

Text Organization: Analyzing Interaction in Persian Articles

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Abstract

Discourse analysis provides a means to more systematically engage in the descriptive analysis and comparison of written texts. Since language and culture are two basic factors that influence writing, the present study entitled 'Analyzing interaction in written texts', aims to investigate the way of deploying perspective Kenneth Goodman signaling interaction and metadiscourse strategy: interactive and interactional resources. In conclusion, the analysis revealed how newspaper articles of these groups differed in their rhetorical strategies using metadiscourse and prospective signaling. However, the different groups were found to use these strategies. Yet, these strategies were used differently by the writers of these two groups.

Key words: discourse analysis, metadiscourse, prospective signaling strategies.

1. Introduction

We approach discourse analysis of written text by asking why written texts are of concern to literacy researchers, why they need to be analyzed, and how the texts and their analyses inform theoretical and empirical research in literacy. Written texts are of concern to literacy researchers because the ability to read and understand them is definitional to literacy, at least in Western culture. But *written text* is far from monolithic. There are any numbers of written text genres, differentiated by their purpose or function as well as their structure or form (e.g., narrative, poetic, persuasive, informative). And within a genre, texts vary in both their form and content. A primary goal of the analysis of written text is to describe structure and content. It is important to do so because well-established empirical findings indicate that structure and content impact how readers' read, understand, remember, and learn from written texts (Goldman, 1997; Goldman & Rakestraw, 2000; Hiebert, Englert, & Brennan, 1983; Lorch, 1989). The discourse analysis of written text provides a method for systematically describing texts that students read as well as those they write. We suspect that as you engaged in the analysis and comparison process you were unsure of precisely how to describe what you were noticing. Discourse analysis provides a means to more systematically engage in the descriptive analysis and comparison of written texts.

Discourse analysis of written text is a method for describing the ideas and the relations among the ideas that are present in a text. The method draws on work in a variety of disciplines, including rhetoric, text linguistics, and psychology. The analysis of written text is also concerned with understanding the local relations among the ideas conveyed in a text, i.e., relations among information in sentences occurring relatively close together in the text. It is precisely the relations among ideas that define the coherence of the text and make it more than the sum of its parts. Indeed, Sanders, et al. (1992), defined coherence relations as the "aspect of meaning of two or more discourse segments that cannot be described in terms of the meaning of the segments in isolation. In other words, it is because of this coherence relation that the meaning of two discourse segments is more than the sum of its parts" (pg. 2). There are a number of ways coherence relations are established. Halliday and Hasan (1976) identified four primary logical connector relations: temporal as in an ordered sequence of events (e.g., the steps in a mathematical proof), additive as in elaborations of an idea (e.g., main idea followed by details), causal as in antecedent and consequent events, and adversative, as in the juxtaposition of contradictory information.

There are a number of discourse markers (also called linguistic cues) that are relevant to understanding local relations among ideas. A specific class of discourse markers, called connectives, express, signal, or cue the underlying conceptual coherence relations. Examples of connectives are because, furthermore, and however.

Other kinds of signaling devices (Lorch, 1989) signal the relationships of sentences to paragraphs, paragraphs to one another, and to the overall theme of the text. Lorch (1989) distinguished signaling devices from those aspects of a text that communicate the semantic content: Signals emphasize particular aspects of content or structure but they do not add content (Lorch, 1989). Signaling devices help readers pick out what to selectively attend to and how to differentiate the importance of different information in the text (Goldman & Duran, 1988; Goldman & Saul, 1990; Guthrie, 1988; Lorch & Chen, 1986; Lorch & Lorch, 1996).

The elucidation and teaching of rules of languages, accordingly, was restricted to written texts. In last two decades, however, interest in the written language has been extended to almost all kinds of writing which are dealt with in the field of teaching foreign languages. Texts, according to Widdowson (2007), are the noticeable traces of the process of mediating a message. Hyland and Tse (2004:156) believe that writing is viewed as an engagement between writers and reader which possess a social and communicative basis; and metadiscourse is related to the “ways writers project themselves into their discourse to signal their attitude towards both the content and the audience of the text.” Text can be defined as the visible evidence of a reasonably self-contained purposeful interaction between one or more writers and one or more readers, in which the writer(s) control the interaction and produce most of (characteristically all) the language. This definition excludes spoken language, though it is possible to modify it so that speech is included (Hoey, 11). The whole interaction can be referred to as a discourse, and here, of course, the overlap with speech occurs entirely naturally. We are concerned here with written discourse. In this case, one has to learn how to read the texts. One is not necessarily expected to read text books from cover to cover. When writers compose their texts, they draw upon models that have become normal within their culture; when readers process these texts, they do the same. It is the property of text that makes the study of reading and writing so interesting- and so complicated (ibid, 12). The present study, therefore, addresses this interaction in articles by using reader’s expectation. Persian texts written by Iranian native speakers of Persian will therefore be compared as to their text interaction. Consequently, this textual study takes text linguistic variables into account and takes its material from two different writing cultures and two writers.

1.1 Background and related Literature

The interactivity of text has become a common-place, though it was not always thus. Early proponents of this position within reading theory included Goodman (1967, 1973) Smith (1978) and, in the context of applied linguistics, Widdowson (1979). The ways in which a lawyer’s purpose in reading a statute may differ radically from the author’s purposes are discussed in Hoey (1985a) and the interactivity of children’s writing is discussed in Hoey(1986a) and Bourne (1998). Nystrand (1986, 1989) gives a central place to interaction within his description. Meyers (1999) discusses some of the implications and problems of handling interaction in text and Al-Sharief (1998) provides a useful synthesis of the ways in which different types of interaction are interlinked. Morley (1998) discusses the effect of a writer’s assumptions on his or her nominal groups, looking at the ideological implications of such assumptions in newspaper writing. The way in which readers(or listeners, come to that) attempt to make sense of what they have read or heard in the light of what they already know and expect is discussed in Grice(1967,1975,1978); another perspective on the same topic can be found in Sperber and Wilson(1995).

A useful discussion and defenses of Grice’s approach can be found in Levinson (1983). Grice argues that there are a set of assumptions that underlie and control conversation; these assumptions he formulates as maxims, which include do not say what you believe to be false’(part of maxim of quality), make your contributions as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange’ and do not make your contributions more informative than is required’(together forming the maxim of quantity), make your contributions relevant,(the maxim of relevance) and avoid ambiguity,(part of the maxim of manner). By the early 1990s, linguists had begun to react against the strong emphasis on propositional meaning in text analysis. This movement resulted in a range of new perspectives on text, among which studies of metadiscourse have gained prominence. The term metadiscourse, according to Vande Kopple(2002), goes back to the work of linguist Zellig Harris. Hyland describes metadiscourse as “the linguistic resources used to organize a discourse or the writer’s stance towards either its content or the reader” (Hyland (2000), cited in Hyland and Tse (2004:157)), and Crismore (1984:280) believes that the aim of metadiscourse is to “direct rather than inform the readers.”

2. Research questions

This study includes following research question:

Is there any significant difference between Iranian writers of interaction in their articles written in Persian?

3. Method

Theoretical framework

When writers compose their texts, they draw upon models that have become normal within their culture; when readers process these texts, they do the same. It is this property of text that makes the study of reading and writing so interesting- and so complicated. Theoretically, concepts such as schemata, scripts and culturally popular patterns of organization are the fundamental principles in interaction. A schema is a static representation of knowledge, whereas a script is a narrative representation of knowledge. A schema represents the (non-narrative) connections between facts; a script represents the sequence in which likely events will occur (Hoey, 21).revealing these notions such as schema and script are for a general understanding of the writing and reading processes, they are of limited value in text analysis or in the teaching of reading or writing.

In short, schemata and scripts are not practicable analytical tools. What we need is something that allows us to generalize about these schemata/ scripts without loosing the insight that readers cooperate with writers in making a common meaning.

Pike (1967) refers to the two perspectives as the particle perspective on language- what is this piece of language made of? - And the field perspective- what role does this piece of language play in its larger linguistic and non-linguistic context? Both perspectives are necessary for a full description of any linguistic phenomenon, and both have obvious implications for our understanding of reading or writing.

For many purposes, we can think of a text as the site of an interaction between a writer and readers which the writer controls. In such a case there is a writer who has a certain kind of reader in mind and that kind of reader then comes to the text and accepts what the writer offers.

Julian Edge (1986) represents such a relationship in the following way:

R R R R R R W

This picture shows lots of title worshipping readers coming to the feet of the great writer- idol in the hope for enlightenment. Such a relationship can exist but it is by no means certain that it should be normative of reading-writing relationships, and certainly does not reflect my relationship to minutes of a committee meeting or event, perhaps unfairly, to student essays (though enlightenment quite often comes from the latter willy-nilly). Edge suggests another image that empowers the reader and reflects much more accurately much that passes for reading:

R
WWWWWWWWWWWWW

In this image the reader is seen as striding over lots of title writers to get wherever s/he wants to go. The writer in composing his/her text, makes assumptions about the state of knowledge of the audience and these are reflected in his/her grammar in quite subtle ways (Hoey, 14).

The audience of a text is the intended readership, the imaginary person or persons whom the writer addresses and whose questions s/he tries to answer. Ultimately the audience is always a figment of the writer's imagination since no writer, however skilled, can ever get inside someone else's mind so completely as to know exactly what they want and need to learn.

Purposes of the interactions among author and reader

The interactions among author and reader are complex. The author has a purpose in communicating to the readers. The writer composes a text for an audience that may or may not match the description of the actual readers. The readers also have a purpose in reading the text which may not be the one that the writer had in mind and may not be congruent with the author's original purpose.

To sum up, then, the audience is the ideal reader, the reader that the writer had in mind when s/he wrote and that the author wants to communicate with. The reader on the other hand is a person who actually encounters and processes the text. S/he may correspond quite closely to the image in the writer's mind or may be wildly divergent, since an author often has next to no control over who encounters a text.

The writer's desire to meet the audience needs

Most texts are more consciously constructed and it is the writer's role in doing so.

Writers have a delicate task to perform. On the one hand they must meet the requirements of the author or, if author and writer are one and the same, they must fulfill their own objectives. On the other hand they must remember that readers have power too and can drop the text at any time if it does not meet their needs. Accordingly if the writer is to fulfill his/her own needs, s/he must meet the audience's needs too. The audience's needs can be formulated as questions that they want answering (ibid, 18). Whenever we read a sentence it sets up expectations in our mind and those expectations shape our interpretation of what comes next. We do not of course formulate these expectations as questions; these are the product of showing up the reading process until it becomes observable. But that we do have expectations is demonstrated every time we are surprised or disconcerted by the direction a text takes. Expectations operate at a moment- by- moment basis. We anticipate what the writer is going to do in what Kenneth Goodman (1967) has called a psycholinguistic guessing game. This can be represented diagrammatically as in figure 1. What this diagram seeks to represent is that on the basis of reading a sentence, a reader forms expectations about how the text may continue. S/he then matches those expectations against the next sentence. If this sentence appears to match one of his/her expectations more than any of the others, it will be interpreted in that light.

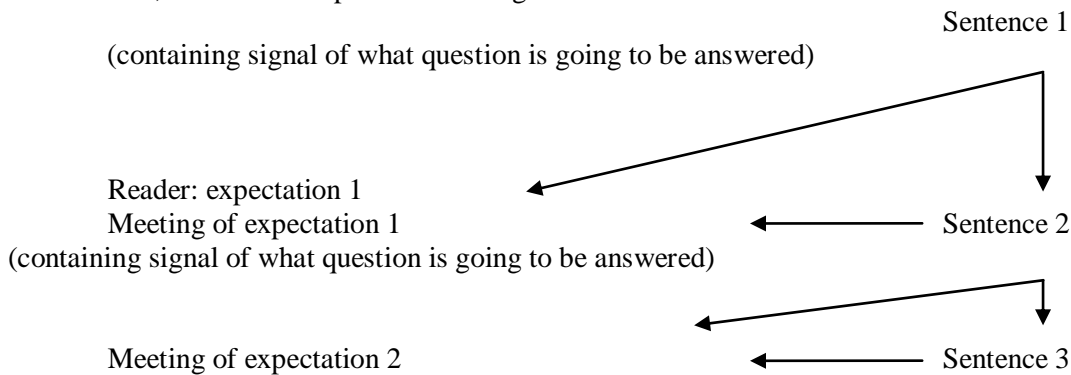


Figure.1: The interaction of reader's expectations and writer's sentences where the writer has used some form of prospective signaling

The point is that our understanding of a text is partly governed by our ability to generate sensible hypothesis about what is going to happen in the text that we are reading and by the attempts we make to find those hypotheses fulfilled. Our understanding is fortunately also partly governed by our ability to interpret the juxtaposition of sentences in such a way that we can see how they are related after the event; otherwise a lazy reading would regularly result in non- comprehension. Whether or not we have accurately anticipated what question will be answered next, we attempt as good readers to assign significance to the juxtaposition of sentences.

Some phrases are signals from writer to the reader. In effect the writer is saying: 'doesn't bother guessing'; I'm telling you what's coming next.' If the writer is accurately anticipating the reader's questions, this will not be necessary all the time, but it is certainly helpful on occasion to be nudged in the right direction by the writer. Signals at the level of the text are of a different kind. They vary in nature, just as a reader may either anticipate what question may be answered or work out what question was in fact answered, so a writer may signal in advance or provide a retrospective clue.

The various kinds of repetition that link sentence across a text- grouped together along with other text- connecting features under the general heading of cohesion- have been much studied. There are the parts of the signaling that the writer, consciously or subconsciously, supplies to enable a reader to detect places where expectations are to be met- or at very least connections to be made.

Repetitions may be of a number of kinds as we have seen. The following seem the most important in written text:

- a) Simple repetition
- b) Complex repetition

Where there is morphological variation (other than that caused by normal grammatical variation, such as singular-plural)

- c) Pronouns
- d) Unspecific nouns

- e) Simple paraphrase
- f) Complex paraphrase

Where one word has a complex repetition that is a simple paraphrase of the other.

- g) co- reference

- h) Ellipsis

Ellipsis occurs when words are omitted from a later sentence and have to be supplied from an earlier sentence.

- i) Closed sets

Members of closed sets contain within them a shared meaning component.

These strategies for repetition- often termed cohesive ties, along with other connecting strategies not discussed here- can be noted for their own sake, but their real significance lies in their availability as means for connecting sentences, both close to and far off. The writer used repetition to signal that an expectation is being met. But how real are these expectations? Do readers really have the capability of forming expectations that will be met much later on in some cases? The answer to these questions can not be conclusive, but there is some evidence that at certain points in a text it is possible for skilled readers familiar with the genre to make extensive and accurate predictions about what the text as a whole will contain.

Signals as messages from writer to reader

Reader and writer are like dancers following each other's steps, and the reader's chances of guessing correctly what is going to happen next in a text are greatly enhanced if the writer takes the trouble to anticipate what the reader might be expecting; that is one of the reasons for regularity of patterning in genres. The writer knows that readers will expect certain things on the basis of previous texts of the same kind that they have read and takes the trouble to conform to those expectations; the act of conforming to those expectations confirms readers in the rightness of their original expectation and makes it still more likely that they will expect the same thing the next time they encounter a text of this type.

Clause relations as a reflection of a text's interactivity

A way of talking about the inferences that readers need to make to connect sentences in text, and the signals that writers use are a way of reducing the amount of inference necessary in any particular case. Signals sometimes eliminate the need for inferences, but few texts do not require some inferencing on the part of the reader.

Winter (1974) identifies two kinds of relation between clauses or sentences: sequence relations and matching relations. Sequence relations are relations in which one clause / sentence answers a question such as " what happened next?", "what happened as a result?" and " what do you infer from this?", all of which involve putting propositions in some order of priority in time, space or logic. The ability to connect and logically sequence events is apparently acquired in a baby before the onset of language; every parent learns early to distinguish the distress signal from the cry designed to capitalize on the parent's loving nature. The latter cry seems to grow out of a connection the baby has made between its noise and comfort (Ballard et al. 1971a, b).

Typical sequence relations are time sequence, cause- consequence, means- purpose, and premise- deduction. They are signaled by a variety of means; a fair number of subordinators and sentence conjunctions are dedicated to telling the reader that there is a sequence relation and what its nature is, e.g. because, if, after, before, when, as, (amongst the subordinators) and then, therefore, thus, thereby, afterwards, later, previously, consequently, as a result, as a consequence, in consequence, thereafter, finally (amongst the sentence conjunctions).

Matching relations, by contrast, do not involve putting things in any order; instead statements are brought together with a view to seeing what light they shed on each other. They occur when a clause, sentence or group of sentences answer questions such as "how does x compare with y?", "how does x differ from y?", and "what is an example of that?" This paragraph for example answer the question "how do matching relations(x) differ from sequence relations(y)?" as with the sequence relations, there are reasons to suppose that a baby learns to match for compatibility and contrast before it learns to speak. With such a basic grounding in matching, it is unsurprising that matching also appears to be a universal feature of discourse organization (Ballard et al. 1971a, b). Matching relations include relations such as contrast, similarity, exemplification, preview- detail, and exception. They also may be signaled by subordinators (e.g. while, whereas, although) and sentence conjunctions(e.g. however, moreover, nevertheless, furthermore, too, also) however a major signal is repetition and parallelism, which is largely organized around answers to the questions" how do public values(x) differ from private values(y)?" and "how does one contradiction in our values compare with another?"

Some texts use signaling a great deal. In such circumstances the interaction between writer and reader can be modeled as table 1 suggested by Hyland and Tse (2004) for data analysis.

Hyland and Tse (ibid) believe that ‘signals represents the writer’s awareness of the unfolding text as *discourse*: how writers situate their language use to include a text, a writer and a reader’ (p. 167).

The model, which is presented below, is specifically named ‘a model of metadiscourse in texts’.

Hyland and Tse (2004) taxonomy of metadiscourse:

Interactive Resources: They help to guide reader through the text:

a) Transitions (T): express semantic relation between main clauses. Examples: in addition, thus, but, and

b) Frame Markers (Fm): refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages.

Examples: finally, to conclude, my purpose here is to

c) Endophoric Markers (En): refer to information in other parts of the text.

Examples: noted above, see figure, in section

d) Evidential Markers (Ev): refer to sources of information from other texts.

Examples: according to X/(Y, 1990)/Z states

e) Code glosses (Co): help readers grasp functions of ideational material.

Examples: namely, e.g., such as, in other words

Interactional Resources: involve the reader in the argument:

a) Hedges (H): withhold writer's full commitment to proposition. Examples: might, perhaps, possible, about

b) Boosters (Bo): emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition. Examples: infact, definitely, it is clear that

c) Attitude Markers (Am): express writer's attitude to proposition. Examples: unfortunately, I agree, surprisingly

d) Engagement Markers (En): explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader.

Examples: consider, note that, you can see that

e) Self-mentions (Sm): explicitly refer to authors. Examples: I, we, my, your

The shortened forms of categories enclosed in parentheses will appear in the analysis.

Participants

To carry out the comparison between the newspaper articles, a sample of 20 Persian articles written by Iranian writers were chosen.

The corpus was chosen from an Iranian news site called the *kayhan*, available at www.kayhan.com and *Jomourieslami*, available at www.jomhourieslami.com

Instruments

In this research the interaction of a reader’s expectations and a writer’s sentences was analyzed by using a diagram in figure1.

Procedure

Twenty newspaper articles and some Iranian Persian writers were chosen.

To begin, the texts were carefully read word by word in order to identify and locate signals which function on a moment-by-moment basis. Moreover, the chosen signals are based on Hyland and Tse’s (2004) taxonomy. To compare the result and measuring the differences, the statistical procedure of the t-test was used to determine the differences between the groups. Since there were two groups in the study, the statistical design of the study was independent t-test.

Data analysis

To carry out the analysis, the news articles were read and analyzed carefully for interaction between reader and writer model ased on Goodman and metadiscourse categories, based on Hyland and Tse’s (2004) taxonomy. Finally the findings were subjected to statistical analysis. Chi-squares were chosen as the appropriate nonparametric statistical test to examine and determine the differences in metadiscourse frequency and amount across the corpus.

Results and discussion

The writer needs to take particular care that the reader does not (in his terms) misread the passage. He therefore uses a variety of signaling devices that render the connections between his sentences effectively unambiguous.

In this research we saw that text could be convinced of as a dialogue between author and audience, writer and reader. The metaphor of dialogue and the conceptualization of the reader's expectations as questions only take us so far, however.

	kayhan	jomhourieslami
Simple repetition	26%	16%
Complex repetition	13%	12%
Pronouns	31%	45%
Simple paraphrase	2%	3%
Complex paraphrase	-	-
co- reference	20%	15%
Ellipsis	4%	9%
Closed sets	4%	3%
total	100%	100%

Table 1: The analysis of Repetitions in each group

Table 1 demonstrates the frequency of each separate repetition in the newspapers. It can be seen that 'simple repetition' uses by both newspapers kayhan and jomhourieslami (26% vs. 16%, respectively). kayhan writers also used 'simple repetition' more than 'Complex repetition' (13% vs. 12%, respectively). While both groups relied more on 'simple repetition' than 'Complex repetition'. The finding shows that kayhan writers used 'pronouns' 31% but jomhourieslami writers used 12%. As it can be seen from the table the frequency of 'simple paraphrase' is 2% and 3% respectively. But 'complex paraphrase' is zero. The frequency of co- reference is 20% vs.15% and it shows that jomhourieslami writers used Ellipsis more than kayhan (9% vs. 4%). The use of closed sets of kayhan and jomhourieslami is 4% vs.3% respectively.

	Interactive	Interactional	Total
Kayhan	3.61%	1.27%	4.88%
jomhourieslami	4.06%	1.39%	5.45%
t-test	8.42	4.2	

P<0.01 Critical: 1.96

Table 2: The analysis of metadiscourse resources in each group

The total percentage of metadiscourse use for the Kayhan is 5.45 while it is 4.88 for the Jomhoorieslami (Table 2). Note that the percentages are based on the total number of metadiscourse items identified in relation to the total number of words used in each corpus. The above-stated finding reveals that these texts are made up of a proportionally large number of metadiscourse items. Thus metadiscourse needs to be taken into account more seriously when the text aims at high standards of intelligibility and communication. Also, this shows that the explicit use of metadiscourse for either smooth shifting of propositional information or involving the reader in the argument is necessary. Another implication is that the idea considering metadiscourse as just marginal to the texts (Crismore & Farnsworth, 1990) is simply not plausible. Thus, if a text is dependent on metadiscourse elements to such a large extent, it cannot achieve the high expectations of quality without due attention to the linking role of metadiscourse. Further analysis of the two dimensions of metadiscourse as shown in the following table (Table 2) shows that writers of both newspapers made use of "interactive resources" more than "interactional ones" (3.61% vs. 1.27%, respectively).

The native writers also used "interactive resources" more than "interactional elements (4.06% vs. 1.39%, respectively). This finding can indicate the significance of textual congruity over explicit interpersonal relations with audience. While both groups relied more on "interactive resources" than "interactional ones", Jomhoorieslami manages to overtake Persian in the "interactive part", but remains lower in the "interactional section". On the whole, the statistical analysis shows that the differences between the two groups are statistically significant (see Table 2). The fact that the difference between the two groups is more salient in the use of "interactive items" may show that Jomhoorieslami writers tend to go to greater lengths establishing coherence in the text, hence providing more guidance for the reader to comprehend the purpose of the text.

However, kayhan writers remain slightly more faithful to the involvement of the reader in the text (more use of interactional resources), that is, the writers in this newspaper are inclined to have a closer association with the reader. It is likely the predominance of this feature in Persian can somehow compensate for the decreased utilization of ‘interactive elements’, hence striking the balance between the textual and interpersonal functions of the language.

	T	Fm	En	Ev	Co	H	Bo	Am	Eng	Sm	Total
kayhan	0.9	0.50	0.46	0.87	0.75	0.63	0.03	0.07	0.1	0.30	4.88
Jomhoorieslami	1.62	0.64	0.38	0.62	0.8	0.27	0.63	0.13	0.03	0.33	5.45
t-tests	10.86	4.45	0.30	4.56	9.55	10.79	7.57	2.97	6.84	4.22	6.21

Table 3: The detailed analysis of metadiscourse subcategories in each group

Furthermore, it is revealed below (Table 3) that kayhan writers assume the second place for ‘evidential’ whereas Jomhoorieslami writers relegate ‘evidential’ down to the fifth position. Likewise, the first newspaper writers makes equal use of ‘code glosses’ and ‘hedges’, both appearing in the third position while non-natives separates the two, with ‘code glosses’ ranking second and ‘hedges’ standing eighth. The juxtaposition of the two in Persian seems well justified. Since code glosses are supposed to provide interpretation for the findings, the kayhan writers have taken cautionary measures so as not to sound biased, by using the same amount of hedging to soften the force of their interpretation. On the contrary, Jomhoorieslami writers at the same time have offered more comments (use of more code glosses) and have dared to be less conservative by using less hedging. Another feature which also stands out between the two groups is the cautious employment of ‘boosters’ (0.03 %) appearing in the tenth place by kayhan writers and the larger use of that subcategory (0.63%), occurring in the third place by Jomhoorieslami writers, again demonstrating more involvement and stronger position of the writer in second group texts. Jomhoorieslami writers’ increased use of boosters can indicate that they consider the findings of their research as largely monolithic and reliable while kayhan writers exercise conservatism, leaving their findings to be interpreted by the audience.

On the whole, the results show that non-native writers have used metadiscourse elements more, and t-tests show that the differences are statistically significant for all subcategories except for ‘endophoric markers’. Jomhoorieslami writers’ larger reliance on the metadiscourse elements cannot always be taken as a positive indication of facilitating communication particularly if they want to write in a different language for readers of linguistically disparate backgrounds (Martin, 2003). On the contrary, the relatively higher use of metadiscourse may affect the preciseness and conciseness of propositional relationships, making them subject to extreme subjective interpretations by speakers of another language.

Conclusion

According to what has been discussed in the paper:

- (a) The elements of moment- by- moment pattern are attributed to participants in the text, those participants including the writer and reader.
- (b) Participants attribution permits the recognition of the interweaving of different and co- existing patterns.
- (c) The writer both reflects and signals to the reader the coherence to be detected between these sentences.
- (d) By metadiscourse resources which are based on textual interaction between writer and reader, Hyland and Tse clearly sets out his own approach along with key concepts and analytical technique.
- (e) The approach shows how much these different texts have in common with each other and argues that in the interaction between the writer and the reader, the reader has as much power as the writer.
- (f) The exact nature of this interaction is a central issue in text and discourse analysis. Text organization analysis of the present study indicated that most writers who used metadiscourse in their writings can assist readers the best to understanding. Generally speaking, both writers employed more metadiscourse. In the era of dialogue among civilizations, it should be kept in mind that as Yarmohammadi (2004) mentions, meaning comes from culture, and there is a mutual and indirect relationship between language and culture. We can not create an effective dialogue with people in other languages without having knowledge of the organization used in those languages. The finding patterns in texts are a matter of interpretation by the reader, making use of clues and signals provided by the author (McCarthy, 1991).

The results of this study suggest that the use of metadiscourse in Persian articles written by two groups in two newspapers may reflect the conventions each discourse community has to rely on. That is, metadiscourse provides a link between texts and community cultures, defining the rhetorical context which is created to conform to the expectations of the audience for whom the text is written. As Hyland (2004) concludes, the importance of metadiscourse lies in the part it has in explicating the context for interpretation, revealing one way in which *acts of communication* define and maintain social groups. The observed differences between the two groups go contrary to the idea of the universal discourse propounded by Widdowson (1979). Thus, on the basis of these findings, various discourse communities may need to opt for one or another rhetorical pattern in the case of having certain readership. As a case in point, the first group writers addressing native Persian readers *may* need to tone down their overuse of interactive and scale up their underuse of interactional metadiscourse elements in order to arrive at a balanced view of communication based on the observed standards.

Thus one important implication of the present study for prospective writers can be the fact that Persian genre represents a so-called writer-oriented or viewed from the opposite angle, reader responsible genre in comparison with non-native writers. Of course, it is very important to notice that writer or reader responsibility is a relative feature. The findings show that the two groups studied here can be considered as indicating that metadiscourse is a stylistic device representing a socio-cultural rhetoric as well. This finding reaffirms the position, already taken by Hyland (2004), that effective writing in different cultures involves a different culture-oriented deployment of resources to represent text and reader. To elaborate, it needs to be stated that language utilizes certain linguistic forms and conventions which are encoded by the socio-cultural system of communication (Halliday, 1994). That is, all language use is a social and communicative act in which mutual cooperation and assistance are provided between the producer and receiver of the language to exchange information.

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