

Evaluativeness in Argumentative texts

Marwah Ghassan *

Salem Yahya Fathi **

تاريخ القبول: 2021/9/4

تاريخ التقديم: 2021/7/21

1. Abstract

This study shows how evaluativeness plays an important role in argumentative text. It aims at revealing the levels of argumentative text i.e., micro level and macro level that go hand in hand to create argumentative text. Micro level refers to evaluative elements (verbs, collocations, conjunctive and modality) that unfold the text producer's attitude towards certain subject matter, whereas macro level refers to the strategy (counter- argumentation and through argumentation) that contributes to the macro structure of the argumentative text. Thus, the focus of an argumentative text is on the evaluation of relations between concepts. The basic elements of this type are conceptual, expository and evaluative.

Keywords: Evaluativeness, Argumentative text, Micro level, Macro level.

2. Evaluativeness

Hunston and Thompson (2000:5) define evaluation as “the broad cover term for the expression of the speaker or writer’s attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about”. They state that using evaluation is very important in interpersonal aspect of the discourse as it has three functions in the text: (1) to express the opinion of the writer/speaker, and in doing so the value system of that person and their community are reflected (2) to construct and maintain relations between the speaker or writer and the hearer or i.e., this function is related to manipulation or persuasion and hedging which make others accept the writer’s point of view) (3) to organize the discourse (ibid: 6). Other linguists and discourse analysts (Hoye,1996: Boliver ,2001) follow Hunston and

* Master student/Dept. of Translation/College of Arts/University of Mosul.

* Prof / Dept. of Translation / College of Arts / University of Mosul.

Evaluativeness in Argumentative texts

Marwah Ghassan & Salem Yahya Fathi

Thompson's (2000) concept of evaluation in discourse which indicates that evaluation helps to understand the social interaction of the text and to recognize how the writer uses it to persuade the readers of his intention. Finally, it is to be noted that many linguists and researchers study this concept and they used different terms for it. For (Halliday 1985), it is "attitude", stance (Biber et al. 1999, Hyland 2005), appraisal (Martin 2005), metadiscourse (Hyland 1998)" which all describe the linguistic resources that express the text producer's attitude.

3. Characteristics of Argumentative text

Argumentative text is defined as "those utilized to promote the acceptance or evaluation of certain beliefs or ideas as true vs. false, or positive vs. negative" (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981:184). Conceptual relations such as reason, significance, volition, value and opposition should be frequent, the surface text will always show cohesive devices for emphasis and insistence, (e.g. recurrence, parallelism and paraphrase) (ibid). The norms of argumentation are basically universal (H; Toulmin, 1958; Alexander, 1969), yet the strategies, rhetorical devices and formats for developing argument tend to vary from culture to culture. Each culture, according to Burtoff (1988) and Hatim (1991), has its own preferred ways and tactics of obtaining the approbation of an audience. If we accept this generalization, we can deal with an argumentative text as a social, intellectual, and verbal activity taking place between speaker/writer and audience (listener/reader). Most argumentative texts weigh the pros and cons of the issue, but simpler argumentation may restrict themselves to merely one side of the debate. The argumentation in these simpler texts thus it is linear in nature, while more complex argumentation can be expected to be hierarchical and dialectical. In any argumentative text, however, the language used by the text producer, will reflect his personal views on the subject matter (Fathi, 2006:24).

Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (2004:1) defined argumentation as "verbal, social, and rational activity that attempts at convincing a reasonable critic of the acceptability of a standpoint by putting forward a series of propositions justifying or refuting the proposition expressed in the standpoint".

Discourse aspects can be affected by argumentation as pointed by (Malcolm ,1987: 335) that “argumentation and rhetoric are not the components of legal and political discourse alone, rather argumentation is a part of many writings, even in natural sciences and economics, where observation objectivity is the dominant norm”. The case for the presence of argumentation in science is that information, knowledge and ideas are just as argumentative, and arguable, as beliefs and hopes.

4. Micro level and Macro level of argumentative text

In this study, the analysis of argumentative texts operates at two levels: the macro level and the micro level as illustrated in the following diagram:

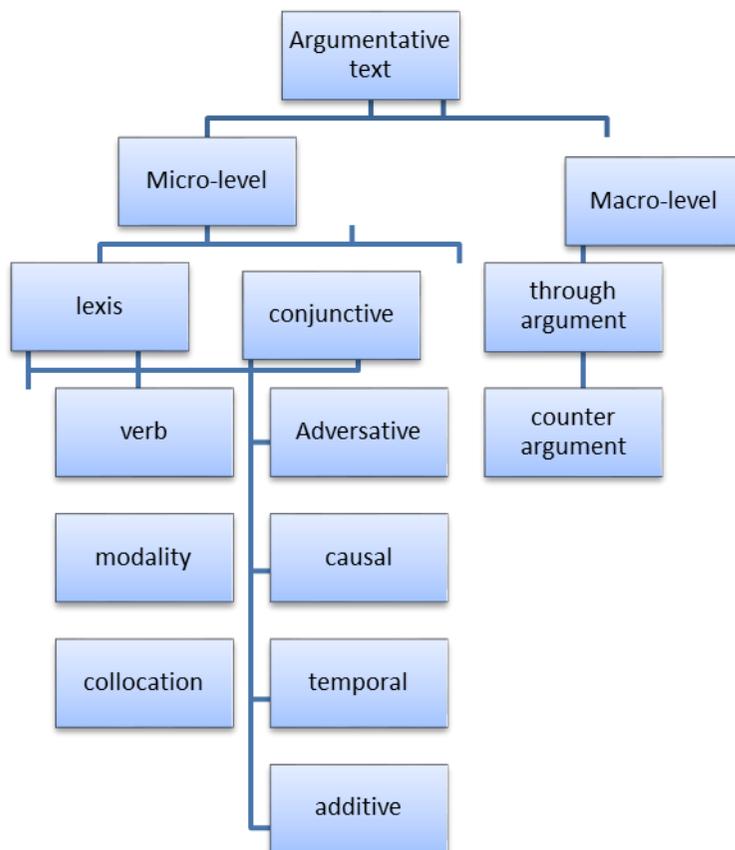


Table (1) “Two Levels of Argumentative Text”

4.1. Micro level of argumentative text

The micro level of argumentation consists of linguistic elements (lexis and conjunctions) which are concerned mainly with signaling the ideas expressed within paragraph boundaries. Micro elements in a text serve the purpose of the way the macro-structure are organized and it refers to the attitude of the writer (how the attitude is encoded and operates in the linguistic elements).

The linguistics elements at micro level express the interpersonal meaning of the text such as (verbs, modality, collocation, and conjunctives) which have been studied by many researchers (e.g., Chilton 2004, Simon-Vandenberg 1996). Biber et al. (1999) and Biber (2006) argue that the intention of the writer can be realized through linguistic features (micro level elements) which he called "value-laden words and grammatical structures". He indicates, "the existence of stance is inferred from the use of an evaluative lexical item" (Biber, *ibid.* :89).

4.1.1. Lexical verbs

Brown (2004: 368) defines lexical verbs as an open-class of verbs that contains all verbs except auxiliary ones, and they indicate the main action of the subject taking place in any sentence and therefore the intention of the sentence becomes clear. Lexical verbs are the doing verbs or action words that are carry the semantic meaning and represent the real world. There are different classifications of lexical verbs (*ibid.*: 398) as: transitive and intransitive verbs ,linking ,stative and dynamic verbs. In terms of the relation of lexical verbs with evaluativeness and writer's intentionality, Vanderveken (1990:17) says that the writer expresses his intentionality by using verbs in different degrees of strength to persuade the reader, for example strong verbs as " order " ,"command", and " insist " ,while the second group intermediate verbs as " ask " , and "request " and the third is called weak verbs as "suggest" , " advise " , and " recommend". As for argumentative texts, politician writers use verbs to express their attitude i.e. they use evaluative positive verbs to express their actions while they use neutral and negative verbs to emphasize the opponents ones (Van Dijk, 1997: 32).

4.1.2. Conjunctives

The meaning of conjunctives has been viewed from different perspectives. Halliday and Hasan (1976: 226,303,and 321) define it as: “It is on the borderline of grammatical and lexical cohesion”. Conjunctive relations are not “phoric” but are representatives of semantic and pragmatic links between the elements that constitute a text. Contrary to other cohesive, types, conjunctive elements are not in themselves cohesive, but they do express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse”. By this definition, they claim that conjunctives have textual meaning which reflect the semantic content of conjoined propositions .Halliday and Hasan also argue that conjunctives have external and internal meanings. External meaning is “inherent in the phenomena that language is used to talk about” while internal meaning is inherent in the communication process (ibid: 240-241). In other words, internal meaning represents the speaker’s attitude his stamp on the situation”. Therefore, external meaning expresses propositional relations and our experience of the outside world (the usual domain of the semantics), whereas internal meaning encodes speech roles and conveys the attitude of message (the usual domain of pragmatics). For example, the relation is a temporal one in the following pair of examples from Halliday and Hasan (1976: 240-241).

- “First, he took a piece of string and tied it carefully round the neck of the bottle. Next, he passed the other end over a branch and weighted it down with a stone”.
- “First, he has no experience of this kind of work. Next, he showed no sign of being willing to learn”.

In the first example, the relation is temporal between two events while, in the second one, it is between two steps in the argument. (Fathi, 1993: 21).

Dik (1968) argues that conjunctives themselves have ‘semantic values’ which restrict what can be bound. Gunter (1984) claims that conjunctions impose meaning between propositions. Zamel (1983) classifies meanings of conjunctives according to their grammatical function, i.e. coordinating conjunctions (e.g. and, but ,or) ,subordinating conjunctions (e.g. because ,although) and

Evaluativeness in Argumentative texts

Marwah Ghassan & Salem Yahya Fathi

conjunctive adverbs (e.g. on the other hand , however). Van Dijk (1997:14) prefers the term "connective" rather than "conjunction" as he believes that natural language used not only grammatical conjunction but also connectives from other categories. Then, he explains that conjunctives “determine the acceptability of a pair of connected sentences” i.e. they serve to bring the underlying semantic relationships to the surface, thus making it convenient for the reader to perceive them (ibid, 1997:47)”. Furthermore, Baker (1992:190) states that conjunctives have an important role in the comprehension of the text, she indicates that:

“Unlike reference, substitution, and ellipsis, the use of conjunction does not instruct the reader to supply missing information either by looking for it elsewhere in the text or by filling structural slots. Instead, conjunction signals the way the writer wants the reader to relate what is about to be said to what has been said before”.

Following Halliday and Hasan (1976), there are four main types of conjunctives: adversative, causal, additive, and temporal.

1-Adversative conjunctives

The basic meaning of adversative relations is “unexpectedness”. Halliday and Hasan (1977: 190) define it as “contrary to the expectation set up by the environment”. In this sense, adversative conjunctives signal contrasting and/or unanticipated ideas. i.e. they link logical ideas that have a complex underlying structure. Adversative conjunctives are essential devices employed by the text producer in argumentation. Indeed, they are at the heart of argumentative discourse. Many researchers pay attention to the adversative relation especially the concessive one as (Werlich ,1976; Fahnestock, 1993; Hatim 1985). Klein (cited in Primatarova- Miltscheva, 1986) tries to provide an explanation of the argumentative background of the concessive relation by making use of Toulmin’s (1958) model of argumentation.

2 -Causal Conjunctions

The basic function of causal conjunctives is to lay the foundation for reasoning which aims to support an argument developed by the text producer. The producer of argumentative texts usually employs these conjunctives in order to justify his claim. He may give explanations by referring to causes and reasons for some

facts, or he may want to prove falsity or truthfulness of a proposition. Some linguists (van Dijk, 1977 ;Fahnestock, 1983 ; Sloan, 1983) make a distinction between two main groups of the causal type .The first group they call a "premise" where a second textual unit can be related to the one before it as a reason, a cause , or an explanation. The relation between the two textual units can be linked by conjunctive ties like" because", "since" or "for". The second group is "conclusion" where a second textual unit can follow as a sequence, inference, or entailment from the one before it. The relation between the two textual units can be indicated by conjunctive connectives like "so", "therefore", or "hence".

3-Additive Conjunctives

The basic function of the additive relation is to inform the reader or the listener that the ideas presented have positive connections in some way. A second idea can be signaled by an additive conjunctive as "there is yet another point to be taken in conjunction with the previous one" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 246). The additive relation can be thought of as expected or continuative in the discourse compared to, for example, the adversative relation, especially if there is nothing in the preceding discourse that can imply otherwise.

4-Temporal Conjunctives

The basic function of temporal conjunctives is to sequence events in the text in order of time: one relation is subsequent to the other. The presence of a temporal conjunctive suggests time order of events, actions, or states. This relation is usually presented in narrative texts or in instructional texts. (Fathi, 1993: 67).

4.1.3. Collocation

Firth (1957) discusses the term collocation and provides the example "dark night"; he claims that "one of the meanings of the night is its collocability with dark, and one of the meaning of dark is its collocability with night"(Brashi, 2005:14). Firth mentions that collocability of the word is a part of its mbelloweaning ;he says "you shall know a word by the company it keeps" (Palmer,1967:76). Halliday and Hasan (1976: 281) refer to collocation as " the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur". Most of these

Evaluativeness in Argumentative texts

Marwah Ghassan & Salem Yahya Fathi

specific lexical items are restricted because they are not connected to their meanings ,but to their lexical environment as indicated by many scholars such as (Lyons, 1977: 262; Palmer, 1980:-79; Radford, 1988: 370).

Carter (1987:60) defines collocation as "the co-occurrence of nouns, adjectives, verbs or adverbs, such as strict rules (rather than rigid), and he pricked his finger (rather than pierced or punctured). Collocation, also has a major role in creating the text and in the process of communication according to Newmark (1988: 213) who argues that "If grammar is the bones of a text, collocations are the nerves, more subtle and multiple and specific in denoting meaning, and lexis is the flesh". Newmark (1988:212) classifies collocations into three types as illustrated below which are adopted in this study as they are the most common types of collocations:

- 1- Adjective+noun: e.g. heavy labour.
- 2- Noun + noun: e.g. nerve cell.
- 3- Verb + object (which is normally noun that denotes an action),e.g. pay a visit .

Newmark (1991: 147) also, states that collocation is one of the lexical devices of political language which represents The core of political language that lies in abstract conceptual terms. Hatim and Mason (1990) and Hoey (1991) argue that collocation expressions extending across longer stretches of text play a part in creating genres and registers. Sinclair (1991:121) also points out that collocation is "the concept of word-co-occurrence, where certain words appear predictably next to or within a certain number of words". Baker(1992: 48) claims that collocation is the arbitrary and independent relationship between lexical items. Hence, Collocation is one of the important lexical constituents of the text as it reflects the natural language. It is regarded as a significant area for translators and language learners (see Stubbs, 1995: 245) .Therefore, Lin (1998) states that knowledge about valid combinations of words is required in order to generate a text. The text producer employs collocation to strengthen the text's cohesive quality and to be conciseness in expression and preciseness in meaning, thus the density of ideas is increased in the text and the concepts are revealed clearly (Fathi,2007: 32) .

4.1.4. Modality

Halliday (1970:189) defines modality as “the speaker's assessment of the probability of what he is saying”. Similarly, Lyons (1978: 452) says that in linguistics modality can be seen as “the cover term for the ways that are available to a speaker within a language for expressing opinion or attitude”. Quirk et al (1985:219) state that the writer uses modality to express his judgment of the certainty or likelihood of the proposition in the sentence. Palmer (1986: 14) mentions that modality expressions reflect the meaning of the subjective domain. Other scholars like Bybee and Fleischman (1995: 2) describe modality as “the addition of a supplement or overlay of meaning to the most neutral semantic value of the proposition of an utterance”. This additional meaning reflects the opinion of the writer towards the probability of what he says (Aziz, 1989:114). However, modality choices for Van Dijk (1997: 27) have political and persuasive function.

Most authors (Halliday 1970; Lyons 1977; Coates 1983; and Palmer 1986, among others) classify modality into two types which are Deontic modality that expresses the “necessity of acts performed by morally responsible agents” while, epistemic modality concerns “the expression of truth relativized to a speaker; it involves knowledge and beliefs” (Lyons 1977: 793-823). In other words, Deontic modals represent the efforts that the speaker makes to impose the state of affairs in a single choice (Chung and Timberlake 1985), while epistemic modals convey meanings on the certainty/uncertainty scale, i.e. the element of doubt is found in presence of epistemic modality as pointed by Halliday (1985: 358). He also points that modality refers to degrees of probability, “e.g., possibly, probably, certainly,” and degrees of usuality, “e.g., sometimes, usually, always,” which Halliday terms as “modalization” (ibid.: 88). Høye (1996: 42) asserts that the complete proposition meaning is affected by epistemic and deontic modals. He (ibid.) defines epistemic as “concerned with matters of knowledge or belief on which basis speakers express their judgments about state of affairs, events or actions” and Deontic modals as “necessity of acts in terms of which the speaker gives permission or lays and obligation for the performance of actions at

Evaluativeness in Argumentative texts

Marwah Ghassan & Salem Yahya Fathi

some time in the future". Hyland (1998: 437) distinguishes the relation between hedging and epistemic modality when he includes " the means by which writers can present a proposition as an opinion rather than a fact: items are only hedges in their epistemic sense, and only then when they mark uncertainty". Hedging lessens the text producer's commitment to the truthfulness of what he/she says. Thus, the STs reveal that the text producer makes use of some types of hedges such as modals (may, might, would, could) and adverbs such as (possibly and perhaps).

Likewise, Biber et al.'s (1999: 485) categorize modality into intrinsic and extrinsic modality: the intrinsic modality (deontic) refers to humans (or other agents) control over actions and states, which are modals of permission, obligation, and volition (or intention). Extrinsic modality (epistemic) is used to refer that humans cannot control over events and actions; it includes possibility ,necessity and prediction modals which are used to certainty and likelihood assessments (e.g., I think you **might** be wrong) (ibid., p. 973; bold in original). In modern linguistics the epistemic modality is "knowledge –based" while deontic is action-based" as indicated by). Halliday (1994: 358) and Eggins (2004: 173) propose that modality is classified according to the value or degree that is set on the modal judgment into three levels: high, median, and low. Epistemic certainty conveys the highest degree of confidence based on the speaker's knowledge on the proposition (e.g . The food is certainly well-cooked. It has been boiling for twenty minutes). Epistemic probability conveys the median degree of confidence based on the speaker's knowledge on the proposition (e.g. It is raining heavily and so many students are likely to arrive late). Epistemic possibility conveys the lowest degree of confidence based on the speaker's knowledge on the proposition (e.g. Maybe, he comes to her house today .whereas, Deontic necessity conveys the highest degree of obligation of a command (e.g. You must submit your assignment next week by the latest). Deontic advisability conveys the median degree of obligation of a command (e.g. You ought to examine your vehicle before you go far. Deontic possibility conveys the lowest degree of obligation of a command so that it implies the sense of permission (e.g. You may bring your text

books in the exam room).(ibid, cited in Suhadi,2012). Generally, modality is realized by various lexical and grammatical means as illustrated in the following:

1- Modal lexical devices

Modality can be expressed by various lexical items as (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs). Brewer (1987: 27) states that some nouns have modality meaning such as (obligation, belief, possibility, certainty, probability, ability, etc.). By the same token, the nouns commonly used to express modality are (must, chance, certainty, likelihood, possibility, probability, determination etc..) (Suhadi,2012). Downing and Locke (2002: 384) state that certain adjectives such as (possible, certain, probable, necessary, etc.) can be considered as modal adjectives. In addition, there are some verbs expressing modality termed by Decklerk (2011:41) as intentional verbs as (believe, suppose, think, dream, etc.) and attitudinal verbs as (intend, wish, hope, expect, etc.). Finally, evaluative adverbs have modality meaning which reveal the attitude of the writer as indicated by Bonyadi(2011:7), for example (foolishly, tragically, substantially, seriously, frighteningly, etc.) .These adverbs are usually used in "editorials".

Biber (2006: 92-93) classifies modal adverbs into three semantic categories:

1. Epistemic adverbs: express the extent of certainty or reliability the writer's proposition; (subdivided into certainty adverbs such as definitely, obviously and likelihood adverbs such as apparently, possibly)
2. Attitudinal adverbs: express personal attitudes, feelings, or value judgments of entities or propositions (e.g., conveniently, hopefully)
3. Style adverbs: represent the way of information presentation (comment on the communication itself) (e.g., according to, honestly). The following table shows the categories mentioned above:

<p>Epistemic stance adverbials:</p> <p>Certainty: actually, always, certainly, definitely, indeed, inevitably, in fact, never, of course, obviously, really, undoubtedly, without doubt, no doubt.</p> <p>Likelihood: apparently, evidently, kind of, in most cases/instances, perhaps, possibly, predictably, probably, roughly, sort of, maybe.</p>
<p>Attitudinal adverbials: amazingly, astonishingly, conveniently, curiously, hopefully, even worse, fortunately, importantly, ironically, rightly, sadly, surprisingly, unfortunately.</p>
<p>Style of stance adverbials: according to, confidentially, frankly, generally, honestly, mainly, technically, truthfully, typically, reportedly, primarily, usually.</p>

Table 1: Common stance adverbials in English (Biber: 2006: 92)

2- Modal auxiliaries

Since 1950 modal auxiliaries (will / would, can /could, shall /should, must, may /might and ought.) have been studied by many linguists like Chomsky (1965) who used the symbol (M) to distinct modals from other types of verbs (Al-Harbi, 2007:4) .Later on, (Omar, 2009:52) introduced a proposal dividing the sentence into modality including(tense, mood , aspect, and negation) and proposition including (tense-less set of relationships such as verbs, nouns, and embedded sentences). Leech (1971: 202) proposed that “a structural and componential description can go a long way towards explaining the use of the modal auxiliaries, even though psychological and situational pressures (modesty, politeness, irony, etc.) conspire to strengthen or weaken, to widen or narrow their (modal) use in certain contexts”. Palmer (1974:100-102) claims that the meaning of modal auxiliary is determined according to the context in which it is said; therefore he classified modals as “subject oriented as (will and can) and discourse oriented as (shall, may)”. For Biber et al.(1999: 980) the most grammatical devices which are used to express modality are the modal auxiliaries as the writer uses modals in the sentence not only to express proposition but also to encode his judgment towards proposition either epistemically or deontically ,for example the modal (could) in the following

example “Without international collaboration there **could** be interference and general chaos”. Here “could” a modal verb that functions as an epistemic modal auxiliary that reflects the author’s assessment of the likelihood of proposition that there is a possibility of interference and general chaos (ibid: 973; italics and bold in original). Downing and Locke (2002:382) state that modal auxiliaries express modality as a semantic category that deals with notions such as (obligation, permission ,possibility, probability, volition, prediction etc.as illustrated in the following examples(ibid:379-385).

1. The key must be here somewhere. It may be in your pocket. (Epistemic certainty, possibility modality).
2. You must go now; the others may stay. (Deontic modality)
3. We can take the early train.(Epistemic possibility)
4. He could be there by now. (tentative possibility)
5. I shall probably be back before you (prediction)

4.2. Macro level of argumentation

The macro level of the text is mainly concerned with the global structure of the text (Van Dijk ,1982: 41). It is the higher-level of semantic or conceptual structures which organize the micro structure and the theme (topic) of the text. Stratmann(1982) states that the content of a argumentative text can be categorized into three macro categories: the first contains all information related to claim set forth in the text, the second relates to all information related to the evidence (data) brought in to support or to refute the claim while ,the third deals with all that can be included under the concluding part of the text .These three macro –categories can be reduced to three macro –structures :the claim, the data and the conclusion. Fathi (1993) points out that in argumentation the text is organized with hierarchically ordered paragraphs. This organization of paragraphs contribute to the development of the text and even the title can reveal how the text is organized and the intention of the writer. Farghal et al (2015:110) describe the macro structure as it is “concerned with how content is mapped onto the text. The way it is mapped activates in the TL audience (and the SL audience) text-experiential strategies which function as a frame of reference for

Evaluativeness in Argumentative texts

Marwah Ghassan & Salem Yahya Fathi

judging the communicative acceptability of the SL text (and the TL version)".

Generally, argumentative texts are of two types (Hatim,2001): through argumentation and counter-argumentation. The structure of through argumentation is as follows:

- ↓Thesis cited to be supported
- ↓Substantiation
- ↓Conclusion

Fig (1) The structure of through argumentative texts (Hatim 2001:39)

That is to say, "through argumentative process" includes only one predominant voice, which is the voice of the writer. In short, the opposite voice is absent. There is no reference to any opposite view whereas counter-argumentation structure is as follows:

- ↓Thesis cited to be opposed
- ↓Opposition
- ↓Substantiation of counter-claim
- ↓Conclusion

Fig (2) The structure of counter-argumentative texts (Hatim 2001:40)

Furthermore, Hatim (1997) distinguishes between two subtypes within counter-argumentative texts. (1) The balance argument where the producer has the option of signaling the contrastive shift between what may be viewed as a claim and a counter-claim either explicitly (by using an explicit adversative conjunctive such as 'but', 'however', etc.) or implicitly (by using no explicit adversative conjunctive, but rather by using a clause to express the contrast). (2) The lopsided argument (The Explicit Concessive) in which the counter-claim is anticipated by introducing an explicit concessive (e.g. while, although, despite). In general, the purpose of counter argumentation is to persuade the reader by using certain conventions (Eisa, 2008: 4).

Hatim (1997:133) claims that there is a noticeable tendency in English towards counter-argumentation, but still through argumentation is evident, whereas Modern Standard Arabic favors through argumentation, but still counter-argumentation is evident, but when this occurs, explicit concessive such as 'although' is used.

In Arabic the counter argumentation evidence is traced back to the fourteenth century when the Arab rhetoricians and philosophers like Ibn Rushd, Al Ghazali, Ibn Seena, and Ibn Qudama, who were engaged in a systematic philosophical argumentation with each other (Abbadi,2006 cited in Eisa,2008). Cultural context has the main role in the preference for any of the above types. In other words, each culture prefers certain conventions of written texts (Connor, 1996). Hatim also states that “factors affecting types of argumentation range from politeness to ideology and power and sometimes aspects of social life as political system or the nature and role of family” “This may be what affects an Arabic speaker /writer’s preference!”.

5. Conclusion

All in all, evaluativeness is an important feature of argumentation that is used by the text producer to convince and change the attitude or stance of the reader. Therefore, the task of analyst to perceive and recognize this feature in order to grasp the intended meaning. Argumentative text has certain strategies which are different from other text types. These strategies organize the whole structure of the text as (main claim, support or refute the claim, conclusion). Hence, micro level items in a text serve the purposes of the way the macro structures are organized. If an analyst renders these micro elements inappropriately, the macro structure of argumentative text will be blurred. In this sense, micro level and macro level go hand in hand.

References

- Al Harbi, A. (2007). Verbal Modals. Humanities. Vol.xiv. Available from: <http://www.uqu.sa/majalat/humanities/vol14/f9.htm>. [Accessed 13 September 2013]
- Alexander, P. (1969). An Introduction to Logic: The Criticism of Arguments. New York: Shocken
- Aziz, Y. (1989). A Contrastive Grammar of English and Arabic. Mosul: University of Mosul.
- Baker, M. (1992). In Other Words: A Course Books on Translation .London: Routledge.

Evaluativeness in Argumentative texts

Marwah Ghassan & Salem Yahya Fathi

- Biber, D. (2006). *University language: a corpus-based study of spoken and written registers*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. London: Longman.
- Bolívar, A. (2001) „The negotiation of evaluation in written text.“ In: Scott, M., Thompson, G. (eds) *Patterns of Text in Honour of Michael Hoey*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins. 129-258
- Bonyadi, A. (2011). *Linguistic Manifestations of Modality in Newspaper Editorials*. Available from: [http://dx.doi.org/ 10.5296/ijl.v3i1.799](http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ijl.v3i1.799) [Accessed 13 September 2013]
- Brashi, A S (2005). *Arabic Collocations :Implication for Translation*.
- Brewer, N. M. (1987). *Grammar& Logic*. Netherlands: Mouton and Co printers.
- Brown, G. (2004). *The Grammar of English Grammars*. Prabhat Prakashan: Oxford University Press.
- Burtoff, M. S. (1988). *A Comparative Study of Japanese, Arabic, and Native Speaker: The Logical Organization of Written Expository Discourse in English Strategies*. (Unpublished Ph.D. Dissertation). Georgetown University.
- Bybee, Joan & Suzanne Fleischman (eds.) (1995). *Modality in Grammar and Discourse*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins
- Carter, R. (1987). *Vocabulary: Applied Linguistic Perspectives*. London: Allen and Unwin.
- Chilton, P. (2004). *Analyzing Political Discourse: Theory and Practice*. USA: Routledge.
- Chomsky, N.(1965). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambri, Mass: The MIT Press.
- Chung, S., Timberlake, A. (1985) „Tense, aspect and mood.“ In: Shopen, T. (ed.) *Language Typology and Syntactic Description, Volume 3 Grammatical Categories and the Lexicon*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 202-258.
- Coates, J. (1983). *The Semantics of the Modal Auxiliaries*, London: Croom Helm.
- Connor, U. (1996) *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-Cultural Aspects of Second Language Writing*. Cambridge, UK:Cambridge University Press.

- de Beaugrande, R. and Dressler, W. (1981), Introduction to Text Linguistics. London: Longman.
- Decklerck, R. (2011). The Definition of Modality. In: Adeline Patard & Frank Brisard eds. *Cognitive Approaches to Tense, Aspect, and Epistemic Modality*. Vol.xxix. Amsterdam/ Philadelphia: John Benjamin's Publishing Co. pp.21-44.
- Dik, S.(1968). Coordination. Amsterdam: North-Holland.
- Downing and Locke. (2002). *A University Course in English Grammar*. USA & Canada: Routledge.
- Eisa, S.(2008). *DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF ARGUMENTATION FROM AN ENGLISH/ARABIC TRANSLATION PERSPECTIVE*. M.A. THESIS. Sharjah, UAE.
- Eggins, S. (2004) *An Introduction to Systemic-Functional Linguistics*. London. Continuum.
- Fahnestock, J.(1983). "Semantic and Lexical Coherence". College Composition and Communication, (34): 400-16
- Farghal, M. et al ,(2015). *Papers in Arabic/English Translation Studies 1.An Applied Perspective*. Jordanian Translators' Association(JTA).
- Fathi, S. Y. (2005). *Translation of Meta-discourse in Argumentative Political Texts from English into Arabic*. Mosul: university of Mosul. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis.
- Fathi, S(1993). *An investigation into the effect of mistranslating Arabic Conjunctives on the Typological Focus of Argumentative Texts*.(Unpublished M.A. Thesis),University of Yarmouk.
- Fathi, S.(2007). *Student's Problems in Translating Collocations from Arabic into English*. ADAB AL-RAFIDAYN ,vol. (45),pp27-48
- Firth,J. (1957). *Papers in Linguistics (1934-1951)*, London Oxford University Press.
- Gunter, R. (1984). "The conjunctive system of English :A study of form and meaning : Language Sciences, (6): 1-26.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1970) „Functional diversity in language as seen from a consideration of modality and mood in English.“ *Foundations of Language* 6, 322-361
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1985) *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Evaluativeness in Argumentative texts

Marwah Ghassan & Salem Yahya Fathi

- Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). An introduction to functional grammar (2nd ed.). London: Edward Arnold
- Hatim, B (1997). Communication Across Cultures. Translation Theory and Contrastive Text Linguistics. Exeter: University of Exeter Press.
- Hatim, B (1991). "The Pragmatics of Argumentation in Arabic: The Rise and Fall of a Text Type". Text, 11, pp.189-199.
- Hatim, B. (1985). "A Text Linguistic Model for the Analysis of Discourse Errors: Contributions from Arabic Linguistics". (Unpublished Manuscript), pp.1-13.
- Hatim, B. (2001) Teaching and researching translation. London. Pearson Education
- Hatim, B., & Mason, I. (1990). Discourse and the Translator. London: Longman.
- Hoey, M. (1991) Patterns of Lexis in Text. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hoey, M. (1996) „A clause-relational analysis of selected dictionary entries.“ In: CaldasCoulthard, C. R., Coulthard, M. (eds) Texts and Practices. London, New York: Routledge. 150-165.
- Hoyer, L. (1996). Adverbs and modality in English. London & New York: Longman
- Hunston, S. & Thompson, G. (eds.) 2000. Evaluation in Text: Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Hyland, K. (1998). "Persuasion and Context: The Pragmatics of Academic Metadiscourse". Journal of Pragmatics, 30
- Hyland, K. (1998): Hedging in Scientific Research Articles. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: a model of interaction in academic discourse. Discourse Studies, 7(2), pp. 173-191.
- Leech, G. (1971). Towards A Semantic Description of English. 2 nd impression. London: William Clowes and Sons Limited.
- Lin, D. (1998). Automatic retrieval and Clustering of similar words. In Proceedings of COLING-ACL 98. Montreal. Canada
- Lyons, J. (1977). Semantics. London: Cambridge University
- Lyons, J. (1978). Semantics. Vol. II. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Malcolm, L.(1987). "What Rules Govern Tense usage in Scientific Articles" English for specific Purposes.6(1): 31-43.
- Martin, J. R., & White, P. R. R. (2005). The language of evaluation: appraisal in English. London and New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Newmark, P. (1988). A Textbook of Translation. London: Prentice Hall.
- Omar, A. S. (2009). Modality in English and Arabic, A Contrastive Study. University of Baghdad. Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis.
- Palmer, F.R. (1974). The English Verb. London: William Clowes & Sons LTD.
- Palmer, F.(1981). Semantics, Cambridge University Press.
- Palmer, F.R. (1986). Mood and Modality, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Palmer, F.R., (1967). Semantics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Primatarova-Miltscheva, A.(1986). "Sequences with Concessive, Adversative and Restrictive Sentences and Clauses, and the Simulation of Dialogical Argumentation Patterns in Monological Discourse". In F.H. van Eemeren et al. (eds.)Argumentation: Perspective and Approaches(Vol, 3a).Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Foris Publications. PP. 43-51.
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. New York: Longman.
- Radford, A. (1988). Transformational Grammar: A First Course, Cambridge University Press .
- Simon-Vandenberg, A. M. (1996). "Image-Building Through Modality: The Case of Political Interviews". Discourse and Society, 7, pp.389-415.
- Sinclair, J. (1991). Corpus, Concordance, Collocation. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Suhadi, J. (2012). Introduction to english functional grammar. Medan: Islamic University of Sumatera Utara.
- Sloan, G.(1983). "Transitions: Relationships Among T-Units". College Composition and Communication,;(34):447-53.
- Stratmann, J.(1982). "Teaching written Argument: The Significance of Toulmin's layout for Sentence Combining", College English 44(7), 718-33.

Evaluativeness in Argumentative texts

Marwah Ghassan & Salem Yahya Fathi

- Toulmin, S.(1958). The Uses of Argument. Cambridge University Press.
- van Dijk, T. A (1982). "Opinions and Attitudes in Discourse Comprehension". In: J.F. Le Ney, & W. Kintsch (Eds.),
- van Dijk, T. A. (1977). Text and Context. London: Longman
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1997). What is Political Discourse Analysis? Belgian Journal of Linguistics, 11(1), 11-52. <https://doi.org/10.1075/bjl.11.03dij>
- Van Eemeren , F. H & Grootendorst (2004) A systematic theory of argumentation, the pragma-dialectical approach. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Vanderveken, Daniel.1990. Meaning and speech act. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Werlich, E. (1976) A Text Grammar of English. Heidelberg: Quelle & Meyer
- Zamel, V.(1983). "Teaching those missing links in writing". ELT Journal,(37): 22-9

التقييم في النصوص الجدلية

مروة غسان * وسالم يحيى فتحي**

المستخلص

تظهر هذه الدراسة الدور المميز للتقييم في النص الجدلي وتهدف إلى الكشف عن مستويات النص الجدلي أي المستوى الجزئي والمستوى الكلي اللذان يعملان جنباً إلى جنب لإنشاء نص جدلي، والمستوى الجزئي يشير إلى العناصر التقييمية التي تمثل (الأفعال، أدوات الربط، القرائن، الصيغية) التي تتضمن موقف كاتب النص تجاه موضوع معين، بينما يشير المستوى الكلي إلى الاستراتيجية التي تتضمن (الدعم الجدلي أو الإدحاض الجدلي) التي تسهم في البنية الكلية للنص الجدلي، ومن ثم فإن تركيز النص الجدلي ينصب على تقييم العلاقات بين المفاهيم، والعناصر الأساسية من هذا النوع هي تصورية وتفسيرية وتقييمية.

الكلمات المفتاحية: التقييم، نوع النص الجدلي، المستوى الجزئي، المستوى الكلي.

* طالبة ماجستير/ قسم الترجمة/ كلية الآداب/ جامعة الموصل.

** أستاذ/ قسم الترجمة/ كلية الآداب/ جامعة الموصل.