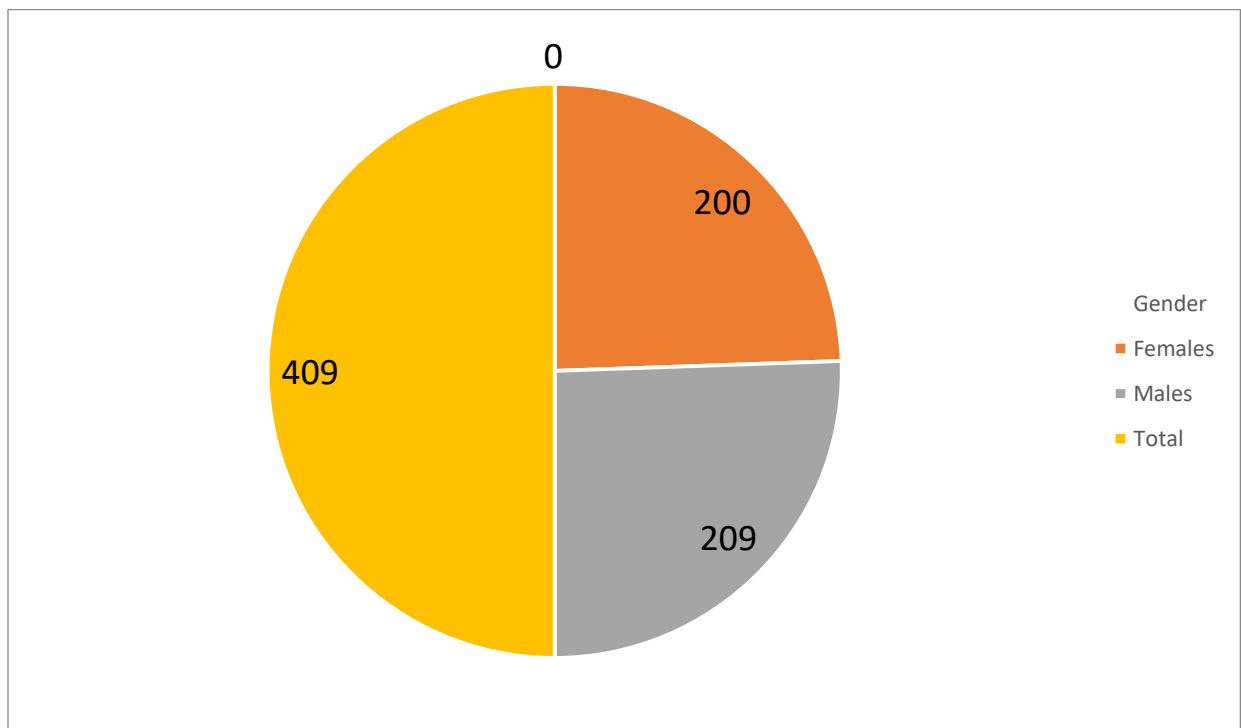
Figure 8: Frequency of Engagement Markers Used by Gender

Figure 8 shows that there were 409 engagement markers in the whole corpus of the study. Of these, females used 200 while males used 209 representing 48.9% and 51.1% of the total engagement markers present in the corpus.

To determine whether females and males differ significantly in the use of engagement markers, a t-test was carried out. Table 55 shows the results of the test.

Table 54: t-test Analysis of the Use of engagement markers by Gender

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Engagement Markers			-4.32	407	.000
Females	1253.87	6.60			
Males	1257.32	8.92			

Table 54 shows that females and males were significantly different in the use of engagement markers (p=.000). Inspection of the two group means indicates that the average use of engagement markers by females (M=1253.87) is significantly lower than the use of engagement markers by males (M=1257.32).This implies that males use more engagement markers than females

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS ON RESEARCH QUESTION 2

- There are variations in the frequencies of interactional metadiscourse markers in the newspaper articles written by females and males were found both at the overall level and in the subcategories

- On the overall level of interactional metadiscourse markers, males used slightly more markers than females but in the subcategories, females used more hedges than males. As regards the use of boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions and engagement markers, males and females showed more similarities than differences

- Some variations were statistically significant while others were not (Table 54 summarises this)

Table 55: A Summary of Findings for Research Question 2

Interactional MD Markers	Statistical test results	Comment
Hedges	not significant	females used more hedges than males
Boosters	Significant	males used more boosters than males
Attitude markers	Significant	males used more attitude markers than females
Self-mentions	Significant	males used more self-mentions than females
Engagement markers	`	Males used more engagement markers than males

5.1.3. Instances of Interactive Metadiscourse Markers that can be Considered to be Unique to Gender

5.1.3.1. Instances of Interactive Metadiscourse Markers Unique to Female and Male Written Discourses on Political Matters.

The qualitative investigations of instances of interactive metadiscourse markers that could be considered unique to written discourses of females and males revealed that there were very few such instances in both corpora. Table 56.presents such instances.

Table 56: Instances of interactive MD markers unique to female and male written discourses on political matters.

Interactive MD Categories	Interactive MD Markers Unique to Female and Males	
	Females	Males
Code glosses	I mean, ,basically	To drive the nail home, in the same vein, in another breath
Endophoric markers	As noted before, as stated earlier, mentioned earlier, I have said before,	the aforementioned,
Evidentials	direct quotations (spoken sources)	direct quotations(written sources
Frame Markers	Well, anyway (topic shift)	after all is said and done, on another front, going forward
Transition Markers	again, among, far much better than	Owing to, with a view to

Table 56 shows that interactive markers unique to females and males were present in both corpora; however, such instances were not as many as those that both genders shared in common as the earlier sections on the quantitative results showed. Hence it can be seen that they are a very small fraction of the total interactive markers present in the corpus.

This implies that there are more similarities than differences in the interactive metadiscourse markers that females and males used in newspaper opinion articles on political matters.

The following extracts illustrate how some interactive markers unique to females and males were used in *Post* newspaper.

5.1.3.1.1. Code glosses

But more reverting is the matter of alleged corruption in the party of power in the run up to the convention. **I mean,** it is incongruous, comic almost, that a party whose president, (acting in name only) is Levy Mwanawasa can be sinking to divert attention from the fact that, contrary to the democratic principles on which the party was founded, no one is challenging him for the MMD presidency,(except someone that can only lose). (*MMD Convention Post newspaper,* 2015, May 7 p.9)

These considerations are relevant for anyone who is concerned about the effectiveness and efficiency of public support to commercial entities. **To drive the nail home**, you can consider whether the maize (both production and consumption and fuel subsidies satisfy these considerations. *Competition Effects of subsidies part 2 Post newspaper,* 2012, March 18 p.12)

5.1.3.1.2. Endophoric markers

As stated earlier, appointments of the declaration have advanced the fact that Zambians and the government are still 'sinful' and corrupt ten years on and citing this as an indication that declaring the country as a Christian nation as not yielded results.(*A Christian Nation*) *Post newspaper,* 2015, August 1 p.19

I have said before and I would like to repeat that it is critical for those of us that are alive and well and able to provide some kind of roof, however leaky, over our children's heads, to wonder what would happen to them if we died.(*Children in need of Govt Post newspaper,* 2013, March 1 p.11)
In the few days I spent in Antananarivo I could not clearly come to grips with all the intricacies of the political situation but it became apparent that one reason the former president Deposed was because   he failed to dialogue with his political opponents including the **aforementioned** young mayor of the capital city.(*Managing tensions Post newspaper,* 2012, August 21 p.20)

5.1.3.1. 3. Evidentials

Country for sale or not, my dismay continued when on Radio Pheonix **I heard none other than the chief government spokesperson Vernon Mwaanga saying it was wrong for anyone to blame government for the fuel crisis.** (*Respecting our Sovereignty Post newspaper,* 2015, March 11p.20)

5.1.3.1.4. Frame Markers

Country for sale or not, my dismay continued when I heard none other than the chief government spokesperson Vernon Mwaanga saying it was wrong for anyone to blame government for the fuel crisis. **Well,** we have a government in charge of this country, who else should be blame?......Patel advised Saudubray to respect Zambia's sovereign rights and behave accordingly. **Well,** Saudubray is not known for keeping quiet on issues affecting Zambia's sovereign right(*Respecting our Sovereignty Post newspaper,* 2015, October 18 p.11)

Apartheid was done away with down south and this time around Africa is free from slave trade (human trafficking), and the whole mockery thing that the dark continent literally facedis now history. What is remaining is the indirect mockery mockerythat has become a challenge to deal with. **Anyway**, the idea is not to talk about the colonial era and the victory we wonThe idea is to see how far we can go in exercising our rights as free people in a free land (*Unza students are free to exercise their rights Post newspaper,* 2011, September, 19 p.11)

5.1.3.1.5. Transition Markers

The problem **again** is that the people's views have been rejected by the very system he has

happily cooperated with so many times **(** *Enemies of Democracy Post newspaper,* 2012, April 30 p.8) **)**

5.1.4. Instances of Interactional Metadiscourse Markers Unique to Gender

Research question 4 of the present study sought to investigate instances of interactional MMs

that could be considered unique to female and male writers. Below are the detailed findings of

this inquiry.

5.1.4.1. Instances of Interactional MD Markers Unique to Female and Male Written Discourses n Political Matters.

The qualitative investigations of instances of interactional metadiscourse markers that could be considered unique to written discourses of females and males revealed that there were very few such instances in both corpora. Table 57.presents such instances.

Table 57: Instances of Interactional Markers Unique to Female and Male Written Discourses

Interactional MD Categories	Interactional MD Markers Unique to Female and Males	
	Females	**Males**
Attitude Markers	wow! ha! oh! Alas! Immaculate, depressing, afraid, fondly, *awe!* (a linguistic item in a Zambian local language that means-no!)	insane, impunity, backward, folly, bad, good
Boosters	very true, absolute certainty,	beyond any reasonable doubt, cannot be overemphasised, no one can doubt
Hedges	Kind of, maybe, pretty sure Quite often	wouldn't
Self-mentions	myself	the author, the writer
Engagement Markers	*Banabahesu,* Well, o.k., come on!	*Banabahesu* (a linguistic item in a Zambian local language that means my people/my clan), o.k. come on!

The above table shows that interactional metadiscourse markers unique to females and males were present in both corpora. As the case was for interactive markers, interactional markers unique to females and males were also not as many as those that both genders shared in common as the earlier sections on the quantitative results showed. They, too, are a very small fraction of the total interactional markers present in the corpus.

This implies that there are more similarities than differences in the interactional metadiscourse markers that females and males use in newspaper opinion articles on political matters.

Further the table indicates that attitude markers used that can be considered unique to females were mostly exclamations (wow! ha! oh! Alas!) and evaluative adjectives (immaculate, depressing, afraid, fondly) . Markers that can be considered unique to males were mostly linguistic resources that expressed negative judgments (e.g. insane, impunity, backward); informal language style of writing (e.g. folly) and descriptive adjectives (bad, good).

The following extracts from *Post* newspaper opinion articles illustrate how some   interactional metadiscourse markers that were unique to females were used:

5.1.4.1.1. Attitude Markers

5.1.4.1.1. 1. Exclamations

> We have for some time now as patriotic men and women of the land aired our grievances concerning the dilapidated state our nation is currently in. **Alas!** to no avail. It seems we have been talking to people without a conscious, people with such greed and thirst for wealth and riches. *(Selfish Leadership Post newspaper,* 2012, May 20 p.25)

> He said he had also been asked to vote for President Mwanawasa **Ha! Ha! Ha!***(Anso! Post newspaper,* 2013, February 18 p.12

> I have to tell you that the President discovered to his horror that the man he had appointed minister was wanted by the law. So, he is no longer minister. **Wow!** how about that everybody thought what a monumental confusion!..A day later, there he was in the papers making the feeling "Foolish Statement"…**Ha!** Levy! When will he ever learn! *(Feeling Foolish Post newspaper,* 2015, February 12 p.7)

5.1.4.1.1.2. Affective adjectives.

> This is because with the help of the people, who should know better, the country has engaged in time, energy, intellect, and money wasting exercises such as the   many constitutional review processes which have led us nowhere in the last forty years. **I'm afraid,** but this country is not going very far, until such a time when there are enough women and men of courage who can stare jobs, allowances and other 'carrots' tangled in the face, sacrifice and say no to these and do what is in the best interest of their country. *(Enemies of Democracy Post newspaper,* 2015, June 23 p.9**)**

5.1. 4. 1.1.3. Adverbs

Another linguistic feature that was found to be unique to females and males was the use of adverbs such as *immaculately* and *backward* respectively. The following extract from *Post* newspaper illustrates this.

> The majority of women are highly affiliated to consumption and absolutely repellant to production. We want to live well by eating well, residing in good houses, driving nice cars and dress **immaculately** and yet choose not to work for all this. *The role of Women in Poverty Eradication Post newspaper,* 2015, March 23 p.9

5.1.4.1.2. Boosters

The following extracts from *Post* newspaper illustrate how females and males used some boosters uniquely.

> Now, of course, it is possible that President Mwanawasa decided to treat his daughter to an exotic holiday in Japan and is carrying the cost. Still, the idea of her   press covered jolly time sits funny in the stomach, and I'm **pretty sure** it is not just the good old green feeling. What is disturbing (for me at least) about seeing Miss Lubuno on her present Japanese holiday is that seeing her there is a sad reminder of the inequality of life for Zambian children. *(Little Miss Post newspaper,* 2011, June 18 p.12**)**

> I am not a prophetess but I can state with **absolute certainty** that Nevers Mumba will not win the presidency at the May MMD Convention. *(MMD Convention Post newspaper,* 2015, May 7 p. 9**)**

> This move has really puzzled a lot of people, I am **pretty sure** even the people at the Ministry of Youth Development Council (MYDC) through which youth organizations and   individuals will access these funds. (*K40 billion youth fund Post newspaper,* 2012, July 8 p.20)

5.1.4.1.3. Hedges

The following extracts from *Post* newspaper illustrate how females used *kind of* and *maybe* in their opinion articles.

> But then **maybe** there is something I and the rest of the nation do not know, would it be that since Pastor Mumba left the presidency, in a spurt of bad blood with the boss, how has he managed to gather up some **kind of** support in the party? ….So it is in his interests that some kind of competition seems to be taking place this time around. (*MMD Convention , Post newspaper,* 2012, April 30 p.8)

With empowerment, the majority of women and girls will desist from engaging in what **may be** termed as immoral behavior so as to maintain a certain lifestyle. (*The role of Women in Poverty Eradication Post newspaper,* 202, June 17 p.12)

As a result, so many citizens have died since **maybe** not because of blasts that can attract world attention and **some kind of** compensation, but from simple starvation and homelessness. (*Stomach Politics Post newspaper,* 2012, April 30 p.8)

5.1.4.1.4. Self-mentions

The following extracts from *Post* newspaper illustrate how females and males used some self-

mentions in their opinion articles.

Since we opened many people **I** know and **myself** do not know where to begin from to paying the huge amounts of money for tuition at the university. (*K40 million youth fund,* 2015, April 7 p.2)

5.1.4.1.5. Engagement Markers

5.1.4.1.5.1. Local terminology

Banabahesu, last month I reflected with you on the question of value princiolesas seen in the Zambian political sphere…… ***Banabahesu*,w**ith the quotation cited above, one now wonders as to where our politicians get the idea of development linked to winning a seat in a council chamber or parliament. (*Dynamics of politics, development Post newspaper,* 2015, March 11p .20)

5.2. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented detailed findings of various investigations of metadiscourse variations in

some female and male discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles in line

with the research questions of the study. Both the quantitative and qualitative results were

presented. The findings revealed that females and males exhibited variations as well similarities

in their discourses.

The next chapter will discuss these findings in depth in line with the research questions of the

study.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0. Overview

The previous chapter presented the findings of both the quantitative and qualitative results of the various investigations of metadiscourse variations in some female and male discourses on political matters in *Post* newspaper opinion articles. This chapter discusses these findings in depth in line with the research questions of the study. The chapter ends with a conclusion and also gives the implications of the findings before making some recommendations for future research and pedagogy. The following sections present a detailed discussion of the findings.

6.1. Discussion

6.1.1. Variations in Frequencies of t Interactive MDs in Female and Male Articles

The quantitative results, as presented in table 5 of Chapter five, showed that there were variations in the frequencies of instances of interactive metadiscourse markers in the written discourses produced by some Zambian female and some Zambian male writers of opinion articles in *Post* newspaper at the overall level as well as in the subcategories. Statistical tests showed that some variations were statistically significant while other were not (Chapter 5-tables 6 and 7).

Being statistically significant, the results at the overall level of MD markers are suggesting that the variations between females' use and males' use of interactive MD markers are not due to chance. This implies that the first null hypothesis of this study which states that 'there is no significant difference between gender and the use of interactive metadiscourse markers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles on political matters' should be rejected. This partly confirms the claims made by Lakoff (1975); Tse and Hyland (2008); Waskita (2008); Matei (2011); Subon (2013) and Shirzad and Jamali (2013); Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi (2015); Saadi (2016); Pasaribu (2017) and others, that women and men tend to show some marked variations when expressing themselves whether in written or spoken discourses. However, the claims cannot be fully supported because the present study has brought to light other factors other than gender that tend to influence how females and males express themselves in their written discourses (especially newspaper opinion articles on political matters).The present study has revealed that aside from gender, the genre of the text and individual style of writing or personal preferences also play a critical role in the variations that females and males exhibit in their written discourses. Below is a detailed discussion of the quantitative results of the use of interactive markers by females and males.

6.1.1.1. Overall Frequencies of Interactive MDs by Gender in the Subcategories

6.1.1.1.1. Transition Markers

The results revealed that transition markers were the highest interactive markers used by both females and males in the corpus of the present study. Further, it was found that males used more transition markers than females (Chapter 5, table 16). The statistical analyses of these results showed a significant difference in the use of transition markers between female and male writers at the overall level and in some subcategories of these markers (Chapter 5, tables 19 to 25). It

should also be added that the frequencies of transition markers used by females and males exhibited a near similarity.

The use of high frequencies in transition markers by both genders is consistent with: Francis et al. (2001), Tse and Hyland (2008) and Alsubhi (2016), Pasaribu (2017) who found that transition markers were the highest interactive MD markers used by female and male writers.. According to Hyland (2005a) text-structuring devices such as transition markers, foster cohesion and coherence of texts thus aid readers' comprehension. Therefore, extensive use of transition markers by female and male writers in *Post* newspaper indicates that the primary concern of these writers is to communicate their propositions clearly and coherently in order to guide their readers through the discourse so that they are able to comprehend the propositions they make in a way they intend. In newspaper opinion articles, writers' main aim of writing is to persuade readers to adopt a certain view point and influence them to take a particular action (Tapia, 2019; Dewi 2017 and Seglin,2013). This, however, cannot be achieved if the discourse lacks cohesion and coherence. Hence, it is not surprising to see that both genders in *Post* newspaper relied heavily on transition markers to organise their discourses. This entails that regardless of whether the writer is male or female; arguments in a newspaper opinion article have to be presented in a cohesive and coherent manner in order for them to have the effect that the writer intends on the readers. Therefore, it can be argued that significant a factor though gender may be in the use of transition markers; it does not seem to override the genre conventions of opinion article writing.

In the subcategories, the results showed that although there were variations in the use of transition markers between females and males, there was a near similarity in the pattern of use for these markers between the genders as evidenced by the ranking of the markers in both groups

(refer to Chapter five, table 18).For instance, in both groups, addition markers ranked first, contraction markers ranked second, causation markers ranked third and consequence markers ranked fifth. The only difference was in the ranking of comparison and time/sequence markers which ranked fifth and sixth in females but sixth and fifth in males. As has earlier been argued, the similarity in the ranking of transition markers further confirms the finding of the present study that gender is an important factor in the use of transition markers but it is not the only factor influencing the quantity of these markers in the newspaper opinion articles. It is not accidental that the ranking of transition markers can follow a similar pattern in both groups; on the contrary, this means that the writers are being influenced by the genre conventions for opinion article writing when it comes to the choice of what and how many transition markers they should use in order for them to achieve their intended goal in writing. Like mentioned earlier, newspaper opinion articles are written mainly to convince readers on a given subject; hence, whether the writer is female or male, the use of textual devices that can help the writer organise his or her work but also persuade the readers to adopt a certain point of view is inevitable.

6.1.1.1.2. Frame Markers

The results revealed that there were statistically significant variations in the use of frame markers between females and males at the overall level as well as in the subcategories with males using more frame markers than females. However, a near similarity in the frequencies of these markers used by both genders was seen in the subcategories (Chapter five, Table 30).

Statistically significant results in the use of frame markers suggest that we cannot reject the claim that gender could influence the type and quantity of frame markers used in written or

spoken discourses. Nonetheless, the near similarity in the frequencies of frame markers used by both genders seems to indicate that gender may not be the only factor influencing the type and quantity of frame markers used. For instance females and males showed a near similarity in their use of sequence markers as well as markers used to announce discourse goals. In both groups, sequence markers were the highest used followed by markers for announcing discourse goals while the lowest used markers were those used for labeling stages (Chapter 5, table 31).This implies that regardless of the writer's gender, there was need to use text-structuring devices appropriately in order to enhance the reader's comprehensibility. This could a possible explanation for the heavy reliance on sequence markers by both genders. As mentioned before, if a piece of discourse is poorly organised, readers would not easily follow through the propositions being made. It is possible then that while the gender of the writer is a factor in influencing the variations in the frequencies of frame markers used, the genre of the text seems to influence the quantity of the type of frame markers to be used. We can argue, therefore, that the genre of newspaper opinion article is a possible factor that can be said to influence the choice of frame markers used by gender.

6.1.1.1.3. Endophoric Markers

The results showed that endophoric markers were the least used in the corpus of the present study. This result is not surprising; reason being that the genre of the texts for the present study is short pieces of opinion articles; actually, the present study limited the number of words per article to 800. Conventionally, the length of opinion articles does not usually exceed 1000 words (AlKholami, 2010; Tapia, 2019; Seglin, 2013). This means that these pieces of discourse are not long enough to warrant a large number of endophoric markers as the case may be in academic discourse and textbooks; hence, Hyland (2005a, p. 51)'s claim that 'endophoric markers are

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largely a feature of science and engineering texts and writing of hard disciplines' can be confirmed. It can thus be argued that endophoric markers are not a major feature of newspaper opinion articles. A possible explanation for this is that writers do not have to rely heavily on them as they do not have bulky stretches of discourse to refer readers to in order to guide them.

6.1.1.1.4. Evidentials

The results revealed that both females and males were low users of evidentials as figure 2 in Chapter five shows. Statistical analyses also showed that there were significant variations in the use of these markers between females and males (Chapter 5, table 27).

The low frequencies of evidentials in female and male newspaper opinion articles on political matters correspond to Alsubhi (2016) who found that both Saudi and British males and females were low users of evidentials in their opinion articles. Hyland (2005a) postulates that writers heavily rely on citations from books and other sources to authenticate their claims in academic discourses. In newspaper opinion articles, however, writers do not have to heavily rely on citations as the writer and the target audience often share the setting of the events being written about. This is particularly applicable to the present study in that writers are operating in a Zambian setting and are writing about political happenings of a particular period of time which both the writer and target audience share and are able to relate to at the same level even in the absence of citations from many sources.

The significant difference in the use of evidentials, on the other hand, confirms the claim that females and males tend show marked differences in the way they express themselves in written or spoken discourses. As the results have revealed, males tended to quote both written and

spoken sources more than their female counterparts. Additionally, they used direct quotations from written sources more than females. This is contrary to Lakoff (1975) who found that men tended to paraphrase more than females. Although females and males exhibit variations in the way they use citations, this study has revealed that the main preoccupation of the writers in *Post* newspaper was to demonstrate their competence and authority on the political matters being discussed. Whether male or female, writers were compelled to give credible evidence where it was necessary. Hence, a possible explanation in the variations in the frequencies of evidentials used can be said to have also arisen from individual preferences in persuading readers. Like already mentioned, the goal of writing an opinion article is to persuade readers hence, writers need to use some metadiscourse markers to achieve this. Hyland (2005, p. 63) actually postulates that "because metadiscourse helps writers to engage their audience, signal relationships, appraise readers of varying certainty and guide their understanding of a text, metadiscourse pursues persuasive objectives." Writers, however, can achieve these objectives in different ways. According to Aristotle, persuasion takes three forms which Gedges (2016) summarises as follows:

>•*ethos: the projection of the character of the speaker as trustworthy*
>
>• *Pathos: consideration of the emotions of the audience*
>
>• *Logos: inductive or deductive logical argument*

Green (2006) adds that "these elements of persuasion (ethos, pathos and logos) are reasonably related to the concept of metadiscourse. When metadiscourse links the elements of argument it pertains to logos. It is related to pathos when writers use metadiscourse to show respect for the audience's opinions. Finally, metadiscourse relates to ethos when it refers to a writer's authority and competence".

From the foregoing, it can be argued that the variations in the use of evidentials between females and males cannot only be attributed to gender differences but also personal preferences in the approach to the delivery of the discourse and the effect a writer chooses to have on his or her audience. This is what this study brought to light: while the male writers preferred to be authoritative and competent in their writing by quoting sources extensively (ethos), their female counterparts preferred to quote sources less in order to show a consideration for their audience's emotions (pathos). Either way, the goal of both genders is to persuade their readers to adopt their stance and take action.

6.1.1.1.5. Code glosses

The results showed no statistically significance difference in the use of code glosses between females and males on the overall level, however, frequencies revealed that males used more code glosses than their female counterparts. This indicates that in spite of the variation in the frequencies, females and males show more similarities than differences in their general use of code glosses. This suggests that regardless of their gender, females and males are all prone to give additional information on the subject they are writing about by elaborating, explaining or rephrasing their propositions so that their target audience interprets them according to their intended meaning just as Hyland (2005a) postulates. These results are in line with Alsubhi (2016) who identified no significant gender difference in the use of code glosses in Saudi and British female and male newspaper opinion articles. The findings also correspond to Hyland (2008) who found that males used more code glosses than females in their book reviews.

A closer investigation of the functions of code glosses, which are reformulation and exemplification, showed that males tended to use more code glosses than females for

reformulation than females while males used less code glosses for exemplification than females. This finding is not in line with Hyland and Tse (2008) who found that males tended to exemplify their propositions more than females. Although females showed higher frequencies in exemplification of their propositions than their male counterparts, this cannot be particularly considered as an important difference between the genders owing to the fact that whether a writer exemplifies, rephrases or explains his or her propositions, his or her desired goal is basically to clarify the propositions being made in order to aid readers comprehensibility Hyland, 2005). That could be the explanation for the statistical result obtained to compare the use of code glosses to show exemplification which showed no significant difference.

We can see, therefore that both females' and males' main preoccupation in the use of code glosses is to give additional information on the subject being discussed so that their audience interprets it according to their intended purpose. Hence, both genders, whether, they reformulate or exemplify their ideas seems to be a matter of individual or stylistic preference but the ultimate aim is to aid their audience's comprehensibility. This is extremely cardinal for the writers of *Post* newspaper in that they are writing for an audience that stems from the general Zambian public with different educational, professional, religious and cultural backgrounds. Moreover, since political matters were of public interest and often times sparked endless debates in opinion articles as well as letters to the Editor in *Post* newspaper (Civicus,2016a, 2016b) , it was crucial that writers of opinion articles make their propositions clear enough to be understood by their target audience. Elaboration and rephrasing of ideas, therefore, enabled writers to persuade their audience to interpret their propositions according to their intended meaning which is very paramount in opinion writing (Halmari & Virten, 2005).

6.1.2. Variations in the Frequencies of interactional MDs in Female and Male Articles

The quantitative results showed that there were slight variations in the frequency of instances of interactional metadiscourse markers in the written discourses of females and males in *Post* newspaper opinion articles at the overall level (refer to Chapter Five, table 41).This implies that there were more similarities than differences in the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in the discourses of females and males. However, statistical tests revealed that this variation was significant (refer to Chapter Five, table….). This partly confirms the claims made by Lakoff (1975); Tse and Hyland (2008); Waskita (2008); Matei (2011); Subon (2013) and Shirzad and Jamali (2013); Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi (2015); Saadi (2016); Pasaribu (2017) and others, that women and men tend to show some marked variations when expressing themselves whether in written or spoken discourses.' should be rejected.

 Also the claim made by Adel (2006) that gender could influence how much and what type of metadiscourse is used in writing can equally be partly confirmed. These results further imply that the second null hypothesis of this study which states that 'there is no significant difference between gender and the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in *Post* newspaper opinion articles on political matters' should be rejected. Although gender has been found to be a significant source of variation in the use of interactional metadiscourse markers, this study has also revealed that other factors such as the genre of texts and individual writing styles do influence the choice of metadiscourse used by female and male writers.

The similarities in the overall use of interactional metadiscourse resources is line with Pasaribu (2017) who found that gender was not the only factor in the use of metadiscourse resources but the field of discourse, age, culture and others.

 Below is a detailed discussion of the quantitative results of the use of interactional markers by females and males in the subcategories:

6.1.2.1. Overall Frequencies of Interactional MD Markers by Gender in the Subcategories

6.1.2.1. 1. Hedges

The results revealed that there were variations in the frequency of the instances of hedges in female and male newspaper opinion articles with females showing higher frequencies than males. However, t-tests showed no significant difference between female and male use of hedges which implies that there are more similarities than differences in the use of hedges between females and males.

The higher frequency in the instances of hedges in females' writing is in line with Yaghaneh and Ghoreysh, (2015) and D Angelo, (2008) who found that females used more hedges than males in their writing; thus, seem to confirm the widespread belief that women use more hedges than males in their discourses (Lakoff, 1975). However, the findings of the present study are not in line with other studies, such as Alsubhi (2017); Hyland and Tse (2008) Crismore et al., 1993), who found that male writers used more hedges than their female counterparts.

According to Hyland (2005) writers use hedges to express tentativeness and caution while Lakoff (1975) postulates that women use hedges as a mark of lack of self-confidence or

inferiority. Markkanen and Schroder (1997) support Lakoff's view by espousing that the use of hedges confirms the notion that women's language is a powerless language. The present study does not fully support the views held by Lakoff (1975) and Markkanen and Schroder (1997) as it has revealed that regardless of their gender, females or males used hedges to exercise tentativeness and caution in the *Post* newspaper and not because the writers lacked confidence in their propositions or felt inferior . For this reason, Hyland (2005) who postulates that writers use hedges to exercise caution and tentativeness is supported because in the present study, variations in the use of hedges appear to be more dependent on the genre of the text and individual styles of writing rather than being female or male; therefore, it cannot be attributed to the inferiority or lack of confidence of the writer.

On the contrary, the genre of the text seems to override the writer's gender. As Lynch (2012) postulates, when writing opinion articles, one cannot be very emphatic. Dewi (2017) ; Tapia (2019) and Seglin (2013) also add that in an opinion article, a writer is expected to give an opinion which he or she would like his or her readers to adopt but it has to be done tactfully in order for him or her to gain acceptance from the audience he or she is targeting. In fact, Abdallhzadeh (2011) says that the community has a certain level of knowledge that the writer does not want to override hence exercises caution when writing. This is what the writers of *Post* newspaper opinion articles were seen to be doing regardless of their gender. Thus, it can be argued that the use of hedges in the delivery of propositions is one of the conventions of opinion article writing hence it cannot be attributed to lack of confidence by the writer. In the present study, writers whether male or female used hedges to deliver their propositions to their target readers, who are Zambians from divergent educational, religious, social and economic

backgrounds hence they are cautious not to override the knowledge that their readers have on the

subject of the discourse. To be effective therefore, the writers actually blend the use of hedges

and boosters in order to strike a balance in the forcefulness of their propositions. The following

extracts illustrate how females and males used hedges but also how they blended hedges and

boosters to strike a balance in the forcefulness of their propositions:

6.1.2.1. 1.1. An Illustration of Female and Male Use of the Hedging Strategy

I **believe** there are two issues here that need to be separated and which are mutually exclusive-the message and the messenger. The message does not become faulty or wrong just because the messenger has fallen out of grace. I **believe** many of the opponents are tying the message/declaration to the man who is said to have declared it, … Chiluba is not the declaration. **Maybe** if those that are currently opposed to the declaration took him out of the picture when reflecting on this issue, they **would** come to a different conclusion. **The fact** that the behavior of Zambians/government does not **appear** to have changed for the better since the inclusion of the declaration in the constitution is not an indication that we can never attain Christian values as a nation.(*Christian Nation Post newspaper,* 2012, April 30 p.8**)**

6.1.2.1.1.2. An Illustration of the Hedging and Blending Strategy by Females and Males

She felt **quite strongly** that I, in the said and earlier article, in criticizing the British press' reportage of African issues was induging in a case of not very respectable scape-goating. (*Electoral Bill, Post newspaper,* 2014, May 11p. 17)

This lot included some MPs but then **perhaps we shouldn't** be surprised after a critical look at who these MPs are. *(Misinforming the nation Post newspaper,* 2012, April 30 p.8**)**

The extract in 6.1.2.1.1.1. illustrates the use of hedges to show tentativeness, that is, the

writer leaves room for her readers to have alternative views on the matter. This should

not be viewed as a sign of weakness but rather, as Hyland (2005), Lynch (2012), Dewi

(2017), Tapia (2019) and Seglin (2013) put it, it is a sign of respect for the knowledge the

audience has on the matter. Thus, instead of being very emphatic, caution is exercised in

order to tactfully persuade them to adopt her view.

In 6.1.2.1.1.2., the extracts illustrate how tactfully hedges and boosters are blended for the same purpose of persuading readers. Instead of expressing themselves forcefully, the writers consciously choose to lessen the forcefulness of their propositions by blending hedges and boosters by saying; 'she felt **quite strongly…**' instead of 'she felt **strongly** …' and '…**perhaps we shouldn't…**' instead '…**we shouldn't** …'

6.1.2.1.2. Boosters

The results revealed that there were slight variations in the use of boosters between males and females with males using slightly more boosters than females. Statistical analyses also showed that there were significant differences in the use of boosters between females and males. In spite of this finding, more similarities than differences were found in the use of boosting tokens. This result is in line with the findings of Crismore *et al*. (1993), Francis *et al*. (2001), and Tse and Hyland (2008), who found that males tended to use more boosters than females.

Another interesting finding was that the frequencies of boosters were lower than those of hedges for both genders which further confirms the stance taken by the present study that gender may not be the only factor influencing the use of metadiscourse markers. Even in the use of boosters, it can be seen that regardless of their gender, females and males are more interested in persuading their readers in a cautious manner as opposed to being very forceful as earlier mentioned. This is a possible explanation for the similarity in the low frequencies of boosters as compared to hedges in both female and male articles. It appears then that the genre of the texts is what seems to have a more upper hand than gender when it comes to the choice of what type and how much metadiscourse markers should be used.

Being statistically significant, the variations between females and males in the use of boosters imply that gender could be a possible factor in the use of these markers in newspaper opinion article writing. According to Hyland's theory of metadiscourse, writers use boosters to express themselves more emphatically; in other words, they use boosters to show that they are certain and confident about the propositions they are making. This implies that males are more certain and confident in the delivery of their propositions in opinion articles on political matters than females. Alsubhi (2017) and Lakoff (1975) assert that political matters are mainly a male-dominated subject; hence, men feel more confident to express themselves than females due to factors some of which may include political, cultural and religious inclinations . Alsubhi (2017) actually found that in an Arab setup, British and Saudi male columnists were more inclined to write about political subjects than their female counterparts. In the context of the present study, however, these findings and claims cannot be fully supported mainly because the studies were conducted in different cultural and religious backgrounds thus writers cannot be expected to portray similar writing styles as regards the use of boosters. For example, Saudi writers, both genders, boosted less often due to socio-cultural and religious regulations such as the restriction on freedom of expression especially since "Saudi press opinion writers and columnists have the greatest influence along with those expressing free opinion"(Thompson, 2014, p.140 in Alsubhi 2017, p.293).

Zambia, on the other hand, is politically democratic and culturally diverse and there is no taboo about what women cannot write about (Brown, 2013). This means that in the Zambian setting, females are as free as their male counterparts to write about political matters and express themselves as confidently as their knowledge can allow them. There is enough evidence from the

use of boosters by females in the present study to confirm that females are equally confident and

certain about the propositions they are putting across in the opinion articles.   For example

statements such as the following illustrate how confidently females as well as males were able to

express themselves on political matters:

> This is an election year, **it is obvious** that the power hungry leaders that we have in our country shall manipulate things, therefore let us see these documents in place. *(K40 billion youth fund***)**

> These laws are **clearly** at variance with the SADC Principles and guidelines which stress the need for member states to take measures that ensure that all citizens enjoy freedom of movement, association and expression and political tolerance. **(**Zimbabwe's Elections *Post newspaper,* 2015, March 11p. 20**)**

> While **clearly** of suspect moral standing, former President Chiluba was **certainly** not a political fool. *(Unnecessary Pain***i)**

> With all **certainty** we can rightly espouse that the sentiments in topic are held dear by a number of our politicians. But what **must** be noted is that last week's reflection was on the attempt to point out that even as our members of the Legislature have every right to protest. *(Parliamentary Decorum Post newspaper,* 2011, April 11 p.12**)**

> <u>**Clearly**</u> six months are not enough to pass judgement on performance of any government and this exercise is not meant to do that. I am <u>**certain**</u> that there are people who will look at the comments and offer different perspectives. (*Six months down the line: how is PF govt doing?***i**)

It can be argued that by using fewer boosters than males, females cannot automatically be said to

lack confidence. On the contrary, as mentioned earlier in this paper, and in following with the

conventions of opinion article writing, by using fewer boosters, females unlike their male

counterparts, are simply using an interactional strategy that involves incorporating their readers

in the discourse in order to persuade them to adopt their stance on the propositions being

delivered.

The more similarities than differences in the use of boosters, as well as the more use of hedges than boosters indicate, like mentioned earlier, that in opinion article writing, a writer cannot afford to be very emphatic despite his or her gender (Lynch, 2012) hence exercises some caution in the delivery of his or her propositions in order to allow for alternative views from his or her audience. In the present study, female and male writers seem to have chosen to use more hedges than boosters which indicates, like Hyland says, that "the writer is willing to entertain alternatives and so plays an important role in conveying commitment to text content and respect for readers" (Hyland, 2005a, p.53). According to Hyland, the expression of conviction and caution, of certainty and doubt, is at the heart of the interaction of writing and is a major component of the rhetorical expression of the relationship between the writer and the reader. This combination of hedging and boosting aids persuasion and results in "objective information, subjective evaluation and interpersonal negotiation, and this can be a powerful factor in gaining acceptance for claims" (Hyland, 2005b, p.180).

We can see, therefore, that although gender seems to be a factor, the field of discourse also is an important factor in the choice of boosters by females and males.

6.1.2.1.3. Attitude Markers

The results revealed that males used more attitude markers than females. Statistical tests showed that this difference was statistically significant. In spite of this, a near similarity in the pattern of use of attitude markers was seen.

The statistical significance of the results implies that gender could be a possible factor in the use of attitude markers. However, the near similarity in the use of attitude markers suggests that both genders are more concerned about projecting themselves in their texts implying that they are free

to express their attitude towards the propositions being made. This finding contradicts Alsubhi (2017) who found that both genders were cautious in the expression of their attitudes hence used very few attitude markers in their texts. A possible explanation for the freedom of expression by Zambian writers in *Post* newspaper could be the ideologies and political leanings of the newspaper which allowed for much freedom of expression (Civicus, 2019). This view is supported by AlKholami (2010) who postulates that ideologies and political leanings of a paper in which opinion articles appear can influence the writers' expression of attitudes. Writers of opinion articles for the *Post* were relatively free to express themselves as the *Post* was a privately owned media and did not have limitations on how to express themselves unlike the government owned papers (*Post July 11, 2016).* Therefore, regardless of whether one was male or female, they were free to express themselves on political matters.

6.1.2.1.4. Self-mentions

The results showed that females and males were significantly different in the use of self-mentions with males using more self-mentions than their female counterparts. These results are in agreement with Pasaribu (2017) who found that females used fewer self-mentions than males in their essays but ran against the findings of Alsubhi (2016); Hyland and Tse (2008); who found that females used more self-mentions than males in their writing. Further the results revealed that females were inclined to use more of the first person singular pronouns such as *I, me* and *my* than males who used more of the first person plural pronouns such as *we, our* and *us.*

According to Hyland (2005) some of the functions that self-mentions serve are to strengthen the writers' presence, including personal narratives or experience, and promote solidarity. In the present study, both genders used self-mentions to serve such functions; however, females used

self-mentions to give personal narratives more than their male counterparts. According to Goodwin (1988) cited in D'angelo (2008), a personalised writing style is often favoured by women; however, this study has provided enough evidence to show that the choice of self-mentions is not necessarily dependent on being female or male but on the function that the writer intends that marker to perform.

Additionally, the results seem to suggest that the choice of self-mentions, to a large extent, is dependent on the genre of the text; this could be a possible explanation for the near similarity in the frequencies of self-mentions used by females and males in the corpus of the present study. Wanting to show solidarity with their audience and authorial presence in their texts, writers, regardless of their gender, have used a similar pattern of self-mentions in their texts. In any case, it has also been found that gender differences, too, seem to influence the choice of self-markers. As mentioned earlier, females used more first person singular pronouns while males use more of first person plural pronouns.

In a broader sense, the study supports Hyland (2005), who postulates that self-mentions are more frequent in humanities and social science papers than in science and engineering. In this case, it is likely that the use of self-mentions was influenced by the genre of the discourse which requires writers to give opinions on political matters and not produce objective reports on scientific experiments.

6.1.2.1.5. Engagement Markers

Engagement markers explicitly address readers, either by selectively focusing their attention or by including them as discourse participants in the text. (Hyland, 2005a).The results revealed that

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males used more engagement markers than females. Statistical analyses showed that these results were statistically significant. These findings contradict previous research by Alsubhi (2016) who found that female writers used more engagement markers than male writers. However, the results coincide with Tse and Hyland (2006) who found that males used more engagement markers than females. In spite of all this, it was noticed that the pattern adopted by both genders in the use of engagement markers was similar. For instance, the most frequently used engagement markers by both genders to show reader involvement in their texts were the second person pronoun *you* and *question*s which were used 88 times and 60 times respectively by the males and 79 times and 55 times respectively by the females in the whole corpus.

Similar deployment of engagement markers by females and males in their texts suggests that both genders were more concerned with involving readers in their texts which they achieved by using second person pronouns such as *you* and *questions* as a strategy for leading their readers into accepting their views. Holmes (1988) holds the view that a personalised and engaging style of writing is associated with female discourses. The present study, however, contradicts his view, as it was found that regardless of their gender writers in *Post* newspaper seemed to adopt a personalised and engaging style of writing by relying heavily on engagement markers such as the pronoun *you* and *questions* which is evidence enough to show that gender is not the only factor influencing this choice. On the contrary, the desire by both groups to create an authoritative presence in their texts and to gain credibility as well as integrity for their propositions seems to be a greater driving force for the engagement markers used. Hence this study supports Dewi (2017) who postulates that the use of a personalised style of writing is a feature mostly associated with journalistic discourse. According to him, writers personalise their writing in

order to gain credibility and integrity for the propositions they make. This strategy is employed in order to persuade readers to accept their views.

6.1.3. Interactive MDs Unique to Gender

The qualitative results showed that interactive markers that could be considered unique to females and males were present in the corpus as presented in table 56 of Chapter 5. However, they were not as many as those markers that were common to both genders as revealed by the quantitative results.

The presence of interactive markers that are unique to females and males seems to be consistent with the claims made by: Lakoff (1975); Waskita (2008); Matei (2011) and Subon (2013) that women and men tend to favour distinct language features when expressing themselves either in written or spoken discourses. This claim, however, cannot be fully supported by the present study owing to the fact that the instances of interactive markers that could be considered to be unique to females and males were very few compared to those that both genders shared in the corpus. Since the main purpose of interactive markers is to make the text cohesive and coherent; the scarcity of markers that can be considered to be unique to females and males is not surprising. On the contrary, it implies that in the interactive category, the gender of a writer is not as much a factor as the genre of the discourse in the choice of linguistic devices because the main preoccupation of writers is to enhance text organisation and readers' comprehensibility of their propositions. This finding coincides with that of Pasaribu (2017) who found that gender is not the only factor which influences the choice of metadiscourse makers in writing.

Not being very unusual, interactive metadiscourse markers considered to be unique to females and males supports our argument that gender is not the only factor influencing the choice of interactive metadiscourse markers by writers of opinion articles in *Post* newspaper. As table 56 shows, most of the interactive markers that are listed do not appear unusual. For instance, the use of abbreviations *i.e.* and *e.t.c.* by female writers only in the corpus of the present study cannot be considered to signify gender influence in journalistic discourses or indeed in other types of discourses.

On the contrary, the use of abbreviations or reduced forms is a common feature for newspaper style of writing and is highly used in newspaper articles because it is convenient for newspaper language (Essay, 2018). This means that regardless of gender these linguistic devices can be used-it is a matter of individual preferences and writing styles; that probably is the reason why men seem to prefer using the full forms of i.e.(that is) and e.t.c.(et cetera) while females prefer to use the reduced forms. In the same vein, the use of idiomatic expressions such as *in the same vein, to drive the nail home* which were identified to be unique to males are not unusual as they are a common feature of newspaper articles and any writer regardless of gender can use them. As Essay (2018) postulates, journalistic writing "requires concrete style of writing and includes a number of stylistic devices such as direct speech, idioms and other". It appears, therefore, that the difference in the choice of linguistic devices in the interactive category of metadiscourse is also influenced by individual preferences or writing styles and not necessarily on account of being female or male. However, these individual preferences are bound by the genre conventions; that is, one cannot prefer to use linguistic devices that the newspaper opinion article genre does not support.

All in all, the few instances that have been presented here can be attributed to individual styles of writing and not necessarily the gender of the writer. For instance, the choice of idioms by males seems to indicate the quest to be formal while the use of abbreviations signals the opposite. Hence, it appears that the metadiscourse markers that emerged as being unique to either females or males do not signify gender variations.

6.1.4. Interactional MDs Unique Gender

The qualitative investigations of instances of interactional metadiscourse markers that could be considered unique to written discourses of females and males in the *Post* newspaper opinion articles revealed that these markers were present in the corpus. However, their occurrences were very few compared to the interactional markers that were common to both genders.

The presence of interactional markers that are unique to females and males in the corpus is a possible indication that there are variations in the way these genders express themselves in written discourses. This finding is in line with Adel (2006) who found that the gender of the writer could influence how much or what type of metadiscourse is used in discourse. Also they are in agreement with previous research conducted by linguists such as Lakoff (1975), Tse and Hyland (2008) Waskita (2008), Matei (2011), Subon (2013) and Shirzad and Jamali (2013), Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi (2015), Saadi, (2016) and Pasaribu (2017) which suggest that women and men tend to show some marked or clearly noticeable variations in the way they use language when expressing themselves whether in written or spoken discourses.

On the other hand, the scarcity of interactional markers that are unique to females and males could also imply that the variations in their written discourses are not very distinctive and might not necessarily be a result of gender differences but other factors as well. The following is a detailed discussion of the instances of interactional markers that were considered to be unique to females and males.

6.1.4.1. Attitude Markers

It is interesting to note that both genders used attitude markers in their opinion articles; however, certain attitude markers were found to be unique to females while others were found to be unique to males. The following instances of attitude markers were found to be unique to either females or males:

6.1.4.1.1. Exclamations

The qualitative results revealed that attitude markers such as *wow! ha! oh! alas!* were unique to female writers. These markers were used to express strong emotions such as anger, surprise or excitement. Nowhere in the entire corpus which comprised 120 000 words, did males use these markers; hence, it could be argued that exclamations are a feature of female and not male language. The choice of these linguistic devices further implies that females, unlike their males, are so sensitive to their environment that they are ready to express their attitudes openly based on how they are feeling at that moment. This view is consistent with Guo (2009) and Adelaide (1979) who found that women tended to use words that imply feeling more than males. This expression of strong emotions such as those of surprise, anger or excitement is also in line with: Quirk et al. (1985); Lakoff (1990), Lakoff (1975); Colley and Todd (2002) and Amir et al. (2012) who postulate that "Women make more use of expressive forms…. those expressing emotional rather than intellectual evaluation.

6.14.1.1.2. Adjectives

The results revealed that there were variations, too, in the use of adjectives to express attitudes. While both genders used adjectives to express attitudes towards their propositions, there were variations in the type of adjectives used for this function. For instance affective adjectives, which are deployed in the expression of emotions or feelings, were unique to female writers. *Depressing* and *afraid* are examples of affective adjectives that only female writers used in the corpus. Like discussed earlier, this choice of adjectives shows that females are ready to express their feelings openly probably because they are more sensitive to their environment than males. Thus, it would be plausible to argue that affective adjectives appear to be a feature of female language more than of male language.

On the other hand, males used evaluative adjectives to express their propositions. According to Thomson and Hountson (2000) evaluative adjectives are useful in conveying value judgements or attitudinal stance towards a writer's propositions. These judgements can either be positive or negative. Three instances of such adjectives were found to be unique to males; these were: *insane, bad* and *good.* The adjectives *insane* and *bad* express negative judgements while the adjective *good* expresses a positive judgement.

6.1.4.1 3. Adverbs

Another linguistic feature that was found to be unique to females and males was the use of adverbs *immaculately* and *backward* respectively.

6.1.4.2. Boosters

On boosters that could be considered unique to females and males, results showed that females used intensifiers to add force to their boosters while males did not. For instance *pretty sure,*

absolute certainty, very sure were only used by female writers. This finding is in line with Lakoff (1975) who found that women used more intensifiers in their discourses especially *so* and *very*. The use of intensifiers with boosters seems to suggest that females are more concerned than their male counterparts to express their propositions more confidently. However, this cannot be fully supported by the present study as we saw that to achieve the same effect, males tended to use long phrases viz: *beyond any reasonable doubt, it cannot be overemphasized and no one can doubt.* This shows that these unique linguistic features cannot only be considered to be influenced by gender differences but also personal preferences when expressing themselves in certain contexts.

6.1.4.3. Hedges

Only two instances of hedges were found to be unique to females. These were: *kind of* and *maybe*. Males did not use any hedges that were only unique to them. This finding coincides with that of the previous research done by Lakoff (1975; 1990) who found that females used all kinds of hedges in order not to commit themselves to their opinions. This finding consolidates the quantitative findings on hedges, that is, more similarities than differences were found on the use of this linguistic device and the statistical analysis showed that there was no significant difference in the use of hedges between females and males. Therefore, the hedges found to be unique to females cannot be totally considered to be a mark of female language in newspaper opinion articles but a matter of chance or female preferences in certain contexts.

6.1.4.4. Self-mentions

The results revealed that self-mentions unique to female and male writers were present in the corpus. The reflexive pronoun *myself* was unique to female writers while *the writer, the columnist* and *the author* were unique to males. This implies that both genders seek to create an

appropriate authorial identity in their discourse, which is, projecting a competent and reliable image. According to Hyland (2001, 2002a and 2002b) this is very important as it signals membership to a particular community of the writer and it helps him or her to be recognised as competent and well informed. The results of the present study showed that there were variations on how each gender chose to project authorial identity. As Halliday (1978) puts it, authorial identity can be projected in three different ways; namely, the detached self, the individual self and the collective self. It seems that females in the present study preferred projecting an individual self while males preferred projecting a detached self. This was seen in the choice of linguistic devices that these genders used; that is, females used the pronoun *myself* while the male used expressions such as *the writer, the columnist* and *the author*. A possible explanation for this could be that females preferred using an individual self in order to champion their personal beliefs or subjective perception of propositions while males preferred a detached self in order to distance themselves from the discourse with a view to appearing impersonal. It appears that males only used this style of writing whenever they sought to project a formal image in their discourse.

In spite of these findings, it would not be plausible to argue that the difference in the use of self-mentions could be attributed to gender differences; on the contrary, it is more plausible to argue that these differences are indicative of the individual preferences of the writer. This claim is supported by the quantitative results that were presented earlier which showed that although males used more self-mentions than females, both genders shared more similarities than differences in the use of these markers. As was seen in the quantitative results, writers, regardless of gender used self-mentions such as *I* and *me* to project the individual self in a similar manner

which implies that the discourse field as well as individual writing styles could be other factors influencing the use of these markers in certain contexts.

6.1.4.5. Engagement markers

An interesting finding in the present study was the use of local terminology by male writers to engage their readers in the discourse. The term *banabahesu,* a SiLozi word meaning my clan/my people was used.By using a local terminology in English dominated articles, the writers try to engage with the local community for which their discourse is intended order to show solidarity and a sense of belonging thereby seeking to gain credibility in the propositions that they are making. This is in line with Hyland (2005) who argues that when writers write, they bring to the text their cultural norms. Further, the use of such lexical devices confirms Hyland's theory of metadiscourse in which he postulates that metadiscourse are an open category to which new linguistic forms can be added- this is exactly what the present study has done.

6.2. Implications

The findings from the present study raise the following implications:

Firstly that gender is an important but not the only factor that influences the use of metadiscourse markers in writing

Secondly, that metadiscourse is a feature of media discourses.

Thirdly, that the choice of metadiscourse is partly dependent on the genre of a text.

6.3. Conclusion

The main aim of the present study was to investigate metadiscourse variations in *Post* newspaper opinion articles on political matters written by some Zambian females and males in order to support or refute claims in literature that females and males tend to favour distinct ways of using

language whether in written or spoken discourses (Lakoff, 1975, Waskita, 2008, Matei, 2011, Adel, 2006, Alsubhi, 2016,). From the various quantitative and qualitative investigations done, the study concludes as follows:

6.3.1. There are more metadiscourse similarities than variations in written discourses in form of newspaper opinion articles produced by some Zambian female and male writers.

From the quantitative and qualitative investigations done, the study has confirmed that there are metadiscourse variations in some Zambian female and male written discourses in form of newspaper opinion articles on political matters although they are fewer than the similarities. This was true for both the interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers at the broad category level where it was found that males used slightly more interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers than their female counterparts. In the subcategories, however, females used some metadiscourse markers more than their male counterparts. This was particularly evident in the use of interactive resources such as code glosses to show exemplification, frame markers to show topic shift and transition markers to show causation, comparison, contradiction and consequence. Similarly, females used more hedges than males in the interactional category. Furthermore, the qualitative investigations equally validated the quantitative results by confirming that some markers, though not numerous, were unique to female and male writers in the interactive and interactional categories. Hence, this study partially supports the studies done by Lakoff (1975), Adel (2006), Waskita (2008), Matei (2011), Alsubhi (2016), Pasaribu (2017), and others which suggest that men and women tend to favour distinct ways of expressing themselves both in written and spoken discourses.

6.3.2. Gender is not the only factor that influences the choice of metadiscourse markers in newspaper opinion articles on political matters.

The study has provided enough evidence to conclude that there are other factors in addition to gender that influence the choice of metadiscourse markers in female and male written discourses. These include: the genre of the text, the cultural background of the writer as well as the writer's personal writing styles or preferences. Owing to this fact, like mentioned before, this study only partially supports the claims that females and males tend to favor distinct ways of using language in their spoken and written discourses. This stance is further supported by the evidence shown from the study which indicates that there were more similarities than differences in the use of metadiscourse markers in the articles produced by female and male writers. Both the quantitative and qualitative results revealed that female and male writers share more similarities than differences in their deployment of metadiscourse resources in their written discourses. For example, the study showed that although there were variations in the frequencies used some metadiscourse markers were consistently lower while others were consistently higher in both female and male corpora. For instance, endophoric markers had lower frequencies while transition markers had higher frequencies in both groups of writers. The same can be said for some interactional metadiscourse markers where females and males displayed a similar pattern of frequencies in the use of these markers; namely, boosters, hedges and engagement markers. This is not coincidental; on the contrary, it signifies that in newspaper opinion articles, these markers follow a certain pattern of use regardless of the writer's gender implying that the genre of the text rather than the gender of the writer appears to be more of a factor in the choice of these markers.

In addition to the genre of a text, the cultural background of the writer also seems to influence the use of metadiscourse markers in newspaper opinion articles. The incorporation of local terminology in predominantly English articles provides evidence that culture is a factor that could influence the choice of metadiscourse. In order to communicate persuasively to a local audience, writers are ready to use local terminology as metadiscourse markers. The term *banabahesu* 'my people my clan' was one such instance of metadiscourse found in the discourses produced.

Lastly, personal writing styles or preferences were found to account for some differences in the use of metadiscourse markers. It was evident from the findings that depending on the effect the writer wanted to have on his or her audience, certain linguistic devices and styles were used.The use of abbreviations in preference for full forms, the use of the first person plural pronoun *we* or first person singular pronoun *I* are some instances of such preferences.

6.3.3. Metadiscourse is a major feature in newspaper discourse involving opinion articles on political matters

The present study has provided enough evidence to conclude that metadiscourse is a major feature in newspaper discourse involving opinion articles on political matters. The fact that both genders used interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in similar ways shows that this genre demands that whether female or male, writers need to deploy metadiscourse devices in order to organise their work in a way that their readers would find it coherent but also interact with them in such a way that their propositional as well as their intended meaning of their discourse is appreciated by their audiences.

6.4. Recommendations

From the findings and consequent conclusions of the study, the following recommendations in relationship to further research and pedagogy have been made:

6.4.1. Recommendations for Future Studies

Firstly, it is recommended that future studies could consider studying other type of newspaper articles such as editorials, news reports as well as opinion articles on topics other than political matters in order to investigate metadiscourse variations between female and male writers. For instance, it would be interesting to know how female and male writers would use metadiscourse markers in opinion articles on social issues such as love and marriage.

Secondly, since most studies have concentrated on academic texts such as text books, dissertations, and others, it is recommended that a shift be made to study other texts such as literary texts, and others in order to explore how the concept of metadiscourse works in other genres.

A third recommendation is that a study comparing metadiscourse variations in newspaper opinion articles on political matters in private and public print or online media in the Zambian context should be done as it would be interesting to find out how these two media affect the writer's choice of metadiscourse. For example, a comparative study between the *Post* and *Times of Zambia* newspaper opinion articles could be done to compare how females and males in these newspapers use metadiscourse markers.

Lastly, a comparative diachronic study of newspapers in Zambia can also be done to investigate the variations in the use of metadiscourse markers as language changes over time.

6.4.2. Recommendations for Pedagogy

As it is clear that metadiscourse plays a significant role in writing, it is recommended that:

- Curriculum developers at all levels should tailor curricula to genre-specific approach to the teaching of metadiscourse

- Educationists at all levels should develop effective strategies for teaching of metadiscourse to learners in order to equip them with enough resources for interacting with their readers during and after school. As the present study has demonstrated, metadiscourse markers are a feature of media discourse, hence, educationists need to play a key role in facilitating the acquisition of metadiscourse skill by learners at all levels of education.

- Learners at all levels of education should take keen interest in acquiring metadiscourse skills in or order to apply them in different genres appropriately.

6.4.3. Summary of the Chapter

This chapter presented an in-depth discussion of both the quantitative and the qualitative findings of the study in line with the research questions. Conclusions on metadiscourse variations in female and male discourses were drawn in the context of the findings in relation to the research questions. The chapter argued and provided enough evidence to show that gender is not the only factor in metadiscourse variations. One has to be alive to the fact that other factors such as culture, the genre of the text and individual writing styles also do influence the variations. The chapter ended by giving implications of the study as well as recommendations for pedagogy and future studies.

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